# Melib

A Macro Assembler For The Apple II



# INSTRUCTION MANUAL

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# 1. INTRODUCTION

# 1.1. Assembly Language Whys and Wherefores

Some of you may ask "What is Assembly Language?" or "Why do I need to use Assembly Language; BASIC suits me fine." While we do not have the space here to do a treatise on the subject, we will attempt to briefly answer the above questions.

Computer languages are often referred to as "high level" or "low level" languages. BASIC, COBOL, FORTRAN and PASCAL are all high level languages. A high level language is one that usually uses English-like words (commands) and may go through several stages of interpretation or compilation before finally being placed in memory. The time this processing takes is the reason BASIC and other high level languages run far slower than an equivalent Assembly Language program. In addition, it normally consumes a great deal more available memory.

From the ground up, your computer understands only two things, off and on. All of its calculations are handled as addition or subtraction but at tremendously high speeds. The only number system it comprehends is Base 2 (the Binary System) where a "1" is represented by 0000001 and a "2" is represented by 00000010.

The  $65\emptyset2$  microprocessor has five 8-bit registers and one 16-bit register in the ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit). All data is ultimately handled through these registers. Even this lowest of low-level code requires a program to function correctly. This program is hard wired within the  $65\emptyset2$  itself. The microprocessor program functions in three cycles. It fetches an instruction from RAM memory in the computer, decodes it and executes it.

These instructions exist in RAM memory as one, two or three byte groups. A byte contains 8 binary bits of data and is usually notated in hexadecimal (base 16) form. Some early microcomputers allowed data entry only through 16 front panel switches, each of which, when set on or off, would combine in hex. This requires an additional program in the computer to break the byte down into its respective 8 bits so that 65%2 may interpret it.

At the next level up (requiring still more programming), the user may enter his/her data in the form of a three character "mnemonic", a type of code whose characters form an association with the microprocessor operation, e.g. LDA stands for "LoaD the Accumulator". The standard Apple II has a built-in mini-assembler that permits simple Assembly Language programming.

But even this is not sufficient to create a long and comprehensive program. In addition to the use of a three character mnemonic, a full fledged assembler allows the programmer to use "labels", which represent an as yet undefined area of memory where a particular segment of the program will be stored. In addition, an assembler will have a provision for line numbers, similar to those in a BASIC program, which in turn permits the programmer to insert lines into the program and perform other editing operations. This is what MERLIN is all about.

Finally, a high level language such as BASIC is itself an assembly program which takes a command such as PRINT and reduces it by tokenizing to a single hex byte before storing it in memory.

Before using this or any other assembler, the user is expected to be somewhat familiar with the  $65\emptyset2$  architecture, modes of addressing, etc. This manual is not intended to teach Assembly Language programming. Many good books on  $65\emptyset2$  Assembly programming are available at your local dealer; some are referenced later in this section.

#### 1.2. Backgrounds and Features

MERLIN is a "Ted-based" editor-assembler. This means that while it is essentially new from the ground up, it adheres to and follows almost all of the conventions associated with TED II+, in terms of the command mnemonics, pseudo-ops, etc.

The original TED ASM was written by Randy Wiggington and Gary Shannon. It has been widely distributed "under the counter" by user groups and individuals, under many names, and in a variety of versions. Seemingly, each person added his own enhancements and improvements. MERLIN is no exception. Representing a major step forward, with the addition of macro capability, MERLIN appears on the scene now as one of the most advanced and sophisticated editor-assemblers for the Apple II, yet retains all of the easy-to-use features of TED that make it desirable to a beginner in assembly language programming.

Significant changes incorporated in MERLIN, in addition to macros, include the use of the logical operators AND, OR, and EOR, and the math operator for division, the ability to list with or without line numbers, and substantially faster editing. Similarly, the edit module now includes many additional commands to facilitate editing, and the "Read" command allows any Apple text file to be read into the edit buffer, thus permitting the use of source files from other assemblers, such as DOS Tool Kit.

MERLIN assumes that your system has at least 48K memory and operates under 3.3 DOS. BEWARE of "custom" DOS's. MERLIN does an automatic MAXFILES 2 upon entry, then reverts to the usual value on exit.

# 1.3. Suggested Reading

SYSTEM MONITOR - Apple Computer, Inc. Peeking at Call-Apple, Vol I.

**APPLE II MINI-ASSEMBLER** - Apple Computer Inc. Peeking at Call-Apple Synertek Programming Manual., Synertek 6500-20.

**PROGRAMMING THE 6502** - Rodnay Zaks, Sybex C-202.

THE APPLE MONITORS PEELED - WM. E. Dougherty, Apple Computer, Inc.

 $\boldsymbol{A}$  HEX ON THEE - Val J. Golding, Peeking at Call-Apple, Vol. II.

FLOATING POINT PACKAGE - Apple Computer, Inc., The Wozpak II

FLOATING POINT LINKAGE ROUTINES - Don Williams, Peeking at Call-Apple Vol I

APPLE II REFERENCE MANUAL - Apple Computer, Inc.

## ASSEMBLY LINES - by Roger Wagner

A continuing series of tutorial articles in SOFTALK magazine. An excellent introduction, easy-to-follow for the beginning assembly language programmer.

#### ASSEMBLY LINES: THE BOOK - by Roger Wagner

A compilation of the first 18 issues of the Assembly Lines series. In addition, the text has been extensively edited and a unique encyclopedia-like appendix added. This appendix shows not only the basic details of each 65 % 2 command, but also a brief discussion of its most common uses along with concise, illustrative listings.

**CONVERTING BRAND X TO BRAND Y** - by Randall Hyde Apple Orchard, Volume 1, No.1, March/April 80. Useful notes and cross references on converting among assemblers.

# CONVERTING INTEGER BASIC PROGRAMS TO ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE by Randall Hyde Apple Orchard, as above.

HOW TO ENTER CALL - APPLE ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE LISTINGS Call-APPLE, Volume IV, No.1, January 81.

## MACHINE TOOLS

Call-APPLE in Depth, No. 1

# 2. SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS

- \* 48K APPLE ][
- \* 16K RAM CARD
- \* 80 COLUMN BOARD (optional)
- \* LOWER CASE BOARD (optional)

# 2.1. Hardware Compatibility List

- \* VIDEX VIDEOTERM
- \* FULL-VIEW 8Ø 8Ø COLUMN BOARD
- \* M & R SUP'R'TERMINAL 80 COLUMN BOARD
- \* ALS SMARTERM 80 COLUMN BOARD
- \* VISTA VISION 80 80 COLUMN BOARD
- \* OMEGA MICROWARE RAMTEX 16 16K RAM BOARD
- \* ANDROMEDA 16K BOARD
- \* MICROSOFT 16K RAM BOARD
- \* WIZARD 80 80 COLUMN BOARD

NOTE: MERLIN has been tested with the cards/boards listed above. The author makes no guarantees with respect to the operation of MERLIN with any  $8\emptyset$  column boards not listed.

# 3. BEGINNERS GUIDE TO USING MERLIN

By T. Petersen

Notes and demonstrations for the beginning MERLIN programmer.

#### 3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this section is not to provide instruction in assembly language programming. It is to introduce MERLIN to programmers new to assembly language programming in general, and MERLIN in particular.

Many of the MERLIN commands and functions are very similar in operation. This section does not attempt to present demonstrations of each and every command option. The objective is to clarify and present examples of the more common operations, sufficient to provide a basis for further independent study on the part of the programmer.

A note of clarification:

Throughout the MERLIN manual, various uses are made of the terms "mode" and "module".

In this section, "module" refers to a distinct computer program component of the MERLIN system. There are four MODULES:

- 1. The EXECUTIVE
- 2. The EDITOR
- 3. The ASSEMBLER
- 4. The SYMBOL TABLE GENERATOR

Each module is grouped under one of the two CONTROL MODES:

- 1) The EXECUTIVE, abbreviated EXEC and indicated by the '%' prompt.
- 2) The EDITOR, indicated by the ':' prompt.

#### EXECUTIVE CONTROL MODE

Executive Module

#### EDITOR CONTROL MODE

Editor Module Assembler Module Symbol Table Generator Module

The term "mode" may be used to indicate either the current control mode (as indicated by the prompt) or alternatively, while in control mode and subsequent to the issuance of an entry command, the system is said to be in '[entry command] mode'. For example, while typing in a program after issuing the ADD command, the system is said to be 'in ADD mode'.

Terminating [entry command] mode returns the system to control mode.

# 3.2. Input

Programmers familiar with some assembly and higher-level languages will recall the necessity of formatting the input, i.e. labels, opcodes, operands and comments must be typed in specific fields or they will not be recognized by the assembler program.

In MERLIN, the TABS operator provides a semi-automatic formatting feature.

When entering programs, remember that during assembly each space in the source code causes a tab to the next tab field. As a demonstration, let's enter the following short routine.

Steps from the very beginning:

- 1. BRUN MERLIN
- When the '%' prompt appears at the bottom of the EXEC mode menu, type 'E'. This instantly places the system in EDITOR control mode.

- 3. Since we are entering an entirely new program, at the ':' prompt type 'A' and press RETURN (A = ADD). A '1' appears one line down and to the right, and the cursor is automatically tabbed one space to the right of the line number. The '1' and all subsequent line numbers which appear after the RETURN key is pressed serve roughly the same purpose as line numbers in BASIC except that in assembly source code, line numbers are not referenced for jumps to subroutines or in GOTO-like statements.
- 4. On line 1, enter an '\*' (asterisk). An asterisk as the first character in any line is similar to a REM statement in BASIC - it tells the assembler that this is a remark line and anything after the asterisk is to be ignored. To confirm this, type the title 'DEMO PROGRAM 1' and hit the RETURN key.
- After return, the cursor once again drops down one line, a '2' appears and the cursor skips a space.
- 6. Now, hit the space bar once and type 'OBJ', space again, type '\$300', and hit RETURN. Note in most cases the 'OBJ' pseudo-op is neither required nor desirable.
- 7. On line 3, perform the same sequence: space, type 'ORG', space, type '\$3 $\emptyset\emptyset$ ', RETURN.
- 8. On line 4, do not space once after the line number. Type 'BELL', space, 'EQU' space, '\$FBDD', RETURN.
- 9. Line 5 Type 'START', space 'JSR', space 'BELL', space, ';' (semicolon), 'RING THE BELL', RETURN. Semicolons are a convention often used within command lines to mark the start of comments.
- 10. Line 6 'END', space, 'RTS', RETURN.
- 11. The program has been completely entered, but the system is still in ADD mode. To exit ADD, just press RETURN, or type CTRL-X, RETURN. The ':' prompt reappears at the left of the screen, indicating that the system has returned to control mode.

# 12. The screen should now appear like this:

```
*DEMO PROGRAM 1
1
2
         OBJ
                $300
3
                $3ØØ
          ORG
4
         EQU
 BELL
                SFBDD
5
  START
         JSR
              BELL
                             ; RING THE BELL
  END
         RTS
```

Note that each string of characters has been moved to a specific field. There are four such fields, not including the line numbers on the left.

#### FIELD #:

One is reserved for labels. BELL, START and END are examples of labels.

Two is reserved for opcodes, such as the MERLIN pseudoops OBJ, ORG and EQU, and the 65%2 opcodes JSR and RTS.

Three is for operands, such as  $\$3\emptyset\emptyset$ , \$FBDD and, in this case, BELL.

Four will contain any comments.

It should be apparent from this exercise that it is not necessary to input extra spaces in the source file for formatting purposes.

In summary, after the line numbers:

- 1) Do not space for a label. Space once after a label (if there is no label, once after the line number) for the opcode.
- Space once after the opcode for the operand. Space once after the operand for the comment. If there is no operand, type a space and a semicolon.

#### 3.3. System and Entry Commands

MERLIN has a powerful and complex built-in editor. Complex in the range of operations possible but, after a little practice, remarkably easy to use.

The following paragraphs contain only minor clarifications and brief demonstrations on the use of both sets of commands. All System and Entry commands are used in EDITOR Control Mode immediately after the ':' prompt.

CTRL-X, CTRL-C or a RETURN as the first character of a line exits the current [entry command] mode and returns the system to control mode when ADDing or INSERTing lines. CTRL-X or CTRL-C exits edit mode and returns the system to control mode after Editing lines.

The other System and Entry Commands are terminated either automatically or by pressing RETURN.

Inserting and deleting lines in the source code are both simple operations. The following example will INSERT three new lines between the existing lines 4 and 5.

- After the ':' prompt, type 'I' (INSERT), the number '5', and press RETURN. All inserted lines will precede the line numbers specified in the command.
- Input an asterisk, and RETURN. Note that INSERT mode has not been exited.
- 3. Repeat step 2.
- 4. Input one space, type 'TYA', and RETURN.

On the screen is the following:

:15

5\*

6\*

7 TYA

8

:L

- 5. Hit RETURN and the system reverts to CONTROL mode.
- 6. LIST the source code.

1 \*DEMO PROGRAM 1 2 \$300 OBJ \$3ØØ ORG 3 EQU \$FBDD 4 BELL 5 \* \* 6 7 TYA BELL ;RING THE BELL 8 START JSR RTS END 9

The three new lines (5,6, and 7) have been inserted, and the subsequent original source lines (now lines 8 and 9) have been renumbered.

Using DELETE is equally easy.

- 1. In control mode, input 'D5', and RETURN. Nothing new appears on the screen.
- 2. LIST the source code. The source listing is one line shorter, one of the asterisk-only lines has disappeared, and the subsequent lines have been renumbered.

It is possible to delete a range of lines in one step.

- 1. In control mode, input 'D5,6' and RETURN.
- 2. LIST the source.

Lines 5 and 6 from the previous example, which contained the remaining asterisk and the TYA opcode, have been deleted, and the subsequent lines renumbered. The listing appears the same as in the subsection on INPUT, Step 13.

This automatic renumbering feature makes it IMPORTANT that when deleting lines you remember to begin with highest line number and work back to the lowest.

The Add, Insert, or Edit commands have several sub-commands comprised of CTRL-characters. To demonstrate, using our BELL routine:

 After the ':' prompt, enter 'E' (the EDIT command) and a line number ... (use '6' for this demonstration), and hit RETURN. One line down and to the right the specified line appears in its formatted state:

## 6 END RTS

and the cursor is over the 'E' in 'END'.

- Type CTRL-D. The character under the cursor disappears.
   Type CTRL-D again, and a third time, 'END' has been deleted, and the cursor is positioned to the left of the opcode.
- 3. Hit RETURN and LIST the program. In line 6 of the source code, only the line number and opcode remain.
- 4. Repeat step 1 (above).
- This time, type CTRL-I. Don't move the cursor with the space bar or arrow keys. Type the word 'END', and RETURN.
- 6. LIST the program. Line 6 has been restored.

If you are editing a single line, hitting RETURN alone restores the control mode prompt. In step 1 (above), if you had specified a range of lines (ex:'E3,6') after issuing the EDIT command, RETURN would have called up the next sequential line number within the specified range. As the lines appear, you have the options of editing using the various subcommands, pressing RETURN which will call up the next line, or exiting the EDIT mode using CTRL-C. NOTE: hitting RETURN will enter the entire line in memory, exactly as it appears on the screen.

The other sub-commands, CTRL-characters used under the EDIT command, function similarly. Read the definitions in Section 3 and practice a few operations.

#### 3.4. Assembly

The next step in using MERLIN is to assemble the source code into object code.

After the ':' prompt, type the edit module system command ASM and hit return. On your screen is the following;

UPDATE SOURCE (Y/N)?

Type N, and you will see:

ASM		1	*DEMO	PROGRAM	1				
		2		OBJ	\$3ØØ				
		3		ORG	\$300				
		4	BELL	EQU	\$FBDD	1			
Ø3ØØ	2Ø DD FB	5	START	JSR	BELL	;RING	THE	BELL	
Ø3Ø3	6Ø	6	END	RTS					

--END ASSEMBLY--

ERRORS: Ø

4 BYTES

BELL

SYMBOL TABLE - ALPHABETICAL ORDER

=\$FBDD

BELL =\$FBDD ? END =\$ $\emptyset$ 3 $\emptyset$ 3 ? START =\$ $\emptyset$ 3 $\emptyset$  $\emptyset$ SYMBOL TABLE - NUMERICAL ORDER ? START =\$ $\emptyset$ 3 $\emptyset$  $\emptyset$  ? END =\$ $\emptyset$ 3 $\emptyset$ 3

If instead of completing the above listing, the system beeps and displays an error message, note the line number referenced in the message, and press RETURN until the "...BYTES..." message appears. Then refer back to the subsection on INPUT and compare the listing with step 13. Look especially for elements in incorrect fields.

If all went well, to the right of the column of numbers down the middle of the screen is the now familiar, formatted source code.

To the left of the numbers, beginning on line 5, is a series of numeric and alphabetic characters. This is the object code - the opcodes and operands assembled to their machine language hexadecimal equivalents.

Left to right, the first group of characters is the routine's starting address in memory (see the definition of OBJ and ORG in the section entitled "Pseudo Opcodes - Directives"). After the colon is the number  $2\emptyset$ . This is the one-byte hexadecimal code for the opcode JSR.

NOTE: that the label 'START' is not assembled into object code; neither are comments, remarks, or pseudo-ops such as OBJ and ORG. Such elements are only for the convenience and utility of the programmer and the use of the assembler program. They are of no use to the computer and therefore, are not translated into the machine's language.

The next two bytes (each pair of characters is one byte) on line 5 bear a curious resemblance to the last group of characters on line 4; have a look. In line 4 of the source code we told the assembler that the label 'BELL' EQUated with address \$FBDD. In line 5, when the assembler encountered 'BELL' as the operand, it substituted the specified address. The sequence of the high and low-order bytes was reversed, a 6502 microprocessor convention.

The rest of the information presented should explain itself. The total errors encountered in the source code was zero, and four bytes of object code (count the bytes following the addresses) was generated.

#### 3.5. Saving and Running Programs

The final step in using MERLIN is running the program. Before that, it would be a good idea to save the source code. OBJECT CODE SAVE must be preceded by a successful assembly.

- Return to control mode if necessary, and type 'Q' RETURN.
   The system has quit EDITOR mode and reverted to EXECUTIVE
   (EXEC) mode. If the MERLIN system disk is still in the
   drive, remove it and insert an initialized work disk.
  - After the '%' prompt, type 'S' (the EXEC mode SAVE SOURCE FILE command). The system will ask for a filename. Type 'DEMO1', RETURN. After the program has been saved, the prompt returns.
- 2. Type 'C' (CATALOG) and look at the disk catalog. The source code has been saved as a binary file titled "DEMO1.S". The suffix ".S" is a file-labelling convention which indicates the subject file is source code. This suffix is automatically appended to the name by the 'S' (SAVE SOURCE FILE) command.

3. Hit RETURN to return to EXEC mode and input 'Ø', for OBJECT CODE SAVE. The object file is saved under the same name as was earlier specified for the source file. There is no danger of overwriting the source file because no suffix is appended to object code file names.

While writing either file to disk, MERLIN also displays the address parameter, and calculates and displays the length parameter. It's a good practice to take note of these. Viewing the catalog will show that although the optional A\$ and L\$ parameters were displayed on the EXEC mode menu, they were not saved as part of the file names. If you'd prefer to have this information in the disk catalog, use the DOS RENAME command. Make sure no commas are included in the new file name.

Return to EDITOR mode, type 'MON', RETURN and the monitor prompt '\*' appears. Enter '3 $\emptyset\emptyset$ G', RETURN. A beep is heard. The demonstration program was responsible for it. It works!

Now you can return to the EXEC by typing CTRL-Y and hitting RETURN.

# 3.6. Making Back-up Copies of MERLIN

To make back-up copies of the MERLIN diskette, you should use the copy program provided on the original diskette. To run this, simply boot on the diskette, and as the drive light comes on, press the 'C' key on the keyboard. The program will verify your intention to produce a copy, and then ask the slot and drive values for the SINGLE DRIVE on which the copy is to be made. A single drive is used to assure maximum reliability in the copy.

Be careful during the copy process to appropriately alternate the original and copy diskettes. If at any time, you make an error, STOP IMMEDIATELY and re-boot to start over. When completed, it is highly recommended that you use ONLY the BACK-UP copy of MERLIN in your daily work, and keep the original in a safe place. The copy program will provide a total of 3 back-up copies, giving you a total of 4 working copies of the MERLIN assembler. In addition, files may be transferred from one diskette to another. This means that damaged files on a given diskette may be replaced with a known "good" file from another diskette. Use the FID file transfer utility on your Apple System Master diskette to move the file from the original master diskette to the one on which the file was damaged. All library files, and also the side containing SOURCEROR.FP can be moved to any DOS 3.3 diskette using the FID utility program.

# 4. EXECUTIVE MODE

The EXECUTIVE mode is the program level provided for file maintenance operations such as loading or saving code or cataloging the disk. The following sections summarize each command available in this mode.

#### 4.1. C:CATALOG

After showing the catalog, this command accepts any disk command you wish to give, using standard DOS syntax. Unlike the LOAD, APPEND and SAVE commands, you must type the ".S" suffix when referencing a source file. This facility is provided primarily for locking and unlocking files. Do not use it to load or save files. If you do not want to give a disk command, just hit RETURN. To cancel a partially typed command use CTRL-X, make sure the command is in the wrong syntax (type some commas) or just backspace to the beginning. If you type CTRL-C RETURN after "COMMAND:", you will be presented with the EXEC mode prompt "%". You can then issue any EXEC command such as "L" for LOAD. This permits you to give an EXEC mode command while the catalog is still on the screen. In addition, if CTRL-C is typed at the "CATALOG pause" point, printing of the remainder of the catalog is aborted.

# 4.2. L: LOAD when entiring filerare, preced by space

This is used to load a source file from disk. You will be asked for the name of the file. You should not append ".S" since MERLIN does this automatically. If you have hit "L" by mistake, just hit RETURN twice and the command will be cancelled without affecting any file that may be in memory.

After a load (or append) command, you are automatically placed in the editor mode, just as if you had hit "E". The source will automatically be loaded to the correct address. Subsequent LOAD or SAVE commands will display the last used filename, followed by a flashing "?". If you hit the "Y" key, the current file name will be used for the command. If you hit any other key (e.g. RETURN) the cursor will be placed on the first character of the filename, and you may type in the desired name. RETURN alone at this time will cancel the command.

#### 4.3. S:SAVE

Use this to save a source file to disk. As in the load command, you do not specify the suffix ".S" and you can hit RETURN to cancel the command. NOTE: that the address and length of the source file are shown on the MENU, and are for information only. You should not use these for saving; the assembler remembers them better than you can and sends them to DOS automatically. As in the LOAD command above, the filename will be displayed and you may type "Y" to SAVE the same filename, or any key for a new file name.

#### 4.4. A:APPEND

This loads in a specified source file and places it at the end of the file currently in memory. It operates in the same way as the load command, and does not affect the default file name. It does not save the appended file; you are free to do that if you wish.

## 4.5. D:DRIVE

When you hit "D", the drive used for saving and loading, will change from one to two or two to one. The currently selected drive is shown on the menu. When MERLIN is first BRUN, the selected drive will be the one used by the BRUN. There is no command to specify slot number, but this can be accomplished by typing "C" for CATALOG which will display the current disks directory. Then give the disk command "CATALOG, Sn", where n is the slot number. This action will catalog the newly specified drive.

#### 4.6. E:EDITOR

This command places you in the EDITOR/ASSEMBLER mode. It automatically sets the default tabs for the editor to those appropriate for source files.

#### 4.7. O:SAVE OBJECT CODE

You are permitted to use this command only after the successful assembly of a source file. In this case you will see the address and length of the object code on the menu. As with the source address, this is given for information only.

NOTE: that the object address shown is that of the program's ORG (or \$8000 by default) and not that of the actual current location of the assembled code (which is \$8000 or whatever OBJ you have used). When using this command, you are asked for a name for the object file. Unlike the source file case, no suffix will be appended to this name.

Thus you can safely use the same name as that of the source file (without the ".S" of course). When this object code is saved to the disk its address will be the correct one, the one shown on the menu. When later, you BLOAD or BRUN it, it will go to that address, which can be anything (\$300, \$800, etc.). There is usually no need to use an OBJ in the source code, unless the object code will be too long for the space available at \$8000 and above.

# 4.8. Q:QUIT

This exits to BASIC. You may re-enter MERLIN by issuing the "ASSEM" command. This re-entry will be a warm start, which means it will not destroy the source file currently in memory. This exit can be used to give disk commands, if it is more convenient than the one provided by "C".

#### 4.9. R: READ

This reads text files into MERLIN. They are always appended to the current buffer. To clear the buffer and start fresh, the name given will become the default filename. Appended reads will not do this.

When the read is complete, you are placed in the editor. If the file contains lines longer than 255 characters, these will be divided into two or more lines by the READ routine. The file will be read only until it reaches HIMEM, will produce a memory error if it goes beyond, and only the data read to that point will remain.

The READ and WRITE command will append a "T." to the beginning of the filename you specify UNLESS you precede the filename with a space or any other character in the ASCII range of  $\$2\emptyset$  to  $\$4\emptyset$ . This character will be ignored and not used by DOS in the actual filename.

## 4.10. W:WRITE

This writes a MERLIN file into a text file instead of a binary file. The speed of the READ and WRITE routines is approximately that of a BLOAD or BSAVE. The WRITE routine does a VERIFY after the write.

# 5. THE EDITOR

Basically there are three modes in the editor: the COMMAND mode, the ADD or INSERT mode, and the EDIT mode. The main one is the COMMAND mode, which has a "colon" (:) as prompt.

#### 5.1. Command Mode

For many of the COMMAND mode commands, only the first letter of the command is required, the rest being optional. We show the required command characters in upper case and the optional ones in lower case. In some commands, you must specify a line number, a range or a range list. A line number is just a number. A range is a pair of line numbers separated by a comma. A range list consists of several ranges separated by "slashes" (/).

Several commands allow specification of a string. The string must be "delimited" by a non-numeric character other than the slash. Such a delimited string is called a d-string. The usual delimiter is single or double "quote marks" (' or ").

Line numbers in the editor are provided automatically. You never type them when entering text; only when giving commands. If a line number in a range exceeds the number of the last line, it is automatically adjusted to the last line number. The commands are:

#### 5.1.1. HImem

(a number, decimal or hex, between the end of source and 38995 decimal, \$9853). This command is rarely needed. It sets the upper limit for the source file and beginning address for the OBJ file (default OBJ address). HIMEM defaults to \$8000, and does not have to be set unless you use a non-default object address.

#### 5.1.2. NEW

Deletes present source file, resets HIMEM to  $\$8\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$  and starts fresh.

# 5.1.3. PR#(0-7)

Same function as in BASIC. Mainly used for sending an editor or assembly listing to a printer. DO NOT use this to select an 80-column card.

# 5.1.4. USER

This does a JSR \$3F5. (That is the Applesoft ampersand vector location, which normally points to an RTS.) The designed purpose of this command is for the connection of user defined printer drivers. (You must be careful that your printer driver does not use zero page addresses, except the I/O pointers and  $$6\emptyset - $6F$ , because this is likely to interfere with MERLIN's heavy zero page usage).

#### 5.1.5. TABS

TABS number, number, ... <tab character>

This sets the tabs for the editor, and has no effect on the assembler listing. Up to nine tabs are possible. The default tab character is a space, but any may be specified. The assembler regards the space as the only acceptable tab character for the separation of labels, opcodes, and operands. If you don't specify the tab character, then the last one used remains. Entering TABS and a carriage return will set all tabs to zero.

# 5.1.6. LENgth

This gives the length in bytes of the source file, and the number of bytes remaining before HIMEM (usually \$8000 - not BASIC HIMEM).

#### 5.1.7. Where

Where (line number)

This prints in hex, the location in memory of the start of the specified line. Where " $\emptyset$ " (or " $\mathbb{W}\emptyset$ ") will give the location of the end of source.

#### 5.1.8. MONitor

This exits to the monitor. You may re-enter by either CTRL-C, CTRL-B or CTRL-Y. These re-establish the important zero page pointers from a save area inside MERLIN itself. Thus CTRL-Y will give a correct entry, even if you have messed up the zero page pointers while in the monitor. DOS is not connected when using this entry to the monitor. This facility is designed for experienced Apple programmers, and is not recommended to beginners. You may re-enter the editor directly with an  $\theta G$ .

This re-entry, unlike the others, will use the zero page pointers at  $\$\emptyset A - \$\emptyset F$  instead of the ones saved upon exit. Therefore, you must be sure that they have not been altered.

## 5.1.9. TRuncON

This sets a flag which, during LIST or PRINT, will terminate printing of a line upon finding a space followed by a semicolon. It makes reading of source files easier on the Apple  $4\emptyset$  column screen. In the assembler, it limits printing of the object code to three bytes per line and has no effect on comments.

## 5.1.10. TRuncOff

This returns to the default condition of the truncation flag (which also happens automatically upon entry to the editor from the EXEC mode or from the assembler). In the assembler, this directs that all object bytes be printed.

# 5.1.11. Quit

Exits to EXEC mode.

#### 5.1.12. ASM

This passes control to the assembler, which attempts to assemble the source file. First, however, you are asked if you wish to "update the source". This is to remind you to change the date or identification number in your source file. If you answer "N" then the assembly will proceed. If you answer "Y", you will be presented with the first line in the source containing a "/" and are placed in EDIT mode. When you finish editing this line and hit RETURN, assembly will begin. If you use the CTRL-C edit abort command, however, you will return to the EDITOR command mode, and any I/O hooks you have established, by PR# etc., will have been disconnected. This will also happen if there is no line with a "/".

NOTE: By establishing a comment line with "\*/" at the beginning, you have a nearly automatic method of keeping track of multiple versions of a program.

### 5.1.13. Control-D

During the second pass of assembly, typing a CTRL-D will toggle the list flag, so that listing will either stop or resume. This will be defeated if a LST opcode occurs in the source, but another CTRL-D will reinstate it.

## 5.1.14. Delete

Delete (line number) <range> <range list>
Delete (range)
Delete (range list)

This deletes the specified lines. Since, unlike BASIC, the line numbers are fictitious they change with any insertion or deletion. Therefore, you MUST specify the 'higher' range first!

# 5.1.15. Replace

Replace (line number)
Replace (range)

This deletes the line number or range, then places you into INSERT mode at that location.

### 5.1.16. List

List (line number)
List (range)
List (range list)

Lists the source file with added line numbers. Control characters in source are shown in inverse, unless the listing is being sent to a printer or other nonstandard outport. The listing can be aborted by CTRL-C or with "/" key. You may stop the listing by hitting the space bar and then advance a line at a time by hitting the space bar again. Any other key will restart it. This space bar pause also works during assembly and the symbol table print out.

# 5.1.17. (period)

Lists starting from the beginning of the last specified range. For example, if you type  $L1\emptyset, 1\emptyset\emptyset$  then lines  $1\emptyset$  to  $1\emptyset\emptyset$  will be listed. If you then use ".", listing will start again at  $1\emptyset$  and continue until stopped (the end of the range is not remembered).

# 5.1.18. / (line number)

This continues listing from the last line number listed, or, when a line number is specified, from that line. This listing continues to the end of the file or until it is stopped as in LIST.

# 5.1.19. Print

Print (line number)
Print (range)
Print (range list)

This is the same as LIST except that line numbers are not added.

## 5.1.20. PRinTeR (command)

This command is for sending a listing to a printer with page headers and provision for page boundary skips. The default parameters may be set up using the configuration program. The syntax of this is:

PRTR slot# <string> <page header>

If the slot number used is more than seven, a JSR \$3F5 (ampersand vector) is done and it is expected that the routine there will connect a printer driver by putting its address \$36-\$37.

If the page header is omitted, the header will consist of page numbers only.

THE INITIALIZATION STRING MAY NOT BE OMITTED. If no special string is required by the printer, use an unrecognized control character or a null string (in which case a carriage return will be used). Examples of initialization strings are CTRL-Q for IDS printers, or CTRL-I8ØN for most Apple cards.

PRTR  $\emptyset$  (no strings required here) will allow you to see where the page breaks occur. If an  $8\emptyset$  column card is in use in slot 3, then use PRTR 3 for this. No output is sent to the printer until a LIST, PRINT, or ASM command is issued.

### 5.1.21. Find

Find (range)
Find (range list)
Find (d-string)

This lists those lines containing the specified string. It may be aborted with CTRL-C or "/" key. Since the CTRL-L case toggle works in command mode, you can use it to find or change strings with lower case characters.

# 5.1.22. Change

Change (range)
Change (range list)
Change (d-string d-string)

This changes occurrences of the first d-string to the second d-string. The d-string must have the same delimiter with the adjoining ones coalescing. For example, to change occurrences of "speling to "spelling" throughout the range  $2\emptyset$ ,  $1\emptyset\emptyset$ , you would type "C2 $\emptyset$ ,  $1\emptyset\emptyset$  speling spelling". If no range is specified, the entire source file is used.

Before the change operation begins, you are asked whether you want to change "all" or "some". If you select "some" by hitting the "S" key, the editor stops whenever the first string is found and displays the line as it would appear with the change. If you then hit ESCAPE or any control character, the change displayed will not be made. Any other key, such as the space bar, will accept the change. CTRL-C or "/" key will abort the change process.

#### 5.1.23. COPY

COPY (line number or range) TO (line number)

This copies the range to just 'above' the specified number. It does not delete anything.

### 5.1.24. MOVE

MOVE (line number or range) TO (line number)

This is the same as COPY but after copying, automatically deletes the original range. You always end up with the same lines as before, but in a different order.

### 5.1.25. Edit

```
Edit (line number)
```

Edit (range)

Edit (range list)

Edit (d-string)

Edit (line number) (d-string)

Edit (range) (d-string)

Edit (range list) (d-string)

This presents the range, etc., line by line to be edited and puts you into the EDIT mode. If a d-string is appended, only those lines containing the d-string are presented.

### 5.1.26. Hex-Dec Conversion

If, in the command mode, you type a decimal number (positive or negative) the hex equivalent is returned. If you type a hex number, prefixed by "\$", the decimal equivalent is returned. All commands accept hex numbers, which are mainly convenient for the HIMEM and SYM commands.

#### 5.1.27. TEXT

This converts ALL spaces in a source file to inverse spaces. The purpose is for use on "text" files so that it is not necessary to remember to zero the tabs before printing such a file. This conversion has no effect on anything except the editor's tabulation.

### 5.1.28. FIX

This undoes the effect of TEXT. It also does a number of technical housekeeping chores. It is recommended that the command FIX be used on all files from external sources, after which the file should be saved. NOTE: that the TEXT and FIX routines are written in SWEET 16 and are somewhat slow. Several minutes may be needed for their execution on large files. FIX or an EDIT will truncate any lines longer than 255 characters.

## 5.1.29. SYM

MERLIN places the symbol table on the language card (in bank 1 of \$DØØØ-\$DFFF). This space is quite adequate for all but gigantic programs. In case this space is used up, the SYM command gives you a means to direct the assembler to continue the symbol table in another area. If you type SYM \$9ØØØ, for example, and assemble the program, when and if the symbol table uses up its normal space, it will be continued at \$9ØØØ until it reaches BASIC HIMEM. It must be noted that the SYM command will be cancelled by a HIMEM command or by exit to EXEC mode and re-entry (set HIMEM before setting up a SYM address.) The SYM address must be above HIMEM and below BASIC HIMEM. If the symbol table grows beyond the allotted space, you will get a memory error during the first pass of assembly.

### 5.1.30. VIDeo

This command is designed to select or deselect an  $8\emptyset$  column board. The default condition can be selected using the configuration program. This is similar to the use of PR# in BASIC. DO NOT USE PR# to select an  $8\emptyset$  column board! PR# is designed for selection of a printer ONLY. An  $8\emptyset$  column board in slot 3 for example, can be selected by typing, from the editor: VIDEO 3.

It is deselected by VIDEO  $\emptyset$  or VIDEO  $\$1\emptyset$  possibly followed by RESET. The latter two forms both select the standard Apple screen, but VIDEO  $\emptyset$  will cause all lower case output to the screen to be converted to upper case except lower case in the source file will be converted to flashing upper case (output to a printer is never converted). If you have a lower case adapter, you will want to use VIDEO  $\$1\emptyset$  (or VIDEO 16) instead of VIDEO  $\emptyset$  when selectng the Apple screen. If your  $\$\emptyset$  column card has a software screen switch via an escape sequence, this may be used to return to  $4\emptyset$  column mode. This will be equivalent to "VID  $\$1\emptyset$ " and would have to be followed by a VID  $\emptyset$  if you don't have a lower case adapter. For example, use ESC CTRL-Q RETURN on the Smarterm or ESC-Q-CTRL-X on the Sup"R"term.

## 5.1.31. FW (Find Word)

## FW "word"

This is an alternative to the (F)IND command. It will find the specified word only if it is surrounded, in source, by non-alphanumeric characters. Therefore, FW"CAT" will find:

CAT CAT-1 (CAT,X)

but will not find CATALOG or SCAT.

# 5.1.32. CW (Change word)

CW "word" new stuff"

This works as described under FW.

# 5.1.33. EW (Edit word)

EW "word"

This is to EDIT as FW is to FIND.

## 5.1.34. VAL

# VAL "expression"

This will return the value of the expression as the assembler would compute it.

# Examples:

VAL "LABEL" gives the address (or value)
of LABEL for the last assembly done or "unknown label"
if not found.

VAL "\$1000/2" returns \$0800
VAL "%1000" returns \$0008
VAL !"A" - "0"! returns \$0011

NOTE: For the commands involving a string, the character "^" acts as a "WILD CARD". Therefore, F"Jon^s" will find both "Jones" and "Jonas".

# 5.2. Add/Insert Mode

The ADD and INSERT modes in the editor act as if you are in the mode, except that CTRL-R will do nothing, and the exit from ADD mode acts as described. Hitting RETURN, for example, will accept the entire line as shown on the screen.

### 5.2.1. Add

This places you in the ADD mode, and acts much like entering BASIC lines with auto line numbering. However, you may enter lower case text (useful for comments if you have a lower case adapter) by typing CTRL-L. This acts as a case toggle, so another CTRL-L returns you to UPPERCASE mode. To exit from ADD mode, hit RETURN as the FIRST character of a line. You may enter an EMPTY line by typing a space and then RETURN. This will not enter the space into text, it only bypasses the exit. The editor automatically removes extra spaces at the end of lines. You may also exit the ADD mode by CTRL-X or CTRL-C which also cancels the current line.

#### 5.2.2. Insert

Insert (line number)

This allows you to enter text just 'above' the specified line. Otherwise, it functions the same as ADD mode.

### 5.2.3. Control-L

Toggles the current case. If you are in upper case, CTRL-L will place you in lower, and vice versa. Upper case is defaulted to when entering each new line.

To change the case of a word, type CTRL-L, then copy over the word using the right arrow.

### 5.3. Edit Mode

After typing E in the editor, you are placed in EDIT mode. The first line of the range you have specified is placed on the screen with the cursor on its first character. The line is tabbed as it is in listing, and the cursor will jump across the tabs as you move it with the arrow keys. When you are through editing, hit RETURN.

The line will be accepted as it appears on the screen, no matter where the cursor is when you hit RETURN. The EDIT commands and functions are very similar, but not identical to those in Neil Konzen's Program Line Editor and Southwestern Data System's A.C.E. All commands except CTRL-R are available in ADD and INSERT modes.

## 5.4. Edit Mode Commands

# 5.4.1. Control-I (insert)

Begins insertion of characters. This is terminated by any control character except the CTRL-L case toggle, such as the arrows or RETURN.

# 5.4.2. Control-D (delete)

Deletes the character under the cursor.

# 5.4.3. Control-F (find)

Finds the next occurrence of the character typed after the CTRL-F. This is recursive.

# 5.4.4. Control-O (insert special)

Functions as CTRL-I, except it inserts any control character (including the command characters such as CTRL-Q).

Besides enabling the insertion of control characters, CTRL-O also allows the user to type characters not normally available on the Apple keyboard.

# Control-O followed by:

<	gives	Control
>	11	Control √
K	**	[
L	11	\
М	**	
N	11	^
0	11	
k	11	1
1	13	
m	31	}
n	11	<del>`</del> ~
0	Ħ	(whatever \$FF gives on your machine)

NOTE: If you are using a shift key modification, depending on which one you have, shift-M may give uppercase M and you will have to use CTRL-O to get the right bracket.

# 5.4.5. Control-P (do \*\*\*)

If entered as first character of a line gives 32 \*'s.

# 5.4.6. Control-@ (do border)

If entered as first character of a line gives 30 spaces bordered by \*'s.

# 5.4.7. Control-C or Control-X (cancel)

Aborts EDIT mode and returns to the editor's warm start. The current line being edited will retain its original form.

# 5.4.8. Control-B (go to line begin)

Places the cursor at the beginning of the line.

# 5.4.9. Control-N (go to line end)

Places the cursor one space to the right of the end of the line.

# 5.4.10. Control-R (restore line)

Returns the line to its original form. (Not available in ADD and INSERT modes.)

# 5.4.11. Control-Q (delete line right)

Deletes the part of the line following the cursor.

## 5.4.12. Return (RETURN key)

Accepts the line as it appears on the screen and fetches the next line to be edited, or goes to the warm start if the specified range has been completed.

The editor automatically replaces spaces in comments and ASCII strings with inverse spaces. When listing, it converts them back, so you never notice this. Its purpose is to avoid inappropriate tabbing of comments and ASCII strings.

In the case of ASCII strings, this is only done when the delimiter is a quote (") or a single quote ('). You can, however, accomplish the same thing by editing the line, replacing the first delimiter with a quote, hitting RETURN, then editing again and changing the delimiter back to the desired one.

# 6. THE ASSEMBLER

This section of the documentation will not attempt to teach you assembly language. It will only explain the syntax you are expected to use in your source files, and document the features that are available to you in the assembler.

## 6.1. Number Format

The assembler accepts decimal, hexadecimal, and binary numerical data. Hex numbers must be preceded by "\$" and binary numbers by "%", thus the following four instructions are all equivalent:

LDA #100 LDA #\$64 LDA #%1100100 LDA #%01100100

As indicated, leading zeros are ignored. The "#" here stands for "number" or "data", and the effect of these instructions is to load the accumulator with the number (decimal) 100.

A number not preceded by "#" is interpreted as an address. Therefore:

LDA 1000 LDA \$3E8 LDA %1111101000>

are equivalent ways of loading the accumulator with the byte that resides in memory location \$3E8.

Use the number format that is appropriate for clarity. For example, the data table:

DA \$1 DA \$A DA \$64 DA \$3E8 DA \$271Ø

is a good deal more mysterious that its decimal equivalent:

## 6.2. Source Code Format

A line of source code typically looks like:

LABEL OPCODE OPERAND ; COMMENT

A line containing only a comment must begin with "\*". Comment lines starting with ";" are accepted and tabbed to the comment field. The assembler will accept an empty line in the source code and will treat it just as a SKP l instruction (see the section on pseudo opcodes), except the line number will be printed.

The number of spaces separating the fields is not important, except for the editor's listing, which expects just one space.

The maximum allowable LABEL length is 13 characters, but more than 8 will produce messy assembly listings. A label must begin with a character at least as large, in ASCII value, as the colon, and may not contain any characters less, in ASCII value, than the number zero.

The assembler examines only the first 3 characters of the OPCODE (with certain exceptions such as the Sweet 16 opcode POPD). For example, you can use PAGE instead of PAG (because of the exception, the fourth letter should not be a D, however). The assembler listing will truncate the opcode to seven letters and will not look well with one longer than four unless there is no operand.

The maximum allowable combined OPERAND+COMMENT length is 64 characters. You will get an error if you use more than this. A comment line by itself is also limited to 64 characters.

# 6.3. Expressions

To make clear the syntax accepted and/or required by the assembler, we must define what is meant by an "expression". Expressions are built up from "primitive expressions" by use of arithmetic and logical operations. The primitive expressions are:

- 1. A label.
- 2. A decimal number.
- 3. A hexadecimal number (preceded by "\$").
- 4. A binary number (preceded by "%").
- Any ASCII character preceded, or enclosed by quotes or single quotes.
- 6. The character \* (standing for the present address).

All number formats accept 16-bit data and leading zeros are never required. In case 5, the "value" of the primitive expression is just the ASCII value of the character. The high-bit will be on if a quote (") is used, and off if a single quote (') is used.

The assembler supports the four arithmetic operations: +, -, /, and  $\star$ . It also supports the three logical operations: ! = Exclusive OR, . = OR, and & = AND.

Some examples of legal expressions are:

LABEL1-LABEL2 2\*LABEL+\$231 1234+%1Ø111 "K"-"A"+1 "Ø"!LABEL LABEL&\$7F \*-2 LABEL.%1ØØØØØØØ

Parentheses have another meaning and are not allowed in expressions. All arithmetic and logical operations are done from left to right (2+3\*5) would assemble as 25 and not 17).

### 6.4. Immediate Data

For those opcodes such as LDA, CMP, etc., which accept immediate data (numbers as opposed to addresses) the immediate mode is signalled by preceding the expression with "#". An example is LDX #3. In addition:

#<expression produces the low byte of the expression produces the high byte of the expression also gives the low byte (the 65%2 does not accept 2-byte DATA) is optional syntax for the high byte of the expression

The ability of the assembler to evaluate expressions such as LAB1-LA2-1 is very useful for the following type of code:

COMPARE	LDX	#FOUND-D	ATA-1	
LOOP	CMP	DATA,X		
	BEQ	FOUND		
	DEX			
	BPL	LOOP		
	JMP	REJECT	;not	found
DATA	HEX	E3BC3498		
FOUND	RTS			

With this type of code, if you add or delete some of the "Data", then the appropriate X-index for the comparison loop is automatically adjusted.

# 6.5. Addressing Modes (6502 Opcodes)

The assembler accepts, all the 65 # 2 opcodes with standard mnemonics. It also accepts BLT (branch if less than) as an equivalent to BCC, and BGE (branch if greater or equal) as an equivalent to BCS.

There are 12 addressing modes on the  $65 \emptyset 2$ . The appropriate MERLIN syntax for these are:

# Example

	Syntax				
	Implied	OPCODE		CLC	
Accumulator		OPCODE		ROR	
Immediate (data)		OPCODE	#expr	ADC	#\$F8
				CMP	#"'M"
				LDX	#>LABEL1-LABEL2-1
	Zero page (address)	OPCODE	expr	ROL	6
	Indexed X	OPCODE	expr,X	LDA	\$EØ,X
	Indexed Y	OPCODE	expr,Y	STX	LAB,Y
Absolute (address)		OPCODE	expr	BIT	\$300
	Indexed X	OPCODE	expr,X	STA	\$4000,X
	Indexed Y	OPCODE	expr,y	SBC	LABEL-1,Y
Indirect		JMP	(expr)	JMP	(\$3F2)
	Preindexed X	OPCODE	(expr,X)	LDA	(6,X)
	Postindexed Y	OPCODE	(expr),Y	STA	(\$FE),Y

NOTE: There is no difference in syntax for zero page and absolute modes. The assembler automatically uses zero page mode when appropriate. In the indexed, indirect modes, only a zero page expression is allowed, and the assembler will give an error message if the "expr" does not evaluate to a zero page address.

NOTE: The "accumulator mode" does not require (or accept) an operand. Some assemblers perversely require you to put an "A" in the operand for this mode.

The assembler will decide the legality of the addressing mode for any given opcode.

Additionally, MERLIN provides the ability to FORCE non-zero page addressing. The way to do this is to add anything (except "D") to the end of the opcode. Example:

LDA  $\$1\emptyset$  assembles as zero page (2 bytes) while, LDA:  $\$1\emptyset$  assembles as non-zero page (3 bytes).

# 6.6. Sweet 16 Opcodes

The assembler accepts all Sweet 16 opcodes with the standard mnemonics. The usual Sweet 16 registers RØ to R15 do not have to be "equated" and the "R" is optional. TED II+ users will be glad to know that the SET opcode works as it should, with numbers or labels. For the SET opcode, either a space or a comma may be used between the register and the data part of the operands; that is, SET R3, LABEL is equivalent to SET R3 LABEL. It should be noted that the NUL opcode is assembled as a one-byte opcode (the same as HEX ØD) and not a two byte skip as this would be interpreted by ROM Sweet 16. This is intentional, and is done for internal reasons.

# 6.7. Pseudo Opcodes - Directives

# 6.7.1. EQU (=)

EQU expression (EQUals)

= expression (optional syntax)

Used to define the value of a LABEL, usually an exterior address or an often used constant for which a meaningful name is desired. It is recommended that these all be located at the beginning of the program. The assembler will not permit an "equate" to a zero page number after the label equated has been used, since bad code could result from such a situation (also see "Variables").

## 6.7.2. ORG

ORG expression (ORiGin)

Establishes the address at which the program is designed to run. It defaults to the present value of HIMEM ( $\$\$\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$  by default). Ordinarily there will be only one ORG and it will be at the start of the program. If more than one ORG is used, the first one establishes the BLOAD address. This can be used to create an object file that would load to one address though it may be designed to run at another address.

You cannot use ORG  $\star$ -1, etc. to back up the object pointers as is done in some assemblers. This must be done instead by DS-1.

## 6.7.3. OBJ

OBJ expression (OBJect)

Establishes the address at which the object code will be placed during assembly. It defaults to HIMEM. There is rarely any need to use this pseudo-op and inexperienced programmers are urged not to use it. An OBJ above BASIC HIMEM (or the SYM address, if any) will defeat generation of object code. This may be used when sending a long listing to a printer or when using direct assembly to disk (opcode DSK).

## 6.7.4. PUT

### PUT filename

PUT FILENAME, (drive and slot parameters accepted in standard DOS syntax) will read the named file (with the "T." prefix appended unless the filename starts with a character less than "@") and "inserts" it at the location of the opcode.

NOTE: "Insert" refers to the effect on assembly of the location of the source. The file itself is actually placed just following the main source. Text files are required by this facility in order to insure memory protection. A memory error will occur if a PUT file goes beyond HIMEM. These files are in memory only one a time, so a very large program can be assembled using the PUT facility.

There are two restrictions on a PUT file. First, there cannot be macro DEFINITIONS inside a PUT file, they must be in the main source. Second, a PUT file may not call another PUT file with the PUT opcode. Of course, linking can be simulated by having the "main program" just contain the macro definitions and call, in turn, all the others by the PUT opcode.

Any variables (e.g. ]LABEL) may be used as "local" variables. The usual local variables ]1 through ]8 may be set up for this purpose using the VAR opcode.

The PUT facility provides a simple way to incorporate much used subroutines, such as MSGOUT or PRDEC, in a program.

# 6.7.5. VAR

VAR expr;expr;expr...

This is just a convenient way to equate the variables ]1 - ]8. "VAR 3;\$42;LABEL" will set ]1 = 3, ]2 = \$42, and ]3 = LABEL. This is designed for use just prior to a PUT. If a PUT file uses ]1 - ]8, except in >>> lines for calling macros, there MUST be a previous declaration of these.

## 6.7.6. SAV

#### SAV filename

SAVE FILENAME, (drive and slot parameters accepted) will save the current object code under the specified name. This acts exactly as does the EXEC mode object saving command, but it can be done several times during assembly.

This pseudo-opcode provides a means of saving portions of a program having more than one ORG. It also enables the assembly of extremely large files. After a save, the object address is reset to the last specification of OBJ or to HIMEM by default.

The SAVE command sets the address of the saved file to its correct value. For example, if your program contains three SAV commands, then it will be saved in three pieces. When BLOADed later, they will go to the correct locations, the third following the second and that following the first.

Together, the PUT and SAV opcodes make it possible to assemble extremely large files.

## 6.7.7. DSK

# DSK filename

DSK FILENAME will direct the assembler to assemble the following code directly to disk. If DSK is in effect, the old file will be closed and the new one begun. This is useful primarily for extremely large files. For moderately sized programs, SAV is preferred since it is 30% faster and theoretically more reliable. Because of the way it works, the CHK opcode is incompatible with DSK and will be disabled if DSK is in effect.

## 6.7.8. END

This rarely used or needed pseudo opcode instructs the assembler to ignore the rest of the source. Labels occurring after END will not be recognized.

# 6.8. Formatting

## 6.8.1. LST ON/OFF

LST ON or OFF (LiST)

This controls whether the assembly listing is to be sent to the Apple screen and/or other output device. You may, for example, use this to send only a portion of the assembly listing to your printer. Any number of LST instructions may be in the source. If the LST condition is OFF at the end of assembly, then the symbol table will not be printed. The assembler actually only checks the third character of the operand to see whether or not it is a space.

Therefore, LST ERINE will have the same effect as LST OFF. The LST directive will have no effect on the actual generation of object code. If the LST condition is OFF, the object code will be generated much faster, but this is recommended only for debugged programs.

NOTE: CONTROL-D from the keyboard toggles this flag during the second pass.

## 6.8.2. EXP ON/OFF

EXP ON or OFF (EXPand)

EXP ON will print an entire macro during the assembly. The OFF condition will print only the PMC pseudo-op. EXP defaults to ON. This has no effect on the object coded generated.

## 6.8.3. PAU

### PAU (PAUse)

On the second pass this causes assembly to pause until a key is hit. This can also be done from the keyboard by hitting the space bar.

### 6.8.4. PAG

## PAG (PAGe)

This sends a formfeed (\$8C) to the printer. It has no effect on the screen listing even when using an  $8\emptyset$ -column card.

#### 6.8.5. AST

# AST expression (ASTerisks)

This sends Asterisks to the listing, the same number as the value of the operand. The number format is the usual one, so that AST  $1\emptyset$  will send (decimal)  $1\emptyset$  asterisks, for example. The number is treated modulo 256 with  $\emptyset$  being 256 asterisks! This differs from TED II+, which recognizes the operand as a hex expression, and will need to be converted.

## 6.8.6. SKP

# SKP expression (SKiP)

This sends OPERAND number of carriage returns to the listing. The number format is the same as in AST.

## 6.8.7. TR

# TR opcode

This has the same effect in the assembler as does the EDITOR TR command. TR or TR ON limits object code printout to three bytes per line, and TR OFF resets it to print all object bytes.

# 6.9. Strings

## 6.9.1. ASC

# ASC dstring (ASCii)

This puts a delimited ASCII string into the object code. The only restriction on the delimiter is that it does not occur in the string itself. Different delimiters have different effects. Any delimiter less than (in ASCII code) the single quote (') will produce a string with the high-bits on, otherwise the high-bits will be off. For example, the delimiters !"#\$%& will produce a string in "negative" ASCII, and the delimiters '()+? will produce one in "positive" ASCII. Usually the quote (") and single quote (') are the delimiters of choice, but other delimiters provide the means of inserting a string containing the quote or single quote as part of the string.

## 6.9.2. DCI

# DCI d-string (Dextral Character Inverted)

This is the same as ASC except that the string is put into memory with the last character having the opposite high bit to the others.

## 6.9.3. INV

INV d-string (INVerse)

This puts a delimited string in memory in inverse format. All choices of delimiter have the same effect.

# 6.9.4. FLS

FLS d-string (FLaSh)

This puts a delimited string in memory in flashing format. All choices of delimiter have the same effect.

## 6.9.5. REV

REV d-string (REVerse)

Example: REV "DISK VOLUME" gives;

EMULOV KSID (delimiter choice as in ASC)

#### 6.10. Data and Allocation

## 6.10.1. DA

DA expression (Define Address)

This stores the (two-byte) value of the operand, usually an address, in the object code, low-byte first. DA \$FDFØ will generate FØ FD. Also accepts multiple data (e.g. DA 1,10,100)

6.10.2. DDB

DDB expression (Define Double-Byte)

As above, but places high-byte first. Also accepts multiple data (e.g. DDB 1,10,100).

6.10.3. DFB

DBF expression (DeFine Bytes)

This puts the bytes specified by the operand into the object code. It accepts several bytes of data, which must be separated by commas and contain no spaces. The standard number format is used and arithmetic is done as usual. The "#" symbol is acceptable but ignored, as is "<". The ">" symbol may be used to specify the high-byte of the label, otherwise the low-byte is always taken. The ">" symbol should appear only as the first character of an expression or immediately after #. That is, the instruction DFB >LAB1-LAB2 will produce the high-byte of the value of LAB1-LAB2.

For example:

DFB \$34,100,LAB1-LAB2,%1011,>LAB1-LAB2

is a properly formatted DFB statement which will generate the object code (hex) 34 64 DE  $\emptyset$ B $\emptyset$ 9, assuming that LAB1=\$81A2 and LAB2=\$77C4.

## 6.10.4. HEX

# HEX hex data

This is an alternative to DFB which allows convenient insertion of hex data. Unlike all other cases, the "\$" is not required or accepted here. The operand should consist of hex numbers having two hex digits (e.g.  $\emptyset$ F, not F). They may be separated by commas or may be adjacent. An error message will be generated if the operand contains an odd number of digits or ends in a comma, or, as in all cases, contains more than 64 characters.

### 6.10.5. DS

# DS expression (Define Storage)

This reserves space for string storage data. It does not generate code. DS 10, for example, will set aside 10 bytes for storage. Because DS adjusts the object code pointer, and instruction like DS-1 can be used to back up the object and address pointers one byte.

#### 6.10.6. KBD

## KBD (KeyBoarD)

This allows a label to be equated from the keyboard during assembly. Its syntax is: LABEL KBD.

## 6.10.7. LUP

LUP expression (Loop)
-- (end of LUP)

An example of the syntax for this is:

LUP 4

ASL

\_\_^

This will assemble as:

ASL

ASL

ASL

ASL

and will show that way in the assembly listing, with repeated line numbers.

Perhaps the major use of this is for table building. As an example:

will assemble the table 1, 2, 3, ..., \$FF. The maximum LUP value is \$8000 and the LUP opcode will simply be ignored if you try to use more than this.

## 6.10.8. CHK

CHK expression (CHecKsum)

This places a checksum byte into object code at the location of the CHK opcode (usually at the end of the program). It cannot be used when DSK is in effect.

## 6.10.9. ERR

ERR expression (ERRor)

ERR expression will cause a forced error if the expression has a non-zero value and the message "Break in line???" is printed.

This may be used to ensure your program does not exceed, for example, \$95FF by adding the final line:

NOTE: This would only alert you that the program is too long, and will not prevent writing above \$9600 during assembly, but there can be no harm in this. The error occurs only on the second pass of the assembly and does not abort the assembly.

Another available syntax is:

which will produce an error on the first pass, and abort assembly, if location \$300 does not contain the value \$4C.

## 6.10.10. USR

# USR (opcode)

This is a user definable pseudo opcode. It does a JSR \$B6DA. This location will contain an RTS after a boot, a BRUN MERLIN or BRUN BOOT ASM. To set up your routine you should BRUN it from the EXEC command after CATALOG. This should just set up a JMP at \$B6DA to the main routine and then RTS. The following flags and entry points may be used by your routine:

USRADS	= \$B6DA	;must have a JMP to your routine
PUTBYTE	= \$E5F6	;see below
EVAL	= \$E5F9	;see below
PASSNUM	= \$2	;contains assembly pass number
ERRCNT	= \$1D	;error count
VALUE	= \$55	;value returned by EVAL
OPNDLEN	= \$BB	;contains combined length of
		;operand and comment
NOTFOUN	= \$FD	;see discussion of EVAL
WORKSP	= \$28Ø	;contains the operand and
		comment in positive ASCII

Your routine will be called by the USR opcode with  $A=\emptyset$ ,  $Y=\emptyset$  and carry set. To direct the assembler to put a byte in the object code, you should JSR PUTBYTE with the byte in A.

PUTBYTE will preserve Y but will scramble A and X. It returns with the zero flag clear (so that BNE always branches). On the first pass, PUTBYTE adjusts the object and address pointers, so that the contents of the registers are not important. You MUST call PUTBYTE the SAME NUMBER OF TIMES on each pass or the pointers will not be kept correctly and the assembly of other parts of the program will be incorrect!

If your routine needs to evaluate the operand, or part of it, you can do this by a JSR EVAL. The X register must point to the first character of the portion of the operand you wish to evaluate (put  $X=\emptyset$  to evaluate the expression at the start of the operand). On return from EVAL, X will point to the character following the evaluated expression. The Y register will be  $\emptyset$ , 1, or 2 accordingly as this character is a right parenthesis, a space or a comma.

Any other character not allowed in an expression will cause assembly to abort with a BAD OPERAND error. If some label in the expression is not recognized then location NOTFOUND will be non-zero. On the second pass, however, you will get an UNKNOWN LABEL error and the rest of your routine will be ignored. On return from EVAL, the computed value of the expression will be in location VALUE, VALUE+1, lowbyte first. On the first pass this value will be insignificant if NOTFOUND is non-zero.

Appropriate locations for your routine are \$300-\$3CF and \$8A0-\$8FF. You must not write to \$900. For a longer routine, you may use high memory, just below \$9853. If you are sure that the symbol table will not exceed \$1000 bytes, you could use the SYM EDITOR command to protect your routine from overwrite by the object code. SYM would have to be set at least one byte below your code. You may use zero page locations \$60-\$6F, but should not alter other locations. Also, you must not change anything from \$226 to \$27F, or anything from \$2C4 to \$2FF. Upon return from your routine (RTS), the USR line will be printed (on the second pass).

To gain further understanding of the use of USR, read the source file SCRAMBLE.S or, for a more sophisticated example, the file FLOAT.S. The first of these uses the USR opcode to put an ASCII string into the object code in a scrambled format. The second is a somewhat complicated routine that uses Applesoft to compute the packed (five-byte) form of a specified floating point number, and put it in the object code. Here, the latter can be used for assembly only on an Apple ][ Plus.

When you use the USR opcode in a source file, it is wise to include some sort of check (in source) that the required routine is in memory. If, for example, your routine contains the byte \$31 at location \$310 then:

ERR (\$310)-\$3

will test that byte and abort assembly if it is not there. Similarly, if you know that the required routine should assemble exactly two bytes of data, then you can (roughly) check for it by the following code:

LABEL USR OPERAND ERR \*-LABEL-2

This will force an error on the second pass if USR does not produce exactly two object bytes.

It is possible to use USR for several different routines in the same source. For example, your routine could check the first operand expression for an index to the desired routine and act accordingly. Thus "USR 1, whatever" would branch to the first routine, "USR 2,stuff" to the second, etc.

### 6.11. Conditionals

# 6.11.1. DO

# DO expression

This, together with ELSE and FIN are the conditional assembly PSEUDO-OPS. If the operand evaluates to ZERO, then the assembler will stop generating object code (until it sees another conditional). Except for macro names, it will not recognize any labels in such an area of code. If the operand evaluates to a non-zero number, then assembly will proceed as usual. This is very useful for MACROS. It is also useful for sources designed to generate slightly different code for different situations. For example, if you are designing a program to go to on a ROM chip, you would want one version for the ROM, and another, with small differences to create a RAM version for debugging purposes.

Similarly, in a program with text, you may wish to have one version for Apples with lower case adapters and one for those without. By using conditional assembly, modification of such programs becomes much simpler, since you do not have to make the modification in two separate versions of the source code. Every DO should be terminated somewhere later by a FIN and each FIN should be preceded by a DO. An ELSE should occur only inside such a DO, FIN structure. DO, FIN structures may be nested up to eight deep (possibly with some ELSE's between). If DO condition is off (value Ø), then assembly will not resume until its corresponding FIN is encountered, or an ELSE at this level occurs. Nested DO, FIN structures are valuable for putting conditionals in MACROS.

### 6.11.2. ELSE

This inverts the assembly condition (ON-->OFF OR OFF--> ON) for the last DO.

#### 6.11.3. FIN

This cancels the last DO.

#### 6.12. Macros

### 6.12.1. MAC

### MAC (MACro)

This signals the start of a MACRO definition. It must be labeled with the macro name. The name you use is then reserved and cannot be referenced by things other than the PMC PSEUDOOP (things like DA NAME will not be accepted if NAME is the label on MAC). However, the same thing can be simulated by preceding the MACRO with LABEL EQU \*, or LABEL DS  $\emptyset$ , etc. There is rarely any need to do this. See the section on MACROS for details of the usage of macros.

# EOM ( <<< )

EOM (End Of Macro)
<<< (alternative syntax)</pre>

This signals the end of the definition of a macro. It may be labeled and used for branches to the end of a macro, or one of its copies.

# 6.12.2. PMC (>>>)

PMC macro name (Put MaCro)
>>> macro name (alternative syntax)

This instructs the assembler to assemble a copy of the named macro at the present location. See the section on MACROS. It may be labeled.

# 6.13. Variables

Labels beginning with "]" are regarded as VARIABLES. These may be defined only by EQU and cannot be used to label something else. They can be redefined as often as you wish. The designed purpose of variables is for use in MACROS, but they are not confined to that use.

Forward reference to a variable is impossible (with correct results) but the assembler will assign some value to it. That is, a variable should be defined before it is used.

# 7. MACROS

### 7.1. Defining a Macro

A macro definition begins with

NAME MAC (no operand)

and NAME in the label field. Its definition is terminated by the pseudo-op EOM or <<<. The label NAME cannot be referenced by anything other than PMC NAME (or >>> NAME).

You can define the macro the first time you wish to use it in the program. However, it is preferable (and required if the macro uses variables) to first define all macros at the start of the program with the assembly condition OFF and then refer to them when needed.

Forward reference to a macro definition is not possible, and would result in a NOT MACRO error message. That is, the macro must be defined before it is called by PMC.

The conditionals DO, ELSE and FIN may be used inside a macro.

Labels inside macros, such as LOOP and OUT in the example on page 5-5, are updated each time PMC is encountered.

Error messages generated by errors in macros usually abort assembly, because of possibly harmful effects. Such messages will usually indicate the line number of a PMC rather than the line inside the macro where the error occurs.

#### 7.2. Nested Macros

Macros may be nested to a depth of 15. For nesting, macros must be defined with DO condition off.

Here is an example of a nested macro in which the definition itself is nested. (This can only be done when both definitions end at the same place.)

```
TRDB MAC

>>> TR.]1+1;]2+1

TR MAC

LDA ]1

STA ]2

<<<
```

In this example >>> TR.LOC; DEST will assemble as:

LDA LOC STA DEST

and >>> TRDB.LOC; DEST will assemble as:

LDA LOC+1 STA DEST+1 LDA LOC STA DEST

A more common form of nesting is illustrated by these two macro definitions (where CH = \$24):

```
POKE MAC

LDA #]2

STA ]1

<<<

HTAB MAC

>>> POKE.CH;]1

<<<
```

### 7.3. Special Variables

Eight variables, named ]1 through ]8, are predefined and are designed for convenience in MACROS. These are used in a PMC statement. The instruction:

>>> NAME exprl;expr2;expr3...

will assign the value of exprl to the variable ]1, that of expr2 to ]2, and so on. An example of this usage is:

EQU	\$10	
DO	0	
MAC		
LDA	]1	
STA	] 3	
LDA	]2	
STA	] 1	
LDA	]3	
STA	]2	
<<<		
FIN		
>>>	SWAP	\$6;\$7;TEMP
>>>	SWAP	\$1000;\$6;TEMP
	DO MAC LDA STA LDA STA LDA STA COC STA	DO O MAC LDA ]1 STA ]3 LDA ]2 STA ]1 LDA ]3 STA ]2 <<<< FIN >>> SWAP

This program segment swaps the contents of location \$6 with that of \$7, using TEMP as a scratch depository, then swaps the contents of \$6 with that of \$1000.

If, as above, some of the special variables are used in the MACRO definition, then values for them must be specified in the PMC (or >>>) statement. In the assembly listing, the special variables will be replaced by their corresponding expressions.

The number of values must match the number of variables in the macro definition. A BAD OPERAND error will be generated if the number of values is less than the number of variables. No error message will be generated, however, if there are more values than variables. The assembler will accept some other characters in place of the space between the macro name and the expressions in a PMC statement. For example, you may use any of these characters:

```
. / , - (
```

The semicolons are required, however, and no extra spaces are allowed.

Macros will accept literal data. Thus the assembler will accept the following type of macro call:

```
DO 0
MUV MAC
LDA ]1
STA ]2
<<<
FIN
>>> MUV.(PNTR),Y;DEST
>>> MUV.#3;FLAG,X
```

It will also accept:

```
DO 0
PRINT MAC

JSR SENDMSG

ASC ]1

BRK

<<<
FIN

>>> PRINT.!"quote"!

>>> PRINT.'This is an example'

>>> PRINT."So's this, understand?"
```

LIMITATION: If such strings contain spaces or semicolons, they MUST be delimited by quotes (single or double). Also, literals such as >>> WHAT."A" must have the final delimiter. (This is only true in macro calls or VAR statements, but it is good practice in all cases.)

A previous version of this assembler, that did not have this capability, used commas rather than semicolons in >>> statements. For people who have that version, a program "CONVERT" has been provided which changes these commas to semicolons in a matter of a second or two. With the source file in memory, it should be BRUN from the EXEC mode's Command after Catalog.

# 7.4. Sample Program

Here is a sample program intended to illustrate the usage of macros with non-standard variable. It would, however, be simpler and more pleasing if it used ]l instead of ]MSG (in which case the variable equates should be eliminated and the values for ]l must be specified in the >>> lines.)

HOME COUT KEY STROBE DOS	EQU EQU EQU EQU	\$FC58 \$FDED \$C000 \$C010 \$3D3	
	DO	0	;Assembly off
SENDMSG	MAC		;Start of definition of the ;macro "SENDMSG"
	LDY	#O	
LOOP	LDA	]MSG,Y	;Get a character
	BEQ	OUT	;End of message
	JSR	COUT	;Send it
	INY		
	BNE	LOOP	;Back for more
OUT	<<<		;End of macro definition and ;exit from routine
	FIN		;Turn assembly ON
	JSR	HOME	;Clear screen
]MSG	EQU	HITMSG	
	>>>	SENDMSG	
INVRS	CMP	#"I"	
	BNE	NORM	
]MSG	EQU	IMSG	
	>>>	SENDMSG	

NORM ]MSG STP	CMP BNE EQU >>> CMP BNE JMP	<pre>#"N" STP NMSG SENDMSG #"S" ;Does he want to stop? GETKEY ;No, get the next input DOS ;All done, exit gracefully</pre>
HITMSG	ASC HEX	!HIT ;A KEY "F","I","N", OR "S"! 8D8D00
FMSG	FLS HEX	"THIS IS A FLASHING MESSAGE" 8D8D00
IMSG	INV HEX	"THIS IS A MESSAGE IN INVERSE" D8D00
NMSG	ASC HEX	"THIS IS A NORMAL MESSAGE" 8D8D00

# 7.5. The Macro Library

A macro library with three example macro programs is included in source file form on this diskette. The purpose of the library is to provide some guidance to the newcomer to macros and how they can be used within an assembly program.

NOTE: All macros are defined at the beginning of the source file, then each example program places the macros where they are needed. Conditionals are used to determine which example program is to be assembled. The KBD opcode allows the user to make this selection from the keyboard during assembly.

# 8. TECHNICAL INFORMATION

The SOURCE is placed at 901 when loaded, regardless of its original address.

The important pointers are:

```
START OF SOURCE in $A,$B (always set $901)
HIMEM in $C,$D (defaults to $8000)
END OF SOURCE in $E,$F
```

When you exit to BASIC or to the monitor, these pointers are saved at  $E\emptyset\emptyset A-E\emptyset\emptyset F$ . They are restored upon re-entry to MERLIN.

Entry into MERLIN replaces the current I/O hooks with the standard ones and reconnects DOS. This is the same as typing  $PR\#\emptyset$  and  $IN\#\emptyset$  from the keyboard. Entry to the EDITOR disconnects DOS, so that you can use labels such as INIT without disastrous consequences. Re-entry to EXEC MODE disconnects any I/O hooks that you may have established via the editor's PR# command, and reconnects DOS. Exit from assembly (completion of assembly or CTRL-C) also disconnects I/O hooks.

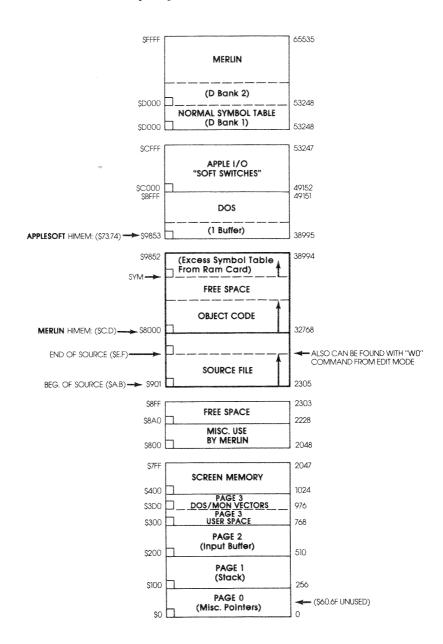
### 8.1. General Information

Re-entry after exit to BASIC is made by the "ASSEM" command. A BRUN MERLIN or a disk boot will also provide a warm reentry and will not reload MERLIN if it is already there. This may be forced by BRUN BOOT ASM which would then be a cold entry, "destroying" any file in memory.

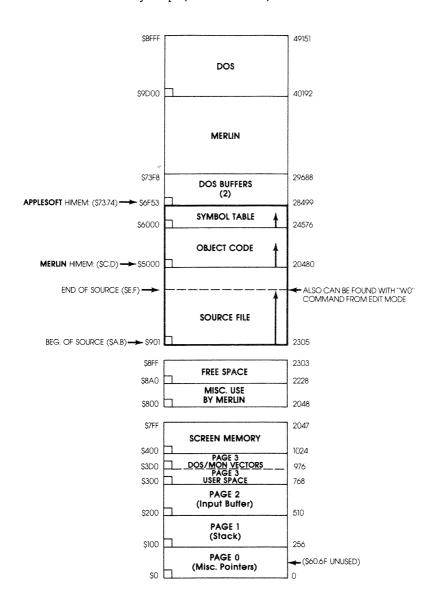
Memory organization, for ordinary sized files is of no concern to the user, but it is important to understand certain constraints for the handling of large files. HIMEM (which defaults to \$8000) is an upper limit to the source file. It is also an upper limit for PUT files. If a memory error occurs during assembly, indicating a PUT line, it means the PUT file exceeded HIMEM and that HIMEM will have to be increased.

The default ORG and OBJ addresses equal the present value of HIMEM. It is illegal to specify an OBJ address that is less than HIMEM except that a page 3 address is allowed. If a page 3 OBJ address is used, the user MUST be careful that the file will not write over the DOS jumps at \$3DØ-\$3FF as the assembler does NOT check for this error. If, during assembly, the object code exceeds BASIC HIMEM (or the SYM address, if one has been specified) then the code will not be written to memory, but assembly will appear to proceed and its output sent to the screen or printer. The only clue that this has happened, if not intentional, is that the object SAVE command is disabled in this event. Therefore, if a listing for a very long file is desired, without actually creating code, the user can assemble over DOS and up.

## 8.2. MERLIN Memory Map (Ram Card Version)



## 8.3. MERLIN Memory Map (48k Version)



# 8.4. Symbol Table

The symbol table is printed after assembly unless LST OFF has been invoked. It comes first in alphabetical order and then in numerical order. The symbol table is flagged as follows:

MD = Macro Definition

M = Label defined in a macro (LOOP and OUT in the example)

V = Variable (symbols starting with ])

? = A symbol that was never referenced

Internally, these are flagged by setting bits 7 to 4 of the symbols length byte:

### ?=bit 7 MD=bit 5 M=bit 4

Also, bit 6 is set during the alphabetical printout to flag printed symbols, then removed during the numerical order printout. The symbol printout is formatted for an  $8\emptyset$  column printer, or for one which will send a carriage return after  $4\emptyset$  columns.

### 8.5. Using MERLIN With Shift Key Mods

MERLIN supports all hardware shift key modifications. The CONFIGURATION program will establish the modification that you want supported. MERLIN is smart enough to know if the modification actually exists in the Apple you are using and defeats the modification if it is not there. Thus it can be used on another machine without reconfiguration.

## 8.6. Using MERLIN With 80 Column Boards

Most, but not all,  $8\emptyset$  column boards are supported. You may use the VIDEO command to enable the  $8\emptyset$  column board. To have the board selected upon boot, use the CONFIGURATION program. Then the VIDEO  $\emptyset$  or  $\$1\emptyset$  command followed by RESET will switch back to the normal Apple screen.

If your board does not support inverse, control characters in the source will show as ordinary capital letters instead of inverse letters as with boards that support inverse. You can use the editor's FIND command to search for particular control characters, verify their presence or absence, or simply switch over to the normal Apple screen.

If your copy of MERLIN has been configured to support an  $8\emptyset$  column card in slot 3, and there is no card in that slot, MERLIN will recognize this and defeat the  $8\emptyset$  column provision. There is no need to reconfigure for use on another computer.

MERLIN will NOT support any board that does not recognize the "POKE 36" method of tabbing. As far as we know this only means it will not support older versions of the FULL VIEW  $8\emptyset$  card.

When in EDIT mode, MERLIN takes total control of input and output. The effect of typing a control character will be as described in this manual and NOT as described in the manual for your 80 column card. For example, CTRL-L will not blank the screen, but is the case toggle. CTRL-A, which acts as a case toggle on many 80 column cards, will not do this in EDIT mode and simply produces a CTRL-A in the file line.

## 8.7. The Configure ASM Program

This program allows you to make several minor modifications to MERLIN's default conditions. It allows you to change the "UPDATE SOURCE" character searched for at the entry to the assembler, the editor's wild card character, and the number of symbol fields printed per line in the symbol table printout. It also allows you to specify whether you want to have an 80 column board supported, and if so, which slot it is in.

You can also specify a hardware shift key modification. Any such modification can be supported. However, if your modification is the type that enables direct input of lower case (as with the VIDEX Keyboard Enhancer) instead of providing a memory location to be tested (as with the "game button 2" modification), then the default at the start of each line will be lower case rather than upper case and CTRL-L will function as a case lock toggle.

It allows you to specify whether you have a lower case adaptor. This will affect the condition on boot if you have not elected to have an  $8\emptyset$  column board selected. It may always be defeated from the editor using the VIDEO command, so this only selects the initial condition.

You may select a number of other options including certain printer options for use by the PRTR command.

Finally, you can save the configured version to another, or the same disk. There is no reason to keep the original version since you can always return to it by reconfiguration.

At the end of the configuration program the user is given the opportunity to transfer the boot program "MERLIN" to another disk. This is just a convenient way of transferring that program since it cannot be done manually. You can also use FID to copy MERLIN or ASM.OBJ (the main program.)

NOTE: MERLIN will RUN only on the original disk or a protected copy. The files may be kept for safety on another disk, but cannot function until recopied onto a protected disk. The configuration program should be BRUN only when the standard Apple screen is in use.

## 8.8. Error Messages

### 8.8.1. BAD OPCODE

Occurs when the opcode is not valid (perhaps misspelled) or the opcode is in the label column.

#### 8.8.2. BAD ADDRESS MODE

The addressing mode is not a valid 65%2 instruction; for example, JSR (LABEL) or LDX (LABEL), Y.

#### 8.8.3. BAD BRANCH

A branch (BEQ, BCC, etc) to an address that is out of range, i.e. further away than +127 bytes.

NOTE: Most errors will throw off the assembler's address calculations. Bad branch errors should be ignored until previous errors have been dealt with.

### 8.8.4. BAD OPERAND

An illegally formatted operand. This also occurs if you "EQU" a label to a zero page number after the label has been used. It may also mean that your operand is longer than 64 characters, or that a comment line exceeds 64 characters. This error will abort assembly.

### 8.8.5. DUPLICATE SYMBOL

On the first pass, the assembler finds two identical labels.

### 8.8.6. MEMORY FULL

This is usually caused by one of four conditions; Incorrect OBJ setting, source code too large, object code too large or symbol table too large. See "Special Note" at the end of this section.

### 8.8.7. UNKNOWN LABEL

Your program refers to a LABEL that does not exist. This also occurs if you try to reference a MACRO definition by anything other than PMC. It can also occur if the referenced label is in an area with conditional assembly OFF. The latter will not happen with a MACRO definition.

#### 8.8.8. NOT MACRO

Forward reference to a MACRO, or reference by PMC to a label that is not a MACRO.

#### 8.8.9. NESTING ERROR

Macros nested more than 15 deep or conditionals nested more than 8 deep.

### 8.8.10. BAD "PUT"

This is caused by a PUT inside a macro or by a PUT inside another PUT file.

### 8.8.11. BAD "SAV"

This is caused by a SAV inside a macro or a SAV after a multiple OBJ after the last SAV.

### 8.8.12. BAD INPUT

This results from either no input ([RTN] alone) or an input exceeding 37 characters in answer to the KBD opcode's request for the value of a label.

#### 8.8.13. BREAK

This message is caused by the ERR opcode when the expression in the operand is found to be nonzero.

### 8.8.14. BAD LABEL

This is caused by an unlabeled EQU or MAC, a label that is too long or one containing illegal characters.

# 8.9. Special Note - Memory Full Errors

There are four common causes for the "memory full" error message. A more detailed description of this problem and some ways to overcome it follow.

ERROR MESSAGE: "MEMORY FULL IN LINE: n". Generated during pass I prior to assembly (line number points to an OBJ instruction). CAUSE: An OBJ was specified that was below MERLIN's HIMEM (normally \$8000) and also not within Page 3 (\$300.3FF). MERLIN will not allow you to put object code in this range in order to protect your source file and the system. REMEDY: Remove the OBJ instruction or change it to specify an address within the legal range.

ERROR MESSAGE: "ERR: MEMORY FULL". Generated immediately after you type in one line too many. CAUSE: The source code is too large and has exceeded MERLIN'S HIMEM (normally \$8000 on the RAM card version; \$5000 on the 48K version). REMEDY: Raise MERLIN'S HIMEM (see the section on the HIMEM command) or break the source file up into smaller sections and bring them in when necessary by using the "PUT" pseudo-op.

ERROR MESSAGE: "MEMORY FULL IN LINE: n". Generated during assembly. CAUSE: Too many symbols have been placed into the symbol table, causing it to exceed Applesoft's HIMEM (normally \$9853 for the RAM card version and \$6F53 for the 48K version). REMEDY: Make the symbol table larger by using the SYM command to lower its beginning address.

ERROR MESSAGE: None, but no object code will be generated (there will be no Object information displayed on the EXEC menu). CAUSE: Object code generated from an assembly would have exceeded the symbol table or Applesoft's HIMEM. REMEDY: Lower MERLIN'S HIMEM or write the object code directly to disk, using the DSK pseudo-op.

# 9. SOURCEROR

#### 9.1. Introduction

SOURCEROR is a sophisticated and easy to use disassembler designed as a subsidiary to create MERLIN source files out of binary programs, usually in a matter of minutes. SOURCEROR disassembles SWEET 16 code as well as  $65\emptyset2$  code.

The main part of SOURCEROR is called SRCRR.0BJ, but this cannot be run (conveniently) directly, since it may overwrite DOS buffers and crash the system. For this reason, a small program named SOURCEROR is provided. It runs in the input buffer, and does not conflict with any program in memory. This small program simply checks memory size, gets rid of any program such as PLE which would conflict with the main SOURCEROR program, sets MAXFILES 1, then runs SRCRR.0BJ (at \$8800-\$9AA5).

To minimize the possibility of accident, SRCRR.OBJ has a default location of \$4000 and if you BRUN it, it will just return without doing anything. If you try to BRUN it at its designed location of \$8800, however, you could be in for big trouble. SOURCEROR assumes the standard Apple screen is being used and will not function with an 80 column card.

## 9.2. Using SOURCEROR

1. Load in the program to be disassembled. Although Sourceror will handle programs at any location, the original location for the program is preferable as long as it will not conflict with SOURCEROR and the build up of the source file. When in doubt, load it in at \$800 or \$803. Small programs at \$4000 and above, or medium sized ones above \$6000 will probably be okay at their original locations.

### 2. BRUN SOURCEROR

3. You will be told that the default address for the source file is  $\$25\emptyset\emptyset$ . This was selected because it does not conflict with the addresses of most binary programs you may wish to disassemble. Just hit RETURN to accept this default address. Otherwise, specify (in Hex) the address you want.

You may also access a "secret" provision at this point. This is done by typing CTRL-S (for "SWEET") after, or in lieu of the source address. Then you will be asked to specify a (nonstandard) address for the SWEET 16 interpreter. This is intended to facilitate disassembly of programs which use a RAM version of SWEET 16.

4. Next, you will be asked to hit RETURN if the program to be disassembled is at its original (running) location, or you must specify in Hex, the present location of the code to be disassembled. Finally, you will be asked to give the ORIGINAL location of that program.

When disassembling, you must use the ORIGINAL address of the program, not the address where the program currently resides. It will appear that you are disassembling the program at its original location, but actually, SOURCEROR is disassembling the code at its present location and translating the addresses.

5. Lastly, the title page which contains a synopsis of the commands to be used in disassembly will display. You may now start disassembling or using any of the other commands. Your first command must include a Hex address. Thereafter this is optional, as we shall explain.

At this point, and until the final processing, you may hit RESET to return to the start of the SOURCEROR program. If you hit RESET once more, you will exit SOURCEROR and return to BASIC. Using RESET assumes you are using the Autostart monitor rom.

### 9.3. Commands Used in Disassembly

The disassembly commands are very similar to those used by the disassembler in the Apple monitor. All commands accept a 4-digit hex address before the command letter. If this number is omitted, then the disassembly continues from its present address. A number must be specified only upon initial entry.

If you specify a number greater than the present address, a new ORG will be created.

More commonly, you will specify an address less than the present default value. In this case, the disassembler checks to see if this address equals the address of one of the previous lines. If so, it simply backs up to that point. If not, then it backs up to the next used address and creates a new ORG. Subsequent source lines are "erased". It is generally best to avoid new ORGs when possible. If you get a new ORG and don't want it, try backing up a bit more until you no longer get a new ORG upon disassembly.

# 9.4. Command Descriptions

## 9.4.1. L (List)

This is the main disassembly command. It disassembles  $2\emptyset$  lines of code. It may be repeated (e.g.  $2\emptyset \emptyset \emptyset LLL$  will disassemble  $6\emptyset$  lines of code starting at  $\$2\emptyset \emptyset \emptyset$ ). If a JSR to the SWEET 16 interpreter is found, disassembly is automatically switched to the SWEET 16 mode.

Command L always continues the present mode of disassembly (SWEET 16 or normal).

If an illegal opcode is encountered, the bell will sound and opcode will be printed as three question marks in flashing format. This is only to call your attention to the situation. In the source code itself, unrecognized opcodes are converted to HEX data, but not displayed on the screen.

# 9.4.2. S (SWEET)

This is similar to L, but forces the disassembly to start in SWEET 16 mode. SWEET 16 mode returns to normal 65%2 mode whenever the SWEET 16 RTN opcode is found.

# 9.4.3. N (Normal)

This is the same as L, but forces disassembly to start in normal 65%2 mode.

# 9.4.4. H (Hex)

This creates the HEX data opcode. It defaults to one byte of data. If you insert a one byte (one or two digits) hex number after the H, that number of data bytes will be generated.

# 9.4.5. T (Text)

This attempts to disassemble the data at the current address as an ASCII string. Depending on the form of the data, this will (automatically) be disassembled under the pseudo opcode ASC, DCI, INV or FLS. The appropriate delimiter " or ' is automatically chosen. The disassembly will end when the data encountered is inappropriate, when 62 characters have been treated, or when the high bit of the data changes. In the last condition, the ASC opcode is automatically changed to DCI.

Sometimes the change to DCI is inappropriate. This change can be defeated by using TT instead of T in the command.

Occasionally, the disassembled string may not stop at the appropriate place because the following code looks like ASCII data to SOURCEROR. In this event, you may limit the number of characters put into the string by inserting a one or two digit hex number after the T command.

This or TT, may also have to be used to establish the correct boundary between a regular ASCII string and a flashing one. It is usually obvious where this should be done.

Any lower case letters appearing in the text string are shown as flashing uppercase letters.

### 9.4.6. W (Word)

This disassembles the next two bytes at the current location as a DA opcode. Optionally, if the command WW is used, these bytes are disassembled as a DDB opcode. Finally, if W- is used as the command, the two bytes are disassembled in the form DA LABEL-1. The latter is often the appropriate form when the program uses the address by pushing it on the stack. You may detect this while disassembling, or after the program has been disassembled. In the latter case, it may be to your advantage to do the disassembly again with some notes in hand.

## 9.5. Housekeeping Commands

# 9.5.1. / (Cancel)

This essentially cancels the last command. More exactly, it re-establishes the last default address (the address used for a command not necessarily attached to an address). This is a useful convenience which allows you to ignore the typing of an address when a backup is desired. As an example, suppose you type T to disassemble some text. You may not know what to expect following the text, so you can just type to L to look at it. Then if the text turns out to be followed by some Hex data (such as \$8D for a carriage return), simply type / to cancel the L and type the appropriate H command.

# 9.5.2. R (Read)

This allows you to look at memory in a format that makes imbedded text stand out. To look at the data from \$1234 to \$1333 type 1234R. After that, R alone will bring up the next page of memory. The numbers you use for this command are totally independent of the disassembly address.

However, you may disassemble, then use (address)R, then L alone, and the disassembly will proceed just as if you never used R at all. If you don't intend to use the default address when you return to disassembly, it may be wise to make a note on where you wanted to resume, or to use the / before the R.

# 9.5.3. Q (Quit)

This ends disassembly and goes to the final processing which is automatic. If you type an address before the Q, the address pointer is backed to (but not including) that point before the processing. If, at the end of the disassembly, the disassembled lines include:

2341- 4C Ø3 EØ JMP \$EØØ3 2344- A9 BE 94 LDA \$94BE,Y

and the last line is just garbage, type 2344Q. This will cancel the last line, but retain the first.

### 9.6. Final Processing

After the Q command, the program does some last minute processing of the assembled code. If you hit RESET at this time, you will return to BASIC and lose the disassembled code.

The processing may take from a second or two for a short program, to two or three minutes for a long one. Be patient.

When the processing is done, you are asked if you want to save the source. If so, you will be asked for a file name. SOURCEROR will append the suffix ".S" to this name and save it to disk.

The drive used will be the one used to BRUN SOURCEROR. Replace the disk first if you want the source to go on another disk.

To look at the disassembled source, BRUN MERLIN, or type ASSEM, and load it in.

# 9.7. Dealing with the Finished Source

In most cases, after you have some experience and assuming you used reasonable care, the source will have few, if any, defects.

You may notice that some DA's would have been more appropriate in the DA LABEL-1 or the DDB LABEL formats. In this, and similar cases, it may be best to do the disassembly again with some notes in hand. The disassembly is so quick and painless, that it is often much easier than trying to alter the source appropriately.

The source will have all the exterior or otherwise unrecognized labels at the end in a table of equates. You should look at this table closely. It should not contain any zero page equates except ones resulting from DA's, JMP's or JSR's. This is almost a sure sign of an error in the disassembly (yours, not SOURCEROR's). It may have resulted from an attempt to disassemble a data area as regular code.

NOTE: If you try to assemble the source under these conditions, you will get an error as soon as the equates appear. If, as eventually you should, you move the equates to the start of the program, you will not get an error, but the assembly MAY NOT BE CORRECT. It is important to deal with this situation first as trouble could occur if, for example, the disassembler finds the data AD  $\emptyset\emptyset$  8D. It will disassemble it correctly, as LDA  $\$\emptyset\emptyset$ 8D.

The assembler always assembles this code as a zero page instruction, giving the two bytes A5 8D. Occasionally you will find a program that uses this form for a zero page instruction. In that case, you will have to insert a character after the LDA opcode to have it assemble identically to its original form. Often it was data in the first place rather than code, and must be dealt with to get a correct assembly.

## 9.8. The Memory Full Message

When the source file reaches within \$600 of the start of SOURCEROR (that is, when it goes beyond  $\$82\emptyset\emptyset$ ) you will see "MEMORY FULL" and "HIT A KEY" in flashing format. When you hit a key, SOURCEROR will go directly to the final processing. The reason for the \$600 gap is that SOURCEROR needs a certain amount of space for this processing. It is possible (but not likely) that part of SOURCEROR will be overwritten during final processing, but this should not cause problems since the front end of SOURCEROR will not be used again by that point. There is a "secret" override provision at the memory full point. If the key you hit is CTRL-O (for override), then SOURCEROR will return for another command. You can use this to specify the desired ending point. You can also use it to go a little further than SOURCEROR wants you to, and disassemble a few more lines. Obviously, you should not carry this to extremes.

CAUTION: After exiting SOURCEROR, do not try to run it again with a CALL. Instead, run it again from disk. This is because the DOS buffers have been re-established upon exit, and will have partially destroyed SOURCEROR.

## 9.9. The LABELER program

One of the nicest features of the SOURCEROR program is the automatic assignment of labels to all recognizable addresses in the binary file being disassembled. Addresses are recognized by being found in a table which SOURCEROR references during the disassembly process. For example, all JSR \$FC58 instructions within a binary file will be listed by SOURCEROR as JSR HOME. This table of address labels may be edited by using the program LABELER,

To use labeler, BRUN LABELER. The program will then mention that SRCRR.OBJ is being loaded into memory, and present the main program menu.

#### 9.10. Labeler Commands

### 9.10.1. Q:QUIT

When finished with any modifications you wish to make to the label table, press 'Q' to exit the LABELER program. If you wish to save the new file, press 'S'. Otherwise, press ESCAPE to exit without saving the table, for instance, if you had only been reviewing the table.

### 9.10.2. L:LIST

This allows you to list the current label table. After 'L', press any key to start the listing. Pressing any key will go to the next page; CTRL-C will abort the listing.

## 9.10.3. D:DELETE LABEL(S)

Use this option to delete any address labels you do not want in the list. After entering the D command, simply enter the NUMBER of the label you want to delete. If you want to delete a range, enter the beginning and ending label numbers, separated by a comma.

### 9.10.4. A:ADD LABEL

Use this option to add a new label to the list. Simply tell the program the hex address and the name you wish to associate with that address. Press RETURN only, to abort this option at any point.

### 9.10.5. F:FREE SPACE

This tells you how much free space remains in the table for new label entries.

# 9.10.6. U:UNLOCK SRCRR.OBJ

Before saving a new label table, you will need to UNLOCK the SRCRR.OBJ file. Use this command before (Q)uitting the LABELER program, if you intend to save a new file.

## 10. SWEET 16 - INTRODUCTION

by Dick Sedgewick

SWEET 16 is probably the least used and least understood seed in the Apple ][.

In exactly the same sense that Integer and Applesoft Basics are languages, SWEET 16 is a language. Compared to the Basics, however, it would be classed as low level with a strong likeness to conventional 65%2 Assembly language.

To use SWEET 16, you must learn the language - and to quote "WOZ", "The opcode list is short and uncomplicated". "WOZ" (Steve Wozniak), of course is Mr. Apple, and the creator of SWEET 16.

SWEET 16 is ROM based in every Apple ][ from \$F689 to \$F7FC. It has its own set of opcodes and instruction sets, and uses the SAVE and RESTORE routines from the Apple Monitor to preserve the  $65\emptyset2$  registers when in use, allowing SWEET 16 to be used as a subroutine.

It uses the first 32 locations on zero page to set up its 16 double byte registers, and is therefore not compatible with Applesoft Basic without some additional efforts.

The original article, "SWEET 16: The 65 # 2 Dream Machine", first appeared in Byte Magazine, November 1977 and later in the original "WOZ PAK". The article is included here and again as test material to help understand the use and implementation of SWEET 16.

Examples of the use of SWEET 16 are found in the Programmer's Aid #1, in the Renumber, Append, and Relocate programs. The Programmers Aid Operating Manual contains complete source assembly listings, indexed on page 65.

The demonstration program is written to be introductory and simple, consisting of three parts:

- 1. Integer Basic Program
- 2. Machine Language Subroutine
- 3. SWEET 16 Subroutine

The task of the program will be to move data. Parameters of the move will be entered in the Integer Basic Program.

The "CALL 768" (\$300) at line 120, enters a 6502 machine language subroutine having the single purpose of entering SWEET 16 and subsequently returning to BASIC (addresses \$300, \$301, \$302, and \$312 respectively). The SWEET 16 subroutine of course performs the move, and is entered at Hex locations \$303 to \$311 (see listing Number 3).

After the move, the screen will display three lines of data, each 8 bytes long, and await entry of a new set of parameters. The three lines of data displayed on the screen are as follows:

- Line 1: The first 8 bytes of data starting a \$800, which is the fixed source data to be moved (in this case, the string A\$).
- Line 2: The first 8 bytes of data starting at the hex address entered as the destination of the move (high order byte only).
- Line 3: The first 8 bytes of data starting at  $\$\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$  (the first four SWEET 16 registers).

The display of 8 bytes of data was chosen to simplify the illustration of what goes on.

Integer Basic has its own way of recording the string A\$. Because the name chosen for the string "A\$" is stored in 2 bytes, a total of five housekeeping bytes precede the data entered as A\$, leaving only three additional bytes available for display. Integer Basic also adds a housekeeping byte at the end of a string, known as the "string terminator".

Consequently, for convenience purposes of the display, and to see the string terminator as the 8th byte, the string data entered via the keyboard should be limited to two characters, and will appear as the 6th and 7th bytes. Additionally, parameters to be entered include the number of bytes to be moved. A useful range for this demonstration would be 1-8 inclusive, but of course 1-255 will work.

Finally, the starting address of the destination of the move must be entered. Again, for simplicity, only the high-order byte is entered, and the program allows a choice between Decimal 9 and high-order byte of program pointer 1, to avoid unnecessary problems (in this demonstration enter a decimal number between 9 and 144 for a 48K APPLE).

The 8 bytes of data displayed starting at  $\$\emptyset\emptyset$  will enable one to observe the condition of the SWEET 16 registers after a move has been accomplished, and thereby understand how the SWEET 16 program works.

From the article "SWEET 16: The 65 $\emptyset$ 2 Dream Machine", remember that SWEET 16 can establish 16 double byte registers starting at  $\$\emptyset$ 0. This means that SWEET 16 can use the first 32 addresses on zero page.

The "events" occurring in this demonstration program can be studied in the first four SWEET 16 registers. Therefore, the 8 byte display starting at  $\$\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$  is large enough for this purpose.

These four registers are established as  $R\emptyset$ , R1, R2, R3:

RØ	şøøøø	δι	ØØØ1	-SWEET 16 accumulator
R1	\$ØØØ2	&	ØØØ3	-Source address
R2	\$ØØØ3	&	ØØØ4	-Destination address
R3	\$ØØØ4	&	ØØØ5	-Number of bytes to move
*				
R14	\$ØØ1C	&	ØØ1D	-Prior result register
R15	SØØ1E	δ <sub>ε</sub>	ØØ1F	-SWEET 16 Program counter

Additionally, an examination of registers R14 and R15 will extend an understanding of SWEET 16, as fully explained in the "WOZ" text. Notice that the high order byte of R14, (located at \$1D) contains \$ $\emptyset$ 6, and is the doubled register specification (3X2=\$ $\emptyset$ 6). R15, the SWEET 16 program counter contains the address of the next operation as it did for each step during execution of the program, which was \$ $\emptyset$ 312 when execution ended and the 65 $\emptyset$ 2 machine code resumed.

To try a sample run, enter the Integer Basic program as shown in Listing #1. Of course, REM statements can be omitted, and line  $1\emptyset$  is only helpful if the machine code is to be stored on disk. Listing #2 must also be entered starting at \$300.

NOTE: A 65%2 disassembly does not look like Listing #3, but the included SOURCEROR disassembler would create a correct disassembly.

Enter "RUN" and hit RETURN
Enter "12" and hit RETURN (A\$ - A\$ string data)
Enter "18" and hit RETURN (high-order byte of destination)

The display should appear as follows:

\$Ø8ØØ-C1 4Ø ØØ 1Ø Ø8 B1 B2 1E (SOURCE) \$ØAØØ-C1 4Ø ØØ 1Ø Ø8 B1 B2 1E (Dest.) \$ØØØØ-1E ØØ Ø8 Ø8 Ø8 ØA ØØ ØØ (SWEET 16)

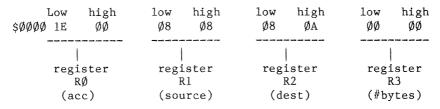
NOTE: The 8 bytes stored at  $\$\emptyset A\emptyset\emptyset$  are identical to the 8 bytes starting at  $\$\emptyset 8\emptyset\emptyset$ , indicating an accurate move of 8 bytes length has been made. They are moved one byte at a time starting with token Cl and ending with token lE. If moving less that 8 bytes, the data following the moved data would be whatever existed at those locations before the move.

The bytes have the following significance:

#### A Token\$



The SWEET 16 registers are shown:



The low order byte of  $R\emptyset$ , the SWEET 16 accumulator, has \$1E in it, the last byte moved (the 8th).

The low order byte of the source register R1 started as  $\$\emptyset\emptyset$  and was incremented eight times, once for each byte of moved data.

The high order byte of the destination register R2 contains  $\$\emptyset A$ , which was entered as  $1\emptyset$  (the variable) and poked into the SWEET 16 code. The low-order byte of R2 was incremented exactly like R1.

Finally, register R3, the register that stores the number of bytes to be moved, has been poked to 8 (the variable B) and decremented eight times as each byte got moved, ending up  $\$\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$ .

By entering character strings and varying the number of bytes to be moved, the SWEET 16 registers can be observed and the contents predicted. Working with this demonstration program, and study of the text material will enable you to write SWEET 16 programs that perform additional 16 bit manipulations. The unassigned opcodes mentioned in the "WOZ Dream Machine" article should present a most interesting opportunity to "play".

SWEET 16 as a language - or tool - opens a new direction to Apple ][ owners without spending a dime, and it's been there all the time.

"Apple-ites" who desire to learn machine language programming, can use SWEET 16 as a starting point. With this text material to use, and less opcodes to learn, a user can quickly be effective.

For those without Integer Basic, SWEET 16 is supplied as a source file on this diskette.

### 10.1. Listing #1

#### >List

10 PRINT "[D]BLOAD SWEET": REM CTRL D 20 CALL - 936: DIM A \$ (10) 30 INPUT "ENTER STRING A \$ " , A \$ 40 INPUT "ENTER # BYTES", B IF NOT B THEN  $4\emptyset$  : REM AT LEAST 1 5Ø 60 POKE 778 B: REM POKE LENGTH 7Ø INPUT "ENTER DESTINATION" . A 80 IF A > PEEK  $(2\emptyset3) - 1$  THEN  $7\emptyset$ 90 IF A < PEEK (205) + 1 THEN 70100 POKE 776 , A : REM POKE DESTINATION 110 M = 8: GOSUB 160 : REM DISPLAY CALL 768 : REM GOTO \$Ø3ØØ 120 130 M = A: GOSUB 16 $\emptyset$ : REM DISPLAY 140 M = 0: GOSUB 160 : REM DISPLAY 150 PRINT: PRINT: GOTO 3Ø 160 POKE 60, 0: POKE 61, M 17Ø CALL -605: RETURN: REM XAM8 IN MONITOR

# 10.2. Listing #2

300:20 89 F6 11 00 08 12 00 00 13 00 00 41 52 F3 07 FB 00 60

# 10.3. Listing #3

## SWEET 16

\$3ØØ	2Ø	89	F6	JSR	\$F68	39
\$3Ø3	11	ØØ	Ø8	SET	R1	source address
\$3Ø6	12	ØØ	ØØ	SET	R2	destination address
				Α		
\$3Ø9	13	ØØ	ØØ	SET	R3	length
			В			
	\$3ØC	41			LD	@R1
	\$3ØD	52			ST	@R2
	\$3ØE	F3			DCR	R3
	\$3ØF	Ø7			BNZ	\$3ØC
	\$311	ØØ			RTN	
	\$312	60			RTS	

Data will be poked from the Integer Basic program:

"A" from Line  $1\emptyset\emptyset$  "B" from Line  $6\emptyset$ 

# 11. SWEET 16: A Pseudo 16 Bit Microprocessor

By Steve Wozniak

# 11.1. Description

While writing APPLE BASIC for a 65%2 microprocessor, I repeatedly encountered a variant of MURPHY'S LAW. Briefly stated, any routine operating on 16-bit data will require at least twice the code that it should. Programs making extensive use of 16-bit pointers (such as compilers, editors, and assemblers) are included in this category. In my case, even the addition of a few double-byte instructions to the 65%2 would have only slightly alleviated the problem. What I really needed was a 65%2/RCA 18% hybrid - an abundance of 16-bit registers and excellent pointer capability. My solution was to implement a non-existent (meta) 16-bit processor in software, interpreter style, which I call SWEET 16.

SWEET 16 is based on sixteen 16-bit registers (R $\emptyset$ -15), which are actually 32 memory locations. R $\emptyset$  doubles as the SWEET 16 accumulator (ACC), R15 as the program counter (PC), and R14 as the status register. R13 holds compare instruction results and R12 is the subroutine return stack pointer if SWEET 16 subroutines are used. All other SWEET 16 registers are at the user's unrestricted disposal.

SWEET 16 instructions fall into register and non-register categories. The register ops specify one of the sixteen registers to be used as either a data element or a pointer to data element or a pointer to data in memory, depending on the specific instruction. For example INR R5 uses R5 as data and ST @R7 uses R7 as a pointer to data in memory. Except for the SET instruction, register ops take one byte of code each. The non-register ops are primarily 65%2 style branches with the second byte specifying a +/-127 byte displacement relative to the address of the following instruction. Providing that the prior register op result meets a specified branch condition, the displacement is added to the SWEET 16 PC, effecting a branch.

SWEET 16 is intended as a 65%2 enhancement package, not a stand-alone processor. A 65%2 program switches to SWEET 16 mode with a subroutine call and subsequent code is interpreted as SWEET 16 instructions. The nonregister op RTN returns the user program to 65%2 mode after restoring the internal register contents (A, S, Y, P, and S). The following example illustrates how to use SWEET 16.

B9 ØØ	Ø2		LDA	IN,Y	get a char.
C9 CI	)		CMP	#"M"	"M" for move
DØ Ø9	)		BNE	NOMOVE	No. skip move
2Ø 89	F6		JSR	SW16	Yes, call SWEET 16
41		MLOOP	LD	@R1	Rl holds source
52			ST	@R2	R2 holds dest. addr.
F3			DCR	R3	Decr. length
Ø7 FF	3		BNZ	MLOOP	Loop until done
ØØ			RTN		Return to 6502 mode.
C9 C5	,	NOMOVE	CMP	#"E"	"E" char?
DØ 13	}		BEQ	EXIT	Yes, exit
C8			INY		No, cont.
	C9 CE DØ Ø9 2Ø 89 41 52 F3 Ø7 FE ØØ C9 C5 DØ 13	52 F3 Ø7 FB ØØ C9 C5 DØ 13	C9 CD DØ Ø9 2Ø 89 F6 41 MLOOP 52 F3 Ø7 FB ØØ C9 C5 NOMOVE DØ 13	C9 CD	C9 CD

NOTE: Registers A, X, Y, P, and S are not disturbed by SWEET 16.

### 11.2. Instruction Descriptions

The SWEET 16 opcode listing is short and uncomplicated. Excepting relative branch displacements, hand assembly is trivial. All register opcodes are formed by combining two Hex digits, one for the opcode and one to specify a register. For example, opcodes 15 and 45 both specify register R5 while codes 23, 27 and 29 are all ST ops. Most register ops are assigned in complementary pairs to facilitate remembering them. Therefore, LD and ST are opcodes 2N and 3N respectively, while LD @ and ST @ are codes 4N and 5N.

Opcodes  $\emptyset$  to C (Hex) are assigned to the thirteen non-register ops. Except for RTN (opcode  $\emptyset$ ), BK ( $\emptyset$ A), and RS ( $\emptyset$ B), the non register ops are  $65\emptyset$ 2 style branches. The second byte of a branch instruction contains a +/-127 byte displacement value (in two's complement form) relative to the address of the instruction immediately following the branch.

If a specified branch condition is met by the prior register op result, the displacement is added to the PC effecting a branch. Except for BR (Branch always) and BS (Branch to Subroutine), the branch opcodes are assigned in complementary pairs, rendering them easily remembered for hand coding. For example, Branch if Plus and Branch if Minus are opcodes 4 and 5 while Branch if Zero and Branch if NonZero are opcodes 6 and 7.

# 11.3. Sweet 16 Opcode Summary

## 11.3.1. Register OPS

ln	SET	Rn	Constant (Set)
2n	LD	Rn	(Load)
3n	ST	Rn	(Store)
4n	LD	@Rn	(Load Indirect)
5n	ST	@Rn	(Store Indirect)
6n	LDD	@Rn	(Load Double Indirect)
7 n	STD	@Rn	(Store Double Indirect)
8n	POP	@Rn	(Pop Indirect)
9n	STP	@Rn	(Store POP Indirect)
An	ADD	Rn	(Add)
Bn	SUB	Rn	(Sub)
Cn	POPD	@Rn	(Pop Double Indirect)
Dn	CPR	Rn	(Compare)
En	INR	Rn	(Increment)
Fn	DCR	Rn	(Decrement)

# 11.3.2. Non-register OPS

ØØ	RTN		(Return to 65Ø2 mode)
Ø1	BR	ea	(Branch always)
Ø2	BNC	ea	(Branch if No Carry)
ØЗ	BC	ea	(Branch if Carry)
Ø4	BP	ea	(Branch if Plus)
Ø5	BM	ea	(Branch if Minus)
Ø6	BZ	ea	(Branch if Zero)
Ø7	BNZ	ea	(Branch if NonZero)
Ø8	BM1	ea	(Branch if Minus 1)
Ø9	BNM1	ea	(Branch if Not Minus 1)
ØA	BK		(Break)
ØB	RS		(Return from Subroutine)
ØC	BS	ea	(Branch to Subroutine)
ØD			(Unassigned)
ØE			(Unassigned)
ØF			(Unassigned)

# 11.4. Register Instructions

## 11.4.1. SET

SET Rn, Constant ln Low High

The 2-byte constant is loaded into Rn ( $n=\emptyset$  to F, Hex) and branch conditions set accordingly. The carry is cleared.

### **EXAMPLE:**

15 34 AØ SET R5, \$AØ34 R5 now contains \$AØ34

### 11.4.2. LOAD

LD Rn 2n

The ACC  $(R\emptyset)$  is loaded from Rn and branch conditions set according to the data transferred. The carry is cleared and contents of Rn are not disturbed.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

15 34 AØSET R5, \$AØ34 25 LD R5

ACC now contains \$AØ34

### 11.4.3. STORE

ST Rn 3n

The ACC is stored into Rn and branch conditions set according to the data transferred. The carry is cleared and the ACC contents are not disturbed.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

25 LD R5 Copy the contents 36 ST R6 of R5 to R6

### 11.4.4. LOAD INDIRECT

LD @Rn 4n

The low-order ACC byte is loaded from the memory location whose address resides in Rn and the high-order ACC byte is cleared. Branch conditions reflect the final ACC contents which will always be positive and never minus l. The carry is cleared. After the transfer, Rn is incremented by l.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

15 34 AØ SET R5, \$AØ34

45 LD @R5

ACC is loaded from memory location \$AØ34 R5 is incr to \$AØ35

#### 11.4.5. STORE INDIRECT

ST @Rn 5n

The low-order ACC byte is stored into the memory location whose address resides in Rn. Branch conditions reflect the 2-byte ACC contents. The carry is cleared. After the transfer Rn is incremented by 1.

### **EXAMPLE:**

15	34	ΑØ	SET	R5,	\$AØ34Load pointers R5, R6 with
16	22	9Ø	SET	R6,	\$9022\$A034 and \$9022
45			LD	@R5	Move byte from \$AØ34 to \$9Ø22
56			ST	@R6	Both ptrs are incremented

### 11.4.6. LOAD DOUBLE-BYTE INDIRECT

LDD @Rn 6n

The low order ACC byte is loaded from memory location whose address resides in Rn, and Rn is then incremented by 1. The high order ACC byte is loaded from the memory location whose address resides in the incremented Rn, and Rn is again incremented by 1. Branch conditions reflect the final ACC contents. The carry is cleared.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

15 34 AØ SET R5, \$AØ34 65 LDD @R6 The low-order ACC byte is loaded from \$AØ34, high-order from \$AØ35, R5 is incr to \$AØ36

#### 11.4.7. STORE DOUBLE-BYTE INDIRECT

STD @Rn 7n

The low-order ACC byte is stored into memory location whose address resides in Rn, and Rn is then incremented by 1. The high-order ACC byte is stored into the memory location whose address resides in the incremented Rn, and Rn is again incremented by 1. Branch conditions reflect the ACC contents which are not disturbed. The carry is cleared.

#### EXAMPLE:

15	34	ΑØ	SET	R5,	\$AØ34	Load	pointers R5, R6		
16	22	9Ø	SET	R6,	\$9022	with	\$AØ34 AND \$9Ø22		
65			LDD	@R5			double byte from		
76			STD	@R		\$AØ34	4-35 TO \$9Ø22-23.		
						Both	pointers incremented	by	2.

### 11.4.8. POP INDIRECT

POP @Rn 8n

The low-order ACC byte is loaded from the memory location whose address resides in Rn after Rn is decremented by l, and the high order ACC byte is cleared. Branch conditions reflect the final 2-byte ACC contents which will always be positive and never minus one. The carry is cleared. Because Rn is decremented prior to loading the ACC, single byte stacks may be implemented with the ST @Rn and POP @Rn ops (Rn is the stack pointer).

#### **EXAMPLE:**

15	34	ΑØ	SET	R5,	\$AØ34	Init stack pointer
$1\emptyset$	Ø4	ØØ	SET	RØ,	4	Load 4 into ACC
55			ST	@R5		PUSH 4 onto stack
$1\emptyset$	Ø5	ØØ	SET	RØ,	5	Load 5 into ACC
55			ST	@R5		Push 5 onto stack
$1\emptyset$	Ø6	ØØ	SET	RØ,	6	Load 6 into ACC
55			ST	@R5		Push 6 onto stack
85			POP	@R5		Pop 6 off stack into ACC
85			POP	@R5		Pop 5 off stack
85			POP	@R5		Pop 4 off stack

### 11.4.9. STORE POP INDIRECT

### STP @Rn 9n

The low-order ACC byte is stored into the memory location whose address resides in Rn after Rn is decremented by 1. Branch conditions will reflect the 2-byte ACC contents which are not modified. STP @Rn and POP @Rn are used together to move data blocks beginning at the greatest address and working down. Additionally, single-byte stacks may be implemented with the STP @Rn ops.

### **EXAMPLE:**

14	34	ΑØ	SET	R4,	\$AØ34	Init pointers
15	22	9Ø	SET	R5,	\$9022	
84			POP	@R4		Move byte from
95			STP	@R5		\$AØ33 to \$9Ø21
84			POP	@R4		Move byte from
95			STP	@R5		\$AØ32 to \$9Ø2Ø

### 11.4.10. ADD

ADD Rn An

The contents of Rn are added to the contents of ACC (R) and the low-order 16 bits of the sum restored in ACC. The 17th sum bit becomes the carry and the other branch conditions reflect the final ACC contents.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

1Ø	34	76	SET	RØ,	\$7634	Init RØ (ACC) and Rl
11	27	42	SET	R1,	\$4227	
Al			ADD	R1		Add Rl (sum=B85B c clear)
ΑØ			ADD	RØ		Double ACC (RØ) to \$7ØB6
						with carry set.

### 11.4.11. SUBTRACT

SUB Rn Bn

The contents of Rn are Subtracted from the ACC contents by performing a two's complement addition:

$$ACC = ACC + Rn + 1$$

The low-order 16 bits of the subtraction are restored in the ACC, the 17th sum bit becomes the carry and other branch conditions reflect the final ACC contents. If the 16-bit unsigned ACC contents are greater than or equal to the 16-bit unsigned Rn contents, then the carry is set, otherwise it is cleared. Rn is not disturbed.

#### **EXAMPLE:**

1Ø	34	76	SET	RØ,	\$7634	Init RØ (ACC)
11	27	42	SET	R1,	\$4227	and Rl
B1			SUB	R1		Subtract R1
						(diff=\$34ØD with c set)
В∅			SUB	RØ		Clears ACC. (RØ)

#### 11.4.12. POP DOUBLE-BYTE INDIRECT

POP @Rn Cn

Rn is decremented by 1 and the high-order ACC byte is loaded from the memory location whose address now resides in Rn. Rn is again decremented by 1 and the low-order ACC byte is loaded from the corresponding memory location. Branch conditions reflect the final ACC contents.

The carry is cleared. Because Rn is decremented prior to loading each of the ACC halves, double-byte stacks may be implemented with the STD @Rn and POPD @Rn ops (Rn is the stack pointer).

#### **EXAMPLE:**

15	34	ΑØ	SET R5,	\$AØ34	Init	stack	point	er
$1\emptyset$	12	AA	SET RØ,	\$AA12	Load	\$AA12	into	ACC.
75			STD @R5		Push	\$AA12	onto	stack
$1\emptyset$	34	BB	SET RØ,	\$BB34	Load	\$BB34	into	ACC.
75			STD @R5		Push	\$BB34	onto	stack
C5			POPD @RS	5	Pop S	\$BB34 c	off st	tack
C5			POPD @R!	5	Pop S	\$AA12 (	off st	acy

#### 11.4.13. COMPARE

CPR Rn Dn

The ACC (R $\emptyset$ ) contents are compared to Rn by performing the 16-bit binary subtraction ACC-Rn and storing the low order 16 difference bits in R13 for subsequent branch tests. If the 16-bit unsigned ACC contents are greater than or equal to the 16-bit unsigned Rn contents, then the carry is set, otherwise it is cleared. No other registers, including ACC and Rn are disturbed.

### EXAMPLE:

15	34 AØ	SET R5, \$AØ34	Pointer to memory
16	BF AØ	SET R6, \$AØBF	Limit address
ВØ		LOOP1 SUB RØ	Zero data
75		STD @R5	Clear 2 locns
			Increment R5 by 2
25		LD R5	Compare pointer R5
D6		CPR R6	to limit R6
Ø2	FA	BNC LOOP1	Loop if c clear

# 11.4.14. INCREMENT

#### INR Rn En

The contents of Rn are incremented by 1. The carry is cleared and other branch conditions reflect the incremented value.

### EXAMPLE:

15 34 AØ	SET R5, \$AØ34	(Pointer)
ВØ	SUB RØ	Zero to RØ
55	ST @R5	Clr Locn \$AØ34
E5	INR R5	Incr R5 to \$AØ36
55	ST @R5	Clrs locn \$AØ36
		(not \$AØ35)

## 11.4.15. DECREMENT

### DCR Rn Fn

The contents of Rn are decremented by 1. The carry is cleared and other branch conditions reflect the decremented value.

EXAMPLE: (Clear 9 bytes beginning at location AØ34)

15 34 AØ	SET R5, \$AØ34	Init Pointer
14 Ø9 ØØ	SET R4, 9	Init counter
ВØ	SUB RØ	Zero ACC
55	LOOP2 ST @R5	Clear a mem byte
F4	DCR R4	Decrement count
Ø7 FC	BNZ LOOP2	Loop until Zero

# 11.5. Non-Register Instructions

#### 11.5.1. RETURN TO 6502 MODE

RTN ØØ

Control is returned to the 65%2 and program execution continues at the location immediately following the RTN instruction. The 65%2 registers and status conditions are restored to their original contents (prior to entering SWEET 16 mode).

### 11.5.2. BRANCH ALWAYS

BR ea Øl d

An effective address (ea) is calculated by adding the signed displacement byte (d) to the PC. The PC contains the address of the instruction immediately following the BR, or the address of the BR op plus 2. The displacement is a signed two's complement value from -128 to +127. Branch conditions are not changed.

NOTE: The effective address calculation is identical to that for 65%2 relative branches. The Hex add & subtract features of the APPLE ][ monitor may be used to calculate displacements.

$$d = $80$$
 ea = PC + 2 - 128

$$d = $81$$
 ea = PC + 2 - 127

$$d = SFF \quad ea = PC + 2 - 1$$

$$d = \$\emptyset\emptyset$$
 ea = PC + 2 +  $\emptyset$ 

$$d = $\emptyset 1$$
 ea = PC + 2 + 1

$$d = $7E$$
 ea = PC + 2 + 126

$$d = \$7F$$
 ea = PC + 2 + 127

#### EXAMPLE:

\$3ØØ: Ø1 5Ø BR \$352

### 11.5.3. BRANCH IF NO CARRY

BNC ea Ø2 d

A branch to the effective address is taken only if the carry is clear, otherwise execution resumes as normal with the next instruction. Branch conditions are not changed.

#### 11.5.4. BRANCH IF CARRY SET

BC ea Ø3 d

A branch is effected only if the carry is set. Branch conditions are not changed.

## 11.5.5. BRANCH IF PLUS

BP ea Ø4 d

A branch is effected only if the prior 'result' (or most recently transferred data) was positive. Branch conditions are not changed.

EXAMPLE: (Clear mem from AØ34 to AØ3F)

15	34	ΑØ	SET R5,	\$AØ34	Init pointer
14	3F	ΑØ	SET R4,	\$AØ3F	Init limit
ВØ			LOOP 3	SUB R∅	
55				ST @R5	Clear mem byte
					;Increment R5
24				LD R4	Compare limit
D5				CPR R5	to pointer
Ø4	FA		BP	LOOP3	Loop until done

### 11.5.6. BRANCH IF MINUS

BM ea Ø5 d

A branch is effected only if prior 'result' was minus (negative, MSB = 1). Branch conditions are not changed.

## 11.5.7. BRANCH IF ZERO

BZ ea Ø6 d

A branch is effected only if the prior 'result' was zero. Branch conditions are not changed.

# 11.5.8. BRANCH IF NONZERO

BNZ ea Ø7 d

A branch is effected only if the prior 'result' was non-zero. Branch conditions are not changed.

# 11.5.9. BRANCH IF MINUS ONE

BM1 ea Ø8 d

A branch is effected only if the prior 'result' was minus one (\$FFFF Hex). Branch conditions are not changed.

### 11.5.10. BRANCH IF NOT MINUS ONE

BNM 1 ea Ø9 d

A branch is effected only if the prior 'result' was not minus 1. Branch conditions are not changed.

## 11.5.11. BREAK

BK ØA

A 65 # 2 BRK (break) instruction is executed. SWEET 16 may be re-entered non destructively at SW16d after correcting the stack pointer to its value prior to executing the BRK.

## 11.5.12. RETURN FROM SWEET 16 SUBROUTINE

RS ØB

RS terminates execution of a SWEET 16 subroutine and returns to the SWEET 16 calling program which resumes execution (in SWEET 16 mode). R12, which is the SWEET 16 subroutine return stack pointer, is decremented twice. Branch conditions are not changed.

#### 11.5.13. BRANCH TO SWEET 16 SUBROUTINE

BS ea ØC d

A branch to the effective address (PC + 2 + d) is taken and execution is resumed in SWEET 16 mode. The current PC is pushed onto a 'SWEET 16 subroutine return address' stack whose pointer is R12, and R12 is incremented by 2. The carry is cleared and branch conditions set to indicate the current ACC contents.

EXAMPLE: (Calling a 'memory move' subroutine to move  $A\emptyset34-A\emptyset3B$  to  $3\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset-3\emptyset\emptyset7$ )

15	34 AØ	SET	R5, \$AØ34	Init pointer l
14	ЗВ АØ	SET	R4, \$AØ3B	Init limit 1
16	ØØ 3Ø	SET	R6, \$3000	Init pointer 2
ØС	15	BS	MOVE	Call move subrtn
45	MOVE	LD	@R5	Move one
56		ST	@R6	byte
24		LD	R4	
D5		CPR	R5	Test if done
Ø4	FA	BP	MOVE	
ØВ		RS		;Return

### 11.6. Theory of Operation

SWEET 16 execution mode begins with a subroutine call to SW16. All  $65\emptyset2$  registers are saved at this time, to be restored when a SWEET 16 RTN instruction returns control to the  $65\emptyset2$ . If you can tolerate indefinite  $65\emptyset2$  register contents upon exit, approximately  $3\emptyset$  usec may be saved by entering at SW16 + 3. Because this might cause an inadvertent switch from Hex to Decimal mode, it is advisable to enter at SW16 the first time through.

After saving the 65%2 registers, SWEET 16 initializes its PC (R15) with the subroutine return address off the 65%2 stack. SWEET 16's PC points to the location preceding the next instruction to be executed. Following the subroutine call are 1-,2-, and 3-byte SWEET 16 instructions, stored in ascending memory locations like 65%2 instructions. The main loop at SW16B repeatedly calls the 'execute instruction' routine to execute it.

Subroutine SW16C increments the PC (R15) and fetches the next opcode, which is either a register op of the form OP REG with OP between 1 and 15 or a non-register op of the form  $\emptyset$  OP with OP between  $\emptyset$  and 13. Assuming a register op, the register specification is doubled to account for the 3 byte SWEET 16 registers and placed in the X-reg for indexing. Then the instruction type is determined. Register ops place the doubled register specification in the high order byte of R 14 indicating the 'prior result register' to subsequent branch instructions. Non-register ops treat the register specification (right-hand half-byte) as their opcode, increment the SWEET 16 PC to point at the displacement byte of branch instructions, load the A-reg with the 'prior result register' index for branch condition testing, and clear the Y-reg.

# 11.7. When is an RTS really a JSR?

Each instruction type has a corresponding subroutine. The subroutine entry points are stored in a table which is directly indexed into by the opcode. By assigning all the entries to a common page, only a single byte of address need be stored per routine. The 6502 indirect jump might have been used as follows to transfer control to the appropriate subroutine.

LDA	#ADRH	High-order byte.
STA	IND+1	
LDA	OPTBL,X	Low-order byte.
STA	IND	· ·
JMP	(IND)	

To save code, the subroutine entry address (minus 1) is pushed onto the stack, high -order byte first. A  $65\emptyset 2$  RTS (return from subroutine) is used to pop the address off the stack and into the  $65\emptyset 2$  PC (after incrementing by 1). The net result is that the desired subroutine is reached by executing a subroutine return instruction!

#### 11.8. OPcode Subroutines

The register op routines make use of the 65%2 'zero page indexed by X' and 'indexed by X indirect' addressing modes to access the specified registers and indirect data. The 'result' of most register ops is left in the specified register and can be sensed by subsequent branch instructions, since the register specification is saved in the high-order byte of R14. This specification is changed to indicate R $\emptyset$  (ACC) for ADD and SUB instructions and R13 for the CPR (compare) instruction.

Normally the high-order R14 byte holds the 'prior result register' index times 2 to account for the 2-byte SWEET 16 registers and the LSB is zero. If ADD, SUB, or CPR instructions generate carries, then this index is incremented, setting the LSB.

The SET instruction increments the PC twice, picking up data bytes in the specified register. In accordance with  $65\,\text{Ø}\,2$  convention, the low-order data byte precedes the high-order byte.

Most SWEET 16 non-register ops are relative branches. The corresponding subroutines determine whether or not the 'prior result' meets the specified branch condition and if so, update the SWEET 16 PC by adding the displacement value (-128 to +127 bytes).

The RTN op restores the 65 % 2 register contents, pops the subroutine return stack and jumps indirect through the SWEET 16 PC. This transfers control to the 65 % 2 at the instruction immediately following the RTN instruction.

The BK op actually executes a 65%2 break instruction (BRK), transferring control to the interrupt handler.

Any number of subroutine levels may be implemented within SWEET 16 code via the BS (Branch to Subroutine) and RS (Return from Subroutine) instructions. The user must initialize and otherwise not disturb R12 if the SWEET 16 subroutine capability is used since it is utilized as the automatic subroutine return stack pointer.

# 11.9. Memory Allocation

The only storage that must be allocated for SWEET 16 variables are 32 consecutive locations in page zero for the SWEET 16 registers, four locations to save the  $65\emptyset2$  register contents, and a few levels of the  $65\emptyset2$  subroutine return address stack. If you don't need to preserve the  $65\emptyset2$  register contents, delete the SAVE and RESTORE subroutines and the corresponding subroutine calls. This will free the four page zero locations ASAV, XSAV, YSAV, and PSAV.

#### 11.10. User Modifications

You may wish to add some of your own instruction to this implementation of SWEET 16. If you use the unassigned opcodes  $\$\emptyset E$  and  $\$\emptyset F$ , remember that SWEET 16 treats these as 2-byte instructions. You may wish to handle the break instruction as a SWEET 16 call, saving two bytes of code each time you transfer into SWEET 16 mode. Or you may wish to use the SWEET 16 BK (break) op as a 'CHAROUT' call in the interrupt handler. You can perform absolute jumps within SWEET 16 by loading the ACC (R $\emptyset$ ) with the address you wish to jump to (minus 1) and executing a ST R15 instruction.

# 12. APPLESOFT LISTING INFORMATION

#### 12.1. SOURCEROR.FP

A fully labelled and commented source listing of Applesoft BASIC can be generated by the program, SOURCEROR.FP on the opposite side of the MERLIN diskette.

This program works by scanning the resident copy of Applesoft present in your computer and by generating text files containing the bulk of Applesoft BASIC: T.APSOFT I, T.APSOFT II, T.APSOFT III and T.APSOFT IV (the 48K version uses T.APSOFT 1 through T.APSOFT 7 instead).

To conserve space, these files contain macros that are defined in another file on the disk entitled, APPLESOFT.S. This file, when assembled using the PRTR command, will print out a nicely formatted disassembly of Applesoft, automatically bringing in and using the APSOFT files as necessary. Exact details on doing this are outlined below.

PLEASE NOTE that this is NOT an "official" source listing from Apple Computer, Inc., but rather a product of the Author's own research and interpretation of the original Applesoft ROM. Apple Computer, Inc. was not in any way involved in the preparation of this data, nor was the final product reviewed for accuracy by that company. Use of the term APPLE should not be construed to represent any endorsement, official or otherwise, by Apple Computer, Inc.

Additionally, Southwestern Data Systems makes no warranties concerning the accuracy or usability of this data. It is provided solely for the entertainment of users of the MERLIN assembler.

WARNING: SOURCEROR.FP and some temporary work files that are not normally visible with the CATALOG command are DELETED when SOURCEROR.FP is BRUN. For this reason, you should make a backup copy of the SOURCEROR.FP side of the MERLIN disk with the COPYA program on the DOS 3.3 System Master diskette. Use the backup copy to make the Applesoft listing as explained next.

- 12.1.1. Steps to list the Applesoft Disassembly
- 1. BRUN SOURCEROR.FP on your backup copy (see warning above).
- Boot MERLIN, select the D)rive that contains your backup copy and L)oad APPLESOFT.
- 3. RAM CARD VERSION: From the editor mode, set SYM to \$8000, enter your PRTR command and ASM)ble the file. The screen should look something like this when you're done:

:SYM \$8000

:PRTR 1 "18ØN"APPLESOFT LISTING"

:ASM

4. 48K VERSION: From the editor mode, set HIMEM and SYM to \$4E $\emptyset$ Ø, enter your PRTR command and ASM)ble the file. The screen should look something like this when you're done:

:HIMEM:\$4EØØ <--Note colon

:SYM \$4E00

:PRTR 1 "18ØN"APPLESOFT LISTING"

:ASM

In the examples above, the PRTR command will send output to slot 1, initialize the printer interface card with  $\langle \text{CTRL} \rangle 80$  (the I is in inverse), and will print "APPLESOFT LISTING" as a header at the top of every page.

MERLIN will then ask "GIVE VALUE FOR SAVEOBJ:" This refers to whether or not you want to save object code generated by the assembly. It is recommended that you answer, "Ø". This is all you need to do to begin the printing process. If you answer "l", you will save object code at the cost of slowing down the system. Saved object code allows you to verify it against where it was taken from.

MERLIN will now do some preliminary checking to make sure everything is OK before printing out the listing. The disk will be accessed a few times, sometimes with long periods between accesses. This is normal. The entire checking process takes about 3.5 minutes.

MERLIN will then begin to print out a completely disassembled and commented listing of Applesoft. It will take 105 pages (including the symbol tables) and nearly an hour and a half to print out (at a printer rate of 80 characters per second).

# 13. GLOSSARY

ABORT -terminate an operation prematurely.

ACCESS -locate or retrieve data.

ADDRESS -a memory location.

ALGORITHM -a method of solving a specific problem.

ALLOCATE -set aside or reserve space.

ASCII -industry standard system of 128 computer

codes assigned to specified alpha-numeric

and special characters.

BASE -in number systems, the exponent at which

the system repeats itself; the number of symbols required by that number system.

BINARY -the base two number system, composed

solely of the numbers zero and one.

BIT -one unit of binary data, either a zero or

a one.

BRANCH -resume execution at a new location.

BUFFER -large temporary data storage area.

BYTE -Hex representation of eight binary bits.

CARRY -flag in the 6502 status register.

CHIP -tiny piece of silicon or germanium con-

taining many integrated circuits.

cope -slang for data or machine language in-

structions.

CTRL -abbreviation for control or control

character.

CURSOR -character, usually a flashing inverse

space, which marks the position of the

next character to be typed.

DATA -facts or information used by, or in a

computer program.

**DECREMENT** -decrease value in constant steps.

**DEFAULT** -nominal value or condition assigned to a

parameter if not specified by the user.

**DELIMIT** -separate, as with a: in a BASIC program

line.

**DISPLACEMENT** -constant or variable used to calculate

the distance between two memory

locations.

**EQUATE** -establish a variable.

**EXPRESSION** -actual, implied or symbolic data.

**FETCH** -retrieve or get.

**FIELD** -portion of a data input reserved for a

specific type of data.

FLAG -register or memory location used for

preserving or establishing a status of a

given operation of condition.

HEX -the Hexadecimal (BASE 16) number system,

composed of the numbers  $\emptyset$ -9 and the let-

ters A-F.

HIGH ORDER -the first, or most significant byte of a

two-byte Hex address or value.

**HOOK** -vector address to an I/O routine or port.

INITIALIZE -set all program parameters to zero, nor-

mal, or default condition.

I/O -input/output.

INTERFACE -method of interconnecting peripheral

equipment.

LABEL -name applied to a variable or address,

usually descriptive of its purpose.

LOOKUP -slang; see table.

LOW-ORDER -the second, or least significant byte of

a two-byte Hex address or value.

LSB -least significant (bit or byte) one with

the least value.

MACRO -in assemblers, the capability to "call" a

code segment by a symbolic name and place

it in the object file.

microprocessor -heart of a microcomputer. (In the Apple,

the  $65\emptyset2$  chip).

MOD -algorithm returning the remainder of a

division operation.

MODE -particular sub-type of operation.

**MODULE** -portion of a program devoted to a spec-

ific function.

**MNEMONIC** -symbolic abbreviation using characters

helpful in recalling a function.

MSB -most significant (bit or byte), one with

the greatest value.

NULL -without value.

OBJECT CODE -ready to run code produced by an assem-

bler program.

**OFFSET** -value of a displacement.

**OPCODE** -instruction to be executed by the 65%2.

**OPERAND** —data to be operated on by a 65∅2 instruc-

tion.

PAGE -a 256-byte area of memory named for the

first byte of its Hex address.

PARAMETER -constant or value required by a program

or operation to function.

PERIPHERAL -external device.

**POINTER** -memory location containing an address to

data elsewhere in memory.

**PORT** -physical interconnection point to per-

ipheral equipment.

**PROMPT** -a character asking the user to input

data.

**PSEUDO** -artificial, a substitute for.

RAM -random access memory.

**REGISTER** -single 6502 or memory location.

**RELATIVE** -branch made using an offset or displace-

ment.

**ROM** -read only memory.

SIGN BIT -bit seven of a byte; negative if value

greater than \$80.

SOURCE CODE -data entered into an assembler which will

produce a machine language program when

assembled.

STACK -temporary storage area in RAM used by the

6502 and assembly language programs.

**STRING** -a group of ASCII characters usually en-

closed by delimiters such as 'or ".

SWEET 16 -program which simulates a 16 bit micro-

processor.

**SYMBOL** -symbolic or mnemonic label.

SYNTAX -prescribed method of data entry.

TABLE -list of values, words, data referenced by

a program.

TOGGLE -switch from one state to the other.

VARIABLE -alpha-numeric expression which may assume

or be assigned a number of values.

**VECTOR** -address to be referenced or branched to.

# 14. SAMPLE PROGRAMS

The first group of three programs are superb Assembly Language utilities written by Steve Wozniak and Allen Baum, and are still found on the original Integer Basic F4 ROM. They are Supplied in source code format on this diskette for the benefit of Apple ][ Plus owners who do not have Integer Basic. They may be located at any convenient memory location.

## 14.1. The Floating Point Routines

These are single precision floating point routines that may be interfaced to a BASIC or assembly language program. Information on their use may be found in the source listings themselves.

## 14.2. The Multiply /Divide Routines

These routines are intended to be used as subroutines in assembly language programs providing a four byte multiply or divide result. Brief information on their use is provided in the source listings, and a multiply demo by Dave Garson is included on this diskette.

### 14.3. PRDEC

This is one the most used subroutines in the Integer Basic ROM set. It is called by virtually every routine which requires the output of an integer number in the range  $\emptyset$ -65535. It is easily integrated in any Assembly Language program. To use it, load the accumulator with the high-order byte of [number], load X with the low-byte and call PRDEC. Alternatively, store the high-byte in \$F3, the low byte in \$F2, and call PRDEC+4.

#### 14.4. MSGOUT

This is a subroutine by Andy Hertzfeld to output ASCII strings from an Assembly Language program. If MERLIN INV or FLS Pseudo-ops are used in connection with it, the ORA  $\$\$\$\emptyset$  must be removed, and all normal ASCII must have the high-bit set. Also in the same source file are two simple subroutines to read ASCII and hexadecimal characters input by the user.

### 14.5. UPCON

This utility by Glen Bredon is provided for users who do not have a lowercase video display chip. It will search for source file comments beginning with either "\*" or ";", and convert all lower case characters to upper case. Load the source file with MERLIN, then BRUN UPCON, via the 'C' command in the EXEC mode.

# 14.6. Game Paddle Printer Driver

When the Apple ][ was first developed, there were no printer interface cards, nor was there really much consideration even given to the need for a printer. Obviously, the folks at Apple computer had a requirement to hard copy their development routines, thus a primitive teletype driver was written by Randy Wiggington and Steve Wozniak to serve their in-house needs. This was subsequently published in the famous "red book" instruction manual, the second for the Apple ][. Along came the Disk ][, and lo and behold, the driver would not work, since it ignored DOS and set its own I/O hooks. Next the Aldrich brothers took care of this problem, and we were back in business. By this time, of course, there was no desperate need for a game paddle driver; interface cards were developed, and worked well. Nevertheless, some users continued using the game I/O driver, so Dave Garson and Val Golding again modified the drive so that inverse and flashing characters would not upset the printer when doing a catalog, etc.

Concurrently, many new interface cards of all kinds were developed for the Apple; clock cards, 80 column cards, ROM cards, etc., until card space is now at a premium. Running a serial printer from the game I/O port is one way in which the user can save both the cost of a printer interface and the slot space it would occupy. Already the teletype driver has been adapted to such printers as Integral Data, Base 2, Heath H-14, and others.

As a last step, Glen Bredon has added a number of improvements to the driver. It can print formatted BASIC listings to any column width, starting with column one, can be output with or without video. The video may be left on even when printing beyond  $4\emptyset$  columns, something most interface cards can not do. These functions are handled by Basic POKE statements to the flags at the end of the program.

Full documentation and instructions are contained in the source file included on this diskette. Naturally, it is completely compatible with MERLIN, and called with the MERLIN USER command. This is set up when it is first BRUN, which establishes the ampersand hooks, which may also be used from BASIC.

In addition, the source code is well commented, so that it in itself, serves as a tutorial on writing driver routines for different applications, etc.

# 15. UTILITIES

## 15.1. Formatter

This program is provided to enhance the use of MERLIN as a general text editor. It will automatically format a file into paragraphs using a specified line length. Paragraphs are separated by empty lines in the original file.

To use FORMATTER, you should first BRUN it from EXEC mode. FORMATTER loads itself \$9%64 and relocates itself to \$94A%. This will simply set up the editor's USER vector. To format a file which is in memory, issue the USER command from the editor.

The formatter program will request a range to format. If you just specify one number, the file will be formatted from that line to the end. Then you will be asked for a line length, which must be less than  $25\emptyset$ . Finally, you may specify whether you want the file justified on both sides (rather than just on the left).

The first thing done by the program is to check whether or not each line of the file starts with a space. If not, a space is inserted at the start of each line. This is to be used to give a left margin using the editor's TAB command before using the PRINT command to print out the file.

Formatter uses inverse spaces for the fill required by twosided justification. This is done so that they can be located and removed if you want to reformat the file later. It is important that you do not use the FIX or TEXT commands on a file after it has been formatted (unless another copy has been saved). For files coming from external sources, it is desirable to first use the FIX command on them to make sure they have the form expected by FORMATTER. For the same reason, it is advisable to reformat a file using only left justification prior to any edit of the file. Don't forget to use the TABS command before printing out a formatted file.

#### 15.2. CHRGEN 70

CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  is a  $7\emptyset$ -column character generator which is designed specifically to allow the use of MERLIN with a  $7\emptyset$  column by 24 line display on the Hi-Res screen. Because of the large amount of memory required, CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  is available only with the RAM card version of MERLIN.

TV sets do not provide sufficient resolution for use with CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$ , thus requiring use of a display monitor for satisfactory results.

To use CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$ , you must first BRUN it from MERLIN's EXEC mode as a DOS command (after a CATALOG). This will reset the source address to \$4001 (above the Hi-Res screen which must be used by CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$ ). This, of course, will delete any source file in memory at the time. Once it has been BRUN, you can invoke it at any time by typing "USER" from the editor.

To exit CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$ , simply type VID  $\emptyset$ , VID 16, or  $PR\#\emptyset$  from the editor. CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  is automatically disconnected when you exit the editor to the EXEC Mode. Upon return to the editor, you can reconnect it by typing "USER" again. To permanently remove CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  in order to free up the area normally used by long source listings, you will have to BRUN MERLIN again.

To use CHRGEN 70 with the editor's PRTR command, just type PRTR 8 "filename", with CHRGEN 70 installed in the system.

If the USER vector has been written over by some other USER routine, it can be reset to point to CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  either by BRUNing CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  again, or by going to the Monitor (use the MON command) and typing in  $9\emptyset\emptyset G$ . The latter assumes, of course, that CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  is still intact at  $\$9\emptyset\emptyset$ .

CHRGEN 70 includes a version of the FORMATTER program. To implement FORMATTER when CHRGEN 70 is connected, just type CTRL-T from the editor's command mode. NOTE: This command may not be accepted unless something has been listed previously.

CHRGEN 70 also includes some keyboard macros. Typing the ESCAPE key followed by certain other keys will produce the keyboard macros. These are presently defined for these keys as:

\* > " ' # + : . 2 7 3 : X Y D H P @ L S - O C A E

The macro table lies at the end of the CHRGEN 70 program at \$1500 and is modifiable. It must end with a \$FF.

CAUTION: When CHRGEN  $7\emptyset$  is up, you must not load any binary source file longer than 88 sectors or it will overwrite the DOS buffers and bomb the system. Text files do not present this danger since they are never allowed to go beyond HIMEM.

# 15.3. XREF, XREF.XL and STRIP

Utility programs XREF, XREF.XL and STRIP provide a convenient means of generating a cross-reference listing of all labels used within a MERLIN assembly language (i.e., source) program.

Such a listing can help you quickly find, identify and trace values throughout a program. This becomes especially important when attempting to understand, debug or fine tune portions of code within a large program.

The MERLIN assembler by itself provides a printout of its symbol table only at the end of a successful assembly (provided that you have not defeated this feature with the LST OFF pseudo op code). While the symbol table allows you to see what the actual value or address of a label is, it does not allow you to follow the use of the label through the program.

This is where XREF, XREF.XL and STRIP come in.

XREF gives you a complete alphabetical and numerical printout of label usage within an assembly language program with a length of up to approximately 1,000 lines (heavily commented) or 2,000 lines (lightly commented).

XREF.XL handles "extra-large" files of up to three or four times the size of those handled by XREF by storing the generated cross reference table on disk and printing it out later.

STRIP provides a method of reducing file size by removing comments from source code.

## 15.3.1. Sample MERLIN Symbol Table Printout:

Symbol table - alphabetical order:

ADD =\$F786 BC = $\$F7B\emptyset$  BK = $\$F7\emptyset6$ 

Symbol table - numerical order:

BK = $\$F7\emptyset6$  ADD =\$F786 BC = $\$F7B\emptyset$ 

### 15.3.2. Sample MERLIN XREF Printout:

Cross referenced symbol table - alphabetical order:

ADD =\$F786 1Ø1 185\* BC =\$F7BØ 9Ø 2Ø7\* BK =\$F7Ø6 1Ø4 121\*

Cross referenced symbol table - numerical order:

BK =\$F7\psi6 1\psi4 121\* ADD =\$F786 1\psi1 185\* BC =\$F7B\psi 9\psi 2\psi7\* As you can see from the above example (taken from the SWEET 16 source file on the MERLIN diskette), the "definition" or actual value of the label is indicated by the "=" sign, and the line number of each line in the source file that the label appears in is listed to the right of the definition. In addition, the <a href="line number">line number</a> where the label is either defined or used as a major entry point is suffixed ("flagged") with a "\*".

An added feature is a special notation for additional source files that are brought in during assembly with the PUT pseudo opcode: "134.82", for example, indicates line number 134 of the main source file (which will be the line containing the PUT opcode) and line number 82 of the PUT file, where the label is actually used.

### 15.3.3. XREF Instructions

- Get into MERLIN's Executive Mode, make sure you've S)aved the file that you're working on and select the D)rive no. that the MERLIN disk is in.
- 2. C)atalog the disk and when MERLIN asks you for a COMMAND: after the Catalog, enter: BRUN XREF. (Your file in memory will now be erased.)
- 3. Hit <CTRL C> <RETURN> and re-L)oad your file. Initialize your printer with the appropriate PR# or PRTR command (XREF is a printer oriented command).
- 4. Type in the appropriate USER command:
  - USER  $\emptyset$  -Print assembly listing and alphabetical cross reference only. (USER has the same effect as USER  $\emptyset$ ).
  - USER 1 -Print assembly listing and both alphabetical and numerically sorted cross reference listings.
  - USER 2 -Do not print assembly listing but print alphabetical cross reference only.

USER 3 -Do not print assembly listing but print both alphabetical and numerical cross reference listings.

USER commands  $\emptyset$ -3 (above) cause labels within conditional assembly areas with the DO condition OFF to be ignored and not printed in the cross reference table.

There are additional USER commands (4-7) that function the same as USER  $\emptyset$ -3, except that they cause labels within conditional assembly areas to be printed no matter what the state of the DO setting is. The only exception to this is that labels defined in such areas and not elsewhere will be ignored.

NOTE: You may change the USER command as many times as you wish (e.g., from USER 1 to USER 2). The change is not permanent until you enter the ASM command (below).

5. Enter the ASM command to begin the assembly and printing process.

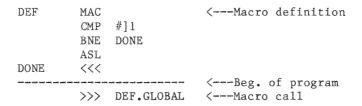
#### 15.3.4. CAUTIONS for the use of XREF

XREF works by examining the listing output of the assembler. On the second assembly pass, it builds a cross reference list beginning at HIMEM instead of creating object code there. (If direct assembly to disk is selected by the DSK opcode, however, the object code will be generated). The list uses six bytes per symbol reference which can use up available memory very quickly. Thus, on long files, you should set HIMEM as low as possible. (The WØ command can be used to find the end of the source file, which represents the lowest position you can set HIMEM).

Since the program requires assembler output, code in areas with LST OFF will not be processed and labels in those areas will not appear in the table. In particular, it is essential to the proper working of XREF that the LST condition be ON at the end of assembly (since the program also intercepts the regular symbol table output). For the same reason, the CTRL D flush command must not be used during assembly. The program attempts to determine when the assembler is sending it an error message on the first pass and it aborts assembly in this case, but this is not 100% reliable.

Macros require special consideration. Since the syntax in these structures can become very complicated, XREF may get confused and cause assembly to stop. This usually happens when lines containing the >>> (PMC or "Put MaCro) pseudo opcode are followed by string literals or parentheses and you have chosen to suppress printing the expanded form of the macro in your assembled listing with the EXP OFF pseudo opcode. You can get around this problem by printing out the assembly listing first in the usual manner (with the symbol table suppressed by the LST OFF pseudo opcode) and then printing out just the cross reference table with EXP ON and using USER 2 or 3.

Another thing to look out for when using macros is the fact that labels defined within macro definitions have no global meaning and are therefore not cross-referenced.



In the above example, variable GLOBAL will be cross referenced, but local label DONE will not.

### 15.3.5. XREF.XL Instructions

XREF.XL is designed to handle files three to four times as large as those handled by XREF. It was originally designed to cross reference the Applesoft Basic source file, which is approximately the largest source file it can process.

To use XREF.XL, just follow the same five steps in the XREF instructions explained previously, substituting "XREF.XL" for "XREF" in step 2.

XREF.XL works in a manner similar to XREF, except that it writes the cross reference label table to disk in a file called X.R.FILE (You can delete this file when you are done with the table). At the end of assembly, this file is loaded from disk and placed in memory, overwriting your source file. As explained in step 1, make sure that you've saved your source file first, because the source file will be deleted from memory when you return to the editor.

### 15.3.6. CAUTIONS for the use of XREF.XL

- -The source file will be deleted from memory as explained above when you return to the editor. Make sure that you have saved your file first.
- -Consider using a blank disk when using XREF.XL. The disk file generated, X.R.FILE, can become quite large.
- -The cross reference label table X.R.FILE is written on the disk in the disk drive last used. If your source file contains PUT directives, you will have to make sure XREF.XL can find the additional source files by either moving the files onto the blank disk or by specifying drive and slot parameters in the PUT directive.

- -Unlike XREF, the setting of HIMEM does not affect XREF.XL. While building the cross reference table, XREF.XL checks to see if it will fit in the space from the source address (approximately) to the SYM address, if specified, or to \$9853 if not. If it is too large, XREF.XL will quit with an OUT OF MEMORY message.
- -XREF.XL will quit with an ILLEGAL DSK ATTEMPTED error message if it finds a DSK pseudo op code in your source file. A handy way of avoiding this problem while at the same time maintaining the same line numbers in the source file is to use the editor to change any DSK directives into comments.

Special Instructions for Cross Referencing the Applesoft Source File:

- Use STRIP on all the Applesoft files and save them on a blank disk.
- 2. In the file APPLESOFT.S (after stripping it) change the line EXP OFF to EXP ON (or just delete it).
- 3. Delete the lines containing the SAVOBJ KBD directives and the DO-FIN segment containing the DSK opcode. While this is not necessary, it does avoid having SAVOBJ put in the symbol table.
- 4. Make sure the last used drive (as shown in the EXEC menu) is the one containing the disk with the stripped files.
- 5. Enter the desired PRTR command, and then USER 2 or USER 3.
- 6. Enter ASM and be prepared for a cross reference table approximately 25 pages long.

### 15.4. STRIP

Very long source files, or ones that contain numerous comments, may require too much memory for the cross reference table to be generated. In this case, assembly will stop with the OUT OF MEMORY error message.

The utility program STRIP allows you to cross reference files approximately twice as large by removing comments from the source file.

To use STRIP, follow the following procedure:

- Make sure that you have a copy of your commented source file in memory and that you have S)aved a copy of it on disk.
- Enter the E)ditor, put a LST OFF at the end of your source file and ASM it.
- Remove the LST OFF statement at the end of your program (important!).
- 4. Q)uit the editor, select the D)rive with MERLIN in it and do a C)atalog. At the COMMAND: prompt, enter: BRUN STRIP. This will remove the comments from your source file in memory.
- 5. Hit <CTRL C> <RETURN> and enter the E)ditor. You may now use the XREF and XREF.XL procedures as outlined above.

#### 15.5. PRINTFILER

PRINTFILER is a utility included on the MERLIN diskette that saves an <u>assembled</u> listing to disk as a sequential disk file. It optionally allows you to also select "file packing" for smaller space requirements and allows you to turn video output off for faster operation.

Text files generated by PRINTFILER include the object code portion of a disassembled listing, something not normally available when saving a source file. This allows a complete display of an assembly language program and provides the convenience of not having to assemble the program to see what the object code looks like.

# 15.5.1. Applications

# Applications include:

- -Incorporating the assembled text file in a document being prepared by a word processor.
- -Sending the file over a telephone line using a modem.
- -Mailing the file to someone who wants to work with the complete disassembly without having to assemble the program (such as magazine editors, etc.)

### 15.5.2. How To Use PRINTFILER

- 1. From EXEC mode, make sure that you've S)aved any source file that you may be working on (select the D)rive to save it on, first), select the D)rive containing PRINTFILER (usually this is on the MERLIN disk) and do a C)atalog. When you see the "COMMAND:" prompt, enter: BRUN PRINTFILER. (You may skip this step if you've already BRUN PRINTFILER).
- Press <RETURN>, select the D)rive containing the file you want to assemble and L)oad the file into memory. (You may skip this step if you've already BRUN PRINTFILER).

- 3. Q)uit the editor, select the D)rive that you want to save the assembly to, enter the E)ditor again and enter: USER "your file name" (include the quotes). Be aware that if you later intend to R)ead this file using MERLIN's text file reader, you will have to put a "T." in front of the filename in the USER command above; e.g., "T.DUMMY" instead of "DUMMY". Also, you may use a PRTR command instead of USER, if you wish; e.g., PRTR 9 "T.DUMMY"THIS IS A PAGE HEADER"
- 4. Enter: ASM and after asking whether you want to "UPDATE SOURCE", PRINTFILER will automatically assemble the source file directly to disk. Note that you will not see anything on your video screen because PRINTFILER is preconfigured to operate with the video output turned off for faster operation.

## 15.5.3. Changing PRINTFILER's Options

PRINTFILER has two options that you may change: file packing and video output ("echoing"). In addition, you can make the change temporary or permanent.

File packing reduces the size of the text file saved to disk by replacing blanks from the source file with a single character with its high bit turned off. A listing of a packed file will display the packed blank characters as an inverse letter. (inverse A=1 blank, inverse B=2 blanks, inverse C=3 blanks, etc.)

Unpacking means restoring the text file to its original appearance. Note that while you cannot ASM (assemble) such a file, you can at least read it. Packed files are primarily intended for use with another SDS product, "DOUBLETIME PRINTER", which unpacks the file and "spools" it from disk to the printer.

Video "echoing" means printing on the screen what is sent to the disk. The time it takes to do this can slow PRINTFILER down. (See benchmarking results, next.)

# 15.5.4. Benchmarking PRINTFILER

Source File: SWEET 16.S (21 sectors)

As you can see from the above, turning off video output makes PRINTFILER run approximately 25% faster. Additional speed can be gained by using packed files.

In addition, unpacked files are nearly twice as large as packed files and nearly three times the size of the original source file.

# 15.5.5. Changing PRINTFILER options

To Change PRINTFILER options (temporarily)

Get into the E)ditor, enter: MON and enter:

(normal values are 300:800 (unpacked, video off))

Hit  $\langle \text{RETURN} \rangle \langle \text{CTRL Y} \rangle \langle \text{RETURN} \rangle$  to return to EXEC mode. The values you select will stay in effect until you BRUN PRINTFILER again.

# To Change PRINTFILER options (permanently)

- 1. L)oad PRINTFILER and ASM it. During assembly, it will ask you the following questions in the steps below:
- 2. After the UPDATE SOURCE? question, PRINTFILER will ask, "GIVE VALUE FOR FORMAT:". If you hit " $\emptyset$ ", you will turn the Pack option ON. If you hit "l", you will turn the Pack option OFF.
- 3. PRINTFILER will then ask, "GIVE VALUE FOR MONITOR". If you hit "Ø", video output will be turned OFF. If you hit "1", video output will be turned ON. PRINTFILER will then immediately assemble into object code.
- 4. Q)uit the editor and save the O)bject code. Any time you BRUN this object code, it will use the values you put in it in steps 2 and 3 above. Thus, it is possible to use different versions of PRINTFILER instead of setting options.

