# FlexBASIC

# Introduction

FlexBASIC is the BASIC language support of the fastspin compiler for the Parallax Propeller and Prop2. It is a BASIC dialect similar to FreeBASIC or Microsoft BASIC, but with a few differences. On the Propeller chip it compiles to LMM code (machine language) which runs quite quickly.

fastspin recognizes the language in a file by the extension. If a file has a ".bas" extension it is assumed to be BASIC. Otherwise it is assumed to be Spin.

# Preprocessor

fastspin has a pre-processor that understands basic directives like #include, #define, and#ifdef / #ifndef / #else / #endif.

#### Directives

#### DEFINE

#### #define FOO hello

Defines a new macro FOO with the value hello. Whenever the symbol FOO appears in the text, the preprocessor will substitute hello.

Note that unlike the C preprocessor, this one cannot accept arguments. Only simple defines are permitted.

If no value is given, e.g.

#### #define BAR

then the symbol is defined as the string 1.

#### IFDEF

Introduces a conditional compilation section, which is only compiled if the symbol after the **#ifdef** is in fact defined. For example:

```
#ifdef __P2__
'' propeller 2 code goes here
#else
'' propeller 1 code goes here
#endif
```

# IFNDEF

Introduces a conditional compilation section, which is only compiled if the symbol after the **#ifndef** is *not* defined.

# ELSE

Switches the meaning of conditional compilation.

#### ELSEIFDEF

A combination of **#else** and **#ifdef**.

#### ELSEIFNDEF

A combination of **#else** and **#ifndef**.

#### ERROR

Prints an error message. Mainly used in conditional compilation to report an unhandled condition. Everything after the **#error** directive is printed. Example:

```
#ifndef __P2__
#error This code only works on Propeller 2
#endif
```

#### INCLUDE

Includes a file. The contents of the file are placed in the compilation just as if everything in that file was typed into the original file instead. This is often used

# #include "foo.h"

Included files are searched for first in the same directory as the file that contains the **#include**. If they are not found there, then they are searched for in any directories specified by a -I or -L option on the command line. If the environment variable FLEXCC\_INCLUDE is defined, that gives a directory to be searched after command line options. Finally the path .../include relative to the fastspin executable binary is checked.

#### WARN

#warn prints a warning message; otherwise it is similar to #error.

# UNDEF

Removes the definition of a symbol, e.g. to undefine FOO do:

#undef FOO

# **Predefined Symbols**

There are several predefined symbols:

Symbol	When Defined
propeller	always defined to 1 (for P1) or 2 (for P2)
propeller2	only defined if compiling for Propeller 2
P2	obsolete version ofpropeller2
FLEXBASIC	always defined to the fastspin version number
FASTSPIN	if the fastspin front end is used
SPINCVT	always defined to the fastspin version number
SPIN2PASM	if -asm is given (PASM output) (always defined by fastspin)
SPIN2CPP	if C++ or C is being output (never in fastspin)
cplusplus	if C++ is being output (never in fastspin)

# Language Syntax

#### Comments

Comments start with **rem** or a single quote character, and go to the end of line. Note that you need a space or non-alphabetical character after the **rem**; the word **remark** does not start a comment. The **rem** or single quote character may appear anywhere on the line; it does not have to be the first thing on the line.

There are also multi-line comments, which start with /' and end with '/.

Examples:

```
rem this is a comment
' so is this
print "hello" ' this part is a comment too
/' here is a multi
    line comment '/
```

### Integers

Decimal integers are a sequence of digits, 0-9.

Hexadecimal (base 16) integers start with the sequence "&h", "0h", or "0x" followed by digits and/or the letters A-F or a-f.

Binary (base 2) integers start with the sequence "&b" or "0b" followed by the digits 0 and 1.

Numbers may contain underscores anywhere to separate digits; those underscores are ignored.

For example, the following are all ways to represent the decimal number 10:

10 1\_0 0xA &h\_a &B1010

# Keywords

Keywords are always treated specially by the compiler, and no identifier may be named the same as a keyword.

abs andany as asm\_\_builtin\_alloca byte case catchclass close constcontinue cpu data declare def defint defsng delete dim direction do double else

end endif enum exit for function gosub goto if input integer let long loop modnextnew nil not open option or output pointer print program ptr putread remrestore return select self shared short single sqrt step sub then throw to try type ubyte

```
uinteger
ulong
until
ushort
using
var
wend
while
with
word
xor
```

#### Variable, Subroutine, and Function names

Names of variables, subroutines, or functions ("identifiers") consist of a letter or underscore, followed by any sequence of letters, underscores, or digits. Names beginning with an underscore are reserved for system use. Case is ignored; thus the names avar, aVar, AVAR, etc. all refer to the same variable.

Identifiers may have a type specifier appended to them. \$ indicates a string variable or function, % an integer variable or function, and # a floating point variable or function. The type specifier is part of the name, so a\$ and a# are different identifiers (the first is a string variable and the second is a floating point variable). If no type specifier is appended, the identifier is assumed to be an integer. This may be overridden with the defsng directive, which specifies that variables starting with certain letters are to be assumed to be single precision floating point.

Variable or function types may also be explicitly given, and in this case the type overrides any implicit type defined by the name. However, we strongly recommend that you not use type specifiers like \$ for variables (or functions) that you give an explicit type to.

Examples:

```
dim a% ' defines an integer variable
dim a# ' defines a different floating point variable
dim a as string ' defines another variable, this time a string
dim a$ as integer ' NOT RECOMMENDED: overrides the $ suffix to make an integer variable
'' this function returns a string and takes a float and string as parameters
function f$(a#, b$)
...
end function
'' this function also returns a string from a float and string
function g(a as single, b as string) as string
```

... end function

### Arrays

Arrays must be declared with the dim keyword. FlexBASIC supports only one and two dimensional arrays, but they may be of any type. Examples of array declarations:

```
rem an array of 10 integers
rem note that dim gives the last index
dim a(9)
rem same thing but more verbose
dim c(0 to 9) as integer
rem an array of 10 strings
dim a$(9)
rem another array of strings
dim d(9) as string
rem a two dimensional array of strings
dim g$(9, 9)
```

Arrays are by default indexed starting at 0. That is, if a is an array, then a(0) is the first thing in the array, a(1) the second, and so on. This is similar to other languages (such as Spin and C), where array indexes start at 0. The value given in the dim is the last array index. This is different from Spin and C, where arrays are declared with their sizes rather than last array index.

Code to initialize an array to 0 could look like:

```
dim a(9) as integer
sub zero_a
for i = 0 to 9
    a(i) = 0
    next i
end sub
```

It is possible to change the array base by using

option base 1 ' make arrays start at 1 by default

The array definition may have an explicit lower bound given, for example:

dim a(1 to 10) ' array of 10 items dim b(0 to 10) ' array of 11 items

This only works for one dimensional arrays. For two dimensional arrays both dimensions must have the same lower bound, and both must start from the default set by the last option base.

Note that pointer dereferences (using array notation) always use the last value set for **option base** in the file, since we cannot know at run time what the actual base of the pointed to object was. So it is best to set this just once.

#### Global, Member, and Local variables.

There are three kinds of variables: global variables, member variables, and local variables.

Global (shared) variables may be accessed from anywhere in the program, and exist for the duration of the program. They are created with the dim shared declaration, and may be given an initial value. For example,

dim shared x = 2

creates a global variable with a value of 2.

A global variable is shared by all instances of the object that creates it. For example, if "foo.bas" contains

```
dim shared ctr as integer
   function set ctr(x)
     ctr = x
   end function
   function get_ctr()
     return ctr
   end function
   function inc_ctr()
     ctr = ctr + 1
   end function
then a program like:
   dim x as class using "foo.bas"
   dim y as class using "foo.bas"
   x.set_ctr(0)
   y.set_ctr(1)
   print y.get_ctr()
   y.inc_ctr()
   print x.get_ctr()
```

will print 1 and then 2, because x.ctr and y.ctr are the same (shared) global variable.

Member variables, on the other hand, are unique to each instance of a class. They are created with regular dim outside of any function or subroutine. If we modified the sample above to remove the **shared** from the declaration of **ctr**, then the program would print 1 and then 0, because the y.inc\_ctr() invocation would not affect the value of x.ctr.

Member variables are automatically initialized to 0, and may not be initialized to any other value.

Local variables are only available inside the function or subroutine where they are declared, and only exist for as long as that function or subroutine is running. When the routine returns, the variables lose any values they had at the time. They are re-created afresh the next time the function is called. Local variables may be initialized to values, but this initialization is done at run time so it has some overhead.

#### **Extending lines**

It is possible to extend a long expression or array initializer over several lines. To do this, add a single \_ immediately before the end of the line. This causes the compiler to treat the end of line like a space rather than an end of line. For example:

is parsed like x = y + z. This is especially useful for array initializers, which can often be quite long:

```
dim shared as integer a(5) = { _
  1, 2, 3, _
  4, 5 _
  }
```

Note that only shared arrays may be initialized like this.

### Multiple statements per line

Generally speaking, you may place multiple statements on one line if you separate them with a colon (:). For example, these two bits of code are the same:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} x &=& 1 \\ y &=& 2 \\ \end{array} \\ and \end{array}$ 

x = 1 : y = 2

# Language features

### Types

There are a number of data types built in to the FlexBASIC language.

#### Unsigned integer types

ubyte, ushort, and uinteger are the names for 8 bit, 16 bit, and 32 bit unsigned integers, respectively. The Propeller load instructions do not sign extend by default, so ubyte and ushort are the preferred names for 8 and 16 bit integers on the Propeller.

#### Signed integer types

byte, short, and integer are 8 bit, 16 bit, and 32 bit signed integers.

#### Floating point types

**single** is, by default, a 32 bit IEEE floating point number. There is an option to use a 16.16 fixed point number instead; this results in much faster calculations, but at the cost of much less precision and range.

double is reserved for future use as a double precision (64 bit) floating point number, but this is not implemented yet.

#### **Pointer types**

Pointers to any other type may be declared. T pointer is a pointer to type T. Thus ushort pointer is a pointer to an unsigned 16 bit number, and ubyte pointer pointer is a pointer to a pointer to an unsigned 8 bit number.

#### String type

The string type is a special pointer. Functionally it is almost the same as a const ubyte pointer, but there is one big difference; comparisons involving a string compare the pointed to data, rather than the pointer itself. For example:

```
sub cmpstrings(a as string, b as string)
if (a = b) then
    print "strings equal"
else
    print "strings differ"
end if
end sub
```

```
sub cmpptrs(a as const ubyte pointer, b as const ubyte pointer)
if (a = b) then
    print "pointers equal"
else
    print "pointers differ"
end if
end sub
dim x as string
dim y as string
x = "hello"
y = "he" + "llo"
cmpstrings(x, y)
cmpptrs(x, y)
```

will always print "strings equal" followed by "pointers differ". That is because the cmpstrings function does a comparison with strings (so the contents are tested) but cmppointers does a pointer comparison (and while the pointers point at memory containing the same values, they are located in two distinct regions of memory and hence have different addresses.

#### Classes

FlexBASIC supports classes, which are similar to records or structs in other languages. There are two ways to define classes. A whole BASIC (or Spin, or C) file may be included as a class with the using keyword:

```
dim ser as class using "FullDuplexSerial.spin"
```

declares the variable **ser** as a class, using the Spin variables and methods from the given file. This also works for .bas or .c files. Any functions declared in the file become methods of the new class.

Classes may also be declared directly, with the variables and methods of the class specified between class and end class

```
class counter
  dim as integer c
  sub inc()
    c = c + 1
  end sub
  function get() as integer
    return c
  end function
end class
```

```
dim x as counter
...
x.inc
print x.get()
```

Note that end class must be spelled out in full (unlike many end x pairs which may be abbreviated as just end).

#### **Type Aliases**

An alias for an existing type may be declared with the **type** keyword. For example:

type numptr as integer pointer type fullduplexserial as class using "FullDuplexSerial.spin"

### Function declarations

Function names follow the same rules as variable names. Like variable names, function names may have a type specifier appended, and the type specifier gives the type that the function returns.

```
function Add(a, b)
  return a+b
end function
```

This could be written more verbosely as

```
function Add(a as integer, b as integer) as integer
return a+b
end function
```

It is often useful for documentation to explicitly specify all types like this, even when the default types specified by the variable names would work.

### Memory allocation

FlexBASIC supports allocation of memory and garbage collection. Memory allocation is done from a small built-in heap. This heap defaults to 256 bytes in size on Propeller 1, and 4096 bytes on Propeller 2. This may be changed by defining a constant HEAPSIZE in the top level file of the program.

Garbage collection works by scanning memory for pointers that were returned from the memory allocation function. As long as references to the original pointers returned by functions like left\$ or right\$ exist, the memory will not be re-used for anything else. Note that a CPU ("COG" in Spin terms) cannot scan the internal memory of other CPUs, so memory allocated by one CPU will only be garbage collected by that same CPU. This can lead to an out of memory situation even if in fact there is memory available to be claimed. For this reason we suggest that all allocation of temporary memory be done in one CPU only.

#### new and delete

The new operator may be used to allocate memory. new returns a pointer to enough memory to hold objects, or nil if not enough space is available for the allocation. For example, to allocate 40 bytes one can do:

```
var ptr = new ubyte(40)
if ptr then
    '' do stuff with the allocated memory
    ...
    '' now free it (this is optional)
    delete ptr
else
    print "not enough memory"
endif
```

The memory allocated by **new** is managed by the garbage collector, so it will be reclaimed when all references to it have been removed. One may also explicitly free it with **delete**.

#### String functions

String functions and operators like left\$, right\$, and + (string concatenation) also work with allocated memory. If there is not enough memory to allocate for a string, these functions/operators will return nil.

#### **Function pointers**

Pointers to functions require 8 bytes of memory to be allocated at run time (to hold information about the object to be called). So for example in:

```
'' create a Spin FullDuplexSerial object
dim ser as class using "FullDuplexSerial.spin"
'' get a pointer to its transmit function
var tx = @ser.tx
```

the variable tx holds a pointer both to the ser object and to the particular method tx within it. Since this is dynamically allocated, it is possible for the @ operator to fail and return nil.

## \_\_builtin\_\_alloca

Instead of **new**, which allocates persistent memory on the heap, it is possible to allocate temporary memory with the <u>\_\_builtin\_alloca</u> operator. Memory allocated in this way may only be used during the lifetime of the function which allocated it, and may not be returned from that function or assigned to a global variable. Almost always it is better to use **new** than **\_\_builtin\_alloca**, but the latter is more efficient (but dangerous, because the pointer becomes invalid after the function that uses **\_\_builtin\_alloca** exits).

#### Templates

FlexBASIC supports polymorphic programming via templates. These are like parameterized function or class declarations. Only function templates are supported at this time.

Templates are introduced by the keyword **any** followed by a parenthesized list of identifiers which are the types to be subsituted in the declaration. That is, each identifier in the list represents a type, which may vary at compile time.

### **Function Templates**

A function to find the smaller of two items with the same type t, which can be string, integer, single, or any other type that supports the < operator, may be declared as:

```
any(t) function mymin(x as t, y as t) as t
if x < y then
   return x
else
   return y
end if
end function</pre>
```

This declares a family of functions mymin\_\_T, where T can be any type. Whenever the compiler sees mymin(some\_expr) it checks the type of some\_expr and changes the function call to mymin\_\_T(some\_expr). So for example:

```
print mymin(1.7, 2.4), mymin("zzz", "aaa")
```

will print 1.7 and aaa.

# **Propeller Hardware Features**

#### Input, Output, and Direction

For the Propeller we have some special pseudo-variables direction, input, and output. These may be used to directly control pins of the processor. For example, to set pin 1 as output and then set it high do:

direction(1) = output
output(1) = 1

Similarly, to set pin 2 as input and read it:

direction(2) = input
x = input(2)

#### **Pin Ranges**

Ranges of pins may be specified with hi,lo or lo,hi. The first form is preferred; if you do

```
output(2, 0) = x
```

then the bottom 3 bits of **x** are copied directly to the first 3 output pins. If you use the other form

```
output(0, 2) = x ' note: x is reversed!
output(0, 2) = \&b110 ' sets bits 0 and 1 to 1, and bit 2 to 0
```

then the lower 3 bits are reversed; this is useful if you're directly coding a binary constant, but

otherwise is probably not what you want.

#### Hardware registers

The builtin Propeller hardware registers are available with their usual names, unless they are redeclared. For example, the OUTA register is available as "outa" (or "OUTA", or "Outa"; case does not matter).

The hardware registers are not keywords, so they are not reserved to the system. Thus, it is possible to use dim to declare variables with the same name. Of course, if that is done then the original hardware register will not be accessible in the scope of the variable name.

# Alphabetical List of Keywords and Built In Functions

### $\mathbf{ABS}$

#### y = abs x

Returns the absolute value of x. If x is a floating point number then so will be the result; if x is an unsigned number then it will be unchanged; otherwise the result will be an Integer.

#### AND

a = x and y

Returns the bit-wise AND of x and y. If x or y is a floating point number then it will be converted to integer before the operation is performed.

Also useful in boolean operations. The comparison operators return 0 for false conditions and all bits set for true conditions, so you can do things like:

```
if (x < y AND x = z) then
 ' code that runs if both conditions are true
end if
```

#### ANY

```
dim x as any
```

Declares x as a generic 32 bit variable compatible with any other type. Basically this is a way to treat a variable as a raw 32 bit value. Note that no type checking at all is performed on variables declared with type **any**, nor are any conversions applied to them. This means that the compiler will not be able to catch many common errors.

any should be used only in exceptional circumstances.

Example: a subroutine to print the raw bit pattern of a floating point number:

```
sub printbits(x as single)
  dim a as any
  dim u as uinteger
  '' just plain u=x would convert x from single to unsigned
  '' instead go through an ANY type, which will do no conversion
  a = x
  u = a
  print u
end sub
```

**as** is a keyword that introduces a type for a function, function parameter, or dimensioned variable.

```
' declare a function with an integer parameter that returns a string function f(x \text{ as integer}) as string ...
```

# ASC

i = ASC(s\$)

returns the integer (ASCII) value of the first character of a string. If the argument is not a string it is an error.

#### ASM

Introduces inline assembly. The block between ASM and END ASM is parsed slightly differently than usual; in particular, instruction names are treated as reserved identifiers.

Inside inline assembly any instructions may be used, but the only legal operands are integer constants, registers, and local variables (or parameters) to the function which contains the inline assembly. Labels may be defined, and may be used as the target for goto elsewhere in the function. Any attempt to leave the function, either by jumping out of it or returning, will cause undefined behavior. In other words, don't do that!

If you need temporary variables inside some inline assembly, dim them as locals in the enclosing function.

Example: to implement a wait (like the built-in waitcnt:

```
sub wait_until_cycle(x as uinteger)
   asm
   waitcnt x, #0
   end asm
end sub
```

#### \_BUILTIN\_ALLOCA

Allocates memory on the stack. The argument is an integer specifying how much memory to allocate. For example:

```
dim as integer ptr x = __builtin_alloca(256)
```

# $\mathbf{AS}$

creates an array of 64 integers (which needs 256 bytes) and makes x into a pointer to it.

The pointer returned from \_\_builtin\_alloca will become invalid as soon as the current function returns (or throws an exception), so it should never be assigned to a global variable or be returned from the function.

\_\_builtin\_alloca is awkward to work with, and dangerous. Almost always you should use new instead. The only advantages of \_\_builtin\_alloca is that it is slightly more efficient than new, and does not use up heap space (but uses stack space instead).

# BYTE

A signed 8 bit integer, occupying one byte of computer memory. The unsigned version of this is ubyte. The difference arises with the treatment of the upper bit. Both byte and ubyte treat 0-127 the same, but for byte 128 to 255 are considered equivalent to -128 to -1 respectively (that is, when a byte is copied to a larger sized integer the upper bit is repeated into all the other bits; for ubyte the new bytes are filled with 0 instead).

# $\mathbf{CASE}$

Used in a select statement to indicate a possible case to match. Only a subset of FreeBasic's case options are available. After the case can either be else (which always matches), a single expression (which matches if the original expression equals the case one), or an inclusive range a to b which will match if the original expression is between between a and b (inclusive).

Example:

```
select case x
case 1
    print "it was 1"
case 2 to 4
    print "it was between 2 and 4"
    print "sorry for being vague!"
case 8
    print "it was 8"
case else
    print "it was something else"
end select
```

All of the statements between the case and the next case (or end select) are executed if the case is the first one to match the expression in the select case.

# CAST

Used to convert between types. cast(type1, expr) will calculate expr and then convert it to type type1. This could involve calculation (if expr has an integer type, for example, and type1 is single then the bit pattern of expr is changed) or could just mean a different way of interpreting the bits in a value.

For example, to get a pointer to the Propeller 1 LOG table, located in ROM at address 0xC000, you could do:

```
dim logptr as ushort ptr
logptr = cast(ushort ptr, 0xC000)
```

# CATCH

Used in a try statement to indicate the start of an error handling block.

# CHR\$

Not actually a reserved word, but a built-in function. Converts an ascii value to a string (so the reverse of ASC). For example:

print chr\$(65)

prints A (the character whose ASCII value is 65)

#### CLASS

A class is an abstract collection of variables and functions. If you've used the Spin language, a class is like a Spin object.

#### **Class Using**

Spin objects may be directly imported as classes:

```
#ifdef __P2__
dim ser as class using "spin/SmartSerial"
#else
dim ser as class using "spin/FullDuplexSerial"
#endif
```

creates an object **ser** based on the Spin file "SmartSerial.spin" (for P2) or "FullDuplexSerial"; this may then be used directly, e.g.:

```
ser.str("hello, world!")
ser.tx(13) ' send a carriage return
ser.dec(100) ' print 100 as a decimal number
```

BASIC files may also be used as classes. When they are, all the functions and subroutines in the BASIC file are exposed as methods (there are no private methods in BASIC yet). Any BASIC code that is not in a function or subroutine is not accessible.

### Abstract classes

Another way to define an object is to first declare an abstract class with a name, and then use that name in the dim statement:

```
' create abstract class fds representing Spin FullDuplexSerial
' NOTE: use SmartSerial.spin instead if trying on P2
class fds using "FullDuplexSerial.spin"
' create a variable of that type
dim ser as fds
```

This is more convenient if there are many references to the class, or if you want to pass pointers to the class to functions.

### Inline Classes

Finally, the functions, subroutines, and variables associated with a class may be defined directly inline, between the class and a finishing end class. In this case the class name may be used as a type name. For example:

```
class counter
  dim x as integer
  sub reset
    x = 0
  end sub
  sub inc(n = 1)
    x = x + n
  end sub
  function getval()
    return x
  end function
end class
dim cnt as counter
cnt.reset
cnt.inc
cnt.inc
print cnt.getval() ' prints 2
```

```
cnt.inc
print cnt.getval() ' prints 3
```

## Interoperation with Spin

Using Spin objects with class using is straightforward, but there are some things to watch out for:

- Spin does not have any notion of types, so most Spin functions will return type **any** and take parameters of type **any**. This can cause problems if you expect them to return something special like a pointer or float and want to use them in the middle of an expression. You can either use explicit **cast** operations, or assign the results of Spin methods to a typed variable, and then use that variable in the expression instead.
- Spin treats strings differently than BASIC does. For example, in the Spin expression ser.tx("A"), "A" is an integer (a single element list). That would be written in BASIC as ser.tx(asc("A")). Conversely, in Spin you have to write ser.str(string("hello")) where in BASIC you would write just ser.str("hello").

#### Interoperation with C

C files may be used as classes, but there are some restrictions. BASIC and Spin are both case insensitive languages, which means that the BASIC symbols AVariable, avariable, and AVARIABLE are all the same, and all are translated internally to avariable. In C the case of identifiers matters. This makes accessing C symbols from BASIC somewhat tricky. Only C symbols that are all lower case may be accessed from BASIC.

# CLKSET

clkset(mode, freq, xsel)

Propeller built in function. On the P1, this acts the same as the Spin clkset function. On P2, this does two hubset instructions, the first to set the oscillator and the second (after a short delay) to actually enable it. The mode parameter gives the setup value for the oscillator, and the second hubset to enable the oscillator uses mode + xsel as its parameter. If xsel is omitted, it defaults to 3.

For example:

clkset(0x010c3f04, 160\_000\_000) ' set P2 Eval board to 160 MHz After a clkset it is usually necessary to call \_setbaud to reset the serial baud rate correctly. Also note that no sanity check is performed on the parameters; it is up to the programmer to ensure that the frequency actually matches the mode on the board being used.

# CLOSE

Closes a file previously opened by **open**. This causes the **closef** function specified in the device driver (if any) to be called, and then invalidates the handle so that it may not be used for further I/O operations. Any attempt to use a closed handle produces no result.

close #2 ' close handle #2

Note that handles 0 and 1 are reserved by the system; closing them may produce undefined results.

#### CONST

At the beginning of a line, const declares a constant value. For example:

const x = 1, y = 2.0

declares x to be the integer 1 and y to be the floating point value 2.0. Only numeric values (integers and floats) may be declared with const.

Inside a type name, **const** signifies that variables of this type may not be modified. This is mainly useful for indicating that pointers should be treated as read-only.

```
sub trychange(s as const ubyte ptr)
s(1) = 0 '' illegal, s points to const ubytes
if (s(1) = 2) then '' OK, s may be read
print "it was 2"
end if
end sub
```

# CONTINUE

Used to resume loop execution early. The type of loop (FOR, DO, or WHILE) may optionally be given after CONTINUE. However, note that only the innermost containing loop may be continued. This is different from FreeBasic, where for example continue for may be placed in a while loop that is itself inside a for loop. In FlexBasic this will produce an error.

Example:

```
for i = 1 to 5
    if (i = 3) then
        continue for
    end if
    print i
    next i
```

will print 1, 2, 4, and 5, but will skip the 3 because the continue for will cause the next iteration of the for loop to start as soon as it is seen.

The example above could be written more succinctly as:

```
for i = 1 to 5
    if i = 3 continue
    print i
next
```

# $\mathbf{CPU}$

Used to start a subroutine running on another CPU. The parameters are the subroutine call to execute, and a stack for the other CPU to use. For example:

```
' blink a pin at a given frequency
sub blink(pin, freq)
  direction(pin) = output
  do
     output(pin) = not output(pin)
     waitcnt(getcnt() + freq)
    loop
end sub
...
dim stack(8) ' small stack, blink does not call many other functions
' start the blinking up on another CPU
var a = cpu(blink(LED, 80_000_000), @stack(1))
```

Note that cpu is not a function call, it is a special form which does not evaluate its arguments in the usual way. The first parameter is actually preserved and called in the context of the new CPU.

cpu returns the CPU id ("cog id") of the CPU that the new function is running on. If no free CPU is available, cpu returns -1.

# DATA

Introduces raw data to be read via the **read** keyword. This is usually used for initializing arrays or other data structures. The calculations for converting values from strings to integers or floats are done at run time, so consider using array initializers instead (which are more efficient).

In contrast to some other BASICs, no parsing at all is done of the information following the data keyword; it is simply dumped into memory as a raw string. Subsequent read commands will read the bytes from memory and convert them to the appropriate type, as if they were input by the user.

Unlike most other statements, the data statement always extends to the end of the line; any colons (for example) within the data are treated as data.

```
dim x as integer
dim y as string
dim z as single
read x, y, z
print x, y, z
data 1.1, hello
data 2.2
```

will print 1 (x is an integer, so the fractional part is ignored), hello, and 2.2000.

The order of data statements matters, but they may be intermixed with other statements. data statements should only appear at the top level, not within functions or subroutines.

### DECLARE

Keyword reserved for future use.

#### DEF

Define a simple function. This is mostly intended for porting existing BASIC code, but could be convenient for creating very simple functions. The syntax consists of the function name, parameter list, =, and then the return value from the expression. All of the types are inferred from the names. So for example to define a function sum to return the sum of two integers we would do:

DEF sum(x, y) = x+y

#### DEFINT

Dictates the default type for variable names starting with certain letters.

defint i-j

says that variables starting with the letters **i** through **j** are assumed to be integers.

The default setting is defint a-z (i.e. all variables are assumed to be integer unless given an explicit suffix or type in their declaration). A combination of defsng and defint may be used to modify this.

# DEFSNG

Dictates the default type for variable names starting with certain letters.

defsng a-f

says that variables starting with the letters **a** through **f** are assumed to be floating point.

The default setting is defint a-z (i.e. all variables are assumed to be integer unless given an explicit suffix or type in their declaration). A combination of defsng and defint may be used to modify this.

Putting defsng a-z at the start of a file may be useful for porting legacy BASIC code.

# DELETE

Free memory allocated by new or by one of the string functions (+, left\$, right\$, etc.).

Use of delete is a nice hint and makes sure the memory is free, but it is not strictly necessary since the memory is garbage collected automatically.

### $\mathbf{DIM}$

Dimension variables. This defines variables and allocate memory for them. dim is the most common way to declare that variables exist. The simplest form just lists the variable names and (optionally) array sizes. The variable types are inferred from the names. For example, you can declare an array **a** of 10 integers, a single integer **b**, and a string **c\$** with:

dim a(10), b, c\$

It's also possible to give explicit types with as:

```
dim a(10) as integer
dim b as ubyte
dim s as string
```

Only one explicit type may be given per line (this is different from FreeBASIC). If you give an explicit type, it will apply to all the variables on the line:

```
' this makes all the variables singles, despite their names
' (probably NOT a good idea!)
dim a(10), b%, c$, d as single
```

If you want to be compatible with FreeBASIC, put the as first:

dim as single a(10), b%, c\$, d

Variables declared inside a function or subroutine are "local" to that function or subroutine, and are not available outside or to other functions or subroutines. Variables dimensioned at the top level may be used by all functions and subroutines in the file.

See also VAR.

# DIRECTION

Pseudo-array of bits describing the direction (input or output) of pins. In Propeller 1 this array is 32 bits long, in Propeller 2 it is 64 bits.

direction(2) = input ' set pin 2 as input direction(6,4) = output ' set pins 6, 5, 4 as outputs

Note that pin ranges may not cross a 32 bit boundary; that is,

direction(33, 30) = input

is illegal and produces undefined behavior.

#### $\mathbf{DO}$

Main loop construct. A do loop may have the loop test either at the beginning or end, and it may run the loop while a condition is true or until a condition is true. For example:

do
 x = input(9)
loop until x = 0

will wait until pin 9 is 0.

See also WHILE.

#### DOUBLE

The type for a double precision floating point number. double is not actually implemented in the compiler, and is treated the same as single.

# ELSE

See IF

### $\mathbf{END}$

Used to mark the end of most blocks. For example, end function marks the end of a function declaration, and end if the end of a multi-line if statement. In most cases the name after the end is optional.

### ENDIF

Marks the end of a multi-line if statement. Same as end if.

### ENUM

Reserved for future use.

# EXIT

Exit early from a loop, function, or subroutine.

Just plain exit on its own will exit early from the innermost enclosing loop, and will produce an error if given outside a loop.

The exit may also have an explicit do, for, or while after it to say what kind of loop it is exiting. In this case the innermost loop must be of the appropriate type. This is different from FreeBasic, where for example exit while may be used in a for loop that is inside a while loop; we do not allow that.

Finally exit function and exit sub are synonyms for return.

#### EXIT DO

Exit from the innermost enclosing loop if it is a do loop. If it is not a do loop then the compiler will print an error.

# EXIT FOR

Exit from the innermost enclosing loop if it is a **for** loop. If it is not a **for** loop then the compiler will print an error.

# EXIT FUNCTION

Returns from the current function (just like a plain **return**). The value of the function will be the last default value established by assigning a value to the function's name, or 0 if no such value has been established. For example:

function sumif(a, x, y)
sumif = x + y
if (a <> 0)
 exit function
sumif = 0
end function

returns x+y if a is nonzero, and 0 otherwise.

#### EXIT SUB

Returns from the current subroutine. Same as the return statement.

## EXIT WHILE

Exit from the innermost enclosing loop if it is a while loop. If it is not a while loop then the compiler will print an error.

### FOR

Repeat a loop while incrementing (or decrementing) a variable. The default step value is 1, but if an explicit **step** is given this is used instead:

```
' print 1 to 10
for i = 1 to 10
print i
next i
' print 1, 3, 5, ..., 9
for i = 1 to 10 step 2
print i
next i
```

If the variable given in the loop is not already defined, it is created as a local variable (local to the current sub or function, or to the implicit program function for loops outside of any sub or function).

# FUNCTION

Defines a new function. The type of the function may be given explicitly with an **as** *type* clause; if no such clause exists the function's type is deduced from its name. For example, a function whose name ends in **\$** is assumed to return a string unless an **as** is given.

Functions have a fixed number and type of arguments, but the last arguments may be given default values with an initializer. For example,

```
function inc(n as integer, delta = 1 as integer) as integer
return n + delta
end function
```

defines a function which adds two integers and returns an integer result. Since the default type of variables is integer, this could also be written as:

```
function inc(n, delta = 1)
  return n+delta
end function
```

In this case because the final argument delta is given a default value of 1, callers may omit this argument. That is, a call inc(x) is exactly equivalent to inc(x, 1).

#### Anonymous functions

function may also be used in expressions to specify a temporary, unnamed function. There are three forms for this. The long form is very similar to ordinary function declarations. For example, suppose we want to define a function "plusn" which itself returns a function which adds one to its argument. This would look like:

```
' define an alias for the type of a function which takes an integer
' and returns another; this isn't strictly necessary, but saves typing
type intfunc as function(x as integer) as integer
```

The long anonymous form is basically the same as an ordinary function definition, but without the function name. The major difference is that an explicit definition of the return type (e.g. as integer) is required, since the compiler cannot use a name to determine a default type for the function.

For simple functions which just return a single expression, an abbreviated anonymous form is available. This omits the return type, which is determined by the expression itself, and puts the expression on the same line. This means we could write the **plusn** function above as:

```
function plusn(n as integer) as intfunc
return (function(x as integer) x+n)
end function
```

The long and abbreviated forms are compatible with QBasic and some other PC BASICs. FlexBasic also supports a much more convenient short form. This short form starts with [, followed by the function parameter list, followed by ':', the statements in the anonymous function, and finally => and a result expression. This sounds more complicated than it is. The above plusn function in short notation is:

```
function plusn(n as integer) as intfunc
return [x:=>x+n]
end function
```

This short form is much easier to write for many inline uses, and is very flexible, but is not compatible with other BASICs.

#### Closures

You'll note in the examples of anonymous functions that the anonymous function inside plusn is accessing the parameter n of its parent. This is allowed, and the value of n is in fact saved in a special object called a "closure". This closure is persistent, and functions are allowed to modify the variables in a closure. For example, we can implement a simple counter object as follows:

```
type intfunc as function() as integer
```

```
' makecounter returns a counter with a given initial value and step
function makecounter(value = 1, stepval = 1) as intfunc
return (function () as integer
var r = value
value = value + stepval
return r
end function)
end function
var c = makecounter(7, 3)
' prints 7, 10, 13, 16
```

```
for i = 1 to 4
    print c()
next
```

Using the more compact notation for functions this may be written as:

type intfunc as function() as integer

```
function makecounter(value = 1, stepval = 1) as intfunc
  return [:var r = value : value = value + stepval : => r]
end function
```

```
var c = makecounter(7, 3)
for i = 1 to 4
    print c()
next
```

# GETCNT

Propeller specific builtin function.

function getcnt() as uinteger
x = getcnt()

Returns the current cycle counter. This is an unsigned 32 bit value that counts the number of system clocks elapsed since the device was turned on. It wraps after approximately 54 seconds on propeller 1 and 27 seconds on propeller 2.

### GOSUB

gosub x pushes a return value on the stack and jumps to the label x (which may be a numeric label). A return statement will pop the return value off the stack and resume execution after the original gosub.

gosub is supported for compatibility with old BASIC code, but should not be used in new code. In new code you should create a subroutine or function instead. See sub.

#### GOTO

goto x jumps to a label x, which must be defined in the same function. Labels are defined by giving an identifier followed by a :. For example:

```
if x=y goto xyequal
print "x differs from y"
goto done
```

xyequal: print "x and y are equal" done:

Note that in most cases code written with a goto could better be written with if or do (for instance the example above would be easier to read if written with if ... then ... else). goto should be used sparingly.

Also note that a label must be the only thing on the line; that is:

foo: bar

is interpreted as two statements

foo bar whereas

> foo: bar

is a label foo followed by a statement bar.

# HEAPSIZE

const HEAPSIZE = 256

Declares the amount of space to be used for internal memory allocation by things like string functions. The default is 256 bytes for P1 and 4096 bytes for P2. If your program does a lot of string manipulation and/or needs to hold on to the allocations for a long time, you may need to increase this by explicitly declaring const HEAPSIZE with a larger value.

# $\mathbf{IF}$

An IF statement introduces some code that should be executed only if a condition is true:

```
if x = y then
    print "x and y are the same"
else
    print "x and y are different"
end if
```

There are several forms of if.

A "simple if" executes just one statement if the condition is true, and has no **else** clause. Simple ifs do not have a **then**:

```
' simple if example
if x = y print "they are equal"
```

A one line if executes the rest of the statements on the current line if the condition is true. This form of if has a then that is followed by one or more statements, seperated by :. For example:

```
if x = y then print "they are equal" : print "they are still equal"
```

which will print "they are equal" followed by "they are still equal" if x equals y, but which will print nothing if they are not equal. This form of if is provided for compatibility with old code, but is not recommended for use in new code.

Compound if statements have a then which ends the line. These statements continue on until the next matching else or end if. If you want to have an else condition then you will have to use this form of if:

```
if x = y then
    print "they are equal"
else
    print "they differ"
end if
```

You may also put an if statement after an else:

```
if x = y then
    print "x and y are the same"
    print "I don't know about z"
else if x = z then
    print "x and z are the same, and different from y"
else
    print "x does not equal either of the others"
end if
```

#### INPUT

#### Used for reading data

The input keyword when used as a command acts to read data from a handle. It is followed by a list of variables. The data are separated by commas.

```
print "enter a string and a number: ";
input s$, n
print "you entered: ", s, "and", n
```

The input may optionally be preceded by a prompt string, so the above could be re-written as:

```
input "enter a string and a number: ", s$, n
print "you entered: ", s, "and", n
```

If the prompt string is separated from the variables by a semicolon; rather than a comma, then "? " is automatically appended to the prompt.

### Used for accessing pins

input may also be used to refer to a pseudo-array of bits representing the state of input pins. On the Propeller 1 this is the 32 bit INA register, but on Propeller 2 it is 64 bits.

Bits in the input array may be read with an array-like syntax:

```
x = input(0) ' read pin 0
y = input(4,2) ' read pins 4,3,2
```

Note that usually you will want to read the pins with the larger pin number first, as the bits are labelled with bit 31 at the high bit and bit 0 as the low bit.

Also note that before using a pin as input its direction should be set as input somewhere in the program:

direction(4,0) = input ' set pins 4-0 as inputs

# INPUT\$

A predefined string function. There are two ways to use this.

The first, and simpler way, is just as input\$(n), which reads n characters from the default serial port and returns a string made of those characters. input\$(1) is thus a kind of getchar to read a single character.

The second form, input\$(n, h) reads up to n characters from handle h, as created by an open device as #h statement. If there are not enough characters to fulfil the request then a shorter string is returned; for example, at end of file an empty string "" will be returned.

Example:

```
file$ = "" ' initialize read data
do
    s$ = input$(80, h) ' read up to 80 characters at a time
    file$ = file$ + s$ ' append to the data
until s$ = "" ' stop at end of file
' now the whole file is in file$
```

# INT

Convert float to int. Any fractional parts are truncated.

i = int(3.1415) ' now i will be set to 3

# INTEGER

A 32 bit signed integer type. The unsigned 32 bit integer type is uinteger.

## LEFT\$

A predefined string function. left(s, n) returns the left-most n characters of s. If n is longer than the length of s, returns s. If n = < 0, returns an empty string. If a memory allocation error occurs, returns nil.

#### LEN

A predefined function which returns the length of a string.

var s\$ = "hello"
var n = len(s\$) ' now n = 5

# $\mathbf{LET}$

Variable assignment:

let a = b

sets a to be equal to b. This can usually be written as:

a = b

the only difference is that in the let form if a does not already exist it is created as a member variable (one accessible in all functions of this file). The let keyword is deprecated in some versions of BASIC (such as FreeBASIC) so it's probably better to use var or dim to explicitly declare your variables.

### LONG

A signed 32 bit integer. An alias for integer. The unsigned version of this is ulong.

#### LOOP

Marks the end of a loop introduced by do. See DO for details.

### MOD

 $x \mod y$  finds the integer remainder when x is divided by y.

Note that if both the quotient and remainder are desired, it is best to put the calculations close together; that way the compiler may be able to combine the two operations into one (since the software division code produces both quotient and remainder). For example:

q = x / y $r = x \mod y$ 

## NEW

Allocates memory from the heap for a new object, and returns a pointer to it. May also be used to allocate arrays of objects. The name of the type of the new object appears after the **new**, optionally followed by an array limit. Note that as in **dim** statements, the value given is the last valid index, so for arrays starting at 0 (the default) it is one greater than the number of elements.

```
var x = new ubyte(10) ' allocate 11 (not 10) bytes and return a pointer to it
x(1) = 1 ' set a variable in it
class FDS using "FullDuplexSerial.spin" ' Use "SmartSerial.spin" on P2
var ser = new FDS ' allocate space for a new full duplex serial object
ser.start(31, 30, 0, 115_200) ' start up the new object
```

See the discussion of memory allocation for tips on using **new**. Note that the default heap is rather small, so you will probably need to declare a larger **HEAPSIZE** if you use **new** a lot.

Memory allocated by **new** may be explicitly freed with **delete**; or, it may left to be garbage collected automatically.

#### NEXT

Indicates the end of a **for** loop. The variable used in the loop may be placed after the **next** keyword, but this is not mandatory. If a variable is present though then it must match the loop.

See FOR.

#### NIL

A special pointer value that indicates an invalid pointer. **nil** may be returned from any string function or other function that allocates memory if there is not enough space to fulfil the request. **nil** is of type **any** and may be assigned to any variable. When assigned to a numeric variable it will cause the variable to become 0.

# NOT

a = NOT b

Inverts all bits in the destination. This is basically the same as b xor -1.

In logical (boolean) conditions, since the TRUE condition is all 1 bits set, this operation has its usual effect of reversing TRUE and FALSE.

## ON X GOTO

For compatibility only, FlexBASIC accepts statements like:

```
on x goto 100, 110, 120
This is equivalent to
select case x
case 1
goto 100
case 2
goto 110
case 3
goto 120
end select
```

## OPEN

Open a handle for input and/or output. The general form is:

open device as #n

where device is a device driver structure returned by a system function such as SendRecvDevice, and n evaluates to an integer between 2 and 7. (Handles 0 and 1 also exist, but are reserved for system use.)

Example:

```
open SendRecvDevice(@ser.tx, @ser.rx, @ser.stop) as #2
```

Here the SendRecvDevice is given pointers to functions to call to send a single character, to receive a single character, and to be called when the handle is closed. Any of these may be nil, in which case the corresponding function (output, input, or close) does nothing.

# OPTION

Gives a compiler option. The following options are supported:

## **OPTION BASE**

option base N, where N is an integer constant, causes the default base of arrays to be set to N. After this directive, arrays declared without an explicit base will start at N. Typically N is either 0 or 1. The default is 0.

```
dim a(9) as integer ' declares an array with indices 0-9
option base 0 ' note: changing option base after declarations is not recommended, but
dim b(5) as integer ' declares an array with indices 1-5 (5 elements)
```

It is possible to use **option base** more than once in a file, but we do not recommend it. Indeed if you do use **option base** it is probably best to use it at the very beginning of the file, before any array declarations

## **OPTION EXPLICIT**

Requires that all variables be explicitly declared before use. The default is to allow variables in LET and FOR statements to be implicitly declared.

## **OPTION IMPLICIT**

Allows variables to be automatically declared in any assignment statement, read, or input. The type of the variable will be inferred from its name if it has not already been declared.

#### OR

## a = x or y

Returns the bit-wise inclusive OR of x and y. If x or y is a floating point number then it will be converted to integer before the operation is performed.

Also useful in boolean operations. The comparison operators return 0 for false conditions and all bits set for true conditions, so you can do things like:

```
if (x < y OR x = z) then
    ' code that runs if either condition is true
end if</pre>
```

## OUTPUT

A pseudo-array of bits representing the state of output bits. On the Propeller 1 this is the 32 bit OUTA register, but on Propeller 2 it is 64 bits.

Bits in output may be read and written an array-like syntax:

output(0) = not output(0) ' toggle pin 0 output(4,2) = 1 ' set pins 4 and 3 to 0 and pin 2 to 1

Note that usually you will want to access the pins with the larger pin number first, as the bits are labelled with bit 31 at the high bit and bit 0 as the low bit.

Also note that before using a pin as output its direction should be set as output somewhere in the program:

direction(4,0) = output ' set pins 4-0 as outputs

## PAUSEMS

A built-in subroutine to pause for a number of milliseconds. For example, to pause for 2 seconds, do

pausems 2000

## PINLO

Force a pin to be output as 0.

pinlo(p)

## PINHI

Force a pin to be output as 1.

pinhi(p)

#### PINSET

Force a pin to be an output, and set its value (new value must be either 0 or 1).

pinset(p, v)

## PINTOGGLE

Force a pin to be an output, and invert its current value.

pintoggle(p)

# PRINT

print is a special subroutine that prints data to a serial port or other stream. The default destination for print is the pin 30 (pin 62 on P2) serial port, running at 115\_200 baud (230\_400 baud on P2).

More than one item may appear in a print statement. If items are separated by commas, a tab character is printed between them. If they are separated by semicolons, nothing is printed between them, not even a space; this differs from some other BASICs.

If the print statement ends in a comma, a tab is printed at the end. If it ends in a semicolon, nothing is printed at the end. Otherwise, a newline (carriage return plus line feed) is printed.

As a special case, if a backslash character  $\$  appears in front of an expression, the value of that expression is printed as a single byte character.

Examples

```
' basic one item print
print "hello, world!"
' two items separated by a tab
print "hello", "world!"
' two items with no separator
print "hello"; "world"
' an integer, with no newline
print 1;
' a string and then an integer, nothing between them
print "then "; 2
```

#### prints

```
hello, world!
hello world
helloworld
1then 2
```

print may be redirected. For example,

```
print #2, "hello, world"
```

prints its message to the device previously opened as device #2.

# PRINT USING

Formats output using a string. The general form of this is:

print using STRING; expr [,expr...] [;]

where STRING is a string literal and expr is one or more expressions.

Within the string literal output fields are specified by special forms, which are replaced by the various expressions.

& indicates a variable width field, within which the numbers or strings are printed with the minimum number of characters.

**#** starts a numeric field with space padding; the number of **#** characters indicates the width of the field. The numeric value is printed right-justified within the field. If it cannot fit, the first digit which will fit is replaced with '#' and the rest are printed normally. If the field is preceded by a - or + the sign is printed there; otherwise, if the value is negative then the - sign is included in the digits to print.

% starts a numeric field with 0 padding; the number of % characters indicates the width of the field. Leading zeros are explicitly printed. If the number cannot fit in the indicated number of digits, the first digit which will fit is replaced with '#' and the rest are printed normally.

+ indicates that a place should be reserved for a sign character (+ for nonnegative, - for negative). + must immediately be followed by a numeric field. If the argument is an unsigned integer, instead of + a space is always printed.

- indicates that a place should be reserved for a sign character (space for nonnegative, - for negative). - must immediately be followed by a numeric field. If the argument is an unsigned integer, a space is always printed.

! indicates to print a single character (the first character of the string argument).

 $\$  indicates a string field, which continues until the next  $\$ . The width of the field is the total number of characters, including the beginning and ending  $\$ . The string will be printed left justified within the field. Centering or right justification may be achieved for fields of length 3 or more by using = or '>' characters, respectively, as fillers between  $\$ . If the string is too long to fit within the field, only the first N characters of the string are printed.

print using "%%%%"; x

## PROGRAM

This keyword is reserved for future use.

The statements in the top level of the file (not inside any subroutine or function) are placed in a method called **program**. This is only really useful for calling them

from another language (for example a Spin program using a BASIC program as an object).

## READ

read reads data items declared by data. All of the strings following data keywords are lumped together, and then parsed by read in the same way as input parses data typed by the user.

## REM

Introduces a comment, which continues until the end of the line. A single quote character ' may also be used for this.

## RESTORE

Resets the internal pointer for **read** so that it starts again at the first **data** statement.

## RETURN

Return from a subroutine or function. If this statement occurs inside a function, then the **return** keyword may be followed by an expression giving the value to return; this expression should have a type compatible with the function's return value.

A return with a value sets the function's result value and exits. If the return does not have a value (or indeed if there is no return), then the function's result value is the last value assigned to the pseudo-variable that has the same name as the function. That is, two equivalent ways of writing a sum function are:

```
function sum(x, y)
  sum = x+y
end function
or
function sum(x, y)
  return x+y
end function
```

## **RIGHT**\$

A predefined string function. right(s, n) returns the right-most n characters of s. If n is longer than the length of s, returns s. If n = < 0, returns an empty string. If a memory allocation error occurs, returns nil.

### RND

A predefined function which returns a random floating point number x such that  $0.0 \le x$  and  $x \le 1.0$ . A single argument n is given. If n is negative, then it is used as the seed for the random number sequence. If n is 0, a new sequence is started with a random seed. If n is positive, the next value in the sequence is returned.

```
f = rnd(0) ' start a new sequence
i = int(rnd(1)*6) + 1 ' generate random between 1 and 6
```

## SELECT CASE

Selects between alternatives. The expression after the initial select case is evaluated once, then matched against each of the case statements (in order) until one matches or end select is reached. case else will match anything (and hence should be placed last, since no case after it can ever match).

In case of a match, all of the statements between the matching case and the next case (or end select) will be executed.

```
var keepgoing = -1
do
  print "continue? ";
   a$ = input$(1)
   print
   a = input$(1)
   select case a$
   case "y"
     keepgoing = 1
     print "great!"
   case "n"
     keepgoing = 0
     print "ok, not continuing "
   case else
     print "I did not understand your answer of "; a$
   end select
loop while keepgoing = -1
```

## SELF

Indicates the current object. Not implemented yet.

## SENDRECVDEVICE

A built-in function rather than a keyword. SendRecvDevice(sendf, recvf, closef) constructs a simple device driver based on three functions: sendf to send a single byte, recvf to receive a byte (or return -1 if no byte is available), and closef to be called when the device is closed. The value(s) returned by SendRecvDevice is only useful for passing directly to the open statement, and should not be used in any other context (at least not at this time).

### \_SETBAUD

Set up the serial port baud rate, based on the current clock frequency.

\_setbaud(115\_200) ' set baud rate to 115\_200

The default serial rate on P1 is 115\_200 baud, and assuming a clock frequency of 80\_000\_000 (on P2 both defaults are doubled). If these are changed, it is necessary to call \_setbaud again in order for serial I/O to work.

#### SHORT

A signed 16 bit integer, occupying two bytes of computer memory. The unsigned version of this is ushort. The difference arises with the treatment of the upper bit. Both short and ushort treat 0-32767 the same, but for short 32768 to 65535 are considered equivalent to -32768 to -1 respectively (that is, when a short is copied to a larger sized integer the upper bit is repeated into all the other bits; for ushort the new bits are filled with 0 instead).

#### SINGLE

Single precision floating point data type. By default this is an IEEE 32 bit single precision float, but compiler options may change this (for example to a 16.16 fixed point number).

# SQR

An alias for sqrt, for compatibility with older BASICs.

## SQRT

Calculate the square root of a number.

x = sqrt(y)

This is not a true function, but a pseudo-function whose result type depends on the input type. If the parameter to **sqrt** is an integer then the result will be an integer as well. If the parameter is a single then the result is a single.

## STEP

Gives the increment to apply in a FOR loop.

```
for i = 2 to 8 step 2
    print i
next
```

will print 2, 4, 6, and 8 on separate lines.

# STR\$

Convert a number to a string. The input is a floating point number (integers will automatically be converted to single) and the output is a string representing the number. Unlike the format used for regular print, str\$ tries to avoid trailing zeros, so the output is somewhat more compact than print.

## $\mathbf{SUB}$

Defines a new subroutine. This is like a function but with no return value. Subroutines have a fixed number and type of arguments, but the last arguments may be given default values with an initializer. For example:

```
sub say(msg$="hello")
print msg$
end sub
```

If you call say with an argument, it will print that argument. If you call say with no argument it will print the default of hello:

```
say("hi!") ' prints "hi!"
say "hi!" ' the same
say ' prints "hello"
```

Subroutines may be invoked with function notation (arguments enclosed in parentheses) or with the arguments separated from the subroutine name by white space, as in the example above.

## THEN

Introduces a multi-line series of statements for an **if** statement. See IF for details.

## THROW

Throws an error which may be caught by a caller's try/catch block. If none of our callers has established a try / catch block, the program is ended.

The argument to throw may be of any type. Programmers should beware of mixing different types, as the try / catch block may need to know what type of value it should expect to receive.

Example:

```
if n < 0 then
   throw "illegal negative value"
endif</pre>
```

# то

A syntactical element typically used for giving ranges of items.

### TRY

Example:

```
dim errmsg as string
try
   ' run sub1, sub2, then sub3. If any one of them
   ' throws an error, we will immediately stop execution
   ' and jump to the catch block
   sub1
   sub2
   sub3
catch errmsg
   print "a subroutine reports error: " errmsg
end try
```

# TYPE

Creates an alias for a type. For example,

type uptr as ubyte ptr

creates a new type name uptr which is a pointer to a ubyte. You may use the new type name anywhere a type is required.

## UBYTE

An unsigned 8 bit integer, occupying one byte of computer memory. The signed version of this is byte. The difference arises with the treatment of the upper bit. Both byte and ubyte treat 0-127 the same, but for byte 128 to 255 are considered equivalent to -128 to -1 respectively (that is, when a byte is copied to a larger sized integer the upper bit is repeated into all the other bits; for ubyte the new bytes are filled with 0 instead).

## UINTEGER

An unsigned 32 bit integer.

## ULONG

An unsigned 32 bit integer, occupying four bytes of computer memory. The signed version of this is long.

## USHORT

An unsigned 16 bit integer, occupying two bytes of computer memory. The signed version of this is **short**. The difference arises with the treatment of the upper bit. Both **short** and **ushort** treat 0-32767 the same, but for **short** 32768 to 65535 are considered equivalent to -32768 to -1 respectively (that is, when a **short** is copied to a larger sized integer the upper bit is repeated into all the other bits; for **ushort** the new bits are filled with 0 instead).

#### USING

Keyword intended for use in PRINT statements, and also to indicate the file to be used for a CLASS.

## VAR

Declare a local variable:

VAR i = 2 VAR msg\$ = "hello" **var** creates and initializes a new local variable (only available inside the function in which it is declared). The type of the new variable is inferred from the type of the expression used to initialize it; if for some reason that cannot be determined, the type is set according to the variable suffix (if any is present).

var is somewhat similar to dim, except that the type isn't given explicitly (it is determined by the initializer expression) and the variables created are always local, even if the var is in the main program (in the main program dim creates member variables that may be used by functions or subroutines in this file).

### WAITCNT

Propeller specific builtin function. Waits until the cycle counter is a specific value

waitcnt(getcnt() + clkfreq) ' wait one second

### WAITPEQ

Propeller specific builtin function. Waits for pins to have a specific value (given by a bit mask). Same as the Spin waitpeq routine. Note that the arguments are bit masks, not pin numbers, so take care when porting code from PropBasic.

### WAITPNE

Propeller specific builtin function. Waits for pins to not have a specific value (given by a bit mask). Same as the Spin waitpne routine. Note that the arguments are bit masks, not pin numbers, so take care when porting code from PropBasic.

#### WHILE

Begins a loop which continues as long as a specified condition is true.

```
' wait for pin to go low
loopcount = 0
while input(1) <> 0
    loopcount = loopcount + 1
wend
print "waited "; loopcount; " times until pin went high"
```

The end of the repeated code may be terminated either with wend or with end while.

The while loop may also be written as do while:

```
do while input(1) <> 0
    loopcount = loopcount + 1
    loop
or
    do until input(1) = 0
    loopcount = loopcount + 1
    loop
```

## WORD

Reserved for use in inline assembler.

## XOR

a = x xor y

Returns the bit-wise exclusive or of x and y. If x or y is a floating point number then it will be converted to integer before the operation is performed. **xor** is often used for flipping bits.

## **Propeller Specific Variables**

## clkfreq

dim clkfreq as uinteger

Clkfreq gives the frequency of the system clock in cycles per second.

# Sample Programs

Toggle a pin

This program toggles a pin once per second.

```
rem simple program to toggle a pin
```

```
const pin = 16
```

```
direction(pin) = output
```

```
do
   output(pin) = not output(pin)
   pausems 1000
loop
```