

# **NQC Programmer's Guide**

**Version 2.3 r1, by Dave Baum**

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# 1 Introduction

NQC stands for Not Quite C, and is a simple language for programming several LEGO MINDSTORMS products. Some of the NQC features depend on which MINDSTORMS product you are using. This product is referred to as the *target* for NQC. Presently, NQC supports four different targets: RCX, CyberMaster, Scout, and RCX2 (an RCX running 2.0 firmware).

The preprocessor and control structures of NQC are very similar to C. NQC is not a general purpose language - there are many restrictions that stem from limitations of the targets.

Logically, NQC is defined as two separate pieces. The NQC language describes the syntax to be used in writing programs. The NQC API describes the system functions, constants, and macros that can be used by programs. This API is defined in a special file built in to the compiler. By default, this file is always processed before compiling a program.

This document describes both the NQC language and the NQC API. In short, it provides the information needed to write NQC programs. Since there are several different interfaces for NQC, this document does not describe how to use any specific NQC implementation. Refer to the documentation provided with the NQC tool, such as the *NQC User Manual* for information specific to that implementation.

For up-to-date information and documentation for NQC, visit the NQC Web Site at <http://www.enteract.com/~dbaum/nqc>

## 2 The NQC Language

This section describes the NQC language itself. This includes the lexical rules used by the compiler, the structure programs, statements, and expressions, and the operation of the preprocessor.

### 2.1 Lexical Rules

The lexical rules describe how NQC breaks a source file into individual tokens. This includes the way comments are written, then handling of whitespace, and valid characters for identifiers.

#### 2.1.1 Comments

Two forms of comments are supported in NQC. The first form (traditional C comments) begin with `/*` and end with `*/`. They may span multiple lines, but do not nest:

```
/* this is a comment */

/* this is a two
   line comment */

/* another comment...
   /* trying to nest...
      ending the inner comment...*/
   this text is no longer a comment! */
```

The second form of comments begins with `//` and ends with a newline (sometimes known as C++ style comments).

```
// a single line comment
```

Comments are ignored by the compiler. Their only purpose is to allow the programmer to document the source code.

### 2.1.2 Whitespace

Whitespace (spaces, tabs, and newlines) is used to separate tokens and to make programs more readable. As long as the tokens are distinguishable, adding or subtracting whitespace has no effect on the meaning of a program. For example, the following lines of code both have the same meaning:

```
x=2;
x = 2 ;
```

Some of the C++ operators consist of multiple characters. In order to preserve these tokens whitespace must not be inserted within them. In the example below, the first line uses a right shift operator ('>>'), but in the second line the added space causes the '>' symbols to be interpreted as two separate tokens and thus generate an error.

```
x = 1 >> 4; // set x to 1 right shifted by 4 bits
x = 1 > > 4; // error
```

### 2.1.3 Numerical Constants

Numerical constants may be written in either decimal or hexadecimal form. Decimal constants consist of one or more decimal digits. Hexadecimal constants start with 0x or 0X followed by one or more hexadecimal digits.

```
x = 10; // set x to 10
x = 0x10; // set x to 16 (10 hex)
```

### 2.1.4 Identifiers and Keywords

Identifiers are used for variable, task, and function names. The first character of an identifier must be an upper or lower case letter or the underscore ('\_'). Remaining characters may be letters, numbers, an underscore.

A number of potential identifiers are reserved for use in the NQC language itself. These reserved words are called keywords and may not be used as identifiers. A complete list of keywords appears below:

```
__event_src      __type      acquire     break
__sensor         abs         asm         case
```

catch	false	repeat	switch
const	for	return	task
continue	if	sign	true
default	inline	start	void
do	int	stop	while
else	monitor	sub	

## 2.2 Program Structure

An NQC program is composed of code blocks and global variables. There are three distinct types of code blocks: tasks, inline functions, and subroutines. Each type of code block has its own unique features and restrictions, but they all share a common structure.

### 2.2.1 Tasks

The RCX implicitly supports multi-tasking, thus an NQC task directly corresponds to an RCX task. Tasks are defined using the `task` keyword using the following syntax:

```
task name()  
{  
    // the task's code is placed here  
}
```

The name of the task may be any legal identifier. A program must always have at least one task - named "main" - which is started whenever the program is run. The maximum number of tasks depends on the target - the RCX supports 10 tasks, CyberMaster supports 4, and Scout supports 6.

The body of a task consists of a list of statements. Tasks may be started and stopped using the `start` and `stop` statements (described in the section titled *Statements*). There is also an RCX API command, `StopAllTasks`, which stops all currently running tasks.



## 2.2.2 Functions

It is often helpful to group a set of statements together into a single function, which can then be called as needed. NQC supports functions with arguments, but not return values.

Functions are defined using the following syntax:

```
void name(argument_list)
{
    // body of the function
}
```

The keyword `void` is an artifact of NQC's heritage - in C functions are specified with the type of data they return. Functions that do not return data are specified to return `void`. Returning data is not supported in NQC, thus all functions are declared using the `void` keyword.

The argument list may be empty, or may contain one or more argument definitions. An argument is defined by its *type* followed by its *name*. Multiple arguments are separated by commas. All values in the RCX are represented as 16 bit signed integers. However NQC supports four different argument types which correspond to different argument passing semantics and restrictions:

Type	Meaning	Restriction
int	pass by value	none
const int	pass by value	only constants may be used
int&	pass by reference	only variables may be used
const int &	pass by reference	function cannot modify argument

Arguments of type `int` are passed by value from the calling function to the callee. This usually means that the compiler must allocate a temporary variable to hold the argument. There are no restrictions on the type of value that may be used. However, since the function is working with a copy of the actual argument, any changes it makes to the value will not be seen by the caller. In the example below, the function `foo` attempts to set the value of its argument to 2. This is perfectly legal, but since `foo` is working on a copy of the original argument, the variable `y` from main task remains unchanged.

```
void foo(int x)
{
    x = 2;
}

task main()
{
    int y = 1; // y is now equal to 1
    foo(y);    // y is still equal to 1!
}
```

The second type of argument, `const int`, is also passed by value, but with the restriction that only constant values (e.g. numbers) may be used. This is rather important since there are a number of RCX functions that only work with constant arguments.

```
void foo(const int x)
{
    PlaySound(x); // ok
    x = 1;        // error - cannot modify argument
}

task main()
{
    foo(2);      // ok
    foo(4*5);    // ok - expression is still constant
    foo(x);      // error - x is not a constant
}
```

The third type, `int &`, passes arguments by reference rather than by value. This allows the callee to modify the value and have those changes visible in the caller. However, only variables may be used when calling a function using `int &` arguments:

```
void foo(int &x)
{
    x = 2;
}
```

```
task main()
{
    int y = 1; // y is equal to 1

    foo(y);    // y is now equal to 2
    foo(2);    // error - only variables allowed
}
```

The last type, `const int &`, is rather unusual. It is also passed by reference, but with the restriction that the callee is not allowed to modify the value. Because of this restriction, the compiler is able to pass anything (not just variables) to functions using this type of argument. In general this is the most efficient way to pass arguments in NQC.

There is one important difference between `int` arguments and `const int &` arguments. An `int` argument is passed by value, so in the case of a dynamic expression (such as a sensor reading), the value is read once then saved. With `const int &` arguments, the expression will be re-read each time it is used in the function:

```
void foo(int x)
{
    if (x==x) // this will always be true
        PlaySound(SOUND_CLICK);
}

void bar(const int &x)
{
    if (x==x) // may not be true..value could change
        PlaySound(SOUND_CLICK);
}

task main()
{
    foo(SENSOR_1); // will play sound
    bar(2);        // will play sound
}
```

```
        bar(SENSOR_1); // may not play sound
    }
```

Functions must be invoked with the correct number (and type) of arguments. The example below shows several different legal and illegal calls to function `foo`:

```
void foo(int bar, const int baz)
{
    // do something here...
}

task main()
{
    int x; // declare variable x

    foo(1, 2); // ok
    foo(x, 2); // ok
    foo(2, x); // error - 2nd argument not constant!
    foo(2); // error - wrong number of arguments!
}
```

NQC functions are always expanded as inline functions. This means that each call to a function results in another copy of the function's code being included in the program. Unless used judiciously, inline functions can lead to excessive code size.

### 2.2.3 Subroutines

Unlike inline functions, subroutines allow a single copy of some code to be shared between several different callers. This makes subroutines much more space efficient than inline functions, but due to some limitations in the RCX, subroutines have some significant restrictions. First of all, subroutines cannot use any arguments. Second, a subroutine cannot call another subroutine. Last, the maximum number of subroutines is limited to 8 for the RCX, 4 for CyberMaster, and 3 for Scout. In addition, if the subroutine is called from multiple tasks then it cannot have any local variables or perform calculations that require temporary variables (this restriction is lifted for the Scout and RCX2). These significant restrictions make subroutines less desirable than functions,

therefore their use should be minimized to those situations where the resultant savings in code size is absolutely necessary. The syntax for a subroutine appears below:

```
sub name()  
{  
    // body of subroutine  
}
```

### 2.2.4 Variables

All variables in NQC are of the same type - specifically 16 bit signed integers. Variables are declared using the `int` keyword followed by a comma separated list of variable names and terminated by a semicolon (`;`). Optionally, an initial value for each variable may be specified using an equals sign (`=`) after the variable name. Several examples appear below:

```
int x;    // declare x  
int y,z;  // declare y and z  
int a=1,b; // declare a and b, initialize a to 1
```

Global variables are declared at the program scope (outside any code block). Once declared, they may be used within all tasks, functions, and subroutines. Their scope begins at declaration and ends at the end of the program.

Local variables may be declared within tasks, functions, and sometimes within subroutines. Such variables are only accessible within the code block in which they are defined. Specifically, their scope begins with their declaration and ends at the end of their code block. In the case of local variables, a compound statement (a group of statements bracketed by `{` and `}`) is considered a block:

```
int x; // x is global  
  
task main()  
{  
    int y; // y is local to task main  
    x = y; // ok  
    { // begin compound statement  
        int z; // local z declared
```

```
        y = z; // ok
    }
    y = z; // error - z no longer in scope
}

task foo()
{
    x = 1; // ok
    y = 2; // error - y is not global
}
```

In many cases NQC must allocate one or more temporary variables for its own use. In some cases a temporary variable is used to hold an intermediate value during a calculation. In other cases it is used to hold a value as it is passed to a function. These temporary variables deplete the pool of variables available to the rest of the program. NQC attempts to be as efficient as possible with temporary variables (including reusing them when possible).

The RCX (and other targets) provide a number of storage locations which can be used to hold variables in an NQC program. There are two kinds of storage locations - global and local. When compiling a program, NQC assigns each variable to a specific storage location. Programmers for the most part can ignore the details of this assignment by following two basic rules:

- If a variable needs to be in a global location, declare it as a global variable.
- If a variable does not need to be a global variable, make it as local as possible.

This gives the compiler the most flexibility in assigning an actual storage location.

The number of global and local locations varies by target

Target	Global	Local
RCX	32	0
CyberMaster	32	0

Scout	10	8
RCX2	32	16

### 2.2.5 Arrays

The RCX2 target supports arrays (the other targets do not have suitable support in firmware for arrays). Arrays are declared the same way as ordinary variables, but with the size of the array enclosed in brackets. The size must be a constant.

```
int my_array[3]; // declare an array with three elements
```

The elements of an array are identified by their position within the array (called an index). The first element has an index of 0, the second has index 1, etc. For example:

```
my_array[0] = 123; // set first element to 123
my_array[1] = my_array[2]; // copy third into second
```

Currently there are a number of limitations on how arrays can be used. These limitations will likely be removed in future versions of NQC:

- An array cannot be an argument to a function. An individual array element, however, can be passed to a function.
- Neither arrays nor their elements can be used with the increment (++) or decrement (--) operators.
- Only ordinary assignment (=) is allowed for array elements. The math assignments (i.e. +=) are not allowed.
- The initial values for an array's elements cannot be specified - an explicit assignment is required within the program itself to set the value of an element.

## 2.3 Statements

The body of a code block (task, function, or subroutine) is composed of statements. Statements are terminated with a semi-colon (;).

## 2.3.1 Variable Declaration

Variable declaration, as described in the previous section, is one type of statement. It declares a local variable (with optional initialization) for use within the code block. The syntax for a variable declaration is:

```
int variables;
```

where variables is a comma separated list of names with optional initial values:

```
name[=expression]
```

Arrays of variables may also be declared (for the RCX2 only):

```
int array[size];
```

## 2.3.2 Assignment

Once declared, variables may be assigned the value of an expression:

```
variable assign_operator expression;
```

There are nine different assignment operators. The most basic operator, '=', simply assigns the value of the expression to the variable. The other operators modify the variable's value in some other way as shown in the table below

Operator	Action
=	Set variable to expression
+=	Add expression to variable
-=	Subtract expression from variable
*=	Multiple variable by expression
/=	Divide variable by expression
&=	Bitwise AND expression into variable
=	Bitwise OR expression into variable
=	Set variable to absolute value of expression
+-=	Set variable to sign (-1,+1,0) of expression

Some examples:

```
x = 2;      // set x to 2
y = 7;      // set y to 7
x += y;     // x is 9, y is still 7
```



### 2.3.3 Control Structures

The simplest control structure is a compound statement. This is a list of statements enclosed within curly braces ('{' and '}'):

```
{
    x = 1;
    y = 2;
}
```

Although this may not seem very significant, it plays a crucial role in building more complicated control structures. Many control structures expect a single statement as their body. By using a compound statement, the same control structure can be used to control multiple statements.

The `if` statement evaluates a condition. If the condition is true it executes one statement (the consequence). An optional second statement (the alternative) is executed if the condition is false. The two syntaxes for an `if` statement is shown below.

```
if (condition) consequence
if (condition) consequence else alternative
```

Note that the condition is enclosed in parentheses. Examples are shown below. Note how a compound statement is used in the last example to allow two statements to be executed as the consequence of the condition.

```
if (x==1) y = 2;
if (x==1) y = 3; else y = 4;
if (x==1) { y = 1; z = 2; }
```

The `while` statement is used to construct a conditional loop. The condition is evaluated, and if true the body of the loop is executed, then the condition is tested again. This process continues until the condition becomes false (or a `break` statement is executed).

The syntax for a `while` loop appears below:

```
while (condition) body
```

It is very common to use a compound statement as the body of a loop:

```
while(x < 10)
{
```

```
x = x+1;
y = y*2;
}
```

A variant of the `while` loop is the `do-while` loop. Its syntax is:

```
do body while (condition)
```

The difference between a `while` loop and a `do-while` loop is that the `do-while` loop always executes the body at least once, whereas the `while` loop may not execute it at all.

Another kind of loop is the `for` loop:

```
for(stmt1 ; condition ; stmt2) body
```

A `for` loop always executes `stmt1`, then it repeatedly checks the condition and while it remains true executes the body followed by `stmt2`. The `for` loop is equivalent to:

```
stmt1;
while(condition)
{
    body
    stmt2;
}
```

The `repeat` statement executes a loop a specified number of times:

```
repeat (expression) body
```

The expression determines how many times the body will be executed. Note that it is only evaluated a single time, then the body is repeated that number of times. This is different from both the `while` and `do-while` loops which evaluate their condition each time through the loop.

A `switch` statement can be used to execute one of several different blocks of code depending on the value of an expression. Each block of code is preceded by one or more case labels. Each case must be a constant and unique within the switch statement. The switch statement evaluates the expression then looks for a matching case label. It will then execute any statements following the matching case until either a `break` statement or the end of the switch is reached. A single `default` label may also be used - it will match any value not already appearing in a case label. Technically, a switch statement has the following syntax:

```
switch (expression) body
```

The case and default labels are not statements in themselves - they are *labels* that precede statements. Multiple labels can precede the same statement. These labels have the following syntax

```
case constant_expression :  
default :
```

A typical switch statement might look like this:

```
switch(x)  
{  
    case 1:  
        // do something when X is 1  
        break;  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        // do something else when x is 2 or 3  
        break;  
    default:  
        // do this when x is not 1, 2, or 3  
        break;  
}
```

NQC also defines the `until` macro which provides a convenient alternative to the `while` loop. The actual definition of `until` is:

```
#define until(c) while(!(c))
```

In other words, `until` will continue looping until the condition becomes true. It is most often used in conjunction with an empty body statement:

```
until(SENSOR_1 == 1); // wait for sensor to be pressed
```

### 2.3.4 Access Control and Events

The Scout and RCX2 support access control and event monitoring. Access control allows a task to request ownership of one or more resources. In NQC, access control is provided by the `acquire` statement, which has two forms:

```
acquire ( resources ) body
acquire ( resources ) body catch handler
```

where *resources* is a constant that specifies the resources to be acquired and *body* and *handler* are statements. The NQC API defines constants for individual resources which may be added together to request multiple resources at the same time. The behavior of the acquire statement is as follows: Ownership of the specified resources will be requested. If another task of higher priority already owns the resources, then the request will fail and execution will jump to the handler (if present). Otherwise, the request will succeed, and the body will begin to be executed. While executing the body, if another task of equal or higher priority requests any of the owned resources, then the original task will lose ownership. When ownership is lost, execution will jump to the handler (if present). Once the body has completed, the resources will be returned back to the system (so that lower priority tasks may acquire them), and execution will continue with the statement following the acquire statement. If a handler is not specified, then in both the case of a failed request, or a subsequent loss of ownership, control will pass to the statement following the acquire statement. For example, the following code acquires a resource for 10 seconds, playing a sound if it cannot complete successfully:

```
acquire (ACQUIRE_OUT_A)
{
    Wait(1000);
}
catch
{
    PlaySound(SOUND_UP);
}
```

Event monitoring is implemented with the `monitor` statement, which has a syntax very similar to `acquire`:

```
monitor ( events ) body
monitor ( events ) body handler_list
```

Where *handler\_list* is one or more handlers of the form

```
catch ( catch_events ) handler
```

The last handler in a handler list can omit the event specification:

*catch handler*

*Events* is a constant that determines which events should be monitored. For the Scout, events are predefined, so there are constants such as `EVENT_1_PRESSED` which can be used to specify events. With RCX2, the meaning of each event is configured by the programmer. There are 16 events (numbers 0 to 15). In order to specify an event in a monitor statement, the event number must be converted to an event mask using the `EVENT_MASK()` macro. The Scout event constants or event masks may be added together to specify multiple events. Multiple masks can be combined using bitwise OR. The monitor statement will execute the body while monitoring the specified events. If any of the events occur, execution will jump to the first handler for that event (a handler without an event specification handles any event). If no event handler exists for the event, then control will continue at the statement following the monitor statement. The following example waits for 10 seconds while monitoring events 2, 3, and 4 for RCX2:

```
monitor( EVENT_MASK(2) | EVENT_MASK(3) | EVENT_MASK(4) )
{
    Wait(1000);
}
catch ( EVENT_MASK(4) )
{
    PlaySound(SOUND_DOWN); // event 4 happened
}
catch
{
    PlaySound(SOUND_UP); // event 2 or 3 happened
}
```

Note that the acquire and monitor statements are only supported for targets that implement access control and event monitoring - specifically the Scout and RCX2.

### 2.3.5 Other Statements

A function (or subroutine) call is a statement of the form:

```
name( arguments );
```

The arguments list is a comma separated list of expressions. The number and type of arguments supplied must match the definition of the function itself.

Tasks may be started or stopped with the following statements:

```
start task_name;  
stop task_name;
```

Within loops (such as a `while` loop) the `break` statement can be used to exit the loop and the `continue` statement can be used to skip to the top of the next iteration of the loop. The `break` statement can also be used to exit a `switch` statement.

```
break;  
continue;
```

It is possible to cause a function to return before it reaches the end of its code using the `return` statement.

```
return;
```

Any expression is also a legal statement when terminated by a semicolon. It is rare to use such a statement since the value of the expression would then be discarded. The one notable exception is expressions involving the increment (`++`) or decrement (`--`) operators.

```
x++;
```

The empty statement (just a bare semicolon) is also a legal statement.

## 2.4 Expressions

Earlier versions of NQC made a distinction between expressions and conditions. As of version 2.3, this distinction was eliminated: everything is an expression, and there are

now conditional operators for expressions. This is similar to how C/C++ treats conditional operations.

*Values* are the most primitive type of expressions. More complicated expressions are formed from values using various operators. The NQC language only has two built in kinds of values: numerical constants and variables. The RCX API defines other values corresponding to various RCX features such as sensors and timers.

Numerical constants in the RCX are represented as 16 bit signed integers. NQC internally uses 32 bit signed math for constant expression evaluation, then reduces to 16 bits when generating RCX code. Numeric constants can be written as either decimal (e.g. 123) or hexadecimal (e.g. 0xABC). Presently, there is very little range checking on constants, so using a value larger than expected may have unusual effects.

Two special values are predefined: `true` and `false`. The value of `false` is zero, while the value of `true` is only guaranteed to be non-zero. The same values hold for relational operators (e.g. `<`): when the relation is false, the value is 0, otherwise the value is non-zero.

Values may be combined using operators. Several of the operators may only be used in evaluating constant expressions, which means that their operands must either be constants, or expressions involving nothing but constants. The operators are listed here in order of precedence (highest to lowest).

Operator	Description	Associativity	Restriction	Example
<code>abs()</code>	Absolute value	n/a		<code>abs(x)</code>
<code>sign()</code>	Sign of operand	n/a		<code>sign(x)</code>
<code>++, --</code>	Increment, decrement	left	variables only	<code>x++</code> or <code>++x</code>
<code>-</code>	Unary minus	right		<code>-x</code>
<code>~</code>	Bitwise negation (unary)	right	constant only	<code>~123</code>
<code>!</code>	Logical negation	right		<code>!x</code>
<code>*, /, %</code>	Multiplication, division, modulo	left		<code>x * y</code>

+, -	Addition, subtraction	left		x + y
<<, >>	Left and right shift	left	constant only	123 << 4
<, >, <=, >=	relational operators	left		x < y
==, !=	equal to, not equal to	left		x == 1
&	Bitwise AND	left		x & y
^	Bitwise XOR	left	constant only	123 ^ 4
	Bitwise OR	left		x   y
&&	Logical AND	left		x && y
	Logical OR	left		x    y

Where needed, parentheses may be used to change the order of evaluation:

```
x = 2 + 3 * 4; // set x to 14
y = (2 + 3) * 4; // set y to 20
```

### 2.4.1 Conditions

Conditions are generally formed by comparing two expressions. There are also two constant conditions - `true` and `false` - which always evaluate to true or false respectively. A condition may be negated with the negation operator, or two conditions combined with the AND and OR operators. The table below summarizes the different types of conditions.

Condition	Meaning
<code>true</code>	always true
<code>false</code>	always false
<code>expr</code>	true if expr is not equal to 0
<code>expr1 == expr2</code>	true if expr1 equals expr2
<code>expr1 != expr2</code>	true if expr1 is not equal to expr2
<code>expr1 &lt; expr2</code>	true if one expr1 is less than expr2



<code>expr1 &lt;= expr2</code>	true if expr1 is less than or equal to expr2
<code>expr1 &gt; expr2</code>	true if expr1 is greater than expr2
<code>expr1 &gt;= expr2</code>	true if expr1 is greater than or equal to expr2
<code>! condition</code>	logical negation of a condition - true if condition is false
<code>cond1 &amp;&amp; cond2</code>	logical AND of two conditions (true if and only if both conditions are true)
<code>cond1    cond2</code>	logical OR of two conditions (true if and only if at least one of the conditions are true)

## 2.5 The Preprocessor

The preprocessor implements the following directives: `#include`, `#define`, `#ifdef`, `#ifndef`, `#if`, `#elif`, `#else`, `#endif`, `#undef`. Its implementation is fairly close to a standard C preprocessor, so most things that work in a generic C preprocessor should have the expected effect in NQC. Significant deviations are listed below.

### 2.5.1 `#include`

The `#include` command works as expected, with the caveat that the filename must be enclosed in double quotes. There is no notion of a system include path, so enclosing a filename in angle brackets is forbidden.

```
#include "foo.nqh" // ok
```

```
#include <foo.nqh> // error!
```

### 2.5.2 `#define`

The `#define` command is used for simple macro substitution. Redefinition of a macro is an error (unlike in C where it is a warning). Macros are normally terminated by the end of the line, but the newline may be escaped with the backslash (`'\'`) to allow multi-line macros:

```
#define foo(x) do { bar(x); \  
                baz(x); } while(false)
```

The `#undef` directive may be used to remove a macro's definition.

### 2.5.3 Conditional Compilation

Conditional compilation works similar to the C preprocessor. The following preprocessor directives may be used:

```
#if condition
#ifdef symbol
#ifndef symbol
#else
#elif condition
#endif
```

Conditions in `#if` directives use the same operators and precedence as in C. The `defined()` operator is supported.

### 2.5.4 Program Initialization

The compiler will insert a call to a special initialization function, `_init`, at the start of a program. This default function is part of the RCX API and sets all three outputs to full power in the forward direction (but still turned off). The initialization function can be disabled using the `#pragma noint` directive:

```
#pragma noint // don't do any program initialization
```

The default initialization function can be replaced with a different function using the `#pragma init` directive.

```
#pragma init function // use custom initialization
```

### 2.5.5 Reserving Storage

The NQC compiler automatically assigns variables to storage locations. However, sometimes it is necessary to prevent the compiler from using certain storage locations.

This can be done with the `#pragma reserve` directive:

```
#pragma reserve start
```

```
#pragma reserve start end
```

This directive forces the compiler to ignore one or more storage locations during variable assignment. Start and end must be numbers that refer to valid storage locations. If only a start is provided, then that single location is reserved. If start and end are both specified, then the range of locations from start to end (inclusive) are reserved. The most common use of this directive is to reserve locations 0, 1, and/or 2 when using counters for RCX2. This is because the RCX2 counters are overlapped with storage locations 0, 1, and 2. For example, if all three counters were going to be used:

```
#pragma reserve 0 1 2
```

### 3 NQC API

The NQC API defines a set of constants, functions, values, and macros that provide access to various capabilities of the target such as sensors, outputs, timers, and communication. Some features are only available on certain targets. Where appropriate, a section's title will indicate which targets it applies to. The RCX2 is a superset of RCX features, so if RCX is listed, then the feature works with both the original firmware and 2.0 firmware. If RCX2 is listed, then the feature only applies to the 2.0 firmware.

The API consists of functions, values, and constants. A function is something that can be called as a statement. Typically it takes some action or configures some parameter.

Values represent some parameter or quantity and can be used in expressions. Constants are symbolic names for values that have special meanings for the target. Often, a set of constants will be used in conjunction with a function. For example, the `PlaySound` function takes a single argument which determines which sound is to be played.

Constants, such as `SOUND_UP`, are defined for each sound.

#### 3.1 Sensors

There are three sensors, which internally are numbered 0, 1, and 2. This is potentially confusing since they are externally labeled as sensors 1, 2, and 3. To help mitigate this confusion, the sensor names `SENSOR_1`, `SENSOR_2`, and `SENSOR_3` have been defined. These sensor names may be used in any function that requires a sensor as an argument. Furthermore, the names may also be used whenever a program wishes to read the current value of the sensor:

```
x = SENSOR_1; // read sensor and store value in x
```

##### 3.1.1 Types and Modes

##### RCX, CyberMaster

The sensor ports on the RCX are capable of interfacing to a variety of different sensors (other targets don't support configurable sensor types). It is up to the program to tell the RCX what kind of sensor is attached to each port. A sensor's type may be configured by calling `SetSensorType`. . There are four sensor types, each corresponding to a specific

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LEGO sensor. A fifth type (`SENSOR_TYPE_NONE`) can be used for reading the raw values of generic passive sensors. In general, a program should configure the type to match the actual sensor. If a sensor port is configured as the wrong type, the RCX may not be able to read it accurately.

Sensor Type	Meaning
<code>SENSOR_TYPE_NONE</code>	generic passive sensor
<code>SENSOR_TYPE_TOUCH</code>	a touch sensor
<code>SENSOR_TYPE_TEMPERATURE</code>	a temperature sensor
<code>SENSOR_TYPE_LIGHT</code>	a light sensor
<code>SENSOR_TYPE_ROTATION</code>	a rotation sensor

Both the RCX and CyberMaster allow a sensor to be configured in different modes. The sensor mode determines how a sensor's raw value is processed. Some modes only make sense for certain types of sensors, for example `SENSOR_MODE_ROTATION` is useful only with rotation sensors. The sensor mode can be set by calling `SetSensorMode`. The possible modes are shown below. Note that since CyberMaster does not support temperature or rotation sensors, the last three modes are restricted to the RCX only.

Sensor Mode	Meaning
<code>SENSOR_MODE_RAW</code>	raw value from 0 to 1023
<code>SENSOR_MODE_BOOL</code>	boolean value (0 or 1)
<code>SENSOR_MODE_EDGE</code>	counts number of boolean transitions
<code>SENSOR_MODE_PULSE</code>	counts number of boolean periods
<code>SENSOR_MODE_PERCENT</code>	value from 0 to 100
<code>SENSOR_MODE_FAHRENHEIT</code>	degrees F - RCX only
<code>SENSOR_MODE_CELSIUS</code>	degrees C - RCX only
<code>SENSOR_MODE_ROTATION</code>	rotation (16 ticks per revolution) - RCX only

When using the RCX, it is common to set both the type and mode at the same time. The `SetSensor` function makes this process a little easier by providing a single function to call and a set of standard type/mode combinations.

Sensor Configuration	Type	Mode
<code>SENSOR_TOUCH</code>	<code>SENSOR_TYPE_TOUCH</code>	<code>SENSOR_MODE_BOOL</code>

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SENSOR_LIGHT	SENSOR_TYPE_LIGHT	SENSOR_MODE_PERCENT
SENSOR_ROTATION	SENSOR_TYPE_ROTATION	SENSOR_MODE_ROTATION
SENSOR_CELSIUS	SENSOR_TYPE_TEMPERATURE	SENSOR_MODE_CELSIUS
SENSOR_FAHRENHEIT	SENSOR_TYPE_TEMPERATURE	SENSOR_MODE_FAHRENHEIT
SENSOR_PULSE	SENSOR_TYPE_TOUCH	SENSOR_MODE_PULSE
SENSOR_EDGE	SENSOR_TYPE_TOUCH	SENSOR_MODE_EDGE

The RCX provides a boolean conversion for all sensors - not just touch sensors. This boolean conversion is normally based on preset thresholds for the raw value. A "low" value (less than 460) is a boolean value of 1. A high value (greater than 562) is a boolean value of 0. This conversion can be modified: a *slope value* between 0 and 31 may be added to a sensor's mode when calling `SetSensorMode`. If the sensor's value changes more than the slope value during a certain time (3ms), then the sensor's boolean state will change. This allows the boolean state to reflect rapid changes in the raw value. A rapid increase will result in a boolean value of 0, a rapid decrease is a boolean value of 1.

Even when a sensor is configured for some other mode (i.e. `SENSOR_MODE_PERCENT`), the boolean conversion will still be carried out.

### **SetSensor(sensor, configuration)**

### **Function - RCX**

Set the type and mode of the given sensor to the specified configuration, which must be a special constant containing both type and mode information.

```
SetSensor(SENSOR_1, SENSOR_TOUCH);
```

### **SetSensorType(sensor, type)**

### **Function - RCX**

Set a sensor's type, which must be one of the predefined sensor type constants.

```
SetSensorType(SENSOR_1, SENSOR_TYPE_TOUCH);
```

### **SetSensorMode(sensor, mode)**

### **Function - RCX, CyberMaster**

Set a sensor's mode, which should be one of the predefined sensor mode constants. A slope parameter for boolean conversion, if desired, may be added to the mode (RCX only).

```
SetSensorMode(SENSOR_1, SENSOR_MODE_RAW); // raw mode
SetSensorMode(SENSOR_1, SENSOR_MODE_RAW + 10); // slope 10
```

### **ClearSensor(sensor)**

**Function - All**

Clear the value of a sensor - only affects sensors that are configured to measure a cumulative quantity such as rotation or a pulse count.

```
ClearSensor(SENSOR_1);
```

## **3.1.2 Sensor Information**

There are a number of values that can be inspected for each sensor. For all of these values the sensor must be specified by its sensor number (0, 1, or 2), and not a sensor name (e.g. SENSOR\_1).

### **SensorValue(n)**

**Value - All**

Returns the processed sensor reading for sensor n, where n is 0, 1, or 2. This is the same value that is returned by the sensor names (e.g. SENSOR\_1).

```
x = SensorValue(0); // read sensor 1
```

### **SensorType(n)**

**Value - All**

Returns the configured type of sensor n, which must be 0, 1, or 2. Only the RCX has configurable sensors types, other targets will always return the pre-configured type of the sensor.

```
x = SensorType(0);
```

### **SensorMode(n)**

**Value - RCX, CyberMaster**

Returns the current sensor mode for sensor n, which must be 0, 1, or 2.

```
x = SensorMode(0);
```

### **SensorValueBool(n)**

**Value - RCX**

Returns the boolean value of sensor n, which must be 0, 1, or 2. Boolean conversion is either done based on preset cutoffs, or a slope parameter specified by calling `SetSensorMode`.

```
x = SensorValueBool(0);
```

### **SensorValueRaw(n)**

**Value - RCX, Scout**

Returns the raw value of sensor n, which must be 0, 1, or 2. Raw values may range from 0 to 1023.

```
x = SensorValueRaw(0);
```

### **3.1.3 Scout Light Sensor**

**Scout**

On the Scout, `SENSOR_3` refers to the built-in light sensor. Reading the light sensor's value (with `SENSOR_3`) will return one of three levels: 0 (dark), 1 (normal), or 2 (bright). The sensor's raw value can be read with `SensorValueRaw(SENSOR_3)`, but bear in mind that brighter light will result in a *lower* raw value. The conversion of the sensor's raw value (between 0 and 1023) to one of the three levels depends on three parameters: *lower limit*, *upper limit*, and *hysteresis*. The lower limit is the smallest (brightest) raw value that is still considered *normal*. Values below the lower limit will be considered *bright*. The upper limit is the largest (darkest) raw value that is considered *normal*. Values about this limit are considered *dark*.

Hysteresis can be used to prevent the level from changing when the raw value hovers near one of the limits. This is accomplished by making it a little harder to leave the dark and bright states than it is to enter them. Specifically, the limit for moving from normal to bright will be a little lower than the limit for moving from bright back to normal. The difference between these two limits is the amount of hysteresis. A symmetrical case holds for the transition between normal and dark.

### **SetSensorLowerLimit(value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the light sensor's lower limit. Value may be any expression.

```
SetSensorLowerLimit(100);
```

### **SetSensorUpperLimit(value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the light sensor's upper limit. Value may be any expression.

```
SetSensorUpperLimit(900);
```



### **SetSensorHysteresis (value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the light sensor's hysteresis. Value may be any expression.

```
SetSensorHysteresis(20);
```

### **CalibrateSensor()**

**Function - Scout**

Reads the current value of the light sensor, then sets the upper and lower limits to 12.5% above and below the current reading, and sets the hysteresis to 3.12% of the reading.

```
CalibrateSensor();
```

## **3.2 Outputs**

### **3.2.1 Primitive Calls**

All of the functions dealing with outputs take a set of outputs as their first argument.

This set must be a constant. The names `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C` are used to identify the three outputs. Multiple outputs can be combined by adding individual outputs together. For example, use `OUT_A+OUT_B` to specify outputs A and B together. The set of outputs must always be a compile time constant (it cannot be a variable).

Each output has three different attributes: mode, direction, and power level. The mode can be set by calling `SetOutput(outputs, mode)`. The mode parameter should be one of the following constants:

<b>Output Mode</b>	<b>Meaning</b>
<code>OUT_OFF</code>	output is off (motor is prevented from turning)
<code>OUT_ON</code>	output is on (motor will be powered)
<code>OUT_FLOAT</code>	motor can "coast"

The other two attributes, direction and power level, may be set at any time, but only have an effect when the output is on. The direction is set with the `SetDirection(outputs, direction)` command. The direction parameter should be one of the following constants:

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Direction	Meaning
OUT_FWD	Set to forward direction
OUT_REV	Set to reverse direction
OUT_TOGGLE	Switch direction to the opposite of what it is presently

The power level can range 0 (lowest) to 7 (highest). The names `OUT_LOW`, `OUT_HALF`, and `OUT_FULL` are defined for use in setting power level. The level is set using the `SetPower(outputs, power)` function.

By default, all three motors are set to full power and the forward direction (but still turned off) when a program starts.

### **SetOutput(outputs, mode)**

**Function - All**

Set the outputs to the specified mode. `Outputs` is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C`. `Mode` must be `OUT_ON`, `OUT_OFF`, or `OUT_FLOAT`.

```
SetOutput(OUT_A + OUT_B, OUT_ON); // turn A and B on
```

### **SetDirection(outputs, direction)**

**Function - All**

Set the outputs to the specified direction. `Outputs` is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C`. `Direction` must be `OUT_FWD`, `OUT_REV`, or `OUT_TOGGLE`.

```
SetDirection(OUT_A, OUT_REV); // make A turn backwards
```

### **SetPower(outputs, power)**

**Function - All**

Sets the power level of the specified outputs. `Power` may be an expression, but should result in a value between 0 and 7. The constants `OUT_LOW`, `OUT_HALF`, and `OUT_FULL` may also be used.

```
SetPower(OUT_A, OUT_FULL); // A full power
SetPower(OUT_B, x);
```

### **OutputStatus(n)**

**Value - All**

Returns the current output setting for motor `n`. Note that `n` must be 0, 1, or 2 - not `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, or `OUT_C`.

```
x = OutputStatus(0); // status of OUT_A
```

### 3.2.2 Convenience Calls

Since control of outputs is such a common feature of programs, a number of convenience functions are provided that make it easier to work with the outputs. It should be noted that these commands do not provide any new functionality above the `SetOutput` and `SetDirection` commands. They are merely convenient ways to make programs more concise.

#### **On(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Turn specified outputs on. Outputs is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C` added together.

```
On(OUT_A + OUT_C); // turn on outputs A and C
```

#### **Off(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Turn specified outputs off. Outputs is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C` added together.

```
Off(OUT_A); // turn off output A
```

#### **Float(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Make outputs float. Outputs is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C` added together.

```
Float(OUT_A); // float output A
```

#### **Fwd(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Set outputs to forward direction. Outputs is one or more of `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, and `OUT_C` added together.

```
Fwd(OUT_A);
```

#### **Rev(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Set outputs to reverse direction. Outputs is one or more of OUT\_A, OUT\_B, and OUT\_C added together.

```
Rev (OUT_A) ;
```

### **Toggle(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Flip the direction of the outputs. Outputs is one or more of OUT\_A, OUT\_B, and OUT\_C added together.

```
Toggle (OUT_A) ;
```

### **OnFwd(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Set outputs to forward direction and turn them on. Outputs is one or more of OUT\_A, OUT\_B, and OUT\_C added together.

```
OnFwd (OUT_A) ;
```

### **OnRev(outputs)**

**Function - All**

Set outputs to reverse direction and turn them on. Outputs is one or more of OUT\_A, OUT\_B, and OUT\_C added together.

```
OnRev (OUT_A) ;
```

### **OnFor(outputs, time)**

**Function - All**

Turn outputs on for a specified amount of time, then turn them off. Outputs is one or more of OUT\_A, OUT\_B, and OUT\_C added together. Time is measures in 10ms increments (one second = 100) and may be any expression.

```
OnFor (OUT_A, x) ;
```

## **3.2.3 Global Control**

**RCX2, Scout**

### **SetGlobalOutput(outputs, mode)**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Disable or re-enable outputs depending on the mode parameter. If mode is OUT\_OFF, then the outputs will be turned off and disabled. While disabled any subsequent calls to SetOutput ( ) (including convenience functions such as On ( )) will be ignored.

Using a mode of `OUT_FLOAT` will put the outputs in float mode before disabling them. Outputs can be re-enabled by calling `SetGlobalOutput()` with a mode of `OUT_ON`. Note that enabling an output doesn't immediately turn it on - it just allows future calls to `SetOutput()` to take effect.

```
SetGlobalOutput(OUT_A, OUT_OFF); // disable output A
SetGlobalOutput(OUT_A, OUT_ON); // enable output A
```

### **SetGlobalDirection(outputs, direction)** **Function - RCX2, Scout**

Reverses or restores the directions of outputs. The direction parameter should be `OUT_FWD`, `OUT_REV`, or `OUT_TOGGLE`. Normal behavior is a global direction of `OUT_FWD`. When the global direction is `OUT_REV`, then the actual output direction will be the opposite of whatever the regular output calls request. Calling `SetGlobalDirection()` with `OUT_TOGGLE` will switch between normal and opposite behavior.

```
SetGlobalDirection(OUT_A, OUT_REV); // opposite direction
SetGlobalDirection(OUT_A, OUT_FWD); // normal direction
```

### **SetMaxPower(outputs, power)** **Function - RCX2, Scout**

Sets the maximum power level allowed for the outputs. The power level may be a variable, but should have a value between `OUT_LOW` and `OUT_FULLL`.

```
SetMaxPower(OUT_A, OUT_HALF);
```

### **GlobalOutputStatus(n)** **Value - RCX2, Scout**

Returns the current global output setting for motor `n`. Note that `n` must be 0, 1, or 2 - not `OUT_A`, `OUT_B`, or `OUT_C`.

```
x = GlobalOutputStatus(0); // global status of OUT_A
```

## **3.3 Sound**

### **PlaySound(sound)** **Function - All**

Plays one of the 6 preset RCX sounds. The sound argument must be a constant. The following constants are pre-defined for use with `PlaySound`: `SOUND_CLICK`, `SOUND_DOUBLE_BEEP`, `SOUND_DOWN`, `SOUND_UP`, `SOUND_LOW_BEEP`, `SOUND_FAST_UP`.

```
PlaySound(SOUND_CLICK);
```

### **PlayTone(frequency, duration)**

**Function - All**

Plays a single tone of the specified frequency and duration. The frequency is in Hz and can be a variable for RCX2 and Scout, but has to be constant for RCX and CyberMaster. The duration is in 100ths of a second and must be a constant.

```
PlayTone(440, 50); // Play 'A' for one half second
```

### **MuteSound()**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Stops all sounds and tones from being played.

```
MuteSound();
```

### **UnmuteSound()**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Restores normal operation of sounds and tones.

```
UnmuteSound();
```

### **ClearSound()**

**Function - RCX2**

Removes any pending sounds from the sound buffer.

```
ClearSound();
```

### **SelectSounds(group)**

**Function - Scout**

Selects which group of system sounds should be used. The group must be a constant.

```
SelectSounds(0);
```

## **3.4 LCD Display**

**RCX**

The RCX has seven different display modes as shown below. The RCX defaults to `DISPLAY_WATCH`.

Mode	LCD Contents
DISPLAY_WATCH	show the system "watch"
DISPLAY_SENSOR_1	show value of sensor 1
DISPLAY_SENSOR_2	show value of sensor 2
DISPLAY_SENSOR_3	show value of sensor 3
DISPLAY_OUT_A	show setting for output A
DISPLAY_OUT_B	show setting for output B
DISPLAY_OUT_C	show setting for output C

The RCX2 adds an eighth display mode - `DISPLAY_USER`. User display mode continuously reads a source value and updates the display. It can optionally display a decimal point at any position within the number. This allows the display to give the illusion of working with fractions even though all values are stored internally as integers. For example, the following call will set the user display to show the value 1234 with two digits appearing after the decimal point, resulting in "12.34" appearing on the LCD.

```
SetUserDisplay(1234, 2);
```

The following short program illustrates the update of the user display:

```
task main()  
{  
    ClearTimer(0);  
    SetUserDisplay(Timer(0), 0);  
    until(false);  
}
```

Because the user display mode continuously updates the LCD, there are certain restrictions on the source value. If a variable is used it must be assigned to a global storage location. The best way to ensure this is to make the variable a global one. There can also be some strange side effects. For example, if a variable is being displayed and later used as the target of a calculation, it is possible for the display to show some intermediate results of the calculation:

```
int x;  
task main()  
{
```

```
SetUserDisplay(x, 0);  
while(true)  
{  
    // display may briefly show 1!  
    x = 1 + Timer(0);  
}  
}
```

### **SelectDisplay(mode)**

**Function - RCX**

Select a display mode.

```
SelectDisplay(DISPLAY_SENSOR_1); // view sensor 1
```

### **SetUserDisplay(value, precision)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set the LCD display to continuously monitor the specified value. Precision specifies the number of digits to the right of the decimal point. A precision of zero shows no decimal point.

```
SetUserDisplay(Timer(0), 0); // view timer 0
```

## **3.5 Communication**

### **3.5.1 Messages**

**RCX, Scout**

The RCX and Scout can send and receive simple messages using IR. A message can have a value from 0 to 255, but the use of message 0 is discouraged. The most recently received message is remembered and can be accessed as `Message()`. If no message has been received, `Message()` will return 0. Note that due to the nature of IR communication, receiving is disabled while a message is being transmitted.

### **ClearMessage()**

**Function - RCX, Scout**

Clear the message buffer. This facilitates detection of the next received message since the program can then wait for `Message()` to become non-zero:

```
ClearMessage(); // clear out the received message  
until(Message() > 0); // wait for next message
```



### SendMessage(message)

**Function - RCX, Scout**

Send an IR message. Message may be any expression, but the RCX can only send messages with a value between 0 and 255, so only the lowest 8 bits of the argument are used.

```
SendMessage(3); // send message 3
SendMessage(259); // another way to send message 3
```

### SetTxPower(power)

**Function - RCX, Scout**

Set the power level for IR transmission. Power should be one of the constants TX\_POWER\_LO or TX\_POWER\_HI.

## 3.5.2 Serial

**RCX2**

The RCX2 can transmit serial data out the IR port. Prior to transmitting any data, the communication and packet settings must be specified. Then, for each transmission, data should be placed in the transmit buffer, then sent using the `SendSerial()` function.

The communication settings are set with `SetSerialComm`, and determine how bits are sent over IR. Possible values are shown below.

Option	Effect
SERIAL_COMM_DEFAULT	default settings
SERIAL_COMM_4800	4800 baud
SERIAL_COMM_DUTY25	25% duty cycle
SERIAL_COMM_76KHZ	76kHz carrier

The default is to send data at 2400 baud using a 50% duty cycle on a 38kHz carrier. To specify multiple options (such as 4800 baud with 25% duty cycle), combine the individual options using bitwise or (`SERIAL_COMM_4800 | SERIAL_COMM_DUTY25`).

The packet settings are set with `SetSerialPacket` and control how bytes are assembled into packets. Possible values are shown below.

Option	Effect
SERIAL_PACKET_DEFAULT	no packet format - just data bytes
SERIAL_PACKET_PREAMBLE	send a packet preamble
SERIAL_PACKET_NEGATED	follow each byte with its complement
SERIAL_PACKET_CHECKSUM	include a checksum for each packet
SERIAL_PACKET_RCX	standard RCX format (preamble, negated data, and checksum)

Note that negated packets always include a checksum, so the SERIAL\_PACKET\_CHECKSUM option is only meaningful when SERIAL\_PACKET\_NEGATED is not specified. Likewise the preamble, negated, and checksum settings are implied by SERIAL\_PACKET\_RCX.

The transmit buffer can hold up to 16 data bytes. These bytes may be set using SetSerialData, then transmitted by calling SendSerial. For example, the following code sends two bytes (0x12 and 0x34) out the serial port:

```
SetSerialComm(SERIAL_COMM_DEFAULT);  
SetSerialPacket(SERIAL_PACKET_DEFAULT);  
SetSerialData(0, 0x12);  
SetSerialData(1, 0x34);  
SendSerial(0, 2);
```

### **SetSerialComm(settings)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set the communication settings, which determine how the bits are sent over IR

```
SetSerialComm(SERIAL_COMM_DEFAULT);
```

### **SetSerialPacket(settings)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set the packet settings, which control how bytes are assembled into packets.

```
SetSerialPacket(SERIAL_PACKET_DEFAULT);
```

### **SetSerialData(n, value)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set one byte of data in the transmit buffer. N is the index of the byte to set (0-15), and value can be any expression.

```
SetSerialData(3, x); // set byte 3 to x
```

### **SerialData(n)**

**Value - RCX2**

Returns the value of a byte in the transmit buffer (NOT received data). N must be a constant between 0 and 15.

```
x = SerialData(7); // read byte #7
```

### **SendSerial(start, count)**

**Function - RCX2**

Use the contents of the transmit buffer to build a packet and send it out the IR port (according to the current packet and communication settings). Start and count are both constants that specify the first byte and the number of bytes within the buffer to be sent.

```
SendSerial(0,2); // send first two bytes in buffer
```

## **3.5.3 VLL**

**Scout**

### **SendVLL(value)**

**Function - Scout**

Sends a Visible Light Link (VLL) command, which can be used to communicate with the MicroScout or Code Pilot. The specific VLL commands are described in the Scout SDK.

```
SendVLL(4); // send VLL command #4
```

## **3.6 Timers**

All targets provide several independent timers with 100ms resolution (10 ticks per second). The Scout provides 3 such timers while the RCX and CyberMaster provide 4. The timers wrap around to 0 after 32767 ticks (about 55 minutes). The value of a timer can be read using `Timer(n)`, where n is a constant that determines which timer to use (0-2 for Scout, 0-3 for the others). RCX2 provides the ability to read the same timers with

higher resolution by using `FastTimer(n)`, which returns the timer's value with 10ms resolution (100 ticks per second).

### **ClearTimer(n)**

**Function - All**

Reset the specified timer to 0.

```
ClearTimer(0);
```

### **Timer(n)**

**Value - All**

Return the current value of specified timer (in 100ms resolution).

```
x = Timer(0);
```

### **SetTimer(n, value)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set a timer to a specific value (which may be any expression).

```
SetTimer(0, x);
```

### **FastTimer(n)**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the current value of specified timer in 10ms resolution.

```
x = FastTimer(0);
```

## **3.7 Counters**

**RCX2, Scout**

Counters are like very simple variables that can be incremented, decremented, and cleared. The Scout provides two counters (0 and 1), while the RCX2 provides three (0, 1, and 2). In the case of RCX2, these counters are overlapped with global storage locations 0-2, so if they are going to be used as counters, a `#pragma reserve` should be used to prevent NQC from using the storage location for a regular variable. For example, to use counter 1:

```
#pragma reserve 1
```

### **ClearCounter(n)**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Reset counter n to 0. N must be 0 or 1 for Scout, 0-2 for RCX2.

```
ClearCounter(1);
```

**IncCounter(n)**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Increment counter n by 1. N must be 0 or 1 for Scout, 0-2 for RCX2

```
IncCounter(1);
```

**DecCounter(n)**

**Function - RCX2, Scout**

Decrement counter n by 1. N must be 0 or 1 for Scout, 0-2 for RCX2

```
DecCounter(1);
```

**Counter(n)**

**Value - RCX, Scout**

Return the current value of counter n. N must be 0 or 1 for Scout, 0-3 for RCX2

```
x = Counter(1);
```

**3.8 Access Control**

**RCX2, Scout**

Access control is implemented primarily by the `acquire` statement. The `SetPriority` function can be used to set a task's priority, and the following constants may be used to specify resources in an `acquire` statement. Note that the user defined resources are only available on the RCX2.

Constant	Resource
ACQUIRE_OUT_A, ACQUIRE_OUT_B, ACQUIRE_OUT_C	outputs
ACQUIRE_SOUND	sound
ACQUIRE_USER_1, ACQUIRE_USER_2, ACQUIRE_USER_3, ACQUIRE_USER_4	user defined - RCX2 only

**SetPriority(p) - Function - RCX2, Scout**

Set a task's priority to *p*, which must be a constant. RCX2 supports priorities 0-255, while Scout supports priorities 0-7. Note that lower numbers are higher priority.

```
SetPriority(1);
```

### 3.9 Events RCX2, Scout

Although the RCX2 and Scout share a common event mechanism, the RCX2 provides 16 completely configurable events while the Scout has 15 predefined events. The only functions common to both targets are the commands to inspect or force events.

#### ActiveEvents(task) Value - RCX2, Scout

Return the set of events that have been triggered for a given task.

```
x = ActiveEvents(0);
```

#### CurrentEvents() Value - RCX2

Return the set of events that have been triggered for the active task.

```
x = CurrentEvents();
```

#### Event(events) Function - RCX2, Scout

Manually triggers the specified events. This can be useful in testing event handling of the program, or in other cases simulating an event based on other criteria. Note that the specification of the events themselves is slightly different between RCX2 and Scout. RCX2 uses the `EVENT_MASK` macro to compute an event mask, while Scout has predefined masks.

```
Event(EVENT_MASK(3)); // triggering an RCX2 event
Event(EVENT_1_PRESSED); // triggering a Scout event
```

#### 3.9.1 RCX2 Events RCX2

RCX2 provides an extremely flexible event system. There are 16 events, each of which can be mapped to one of several event sources (the stimulus that can trigger the event), and an event type (the criteria for triggering). A number of other parameters may also be

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specified depending on the event type. For all of the configuration calls an event is identified by its event number - a constant from 0 to 15.

Legal event sources are sensors, timers, counters, or the message buffer. An event is configured by calling `SetEvent(event, source, type)`, where `event` is a constant event number (0-15), `source` is the event source itself, and `type` is one of the types shown below (some combinations of sources and types are illegal).

Event Type	Condition	Event Source
EVENT_TYPE_PRESSED	value becomes <i>on</i>	sensors only
EVENT_TYPE_RELEASED	value becomes <i>off</i>	sensors only
EVENT_TYPE_PULSE	value goes from <i>off</i> to <i>on</i> to <i>off</i>	sensors only
EVENT_TYPE_EDGE	value goes from <i>on</i> to <i>off</i> or vice versa	sensors only
EVENT_TYPE_FASTCHANGE	value changes rapidly	sensors only
EVENT_TYPE_LOW	value becomes <i>low</i>	any
EVENT_TYPE_NORMAL	value becomes <i>normal</i>	any
EVENT_TYPE_HIGH	value becomes <i>high</i>	any
EVENT_TYPE_CLICK	value from <i>low</i> to <i>high</i> back to <i>low</i>	any
EVENT_TYPE_DOUBLECLICK	two clicks within a certain time	any
EVENT_TYPE_MESSAGE	new message received	Message() only

The first four event types make use of a sensor's boolean value, thus are most useful with touch sensors. For example, to set event #2 to be triggered when a touch sensor on port 1 is pressed, the following call could be made:

```
SetEvent(2, SENSOR_1, EVENT_TYPE_PRESSED);
```

In order for `EVENT_TYPE_PULSE` or `EVENT_TYPE_EDGE` to be used, the sensor must be configured in the `SENSOR_MODE_PULSE` or `SENSOR_MODE_EDGE` respectively.

`EVENT_TYPE_FASTCHANGE` should be used with sensors that have been configured with a slope parameter. When the raw value changes faster than the slope parameter an `EVENT_TYPE_FASTCHANGE` event will be triggered.

The next three types (`EVENT_TYPE_LOW`, `EVENT_TYPE_NORMAL`, and `EVENT_TYPE_HIGH`) convert an event source's value into one of three ranges (low, normal, or high), and trigger an event when the value moves from one range into another. The ranges are defined by the *lower limit* and *upper limit* for the event. When the source value is lower than the lower limit, the source is considered low. When the source value is higher than the upper limit, the source is considered high. The source is normal whenever it is between the limits.

The following example configures event #3 to trigger when the sensor on port 2's value goes into the high range. The upper limit is set for 80, and the lower limit is set for 50. This configuration is typical of how an event can be triggered when a light sensor detected a bright light.

```
SetEvent(3, SENSOR_2, EVENT_TYPE_HIGH);
SetLowerLimit(3, 50);
SetUpperLimit(3, 80);
```

A hysteresis parameter can be used to provide more stable transitions in cases where the source value may jitter. Hysteresis works by making the transition from low to normal a little higher than the transition from normal to low. In a sense, it makes it easier to get into the low range than get out of it. A symmetrical case applies to the transition between normal and high.

A transition from low to high back to low will trigger a `EVENT_TYPE_CLICK` event, provided that the entire sequence is faster than the *click time* for the event. If two successive clicks occur and the time between clicks is also less than the click time, then an `EVENT_TYPE_DOUBLECLICK` event will be triggered. The system also keeps track of the total number of clicks for each event.



The last event type, `EVENT_TYPE_MESSAGE`, is only valid when `Message()` is used as the event source. The event will be triggered whenever a new message arrives (even if its value is the same as a previous message).

The monitor statement and some API functions (such as `ActiveEvents()` or `Event()`) need to handle multiple events. This is done by converting each event number to an event mask, and then combining the masks with a bitwise OR. The `EVENT_MASK(event)` macro converts an event number to a mask. For example, to monitor events 2 and 3, the following statement could be used:

```
monitor(EVENT_MASK(2) | EVENT_MASK(3))
```

### **SetEvent(event, source, type)**

**Function - RCX2**

Configure an event (a number from 0 to 15) to use the specified source and type. Both event and type must be constants, and source should be the actual source expression.

```
SetEvent(2, Timer(0), EVENT_TYPE_HIGH);
```

### **ClearEvent(event)**

**Value - RCX2**

Clear the configuration for the specified event. This prevents it from triggering until it is re-configured.

```
ClearEvent(2); // clear event #2
```

### **ClearAllEvents()**

**Value - RCX2**

Clear the configurations for all events.

```
ClearAllEvents();
```

### **EventState(event)**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the state of a given event. States are 0: Low, 1: Normal, 2: High, 3: Undefined, 4: Start calibrating, 5: Calibrating in process.

```
x = EventState(2);
```

### **CalibrateEvent(event, lower, upper, hyst)**

**Function - RCX2**

Calibrate the event by taking an actual sensor reading and then applying the specified lower, upper, and hyst ratios to determine actual limits and hysteresis value. The specific formulas for calibration depend on sensor type and are explained in the LEGO SDK. Calibration is not instantaneous - EventState() can be checked to determine when the calibration is complete (typically about 50ms).

```
CalibrateEvent(2, 50, 50, 20);  
until(EventState(2) != 5); // wait for calibration
```

### **SetUpperLimit(event, limit)** **Function - RCX2**

Set the upper limit for the event, where event is a constant event number and limit can be any expression.

```
SetUpperLimit(2, x); // set upper limit for #2 to x
```

### **UpperLimit(event)** **Value - RCX2**

Return the current upper limit for the specified event number.

```
x = UpperLimit(2); // get upper limit for event 2
```

### **SetLowerLimit(event, limit)** **Function - RCX2**

Set the lower limit for the event, where event is a constant event number and limit can be any expression.

```
SetLowerLimit(2, x); // set lower limit for #2 to x
```

### **LowerLimit(event)** **Value - RCX2**

Return the current lower limit for the specified event number.

```
x = LowerLimit(2); // get lower limit for event 2
```

### **SetHysteresis(event, value)** **Function - RCX2**

Set the hysteresis for the event, where event is a constant event number and value can be any expression.

```
SetHysteresis(2, x);
```

### **Hysteresis(event)** **Value - RCX2**

Return the current hysteresis for the specified event number.

```
x = Hysteresis(2);
```

### **SetClickTime(event, value)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set the click time for the event, where event is a constant event number and value can be any expression. The time is specified in increments of 10ms, so one second would be a value of 100.

```
SetClickTime(2, x);
```

### **ClickTime(event)**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the current click time for the specified event number.

```
x = ClickTime(2);
```

### **SetClickCounter(event, value)**

**Function - RCX2**

Set the click counter for the event, where event is a constant event number and value can be any expression.

```
SetClickCounter(2, x);
```

### **ClickCounter(event)**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the current click counter for the specified event number.

```
x = ClickCounter(2);
```

## **3.9.2 Scout Events**

**Scout**

The Scout provides 15 events, each of which has a predefined meaning as shown in the table below.

<b>Event Name</b>	<b>Condition</b>
EVENT_1_PRESSED	sensor 1 pressed
EVENT_1_RELEASED	sensor 1 released

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EVENT_2_PRESSED	sensor 2 pressed
EVENT_2_RELEASED	sensor 2 released
EVENT_LIGHT_HIGH	light sensor "high"
EVENT_LIGHT_NORMAL	light sensor "normal"
EVENT_LIGHT_LOW	light sensor "low"
EVENT_LIGHT_CLICK	low to high to low
EVENT_LIGHT_DOUBLECLICK	two clicks
EVENT_COUNTER_0	counter 0 over limit
EVENT_COUNTER_1	counter 1 over limit
EVENT_TIMER_0	timer 0 over limit
EVENT_TIMER_1	timer 1 over limit
EVENT_TIMER_2	timer 2 over limit
EVENT_MESSAGE	new message received

The first four events are triggered by touch sensors connected to the two sensor ports.

EVENT\_LIGHT\_HIGH, EVENT\_LIGHT\_NORMAL, and EVENT\_LIGHT\_LOW are triggered by the light sensor's value changing from one range to another. The ranges are defined by `SetSensorUpperLimit`, `SetSensorLowerLimit`, and `SetSensorHysteresis` which were described previously.

EVENT\_LIGHT\_CLICK and EVENT\_LIGHT\_DOUBLECLICK are also triggered by the light sensor. A click is a transition from low to high and back to low within a certain amount of time, called the *click time*.

Each counter has a counter limit. When the counter exceeds this limit,

EVENT\_COUNTER\_0 or EVENT\_COUNTER\_1 is triggered. Timers also have a limit, and they generate EVENT\_TIMER\_0, EVENT\_TIMER\_1, and EVENT\_TIMER\_2.

EVENT\_MESSAGE is triggered whenever a new IR message is received.

### **SetSensorClickTime(value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the click time used to generate events from the light sensor. Value should be specified in increments of 10ms, and may be any expression.

```
SetSensorClickTime(x);
```

### **SetCounterLimit(n, value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the limit for counter n. N must be 0 or 1, and value may be any expression.

```
SetCounterLimit(0, 100); // set counter 0 limit to 100
```

### **SetTimerLimit(n, value)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the limit for timer n. N must be 0, 1, or 2, and value may be any expression.

```
SetTimerLimit(1, 100); // set timer 1 limit to 100
```

## **3.10 Data Logging**

**RCX**

The RCX contains a datalog which can be used to store readings from sensors, timers, variables, and the system watch. Before adding data, the datalog first needs to be created using the `CreateDatalog(size)` command. The 'size' parameter must be a constant and determines how many data points the datalog can hold.

```
CreateDatalog(100); // datalog for 100 points
```

Values can then be added to the datalog using `AddToDatalog(value)`. When the datalog is uploaded to a computer it will show both the value itself and the source of the value (timer, variable, etc). The datalog directly supports the following data sources: timers, sensor values, variables, and the system watch. Other data types (such as a constant or random number) may also be logged, but in this case NQC will first move the value into a variable and then log the variable. The values will still be captured faithfully in the datalog, but the sources of the data may be a bit misleading.

```
AddToDatalog(Timer(0)); // add timer 0 to datalog
```

```
AddToDatalog(x); // add variable 'x'
```

```
AddToDatalog(7); // add 7 - will look like a variable
```

The RCX itself cannot read values back out of the datalog. The datalog must be uploaded to a host computer. The specifics of uploading the datalog depend on the NQC environment being used. For example, in the command line version of NQC, the following commands will upload and print the datalog:

```
nqc -datalog
nqc -datalog_full
```

### **CreateDatalog(size)**

**Function - RCX**

Create a datalog of the specified *size* (which must be a constant). A size of 0 clears the existing datalog without creating a new one.

```
CreateDatalog(100); // datalog for 100 points
```

### **AddToDatalog(value)**

**Function - RCX**

Add the *value*, which may be an expression, to the datalog. If the datalog is full the call has no effect.

```
AddToDatalog(x);
```

### **UploadDatalog(start, count)**

**Function - RCX**

Initiate and upload of *count* data points beginning at *start*. This is of relatively little use since the host computer usually initiates the upload.

```
UploadDatalog(0, 100); // upload entire 100 point log
```

## **3.11 General Features**

### **Wait(time)**

**Function - All**

Make a task sleep for specified amount of time (in 100ths of a second). The time argument may be an expression or a constant:

```
Wait(100); // wait 1 second
Wait(Random(100)); // wait random time up to 1 second
```

### **StopAllTasks()**

**Function - All**

Stop all currently running tasks. This will halt the program completely, so any code following this command will be ignored.

```
StopAllTasks(); // stop the program
```

### **Random(n)**

**Value - All**

Return a random number between 0 and n. N must be a constant.

```
x = Random(10);
```

### **SetRandomSeed(n)**

**Function - RCX2**

Seed the random number generator with n. N may be an expression.

```
SetRandomSeed(x); // seed with value of x
```

### **SetSleepTime(minutes)**

**Function - All**

Set the sleep timeout the requested number of minutes (which must be a constant).  
Specifying 0 minutes disables the sleep feature.

```
SetSleepTime(5); // sleep after 5 minutes  
SetSleepTime(0); // disable sleep time
```

### **SleepNow()**

**Function - All**

Force the device to go to sleep. Only works if the sleep time is non-zero.

```
SleepNow(); // go to sleep
```

## **3.12 RCX Specific Features**

### **Program()**

**Value - RCX**

Number of the currently selected program.

```
x = Program();
```

### **SelectProgram(n)**

**Function - RCX2**

Select the specified program and start running it. Note that programs are numbered 0-4 (not 1-5 as displayed on the LCD).

```
SelectProgram(3);
```

### **BatteryLevel()**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the battery level in millivolts.

```
x = BatteryLevel();
```

### **FirmwareVersion()**

**Value - RCX2**

Return the firmware version as an integer. For example, version 3.2.6 is 326.

```
x = FirmwareVersion();
```

### **Watch()**

**Value - RCX**

Return the value of the system clock in minutes.

```
x = Watch();
```

### **SetWatch(hours, minutes)**

**Function - RCX**

Set the system watch to the specified number of hours and minutes. Hours must be a constant between 0 and 23 inclusive. Minutes must be a constant between 0 and 59 inclusive.

```
SetWatch(3, 15); // set watch to 3:15
```

## **3.13 Scout Specific Features**

### **SetScoutRules(motion, touch, light, time, fx)**

**Function - Scout**

Set the various rules used by the scout in stand-alone mode.

### **ScoutRules(n)**

**Value - Scout**

Return current setting for one of the rules. N should be a constant between 0 and 4.

```
x = ScoutRules(1); // get setting for rule #1
```

### **SetScoutMode(mode)**

**Function - Scout**



Put the scout into stand-alone (0) or power (1) mode. As a programming call it really only makes sense to put into stand-alone mode since it would already be in power mode to run an NQC program.

### **SetEventFeedback(events)**

**Function - Scout**

Set which events should be accompanied by audio feedback.

```
SetEventFeedback( EVENT_1_PRESSED );
```

### **EventFeedback()**

**Value - Scout**

Return the set of events that have audio feedback.

```
x = EventFeedback();
```

### **SetLight(mode)**

**Function - Scout**

Control the Scout's LED. Mode must be LIGHT\_ON or LIGHT\_OFF.

```
SetLight(LIGHT_ON); // turn on LED
```

## **3.14 CyberMaster Specific Features**

CyberMaster provides alternate names for the sensors: SENSOR\_L, SENSOR\_M, and SENSOR\_R. It also provides alternate names for the outputs: OUT\_L, OUT\_R, OUT\_X. Additionally, the two internal motors have tachometers, which measure 'clicks' and speed as the motors turn. There are about 50 clicks per revolution of the shaft. The tachometers can be used, for example, to create a robot which can detect if it has bumped into an object without using any external sensors. The tachometers have maximum values of 32767 and do not differentiate between directions. They will also count up if the shaft is turned by hand, including when no program is running.

### **Drive(motor0, motor1)**

**Function - CyberMaster**

Turns on both motors at the power levels specified. If a power level is negative, then the motor will run in reverse. Equivalent to this code:

```
SetPower(OUT_L, abs(power0));
```

```
SetPower(OUT_R, abs(power1));
if(power0 < 0)
    { SetDirection(OUT_L, OUT_REV) }
else
    { SetDirection(OUT_L, OUT_FWD) }
if(power1 < 0)
    { SetDirection(OUT_R, OUT_REV) }
else
    { SetDirection(OUT_R, OUT_FWD) }
SetOutput(OUT_L + OUT_R, OUT_ON);
```

### **OnWait(motors, n time)**

**Function - CyberMaster**

Turns on the motors specified, all at the same power level then waits for the given time. The time is in 10ths of a second, with a maximum of 255 (or 25.5 seconds). Equivalent to this code:

```
SetPower(motors, abs(power));
if(power < 0)
    { SetDirection(motors, OUT_REV) }
else
    { SetDirection(motors, OUT_FWD) }
SetOutput(motors, OUT_ON);
Wait( time * 10 );
```

### **OnWaitDifferent(motors, n0, n1, n2, time)**

**Function - CyberMaster**

Like OnWait(), except different power levels can be given for each motor.

### **ClearTachoCounter(motors)**

**Function - CyberMaster**

Resets the tachometer for the motor(s) specified.

### **TachoCount(n)**

**Value - CyberMaster**

Returns the current value of the tachometer for a specified motor.

### **TachoSpeed(n)**

**Value - CyberMaster**

Returns the current speed of the tachometer for a specified motor. The speed is fairly constant for an unladen motor at any speed, with a maximum value of 90. (This will be lower as your batteries lose power!) The value drops as the load on the motor increases. A value of 0 indicates that the motor is stalled.

### **ExternalMotorRunning()**

**Value - CyberMaster**

This is actually a measure of the current being drawn by the motor. The values returned tends to fluctuate slightly, but are, on average, as follows for an unladen motor:

0      motor is floating

1      motor is off

<=7    motor is running at around this power level. This is where the value fluctuates the most (probably related to the PWM method used to drive the motors.) In any case, you should know what power level you set the motor to in the first place. The value increases as the load on the motor increases, and a value between 260 and 300 indicates that the motor has stalled.

### **AGC()**

**Value - CyberMaster**

Return the current value of the automatic gain control on the RF receiver. This can be used to give a very rough (and somewhat inaccurate) measure of the distance between the CyberMaster and the RF transmitter.

x = AGC ( ) ;

## 4 Technical Details

This section explains some of the low-level features of NQC. In general, these mechanisms should only be used as a last resort since they may change in future releases. Most programmers will never need to use the features described below - they are mainly used in the creation of the NQC API file.

### 4.1 The `asm` statement

The `asm` statement is used to define almost all of the NQC API calls. The syntax of the statement is:

```
asm { item1, item2 ... itemN }
```

Where an item is one of the following

```
constant_expression  
& expression  
& expression : restrictor
```

The statement simply emits the values of each of the items as raw bytecodes. Constant items are the simplest - they result in a single byte of raw data (the lower 8 bits of the constant value). For example, the API file defines the following inline function:

```
void ClearMessage() { asm { 0x90 }; }
```

Whenever `ClearMessage()` is called by a program, the value `0x90` is emitted as a bytecode.

Many API functions take arguments, and these arguments must be encoded into an appropriate effective address for the bytecode interpreter. In the most general case, an effective address contains a *source code* followed by a two byte value (least significant byte first). Source codes are explained in the SDK documentation available from LEGO. However, it is often desirable to encode the value in some other manner - for example to use only a single byte value after the source code, omit the source code itself, or only allow certain sources to be used. A *restrictor* may be used to control how the effective address is formatted. A restrictor is a 32 bit constant value. The lower 24 bits form a bitmask indicating which sources are valid (bit 0 should be set to allow source 0, etc).

The upper 8 bits include formatting flags for the effective address. Note that when no restrictor is specified, this is the same as using a restrictor of 0 (no restriction on sources, and a format of source followed by two value bytes). The API file defines the following constants which can be used to build restrictors:

```
#define __ASM_SMALL_VALUE    0x01000000
#define __ASM_NO_TYPE       0x02000000
#define __ASM_NO_LOCAL      0x04000000

#if __RCX==2
    // no restriction
    #define __ASM_SRC_BASIC    0
    #define __ASM_SRC_EXT     0
#else
    #define __ASM_SRC_BASIC    0x000005
    #define __ASM_SRC_EXT     0x000015
#endif
```

The `__ASM_SMALL_VALUE` flag indicates that a one-byte value should be used instead of a two-byte value. The `__ASM_NO_TYPE` flag indicates that the source code should be omitted. The `__ASM_NO_LOCAL` flag specifies that local variables are not a legal source for the expression. Note that the RCX2 firmware is less restrictive than the other interpreters, thus the definition of `__ASM_SRC_BASIC` and `__ASM_SRC_EXT` are relaxed in the RCX2 case. The API definition file for NQC contains numerous examples of using restrictors within asm statement. If you are using a command-line version of NQC, you can emit the API file by typing the following command:

```
nqc -api
```

## 4.2 Data Sources

The bytecode interpreters use different data sources to represent the various kinds of data (constants, variables, random numbers, sensor values, etc). The specific sources depend to a certain extent on which device you are using and are described in the SDK documentation available from LEGO.

NQC provides a special operator to represent a data source:

```
@ constant
```

The value of this expression is the data source described by the constant. The lower 16 bits of the constant represent the data value, and the next 8 bits are the source code. For example, the source code for a random number is 4, so the expression for a random number between 0 and 9 would be:

```
@0x40009
```

The NQC API file defines a number of macros which make the use of the @ operator transparent to the programmer. For example, in the case of random numbers:

```
#define Random(n) @(0x40000 + (n))
```

Note that since source 0 is the global variable space, the global storage locations can be referenced by number: @0 refers to storage location 0. If for some reason you need explicit control over where variables are being stored, then you should use `#pragma reserve` to instruct NQC not to use those storage locations, and then access them manually with the @ operator. For example, the following code snippet reserves location 0 and creates a macro for it called `x`.

```
#pragma reserve 0
#define x (@0)
```