

GETTING

STARTED

WITH

BASIC

MIT'S
Creative Electronics

This section is not intended to be a detailed course in BASIC programming. It will, however, serve as an excellent introduction for those of you unfamiliar with the language.

The text here will introduce the primary concepts and uses of BASIC enough to get you started writing programs. For further reading suggestions, see Appendix M.

If your ALTAIR does not have BASIC loaded and running, follow the procedures in Appendices A & B to bring it up.

We recommend that you try each example in this section as it is presented. This will enhance your "feel" for BASIC and how it is used.

Once your I/O device has typed " OK ", you are ready to use ALTAIR BASIC.

NOTE: All commands to ALTAIR BASIC should end with a carriage return. The carriage return tells BASIC that you have finished typing the command. If you make a typing error, type a back-arrow (←), usually shift/O, or an underline to eliminate the last character. Repeated use of " ← " will eliminate previous characters. An at-sign (@) will eliminate the entire line that you are typing.

Now, try typing in the following:

```
PRINT 10-4 (end with carriage return)
```

ALTAIR BASIC will immediately print:

6

OK

The print statement you typed in was executed as soon as you hit the carriage return key. BASIC evaluated the formula after the "PRINT" and then typed out its value, in this case 6.

Now try typing in this:

```
PRINT 1/2,3*10 ("*" means multiply, "/" means divide)
```

ALTAIR BASIC will print:

.5 30

As you can see, ALTAIR BASIC can do division and multiplication as well as subtraction. Note how a " , " (comma) was used in the print command to print two values instead of just one. The comma divides the 72 character line into 5 columns, each 14 characters wide. The last two of the positions on the line are not used. The result is a " , " causes BASIC to skip to the next 14 column field on the terminal, where the value 30 was printed.

Commands such as the "PRINT" statements you have just typed in are called Direct Commands. There is another type of command called an Indirect Command. Every Indirect command begins with a Line Number. A Line Number is any integer from 0 to 65529.

Try typing in the following lines:

```
10 PRINT 2+3
20 PRINT 2-3
```

A sequence of Indirect Commands is called a "Program". Instead of executing indirect statements immediately, ALTAIR BASIC saves Indirect Commands in the ALTAIR's memory. When you type in RUN, BASIC will execute the lowest numbered indirect statement that has been typed in first, then the next highest, etc. for as many as were typed in.

Suppose we type in RUN now:

```
RUN
```

ALTAIR BASIC will type out:

```
5
-1
```

```
OK
```

In the example above, we typed in line 10 first and line 20 second. However, it makes no difference in what order you type in indirect statements. BASIC always puts them into correct numerical order according to the Line Number.

If we want a listing of the complete program currently in memory, we type in LIST. Type this in:

```
LIST
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
10 PRINT 2+3
20 PRINT 2-3
OK
```

Sometimes it is desirable to delete a line of a program altogether. This is accomplished by typing the Line Number of the line we wish to delete, followed only by a carriage return.

Type in the following:

```
10
LIST
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
20 PRINT 2-3
OK
```

We have now deleted line 10 from the program. There is no way to get it back. To insert a new line 10, just type in 10 followed by the statement we want BASIC to execute.

Type in the following:

```
10 PRINT 2*3
LIST
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
10 PRINT 2*3
20 PRINT 2-3
OK
```

There is an easier way to replace line 10 than deleting it and then inserting a new line. You can do this by just typing the new line 10 and hitting the carriage return. BASIC throws away the old line 10 and replaces it with the new one.

Type in the following:

```
10 PRINT 3-3
LIST
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
10 PRINT 3-3
20 PRINT 2-3
OK
```

It is not recommended that lines be numbered consecutively. It may become necessary to insert a new line between two existing lines. An increment of 10 between line numbers is generally sufficient.

If you want to erase the complete program currently stored in memory, type in "NEW". If you are finished running one program and are about to read in a new one, be sure to type in "NEW" first. This should be done in order to prevent a mixture of the old and new programs.

Type in the following:

```
NEW
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
OK
```

Now type in:

LIST

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

OK

Often it is desirable to include text along with answers that are printed out, in order to explain the meaning of the numbers.

Type in the following:

```
PRINT "ONE THIRD IS EQUAL TO",1/3
```

ALTAIR BASIC will reply with:

```
ONE THIRD IS EQUAL TO      .333333
```

OK

As explained earlier, including a " , " in a print statement causes it to space over to the next fourteen column field before the value following the " , " is printed.

If we use a " ; " instead of a comma, the value next will be printed immediately following the previous value.

NOTE: Numbers are always printed with at least one trailing space. Any text to be printed is always to be enclosed in double quotes.

Try the following examples:

```
A) PRINT "ONE THIRD IS EQUAL TO";1/3
   ONE THIRD IS EQUAL TO .333333
```

OK

```
B) PRINT 1,2,3
   1           2           3
```

OK

...

```
C) PRINT 1;2;3
   1 2 3
```

OK

```
D) PRINT -1;2;-3
   -1 2 -3
```

OK

We will digress for a moment to explain the format of numbers in ALTAIR BASIC. Numbers are stored internally to over six digits of accuracy. When a number is printed, only six digits are shown. Every number may also have an exponent (a power of ten scaling factor).

The largest number that may be represented in ALTAIR BASIC is 1.70141×10^{38} , while the smallest positive number is 2.93874×10^{-39} .

When a number is printed, the following rules are used to determine the exact format:

- 1) If the number is negative, a minus sign (-) is printed. If the number is positive, a space is printed.
- 2) If the absolute value of the number is an integer in the range 0 to 999999, it is printed as an integer.
- 3) If the absolute value of the number is greater than or equal to .1 and less than or equal to 999999, it is printed in fixed point notation, with no exponent.
- 4) If the number does not fall under categories 2 or 3, scientific notation is used.

Scientific notation is formatted as follows: SX.XXXXXESTT .
(each X being some integer 0 to 9)

The leading "S" is the sign of the number, a space for a positive number and a "-" for a negative one. One non-zero digit is printed before the decimal point. This is followed by the decimal point and then the other five digits of the mantissa. An "E" is then printed (for exponent), followed by the sign (S) of the exponent; then the two digits (TT) of the exponent itself. Leading zeroes are never printed; i.e. the digit before the decimal is never zero. Also, trailing zeroes are never printed. If there is only one digit to print after all trailing zeroes are suppressed, no decimal point is printed. The exponent sign will be "+" for positive and "-" for negative. Two digits of the exponent are always printed; that is zeroes are not suppressed in the exponent field. The value of any number expressed thus is the number to the left of the "E" times 10 raised to the power of the number to the right of the "E".

No matter what format is used, a space is always printed following a number. The 8K version of BASIC checks to see if the entire number will fit on the current line. If not, a carriage return/line feed is executed before printing the number.

The following are examples of various numbers and the output format ALTAIR BASIC will place them into:

<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>OUTPUT FORMAT</u>
+1	1
-1	-1
6523	6523
-23.460	-23.46
1E20	1E+20
-12.3456E-7	-1.23456E-06
1.234567E-10	1.23457E-10
1000000	1E+06
999999	999999
.1	.1
.01	1E-02
.000123	1.23E-04

A number input from the terminal or a numeric constant used in a BASIC program may have as many digits as desired, up to the maximum length of a line (72 characters). However, only the first 7 digits are significant, and the seventh digit is rounded up.

```
PRINT 1.2345678901234567890
1.23457
```

OK

The following is an example of a program that reads a value from the terminal and uses that value to calculate and print a result:

```
10 INPUT R
20 PRINT 3.14159*R*R
RUN
? 10
314.159
```

OK

Here's what's happening. When BASIC encounters the input statement, it types a question mark (?) on the terminal and then waits for you to type in a number. When you do (in the above example 10 was typed), execution continues with the next statement in the program after the variable (R) has been set (in this case to 10). In the above example, line 20 would now be executed. When the formula after the PRINT statement is evaluated, the value 10 is substituted for the variable R each time R appears in the formula. Therefore, the formula becomes $3.14159 \times 10 \times 10$, or 314.159.

If you haven't already guessed, what the program above actually does is to calculate the area of a circle with the radius "R".

If we wanted to calculate the area of various circles, we could keep re-running the program over each time for each successive circle. But, there's an easier way to do it simply by adding another line to the program as follows:

```
30 GOTO 10
RUN
? 10
  314.159
? 3
  28.2743
? 4.7
  69.3977
?
OK
```

By putting a "GOTO" statement on the end of our program, we have caused it to go back to line 10 after it prints each answer for the successive circles. This could have gone on indefinitely, but we decided to stop after calculating the area for three circles. This was accomplished by typing a carriage return to the input statement (thus a blank line).

NOTE: Typing a carriage return to an input statement in the 4K version of BASIC will cause a SN error (see Reference Material).

The letter "R" in the program we just used was termed a "variable". A variable name can be any alphabetic character and may be followed by any alphanumeric character.

In the 4K version of BASIC, the second character must be numeric or omitted. In the 8K version of BASIC, any alphanumeric characters after the first two are ignored. An alphanumeric character is any letter (A-Z) or any number (0-9).

Below are some examples of legal and illegal variable names:

<u>LEGAL</u>	<u>ILLEGAL</u>
IN 4K VERSION	
A	% (1st character must be alphabetic)
Z1	Z1A (variable name too long)
	QR (2nd character must be numeric)
IN 8K VERSION	
TP	TO (variable names cannot be reserved words)
PSTG\$	
COUNT	RGOTO (variable names cannot contain reserved words)

The words used as BASIC statements are "reserved" for this specific purpose. You cannot use these words as variable names or inside of any variable name. For instance, "FEND" would be illegal because "END" is a reserved word.

The following is a list of the reserved words in ALTAIR BASIC:

4K RESERVED WORDS

ABS CLEAR DATA DIM END FOR GOSUB GOTO IF INPUT
INT LET LIST NEW NEXT PRINT READ REM RESTORE
RETURN RND RUN SGN SIN SQR STEP STOP TAB(THEN
TO USR

8K RESERVED WORDS INCLUDE ALL THOSE ABOVE, AND IN ADDITION

ASC AND ATN CHR\$ CLOAD CONT COS CSAVE DEF EXP
FN FRE INP LEFT\$ LEN LOG MID\$ NULL ON OR NOT
OUT PEEK POKE POS RIGHT\$ SPC(STR\$ TAN VAL WAIT

Remember, in the 4K version of BASIC variable names are only a letter or a letter followed by a number. Therefore, there is no possibility of a conflict with a reserved word.

Besides having values assigned to variables with an input statement, you can also set the value of a variable with a LET or assignment statement.

Try the following examples:

```
A=5
```

```
OK
```

```
PRINT A,A*2
```

```
5      10
```

```
OK
```

```
LET Z=7
```

```
OK
```

```
PRINT Z, Z-A
```

```
7      2
```

```
OK
```

As can be seen from the examples, the "LET" is optional in an assignment statement.

BASIC "remembers" the values that have been assigned to variables using this type of statement. This "remembering" process uses space in the ALTAIR's memory to store the data.

The values of variables are thrown away and the space in memory used to store them is released when one of four things occur:

- 1) A new line is typed into the program or an old line is deleted
- 2) A CLEAR command is typed in
- 3) A RUN command is typed in
- 4) NEW is typed in

Another important fact is that if a variable is encountered in a formula before it is assigned a value, it is automatically assigned the value zero. Zero is then substituted as the value of the variable in the particular formula. Try the example below:

```
PRINT Q,Q+2,Q*2
  0      2      0
```

OK

Another statement is the REM statement. REM is short for remark. This statement is used to insert comments or notes into a program. When BASIC encounters a REM statement the rest of the line is ignored.

This serves mainly as an aid for the programmer himself, and serves no useful function as far as the operation of the program in solving a particular problem.

Suppose we wanted to write a program to check if a number is zero or not. With the statements we've gone over so far this could not be done. What is needed is a statement which can be used to conditionally branch to another statement. The "IF-THEN" statement does just that.

Try typing in the following program: (remember, type NEW first)

```
10 INPUT B
20 IF B=0 THEN 50
30 PRINT "NON-ZERO"
40 GOTO 10
50 PRINT "ZERO"
60 GOTO 10
```

When this program is typed into the ALTAIR and run, it will ask for a value for B. Type any value you wish in. The ALTAIR will then come to the "IF" statement. Between the "IF" and the "THEN" portion of the statement there are two expressions separated by a relation.

A relation is one of the following six symbols:

<u>RELATION</u>	<u>MEANING</u>
=	EQUAL TO
>	GREATER THAN
<	LESS THAN
<>	NOT EQUAL TO
<=	LESS THAN OR EQUAL TO
=>	GREATER THAN OR EQUAL TO

The IF statement is either true or false, depending upon whether the two expressions satisfy the relation or not. For example, in the program we just did, if 0 was typed in for B the IF statement would be true because $0=0$. In this case, since the number after the THEN is 50, execution of the program would continue at line 50. Therefore, "ZERO" would be printed and then the program would jump back to line 10 (because of the GOTO statement in line 60).

Suppose a 1 was typed in for B. Since $1=0$ is false, the IF statement would be false and the program would continue execution with the next line. Therefore, "NON-ZERO" would be printed and the GOTO in line 40 would send the program back to line 10.

Now try the following program for comparing two numbers:

```
10 INPUT A,B
20 IF A<=B THEN 50
30 PRINT "A IS BIGGER"
40 GOTO 10
50 IF A<B THEN 80
60 PRINT "THEY ARE THE SAME"
70 GOTO 10
80 PRINT "B IS BIGGER"
90 GOTO 10
```

When this program is run, line 10 will input two numbers from the terminal. At line 20, if A is greater than B, $A<=B$ will be false. This will cause the next statement to be executed, printing "A IS BIGGER" and then line 40 sends the computer back to line 10 to begin again.

At line 20, if A has the same value as B, $A<=B$ is true so we go to line 50. At line 50, since A has the same value as B, $A<B$ is false; therefore, we go to the following statement and print "THEY ARE THE SAME". Then line 70 sends us back to the beginning again.

At line 20, if A is smaller than B, $A<=B$ is true so we go to line 50. At line 50, $A<B$ will be true so we then go to line 80. "B IS BIGGER" is then printed and again we go back to the beginning.

Try running the last two programs several times. It may make it easier to understand if you try writing your own program at this time using the IF-THEN statement. Actually trying programs of your own is the quickest and easiest way to understand how BASIC works. Remember, to stop these programs just give a carriage return to the input statement.

One advantage of computers is their ability to perform repetitive tasks. Let's take a closer look and see how this works.

Suppose we want a table of square roots from 1 to 10. The BASIC function for square root is "SQR"; the form being SQR(X), X being the number you wish the square root calculated from. We could write the program as follows:

```
10 PRINT 1,SQR(1)
20 PRINT 2,SQR(2)
30 PRINT 3,SQR(3)
40 PRINT 4,SQR(4)
50 PRINT 5,SQR(5)
60 PRINT 6,SQR(6)
70 PRINT 7,SQR(7)
80 PRINT 8,SQR(8)
90 PRINT 9,SQR(9)
100 PRINT 10,SQR(10)
```

This program will do the job; however, it is terribly inefficient. We can improve the program tremendously by using the IF statement just introduced as follows:

```
10 N=1
20 PRINT N,SQR(N)
30 N=N+1
40 IF N<=10 THEN 20
```

When this program is run, its output will look exactly like that of the 10 statement program above it. Let's look at how it works.

At line 10 we have a LET statement which sets the value of the variable N at 1. At line 20 we print N and the square root of N using its current value. It thus becomes 20 PRINT 1,SQR(1), and this calculation is printed out.

At line 30 we use what will appear at first to be a rather unusual LET statement. Mathematically, the statement $N=N+1$ is nonsense. However, the important thing to remember is that in a LET statement, the symbol " $=$ " does not signify equality. In this case " $=$ " means "to be replaced with". All the statement does is to take the current value of N and add 1 to it. Thus, after the first time through line 30, N becomes 2.

At line 40, since N now equals 2, $N \leq 10$ is true so the THEN portion branches us back to line 20, with N now at a value of 2.

The overall result is that lines 20 through 40 are repeated, each time adding 1 to the value of N. When N finally equals 10 at line 20, the next line will increment it to 11. This results in a false statement at line 40, and since there are no further statements to the program it stops.

This technique is referred to as "looping" or "iteration". Since it is used quite extensively in programming, there are special BASIC statements for using it. We can show these with the following program.

```

10 FOR N=1 TO 10
20 PRINT N,SQR(N)
30 NEXT N

```

The output of the program listed above will be exactly the same as the previous two programs.

At line 10, N is set to equal 1. Line 20 causes the value of N and the square root of N to be printed. At line 30 we see a new type of statement. The "NEXT N" statement causes one to be added to N, and then if $N \leq 10$ we go back to the statement following the "FOR" statement. The overall operation then is the same as with the previous program.

Notice that the variable following the "FOR" is exactly the same as the variable after the "NEXT". There is nothing special about the N in this case. Any variable could be used, as long as they are the same in both the "FOR" and the "NEXT" statements. For instance, "Z1" could be substituted everywhere there is an "N" in the above program and it would function exactly the same.

Suppose we wanted to print a table of square roots from 10 to 20, only counting by two's. The following program would perform this task:

```

10 N=10
20 PRINT N,SQR(N)
30 N=N+2
40 IF N<=20 THEN 20

```

Note the similar structure between this program and the one listed on page 12 for printing square roots for the numbers 1 to 10. This program can also be written using the "FOR" loop just introduced.

```

10 FOR N=10 TO 20 STEP 2
20 PRINT N,SQR(N)
30 NEXT N

```

Notice that the only major difference between this program and the previous one using "FOR" loops is the addition of the "STEP 2" clause.

This tells BASIC to add 2 to N each time, instead of 1 as in the previous program. If no "STEP" is given in a "FOR" statement, BASIC assumes that one is to be added each time. The "STEP" can be followed by any expression.

Suppose we wanted to count backwards from 10 to 1. A program for doing this would be as follows:

```

10 I=10
20 PRINT I
30 I=I-1
40 IF I>=1 THEN 20

```

Notice that we are now checking to see that I is greater than or equal to the final value. The reason is that we are now counting by a negative number. In the previous examples it was the opposite, so we were checking for a variable less than or equal to the final value.

The "STEP" statement previously shown can also be used with negative numbers to accomplish this same purpose. This can be done using the same format as in the other program, as follows:

```
10 FOR I=10 TO 1 STEP -1
20 PRINT I
30 NEXT I
```

"FOR" loops can also be "nested". An example of this procedure follows:

```
10 FOR I=1 TO 5
20 FOR J=1 TO 3
30 PRINT I,J
40 NEXT J
50 NEXT I
```

Notice that the "NEXT J" comes before the "NEXT I". This is because the J-loop is inside of the I-loop. The following program is incorrect; run it and see what happens.

```
10 FOR I=1 TO 5
20 FOR J=1 TO 3
30 PRINT I,J
40 NEXT I
50 NEXT J
```

It does not work because when the "NEXT I" is encountered, all knowledge of the J-loop is lost. This happens because the J-loop is "inside" of the I-loop.

It is often convenient to be able to select any element in a table of numbers. BASIC allows this to be done through the use of matrices.

A matrix is a table of numbers. The name of this table, called the matrix name, is any legal variable name, "A" for example. The matrix name "A" is distinct and separate from the simple variable "A", and you could use both in the same program.

To select an element of the table, we subscript "A": that is to select the I'th element, we enclose I in parenthesis "(I)" and then follow "A" by this subscript. Therefore, "A(I)" is the I'th element in the matrix "A".

NOTE: In this section of the manual we will be concerned with one-dimensional matrices only. (See Reference Material).

"A(I)" is only one element of matrix A, and BASIC must be told how much space to allocate for the entire matrix.

This is done with a "DIM" statement, using the format "DIM A(15)". In this case, we have reserved space for the matrix index "I" to go from 0 to 15. Matrix subscripts always start at 0; therefore, in the above example, we have allowed for 16 numbers in matrix A.

If "A(I)" is used in a program before it has been dimensioned, BASIC reserves space for 11 elements (0 through 10).

As an example of how matrices are used, try the following program to sort a list of 8 numbers with you picking the numbers to be sorted.

```
10 DIM A(8)
20 FOR I=1 TO 8
30 INPUT A(I)
50 NEXT I
70 F=0
80 FOR I=1 TO 7
90 IF A(I)<=A(I+1) THEN 140
100 T=A(I)
110 A(I)= A(I+1)
120 A(I+1)=T
130 F=1
140 NEXT I
150 IF F=1 THEN 70
160 FOR I=1 TO 8
170 PRINT A(I),
180 NEXT I
```

When line 10 is executed, BASIC sets aside space for 9 numeric values, A(0) through A(8). Lines 20 through 50 get the unsorted list from the user. The sorting itself is done by going through the list of numbers and upon finding any two that are not in order, we switch them. "F" is used to indicate if any switches were done. If any were done, line 150 tells BASIC to go back and check some more.

If we did not switch any numbers, or after they are all in order, lines 160 through 180 will print out the sorted list. Note that a subscript can be any expression.

Another useful pair of statements are "GOSUB" and "RETURN". If you have a program that performs the same action in several different places, you could duplicate the same statements for the action in each place within the program.

The "GOSUB"-"RETURN" statements can be used to avoid this duplication. When a "GOSUB" is encountered, BASIC branches to the line whose number follows the "GOSUB". However, BASIC remembers where it was in the program before it branched. When the "RETURN" statement is encountered, BASIC goes back to the first statement following the last "GOSUB" that was executed. Observe the following program.

```
10 PRINT "WHAT IS THE NUMBER";
30 GOSUB 100
40 T=N
50 PRINT "WHAT IS THE SECOND NUMBER";
70 GOSUB 100
80 PRINT "THE SUM OF THE TWO NUMBERS IS",T+N
90 STOP
100 INPUT N
```

```

110 IF N = INT(N) THEN 140
120 PRINT "SORRY, NUMBER MUST BE AN INTEGER. TRY AGAIN."
130 GOTO 100
140 RETURN

```

What this program does is to ask for two numbers which must be integers, and then prints the sum of the two. The subroutine in this program is lines 100 to 130. The subroutine asks for a number, and if it is not an integer, asks for a number again. It will continue to ask until an integer value is typed in.

The main program prints "WHAT IS THE NUMBER", and then calls the subroutine to get the value of the number into N. When the subroutine returns (to line 40), the value input is saved in the variable T. This is done so that when the subroutine is called a second time, the value of the first number will not be lost.

"WHAT IS THE SECOND NUMBER" is then printed, and the second value is entered when the subroutine is again called.

When the subroutine returns the second time, "THE SUM OF THE TWO NUMBERS IS" is printed, followed by the value of their sum. T contains the value of the first number that was entered and N contains the value of the second number.

The next statement in the program is a "STOP" statement. This causes the program to stop execution at line 90. If the "STOP" statement was not included in the program, we would "fall into" the subroutine at line 100. This is undesirable because we would be asked to input another number. If we did, the subroutine would try to return; and since there was no "GOSUB" which called the subroutine, an RG error would occur. Each "GOSUB" executed in a program should have a matching "RETURN" executed later, and the opposite applies, i.e. a "RETURN" should be encountered only if it is part of a subroutine which has been called by a "GOSUB".

Either "STOP" or "END" can be used to separate a program from its subroutines. In the 4K version of BASIC, there is no difference between the "STOP" and the "END". In the 8K version, "STOP" will print a message saying at what line the "STOP" was encountered.

Suppose you had to enter numbers to your program that didn't change each time the program was run, but you would like it to be easy to change them if necessary. BASIC contains special statements for this purpose, called the "READ" and "DATA" statements.

Consider the following program:

```

10 PRINT "GUESS A NUMBER";
20 INPUT G
30 READ D
40 IF D=-999999 THEN 90
50 IF D<>G THEN 30
60 PRINT "YOU ARE CORRECT"
70 END
90 PRINT "BAD GUESS, TRY AGAIN."
95 RESTORE

```



```
100 GOTO 10
110 DATA 1,393,-39,28,391,-8,0,3.14,90
120 DATA 89,5,10,15,-34,-999999
```

This is what happens when this program is run. When the "READ" statement is encountered, the effect is the same as an INPUT statement. But, instead of getting a number from the terminal, a number is read from the "DATA" statements.

The first time a number is needed for a READ, the first number in the first DATA statement is returned. The second time one is needed, the second number in the first DATA statement is returned. When the entire contents of the first DATA statement have been read in this manner, the second DATA statement will then be used. DATA is always read sequentially in this manner, and there may be any number of DATA statements in your program.

The purpose of this program is to play a little game in which you try to guess one of the numbers contained in the DATA statements. For each guess that is typed in, we read through all of the numbers in the DATA statements until we find one that matches the guess.

If more values are read than there are numbers in the DATA statements, an out of data (OD) error occurs. That is why in line 40 we check to see if -999999 was read. This is not one of the numbers to be matched, but is used as a flag to indicate that all of the data (possible correct guesses) has been read. Therefore, if -999999 was read, we know that the guess given was incorrect.

Before going back to line 10 for another guess, we need to make the READ's begin with the first piece of data again. This is the function of the "RESTORE". After the RESTORE is encountered, the next piece of data read will be the first piece in the first DATA statement again.

DATA statements may be placed anywhere within the program. Only READ statements make use of the DATA statements in a program, and any other time they are encountered during program execution they will be ignored.

*THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION APPLIES TO THE 8K VERSION
OF BASIC ONLY*

A list of characters is referred to as a "String". MITS, ALTAIR, and THIS IS A TEST are all strings. Like numeric variables, string variables can be assigned specific values. String variables are distinguished from numeric variables by a "\$" after the variable name.

For example, try the following:

```
A$="ALTAIR 8800"
```

```
OK
PRINT A$
ALTAIR 8800
```

```
OK
```

In this example, we set the string variable A\$ to the string value "ALTAIR 8800". Note that we also enclosed the character string to be assigned to A\$ in quotes.

Now that we have set A\$ to a string value, we can find out what the length of this value is (the number of characters it contains). We do this as follows:

```
PRINT LEN(A$),LEN("MITS")
  11      4
OK
```

The "LEN" function returns an integer equal to the number of characters in a string.

The number of characters in a string expression may range from 0 to 255. A string which contains 0 characters is called the "NULL" string. Before a string variable is set to a value in the program, it is initialized to the null string. Printing a null string on the terminal will cause no characters to be printed, and the print head or cursor will not be advanced to the next column. Try the following:

```
PRINT LEN(Q$);Q$;3
  0  3
OK
```

Another way to create the null string is: Q\$=""

Setting a string variable to the null string can be used to free up the string space used by a non-null string variable.

Often it is desirable to access parts of a string and manipulate them. Now that we have set A\$ to "ALTAIR 8800", we might want to print out only the first six characters of A\$. We would do so like this:

```
PRINT LEFT$(A$,6)
ALTAIR
OK
```

"LEFT\$" is a string function which returns a string composed of the leftmost N characters of its string argument. Here's another example:

```
FOR N=1 TO LEN(A$):PRINT LEFT$(A$,N):NEXT N
A
AL
ALT
ALTA
ALTAI
ALTAIR
ALTAIR
ALTAIR 8
ALTAIR 88
```

```
ALTAIR 880
ALTAIR 8800
```

OK

Since A\$ has 11 characters, this loop will be executed with N=1,2,3,...,10,11. The first time through only the first character will be printed, the second time the first two characters will be printed, etc.

There is another string function called "RIGHT\$" which returns the right N characters from a string expression. Try substituting "RIGHT\$" for "LEFT\$" in the previous example and see what happens.

There is also a string function which allows us to take characters from the middle of a string. Try the following:

```
FOR N=1 TO LEN(A$):PRINT MID$(A$,N):NEXT N
ALTAIR 8800
LTAIR 8800
TAIR 8800
AIR 8800
IR 8800
R 8800
 8800
 8800
 800
 00
 0
```

OK

"MID\$" returns a string starting at the Nth position of A\$ to the end (last character) of A\$. The first position of the string is position 1 and the last possible position of a string is position 255.

Very often it is desirable to extract only the Nth character from a string. This can be done by calling MID\$ with three arguments. The third argument specifies the number of characters to return.

For example:

```
FOR N=1 TO LEN(A$):PRINT MID$(A$,N,1),MID$(A$,N,2):NEXT N
A           AL
L           LT
T           TA
A           AI
I           IR
R           R
           8
           88
           80
           00
           0
```

OK

See the Reference Material for more details on the workings of "LEFT\$", "RIGHT\$" and "MID\$".

Strings may also be concatenated (put or joined together) through the use of the "+" operator. Try the following:

```
B$="MITS"+" "+A$
```

```
OK  
PRINT B$  
MITS ALTAIR 8800
```

```
OK
```

Concatenation is especially useful if you wish to take a string apart and then put it back together with slight modifications. For instance:

```
C$=LEFT$(B$,4)+"-"+MID$(B$,6,6)+"-"+RIGHT$(B$,4)
```

```
OK  
PRINT C$  
MITS-ALTAIR-8800
```

```
OK
```

Sometimes it is desirable to convert a number to its string representation and vice-versa. "VAL" and "STR\$" perform these functions.

Try the following:

```
STRING$="567.8"
```

```
OK  
PRINT VAL(STRING$)  
567.8
```

```
OK  
STRING$=STR$(3.1415)
```

```
OK  
PRINT STRING$,LEFT$(STRING$,5)  
3.1415      3.14
```

```
OK
```

"STR\$" can be used to perform formatted I/O on numbers. You can convert a number to a string and then use LEFT\$, RIGHT\$, MID\$ and concatenation to reformat the number as desired.

"STR\$" can also be used to conveniently find out how many print columns a number will take. For example:

```
PRINT LEN(STR$(3.157))  
6
```

OK

If you have an application where a user is typing in a question such as "WHAT IS THE VOLUME OF A CYLINDER OF RADIUS 5.36 FEET, OF HEIGHT 5.1 FEET?" you can use "VAL" to extract the numeric values 5.36 and 5.1 from the question. For further functions "CHR\$" and "ASC" see Appendix K.

The following program sorts a list of string data and prints out the sorted list. This program is very similar to the one given earlier for sorting a numeric list.

```
100 DIM A$(15):REM ALLOCATE SPACE FOR STRING MATRIX
110 FOR I=1 TO 15:READ A$(I):NEXT I:REM READ IN STRINGS
120 F=0:I=1:REM SET EXCHANGE FLAG TO ZERO AND SUBSCRIPT TO 1
130 IF A$(I)<=A$(I+1) THEN 180:REM DON'T EXCHANGE IF ELEMENTS
    IN ORDER
140 T$=A$(I+1):REM USE T$ TO SAVE A$(I+1)
150 A$(I+1)=A$(I):REM EXCHANGE TWO CONSECUTIVE ELEMENTS
160 A$(I)=T$
170 F=1:REM FLAG THAT WE EXCHANGED TWO ELEMENTS
180 I=I+1: IF I<15 GOTO 130
185 REM ONCE WE HAVE MADE A PASS THRU ALL ELEMENTS, CHECK
187 REM TO SEE IF WE EXCHANGED ANY. IF NOT, DONE SORTING.
190 IF F THEN 120:REM EQUIVALENT TO IF F<>0 THEN 120
200 FOR I=1 TO 15:PRINT A$(I):NEXT I: REM PRINT SORTED LIST
210 REM STRING DATA FOLLOWS
220 DATA APPLE,DOG,CAT,MITS,ALTAIR,RANDOM
230 DATA MONDAY,"***ANSWER***","FOO"
240 DATA COMPUTER, FOO,ELP,MILWAUKEE,SEATTLE,ALBUQUERQUE
```

