
 TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
PART I. CROMEMCO RELOCATABLE ASSEMBLER MANUAL	
1. Getting Started in Assembly Language Programming.	2
2. Calling the Assembler.	8
Options Specified When Calling ASMB.	9
Summary of Defaults and Limits.	14
3. Assembler Fields.	15
Names (Labels).	16
Opcode Mnemonics.	16
Operands.	17
Remarks.	20
4. Pseudo-opcodes Recognized by the Assembler.	21
Alphabetical List of Pseudo-ops.	21
Source Code Segments.	35
5. Macro and Conditional Assembly.	40
Macro Assembly (MACRO Definition and Calls).	40
Conditional Assembly (IF Statements).	47
Examples of Macro and Conditional Assembly.	49
6. Assembler Error Messages.	52
Error Messages Generated Following a Call to ASMB.	52
Error Messages Generated During Assembly.	54
7. Assembler Print-Listings.	60
Sample Listing.	61
Listing Columns.	65
Lines of Listing.	65
Listing Symbols.	66
Tables Following the Listing.	67
PART II. CROMEMCO LINKER/LOADER MANUAL	
1. Using the CROMEMCO Linker/Loader.	69
Command Format.	69
Link Switches.	70

2. Format of LINK-Compatible Object Files.	72
3. LINK Error Messages.	74
Fatal Errors.	74
Warnings.	75
4. Examples of Linking Modules.	76

PART III. CROMEMCO PROGRAM DEBUGGER MANUAL

1. Introduction to DEBUG.	80
Loading DEBUG.	80
Control Characters.	80
Command Format.	81
@ Register.	81
Address Expressions.	82
Swath Operator.	82
Errors.	82
2. DEBUG Commands.	83
3. Summary of DEBUG Commands.	92
Summary of Register Names.	93

PART IV. CDOS PROGRAMMER'S MANUAL

1. Introduction to CDOS System Calls.	95
Memory Allocation.	95
2. Device I/O - List of CDOS System Calls.	97
CDOS Device Function Calls.	97
CDOS Disk Function Calls.	100
Additional System Calls.	105
3. Summary of CDOS Function Calls.	107

PART V. ASSEMBLER LIBRARY ROUTINES

1. Routines Available in ASMLIB.	110
Decimal Conversion.	110
Hexadecimal Conversion.	111
Character I/O Routines.	112
2. An Example.	117

PART VI. CREATING A NEW LUN TABLE FOR CROMEMCO FORTRAN IV

1. Procedure for Creating a New LUN Table for FORTRAN.	122
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PART I - CROMEMCO RELOCATABLE ASSEMBLER MANUAL

CROMEMCO MACRO ASSEMBLER INSTRUCTION MANUAL

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 CHAPTER 1: GETTING STARTED IN ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

The purpose of an Assembler is to provide a means of translating easily understood mnemonics, which represent the instructions of a computer, into object code which may be loaded into memory and run as a program. The CROMEMCO Disk-Resident Z-80 Relocatable Macro Assembler is a two-pass assembler which reads source code from a disk file, assembles it, and produces a relocatable object and/or a print-listing file. These files may be sent to any of the disks, suppressed altogether, or sent to the console (listing file only). The CROMEMCO Relocating Linker/Loader may then be used to locate the assembled code anywhere in memory. The completely assembled and linked machine code may be saved in a disk .COM file for execution as a command program.

The use of a relocatable assembler and linker provides one of the most versatile ways of creating machine language programs for the computer. The time saved through their use is well-worth the time spent in gaining familiarity. These two command files allow one to create and assemble a number of different modules separately, and then link them together at run time. Or one can link an assembled user-program to an already existing library of useful object code files. In addition, one may assemble programs using a compiler (for examples assemble FORTRAN programs into machine code using CROMEMCO's FORTRAN Compiler), and link these object modules to existing machine code modules, programs, or subroutines. At the same time the final program may be located to run anywhere in memory.

The CROMEMCO Relocatable Assembler (hereafter called ASMB or the Assembler) is both a Macro and a Conditional Assembler as well. A separate chapter of this manual is devoted to these features. The Macro capability allows the user to very easily generate such things as multiple blocks of code, design added capabilities for the Assembler for a particular purpose, and write much shortened versions of source code by having a Macro library searched for often-used routines. The Conditional (IF statement) assembly feature allows blocks of code to either be included or not, depending on the satisfaction of user-defined conditions. There are also capabilities for INCLUDING other source code files at assembly time and declaring other program modules EXTERNAL to the main program, which are then linked to it at run-time. All these features are described further in the chapters on pseudo-ops.

The CROMEMCO Relocatable Macro Assembler is supplied to the user on diskette (large or small) under the directory entry "ASMB.COM". The way the Assembler is called is described in detail in Chapter 2. A source code file to be assembled must have the three-letter extension .Z80 to be found by ASMB. To assure correct operation the Assembler should be used with the following minimum hardware con-

figuration: 32K of contiguous RAM memory beginning at location 0 and the CROMEMCO 4MHz Z-80 CPU card, along with the CROMEMCO Disk Operating System (CDOS) hardware and software. When called, ASMB loads into memory at 100H and begins execution there.

Since most users will be eager to try out some of the features of ASMB right away, this chapter may be used as a step-by-step beginner's manual for the composition, assembly, link, and execution of a simple Z-80 machine language program. The name of the program is "TIMER" and its purpose is to ring the console bell at approximately half-second (using 4MHz. clock) intervals as determined by a timer loop. It will not be necessary for those users familiar with assembly language programming to read this chapter. These persons may skip ahead to Chapter 2 at this point.

The first step is to turn on the power to the computer and boot-up the CROMEMCO Assembler Disk (Model FDA) in drive-A. You will notice upon typing out the directory that supplied along with the Assembler (ASMB.COM) is the CROMEMCO Text Editor (EDIT.COM) and CROMEMCO Debug (DEBUG.COM) programs. We will use the Text Editor to enter our source code program. The Editor manual is also supplied with the Assembler package and should be used for questions and reference concerning EDIT. However, some of the simple commands are explained here for the benefit of the user who is unfamiliar with the Editor.

Hence, the user can now call EDIT giving the name and three-letter extension of the file we wish to create by typing the following. (Note that before typing the command line you should have the CDOS prompt for the drive you are using, for example "A." for drive-A.)

```
EDIT TIMER.Z80
```

The Editor will then respond with:

```
CDOS EDITOR VERS. 00.07
NEW FILE
```

The prompt for the Editor is an asterisk, "*", and commands may be entered any time this prompt is displayed. We now wish to enter the text of the source program so we use the Insert command of EDIT. This is done simply by typing the letter "I" followed by a carriage return (CR). We can then start typing lines of text, ending each line with a carriage return. Mistakes can be corrected by back-spacing or can be corrected after we have finished with Insert mode as explained below. There are four fields which may be used in a line of source code: labels, opcodes, operands, and remarks. Labels are followed by a colon and remarks are preceded by a semi-colon. If there are more than one operand, they are separated by a comma. The instruction mnemonics or opcodes for the various Z-80 instructions can be found in the Z-80 CPU Technical Manual published by Mostek and Zilog along with an explanation of each. Note that in the following text a tab was used to separate the various fields; this is done in the Editor by typing the CTRL-I on the console. Also note that either upper- or lower-case are allowed. We now type in the source code:

```

; This program rings the console bell at approximately
;   half-second intervals determined by a timer loop.
;
BELL:  EQU      7           ; console bell is ASCII 07
WRITE:  EQU      2           ; write character to console
CDOS:   EQU      5           ; use system call to write
TIMIT:  EQU      2FFH        ; 2 is no. of half-seconds;
;                               FF (256) is no. of loops
DURAT:  EQU      0FFH        ; FF (256) is loop duration
;
; Main Program
;
START:  LD        SP,STACK    ; initialize stack pointer
LOOP:   LD        BC,TIMIT    ; B is no. of half-sec.;
;                               C is no. of loops
TIM2:   LD        A,DURAT     ; get duration (256)
TIM1:   DEC        A          ; decrement and
;                               loop til zero
        JR        NZ,TIM1     ; loop til zero
        DEC        C          ; decrement loop counter
        JR        NZ,TIM2     ; until zero
        DJNZ      TIM2        ; countdown half-seconds
        LD        E,BELL      ; set-up to ring bell
        LD        C,WRITE     ; set-up to write console
        CALL      CDOS        ; call system
        JP        LOOP        ; loop and repeat
;
; Stack Area
;
BOTTOM: DS        40H         ; allow 64 bytes for stack
STACK:  EQU                        ; current location counter
;                               equals top of stack

        END        START

```

This code should be typed in exactly as it appears here (although comments may be omitted if desired). When the entire body of text has been entered, end the Insert mode by pressing ESCape or CTRL-Z. (You have left Insert mode when you again get the asterisk prompt.) You now would like to review what you have written to check for errors. Move the character-pointer to the top of the file by typing "B <CR>". Then type out your file using the T or P command. For example the command 10T will type out 10 lines, or 0P will type out the current page of 23 lines. The S or Substitute command can now be used to make corrections. The format of the command is

S<oldtext>^[<newtext>^[<CR>

where the "^[" character is an ESCape. The text string for which you are substituting must be exclusive; for example the command

SP^[R^[

is not good because the first "P" encountered will be changed to an

"R". The following command is much better because the substitution is for a one of a kind string:

```
SJP^INZ,TIM1^[JR^INZ,TIM1^[
```

The "^I" is the way EDIT prints CTRL-I's. When all corrections have been made, you may Exit from the Editor by typing "E <CR>". When the "A." prompt is again displayed on the console, the created file will have been saved on the disk under the filename "TIMER.Z80". If you desire more information about editing files at this point, refer to the Text Editor Manual for complete descriptions of the Editor commands. We will now proceed with assembling the file.

The Assembler is called in a similar manner to the Editor. The command line you should type is

```
ASMB TIMER
```

The Assembler understands when it receives this command line that it will find the source file on the current drive, and that it will place the .REL (relocatable) object file and .PRN (print) listing file on the current drive as well. Our file "TIMER.Z80" will now be assembled. When finished, control will again be returned to CDOS and the "A." prompt given. Just prior to exiting, ASMB will print on the console:

```
Errors          0
Program Length  005A (90)
end of assembly
```

provided you have made no typing errors in editing the file. If there are some errors, re-edit the file and correct them as described above. Then re-assemble as before. The numbers above give the program length first in hexadecimal and then decimal.

The Assembler will now have created the .REL and .PRN files on the disk. If you would like a listing of the programs type:

```
TYPE TIMER.PRN
```

and press CTRL-P (assuming you have a printer correctly hooked up to parallel port 54H; if you have no printers omit the CTRL-P) before typing the carriage return. The listing will then be printed on both the console and the printer. There is a great deal of information contained in this listing. Briefly, the listing consists of these sections. The first column is the hexadecimal address of the instruction, and the second column may be one of three things: (1) the object code of up to a four-byte instruction in hex, (2) the object code of four bytes of data in hex, or (3) the equivalent value of the operand expression in parentheses. The third column gives the line numbers of the source in decimal. The fourth, fifth, and sixth columns are the label, opcode, and operand fields, respectively.

The rest of each line contains the remark if there is one. The complete listing which results from the assembly of our given example source file is given in Chapter 7 along with a detailed description of every feature of the listing.

The last step prior to running the program is to load it into memory. This is done using the CROMEMCO Linker/Loader. The command line that should be typed is:

```
LINK TIMER
```

The Linker will then prompt with an asterisk (*). This means that it is awaiting further instructions. At this point you may either start execution or exit to CDOS, save the file, and execute it as a command file. Let us choose the second method. (For those who wish to try the first method, simply type /G to the "*" prompt.) To the asterisk type the characters /E which will exit to CDOS. LINK will then print on the console a message similar to:

```
[1000  105A  16]
```

The first number is the starting address for execution; the second number is one more than the highest address used by our program, and the last number gives the number of pages to be saved to create a command file. We now create this .COM file by typing:

```
SAVE TIMER.COM 16
```

Command files may be executed directly from CDOS simply by typing their name. They are then loaded into memory beginning at 100H and execution begins there. The Linker has already placed the necessary "JP 1000H" for us at 100H so we execute the TIMER program simply by typing the word "TIMER". The bell on your console should begin ringing at approximately half-second intervals, telling you that the machine language program we have created is working!

Good assembly language programming practice usually dictates that a program should be debugged before executing it directly as we have done. By this method the user can insert breakpoints to stop execution so that the registers and memory contents can be checked to determine if the program is executing correctly. We have skipped the debugging stage so as not to complicate the example unnecessarily. However, when you create assembly language programs of your own, you can use the CROMEMCO Debugger program (DEBUG.COM) to execute it using breakpoints. To do this you would first have to save your program in a file as we have done above; then load it using DEBUG. See Part III on the Debugger for several examples of the way to debug a program.

The example program of this chapter is KNOWN TO WORK if the source is created and assembled according to the procedures outlined above. Should you have any difficulties with any of the steps, try working through that step a second time. You may also refer to the manual which describes that function for a detailed description

of the procedure. This book is divided into a number of distinct parts, which are listed in the table of contents for reference. Parts I, II, and III are the complete Assembler, Link, and Debug manuals, respectively. Part IV is the CDOS Programmer's Manual, describing the many system calls which can be made to CDOS for I/O and disk operations. Part V is a description of the Library of relocatable modules which are supplied with the Assembler disk. Finally, Part VI is a description of the method for changing the Logical Unit Number Table (LUN Table) for CROMEMCO FORTRAN IV to accommodate different I/O drivers. This section is included with this book because the procedure requires that you use the CROMEMCO Relocatable Assembler and Linker.

```
*****
CHAPTER 2:  CALLING THE ASSEMBLER
*****
```

The Assembler is called from disk simply by typing "ASMB" followed by the filename of the source code to be assembled. This source-file MUST have the extension .Z80 to be found by the Assembler, regardless of whether or not it consists entirely of Z80 code. However, when calling ASMB, the user may specify an optional 3-letter drive-request for the filename which has NO relation to the 3-letter extension of the filename on disk. Note that if this 3-letter drive-instruction is omitted, ASMB will default to the CURRENT drive for all operations. This drive-request instruction is of the form .GRS, where G stands for one of the letters, A, B, C, or D, and is the drive on which the SOURCE file is to be found; R stands for one of the letters, A, B, C, D, or Z, and is the drive on which the relocatable OBJECT file is to be placed during assembly (Z means do not create an object file); and S stands for one of the letters, A, B, C, D, X, or Z, and is the drive on which the print-listing will be placed during assembly. In the case of the print-listing Z means do not create the listing, and X means send the listing to the console but not to the disk. Note that you may use the Control-P (^P) function of CDOS, as always, to cause the console listings to also be sent to a printer. Also note that the relocatable object file will be placed on the disk with the extension, .REL, and the print-listing will be placed with the .PRN extension.

An example will serve to illustrate further the features described above. Suppose the file to be assembled resides on disk drive A under the filename USERFILE.Z80. If it is desired not to have the .REL and .PRN files sent to drive A (for lack of room on disk A, for example), the Assembler might be called by the command line:

```
ASMB USERFILE.ABX <^P> <CR>
```

This will assemble the source file on drive A, create an object file on drive B, and send the print-listing to both the console and the printer.

A number of options may also be specified at assembly time if desired; their conventions are described in detail in the following sections. These options are specified simply by typing them as part of the command line when calling ASMB, separated by spaces. Since there are quite a number of options, it's possible to have the command line exceed the line-length limit of the terminal being used. If this is the case, a Control-E (^E) may be issued to provide a physical CR-LF so that the command line may be continued. Note that a logical CR-LF (same as typing RETURN on the console) terminates the command and begins assembly. If the terminal being used automatically provides a logical CR-LF at the physical end of a line, then a Control-E should be issued before the end-of-line has been reached. The total line length is limited to 128 characters by CDOS.

Options are specified only in the call to ASMB. The only exceptions to this are the List Options (see below), which may be used in slightly different form as operands of the LIST pseudo-op. Options may be specified in any order; any number of the allowable options may be specified at the same time. Consider the following sample call of the file THISFILE.Z80 by ASMB:

```
ASMB THISFILE RANGE PAGE=50 SYMB XREF OPCODE
```

Notice that the 3-letter drive-request instruction was not used in this example; this means that all disk operations will involve the current drive. The options specified ask ASMB to mark relative jumps, format a listing page, and generate symbol and cross reference tables. These are described in more detail below under the respective options.

Throughout this manual, the symbols "< >" are used to bracket quantities which are to be replaced by user-quantities, usually names of files on the disk. However, in NO cases are the bracket symbols themselves to be entered with the quantity involved. Also, throughout this manual, the pseudo-ops are written in all-upper-case to set them off. However, this does not mean that they must be written this way in source-code. Both upper- and lower-case are acceptable.

```
*****
Options Specified When Calling ASMB
*****
```

```
=====
List Options
=====
```

The List Options are similar to the operands of the LIST pseudo-op which may be part of a source file. However, the List Options as specified at assembly time will override ANY and ALL LIST items given in source code. Following are the four allowable List Options; they are specified by typing the word(s) given here in the command line calling ASMB. Note that if mistakenly both of a pair Cond-Nocond or Gen-Nogen are specified, the one which appears last on the command line has precedence. An important point to note is that NONE of the List Options changes the actual object code assembled; they merely change what is sent to the print-listing file on console or disk.

```
----
Cond
----
```

This option forces the generation and printing of all blocks of code which are part of an IF definitions whether the IF is true or false. The default is Cond if no LIST pseudo-ops are present in the source file; therefore, it would generally be used as an option only to override all the Nocond operands of LIST in the source. Note that this has NO effect on whether the IFs are satisfied or not.

Gen

This option forces the generation and printing of the Macro which follows every Macro call. The default is Gen if no LIST pseudo-ops are present in the source file; therefore, it would generally be used as an option only to override all the Nogen operands of LIST in the source.

Nocond

This option forces NO printing of IF or ENDIF statements and NO printing of IF definitions (the code following the IF) if the IF statement is false. In other words if the IF statement equals 0, thus causing the code which is part of the IF not to be assembled, the print-listing will likewise not contain the unused IF code. If the IF statement has a value other than 0 and is thus true, the print-listing will not contain the IF or ENDIF lines but will contain the code of the IF definition; therefore, the included portion of code will appear contiguously with the rest of the source code. The Nocond option is used to override all the Cond operands of LIST pseudo-ops in the source file.

Nogen

This option forces NO printing of the code following MACRO calls. However, NOTE that Macro DEFINITIONS are always printed as are the Macro CALLS themselves; it is only the code which the Macros generate, the Macro Expansions, which are not printed. This option prevents very long print listings when using multiple Macro calls. Since the Macro code will not be printed, neither will the object code which is printed on the same line; however, Nogen does not in any way affect the object code sent to the .REL file. The Nogen option is used to override all the Gen operands of LIST pseudo-ops in the source file.

=====
Macro=<d:filename.ext>
=====

The Macro= option is one of the most powerful features of the Assembler. It is used to specify the name of a disk file which is to be searched to satisfy any Macros required at assembly time. During Pass 1, the Assembler forms a Macro Definition Table (MDT) of the Macros defined in a source program. (Remember that ASMB expects Macros to be defined before they are called.) If the Macro= option is specified, a table is formed of the ADDRESSES of the Macros contained in this library. Now, when an opcode is encountered in a source program, the MDT is the first place searched to satisfy it. If it is not found there, the Macro Address Table for the Macro Library (only when using Macro=) is searched next; if the Macro is found, then the Macro Definition is loaded into memory from the disk. If the opcode is not found in either of these places, the Opcode Definition Table (ODT) is searched last. Thus, because ASMB searches for a Macro before an opcode, it is possible to redefine Z-80 instructions using Macros (see

the chapter on Macros). Another advantage of this method of searching is that the entire Macro Library specified does not become part of the source code. Thus, you may specify a very large Macro-library file, but only those Macros actually used are included in the assembled code. Note that this is different from the INCLUDE pseudo-op in that the INCLUDE would include the entire file, needed or not.

The Macro= command should be typed exactly as shown above, where the user would insert following the "=", the filename.ext to be searched. The "d:" represents the disk drive letter (one of A-D) and is optional; if not specified, ASMB defaults to the current drive in its search for the Macro file. The default for the Macro= option is, of course, no Macro file searched; however, this does not in any way affect the manner in which Macros intrinsic to the source code are handled.

=====

Opcode

=====

The Opcode option, when specified, will create a cross reference listing of OPCODES and MACROS used, which will be sent to the console or disk following the assembled-code listing. This cross reference contains all of the opcodes used in the assembled program along with the Macro names used, in alphabetical order, and the line numbers of their definitions and places of occurrence. The first column following the column of opcodes and labels is reserved for the line numbers of the definition points of Macros, and is thus blank for the opcodes. Subsequent entries contain the line numbers of the places of occurrence of opcodes and Macros. Note that opcode cross reference listings are limited in width by the Width option and that a line will be stopped at the last complete entry which will fit this width, and will be continued on the next line. The Opcode option is very useful for debugging purposes as it allows you to find all the occurrences of a particular opcode very quickly. The default is no-Opcode cross reference table.

The Opcode Cross Reference is implemented by a disk sort. This means that when this option is selected, ASMB creates a file on the CURRENT drive called <filename>.\$\$0 where filename is the file being assembled. Then, when assembly and the opcode cross reference are complete, this file is deleted from the disk. Note that if the current drive does not have room for the opcode temporary file, an error message is printed and assembly is aborted (see also "write error" in the error message chapter).

=====

Page=<number decimal lines/page>

=====

The Page option is used when generating a printer-listing to cause the Assembler to calculate and display a specified number of lines per page. At the top of each page ASMB will also print a heading, a title if specified, and a page number. Note that even if several lines are longer than the Width specification and wrap around, the Page function will count these correctly, and will list the exact number of lines specified per page (including the heading). The default value is 60 and the limits are 10 to 254 lines. Note that the Page=, Top=, and Width= options must be typed exactly as shown (no spaces) in order to be interpreted correctly.

```
=====
Parity
=====
```

The Parity option is normally specified when assembling code which was originally 8080 code and has been entered using Z80 mnemonics. This is because the Z80 and 8080 microprocessors treat the parity flag slightly differently and the Z80 may not execute 8080 parity instructions correctly (the Z80 treats parity as an overflow flag after arithmetic instructions). By specifying the Parity options the user will be warned in the assembled listing of possible problems along this line by the letter 'P' preceding the line numbers of the affected lines. It is up to the user to determine whether or not the parity flag is used correctly in a given situation. The instructions which will be marked are: JP PE,nn; JP PO,nn; CALL PE,nn; CALL PO,nn; RET PE; and RET PO. The default is no-Parity.

```
=====
Range
=====
```

The Range option is used to have the Assembler tell you all those places in code which currently use absolute jumps which are "within range" for doing relative jumps. When specified, the line numbers of the affected jumps will be preceded by the character "R". Thus, the next time the code is edited for changes, the corresponding absolute jumps may be replaced by relative jumps. Note that the Assembler itself does NOT make the replacements. The default is no-Range option.

```
=====
Symbol or Symb
=====
```

The Symb option is used to cause the Assembler to print the symbol table following the listing. The symbol table lists all program or data label names in alphabetical order from left to right in rows, and the hex address which is the value of the label used by the Assembler followed by the type of code segment there. For example the entry

```
    LABEL 00A7'
```

means that LABEL has the value 00A7 in the relative-code program area. (The symbols #, *, ", and ' are defined in the section on code segments.) If the label belongs to an EXTERNAL, the address given is that of its last OCCURRENCE in the present module, rather than its actual value. Similarly, for a label defined by a DL (see Define Label), the value listed in the symbol table is its last value to occur in the source code. The Width of the symbol table in a printer-listing will be the same as that of the code listing preceding it; however, the line length of the symbol table will be limited to include the last full label name and address which can be fit within that width. The default is no-Symb table option.

```
=====
Top=<no. dec. lines before top>
=====
```

The Top option is used to specify the number of lines between the last line of one page and the top or first line of the next page when

creating printer listings. This feature may be used to specify the spacing between pages when creating listings. If the value 0 is specified, formfeeds are issued to the printer at the end of each page. This is the default value and is the one ordinarily used. Notice that the values of Page+Top should equal the number of lines desired per page of printed text. The limits are 0 to 255 lines.

```
=====
Width=<number decimal columns>
=====
```

The Width option is used to specify the number of characters of printed text which will appear per line of a listing. This feature is used to allow the use of different widths of paper in printer listings or to allow for terminals capable of displaying different numbers of characters per line. The default value is 79, which should accomodate all 80-character terminals. The limits are 39 to 255 characters. If lines longer than that specified are written, they will wrap around and be continued on the next line of the listing. Note that the symbol table, error listing, and opcode and label cross reference tables are also limited by the Width specification.

```
====
Xref
====
```

The Xref option, when specified, will create a cross reference listing which will be sent to the console, printer, or disk (as specified) following the assembled-code listing. This cross reference contains each of the label names used in the assembled program, the line number of its definition, and the line numbers in numerical order of each of its places of occurrence. The first column following the column of labels is the column of line numbers of their definitions. Note that if DL's (Define Labels) are used in the source code, those label names may be defined more than once. Thus, in the cross reference listing, the subsequent defining line numbers are preceded by a '#' to set them off. Do NOT confuse this with the '#' for Data areas defined elsewhere. The ENTRY pseudo-op will also generate a doubly-defined label, once at the ENTRY point itself and once where the label is actually defined. The Xref option is very useful for debugging purposes as it provides an alphabetical listing of the locations of every label used in a program. The default is no-Xref table. Note that cross reference listings are limited in width by the Width option and that a line will be limited to the last complete entry which will fit within that specification; entries will then be continued on succeeding lines.

The Xref Cross Reference is implemented by a disk sort. This means that when this option is selected, ASMB creates a file on the CURRENT drive called <filename>.\$\$\$ where filename is the file being assembled. Then, when assembly and the cross reference are complete, this file is deleted from the disk. Note that if the current drive does not have room for the cross reference temporary file, an error message is printed and assembly is aborted (see also "write error" in Chapter 6).

++++++
Summary of Defaults and Limits
++++++

The default values and limits of the above options are summarized here for convenient reference.

=====
Defaults
=====

In the absence of specified options, ASMB will default to these values: no-Range, no-Parity, no-Xref, no-Symb, no Macro=, no-Opcode, Page=60 lines, Top=0 (formfeed), Width=79 characters, default to List options specified within source code as operands of the LIST pseudo-op.

=====
Limits
=====

The paper-managing options for generating printer listings are limited to the following values: Page= 10 through 254 lines, Top= 0 (formfeed) through 255 lines, Width= 39 to 255 characters. The lower limits on Page and Width are imposed to assure that at least some code is printed on each page.

 CHAPTER 3: ASSEMBLER FIELDS

The Assembler recognizes four fields or different types of expressions. These are: labels, opcode mnemonics, operands, and remarks. The conventions which apply in the use of these four fields are given below following remarks on the syntax of ASMB. Any two of the four fields must be separated from each other by at least one delimiter; these are: a tab, a space, a colon (after labels only), a semi-colon (before remarks only), or a CR-LF (to terminate lines). Multiple delimiters may be used to improve readability.

 Characters and Line Length

The Assembler accepts any printable ASCII characters in lines of code. Specifically, this means any ASCII character having a hex value between 20H and 7EH inclusive. In addition the three control-characters, CTRL-I, CTRL-N, and CR are also recognized (^I is the tab character which is translated into up to eight spaces by ASMB, ^N is the character to expand a line on the printer, and CR is a carriage return). NO other control-characters are recognized by ASMB. The maximum length of a line accepted by the Assembler is 80 characters, where the last character is the CR. Lines having more than 80 characters will be truncated.

 Upper and Lower Case

It would be good to mention at this point that the Assembler will accept ALL commands, options, opcodes, pseudo-ops, filenames, or any of the other Input it requires in both upper and lower case or a combination of the two. This means that source code files may be entirely lower case and will still be understood by ASMB. However, even though internally ASMB treats them the same, when listing out the opcode and cross reference tables, because of the sort routine used, there will be as many different entries as there are variations in the label or opcode used. For example, the label BEGIN will be a separate entry from the label Begin. This is actually a useful feature; it is possible to have sections of code which use the same data labels, but still have the ENTRIES in the cross reference table remain separate. Thus, it is easier for the user to keep track of the two sections while debugging. Note that the two labels are ALWAYS equivalent to the Assembler.

++++++
 Names (Labels)
 ++++++

Names are considered to be the labels of all instructions as well as the operands of pseudo-ops such as ENTRY, EXT, and NAME. Labels may be as long as desired (if all on one line); however, only up to the first 6 characters are used by the assembler. Thus, the first six characters of a label may not be duplicated in another label. The first character of a label must be an alphabetic character or "." or "\$"; the remaining characters may be ".", "\$", or any alphanumeric (A-Z, a-z, 0-9). The delimiter for a label is generally a colon-space, colon-tab, or a colon-CR-LF. However, the colon may be eliminated IF the label begins in column one. Note that this means that opcode mnemonics may NOT begin in column one. The operand may follow the colon immediately if desired.

The following labels are illegal because the Assembler considers them to be register names:

A	B	C	D	E	F	H	L	I	R
AF	BC	DE	HL	SP	IX	IY			

These symbols are also illegal if written in lower-case.

++++++
 Opcode Mnemonics
 ++++++

The ASMB Assembler recognizes all standard Z-80 mnemonics. For the reader who does not have familiarity with these, they are well-documented in the Z-80 CPU Technical Manual published by both Zilog and Mostek. The following mnemonics are recognized by ASMB in BOTH the forms shown. ASMB recognizes these opcodes in the form published by Zilog and Mostek:

ADC A,s; ADD A,n; ADD A,r; ADD A,(HL); ADD A,(IX+d);
 ADD A,(IY+d); SBC A,s; IN A,(n); OUT (n),A.

ASMB also recognizes them in this abbreviated form:

ADC s; ADD n; ADD r; ADD (HL); ADD (IX+d); ADD (IY+d);
 SBC s; IN A,n; OUT n,A.

In addition the Assembler will allow either of the formats shown for the following four instructions:

IM	0	or	IM0
IM	1	or	IM1
IM	2	or	IM2
DJNZ	nn	or	DJNZ,nn

Opcodes may begin on any column of a line EXCEPT column one. They may be preceded by a label. They must be followed by a space or tab as a delimiter between the opcode and the operands, or if there are no operands and no remarks, the line is terminated by a CR-LF.

Pseudo-opcodes are a special form recognized only by the Assembler and for which no object code is generated. The conventions of ASMB for pseudo-ops are described in other sections. Some of the common ones are ORG, EQU, EXT, ENTRY, DEFB, DEFS, DEFM, and END.

A special type of opcode is the MACRO name; when this is listed in a column of source code, ASMB will insert the corresponding code of the MACRO at assembly time. For more information on this see the description of MACROs in Chapter 5.

++++++
Operands
++++++

Operands may consist of register names, constants, label names, or expressions. Register names include all standard Z-80 registers. These are documented in the Z-80 CPU Technical Manual published by Zilog and Mostek for the reader who is not familiar with their names or purposes. Constants consist of one of the five types outlined in the Constants section below. Names may include DATA labels, program segment labels, subroutine names, COMMON names, EXTERNALS, ENTRY names, EQUate statement labels, or the like; they must be set up as described in the Names section above. NOTE that names of Macros may not be used as operands; instead, they are used as opcodes and the assembler will substitute the correct code at assembly time. Also note that "operands" for statements such as the TITLE and *INCLUDE statements are not operands in the sense described here and are subject to other restrictions.

Constants

ASMB allows binary, octal, hexadecimal, decimal, and ASCII constants according to the following conventions.

Binary - Numbers formed from binary digits (0,1) and terminated by the character 'B'. Range:

-1111111111111111B<=n<=1111111111111111B.

Example: LD BC,10101101111010B

Octal - Numbers formed from octal digits (0-7) and terminated by the character 'Q'. Range:

-1777777Q<=n<=1777777Q.

Example: LD BC,25572Q

Hex - Numbers formed from hexadecimal digits (0-9 and A-F) and terminated by the character 'H'. A hex number beginning with a letter MUST be preceded by a '0' to distinguish it from a label or register name. Range:

-0FFFFH<=n<=0FFFFH.

Example: LD BC,2B7AH

Decimal - Numbers formed from decimal digits (0-9) and EITHER left unterminated or terminated by the character 'D'. Range:

-65535<=n<=65535.

Example: LD BC,11130

ASCII - Numbers represented by the ASCII character(s) itself (themselves) enclosed in single quotes. Range:

' ' through '~' which amounts to the values 20H through 7EH, including all alphanumerics and punctuation.

Example: LD BC,'+z'

Note that each of the previous examples will produce the same value in the BC register upon assembly and execution.

```
-----
Current Program Counter - $
-----
```

The "\$" character may be used in the operand of any opcode allowing expressions as operands. The "\$" is used to represent the current location counter of the Assembler. Note that "\$" points to the BEGINNING of the instruction which contains it and not to the end. An example of the way to use it is:

```
DATA:   DB      0,11,3,2,7,24,17
COUNT: EQU     $-DATA
```

The name COUNT thus has the value of seven, because this is the number of entries in DATA (the address of DATA subtracted from the current location). Now elsewhere in the source program, the name COUNT can be used to stand for the number of entries in DATA. There is great advantage to this representation; if it becomes necessary to change the number of entries of DATA and re-assemble, the value of COUNT will be changed automatically. Whereas if an absolute 7 were used instead of COUNT, every occurrence of the 7 in the source program would have to be changed.

The "\$" is often used in another way which is actually poor programming practice, and that is to use the "\$" in a relative jump instruction. The best way to handle relative jumps is to label the location to be jumped to, and use this label as the operand of the jump instruction. ASMB will then calculate the correct displacement (see also "range error" in Chapter 6). Remember that "\$" represents the location counter at the start of the CURRENT instruction.

```
-----
Expressions and Operators
-----
```

The Assembler allows expressions to be used as operands, which it evaluates at assembly time and places the calculated values in the object code. These expressions may be used in place of either address or constant operands, provided they do not evaluate to an illegal quantity. The following operators may be used to form expressions. Operators which are symbols (eg, "+") should NOT be separated from their operands by a space. Operators written as one or more letters. MUST be separated from their operands by a space. It is sometimes desirable to group operations; however, parentheses could cause confusion since they are also used for memory references. Therefore, brackets "[" and "]" are also acceptable to group the operands of expressions. Parentheses may be used provided they do not begin an expression or enclose one. Some examples will illustrate this; the following are legal expressions, but they may be different from what the programmer wished:

```
LD      A, (X+Y)/Z
LD      BC, (Q+R-S)
```

In the first example the `"/Z"` is ignored and the expression evaluates to the contents of the address `X+Y`. The expression of the second example means the contents of the address given by `Q+R-S`. These examples may be rewritten slightly to change their meanings:

```
LD      A, [X+Y]/Z
LD      BC, [Q+R-S]
```

Now in the first example, the QUANTITY of `X` added to `Y` and divided by `Z` is loaded into `A`, and not the CONTENTS of this address. In the second example also, the brackets mean QUANTITY, whereas parentheses would mean CONTENTS. (Note that neither brackets nor parentheses are required in this example.) An example in which either parentheses or brackets may be used because the meaning is not ambiguous is:

```
ADD     A, Z/(X+Y)
```

The following lists the legal operators for expressions along with an explanation of each:

<code>+</code>	Addition or Plus - binary or unary
<code>-</code>	Subtraction or Negative - binary or unary
<code>*</code>	Multiplication
<code>/</code>	Division
<code>MOD</code>	Modulus - compute the remainder of a division $X \text{ MOD } Y$ is defined to be $X - (Y * \text{INT}(X/Y))$ if $X=23$ and $Y=7$ then $X \text{ MOD } Y=2$
<code>> or GT</code>	Greater Than - true if the left operand is greater than the right operand
<code>GE</code>	Greater than or Equal - true if the left operand is greater than or equal to the right operand
<code>< or LT</code>	Less Than - true if the left operand is less than the right operand
<code>LE</code>	Less than or Equal - true if the left operand is less than or equal to the right operand
<code>= or EG</code>	Equals - true if the left and right operands are equal
<code>NE</code>	Not Equal - true if the left and right operands are not equal
<code>SHL n</code>	Shift Left Logical - shift n places if $X=2AH$ then $X \text{ SHL } 1=54H$
<code>SHR n</code>	Shift RIGHT Logical - shift n places if $X=2AH$ then $X \text{ SHR } 2=0AH$
<code>NOT</code>	Logical Not - unary
<code>AND</code>	Logical And - if $X=C0H$ and $Y=47H$ then $X \text{ AND } Y=40H$
<code>OR</code>	Logical Or - if $X=C0H$ and $Y=47H$ then $X \text{ OR } Y=C7H$
<code>XOR</code>	Exclusive Or - if $X=C0H$ and $Y=47H$ then $X \text{ XOR } Y=87H$

ASMB considers these operators to have a hierarchy that determines which take precedence over others. The list which follows gives this hierarchy, progressing downward from those of highest priority to those of lowest priority; all those operations on any given line are

of equal priority. Thus, operators which are on the same line of the hierarchy would be evaluated from left to right as they occur in an expression. However, operators or parts of expressions enclosed in parentheses or brackets are evaluated first, beginning with the innermost set. The hierarchy is:

```

*, /, MOD, SHL, SHR
+, -      (unary)
+, -      (binary)
NOT       (unary)
AND
OR,XOR
>, <, =, GT, LT, EQ, NE, LE, GE

```

All operations not marked are assumed to be binary. If the result of an expression is 0, the expression is false; if the result of an expression is other than 0 (specifically -1), the expression is true. Also two operands which are equal result in a true expression; two that are not equal result in a false expression. This information is important for determining how to satisfy the IF operand. See the chapter on Conditional Assembly and Macros for more information on the IF statement. Also, see the chapter on Error Messages (specifically "Expression Error") for information on which of the above operators may be used with labels belonging to relative (REL) program segments.

```

+++++++
Remarks
+++++++

```

The remarks field is free-format including any printable ASCII characters as long as the comment is preceded by a ';'. The remark may follow an opcode, operand, or label or may exist on a line by itself. The ';' may be in column one if it is desired to have the remark on a line by itself. Multiple blanks or tabs may be used before or within the remark to improve readability. A CR-LF terminates the remark. Remarks may appear on any line, ie, following any of the legal opcodes or pseudo-ops except TITLE and FORM.

```
*****
CHAPTER 4: PSEUDO-OPCODES RECOGNIZED BY THE ASSEMBLER
*****
```

The following section contains an alphabetical list of the pseudo-ops recognized by ASMB. They are all listed here for convenient reference; however, several of the pseudo-ops are described in other sections. Certain of the pseudo-ops require labels; others require no label. More information on this may be found under "missing label" and "label not allowed" in the chapter on error messages. Macros and Conditional Assembly are explained in detail in a separate chapter.

```
*****
Alphabetical List of Pseudo-ops
*****
```

```
=====
ABS (Absolute code segment)
=====
```

The ABS pseudo-op is described in the Source Code Segments section at the end of this chapter.

```
=====
COM (COMMON code segment)
=====
```

The COM pseudo-op is described in the Source Code Segments section at the end of this chapter.

```
=====
DATA (Data code segment)
=====
```

The DATA pseudo-op is described in the Source Code Segments section at the end of this chapter.

```
=====
DB or DEFB (Define Byte)
=====
```

The DB pseudo-op is used to tell the Assembler to reserve a byte or string of bytes as data in the object code. The bytes may be specified using any of the forms of constants described in the Constants section of Chapter 3, or as a series of labels which have been previously defined or EQUated to a value. NOTE that if the value of the label or constant exceeds the range 0 to FFH (or its equivalent representation in decimal, octal, or binary), the DB will generate an expression error and insert a null. Also note that either of the terms DB or DEFB may be used. The format of the DB pseudo-op is

```
<Label:> DB <Item or List of Items>
```


where the label is optional and the item or list is any of: a byte, a string of bytes separated by commas, a string of ASCII characters, or an expression or string of expressions following the rules for expressions outlined in Chapter 3 (note that the expression must be equivalent to an absolute byte). The length of the string of bytes is limited by the length of a line for ASMB (80 total characters). A string of ASCII characters must be enclosed in single quotes. If it is desired to represent the single quote itself in a string, it must be given as two adjacent single quotes (''). Some examples will illustrate the use of DB:

```
DB      'how are you?'      (the string will be converted
                             to ASCII bytes and stored
                             in consecutive memory loca-
                             tions in the object code)

DB      -2,-4,-6,10,11,17   (in order the hex bytes
                             which will be stored
                             are: FE,FC,FA,0A,0B,11)
```

=====
DL or DEFL (Define Label)
=====

The DL pseudo-op is similar to the EQUate statement and is used to define the value of a label. The major difference between DL and EQU is that DL can be used to set a label to different values at different times in the assembly of a particular program. The format of DL is

```
<Label:>  DL  <Expression>
```

where both the label and the expression are required. The expression may be in the form of another label or an arithmetic expression which is a combination of names or constants and which follows the conventions for expressions outlined in Chapter 3. However, note that the expression can NOT be a string of bytes, nor can the expression use any EXTERNAL names. The DL command is exactly like the SET pseudo-op of some other assemblers. An example of its use follows:

```
START:  LD      SP,...
        :
        :
COUNT: DL      4
        LD      A,COUNT
        :
        :
COUNT: DL      COUNT-1
        LD      B,COUNT
        :
        :
        END     START
```

In this example COUNT is redefined later in the source program from its original value. Note that only the original definition of COUNT need be changed for both of them to be changed upon re-assembly.

It's important to note here that the DL command is quite unlike the DB, DM, DS, and DW commands although their formats all similar. These other commands all cause the Assembler to reserve a specified number of bytes in the object code, whereas DL is an Assembler DIRECTIVE but does NOT reserve any bytes. The DL statement is used to define a value or values internally to ASMB.

```
=====
DM or DEFM (Define Message)
=====
```

The DM pseudo-op is exactly similar to the DB pseudo-op except that the DM command sets the high bit (Bit 7) of the last byte in the string of bytes following the command, when this string is converted to object code. This is a very convenient feature for defining ASCII strings (in which Bit 7 is not used), provided the user-program tests this bit to determine the end of a string. Note that the DB command leaves the high bit of the last byte unchanged. The format of DM is

```
<Label:>  DM  <Item or List of Items>
```

where the label is optional and the item or list is any of: a byte, a string of bytes, a string of ASCII characters, or any expression or string of expressions following the rules for expressions outlined in Chapter 3 (expression must evaluate to be 8-bit absolute, however). As was the case for DB, a string of ASCII characters must be enclosed in single quotes (''). If it is desired to represent the single quote itself in a string, it must be given as two adjacent single quotes. An example of the use of DM is

```
      :
CR:    EQU    0DH
LF:    EQU    0AH
      :
STRING: DM    'this is a string',CR,LF
      :
```

In this example the last byte of the string (LF or 0AH) would be placed in the object code as 8AH with the high bit set. Note that the length of a DM command is limited to the 80-character total line length of ASMB. Allowing for a space in column 1, the characters "DM", a space, the opening "'", and the CR at the end of the line; this means that the maximum length of a single string using the DM command is 74 characters. However, preceding DB statements may be used to accommodate longer strings.

```
=====
DS or DEFS (Define Storage)
=====
```

The DS pseudo-op is used to tell the Assembler to reserve a specified number of bytes in the object code for storage. Note that ASMB will not insert any particular values in these reserved bytes. The format of the DS command is

```
<Label:>  DS  <Expression>
```

where the label is optional and the expression is either a constant or an expression which evaluates to an absolute and which follows the rules for expressions outlined in Chapter 3. Please note that all the terms of the expression used **MUST** have been previously defined in the source code or an error will result. A constant value of 1 causes ASMB to reserve one byte. An example of DS is

```
ADDRSTABL: DS    20
```

in which 20 bytes are reserved by a program to be used as an Address Table of 10 entries (two bytes per entry). Note that either of the terms DS or DEFS is allowed by the Assembler.

```
=====
DW or DEFW (Define Word)
=====
```

The DW pseudo-op is used to tell the Assembler to reserve a word or string of words in the object code. A word is defined to be 2 bytes. Thus, the DW pseudo-op might be used to specify a look-up table of absolute addresses. The words may be specified using any of the forms of constants described in the Constants section above, or a label which has been previously defined or EQUated to a word. Note that either of the terms DW or DEFW is recognized by ASMB. Also note that the Assembler places the low byte FIRST, treating every word of two bytes as though it were an address. For example, the word "0C923H" would appear in the object file as the two bytes, "23H" followed by "C9H". Likewise, if LABEL1 had been previously defined as "0C923H", a "DW LABEL1" would generate the same two bytes, "23H" followed by "C9H". This follows the conventions described elsewhere for expressions or labels used as operands anywhere in the source code. In general the DW pseudo-op is associated with addresses and the DB statement with data; however, this is by no means an absolute. The DW pseudo-op is a very convenient way for entering addresses because the user does not need to keep track of placing the low byte before the high byte; simply enter an address as it is written. The format of DW is

```
<Label:> DW <Item or List of Items>
```

where the label is optional and the item or list is any of: a word, a string of words, or an expression or string of expressions following the rules for expressions outlined in Chapter 3 and evaluating to an absolute word or string of words. The length of the string of words is limited to the 80-character total line length expected by ASMB. However, successive DW commands may be given to accommodate longer tables of words.

Unlike the DB statement, an expression which exceeds the legal range for a DW will not cause an "expression error". Instead, the expression will be evaluated modulus 65,536. See "value error" in the chapter on error messages for a further explanation of this. Note, however, that with the DW statement ASCII character strings longer than two bytes are not allowed. Some examples will illustrate these ideas:

```
DW      'AA'          (evaluates to 4141H)
DW      'A'           (evaluates to 0041H)
```

```

DW      'ABC'          (illegal, expression longer
                        than one word)
DW      100H,1ACH,-814 (multiple expressions, evaluates
                        to the hex bytes, in order.
                        00,01,AC,01,D2,FC)

```

```

=====
END (End of assembly)
=====

```

The END pseudo-op is used to terminate assembly of a block of source code. The format of END is

```
<Label:>  END  <Expression>
```

where the label is optional and the expression is subject to these rules: ONLY the main module of a program should have an expression or name following, and this module MUST have this expression. The expression should be equivalent to the entry point of the module at which execution will begin. All other modules are then terminated with the END statement alone and are thus considered by ASMB to be sub-modules. The reason for this convention is that the Linker/Loader must know in which of the modules and at what address to begin execution. The quantity in the Expression may contain any legal operators (see section on Expressions in Chapter 3). Following is a sample use of the END statement to terminate assembly of a main module:

```

          ENTRY  MAIN
MAIN:     LD     SP,1800H
          :
          :
          END    MAIN

```

whereas this example shows termination of a sub-module to be linked to the main module:

```

          EXT    MAIN
BEGIN:    LD     A,10
          :
          :
          END

```

The END command is a signal to the Assembler that a logical body of code is complete. Therefore, only one END statement should appear in a module. Should the END appear in the middle of a block of code, everything following the statement will be ignored by ASMB.

```

=====
ENDIF (END of IF definition)
=====

```

The ENDIF pseudo-op is used to terminate Conditional Assembly of a block of code which follows an IF statement. The formats of IF and ENDIF are described in detail in the following chapter on Macro and Conditional Assembly.

```
=====
ENTRY (Entry point for these modules)
=====
```

A program module may be assembled with unresolved addresses providing they are declared EXTERNAL in that module. Any address declared EXTERNAL to one module must be declared an ENTRY in another module. These two modules are eventually linked. Since these addresses are unresolved, they are represented in the EXT and ENTRY statements as label names. The names then become a part of the .REL file. The Linker/Loader reads the .REL files at run time, determines the unresolved addresses, and places their correct values in those bytes which expect the addresses. If the Linker is unable to resolve an address, it prints the undefined label name on the console followed by an asterisk (see Part II for more information on LINK).

The ENTRY pseudo-op is used to declare in a source-file that that file contains the entry point(s) of the listed names. These names may be label names of subroutines, or program or data blocks. The format of the ENTRY command is

```
(no label)  ENTRY  <Name1,Name2,...>
```

The number of names used as operands of the ENTRY pseudo-op is limited only by the total line length (80 characters). Extra names in ENTRY not actually defined in the source-file will produce the error message "undefined symbol". ENTRYs may appear anywhere within a program module, but are typically written at the top of a file to be easily seen in the print-listing. ENTRY labels (standing for corresponding addresses) can be referenced by any other module which declares those names to be EXTERNAL (see EXT section). Refer to Part II on the Linker for information on linking these modules at run time.

Below is an example of a module which uses an ENTRY statement to demark two subroutines and a table of data:

```
        ENTRY    METRIC,ENGLIS,CONTBL
METRIC: ...           ; metric-to-English conversions
:
        RET
ENGLIS: ...           ; English-to-metric conversions
:
        RET
CONTBL: ...           ; conversions table
        END
```

The corresponding example of a program module which calls these subroutines is given with the description of EXTERNALs.

```
=====
EQU (Equate)
=====
```

The EQU pseudo-op is used to inform the Assembler that two named quantities are equivalent. The format of EQU is

```
<Label:>  EQU  <Item>
```

where the label is required and the item is any of: a constant, an address, a label, or an expression following the rules given in Chapter 3. Note that all the terms of the expression MUST have been previously defined. Also, the expression may NOT involve the names of any EXTERNALS.

The EQU statement is used to equate a label to a particular value. Once this label is defined, it is defined for the entire source program. The DEFBL command should be used for labels which are to change within a module. EQU is a useful statement for simplifying or clarifying source code. For example suppose the ASCII characters for carriage return (CR) and line feed (LF) were to be used throughout a source program. Instead of using their values, a clearer procedure would be to enter the lines:

```
CR:      EQU      0DH
LF:      EQU      0AH
```

somewhere in the source program and then use the names "CR" and "LF" to stand for the values as in:

```
STRING: DB      'end of text',CR,LF
```

The EQU statement is also very valuable for changing a quantity quickly and in all places. Suppose that it is desired to test a program with different values for a timer. Suppose further that this value is used 10 times throughout the source code. If the original value is used in each of those 10 places, then all 10 will have to be changed to change the timer. However, if each of the 10 places uses the label "TIMER" and the following statement appears somewhere in the module:

```
TIMER: EQU      <value>
```

then this statement can very easily be changed by editing. This assures upon re-assembly that all the places TIMER occurs will be changed.

```
=====
EXT or EXTRN (these modules External)
=====
```

Using ASMB, program modules may be assembled with unresolved addresses. The EXT pseudo-op is used to declare in a source-file that that file must depend on some other module(s) to satisfy certain EXTERNAL names. The EXT and corresponding ENTRY names become parts of the two .REL files; the addresses are then resolved at run time. Further information about this is described in the first paragraph under the ENTRY pseudo-op; information about linking and running files is given in Part II on the Linker. The format of the EXT command is

```
(no label) EXT <Name1,Name2,...>
```

where the names may be label names of subroutines, or program or data blocks. Note that Module Names under the NAME pseudo-op may NOT be used in the EXT fields of other modules. The number of names used as operands in an EXT pseudo-op is limited only by the total line length

of ASMB (80 characters). Either of the forms EXT or EXTRN is accepted by the Assembler. EXTs may appear anywhere within a program module, but are typically written at the top of a file to be easily seen in the print-listing. When the assembled modules are linked and run, all EXTs must be satisfied by corresponding ENTRYs in other modules or the Linker will return an error message.

It is important to note that label names declared EXTERNAL to a module may be used as operands within the module, but may NOT be used in expressions. For example the following lines would be legal:

```
EXT      COUNT
:
:
LD       A,COUNT
:
```

whereas the following would be illegal and would generate an error:

```
EXT      COUNT
:
:
LD       A,COUNT+3
```

Also note that a label name declared as an EXTERNAL to a module may NOT be redefined (ie, used in the label field) within that module.

Below is an example of a module which uses an EXTERNAL statement to declare the names of two outside subroutines and a table of data:

```
START:   EXT      METRIC,ENGLIS,CONTBL
:
:
LD       HL,CONTBL
LD       A,(HL)
CALL     METRIC
:
INC      HL
LD       A,(HL)
CALL     ENGLIS
END      START
```

The corresponding example of the module which contains these subroutines is given with the description of ENTRY pseudo-ops.

```
=====
FORM (paper Formfeed)
=====
```

The FORM command is used to advance the paper in a print listing to the top of the next page. The format of FORM is

```
(no label)  FORM  (no operands)
```

FORM is used for clarity in a print-listing, as the beginning of a routine can be more clearly identified if it starts at the top of a page. The FORM command in the source code will not be printed on the listing. Multiple FORM commands may also be used; however, each page will be numbered and titled by ASMB. The command "EJECT" may be used in exactly the same way as FORM to force a paper-feed to the top of the next page.

The Assembler implements FORM by issuing a series of linefeeds to the printer; the number of linefeeds needed to reach the next page is determined by ASMB from the TOP= and PAGE= options. The only exception to this is that when TOP=0 has been-selected, an actual formfeed character is issued to the printer. In this case the printer will advance according to the paper size for which it is designed.

```
=====
IF (begin Conditional Assembly)
=====
```

The IF pseudo-op is described in the following chapter on Macro and Conditional Assembly.

```
=====
*INCLUDE (Include the given disk file)
=====
```

The *INCLUDE pseudo-op is used to specify a source-file on disk which is to be included in the assembly of the present source. The format of the *INCLUDE command is

```
*INCLUDE <d:filename.ext>
```

where d stands for the disk drive letter (A-D), and filename is the user's disk filename, which may or may not include a 3-letter extension. If the disk drive letter is omitted, ASMB assumes the file is on the current drive. It is IMPORTANT to note that the *INCLUDE statement MUST begin with the asterisk in column one. Hence, NO label field is permitted with this opcode. The filename may follow the *INCLUDE after at least one delimiter (space or tab). Another important point to notice about the *INCLUDE is that all of the given file is included in the present file. Hence, if the included file has an END statement, this END statement will terminate assembly of the present source when it is encountered. An example will illustrate this; suppose this is the source-file to be assembled:

```
BEGIN:  LD      SP,...
        :
        :
*INCLUDE A:USERFILE.Z80
        LD      HL,...
        LDIR
        END
```

and suppose the following is USERFILE.Z80:

```
START:  LD      BC,...
        LD      DE,...
        END
```


Because the USERFILE contains an END statements the Assembler will never see the LD and LDIR instructions of the source-file. Assembly will be terminated following the inclusion of USERFILE. To avoid this problem simply leave off the END statements of files which are to be INCLUDED in the assembly of other files, or put the *INCLUDE statement as the last one in a source program and leave off that source's END statement.

The *INCLUDE statement is particularly useful in conjunction with Conditional Assembly blocks of code (see the discussion of the IF statement in the next chapter). For example a file may be INCLUDED depending on whether or not an IF statement is satisfied. Also, the IF statement can be used to determine which of several files will be INCLUDED. An example of this use of *INCLUDE follows; one of three different files will be included and the others ignored dependent on the value of the label DECIDE (defined earlier in the source):

```

:
:
IF      DECIDE EQ 0
*INCLUDE A:MOVROUTN.Z80
ENDIF
IF      DECIDE EQ 1
*INCLUDE B:SAVROUTN.Z80
ENDIF
IF      DECIDE EQ 2
*INCLUDE LOADROUT.Z80
ENDIF
:
:
```

where the first file would be found on drive A, the second on drive B, and the third on the current drive. The entire block of code above could be put in a file of its own called DECIDFIL. The user source file would initialize the variable DECIDE using an EQU or DL statement and give the command "*INCLUDE DECIDFIL". Then, based on the value of DECIDE, the routine which would be included would be either the move, save, or load routine above.

*INCLUDEs may be nested up to four levels; more than this will generate a nesting error. The example above illustrates two levels of nesting: the user file INCLUDEs the file DECIDFIL, which in turn INCLUDEs one of the files MOVROUTN, SAVROUTN, or LOADROUT. It is also possible to write a source program which consists of *INCLUDEs only.

```

=====
LIST (use following commands to generate Listings)
=====
```

The LIST pseudo-op is used to set the Assembler print-listing options. This at NO TIME affects the actual object code put out by ASMB. It is simply used to suppress undesired or repetitive sections of the listing file. The format of the LIST statement is

```
(no label)  LIST  <Option1,Option2,...>
```

where the options are taken from the list of six legal operands which follows this paragraph. The number of options which may be placed on a line is limited only by the line length. However, 3 options is the practical limit because more than this will result in duplicate or conflicting options. Options may be given in any order. If conflicting options are given (conflicting options are the pairs gen-nogen, cond-nocond, on-off), only the last one of the pair on the line will be used.

The LIST command may be used as often as desired throughout a source-code file. However, note that if the List Options of Chapter 2 are issued at the time of the CALL of ASMB, these will override any corresponding LIST commands given in the SOURCE. For example if the List Option "Gen" is specified when calling ASMB, all "Nogen" operands of LIST in the source would be overridden. However, the OTHER operands of LIST in the source would still be effective. Following are the six allowable operands of the LIST pseudo-op. Information on the use of List Options when calling ASMB will be found in Chapter 2.

 OFF (turn Off assembly listing)

Suppress print-listing until end of code or an ON option. This option is de-selected when assembly of a program begins (before encountering a LIST pseudo-op).

 ON (turn On assembly listing)

List print-listing to disk-file or console until end of code or an OFF option. ON is the default when assembly of a source file begins.

 COND (begin listing Conditional Assemblies)

Force the generation and printing of all blocks of code which are parts of IF definitions, until end of code or a NOCOND option. COND is the default when assembly of a source file begins; therefore, it would generally be expressed only to override a previous NOCOND option. Note that COND forces the printing of IF statements but NOT the assembly of them; that is determined by whether the IF statement is true or false.

 GEN (begin listing Generated Macros)

Force the printing of the Macro expansion following every Macro call, until end of code or a NOGEN option. GEN is the default when assembly of a source file begins; therefore, it would generally be selected only to override a previous NOGEN option.

 NOCOND (do Not print Conditional Assemblies)

Force no printing of IF or ENDIF statements and no printing of IF definitions (the code following the IF) if the IF statement is false.

In other words an IF definition which is not assembled due to its being false will not be listed in the print-listing either. This option will remain selected until the end of code or a COND option. The option is de-selected when assembly of a program begins and thus must be first selected using the LIST pseudo-op. Selection of NOCOND in NO WAY affects the object code of an assembled file.

 NOGEN (do Not print Generated Macros)

Force no printing of Macro expansions. However, note that Macro definitions are always printed as are the Macro calls themselves; it is only the code which the Macro generates which is not printed. This option will remain selected until the end of code or a GEN option. The option is de-selected when assembly of a program begins and thus must be first selected using the LIST pseudo-op. Selection of NOGEN in NO WAY affects the object code of generated macros of an assembled source file.

=====
 MACRO (begin Macro definition)
 =====

The MACRO pseudo-op is described in the following chapter on Macro and Conditional Assembly.

=====
 MEND (Macro definition End)
 =====

The MEND pseudo-op is used to terminate the block of code which forms a Macro Definition. The formats of MACRO Definitions and Calls, and the MEND statement are described in detail in the following chapter.

=====
 NAME (module Name)
 =====

The NAME pseudo-op is used to assign a name to a particular module for use by the Linker. This name is, however, written in alphanumerics so it is also useful to the programmer for remembering the purpose of the module. The format of NAME is

(no label) NAME <Module Name> (1-6 characters)

where the module name should follow the same syntax rules as for labels. The NAME statement is optional; it is not required for linking of modules. However, if the NAME statement is omitted, the Assembler automatically assigns the first six characters of the filename to be the module name. Note that NAME is different from TITLE. The TITLE statement merely tells ASMB to print a heading at the top of each page of the listing but has no effect on the object code; NAME forces the name of the module to be saved as part of the .REL file. Thus, a library manager program is able to locate .REL files by name.

=====
 ORG (Origin)
 =====

The ORG pseudo-op sets the Assembler location counter and is used when it is desired to start assembly of a block of code at a particular address. This location may be set by the user to be absolute, or it may be left up to the Assembler to determine the value of the ORG. The location counter may be set to a value as often as desired in a source program; that is, multiple ORG statements may be used. The format of the ORG is

<Label:> ORG <ABS Address, Label Name, or Expression>

where the label is optional but the expression or address is required. The VALUE of the ORG (ie, the address of the first statement following the ORG) is determined by the value of the label or expression. Note that all the terms used in the expression MUST have been previously defined. The TYPE of code segment which will follow the ORG is determined by the type of code segment to which the label or expression belongs. For example, the statement "ORG LEFTOFF" would continue a COMMON area if LEFTOFF belonged to a COMMON area, and would continue a RELOCatable area if LEFTOFF belonged to a RELOCatable program area. In either case, however, the value of the ORG would be determined by the value of LEFTOFF. The statement "ORG 100H" would begin an ABSOLUTE program area since the address is absolute. Note that the ORG pseudo-op does not reserve any bytes, but merely specifies an address at which those bytes are to begin.

=====
 REL (Relocatable code segment)
 =====

The REL pseudo-op is described in the Source Code Segments section at the end of this chapter.

=====
 REM (Remark beginning in column one)
 =====

The REM statement is another method of designating a remark; however, REM assures that the remark is always printed beginning in column 1 of a print-listing without any characters preceding (as with the ";"). The REM pseudo-op itself is never printed as is also the case with the FORM and TITLE printer-controls. The format of REM is simply

(no label) REM <Remark Phrase> (as many char. as will fit line)

Some printers (for example the CROMEMCO 3700-series Printers) will expand a line if the line contains the Control-N (0EH) character. This is the reason for the REM statements to be able to give this character at the beginning of a remark and have the printer expand the line to make it more noticeable. However, when using the ^N feature, the user must take care that the remark to be printed does not exceed HALF the width specification of the Width= option. For example most listings use the default value of Width=79; thus, the number of characters in the REM statement which uses the ^N should not exceed 39. This is to prevent the printer from printing off the side of the paper. Also note that the maximum length of a REMark is 74 characters.

```
=====
TITLE (Title to be printed at top of each page)
=====
```

The TITLE pseudo-op is used to print a title at the top of each page a print-listing beginning in column 1. The format is simply

```
(no label)  TITLE  <Title Phrase> (as many char. as fit on line)
```

As with the REM statement, the Title Phrase may contain the character Control-N (0EH). On CROMEMCO 3700-series printers this character will expand the line to twice its normal width. For this reason when using the ^N in a TITLE statement, the number of characters in the Title Phrase should not exceed half the number of characters which will be specified in the Width= option. The TITLE command should be the first line of a program in order to be printed on Page 1 as well as the other pages. Note that titles may be changed in the middle of a source program simply by giving a new TITLE command. Also note that in such a case TITLE causes an automatic FORM feed. The maximum length of a Title Phrase is 72 characters; strings longer than 72 are truncated. The Assembler inserts a blank line where the Title Phrase would be if TITLE is not specified.

```

+++++
Source Code Segments
+++++

```

Perhaps the single most important feature of the CROMEMCO Assembler is its ability to generate relocatable code. This feature allows a user to assemble a number of modules of source code separately, and link them together in any order at run time. It also means that the object code can be executed at nearly any address in memory (it is generally not advised to assemble and run programs over portions of CDOS). The Assembler can assemble all data in locations separate from the program area so that either area may be programmed into ROM.

There are four special pseudo-ops which inform the Assembler what type of object code to generate. This section describes these four Source Code Segment pseudo-ops and the ways they are used. Explanations of the way relocatability works are given in the following, and information on the CROMEMCO Linker/Loader may be found in Part II.

```

=====
ABSolute
=====

```

The ABS pseudo-op precedes a code segment which is to be assembled in absolute code (absolute addresses). The Linker will consider this code to be non-relocatable. The format of ABS is simply

```
(no label)  ABS  (no operand)
```

All the code following the ABS will be considered to be absolute until another Code Segment pseudo-op is given. The Assembler defaults to REL upon start of assembly of a program; thus, if no pseudo-op is given, the object code will be relocatable. ABS areas are addressed continuously throughout a source program unless ASMB is told otherwise by the use of ORG statements. At the beginning of a program the program counter for ABS is set to 0 (however, unless ABS is specified, ASMB assumes the REL pseudo-op) unless the user overrides it with an ORG. For subsequent ABS areas the current contents of the program counter (which is the address at which the last ABS left off) will specify the loading address. Some examples will help illustrate these ideas. Consider the following:

```

          ABS
START:    LD      SP,...
          :
          :
          END

```

In this example the entire source program is to be considered absolute and the addresses are to begin at 0. If the same example were written:

```

          ORG      1000H
START:    LD      SP,...
          :
          :
          END

```

the entire source program is again to be considered absolute with the addresses beginning at 1000H. Now consider two ABS areas and a DATA scratch-pad area between them:

```

                ABS
START:  LD      SP,...
        :
        :
STOP:   LD      HL,...
        DATA
ADDR1:  DS      2
ADDR2:  DS      2
        :
        ABS
NEXT:   LD      BC,...
        :
        :
        END

```

In this example assembly will begin at absolute location 0 because no ORG statement is specified. Assembly of the second ABS area will begin with the next address following the LD instruction at STOP. Note that an ORG statement could have replaced either ABS statement to cause the code segment following to assemble elsewhere. The DATA area will be assembled relocatable.

```

=====
COMmon
=====

```

The COM pseudo-op precedes a data segment which is to be assembled common to more than one module. The name and size of the COMMON(s) are then saved in the .REL file; this enables the Linker to load the addresses correctly at run time such that the given area is common to several program modules. The CROMEMCO Linker/Loader is the same one used to link .REL files produced by the CROMEMCD FORTRAN IV Compiler. Hence, COMMONs are a very convenient way of enabling a machine language subroutine to use a FORTRAN data area, or as a fast way to pass arguments between FORTRAN and machine language programs. COMMONs may be used in this way for assembly language programs as well; two or more program modules may use the same data scratch-pad area for passing arguments. EXT and ENTRY statements which apply to data areas may be replaced by COMMONs. (When interfacing FORTRAN to machine language routines, allow four bytes for Real, two bytes for Integer, and one byte for Logical variables.) The format of COM is

```
(no label)  COM  <Common Name> (1-6 characters)
```

Note that the full word COMMON is NOT allowed by ASMB. The Common Name may be omitted in the above, and this is considered the blank common. If the name is used, it should follow the rules for labels given in Chapter 3. Following the COM command are the labels and pseudo-ops allocating storage. Note that when COMMONs are used by more than one program module, they must either be the same length in every module, or the module which is linked first must contain the longest COMMON specification so that LINK allocates at least that number of bytes.

Also, note that the COMMONs of different modules DO NOT have to have the same labels on the data. Thus, this COMMON in one module:

	COM	DATA
ADDRTB:	DS	20
COMMTB:	DS	10

and the following COMMON in another module:

	COM	DATA
COUNT:	DS	4
LOOKUP:	DS	26

would assemble and link correctly; they are the same length and the data labels are transparent to the Linker.

There are 15 different COMMONs of equal level (ie, there is no hierarchy) allowed by the Assembler in any one program; exceeding this number will generate an error. All the code following the COM will be considered to be a common until another Program Segment pseudo-op is given. A common may also be continued later in the same program segment by giving the COM command with the same name as before. Using a different name will cause the COM location counter for THAT common to start over at zero. Remember that COMMONs of the same name need not be the same length in every module as long as the module containing the longest COMMON specification is linked first. An example will illustrate some of the features of COM:

```

BEGIN:  LD      SP,...
        :
        :
        COM     INSTRC
TABLE1: DS      50
        REL
        LD      HL,...
        :
        :
        COM     ADDRES
LOCATE: DS      20
        COM     INSTRC
TABLE2: DS      50
        END

```

Both TABLE1 and LOCATE in the above will begin at COM location-counter zero; however, note that they are different commons. TABLE2 will begin at location counter 50 for COM INSTRC (thus COM INSTRC reserves 100 total bytes as storage). Also note the use of the REL statement to return to RELocatable code following the end of the first part of COM INSTRC. Generally the DS pseudo-op is used to allocate storage area for a COMMON; if the DB, DM, or DW statements are used, bear in mind that the loaded bytes of the first COMMON may be over-written by the second loaded COMMON when they are linked.


```
====
DATA
=====
```

The DATA pseudo-op precedes a program segment which is to be assembled as a block of data. LINK will consider this code to be relocatable. The format of DATA is simply

```
(no label) DATA (no operand)
```

All the code following the DATA will be considered to be part of the data block until another Code Segment pseudo-op is given. The DATA pseudo-op is very similar to REL; DATA is provided so that the user may maintain separate data and program code segments in a source file. Thus, the program segments may be programmed into ROM following their being linked and loaded, and the data segments may remain in RAM, for example. All DATA segments of a program are based upon the DATA location counter, which is set to zero upon the start of assembly. As is the case with ABS and REL, all DATA segments in a program will be addressed contiguously if ORG statements are not used to change the addresssing. Also, remember that an ORG will cause assembly to continue with the type of Code Segment to which the expression of the ORG statement belongs. For example the following section of a source code program:

```

DATA
LABEL1: DS      10H
REL
LD      A,...
:
:
DATA
LABEL2: DS      10H
END
```

would be assembled in exactly the same way as this section:

```

DATA
LABEL1: DS      10H
REL
LD      A,...
:
:
ORG      LABEL1+16
LABEL2: DS      10H
END
```

where the ORG statement has replaced the second DATA statement. Since LABEL1 belongs to a DATA area, the ORG statement tells ASMB to return to assembling in the DATA code segment without the need for the second DATA pseudo-op. For more information on the ORG see the list of pseudo-ops above.

```

=====
RELocatable
=====

```

The REL pseudo-op precedes a code segment which is to be assembled in RELocatable form. The Linker will recognize this code at run time, link it with any other relocatable modules, and load them into the desired address in memory. Relocatability works in this way: following assembly, the .REL file contains the locations of all bytes which contain unresolved addresses. At run time the Linker then determines the place at which the program is to be run and correctly fills in the unresolved addresses. As the modules are linked, LINK also prints the names of any still undefined labels (those declared in EXT statements).

The Assembler defaults to the REL code segment upon start of assembly of a program and the REL location counter is set to zero. However, other code segment pseudo-ops may be specified throughout the source, and REL issued to return to relocatable code at the end of these segments. The format of REL is simply

```
(no label)  REL  (no operand)
```

The code following the REL will be considered to be relocatable program area until another Code Segment pseudo-op is given. REL areas are addressed contiguously throughout a source program unless ASMB is told otherwise by the use of ORG statements. Note, however, that the ORG will cause assembly to continue with the type of Code Segment to which the expression of the ORG statement belongs (see the example of this in the section above on the DATA pseudo-op). The REL statement is generally needed only to return to relocatable program code following the use of another Code Segment opcode. Note also that data may be included in the REL area. The DATA and REL pseudo-ops treat relocatable code in an identical manner; therefore, unless there is a specific reason for keeping the data and program areas separate, the DATA statement(s) could be eliminated.

```
*****
CHAPTER 5:  MACRO AND CONDITIONAL ASSEMBLY
*****
```

Two of the most powerful features of the CROMEMCO Relocatable Assembler are Macro and Conditional Assembly. The purpose of this chapter is to define and explain these two features and illustrate their use with examples. However, the user should bear in mind that these examples only scratch the surface as illustrations of the uses of Macros. It is left up to the readers to adapt Macro and Conditional Assembly to their needs.

```
*****
Macro Assembly (MACRO definition and calls)
*****
```

Macros provide the user with a method of producing a block of in-line code in a source file without having to generate this block of code each time it is required. This block of code is known as the Macro body. Macros also allow a great deal more flexibility than in-line source code because of the ability to accept parameters. This means the Macro may be tailored to suit a particular purpose. For example suppose a user wishes to use a move routine which does a block move of 100 bytes. Later in the same program, a block move of 500 bytes is desired. Although these two routines could be written separately, it would be much easier to write a Macro which accepts the correct parameters and generates the correct block move. Some other advantages of the use of Macros are:

- Rewriting repetitive blocks of code is not required. The code is written only once in the Macro.
- Macros can be used to improve program readability and to create easily-read skeleton programs.
- Macros written by a number of programmers can be collected in a Macro library which may be used by all. Eventually nearly entire programs may be written using the Macros in this library.
- New Z-80 instructions may be designed using existing instructions in a Macro (this is an instruction only to the Assembler; it is not possible to add instructions to the Z-80 Instruction Set).
- An error found in a Macro need be corrected only once regardless of the number of times the Macro is called.

Some users may wonder how Macros differ from subroutines, since subroutines may also be used to reduce the coding of frequently executed blocks of code. One distinction between the two is that subroutines branch to another part of the program while Macros generate in-line code. However, a Macro does not necessarily

generate the same source code each time it is called. The source code the Macro generates can be changed by changing the parameters in the Macro Call. Also, Macro parameters can be tested at assembly-time by the Conditional Assembly (IF) statement. These two features enable a general purpose Macro Definition to generate customized source code for a particular situation. Thus, the biggest difference between Macros and subroutines is that Macro expansion and customized code result at assembly-time within the object code. Subroutines, on the other hand, reside in the source program, and require extra execution time (especially if the subroutines do any conditional operations). There is a trade-off, however, between the extra memory required for Macros (in-line code) and the longer execution time of subroutines. In most cases using a single subroutine rather than multiple in-line Macros will reduce the overall program size. However, the use of Macros may be more efficient in situations involving a large number of parameters. Note that Macros can call subroutines, and subroutines can contain Macro Calls.

An example of a simple Macro Definition would perhaps illustrate some of the afore-mentioned points. Suppose that there were a number of times in a source program that it was desired to exchange the upper four and the lower four bits of the A register. Although a subroutine could be written to do this, the associated CALLs and RETURNs would slow down execution time. Thus, to save typing when writing the source code, a Macro is used:

```

ROTATE: MACRO
        RLCA
        RLCA
        RLCA
        RLCA
        MEND

```

The general format of a Macro Definition can be seen from this example. The word ROTATE becomes the Macro name. Thus, to CALL this Macro one would simply use the word ROTATE as an opcode in the source code, and the Assembler would insert the four RLCA opcodes as in-line source code following the ROTATE Macro opcode. This is known as the Macro EXPANSION. The MEND statement informs the Assembler that the Macro Definition is complete. Suppose now that rather than be limited to having the Macro exchange the high and low bits of the A register only, it was desired to have it operate on any of the 8-bit registers. The following Macro Definition might be used in place of the above:

```

ROTATE: MACRO    #REGIS
        RLC      #REGIS
        RLC      #REGIS
        RLC      #REGIS
        RLC      #REGIS
        MEND

```

This Macro uses the parameter REGIS, the value of which it will determine when the ROTATE macro is called. The "#" symbol is required to precede the parameter(s) everywhere it appears in a Macro

Definition to distinguish it from other labels; however, this symbol is NOT required when specifying the parameter in a Macro Call. Since ROTATE now expects one parameter, the form of a Call would be:

```
ROTATE <register>
```

where the word "register" would be replaced with one of: A, B, C, D, E, H, or L. The Assembler would then generate in-line code using the correct register name. For example if the Macro Call "ROTATE H" was used, ASMB would generate the in-line code:

```
RLC      H
RLC      H
RLC      H
RLC      H
```

Based on the above examples we now give the complete format of a Macro Definition and Call. A Macro is defined by:

```
<Macro Name:>  MACRO  <#Parameter1,#Parameter2,...>
                  <opcodes and
                    operands which
                    may use the
                    parameters of
                    the Macro statement
                    and which form
                    the Macro body>
(no label)      MEND      (no operand)
```

where the parameters are optional and are limited in number only by the length of a line for ASMB (80 characters). The Macro Name is required and is the name used when calling a Macro. The MEND is the Macro End statement and is required to inform the Assembler that the source code of the Macro is complete. The opcodes or pseudo-ops between the MACRO and MEND statements comprise the Macro Definition, and may be any legal Z-80 instructions, calls to other Macros, or ASMB pseudo-ops.

There are a number of important points to note about the above format of Macros. First, note that when passing parameters to the Macro the parameter name must be preceded by the symbol "#" everywhere it appears in the Definition; however, it is NOT used to precede parameters in a Macro Call. The parameters are actually dummy names; they stand for a quantity which will be substituted at assembly time. Therefore, the same parameter name may be used in several separate Macro Definitions (for example #REGIS may be used more than once). The parameters MUST follow the syntax rules for whatever portion of code they represent. Note that the text itself of the actual (not dummy) parameter is substituted in the Macro Expansion. Thus, register names can be used rather than a value which stands for the register as in some other assemblers; see the above example where the letter H is used as the parameter. Another way this is useful is to substitute for letters in the opcode itself:

```

ROTATE: MACRO    #DIR,#REGIS
          R#DIRC  #REGIS
          R#DIRC  #REGIS
          R#DIRC  #REGIS
          R#DIRC  #REGIS
          MEND

```

In this example either the command RLC or RRC could be generated by assigning the letter "R" or "L" to the first parameter. However, if the letter "Q" was used, this would generate the illegal opcode "RQC", causing an error message when the Macro is expanded. A last point to be made about parameters in Macros is that parameter names that appear early in a list should NOT be subsets of parameters that fall later in a list. This is because dummy parameter names do not have a delimiter (such as a colon) to inform the Assembler of their last character; note that parameter names do not follow the same syntax rules as label names. Dummy parameter names may be as many characters as will fit on the line and be composed of any printable ASCII characters. An example of an illegal use of parameters is:

```

LOAD:     MACRO    #OPER,#OPERND

```

where the user desired one parameter to be the operation and the other the operand. This is illegal as it stands because OPER is a subset of OPERND. A correct example is:

```

LOAD:     MACRO    #OPERAT,#OPER

```

Another important point to be made about the format of Macro Definitions concerns the way in which labels are defined. Labels appearing in DL statements within the Macro Definition are not subject to the following restriction because they can be multiply-defined (see section on Conditional Assembly for an example of the use of a DL and an IF statement to cause conditional Macro assembly). A label appearing on any other statement of a Macro Definition will generate a multiple definition error if that Macro is called more than once (the second expansion would also reproduce the label). To avoid this problem a general label name for Macros has been provided, which is used by assigning two letters to the label name followed by the characters "#SYM". These four characters are replaced by a four-digit number each time a Macro is called. The four-digit number starts at 0000 and is incremented by one each time ANY Macro is called, whether or not it is the given Macro. Thus, for example the dummy label name AA#SYM in this Macro:

```

BITEST: MACRO    ...
          :
          :
AA#SYM: LD        HL,...
          :
          JP      AA#SYM

```

would be assigned the actual label name AA0000 if BITEST was the first Macro called in the program. The next Macro call would increment this to AA0001, and the next to AA0002, etc. In general do NOT use #SYM

as the name of a parameter in a Macro Definition; the effect of this is that the current value of #SYM will be used instead of the desired parameter.

The final point to be made concerning the format of the Macro Definition concerns nesting of Macros. Macro Definitions may be nested indefinitely; this means there can exist a Macro Definition which completely contains a Macro Definition which completely contains a Macro Definition, and so on indefinitely. However, Macro Calls may be nested to eight levels maximum. This means there can exist a Macro Definition which contains a Macro Call, whose Macro Definition contains a Macro Call, whose Macro Definition contains a Macro Call, and so on up to eight levels deep. Exceeding this limit will generate a nesting error. Note that a Macro may also call itself, provided there is a Conditional way (see IF) of ending the self-calling before the ninth level. An example of nested Macro CALLS will be found in the examples section later in this chapter.

Some special notes are necessary on nested Macro DEFINITIONS. The Assembler does not evaluate a Macro Definition within a larger, outside Macro Definition until the larger definition is called. This means that the outside Macro should be called BEFORE the inside Macro to avoid generating a phase error. The benefit of nesting Macro Definitions may not be obvious; the following example illustrates one level of nesting used to define several different Macros:

```

DEFINE: MACRO    #1,#2
EX#1#2: MACRO
    PUSH    #1
    PUSH    #2
    POP     #1
    POP     #2
    MEND
    MEND

```

This nested definition may then be called in a source program as follows:

```

:
:  DEFINE  BC,HL
START: ...
:
:  EXBCHL
:

```

The opcode "EXBCHL" was defined by the call to DEFINE; other calls to DEFINE could define such source code segments as "EXAFBC" or "EXBCDE". After the initial call to DEFINE the necessary PUSHes and POPs to generate a double register exchange will be inserted into the source code by the call "EXBCHL" used as an opcode. The DEFINE Macro could be resident in a Macro Library to further save typing. Note, however, that DEFINE must be called once for every Macro which it defines and that this call must precede the call to the nested Macro.

The above functions could also have been implemented by the single Macro:

```
EXCH:  MACRO    #1,#2
        PUSH    #1
        PUSH    #2
        POP     #1
        POP     #2
        MEND
```

The difference here is that the parameters must be specified each time the Macro is called. For example a Call in a program would be:

```
:
EXCH    BC,HL
:
```

Either of the above examples could be used to create a Macro to exchange register pairs. Note the differences between them. There is a more advanced example of nested Macro Definitions in the last section of this chapter.

The above sections describing the details of a Macro Definition are provided for reference. However, a better feeling for the ways in which Macros may be used will come after these details are illustrated by means of examples. The last section of this chapter provides examples of the uses and correct formats of Macro Definitions and Calls. The last thing to be described in this section is the format of the Macro Call:

```
<Label:> <Macro Name> <Parameter1,Parameter2,...>
```

The label is optional; the parameters are also optional if none are specified in the Macro Definition. That is, the parameters in the Macro Call must match those in the Macro Definition in number and order; they are NOT, however, preceded by the "#" symbol (because these are the actual, not the dummy parameters). The Macro Name should match the name appearing in the label field of the MACRO statement. At assembly time the Macro will be expanded and the source code generated will be printed on consecutive lines following the Macro Call statement (unless NOGEN is selected--see List Options and LIST pseudo-op). Each of these lines will have a plus, "+", sign immediately following the line number of the print-listing to distinguish these lines as belonging to a Macro Expansion. Note that Macro Call statements may appear anywhere throughout a source program including within another Macro Definition (beware of nesting to more than eight levels deep, however).

An important point about Macro Calls and Definitions is that a Macro must be defined in a source program BEFORE it is called. This is to prevent a phase error from occurring. The general practice is to give all Macro Definitions near the beginning of the source code, followed by the body of the program itself. One of the most interesting features of the CROMEMCO Relocatable Assembler is that Z-80

instructions can be redefined (in terms of other Z-80 instructions) using Macros. Of course, such an instruction which is redefined can not be used in its traditional sense again within the same source program; however, there are specialized cases in which it is desirable to slightly modify the function of an instruction. Note that the instruction itself cannot be modified; it is merely redefined in terms of other Z-80 instructions.

The way ASMB interprets instructions is an important part of understanding the Macro capability. The Assembler forms a Macro Definition Table (MDT) of the Macros residing in the source program. This is the first place searched to satisfy an opcode. The second place searched is a table of addresses specifying the Macros which are accessed by the source program and which reside on disk (this table is formed ONLY if the Macro= option is specified when calling ASMB). If an opcode is found in this address tables the required Macro Definition is read into memory from the disk and added to the MDT. Finally, any still unsatisfied opcodes are found in the Z-80 Opcode Definition Table (ODT). Thus, it is possible to write an entire source program consisting only of Macros. In expanding these Macros, ASMB then uses the ODT to evaluate the Z-80 instructions. This feature means that ASMB may be used as a language compiler by having a library of Macros which translate the commands of the language into a series of Z-80 instructions. To avoid wasting memory and repeating Macros unnecessarily when using such a scheme, Conditional Assembly may be used in conjunction with Macros to automatically generate subroutine calls. This feature, along with the other features of Conditional (IF) Assembly, are described in the following section. At the end of this chapter is a section of examples illustrating some of the features described in these first two parts of the chapter.

```

+++++
Conditional Assembly (IF statements)
+++++

```

An often close associate of the Macro is the Conditional Assembly or IF statement. The IF statement allows the user to write a source program in which certain blocks of code are assembled or not depending on the satisfaction of particular conditions. This is especially useful in conjunction with the MACRO or *INCLUDE statements. When using the IF statement with *INCLUDE, particular files may be included or not depending on values in the source program. Note that such a file may be a series of Macros which are needed in the source program only under certain conditions. The IF statement is useful with MACRO definitions as a means of determining the desired number of levels of nesting of a Macro within itself (this is illustrated in an example in the following section). The feature may also be used to cause a Macro to set up a subroutine the first time the Macro is called, and to generate a subroutine CALL upon subsequent Macro calls. The format of the IF statement is as follows:

```

      (no label)  IF  <Item>
                  <opcodes and
                  operands which
                  form the body
                  of code to be
                  assembled
                  conditionally>
      (no label)  ENDIF  (no operand)

```

The item following the IF may be any legal label names expression, or constant as described in Chapter 3. It will be evaluated by the Assembler to determine whether it is True or False; a False expression is one that evaluates to 0, and a True expression is one that evaluates to -1 (0FFFFH). However, ANY non-zero value is considered to be True. NOTE that the IF statement evaluates the expression as a sixteen-bit quantity. If the expression exceeds this limit (for example: '0000' is a 32-bit (4-byte) ASCII expression the correct expression is: 0000 or simply 0), it will generate an error message. A constant which exceeds the range will, however, be evaluated MOD 65,536 and will generate no error. Note that the Expression in the IF statement may use the operators described in Chapter 3. All the terms of the expression MUST have been previously defined to avoid errors; also, the expression must evaluate to an absolute quantity. An example of an IF statement with an expression is:

```

      IF          COUNT EQ 0

```

This will generate a value of True (or -1) if COUNT is equal to 0. The example could have been written a different way:

```

COUNT:  DL      1
        :
        :
        IF      COUNT

```

which will generate a value of True because in this case COUNT has the

value of 1 which also stands for True (non-zero). Note the difference between these two examples; in the first case COUNT must equal 0 for the expression to be True, and in the second case COUNT must equal anything but zero for the expression to be True.

After evaluating the expression the Assembler will then assemble the code following the IF statement if and only if the expression evaluated to be True. If the expression was False, the block of code bounded by the IF and ENDIF statements will simply be ignored by ASMB. It is also possible to suppress the print-listing of such ignored code by using either the NOCOND List Option or the LIST NOCOND pseudo-op (see the appropriate sections for more information). An ENDIF statement is required for every IF statement in a source program to tell the Assembler when Conditional Assembly is finished.

IF statements may be nested up to eight levels deep; more than this will generate an error message. IF statements may also be nested in Macros; this makes it possible for a Macro to call itself a number of times specified by the IF statement (an example of this may be found in the following section). Macro parameters may be used in the expression of the IF statement. The following example to do three rotates illustrates this:

```

ROTAT3: MACRO    #DIREC
           IF      '#DIREC' EQ 'R'
           RRCA
           RRCA
           RRCA
           ENDIF
           IF      '#DIREC' EQ 'L'
           RLCA
           RLCA
           RLCA
           ENDIF
MEND

```

Note that the actual ASCII value of the parameter may be specified by enclosing it in single quotes as with any ASCII string. The two IF statements check to see if the parameter specified when calling ROTAT3 is "R" or "L"; if it is neither, then no source code is assembled. If one or the other, then the corresponding left or right rotates will be generated.

 Examples of Macro and Conditional Assembly

Many of the features of MACRO and IF statements described above are made clearest by illustrating them by means of examples. This section is included to give the user some idea of the many ways which Macro and Conditional Assembly may be used.

=====
 Example 1: Block Move Macro
 =====

The Macro Definition which follows provides a fairly simple example of the use of a Macro. This Macro defines a method for easily generating a block-move of a portion of a program:

```

MOVE:  MACRO    #SOURCE,#SRCEND,#DESTIN
        LD      HL,#SOURCE
        LD      DE,#DESTIN
        LD      BC,#SRCEND-#SOURCE
        LDIR
        JP      #DESTIN
        MEND

```

Note that three parameters are expected: a starting and ending location for the source, and a destination; this is of the same format as the M (move) command of DEBUG. Thus, the Macro Call for this example might be part of a program such as:

```

                ORG      2000H
LOAD:  MOVE     START,STOP,100H
START: LD       ...
        :
        :
STOP:  END      LOAD

```

In this example the program would begin execution with LOAD, and would move the block of code between START and STOP to absolute address 100H.

=====
 Example 2: A Macro that Converts Itself into a Subroutine
 =====

In some cases the in-line coding which results from many Macro Calls is undesirable due to memory requirements. In such a case a Macro can be created which converts itself to a subroutine. Such a Macro has both the advantages of a Macro and a subroutine. Following is the Definition for SUBMAC, a Macro which calls itself:

```

TRUE:    EQU    -1
FALSE:   EQU    0
FIRST:   DL     TRUE
SUBMAC:  MACRO
        IF      NOT FIRST
        CALL    SUBROT
        ENDIF
        IF      FIRST
FIRST:   DL     FALSE
        JP      DONE      ; causes program to jump around
SUBROT:  ...              ; subroutine upon first call
        :
        :
        RET
DONE:    NOP              ; program jumps here
        ENDIF
        MEND

```

The first three lines above are not part of the Macro Definition, but the value of FIRST must be initialized before it is used in the Definition. The JP DONE instruction in the above is used to cause a jump around the subroutine when it is assembled in-line with the source upon the first Call to SUBMAC. A sample program which might use this Macro is:

```

START:  ...
        :
        SUBMAC
        :
        SUBMAC
        :
        END      START

```

The first Call to SUBMAC above would generate the subroutine itself in-line. After the first call the value of FIRST has been redefined to be FALSE; hence, the second Call to SUBMAC would generate simply the line: CALL SUBROT.

=====

Example 3: Nested Macro Definitions to Generate Rotate Instructions

=====

A number of interesting and useful functions can be implemented by using nested Macro Definitions or Calls. The following is one such example, making use of one level of nested Macro Definitions to define a number of different Macros:

```

ROTATE:  MACRO    #SHFT
M#SHFT:  MACRO    #NUM, #REG
VALUE:   DL       #NUM-1
        #SHFT    #REG
        IF      VALUE NE 0
M#SHFT   VALUE, #REG
        ENDIF
        MEND
        MEND

```

The Macro ROTATE may be used to define a number of shift and rotate Macros; however, the inner Macros are not defined until ROTATE has been called one time. Thus, at the beginning of the program in which we wish to use the Macros, it is necessary to initialize them by the Calls:

```

SETUP:  ROTATE  SRA
        ROTATE  RRC
        ROTATE  RR
        ROTATE  SRL
        ROTATE  RLC
        ROTATE  RL
        ROTATE  SLA

```

Note that this will define 7 additional Macros with the names MSRA through MSLA. The M (or any other legal character) is necessary in order to avoid having the Macro names match Z-80 opcodes. (Note that these same Z-80 opcodes are used within the Macro Definitions.) We can now call any of these Macros, giving a number and a register as parameters:

```

START:  LD      ...
        MSRA    4,A
        MRLC    8,B
        MRR     3,E
        END     START

```

The number in each of the above cases is the number of shifts or rotates which will be generated. Thus, the Macro Call "MSRA 4,A" will, when expanded, generate 4 "SRA A" instructions in the source code. Since the ROTATE Macro could be contained in a Macro Library, the user's source program could contain a Macro Call of this type.

```
*****
CHAPTER 6:  ASSEMBLER ERROR MESSAGES
*****
```

The Assembler generates a number of error messages while assembling to inform you of its progress. These messages fall into two general classes: those that involve the actual call to ASMB, are generated shortly thereafter, and are sent to the console; and those that are generated while the source code is being assembled and which inform the user of incorrect structures in the code. These two classes are described below. The user should note that in most cases the Assembler, when encountering an error, will assemble the line such that the correct number of bytes are reserved. Thus, the addresses are still numbered correctly, and the program may be loaded into memory and the incorrect bytes changed using DEBUG. This saves reassembling a very long program, when the user plans to debug it anyway. Of course, in the final version of source code, the error should be corrected.

```
*****
Error Messages Generated Following a Call to ASMB
*****
```

The following list contains the error messages set off in two lines of dashes, followed by a brief description of their meanings. Note that the errors are printed exactly as they would be sent to the console, upper or lower case. All the errors described in this section will ABORT the assembly and return control to CDOS. The user should be aware that any temporary files created by ASMB will remain on the disk following an abort; these may be erased if desired, but this is not required if the error is fixed and the file reassembled.

```
-----
source file not found
-----
```

This is generated when ASMB cannot find the specified source file on the disk. Check your spelling of the filename and the disk directory for the file.

```
-----
no directory space
-----
```

This is generated when ASMB attempts to open an output file (.REL or .PRN, for example) and finds that there are already 64 entries (the maximum allowed by CDOS) on the disk. This is NOT the same as running out of disk space (see following error message). There may be 64 directory entries which are all short files, and thus not all the available kilobytes may be used (81 Kbytes for small and 241 Kbytes for large disks).

 write error, file - <filename.ext>

ASMB will open any files which it requires (.REL or .PRN files, or the temporary files it opens to manage the XREF and OPCODE listings), shortly after being called. This message is generated if the disk is full (81 Kbytes for small, 241 Kbytes for large) when these files are opened, or if a file being written to causes the disk to become full during assembly.

Note: The temporary files for XREF and OPCODE listings are created only if one or both of these options are specified. The XREF file is named <filename>.\$\$\$ and the OPCODE file is named <filename>.\$\$0, where <filename> is the one specified in calling ASMB. These files are created during Pass 1 of the Assembler; they are removed from the disk following completion of the assembly.

 selected disk error

This message is generated if the 3-letter drive-request instruction given after the filename is incorrect, ie, if it specifies a drive which does not exist or is not one of the characters, "X" or "Z". An example which will generate this message is: ASMB TESTFILE.ABE. "E" is not a correct drive letter.

 invalid option

This message is generated if an invalid or misspelled Option is specified following the <filename> in a call to ASMB. This will also appear if an invalid delimiter (such as ",") is used between Options. One or more <space(s)> is the only valid delimiter to separate Options.

 MACRO library not found

This is generated only if the Macro=<d:filename.ext> option has been issued and the filename cannot be found by the Assembler on the specified drive.

 out of memory

The Assembler program (ASMB.COM) is loaded into memory at 100H and begins execution there. Above itself in memory ASMB forms the symbol table, which grows upward. Above the symbol table but below CDOS ASMB forms the Macro Definition Table (MDT), which grows downward through memory. If a user-program being assembled contains a great number of Macros and/or symbols, the symbol table and the MDT may grow together, thus generating the "out of memory" error. The message will be printed on the console and assembly will be aborted at this point. The simplest solution to the problem if it occurs is to edit the source code into two or more separate modules, assemble them separately, and link them at run time.


```

*****
Error Messages Generated During Assembly
*****

```

The following list contains the error messages generated during assembly of source code. They inform the user of a wide range of incorrect specifications such as misspelled opcodes or invalid relative jumps. When an error occurs, ASMB prints the error message which applies on the line immediately following the error. The message is a complete expression, not a symbol, and it occupies the entire line in a print-listing. It is set off by being preceded and succeeded by a string of asterisks. If the print-listing is sent to the disk or is not generated at all, any errors occurring during assembly will still be printed on the console; in this case the entire line of code as generated in the listing along with the error-type will be printed. Following assembly the total number of errors will be printed. Also, at the end of the listing will be printed a summary of all the line numbers where errors have occurred during assembly. This summary is printed (either to the disk or to the console) in the form of a table; the Width= option will limit the length of lines of characters in this table, but will not end any line in the middle of an entry just as was the case with the cross reference tables. Note that for each type of error message up to 100 entries will be printed in this table. The error summary table is a very useful feature for going back and editing the file for corrections. Below in alphabetical order are the error messages which may appear along with a brief explanation of each one.

```

-----
argument error
-----

```

This arises when an invalid constant is used. This might happen when a number is incorrect for its base, or when an ASCII character string is too long for an expression. For example, the lines

```

LD      A,108Q      (8 not valid octal character)
LD      HL,'ABC'    (too many ASCII chracters)

```

will both generate argument errors.

```

-----
divide by zero error
-----

```

This arises when an evaluated expression involves an attempt to divide by zero. An example is

```

END:    EQU        0FFF8H
        :
        :
        LD         HL,255/(END+8)

```

Since the value of END+8 is 0, this would produce the divide by zero error.

 expression error

This applies to operand expressions which involve certain illegal operations with labels belonging to REL, DATA, or COM code segments. Expressions involving relocatable labels are limited to the following operations:

RELNAM+ABSNAM	(relocatable)
RELNAM-ABSNAM	(relocatable)
RELNAM-RELNAM	(absolute)

where RELNAM stands for a label belonging to a relocatable code segment and ABSNAM stands for a label belonging to an ABS code segment (see REL and ABS in the chapter on pseudo-ops). The type of expression of the result of the given operation is given to the right in parentheses. Also note that in the last case above both RELNAMs must belong to the same type of Code Segment or an error will also be generated. (For example a label belonging to a COMMON area may not be subtracted from a label belonging to a REL area.) An expression error is generated if any arithmetic is attempted (ie, an expression is formed) using EXTERNAL names, as the values of these are unknown to the Assembler. This does not mean that EXTERNALs may not be used as operands, of course. Relative jumps from one type of Code Segment to another will also generate expression errors; for example it is illegal to jump from a REL to a DATA area using a relative jump. The reader should refer to the section of Chapter 3 on operators for more information on the use of expressions.

 file not found

This message is printed following an INCLUDE for which the file to be included cannot be found on the disk. This error does not terminate assembly, but further errors may be generated if the source code looks for labels belonging to the missing file. Note the difference between this message, which is printed in the listing, and the "source file not found" and "MACRO library not found" messages which abort assembly and are printed on the console.

 label error

This arises when a label contains or begins with an illegal character. The characters 0-9 are legal within a label but are illegal as the FIRST character. Allowable characters for labels are A-Z, a-z, ".", and "\$". All register names are also illegal as labels; these are listed in Chapter 3 under the section on labels.

 label not allowed

The following list of pseudo-ops do not ALLOW labels to precede them because of their nature. This message is printed if a label is used before one of the following pseudo-ops:

ABS	FORM or	EXT or	MEND
COM	EJECT	EXTRN	NAME
DATA	ENDIF	IF	REM
REL	ENTRY	LIST	TITLE

Note that this is NOT the error message which is printed in the case of an illegal character in a label (see "label error"). Although the "label not allowed" message is printed and counted as an error, the source code will still be assembled correctly and the incorrect label will be ignored by ASMB.

missing label

This message is printed when the following pseudo-ops are NOT preceded by a label: EQU and DEFL or DL. This is opposite to the above case (see "label not allowed"); note that these two pseudo-ops REQUIRE a label to be assembled correctly. A MACRO definition section of code also requires a label in order to be used by the Assembler. For more information on Macros see the chapter devoted to them.

multiple definition

This message occurs any time a data or program label is defined more than once. This is prone to happen when using INCLUDES, as the included file may contain a label also used in the source file. Simply re-edit one of the files and change the label(s) involved.

multiple MACRO definition

This error is exactly similar to the "multiple definition" above, but is caused by a multiply-defined Macro name.

nesting error

This message appears whenever INCLUDES, MACROS, or IFs are nested beyond the levels allowed by the Assembler. These are: 8 levels of nesting for MACROS and IFs, and 4 levels of nesting for INCLUDES. Note that this means 8 levels of nesting for Macro CALLS; Macro DEFINITIONS may be nested indefinitely. However, be sure, when nesting Macro definitions, to insert the correct number of MEND (Macro END) pseudo-ops; the Assembler might otherwise consider a portion of the Source code to be part of a Macro. Examples of both nested Macro calls and definitions appear in the chapter on Macros.

no matching IF

This message appears following an ENDIF pseudo-op which has no corresponding IF statement in the source code preceding it.

no matching MACRO

This message appears following a MEND pseudo-op which has no corresponding MACRO definition statement in the source code preceding it.

opcode error

This follows an opcode which is illegal; this may be because it is misspelled or because the user intended for it to be a Macro and forgot to include this Macro definition.

phase error

This error message follows a line containing a name which was defined differently between Pass 1 and Pass 2 of ASMB. The most common cause of this is that a label has been used as a value (such as in an EQUate statement) before it has been defined. An example is

```

      LABEL1: EQU      LABEL2
              :
              :
      LABEL2: LD        A,5

```

LABEL2 has been used in the EQU statement before it was defined. The error is corrected by moving the offending statement (in this case the EQU statement) to follow the label definition. Other causes of phase errors are (1) using a term in an expression in a DS or IF statement which has not been defined yet, and (2) calling a Macro before it has been defined.

range error

This message follows a relative jump which exceeds the range allowed for such jumps. This range is -126 bytes to +129 bytes measured from the address at which the relative jump is located; the actual values generated by the Assembler are in the range -128 to 127 because the Z-80 measures relative jumps from the instruction following the jump.

The Assembler requires an ADDRESS, usually specified by means of a label, to be used as the operand of a relative jump instruction. ASMB then calculates the relative displacement of the jump and places this value in the object code. Remember that if a number is used, it will be considered to be an absolute address, NOT a displacement. Note that this may be different from the description of relative jumps in the Z-80 manuals by Mostek and Zilog. Some examples will illustrate these concepts; the statement

```

      JR        NZ,100

```

tells ASMB to generate a relative jump to LOCATION 100 or 64H, NOT

to jump relative to the present location by 100 bytes. To avoid this confusion a better form would be

```

                JR      NZ,LABEL
                :
                :
LABEL:  LD      A,3

```

for which ASMB will calculate the correct jump no matter where LABEL happens to be located. (However, if the label belongs to another type of Code Segment, an expression error will be generated; for example it is illegal to jump from a REL area to a DATA area using a relative jump.)

syntax error

This error message covers a wide range of ills; it generally appears when a quantity in one of the four Assembler Fields (see Chapter 3) has been misused. For example, writing a remark without preceding it with a ";" on a line which already contains a label, opcode, and operand will produce a syntax error. If you don't know the cause of the message, look up the expression or opcode of which you are unsure.

too many COMmons

This message follows the use of more than the allowable number of COMmons. ASMB allows a total of 15 COMmons including one "blank" COMmon. The term blank COMmon means that one of the COMmons need not be named, not that there is nothing in it. See the COM pseudo-op for more information on their use.

undefined symbol

This message follows a line containing a label name in the operand field which has not been defined. This is one of the most common of assembly language mistakes: using a label name for a data quantity and then forgetting to define it. Labels are defined by appearing in the label field of any opcode or pseudo-op which allows labels.

value error

This message follows a line in which a value is used which exceeds the range allowable for the opcode used. This value may be a constant or an expression. Opcodes which expect one-byte quantities will generate a value error for any expression whose value exceeds the range 0 to FFH (or its equivalent representation in decimal, octal, or binary). Opcodes which expect two-byte quantities will not generate an error if the value simply exceeds the numeric range (65,535); the value will simply "wrap around". That is, a value of modulus 65,536 is returned

without an error flag. Some examples will illustrate these ideas. The following will generate a value error:

```
LD      A,3000H      (a two-byte quantity used as one byte)
```

However, the line

```
LD      HL,70000
```

will not generate a value error; instead, the value 4464 or 1170H (which is 70000-65536) will be generated.

Value errors will also be generated by the BIT, SET, and RES opcodes if the value of the expression used as an operand is outside the range 0 through 7.

```
*****
CHAPTER 7:  ASSEMBLER PRINT-LISTINGS
*****
```

Following is the print-listing which results from the assembly of the example in Chapter 1 ("Getting Started"). There is much valuable information in this listing; it is therefore given here in a separate chapter so that the various terms and symbols can be explained. The command line which was typed to produce this assembly is slightly different from the command line typed in Chapter 2. This is because several Assembler Options have been specified here so the user can see what type of listing they produce. The command line which was typed to produce the following assembly is:

```
ASMB TIMER SYMB XREF OPCODE RANGE
```

The SYMB option requests a Symbol Table, XREF and OPCODE request Symbol and Opcode Cross Reference Tables, and Range requests those absolute jumps which are within range to be relative jumps. The next four pages contain the listing that results from this assembly. Following that is an explanation of the terms and conventions used in the listing.

CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02

PAGE 0001

```

0001 ; This program rings the console bell at approximately
0002 ; half-second intervals determined by a timer loop.
0003 ;
(0007) 0004 BELL: EQU 7 ; console bell is ASCII 07
(0002) 0005 WRITE: EQU 2 ; write character to console
(0005) 0006 CDOS: EQU 5 ; use system call to write
(02FF) 0007 TIMIT: EQU 2FFH ; 2 is no. of half-seconds;
; FF (256) is no. of loops
(00FF) 0009 DURAT: EQU 0FFH ; FF (256) is loop duration
0010 ;
0011 ; Main Program
0012 ;
0000' 315A00' 0013 START: LD SP,STACK ; initialize stack pointer
0003' 01FF02 0014 LOOP: LD BC,TIMIT ; B is no. of half-sec.;
; C is no. of loops
0006' 3EFF 0016 TIM2: LD A,DURAT ; get duration (256)
0008' 3D 0017 TIM1: DEC A ; decrement and
0009' 20FD 0018 JR NZ,TIM1 ; loop til zero
OOOB' 0D 0019 DEC C ; decrement loop counter
OOOC' 20F8 0020 JR NZ,TIM2 ; until zero
OOOE' 10F6 0021 DJNZ TIM2 ; countdown half-seconds
0010' 1E07 0022 LD E,BELL ; set-up to ring bell
0012' 0E02 0023 LD C,WRITE ; set-up to write console
0014' CDO500 0024 CALL CDOS ; call system
0017, C30300' R 0025 JP LOOP ; loop and repeat
0026 ;
0027 ; Stack Area
0028 ;
001A' (0040) 0029 BOTTOM: DS 40H ; allow 64 bytes for stack
(005A') 0030 STACK: EQU $ ; current location counter
; equals top of stack
005A' (0000') 0032 END START

Errors 0
Range Count 1
Parity Count 0

```

Program Length 005A (90)

CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02

PAGE 0002

SYMBOL TABLE

BELL	0007	BOTTOM	001A'	CDOS	0005	DURAT	00FF	LOOP	0003'
STACK	005A'	START	0000'	TIM1	0008'	TIM2	0006'	TIMIT	02FF
WRITE	0002								

CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02
CROSS REFERENCE LISTING

PAGE 0003

BELL	0004	0022	
BOTTOM	0029		
CDOS	0006	0024	
DURAT	0009	0016	
LOOP	0014	0025	
STACK	0030	0013	
START	0013	0032	
TIM1	0017	0018	
TIM2	0016	0020	0021
TIMIT	0007	0014	
WRIIE	0005	0023	

CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02
OPCODE CROSS REFERENCE LISTING

PAGE 0004

CALL	0024
DEC	0017 0019
DJNZ	0021
DS	0029
END	0032
EQU	0004 0005 0006 0007 0009 0030
JP	0025
JR	0018 0020
LD	0013 0014 0016 0022 0023

```

*****
Listing Columns
*****

```

This listing is divided up into a number of columns or fields. These are described below.

Column 1 - This is a 16-bit address printed in hex. If an absolute ORG statement has not been given, the addresses will start with 0. Since the (n)odes are relocatable, however, the Subsequent addresses are only relative to the final program base when the program has been loaded. Immediately following the address is either a space or one of the symbols: ', ", or *. These are described below.

Column 2 - If the statement is a pseudo-op which generates a value (for example, the EQU statement), that value will be printed here in parentheses. For all Z-80 opcodes this column will contain up to four bytes of object code in hex. The DU and DW pseudo-ops will also produce object code in this column. If the code being assembled is relocatable, all addresses will correspond to relocatable addresses in column one, NOT the actual addresses these bytes will have when the program is linked and loaded into memory. Relocatable addresses will be followed by one of the symbols: ', ", *, or #, described below.

Column 3 - This column is usually not printed. If the Range Option has been specified, all absolute jumps which are within range to be relative jumps are marked with an "R" character in this column.

Column 4 - This column contains the line numbers of the source code in decimal beginning with 0001. All lines will be numbered including those containing only remarks.

Column 5 - This is the label field of the original source. See Chapter 3 of this Part for a complete description.

Column 6 - This is the opcode field of the original source. See Chapter 3 for a complete description.

Column 7 - This is the operand field of the original source. See Chapter 3 for a complete description.

Column 8 - This is the remark field of the original source. See Chapter 3 for a complete description.

```

*****
Lines of Listing
*****

```

The listing also contains useful information on the lines printed out at its beginning and end. These are described below.

Beginning, Line 1 - This line contains the heading of the listing giving the current version and release numbers of ASMB. Also on this line is the page number; listings are numbered consecutively in decimal including the symbol and other tables at the end.

Beginning, Line 2 - This line will contain the title of the module being assembled if the user specified one using the TITLE pseudo-op. A blank line is inserted if no title is used. The Assembler also inserts a blank line just before the listing begins on every page.

Interspersed Lines - Error messages occupy one full line of a listing and are printed immediately following the line in which the error was first detected.

End of Listing, Line 1 - The total number of errors which occurred during Assembly is printed on this line.

End of Listing, Line 2 - This line will be printed only if the Range Option has been specified, and it gives the total number of jumps marked by Range.

End of Listing, Line 3 - This line will be printed only if the Parity Option has been specified, and it gives the total number of 8080-Z80 conflicts found (see Parity Option in Chapter 2).

End of Listing, Line 4 - This gives total program length (ie, the byte-count of the object code) in both hex and in decimal.

End of Listing, Line 5 - This and the following lines list all those COMMONs which have been defined in the module along with their lengths in both hex and in decimal. Up to 15 COMMONs may be listed.

```
+++++
Listing Symbols
+++++
```

There are four symbols which appear throughout a print-listing which give some additional information. These are described below.

Single Quote (') - This symbol follows all addresses (column 1) which belong to a REL area. The symbol also follows all references to REL addresses made in the object code. For example the three bytes:

```
C31F00'
```

in the object code mean to jump to address 001F of the REL segment of code.

Double Quote (") - This symbol follows all addresses (column 1) which belong to a DATA area. The symbol also follows all references to DATA addresses made in the object code. Remember that DATA program segments are very similar to REL program segments.

Asterisk (*) - This symbol follows all addresses (in column 1) which belong to a COMMON program segment. The symbol also follows all references to COMMON addresses made in the object code.

Pound Sign (#) - This symbol appears only following an address in the object code, and marks those lines as ones referencing EXTERNALS. The address just preceding the pound sign is the location that that EXT was last referenced, or is 0000 if it's the first time in the module that the EXT is referenced.

Note that addresses in column 1 or in the object which are not followed by one of the four symbols above belong to an ABSolute segment of code.

+++++
 Tables Following the Listing
 +++++

There are several tables which may follow the print-listing of the source code. These are described briefly below.

 Symbol Table

The symbol table contains an alphabetical list of all the symbols (labels) defined in the source program. Each symbol will be followed by its value and one of the four symbols described above to tell the user to which program segment it belongs. The value will be either the address at which the symbol is defined or the value of the expression to which it equates. Note that EXTERNALS listed in the symbol table do not follow this rule. The address listed following an EXT name is the address of its first occurrence in the source.

 Cross Reference Table

The cross reference table contains an alphabetical list of all symbols and the line numbers of both their places of definition and occurrence throughout the source program. The symbols are listed in the first column, the line numbers of their definition in the second column, and the line numbers of their occurrence are listed by rows to the right of the first two columns. Symbols which have been multiply-defined by the use of DL statements will have the line numbers of subsequent definitions listed to the right and followed by the pound sign (#).

 Opcode Cross Reference Table

The opcode cross reference table contains an alphabetical list of all opcodes and Macro names along with the line numbers of their places of occurrence (and places of definition for for Macros). The opcodes or Macro names are listed in the first column, the line numbers of Macro definitions ONLY are listed in the second column, and the line numbers of their places of occurrence are listed by rows to the right.

This completes the description of the items which make up an assembled print-listing. This also completes Part I of this book.

PART II - CROMEMCO LINKER/LOADER MANUAL

```
*****
CHAPTER 1:  USING THE CROMEMCO LINKER/LOADER
*****
```

```
*****
Command Format
*****
```

The CROMEMCO Linker/Loader is used to link assembled program modules together, load them into memory, and begin execution there if desired. The Linker is supplied to the user on diskette (large or small) under the directory entry "LINK.COM". The command line to call LINK consists of a number of filenames and switches according to the following format:

```
LINK <d:filename1.ext/s,d:filename2.ext/s,...)
```

where d stands for the disk drive letter (A through D), s stands for one of the legal switches of the Linker (see list in this chapter), and filename.ext stands for a user filename plus its 3-letter extension. The only quantity required above after the word LINK is filename1. LINK defaults to the current drive if the disk drive letter is omitted, and it defaults to the extension .REL if the 3-letter extension is omitted. The switches are not necessarily required, and are used to give LINK instructions regarding the files. The Linker will accept commands in the order received, but does not require a single command line. The prompt for LINK is an asterisk, "*", any time the asterisk appears, a command may be entered. Thus, the names of files to be linked may be given one at a time rather than an one command line. The example of Chapter 4 will illustrate this further. After each line is typed, LINK will load or search the named file(s). When LINK finishes this process, it will list all symbols that remain undefined followed by an asterisk.

The switches LINK accepts give the user a variety of ways to control the linking process. For example the user may cause the Linker to search special library files to satisfy undefined globals by linking the filename to be searched followed by /S. The /M switch can be used to map a list of all defined and undefined symbols. These switches are described in the next section. Chapter 2 gives a brief explanation of the operation and format of LINK and associated .REL files for those who are interested. It may be safely skipped, however, for it contains no information on the actual use of the Linker. Chapter 3 is a brief summary of the error messages that occur and why, and Chapter 4 gives a step-by-step example of the process of linking and loading program modules.


```

+++++++
LINK Switches
+++++++

```

The Linker allows a number of switches which specify actions affecting the loading process. These switches are listed here.

```

-----
/E (Exit to CDOS)
-----

```

Exit to CDOS upon completion of link and load. Prior to exiting, LINK prints on the console the start and stop execution addresses along with tile number of 256-byte pages of memory the program occupies (in decimal), according to the following format:

```
[xxxx yyyy zz]
```

where **xxxx** is the address at which execution will start, **yyyy** is one more than the highest location used by the loaded object code, and **zz** is the decimal number of pages required.

If it is desired after executing the /E to save the file now located in memory, this can be done using the SAVE command, which is one of the CDOS intrinsic commands (see also CDOS manual). The user would then type:

```
SAVE filename.ext zz
```

where **zz** is the same number printed out by LINK above (following the issue of /E). The filename can be any legal name; however, if the name used already resides on the disk, the saved file will be written over this existing file. The 3-letter extension is frequently .COM because this procedure is often used to create command files; however, any extension may be given. Note that other CDOS INTRINSIC commands may be given before the SAVE command; for example, DIR may be typed to see about available directory space. However, executing any EXTRINSIC commands (XFER, EDIT, etc.) will change the contents of the user-area. For a 32K system, **zz=105** will save the entire user-area.

```

-----
/G (Go - start execution)
-----

```

Start execution of the program as soon as the current command line has been interpreted. Prior to execution, LINK prints on the console the start and stop addresses and the number of 256-byte pages occupied by the object code, according to the format shown above (see /E). Following this is the message "[BEGIN EXECUTION]" at which point execution is started by LINK. The Linker initializes the stack pointer at the highest address of the user-area in case this operation is forgotten by the user program.

 /M (Map all symbols)

List both all the defined globals and their values and all undefined globals followed by an asterisk. The map may be sent to the printer by typing Control-P (^P) following the LINK command line. This printer map of symbols is very useful for debugging the user-program. Once the object code has been loaded into memory by LINK, /E can be issued and the correct portion of the user-area saved in a file. Then the program DEBUG can be called and used to load and debug the file just created. The global map printed previously can be used to reference addresses.

 /R (Reset linker)

Put Loader back in its initial state. /R is used to restart LINK if the wrong file was loaded by mistake. /R will take effect as soon as it is encountered in a command string.

 /S (Search file)

Search the disk file having the filename immediately preceding the /S in the command string, to satisfy any undefined globals. This is convenient for having the Linker search a library file of much-used routines. (Note that when using LINK with CROMEMCO FORTRAN, the library file FORLIB.REL is searched automatically to satisfy undefined globals.)

 /U (list all Undefined globals)

List all undefined globals as soon as the current command line has been interpreted and executed. LINK defaults to this switch; therefore, it is generally not needed unless it is desired to reproduce this list more than once. For example say that during link the list of undefined globals is printed to the console. The user could then type Control-P followed by "/U" to cause the undefined globals to be listed a second time, this time to the printer as well as the console.

The two-byte-value following yy will be either the 16-bit offset specified or the absolute address, and the characters-of-symbol-name following zzz will be in ASCII, each character occupying eight bits.

The four-bit control field will specify the operation or function of the bit stream. It can have the following values, where the four-bit value is given in the left-hand column in decimal:

(The following LINK items have a B-field only:)

- 0 Entry Symbol (name for search).
- 1 Select COMMon Block.
- 2 Program Name.
- 3 Reserved for Future Expansion.
- 4 Reserved for Future Expansion.

(The following LINK items have both an A-field and a B-field:)

- 5 Define COMMon Size.
- 6 Chain External (A is head of address chain).
 B is name of external symbol.
- 7 Define Entry Point.
- 8 Reserved for Future Expansion.
- 9 Reserved for Future Expansion.

(The following LINK items have an A-field only:)

- 10 Define Size of Program Data Area.
- 11 Set Loding Location.
- 12 Chain Address.
 A is head of chain; replace all entries in chain with
 current location counter. The last entry in the chain
 has an aldress field of absolute zero.
- 13 Define Program Size.
- 14 End Program (forces to byte boundary).

(The following LINK item has neither an A- nor a B-field:)

- 15 End of File.

 CHAPTER 3: LINK ERROR MESSAGES

The Linker gives several error messages in case of an illegal operation. These are listed below in the summary along with an explanation of each one. Note that there are two types of error messages: fatal errors and warnings. Fatal error messages are preceded by question marks (?) and warning messages are preceded by percent signs (%). A program will run in some cases when a warning has been issued; however, it is better practice to correct the error and link again.

 Fatal Errors

?No Start Address	A /G switch is issued, but no main program module has been loaded. Remember when creating and linking machine language programs that the main module must have an address or label in its END statement. This then becomes part of the .REL file which informs LINK where to begin execution (see also the END pseudd-op).
?Loading Error	The last file given to be linked and loaded is not a properly formatted LINK object file.
?Fatal Table Collision	There is not enough memory to load the given program(s)
?Command Error	An unrecognizable LINK command has been given. Type the correct command or re-link.
?File Not Found	A file in the command string does not exist as spelled or specified. Check to see if the file resides on the specified drive. Often this message results if the user forgets to specify the drive letter, and LINK looks on the current drive.

Warnings

%2nd COMMON Larger /XXXXXX/

The first definition of COMMon block XXXXXX is not the largest. COMmons do not have to be the same size provided the module containing the larger COMMon specification is linked first so that LINK allocates an appropriate number of bytes for data storage. To prevent this error re-order the module loading sequence or change the COMMon block definitions.

%Mult. Def. Global YYYYYY

More than one definition for the global (internal) symbol YYYYYY is encountered during the loading process. This message may result if you redefine the LUN table of FORTRAN (\$LUNTB) and then link with FORLIB.REL without specifying the /S switch. The Linker then loads both the redefined version of \$LUNTB and the version contained in FORLIB.

```
*****
CHAPTER 4:  EXAMPLES OF LINKING MODULES
*****
```

Following are several examples of the process of linking, loading, saving, and executing files. The asterisk (*) in the following command lines is NOT user-typed; it is the prompt for LINK.

We would type the following command to load a 32-byte program called MYPROG into memory and begin execution:

```
LINK MYPROG/G
```

If the load is successful (no errors), the Linker will respond with the message:

```
[1000  1020   16]
[BEGIN EXECUTION]
```

This program will begin execution at 1000H. If we desired to save the program prior to execution, could type instead:

```
LINK MYPROG/E
```

to which the Linker would respond with:

```
[1000  1020   16]
```

followed by a return to CDOS and the issue of the CDOS prompt. This return to CDOS does not change the user area; hence, we could then save the program by typing:

```
SAVE MYPROG.COM 16
```

Since we have named this a .COM file, we can execute it directly from CDOS by typing the name "MYPROG".

Another example would be to link several modules together as they are loaded into memory. Suppose we have the three relocatable modules GRAPHX, MAIN, and SUBPLOT. We first type:

```
LINK <CR>
```

to which LINK responds with the asterisk. We could then type:

```
MAIN
```

The Linker would look on the current drive for MAIN and then return

the still-undefined symbols (each one followed by an asterisk) and the address at which they are referenced:

```
INITG* 122E
LINE* 164D
CURSR* 163E
STRIN* 131B
SUBROT* 147D
*
```

We then link the next module:

```
GRAPHX
```

and LINK again responds with the undefined symbols and the prompt:

```
SUBROT* 147D
*
```

Finally, we link the last module:

```
SUBROT
```

to which link responds with the prompt. We could now type /G or /E to run or exit from the program as we did in the first example. However, let's first generate a map of all the symbols using the /M LINK switch:

```
*/M
```

to which the Linker would respond:

```
INITG* 122E
LINE* 164D
CURSR* 163E
STRIN* 131B
SUBROT* 147D
PAGE 17DF
DOT 180E
ANIMT 1558
```

Note that this is similar to the map of undefined symbols; however, in this case symbols which are not used, but have been defined in one of the linked programs, are also listed.

The above example could also have been linked directly, and without producing the maps of undefined symbols, by typing the command line:

```
LINK GRAPHX,SUBPLOT,MAIN/M
```

Note also that this command line links them in a different order than the first case since all of the modules are relocatable. Thus, the map printed to the console this time would have a different address after each symbol.

The Linker can also be used to link machine language subroutines to programs written for and compiled with CROMEMCO FORTRAN IV. The assembly language subroutine should be assembled with ASMB, which forms a .REL file. The form of the link is then exactly the same as for the previous example. An important note is that LINK has been designed to automatically search FORLIB.REL, the FORTRAN Library file of subroutines. LINK looks for this file on drive A, rather than the current drive. The user can force the Linker to look for FORLIB on another drive by typing a command like:

```
LINK FORTRAN,SUBROT,B:FORLIB/S
```

where FORTRAN is the user's compiled FORTRAN program. Note the use of the /S switch following FORLIB. This tells LINK to load into memory only those routines which are actually needed rather than the entire Library. It is important to use this switch with library files in order to save memory space.

Finally, note that the user may return to CDOS at any time while using LINK (to abort the linking or loading process, for example) by typing Control-C (^C).

PART III - CROMEMCO PROGRAM DEBUGGER MANUAL

 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO DEBUG

The CROMENCO DEBUG program makes it possible to test and debug user programs. DEBUG is loaded into memory and moved to the highest memory available below CDOS. When using a 32K CDOS and DEBUG, there is 20K left for the user program.

 LOADING DEBUG

DEBUG is loaded by typing one of the following commands from CDOS.

```
DEBUG
DEBUG filename.ext
```

where "filename" is the name of the program to be tested, and "ext" is the file extension. In both cases, DEBUG is loaded into memory directly below CDOS. The CDOS jump instruction located at location 5H is changed to jump to the start of DEBUG. This allows locations 6H and 7H to still point to the lowest available memory location.

The second command above is used to load the file to be tested into memory. If the extension ("ext") is ".HEX", then the file is read as an INTEL HEX file. Any other extension is read as an absolute binary file, loaded at location 100H. **** NOTE **** DEBUG does not load relocatable files. If an extension is ".REL" it will be loaded in as if it were binary and will not be executable.

 CONTROL CHARACTERS

Control characters are used in DEBUG and TRACE to help in entering commands. These control characters are the same as CDOS uses.

Control-C (^C)	go back to CDOS
Control-H (^H)	delete character and backspace on CRT
Control-U (^U)	delete line
Control-X (^X)	delete character and echo
underscore	delete character and backspace on CRT
RUBout (DEL)	delete character and backspace on CRT

During a printing (such as from the DM command) the following characters may be used.

Control-S (^S)	stop/start printing. If printing, this character will stop the printing. If already stopped, this character will resume the printing.
break	(or any other character) will abort the printing, prompt, and wait for the next command.

+++++
 COMMAND FORMAT
 +++++

DEBUG is controlled by one and two character commands from the terminal. The format is free-form in respect to spaces. Commas may be used in place of spaces. In the following, the examples all dump memory starting at location 1000H and ending at location 10FFH.

```
DM1000 10FF (CR)
DM1000S100 (CR)
D M 1000 10FF (CR)
D M 1000 S 100 (CR)
DM1000,10FF (CR)
DM1000,S100 (CR)
D M 1000 , 10FF (CR)
```

+++++
 @ REGISTER
 +++++

DEBUG was designed to give flexibility in testing relocatable programs. The "@" register is used to tell DEBUG where the module you wish to debug is located. This address can be found from the map generated by the linking loader "LINK". To change the "@" register, type "@" (CR) on the console. The computer will then type "@-xxxx ", where xxxx is the current value of the register. The computer will then wait for a new address. If a CR only is typed, the register remains unchanged. If an address and a CR is typed, then the register will contain the new address. The "@" register may now be used as part of an address. The following example demonstrates it's use.

```
G/@ @A3 1000
```

This is an example of the go command. Break points will be set at the beginning of the current module, relative location A#H in the current module, and at location 1000H. This feature allows you to test a module without having to calculate absolute addresses.

```

*****
ADDRESS EXPRESSIONS
*****

```

For additional ease in specifying addresses an expression can be used. Within these expressions, addition, subtraction, the "@" register, and the "\$" may be used. The "\$" is the current location of the program counter (P register). If many modules are being tested, addition can be used to specify relative addresses.

G/2321+A3

The preceeding example would set a break point at relative location A3H if the module is located at 2321H.

```

*****
SWATH OPERATER
*****

```

There are two ways to specify the address range of many commands. The first is to simply list the beginning and end addresses (and where appropriate, the destination address). For example, the first command below programs the range 0 through 13FFH into PROMs starting at location E400H. The second command displays the contents of memory between addresses E400H and E402H.

PO 13FF E400
DME400 E402

Another way to do the same thing is to use the Swath operator, "S", to specify the width of the address range, rather than state the end address explicitly.

PO S1400 E400
DM E400S3

```

*****
ERRORS
*****

```

Any errors made during entering of a command may be corrected by typing Control-U (^U) to abort the line or by backspacing and correcting the line. If a CR has already been entered and DEBUG detects an error, the line will not be accepted and a "?" will be printed. Re-enter the line with the incorrect data corrected.

```
*****
CHAPTER 2:  DEBUG COMMANDS
*****
```

DEBUG and TRACE commands are described in detail below. The operator must wait for the prompt character ("-") before entering the command.

```
-----
A - Assemble into memory
-----
```

This command allows in-line assembly language to be assembled into memory. The command takes the following format.

A beginning-addr (CR)

The user is prompted with the absolute address, followed by the relative address. DEBUG reads from the console the assembler mnemonics, and assembles the instruction into memory. The mnemonics for the various Z-80 instructions can be found in the Z-80 CPU TECHNICAL MANUAL published by Mostek and Zilog. If there was no error in the instruction it is stored in memory and the User is prompted for the next instruction. The rules for address expressions apply to the addresses in the assembler mnemonics. In the following example the "@" register contains 1234H.

```
A@40
1274 0040'  ADD B
1275 0041'  CALL @93
1278 0044'  JP 1032+95
127B 0047'  .
```

The A command terminates when the first blank line or a line starting with a "." is entered from the console. If there is an error in the input line, it will not be accepted, a "?" will be printed and the console will be prompted with the addresses again.

```
-----
DM - DISPLAY MEMORY
-----
```

The contents of memory are displayed in hexadecimal form. Each line of the display is preceded by the address of the first byte and followed by the ASCII representation of the hexadecimal bytes. An example follows

```
DM100,S30
0100  40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47-48 49 4A 4B 4C 4D 4E 4F  @ABCDEFGH IJKLMNO
0110  50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57-58 59 5A 30 31 32 33 34  PQRSTU VWXYZ01234
0120  35 36 37 38 39 00 00 00-00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00  56789.....
```

The formats of this command are as follows.

```
DM (CR)
DM beginning-addr (CR)
DM beginning-addr ending-addr (CR)
DM beginning-addr S swath-width (CR)
DM,ending-addr (CR)
DM S swath-width (CR)
```

The first format displays memory from the CURRENT display address, initially 100H, and continues for 8 lines. The second format displays from the beginning address and continues for 8 lines. The third format displays from the beginning address to the ending address. The forth format displays from the beginning address for a length specified by the swath-width. The fifth format displays from the CURRENT display address to the ending address. The sixth format displays from the CURRENT display address for a length specified by the swath-width.

If an "X" is included after the "DM", the relative addresses are also printed. In the following example assume that the "@" register contains 100H.

```
DMX100,S30
0100 0000' 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47-48 49 4A 4B 4C 4D 4E 4F @ABCDEFGH IJKLMNO
0110 0010' 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57-58 59 5A 30 31 32 33 34 PQRSTUVWXYZ01234
0120 0020' 35 36 37 38 39 00 00 00-00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 56789.....
```

```
-----
DR - DISPLAY REGISTERS
-----
```

When DEBUG or is re-entered from a break point, the user registers are saved. The registers may be displayed at any time by typing the following command.

```
-DR (CR)
SZHVNCE A=00 BC=0000 DE=0000 HL=0000 S=0100 P=0100' LD E,A
SZHVNC A'=00 B'=0000 D'=0000 H'=0000 X=0000 Y=0000 I=00
```

The letters "SZHVNC" are the flags, on the second row are the prime flags. If the flag is on, it is printed, if the flag, is off, a space is printed. If only the carry and zero flag are set then " Z C" would be printed. The flags are described below.

- S - Sign flag, S=1 if the MSB of the result is one, ie, the result is negative.
- Z - Zero flag, Z=1 if the result of an operation is zero.
- H - Half-carry flag, H=1 if the add operation produced a carry into the 4th bit of the accumulator or a subtract operation produced a borrow from the 4th bit of the accumulator.
- V - Parity or overflow flag. This flag is affected by arithmetic and logical operations. If an overflow occurs during an arithmetic operation, the flag is set to one. After a logical operation, the flag is set 1 if the result of the operation has even parity.

- N - Add/subtract flag, N=1 if the last operation was a subtraction.
 C - Carry flag, C=1 if the operation produced a carry.

The E flag on the first line is the state of the interrupt enable flip-flop (IFF). If interrupts are enabled, the "E" is printed, otherwise a space is printed.

The A register is printed next, followed by the BC, DE, and HL register pairs and the stack pointer. The program counter value is then printed in both absolute and relative. The opcode pointed to by the program counter is then displayed as an instruction.

On the second line, the prime registers are displayed, F' (prime flags), A', BC', DE', and HL'. The IX, IY, and I (interrupt page) registers are printed next. If the disassembled opcode includes an address, the relative value of this address is printed as the last thing on the line.

```
-DR (CR)
S H NCE A=00 BC=0000 DE=0000 HL=0000 S=0000 P=1234 0010' CALL 1334
SZ  NC A'=00 B'=0000 D'=0000 H'=0000 X=0000 Y=0000 I=00      (0110')
```

```
-----
E - EXAMINE INPUT PORT
-----
```

The data port is read and displayed as a hexadecimal number. The format of the command is

E data-port (CR)

In the following example the data part 3 is read and displayed on the console.

```
-E3 (CR)
23
```

```
-----
EJ - EJECT DISK
-----
```

The format of the command follows.

EJ d

The d is the disk number (A, B, C, D). If the designated disk is a CROMEMCO DUAL DISK SYSTEM model PFD, with the eject option, the diskette in the disk drive will eject.

 F - SPECIFY FILE NAME

This command allows the operator to insert filenames in the two default FCBs (at 5CH and 6CH) and the command line into the default buffer (at 80H). The example below loads FILE1.COM into the first FCB and FILE2.COM into the second FCB. The complete line is also loaded into the default buffer.

-FFILE1.COM FILE2.COM OPTION1 OPTION2

This command can be used with the "R" command to read in disk files.

 G - GO

The GO command has the following format.

G(starting-addr)/(breakpoint-1) (breakpoint-2)...(breakpoint-5)

Each of the addresses are optional. If the starting address is omitted, then the contents of the Program Counter is used. The registers are loaded from the user registers (these are the values displayed with the DR command). Execution begins with the starting address or the contents of the program counter. If break points were specified, a RST 30H is inserted at the break point addresses and a jump instruction is placed at location 30H. When a breakpoint is executed, control is returned to DEBUG, and all of the user registers are saved (the registers may then be displayed with the DR command). All breakpoints are then removed from the user program. The program counter is displayed after the breakpoint. Note the following about breakpoints:

(a) Breakpoints can only be set in programs residing in RAM. This is because a RST 30H is inserted at each break point location. (The original contents of these locations are saved so that they can be restored after a break point is executed.)

(b) Up to 5 break points can be set. If an attempt is made to enter more than 5 break points, the command will not be accepted.

(c) When a break point is used, a jump instruction is stored at location 30H. Therefore locations 30H, 31H, and 32H are not available to a user program.

The GO command has an additional feature that is very helpful in debugging a program. A count is allowed for each break-point. This count is entered after the break-point and enclosed in parentheses. This count is the number of times the program reaches this address before control is returned to DEBUG. A count of one says to break the next time the address is reached. In the example below execution begins at location 100H and will break when address 109H is reached for the second time or when 123H is reached for the first time.

-G100/109(2) 123

Note that 123 and 123(1) means the same thing. Also note that the count is a hexadecimal number. Therefore 123(F) means to break after the address has been executed for the 15th time.

H - HEXADECIMAL ARITHMETIC

Hexadecimal addition and subtraction may be performed by this command. The first number to be printed is the sum of the two input numbers. The second number to be printed is the difference between the first number and the second number. In the example following, the first number is 1234 + 321, and the second number is 1234 - 321.

```
-H1234,321
1555 0F13
```

L - LIST IN ASSEMBLER MNEMONICS

The list command is used to list the contents of memory in assembly language mnemonics. The formats for this command are.

```
L (CR)
L starting-addr (CR)
L starting-addr ending-addr (CR)
L starting-addr S swath-width (CR)
L,ending-addr (CR)
L S swath-width (CR)
```

The first format lists 16 lines of disassembled code starting from the current list address. The second format lists 16 lines from the starting address. The third format lists from the starting address to the ending address. The fourth format lists from the starting address for a length specified by the swath width. The fifth format lists from the current list address to the ending address. The sixth format lists from the current address for a length specified by the swath address.

The first address of the disassembly is the absolute address. The second address is the relative address. If the disassembled instruction contains an address, the absolute address is printed in the instruction in hexadecimal and the relative address is printed to the right of the disassembled line. In the example that follows, the "@" register contains 2800H.

```
-L@800 812
3000 0800'  ADD  B
3001 0801'  CALL 3200          (0A00')
3004 0804'  CALL 3243          (0A43')
3007 0807'  CALL 3333          (0B33')
300A 080A'  LD   A,B
300D 080B'  OR   C
300C 080C'  JR   Z,3000        (0B00')
300F 080F'  INC  HL
3010 0810'  INC  DE
3011 0811'  INC  BC
3012 0812'  LD   A,H
```

M - MOVE MEMORY

The formats of this command follow.

M source-addr source-end destination-addr
M source-addr S swath-width destination-addr

The first format moves the contents of memory beginning with the source address and ending with the source-end to the destination address. The second format uses the swath width to determine the length of the move.

The move is verified to insure that all bytes were moved correctly. If an overlapping move was made, errors will be reported. The error reporting can be terminated by typing any character.

The move command can be used to fill a block of memory with a constant. In the following example, a zero has been entered into location 100H using the SM command. The following command will move zeros from location 100H through 108H.

-M100 S7 101

Care should be taken not to move memory over DEBUG, TRACE or CDOS.

O - OUTPUT TO DATA PORT

This command outputs data to a data port. The following is the command format.

O data-byte port-number (CR)

P - PROGRAM PROMS

This command allows programming of PROMS. The following are the command formats.

P source-addr source-end destination-addr
P source-addr S swath-width destination-addr

The first format programs PROMs starting with the source address and ending with the source-end into PROMs beginning at the destination address. The second format determines the length from the swath width.

If the length of the source is not a multiple of 400H or if the destination does not begin at a 400H boundry DEBUG will reject the command. (Multiples of 400H end in '000', '400', '800', and 'C00'.)

Any number of 2708 or 2704 PROMs can be programmed in the execution of one command as long as there are enough BYTESAVERS to contain them. Each PROM is verified with its source after all are programmed and any discrepancies are printed out. If no discrepancies are found, a prompt is printed and the next command may be entered.

Software can be loaded into a PROM in as small increments as you desire, provided it is added to previously unused areas of the PROM. This is done by first using the Move command, "M", to transfer the contents of the PROM to RAM, adding the new software to an area of RAM which corresponds to the unused portion of the PROM and finally using the Program command, "P", to reprogram the PROM with the result. Although the entire PROM must always be programmed, it never hurts to rewrite the same data over again. In general, a 1 may be written over a 1, a 0 over either a 1 or a 0, but the only way to change 0's to 1's is to erase the PROM with appropriate UV light. (See the BYTESAVER manual for details.)

R - READ DISK FILE

This command allows the operator to read a disk file. The "R" command is used with the "F" command. The "F" command is used to specify the filename, and the "R" command reads in the file. If the file has an extension of ".HEX", then the file is an INTEL HEX file and will be read into memory. Any other file is considered to be a binary file and will be read directly into memory beginning at location 100H. The format of the "R" commands is

R
R displacement

The first format reads the file with no displacement. The second format reads the file with a displacement. If the input file is in HEX, then the displacement is added to the addresses in the file to determine the addresses at which to store the file. If the file is a binary file, it will be stored at the displacement + 100H.

When the "R" command is executed, DEBUG prints either a "?" if there is an error (file not found, checksum error, or file attempting to read above highest available memory location) or with the following message if there is no error.

NEXT = xxxx

Where xxxx is the address of the next available memory location past the end of the file.

SM - SUBSTITUTE MEMORY

This command is used to substitute memory. The format of the command follows.

SM starting-addr

DEBUG prints the absolute address, followed by the relative address, followed by the contents of the memory byte. One of the following may then be entered.

- (a) data-byte value. The data byte value is stored at the address of the prompt. The address is then incremented by 1 and displayed on the next line.
- (b) string enclosed in quotes. The string is stored beginning at the address of the prompt. The address is then incremented past the string and displayed on the next line.
- (c) Any number of (a) and (b) above can be entered on one line. The address is then incremented past the bytes that were stored and the now address is displayed on the next line.
- (d) "-". A minus sign does not store a byte. The address will be decremented to the previous address. The minus sign can be used to "back up" to a previous location in case an error has been made.
- (e) (CR) only. If no entry is made on the line, the memory byte remains unchanged. The address is incremented by 1 and displayed on the next line.
- (f) period. A period ends the input mode and returns to the command level.

In the example that follows, assume that the "@" register contains the value 2800H.

```
-SM@100
2900 0100' 32 0
2901 0101' 17 00
2902 0102' 31 'THIS IS AN ASCII STRING'
2919 0119' 7A 'AAAA' 0 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
2928 0128' 22
2929 0129' 29
292A 012A' 87 -
2929 0129' 29 .
```

 SR - SUBSTITUTE REGISTER

The Sr command allows the user registers to be altered. The letter "r" stands for the register which is to be changed. The section SUMMARY OF REGISTER NAMES gives a summary of the names that can be substituted. When substituting the F and F' flags, enter the command SF or SF'. DEBUG will then print the flags that are set and wait for the operator to enter the names of the registers that are to be set. If the flags are not entered, the flags are reset. In the following example, the "SZHC" flags are set. After the example is executed the "ZC" flags are set. The lower case, letters are entered by the operator.

```
-sf
SZH C  zc
```

When substituting a one byte register, a one byte value is accepted. When substituting a two byte register, a two byte value is accepted. If no value is entered, or if an error occurs, the value of the register remains unchanged. In the following example, the A register is changed to contain 41H.

```
-sa
A=98 41
```

T - TRACE

The format of trace is

T (CR)
T number-of-lines (CR)

The first format traces the program through one instruction. The second format traces the program through "number-of-lines" instructions. After every instruction traced, the values of the user registers are printed in the same format as the "DR" command.

You can trace only through RAM. The trace command places a break point after the instruction, loads the registers and executes the instruction. The break point is then executed and the registers are resaved. The registers are printed, and the next instruction is executed unless the count has reached zero, in which case a prompt is printed and you may enter the next command.

To abort the trace, hit any key on the console. A prompt will be printed and you may enter the next command.

TN - TRACE WITH NO PRINTING

The "TN" command is the same as the "T" command with the exception that after every instruction is traced, the registers are not printed. Only the last traced instruction is printed.

V - VERIFY MEMORY

Verify that the block of memory between source address and source end contain the same value as the block beginning at destination address. The addresses and contents are printed for each discrepancy found. The following is the format of this command.

V source-addr source-end destination-addr
V source-addr S swath-width destination-addr

This command works by reading bytes from the source and destination and comparing them. If a discrepancy is found, the memory is read again for print-out. Thus, it can happen that a discrepancy is printed-out with the source and the destination contents indicated to be the same. This is caused by a defective memory element.

A discrepancy is printed in the following order, source address, source contents, destination contents, destination address. In the example that follows, memory locations 1003H and 1008H are defective.

-V 0 S30 1000
0003 32 12 1003
0000 7A 5A 1008
-

```
*****
CHAPTER 3: SUMMARY OF DEBUG COMMANDS
*****
```

The following is an alphabetical list of the DEBUG commands.

Command -----	Description -----
A	Assemble into memory
DM	Display Memory
DR	Display Register
E	Examine input port
EJ	EJect disk
F	specify disk File name
G	Go
H	Hexadecimal arithmetic
L	List in assembler mnemonics
M	Move memory
O	Output to data port
P	Program PROMs
R	Read disk file
SM	Substitute Memory
Sr	Substitute register
T	Trace
TN	Trace with No print (DEBUG only)
V	Verify memory

```

*****
SUMMARY OF REGISTER NAMES
*****

```

The following register names are printed by the DM command and should be used with the Sr command.

Register	Description
-----	-----
F	Flags, the following flags may be changed. S - Sign flag Z - Zero flag H - Half carry flag V - parity/oVerflow flag N - subtraction flag C - Carry flag
	The interrupt enable flag ("E") may also be changed.
F'	The F' flags are the same as the "F" flags. (note that the "E" flag may not be changed here.)
A	accumulator
A'	prime accumulator
B	BC register pair
B'	BC' register pair
D	DE register pair
D'	DE' register pair
H	HL register pair
H'	HL' register pair
S	Stack pointer
P	Program counter
X	IX register
Y	IY register
I	Interrupt page register

PART IV - CDOS PROGRAMMER'S MANUAL

```
*****
CHAPTER 1:  INTRODUCTION TO CDOS SYSTEM CALLS
*****
```

This section of the manual describes the use of CDOS system calls. CDOS handles disk files, performs device input and output, and contains a number of useful subroutines.

```
*****
Memory Allocation
*****
```

CDOS resides in high memory. It reserves memory below 100H for its own use. The user is left all memory from 100H to the beginning of CDOS (see below).

A program with the extent ".COM" can be loaded and executed by merely typing the program name. The program must have its origin at 100H because that is where CDOS loads and executes it. (Note that when saving files that have been linked using the CROMEMCO Linker, they can be ORGed anywhere because LINK automatically puts the correct jump instruction at 100H.) After it is loaded, the program can use any memory at all. Note however, that if it alters the CDOS areas, it will have no way of communicating with the disk or returning to CDOS. (CDOS would have to be reloaded by resetting the computer.)

CDOS places a jump instruction at bytes 0, 1 and 2. If a jump is made to location 0, the CDOS warm start, control will be returned with the prompt for the current drive (eg, "A."). Command lines may then be entered from the console keyboard. CDOS places another jump instruction at locations 5, 6 and 7. The normal way to make system requests of CDOS (those described below) is to call location 5. The address stored at locations 6 and 7 is the address of the beginning of CDOS and thus marks the upper limit of user memory.

The following address map describes the memory area from 0 to 0FFH. All addresses are in hex.

0...2	CDOS re-entry
3	I/O byte
4	reserved
5...7	system request call
8...40	interrupt vectors
40...5B	reserved
5C...6B	default File Control Block 1 (FCB-1)
6C...7B	default File Control Block 2 (FCB-2)
7C...7F	reserved
80...FF	default command-line buffer

When a .COM program is run by typing the program name on the console, the default command-line buffer and default file control blocks are used as follows. FCB-1 will contain the first filename, if any, typed after the program name. FCB-2 will contain the second filename, if any. The default buffer will contain the entire command line following the program name. For example, if this command line is typed:

```
PROG FILE1.Z80 FILE2.COM
```

CDOS will place "FILE1Z80" in FCB-1, "FILE2COM" in FCB-2, " FILE1.Z80 FILE2.COM" in the command-line buffer, and load and execute PROG.COM at 100H. Note that the second FCB starts before the end of the first FCB. Before using FCB-1, FCB-2 should be moved. If it is not moved, part of FCB-1 will be destroyed.

The command line which is placed in the default buffer can be used to send more than two filenames to a program, or to start execution of a program with various options specified. For the following command line:

```
PROG FILE1.Z80 FILE2.COM OPTION1 OPTION2
```

the string of ASCII characters " FILE1.Z80 FILE2.COM OPTION1 OPTION2" will be stored beginning at location 81H. The byte at location 80H will contain the length of the string. The byte following the string will contain a null (00). PROG.COM can then look at the command line stored in the default buffer to determine which options were specified.

When a program is loaded, the disk buffer is set to 80H, which is the default command buffer. If the disk is then read to or written from, this buffer will be altered. The program must either reset the disk buffer to another area or move the command line before accessing the disk, if it is desired to save the command line.

```
*****
CHAPTER 2:  DEVICE I/O - LIST OF CDOS SYSTEM CALLS
*****
```

CDOS has a set of system calls for device input and output. ALL input and output should be done through these calls. This allows user programs to be independent of physical devices. If a change needs to be made in a device driver, it has only to be done once in the system drivers. This chapter gives a detailed description of the CDOS system calls. They are roughly divided into three sections: the first section covers device I/O, where all devices are included except disk drives. The next section covers the system calls used to access disk files (disk I/O, opening and closing files, etc.) The last section covers several useful additional calls. To use one of these routines the C register must be set to the function number given below with the title of each instruction. The other registers are set-up as that function requires (for example the E or DE registers usually contain the parameter passed), and a "CALL 5" instruction is executed. [Remember that CDOS initializes location 5 with a jump instruction. This is done so that the location of CDOS in memory is transparent to a user program. A user program using the CDOS system functions does therefore not need to do a CALL to a particular address in CDOS.] For a complete summary of the CDOS system calls, refer to Chapter 3. The system calls given below are in numerical order in each of the three sections.

```
*****
CDOS DEVICE FUNCTION CALLS
*****
```

These system calls involve device I/O with all devices except disk drives. The number given preceding each CDOS function is the number which should be loaded into the C register prior to the "CALL 5". The number is given first in hex and then in decimal in parentheses.

```
-----
1 - READ CONSOLE (with echo)
-----
```

This call is used to retrieve one byte from the console. The byte will be returned in the A register. CDOS does not return to the user program until a character is read and echoed back to the console. The parity bit is set to 0. Note that a Control-Z (^Z) character is usually considered an end of file mark.

 2 - WRITE CONSOLE

This call is used to write one ASCII character to the console. The character is placed in the E register before the call. CDOS will wait until the console is ready to receive the character and then print it.

After Control-P (^P) is typed all subsequent characters are sent to both the console and the printer, until a second control-P is typed (thus Control-P acts as a toggle switch). Control-W also causes subsequent characters to be sent to both the console and the printer, and Control-T causes them to be sent only to the console again. Control-W and Control-T are usually edited into a file so that when that file is typed out on the console, it can stop and start the printer at the appropriate places.

Control-I is the tab control. It is converted to spaces so that the cursor is positioned at one of the standard tab stops, 1, 9, 17, 25, 33, 41,... However, the tab is still stored internally in a file as the single ASCII character, 09H.

 3 - READ READER

This call will read one character from the paper tape reader. All 8 bits are read. The character will be returned in the A register. If it is the end-of-file character (Control-Z), the ZERO flag is set.

 4 - WRITE PUNCH

This call will punch one character on the paper tape punch. All 8 bits are punched. The character is placed in the E register before the call. CDOS will wait until the punch is ready to receive the character.

 5 - WRITE LIST

This call will print a character on the printer. Before the call, the character to be printed is placed in the E-register. Tabs are not expanded. CDOS will wait for the printer to accept the character before it returns.

 7 - GET I/O BYTE

For extra I/O devices, an "IOBYTE" has been provided. This byte is not currently used by CDOS, but it is provided for the user's programs. This function call returns the "IOBYTE" in the A register. The format of the byte is:

BIT	:	7	:	6	:	5	:	4	:	3	:	2	:	1	:	0	:
	:	PRN	:	PUNCH	:	READER	:	CONSOLE	:		:		:		:		:

Thus up to eight consoles can be designated, four each of paper-tape punch and reader, and one printer.

 8 - SET I/O BYTE

This call allows the user program to set the "IOBYTE". The E register contains the byte prior to the call. See above for the format of the byte.

 9 - PRINT BUFFER

This call will print a string of ASCII characters which has been terminated with the "\$" character. The DE register pair is set up with the address of the beginning of the string before the call is made to CDOS. If the printer toggle is on, the message will also be sent to the printer.

 10 (0AH) - INPUT BUFFERED LINE

This call will read an input line from the console. The DE register must be pointing to an available buffer before the call is made to CDOS. The first byte of the buffer must contain the maximum length of the buffer. On return from this call the second byte of the buffer will contain the actual length entered. The line that is input will be stored beginning at the third byte. If the buffer is not full, the byte at the end of the line will contain a zero.

When the line is being entered, the following characters will have a special meaning:

Control-C (^C)	Abort. Warm boot back to CDOS.
Control-E (^E)	Physical CR-LF. The line is not terminated and nothing is entered into the buffer. This character is used to enter a line longer than can be printed on the console.
Control-P (^P)	Toggle printer/console link. When this character is first typed, the link is toggled ON. All characters will then be sent to the console and the printer. The next time the character is typed, the toggle will be turned off. All characters will then be sent to the console only.
Control-R (^R)	Repeat what has been typed so far on the line.
Control-U (^U)	Delete the entered line and go back to beginning of buffer for new line.
Control-X (^X)	Delete the previous character and echo the deleted character (used for hard-copy terminals).
RUBout	Delete the previous character and back up the cursor (used for CRT terminals).
DEL	Same as RUBout.
Underscore	Same as RUBout.
Backspace (^H)	Same as RUBout.

 11 (OBH) - TEST CONSOLE READY

The console is tested to see if a character has been typed. If a character has been typed, 0FFH is returned in the A register. If no character has been typed, 0 is returned in the A register.

 128 (80H) - READ CONSOLE (without echo)

This call is the same as "READ CONSOLE (with echo)" except that it does not echo the character after it is read. The byte is returned in the A register.

 142 (BEH) - SET CURSOR ADDRESS

This call will set the cursor at the specified address. This command will only work when the console is a CRT with cursor addressing. The D register is set up with the column address (1 through 80 for most CRT's) and the E register is set up with the row address (1 through 24 for most CRT's).

+++++
 CDOS DISK FUNCTION CALLS
 +++++

CDOS divides the disk into regions called files. Files are referenced through file control blocks (FCBs). FCBs are 33 bytes long and have the following format, where each of the numbers below stands for one byte:

FCBDK	Disk descriptor	0	(0=current disk, 1=drive-A, 2=B, 3=C, 4=D)
FCBFN	File name	1...8	(right-filled with blanks)
FCBFT	File type (extension)	9...11	(right-filled with blanks)
FCBEX	File extent	12	(initially 0; is incremented by one in every new extent of 16 Kbytes)
	Reserved	13...14	
FCBRC	Record count	15	(total number of 128-byte sectors or records)
FCBMP	Cluster allocation map	16...31	(allocated clusters 2 through 240)
FCBNR	Next record	32	(next record to be read or written; has the value 0 through 127)

It should be noted that directory entries on the disk consist of 32-byte FCBs. The last byte, FCBNR, which points to the next record, is omitted.

 12 (0CH) - DESELECT CURRENT DISK

The current disk is deselected. The CDOS disk driver can be changed to perform any desired function at this time to deselect the disk. Currently the driver outputs a 0 to port 34H when this function is selected.

 13 (ODH) - RESET CDOS AND SELECT DRIVE A

CDOS is initialized, all disks are logged-off, and drive A is selected as the current drive. The other disks will be logged-on again as soon as they are accessed.

 14 (0EH) - SELECT DISK DRIVE

The disk drive number in the A register is selected as the current disk. The drive number in the A register is 0 for drive A, 1 for drive B, 2 for drive C, or 3 for drive D.

 15 (0FH) - OPEN DISK FILE

The FCB pointed to by the DE register pair is opened to allow reading or writing to the file whose name is specified in the FCB. The A register returns with -1 (OFFH or 255D) if the file is not found, or the directory block number if the file is found. Block numbers start at 0 and there is one block number for every four directory entries. The HL register pair returns pointing to the directory entry in memory.

 16 (10H) - CLOSE FILE

The FCB pointed to by the DE register pair is closed and the disk directory is updated. The file described by the FCB must have been previously opened or created; if it has not been, an unpredictable directory entry will be written to the disk. A file to which bytes have just been written MUST be closed using this function or the entire last extent will be unable to be read.

 17 (11H) - SEARCH DIRECTORY

The directory is searched for the first occurrence of the file specified in the FCB pointed to by the DE register pair. ASCII "?" (3FH) in the FCB matches any character. The block number (see description of directory block numbers in 0FH - Open Disk File, above) is returned in the A register if found, if the file is not found, -1 (OFFH or 255D) is returned in A. HL is returned pointing to the directory entry in memory. An important point to note about this call and the one following (12H) is that they will get the directory entry whether it has been erased or not; ie, these calls do not check to see if a file has been erased. Files are erased by placing a 0E5H in the first byte (FCBDK); the rest of the FCB is left unchanged.

 18 (12H) - FIND NEXT DIRECTORY ENTRY

This call is the same as 11H (17) above except that it finds the NEXT occurrence of the filename in the directory. This may be either the next extent of a file occupying more than one extent, or another filename if the match-character, "?", was used in the FCB. This call is made after function 17 and no other disk system call can be made between these calls.

 19 (13H) - DELETE FILE

The file specified by the FCB pointed to by the DE register pair is deleted from the disk directory. ASCII "?" in the FCB matches any character. The number of directory entries deleted is returned in the A register.

 20 (14H) - READ NEXT RECORD

The DE register pair points to a successfully OPENED FCB. The next record (128 bytes) is read into the current disk buffer. The FCBNR in the FCB is incremented to read the next record. One of the following codes is returned in the A register:

- 0 - read completed
- 1 - end of file
- 2 - read attempted on unwritten cluster
 (random access file only)

 21 (15H) - WRITE NEXT RECORD

The DE register pair points to a successfully OPENED FCB. The next record (128 bytes) is written into the file from the current disk buffer. The FCBNR in the FCB is incremented to be ready to write the next record. One of the following codes is returned in the A register:

- 0 - write completed
- 1 - extent error (attempted to close an unopened extent)
- 2 - out of disk space (limited to 81K - small, 241K - large)
- 1 (0FFH or 255D)
 - out of directory space (limited to 64 extents)

 22 (16H) - CREATE FILE

The file specified in the FCB pointed to by the DE register pair is created on the disk. The A register is returned containing the block number of the directory entry (see 0FH - Open Disk File), or -1 (0FFH or 255) if no more directory space is available.

 23 (17H) - RENAME FILE

This call will rename a disk file. The DE register pair points to the FCB to be renamed. The old file name and file type are in the first 16 bytes and the new file name and file type are in the second 16 bytes of the FCB. ASCII "?" in the FCB will match with any character. The A register returns containing the number of directory entries renamed.

 24 (18H) - DISK LOG-IN VECTOR

The A register is returned, specifying the disks that are logged-in. Each bit represents one disk drive logged-in. If the bit is a one, then it is logged-in; else it is offline. The least significant bit is the A drive, next most significant (Bit 1) is drive B, etc. Since there would be no more than four drives, the upper four bits are 0's.

 25 (19H) - CURRENT DISK

The number of the current disk drive is returned in the A register.
 0 = drive A, 1 = drive B, 2 = drive C, 3 = drive D.

 26 (1AH) - SET DISK BUFFER

The buffer pointed to by the DE register pair is used for disk I/O. When a program is loaded, the disk buffer is initially located at 80H.

 27 (1BH) - DISK CLUSTER ALLOCATION MAP

The BC register pair returns pointing to a bit map that corresponds to the allocated clusters on the disk. The DE register pair returns containing the capacity of the current disk in number of clusters. The A register returns containing the number of records or sectors per cluster (8). This system call is used by "STAT".

 131 (83H) - READ LOGICAL BLOCK

This system call will read a logical block from the disk without any attention to the files it may contain (ie, no FCB is specified). A block is defined to be one sector or record of 128 bytes. When this function is called, the DE register pair should contain the block number and the B register should contain the disk number (0 for current drive, 1-4 for A-D). The high bit of the B register contains a 1 for an interleaved and a 0 for a non-interleaved read. Interleaved means the block which is read is found in the order CDOS stores it (every fifth sector for small disks and every sixth sector for large disks). Non-interleaved means the block which is read is found in sequential order, the order it is physically stored on the disk. The A register is returned with the status of the read according to the following:

- 0 - OK
- 1 - I/O error
- 2 - illegal request
- 3 - illegal block

An example will help to illustrate these points. CDOS makes use of 716 sectors on the small floppy disks. Therefore, the block numbers which could legally be loaded into the DE register are 0 through 715 decimal, or 0 through 2CBH. Suppose that DE is loaded with the Value 2 and the B register with 0 (current disk, not-interleaved read). Thus, since the sectors are numbered beginning with 1, sector 3 would be read into memory in the disk buffer (located at 80H if it has not been changed). The same read with the B register loaded with 80H (current disk, interleaved read) would read sector 0BH (the third sector when they are read every fifth one).

 132 (84H) - WRITE LOGICAL BLOCK

This system call will write a logical block or sector to the disk without any attention to the file there (no FCB is specified). The registers are set up and returned in the same way as they were for the Read Logical Block system call above.

 134 (86H) - FORMAT NAME TO FCB

This system call will build a File Control Block. The HL register pair points to the start of the input line. The DE register points to the place in memory where the FCB is to be built. The input line is of the format:

d:filename.ext

where d stands for one of A-D, the filename is up to 8 letters with a 3-letter extension. The FCB is then built from this input line, converting lower case to upper case. The input line is terminated by an ASCII "/" or any character less than 21H (such as a space or carriage return).

On return the HL register pair points to the terminator that ended the build operation. The DE register pair points to the start of the new FCB.

 135 (87H) - UPDATE DIRECTORY ENTRY

The last disk I/O function called must have been function 17 or 18, Search Directory or Find Next Entry. The DE register pair points to the FCB used in the function call 17 or 18. The directory entry is then updated on the disk; this means that the entry is written back to the disk without the user having to specify a block. The user merely specifies a filename when calling 17 or 18. This is useful if it is desired to change a directory entry and write it back to the disk.

 139 (8BH) - HOME DISK

The disk drive specified in the B register (0 for current drive and 1-4 for drives A-D) is sent a command to "home" the head. The disk drive head will return to track 0.

 140 (BCH) - EJECT DISK

This call will eject the disk whose number is given in the E register (0 for current drive and 1-4 for drives A-D, respectively), only if the disk drive is a CROMEMCO Dual Disk Drive System, Model PFD with the eject option. Otherwise, the call will have no effect.

 ADDITIONAL SYSTEM CALLS

Several additional CDOS system calls have been added for the programmer's convenience. These calls are explained in this section.

 0 - ABORT

This call will abort the current program and return control to CDOS. This call has the same effect as jumping to location 0.

 129 (81H) - GET USER REGISTER POINTER

This call is provided for future expansion of CDOS to a multiprogramming system. The BC register pair returns pointing to the user register pointers.

 130 (82H) - SET USER CONTROL-C ABORT

When Control-C (^C) is typed, the system usually aborts and returns control to CDOS. This call allows the programmer to assign an address to which to jump when Control-C is typed (ie, users can assign their own function to Control-C). The address is given in the DE register pair. Note that if DE contains a zero, the system abort is reset. Jumping to location 0 at any time still causes a return to CDOS, also with the Control-C being restored to its original function.

 136 (88H) - LINK TO PROGRAM

This enables one command program to call another. The default command-line buffer and default FCBs for the new program must be set up prior to this call if that program expects to be able to use them. The DE register pair should contain the address of the

FCB of the new program (which must have an extension of ".COM"). If the new program is NOT found, the A register returns containing -1 (0FFH or 255); also in this case the first 80H bytes (from 100H to 17FH) will be destroyed because this is used in reading the directory. Otherwise, execution begins at 100H and no return is made to the original program.

 137 (89H) - MULTIPLY

This system call provides a 16-bit multiply. The HL and DE register pairs contain the two 16-bit factors, and the answer is returned in register DE (ie, $DE = DE * HL$).

 138 (8AH) - DIVIDE

This system call provides a 16-bit divide. The HL register pair should contain the dividend, and the DE register pair, the divisor. The quotient is returned in HL, and the remainder in DE (ie, $HL = HL / DE$ with $DE = \text{remainder}$). DE contains the remainder.

 141 (8DH) - GET VERISION NUMBER

This call will return the version-number of CDOS in the B register and the release-number in the C register.

 CHAPTER 3: SUMMARY OF CDOS FUNCTION CALLS

Following is a summary table listing all the system calls described in Chapter 2 along with their entry and return parameters. The functions are listed in numerical order, ie, by order of the number which is loaded into the C register to achieve the desired function.

NUMBER	FUNCTION	ENTRY PARAMETERS	RETURN PARAMETERS
0	ABORT	none	none
1	READ CONSOLE (with echo)	none	A = character
2	WRITE CONSOLE	E = character	none
3	READ READER	none	A = character Z flag set = end of file
4	WRITE PUNCH	E = character	none
5	WRITE LIST	E = character	none
7	GET I/O BYTE	none	A = I/O byte
8	SET I/O BYTE	E = I/O byte	none
9	PRINT BUFFER	DE = buffer address	none
10 (0AH)	INPUT BUFFERED LINE	DE = buffer address	none
11 (0BH)	TEST CONSOLE READY	none	A = OFFH (-1) if ready A = 0 if not ready
12 (0CH)	DESELECT CURRENT DISK	none	none
13 (0DH)	RESET CDOS AND SELECT DRIVE A	none	none
14 (0EH)	SELECT DISK	E = disk drive	none
15 (0FH)	OPEN DISK FILE	DE = FCB address	A = directory block A = OFFH if not found
16 (10H)	CLOSE FILE	DE = FCB address	none
17 (11H)	SEARCH DIRECTORY	DE = FCB address	A = directory block A = OFFH if not found
18 (12H)	FILE NEXT ENTRY	DE = FCB address	A = directory block A = OFFH if not found
19 (13H)	DELETE FILE	DE = FCB address	A = number of entries deleted
20 (14H)	READ NEXT RECORD	DE = FCB address	A = 0 if ok A = 1 if end of file A = 2 if tried to read unwritten records
21 (15H)	WRITE NEXT RECORD	DE = FCB address	A = 0 if ok A = 1 if extent error A = 2 if out of disk space A = -1 (OFFH) if out of directory space

NUMBER	FUNCTION	ENTRY PARAMETERS	RETURN PARAMETERS
22 (16H)	CREATE FILE	DE = FCB address	A = directory block A = 0FFH if not found
23 (17H)	RENAME FILE	DE = FCB address	A = number of entries renamed
24 (18H)	DISK LOG-IN VECTOR	none	A = those disks logged-in
25 (19H)	CURRENT DISK	none	A = disk number
26 (1AH)	SET DISK BUFFER	DE = buffer address	none
27 (1BH)	DISK CLUSTER ALLOCATION MAP	none	BC = address of bitmap DE = number of clusters A = sectors/cluster
128 (80H)	READ CONSOLE (with no echo)	none	A = character
129 (81H)	GET USER REGISTER POINTER	none	BC = pointer to user register pointerrs
130 (82H)	SET USER CONTROL-C ABORT	DE = address	none
131 (83H)	READ LOGICAL BLOCK	DE = block number B = disk number B top bit = 1 if interleaved	A = 0 if ok A = 1 if I/O error A = 2 if illegal request A = 3 if illegal block
132 (84H)	WRITE LOGICAL BLOCK	DE = block number B = disk number B top bit = 1 if interleaved	A = 0 if ok A = 1 if I/O error A = 2 if illegal request A = 3 if illegal block
134 (86H)	FORMAT NAME TO FCB	HL = address of string	HL = address of terminator
135 (87H)	UPDATE DIRECTORY ENTRY	DE = FCB address DE = FCB address	DE = FCB address none
136 (88H)	LINK TO PROGRAM	DE = FCB address	A = -1 if error, else execute at 100H
137 (89H)	MULTIPLY	DE = factor 1 HL = factor 2	DE = product
138 (8AH)	DIVIDE	HL = dividend DE = divisor	HL = quotient DE = remainder
139 (8BH)	HOME DISK	B = disk number	none
140 (8CH)	EJECT DISK	E = disk number	none
141 (8DH)	GET VERSION	none	B = version-number C = release-number
142 (8EH)	SET CURSOR ADDRESS	D = column address E = row address	none

```
*****  
PART V - ASSEMBLER LIBRARY ROUTINES  
*****
```



```
*****
CHAPTER 1:  ROUTINES AVAILABLE IN ASMLIB
*****
```

The library file "ASMLIB.REL" has been provided for your use in assembly language programming. There are three types of routines (decimal conversion, hexadecimal conversion, and character I/O). An example of how to add these routines to your program follows.

```
LINK PROG,ASMLIB/S/G
```

This example will load a program called "PROG" and then load only the routines in "ASMLIB" that are required. See Part II on LINK for more information.

```
*****
DECIMAL CONVERSION
*****
```

```
-----
ADEC - DECIMAL TO BINARY CONVERSION
-----
```

This routine will convert a decimal string to a binary number. The following example will illustrate how to use this routine.

```
LD      BC,STRING      ;point to ASCII string
CALL    ADEC            ;convert to binary
```

The routine will return with the HL register pair containing the 16-bit binary number and the BC register pair pointing to the first non-digit.

```
-----
BINDF, BINDB, BINDS, BIND - CONVERT BINARY TO DECIMAL
-----
```

These routines will convert a binary number into a decimal string. The routine "BINDF" will zero fill, "BINDB" will fill with spaces, "BINDS" will suppress printing of leading zeros, and "BIND" will fill with the character in the A register. In the following example leading zeros will be printed as "*"s.

```
LD      HL,STRING      ;store ASCII string here
LD      BC,(BINARY)    ;this is binary number
LD      A,'*'          ;fill character
CALL    BIND            ;convert to ASCII string
```

Six bytes must be reserved for the string, unless "BINDS" is used, in which case this routine will use only the number of bytes that are not leading zeros.

```
*****
HEXADECIMAL CONVERSION
*****
```

```
-----
AHEX - ASCII TO HEX CONVERSION
-----
```

This routine will convert a hexadecimal string to a binary number. The calling sequence is

```
LD      BC,STRING      ;point to ASCII string
CALL    AHEX           ;convert to binary
```

The routine will return with the HL register pair containing the binary number and the BC register pair pointing to the first non-hexadecimal digit.

```
-----
BINH4 - BINARY TO 4 HEX DIGITS
-----
```

This routine will convert the binary number in the BC register pair to 4 ASCII digits. The calling sequence is

```
LD      BC,(NUMBER)    ;get binary number
LD      HL,STRING      ;store ASCII String here
CALL    BINH4          ;convert to ASCII
```

```
-----
BINH2 - BINARY TO 2 HEX DIGITS
-----
```

This routine will store 2 ASCII digits. The calling sequence is

```
LD      A,(NUMBER)     ;get binary number
LD      HL,STRING      ;store ASCII string here
CALL    BINH2
```

```
-----
BINH1 - BINARY TO 1 HEX DIGIT
-----
```

This routine will store 1 ASCII digit. The calling sequence is

```
LD      A,(DIGIT)      ;get binary digit (lower 4 bits of A)
LD      HL,STRING      ;store digit here
CALL    BINH1
```

 CHARACTER I/O ROUTINES

Providing character I/O which is device independent adds considerable power to a program. These routines allow opening a file by symbolic name (disk or device) and then calling the same routines for I/O. There are routines for both ASCII and BINARY data. The binary calls pass 8 bits of data. The ASCII calls pass only printable characters plus carriage return, line feed, and tab. All other characters are passed as two characters (an up arrow and the corresponding printable character; eg, Control-B would be printed as "^B"). Devices are referenced by using the following symbolic names; all others are considered disk files.

```
RDR:[#] - reader (0..4)
PUN:[#] - punch (0..4)
LST:[#] - printer (0..1)
PRT:[#] - printer (0..1)
CON:[#] - console (0..7)
DUM:    - dummy
```

The option number is set into the "IOBYTE" to select device units. The symbolic name "DUM:" is used to throw away output, or as end of file.

An extended FCB (XFCB) is used which includes character pointers. When the XFCB is initialized, the number of buffers are specified (each is 128 bytes). Only disk files use the buffers.

The format of the XFCB follows.

name	position	length	description
----	-----	-----	-----
ZCNT	0	1	byte count (0..127 or 255)
ZFLG	1	1	flags
ZFCB	2..34	33	CDOS file control block (FCB)
ZBPTR	35..36	2	buffer pointer (1st buffer)
ZBCUR	37	1	current buffer
ZNBUF	38	1	number of buffers
ZFBUF	39	1	full number of buffers
	-----		-----
		40	total length

The byte count indicates a non-disk device if it contains 255. ZFLG will then contain the system call for that device. The following are the flags.

```
RDR:    3
PUN:    4
LST:    5
PRT:    5
CON:    1
DUM:    0
```

The initial format of an XFCB should be

```

DEFB      0
DEFS      34
DEFW      buffer address,0
DEFB      number of buffers

```

FNAME - SET UP XFCB

This routine sets up an XFCD from an FCB. If the routine is called with the A register equal to 0, then the extension in the FCB is used. If the A register is not equal to 0, then the A, B, and C registers contain the extension that is to be used. The example below will set up an XFCB from the system FCB at location 5CH with an implied extension of ".PRN".

```

LD        HL,5CH          ;point to system FCB
LD        DE,XFCB1        ;point to XFCB
LD        A,'P'           ;".PRN" extension
LD        BC,'RN'
CALL      FNAME           ;build XFCB

```

XDISK - SET UP SPECIAL XFCB

This routine will modify an XFCB using a letter in the A register. If the A register contains A through W, this is considered to be a disk identifier. If the A register contains "X", the XFCB is converted to use the console. If it contains a "Y", the XFCB is converted to use the list device. If it contains a "Z", then the XFCB is converted to use the dummy driver. This routine allows the decoding of parameters such as the assembler uses for its files. In the following example the XFCB is converted to use the console.

```

LD        DE,XFCB        ;point to the XFCB
LD        A,'X'          ;make it the console
CALL      XDISK          ;convert XFCB

```

ZNEW - OPEN NEW XFCB

This routine will delete any old file with the same name and then create and open a new file. If there is an error the ZERO flag is set and the HL register pair points to an error message. In the following example a new file is created.

```

LD        DE,XFCB        ;point to XFCB
CALL      ZNEW           ;create a new file
CALL      Z,ZIOER        ;print error and abort

```

```
-----
ZOPN - OPEN OLD XFCB
-----
```

This routine will open an existing file. If there is an error the ZERO flag is set and the HL register pair points to an error message. In the following example an old file is opened.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
CALL    ZOPN         ;open the file
CALL    Z,ZIOER      ;print error and abort
```

```
-----
ZCLOS - CLOSE XFCB
-----
```

This routine will close a file. In the following example a file is closed.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
CALL    ZCLOS        ;close the file
CALL    Z,ZIOER      ;print error and abort
```

```
-----
PCHAR - PUT CHARACTER (BINARY)
-----
```

This routine is used to output binary characters. In the following example a character is output.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
LD      C,(HL)        ;get character to output
CALL    PCHAR        ;output character
CALL    Z,ZIOER      ;print error and abort
```

```
-----
PUTC - PUT CHARACTER (ASCII)
-----
```

This routine is used to output ASCII characters to a disk file or a device such as the console, a printer, etc. In the following example a character is output.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
LD      C,(HL)        ;get character to output
CALL    PUTC         ;output character
CALL    Z,ZIOER      ;print error and abort
```

 GCHAR - GET A CHARACTER

This routine is used to input characters from a disk file or a device. In the following example, a character is returned in the A register.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
CALL    GCHAR        ;get a character
CP      1AH          ;Q, end of file
JP      Z,EOF        ;yes, end of file
```

When an unwritten random record is read, it is treated as an end of file.

 ZIOER - PRINT FILE ERROR MESSAGE

This routine is the standard error routine. When an error occurs in one of the file handling routines, the HL register pair points to the error message, the DE register pair points to the XFCB, and the ZERO flag is set. This allows the instruction "CALL Z,ZIOER" to follow a disk handling routine. In the following example, a character is written. If there is an error, it will be printed and control will be passed to CDOS.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
LD      C,(HL)       ;get a character
CALL    PUTC         ;output character
CALL    Z,ZIOER      ;print error and abort
```

 PFNAM - GET FILE NAME FOR PRINTING

This routine will extract the file name from the XFCB and form a printable string. The string will be in the following format

d:filename.ext

Where d: is an optional disk number (A-D), filename is the name of the user file (1 to 8 characters), and ext is the filename extension (0 to 3 characters). The string is terminated by a byte equal to zero. The length of the string is returned in the A register. In the following example a string is formed from the XFCB.

```
LD      DE,XFCB      ;point to XFCB
LD      HL,BFLINE    ;store string here
CALL    PFNAM        ;form string
CALL    PRNT         ;print the file name
```

```
-----
PRNT - PRINT A LINE
-----
```

This routine will print a string which ends with either a zero-byte or a carriage return. If a carriage return is found, the carriage return and a line feed is output. In the following example the string "THIS IS A STRING" is output.

```

        LD      HL,STRING      ;point to string
        CALL    PRNT          ;print the string
        :
        :
STRING: DEFB    'THIS IS A STRING',0

```

```
-----
ABORT - ABORT USER PROGRAM
-----
```

This routine will print a message and then abort to CDOS. The format of the message is the same as in the previous example. In the following example the message "*** END OF JOB ***" is output to the console and control is returned to CDOS.

```

        LD      HL,STRING      ;point to string
        CALL    ABORT          ;abort program
        :
        :
STRING: DEFB    '*** END OF JOB ***',13

```

CHAPTER 2: AN EXAMPLE

The program "EXAMPLE.Z80" has been included as an example. To run this example use the batch file "EXAMPLE.CMD". The first line of the example is typed by the user. The rest of the example is typed by the computer.

B.@ EXAMPLE
BATCH VERSION 00.02

B.ASMB EXAMPLE.AAX
CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02

*** EXAMPLE ***

```

0002 ;
0003 ;THIS PROGRAM WILL INPUT FROM ONE
0004 ;DISK FILE OR DEVICE
0005 ;AND OUTPUT TO ONE DISK FILE OR DEVICE
0006 ;
0007 ;TO CALL THIS PROGRAM TYPE
0008 ;"EXAMPLE filename1.ext filename2.ext" where
0009 ;"filename1.ext" IS THE OUTPUT FILE/DEVICE and
0010 ;"filename2.ext" IS THE INPUT FILE/DEVICE
0011 ;
0012         NAME      EXAMPL
0013         EXT        FNAME      ;SET UP XFCB
0014         EXT        ZNEW       ;OPEN NEW XFCB
0015         EXT        ZOPN      ;OPEN OLD XFCB
0016         EXT        ZCLOS     ;CLOSE XFCB
0017         EXT        ZIOER     ;ERROR ROUTINE
0018         EXT        ABORT     ;END PROGRAM
0019         EXT        GCHAR     ;GET A CHARACTER
0020         EXT        PUTC      ;PUT A CHARACTER
0021 ;
0022 ;START OF PROGRAM
0023 ;
0000' 3A5D00    0024 START: LD      A,(5DH)      ;1ST BYTE OF FILNAME
0003' FE20      0025          CP      ' '        ;Q, BLANK FILE NAME
0005' CA6500'   0026          JP      Z,ERROUT    ;YES, ERROR
0008' 97        0027          SUB     A          ;USE EXT FROM FCB
0009' 215COO    0028          LD      HL,5CH     ;POINT TO 1ST FCB
000C' 117FOO'   0029          LD      DE,OXFCB    ;POINT TO OUTPUT XFCB
000F' CD0000#   0030          CALL    FNAME      ;BUILD XFCB
0012' CD0000#   0031          CALL    ZNEW       ;CREATE A NEW FILE
0015' CC0000#   0032          CALL    Z,ZIOER     ;ERROR
0033 ;
0018' 3A6D00    0034          LD      A,(6DH)     ;1ST BYTE OF FILNAME
001B' FE20      0035          CP      ' '        ;Q, BLANK FILE NAME
001D' CA6500'   0036          JP      Z,ERROUT    ;YES, ERROR
0020' 97        0037          SUB     A          ;USE EXT FROM FCB
0021' 216COO    0038          LD      HL,6CH     ;POINT TO 2nd FCB
0024' 11A700'   0039          LD      DE,IXFCB    ;POINT TO INPUT XFCB
0027' CD1000#   0040          CALL    FNAME      ;BUILD XFCB
002A' CD0000#   0041          CALL    ZOPN      ;OPEN OLD XFCB
002D' CC1600#   0042          CALL    Z,ZIOER     ;ERROR
0043 ;
0030' 11A700'   0044 LOOP:  LD      DE,IXFCB    ;POINT TO INPUT XFCB
0033' CD0000#   0045          CALL    GCHAR     ;GET A CHARACTER
0036' FE1A      0046          CP      1AH       ;Q, END OF FILE
0038' 280C      0047          JR      Z,EOF      ;YES
003A' 117FOO'   0048          LD      DE,OXFCB    ;POINT TO OUTPUT FCB
003D' 4F        0049          LD      C,A       ;GET CHARACTER
003E' CD0000#   0050          CALL    PUTC      ;PUT ASCII CHARACTER
0041' CC2E00#   0051          CALL    Z,ZIOER     ;ERROR
0044' 18EA      0052          JR      LOOP      ;GET NEXT CHARACTER
0053 ;
0046' 117F00'   0054 EOF:  LD      DE,OXFCB    ;CLOSE OUTPUT XFCB
0049' CD0000#   0055          CALL    ZCLOS     ;
004C' 215200'   0056          LD      HL,EOFMSG   ;POINT TO EOF MESSAGE
004F' CD0000#   0057          CALL    ABORT     ;ABORT PROGRAM
0058 ;

```

CROMEMCO CDOS Z80 ASSEMBLER version 02.02

PAGE 0002

*** EXAMPLE ***

```
0052' 2A2A2A20      0059 EOFMSG  DEFB      '*** END OF JOB ***',13
      454E4420
      4F46204A
      4F42202A
```

The program "EXAMPLE.COM" is now ready to be executed. To use the program type in the name of the program followed by an output file and an input file. For example

```
B.EXAMPLE NEWFILE.Z80 EXAMPLE.Z80
```

This example will copy the file "EXAMPLE.Z80" to the file "NEWFILE.Z80".

Device names may also be used. The following example will type the file "EXAMPLE.Z80" on the console.

```
B.EXAMPLE CON: EXAMPLE.Z80
```

```
*****  
PART VI - CREATING A NEW LUN TABLE FOR CROMEMCO FORTRAN IV  
*****
```

```
*****
PROCEDURE FOR CREATING A NEW LUN TABLE FOR FORTRAN
*****
```

There have been a number of requests among our customers for information on how to change the driver dispatch table (LUN Table) to accommodate other I/O drivers with CROMEMCO FORTRAN IV. The purpose of this section is to explain the method for doing this. The present LUN Table is located in the FORTRAN Library file, FORLIB.REL, under the name: \$LUNTB. The Linker automatically searches FORLIB when linking FORTRAN programs to satisfy any undefined symbols. LINK then loads these needed routines into memory. However, if the LUN Table were defined PRIOR to the search of FORLIB, the Linker would not load \$LUNTB from FORLIB. This is done by first composing the new LUN Table giving it the same name (\$LUNTB), then assembling it using ASMB, and finally linking it prior to the link of FORLIB. This procedure is demonstrated below. However, first here is a duplicate of the LUN Table which is presently used in CROMEMCO FORTRAN:

```

ENTRY    $LUNTB
EXT      $DRV3,LPTDRV,DSKDRV
$LUNTB:  DB      0BH
ONE:     DW      $DRV3
TWO:     DW      LPTDRV
THREE:   DW      $DRV3
FOUR:    DW      $DRV3
FIVE:    DW      $DRV3
SIX:     DW      DSKDRV
SEVEN:   DW      DSKDRV
EIGHT:   DW      DSKDRV
NINE:    DW      DSKDRV
TEN:     DW      DSKDRV
END
```

Note the use of the ENTRY statement to define the module. The symbols \$DRV3, LPTDRV, and DSKDRV stand for the console driver, line-printer driver, and disk driver modules, respectively. The labels ONE through TEN are provided for convenient reference; they mark the driver-address which stands for each of the LUNs 1 through 10. As can be seen from the above, LUNs 1 and 3-5 are presently assigned to the console, LUN 2 is assigned to the printer, and LUNs 6-10 are assigned to disk files. (See FORTRAN IV Instruction Manual, Appendix B and page 15 for more information on Logical Unit Numbers.) Also note in the above that the first byte of the module (DB 0BH) must be one more than the maximum LUN (in this case 10). Hence, more LUNs could be defined simply by adding DW statements and by changing this first byte.

The present LUNs can be changed simply by rearranging the driver addresses in each DW statement above. (LUN 3 should be preserved as the console driver, however, as that is the one used by the system to print out error messages.) Users may also write their own drivers in Z-80 assembly code, assemble them with ASMB, and link them with the new \$LUNTB. To illustrate these ideas here is a sample altered LUN Table:

```

        ENTRY  $LUNTB
        EXT    $DRV3,LPTDRV,DSKDRV,SPTDRV
$LUNTB: DB    21
ONE:      DW    $DRV3
TWO:      DW    $DRV3
THREE:    DW    $DRV3
FOUR:     DW    LPTDRV
FIVE:     DW    LPTDRV
SIX:      DW    SPTDRV
SEVEN:    DW    SPTDRV
EIGHT:    DW    DSKDRV
NINE:     DW    DSKDRV
TEN:      DW    DSKDRV
ELEVN:    DW    DSKDRV
TWELV:    DW    DSKDRV
THIRTN:   DW    DSKDRV
FOURTN:   DW    DSKDRV
FIFTN:    DW    DSKDRV
SIXTN:    DW    DSKDRV
SEVNTN:   DW    DSKDRV
EIGHTN:   DW    DSKDRV
NINETN:   DW    DSKDRV
TWENTY:   DW    DSKDRV
        END

```

In this example the user has added an EXTERNAL declaration for a serial line-printer, SPTDRV. The LUN assignments have also been changed as follows: LUNs 1 through 3 are assigned to the console, 4 and 5 are assigned to the parallel-port printer, 6 and 7 are assigned to the serial-port printer, 8 through 10 remain assigned to disk files, and LUNs 11 through 20 have also been assigned to disk files.

The driver for the serial printer should be of the format:

```

        ENTRY  SPTDRV
START:  ...
        :
        :
        END

```

The LUN file which has been created can now be assembled using ASMB simply by typing:

```
ASMB LUNTBNEW
```

where LUNTBNEW.Z80 is the name of this file on the disk. The source file for the added driver (SPTDRIVR.Z80) must also be assembled; ASMB will create .REL files for both these modules. These two files can finally be linked to the FORTRAN by typing:

```
LINK FORPROG,LUNTBNEW,SPTDRIVR
```

where FORPROG is the user's previously-compiled FORTRAN IV program. LINK will automatically search FORLIB, but will ignore the \$LUNTB file there because LUNTBNEW was linked first. Note that the ENTRY statement for LUNTBNEW.Z80 must have the same name as the original module (\$LUNTB).