# Everyone Likes Some Assembling (ELSA) the native 65C816 assembler

#### An overview

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#### Version 1.01

#### **Preface**

ELSA is a clone of the MAE assembler by John Harris. This was the assembler I had used since around 1996, when I discovered it and switched to it from MAC/65.

I sometimes still use MAE, but as years were passing, MAE was becoming a bit too limited to my needs. Since that assembler is apparently no longer developed, and since its author, John Harris, has refused to publish its source code, I was forced to start writing my own assembler. It of course has the flavour of MAE, the assembler I was accustomed to. But I have not used any part of MAE's code: the code is entirely my own, the ELSA assembler only mimics most of the MAE's syntax, diverging whenever I thought I had a better idea.

Also, ELSA is only an assembler compiler. Unlike MAE, it does not contain an editor or a disassembler/debugger. For that last, I am currently working on my own disassembler for 65C816, and for the editor I still use MAE.

ELSA is entirely written in 65C816 native code and makes use of the RAM past the first 64k: it stores the symbol table there, thus making it virtually unlimited. In the base 64k the program occupies around 34k.

One important similarity between ELSA and MAE is that ELSA, like MAE, was written entirely on Atari. First versions were written and compiled under MAE, later versions compiled with themselves, still however being written in MAE's excellent editor.

For years it had been my private program, not really intended for public release. But it apparently has grown so that it can be shown to other people. So it will be with the hope that it turns out to be useful to someone.

Warszawa, 01/12/2024

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#### **I. Operation**

As said in the Preface, ELSA is MAE's clone, so first of all it is good to get some acquaintance with that assembler. The MAE User's Manual you can find on the Net will supply you with the basic information on this topic:

<http://www.mixinc.net/atari/mae.htm>

Unlike MAE (which stands for Macro-Assembler-Editor), ELSA is an assembler compiler only, contains no editor nor debugger.

Also, unlike MAE, ELSA aborts the assembling on first error, emits a bell signal (ASCII 253), and quits to DOS. This allows you to leave the computer alone doing a larger assembly builds instead of being forced to watch the screen constantly for error messages or miss them having been scrolled up out of the display.

Unlike MAE, which compiles from the memory to the memory or from memory to an object file, ELSA compiles from the source file to the object file only. Therefore it is good to have a fast hard drive as storage.

Other requirements are:

1) 65C816 CPU operating at least at 1.77 MHz;

2) 65C816 compatible OS ROM, like DracOS (also known as Rapidus OS);

3) a DOS with OSS CLI, preferably SpartaDOS.

*Altirra users, please use a version of the emulator not older than 4.20-test6.*

Recommended:

4) SpartaDOS X;

5) at least 64k of the 65C816 High RAM, also known as the linear memory (the flat RAM past the address \$00FFFF);

6) a 20 MHz CPU.

Limitations:

a) Maximum source line length: 255 characters

b) Maximum length of a label: 240 characters

c) Maximum line count per file: 16777216 (8-9 hours of assembling)

d) Maximum global line count: 4294967296 (3 months of assembling)

### **II. Command line arguments**

The syntax is:

### ELSA [options] source\_file\_name.ext [options]

The options are:





Instead of the "/" sign, the minus sign may be used, e.g. -M65C802 is perfectly valid.

#### **III. General assembler syntax**

As said above, ELSA is a clone of MAE. In the area of the syntax, MAE is in turn generally following the style of MAC/65, so that switching from the latter to the former makes no trouble. The MAE's oddity is that it only respects the first three characters of the name of a directive, so for example writing in the source .WORD or .WO makes no difference. ELSA keeps many of these quirks for (my) convenience, but the short forms are in fact explicit aliases for their longer equivalents.

#### **IV. Labels**

#### **1. Label name**

A label may be up to 240 characters long, which means that there is no practical size limit. The label's first character must be a letter, apart from that the decimal digits, the  $\omega$  character, the dot (".") and the underscore character ("\_") are allowed in the body of a label. The question mark, for the reason explained below, is only allowed as either the first or as the last character of a label (therefore such an expression as BOOT? = \$09 is perfectly valid).

All label names beginning with double underscore character ("\_\_") are reserved and should not be used in programs because of possible conflicts with pseudo-labels (explained somewhat below) and labels declared implicitly by the assembler for internal purposes.

Label names are case-sensitive by default ("FOO" is different than "foo" etc.), if you want case insensitive searches, please specify /C in the command line.

#### **2. General syntax**

A label to be defined must start in the 0 (i.e. the leftmost) column of the text. Its name may be terminated with a colon (":"), this character, when found at the end of a label during its definition, is skipped.

The percent-sign ("%") appended at the end of a label being declared is a special declarator: that label will be exported as an externally accessible symbol (XDEF). Otherwise the use of that sign in labels is not allowed.

#### **3. Local labels, MAE-style**

In the area of labels, the most notable feature of ELSA's predecessor, MAE, is the system of local labels marked with "?" character at the beginning. Such a label will serve as a local one in the area between two consecutive global labels. To reference such a local label, just prefix its name with the "?" character (e.g. LDA ?SIZE). When a reference to a local label is required from the outside of its global scope, the respective global label should be used followed by "?" and by the local label the reference is being made to (e.g. LDA IOCB?ICAX1,X). ELSA follows this system as a simple and elegant solution of the problem of label locality.

Any other label is a global label (unless stated otherwise).

#### **4. Local namespaces**

The directive .LOCAL *namespace* defines higher level of locality, not to be confused with the aforementioned system modelled after MAE (this may be used without using the .LOCAL keyword). All labels, no matter if "global" or "MAE-style local", when defined between two .LOC-AL directives, belong to the local namespace defined by the first of them only. This allows strict separation of local namespaces from the main program and from each other, so that even the same include files, defining the same global labels, may be used multiple times in different parts of the program.

An obvious example is an init segment, which gets overwritten after use: within it you may use the same library procedures and system calls as within the rest of the program, but you do not want, from within the main program, to accidentally reference something, that was only temporarily defined for the init segment.

When a reference between different namespaces is required, the label referenced should be preceded with the name of its namespace and a colon (":", e.g. JMP INIT0:START). The global namespace has no name, so when a reference to a global label is required from within a local namespace, the label being referenced should be preceded with a colon only (e.g. LDA :KBCODES).

References to a MAE-style local label defined within a local namespace from the outside of that namespace are not allowed.

#### **5. Definition order**

ELSA is a two-pass assembler, so it is best to define a label before its first use whenever possible: this is especially important in more complex arithmetic expressions, where all components must be defined during second assembly pass, or an error will occur. Labels for addresses may be defined after the reference, but when the address is on zero page, using it before definition will cause phasing error to occur during second pass. To avoid that, while referencing such a label, use the unary operator < (e.g. LDA <LABEL) to tell the assembler that the label to be defined will reference a zero-page location and an 8-bit address may be used.

#### **V. Expressions**

Like MAE, ELSA does not pay attention to arithmetic operator precedence, the expressions are evaluated straight from left to right, and there are no parentheses. Some day I will have to fix this, probably. The results coming from the integer evaluator are 32-bit unsigned integers. Whenever the result does not fit in 32 bits, it gets cut down to this size and a warning is generated.

The equal sign ("=") placed after a label means that the value of the following expression will be assigned to the label. Otherwise, when no equal sign follows, the label will be assigned the current value of the PC.

The asterisk ("\*"), as in most other assemblers, means the current value of the PC. But, unlike in MAC/65, it is a read-only symbol and you cannot assign it a new value; so the expression "\*=\*+value", commonly used in MAC/65 to reserve memory space of the "value" length, will not work – you have to use the .DS directive instead.

#### **1. Value types**

ELSA generally knows two types of values: addresses and values. The difference between them is mostly of internal significance only, and the conversions most of the time occur automatically. However, if an arithmetic operation tries to combine values with addresses or addresses with addresses in a suspicious way, the result will be of the value type and the assembler will generate a warning. The types can also be enforced by the programmer, whenever the automatic conversions do not yield satisfactory results: this may be done using the cast operators (explained further on).

As of ELSA version 0.98, if the CPU selected is 65C816 (which is the default), the results of address calculations will be cut down to 24 bits, and to 16 bits otherwise.

#### **VI. Constants**



Note that an ASCII constant consisting of a single character is marked by a single apostrophe situated in front of it. This also applies to directives such as .BYTE, thus

.byte 'H,'E,'L,'L,'O,'!

is a perfectly valid equivalent to the example shown in the table.

#### **VII. Unary operators**

Operators which can be applied to individual operands in expression:



Operators which are applied to the result of entire expression after its evaluation:



The casts are executed as the very last operations on the calculation's result, even after  $\lt$ ,  $>$ ,  $\land$  and  $\setminus$ .

Addressing modes:





These latter ones will be applied first to arguments to mnemonics, then the assembler will proceed normally with the expression evaluation. So STA !0 (address 0 with forced 16-bit addressing) will produce \$8D \$00 \$00, and STA !!0 will produce \$8D \$FF \$FF (the first ! forces 16-bit addressing mode, the subsequent one negates the result of the argument evaluation).

#### **VIII. Binary operators**

Basic 32-bit integer arithmetics is what you expect:



The logical shifts (logical, because all the integers are unsigned) may be used as faster replacements for multiplication and division, where applicable:



There are slight differences between MAE and ELSA in the syntax of comparison operators:



Attention should be paid to the fact that ELSA evaluates expres-

sions from left to right. So, to avoid confusing effects in conditionals, it is best to do comparisons so that the right side of a comparator is a single constant or label. For example:

```
.if foo=bar+1
```
will always(!) be TRUE; to make it work correctly write:

.if bar+1=foo

Also, comparing to MAE, there are novelties in the logical operators:



 If you supply addresses as both input numbers for most artithmetical or logical operations, the program will perform the required maths, but expect a warning in the process. Subtracting an address from another address, however, as being perfectly legal, is performed without complaints.

#### **IX. Directives**

The directives are keywords which are steering the process of assembling. In ELSA, as in MAC/65 and MAE, most of these keywords are preceded with a dot. It makes them more visible in the source code and also facilitates its parsing.

The directives must be located past the column 0 of your source file, i.e. there must be at least one space (or TAB) between them and the left margin. Only one directive is allowed per program line, unless stated otherwise.

Symbols used in the table below:

x - expression; w - expression, word value; b - expression, byte value; lb - label name. All these "expressions" must evaluate in the first assembly pass.



#### **1. Target CPU control**





# **2. Conditionals and general assembly control**







The general remark to the conditionals .IF, .IFDEF and .IFNDEF is that you should watch out if the conditional expression keeps the same logical value during both assembly passes. For instance, doing something like this:

```
.ifndef foobar
foobar = 1.endif
```
is asking for trouble, because the label *foobar*, when undefined during the first pass, will anyway be defined during the second pass. In this case the ELSA's symbol table will lose consistency and weird errors will get reported.



#### **3. Repetitions**



# **4. Fixed data definition control**





# **5. Code generation control**







## **6. Memory allocation control**





# **7. Label control**





# **8. Input/output control**





# **9. Listing control**





## **10. SpartaDOS X support**





The standard 6502 SpartaDOS X loader only allows a program to contain up to 7 .REL-type blocks, therefore ELSA up to v. 0.99 also had this limitation. As of version 1.0, however, it allows up to 127 blocks: such binaries are handled by the extended 65C816 loader (embedded in the 65816.SYS driver), but even using that one the 6502 address space is still limited to 7 relocatable blocks: the extra ones are allowed for the 65C816 High RAM only.

*Remark 1: in relocatable programs it is not allowed to split-up addresses into separate bytes or words, because the binary loader would not be able to fix them up properly.*

*Remark 2: it is not allowed to use the PC-relative addressing mode*

*(Bxx, BRL, PEA/PER) to reference a block of code different than the one which contains the instruction. This is most visible in branch instructions: it is not allowed to do a branch (even the BRL) from one program block to another one, because at the assembly time it is not possible to predict where the respective blocks will get loaded to the memory, and as a consequence, it is also impossible to calculate the relative offset between them. But, of course, there are no objections to use PC-relative instructions to reference locations within the same ("their") block of code.*

#### **10.1 Example code: 6502 emulation mode**



#### **10.2 Example code: 65C816 native mode**

*Remark: the program requires the EXT816.SYS module to be loaded.*



.byte \$9b,"Hello world!",\$9b,0 pea (dosvec) ;end program  $\cos$  #\$00

#### **X. Pseudo-labels**

Pseudo-labels are keywords with a value, which can be used in arithmetic expressions just like normal labels. To differentiate a named pseudo-label from other labels, ELSA marks them by putting two underscore characters () before and after the label's name (examples below).

*All label names beginning with double underscore character ("\_\_") are reserved and should not be used in programs because of possible conflicts with labels declared by the assembler for internal purposes.*

The pseudo-labels usually carry numeric values signalizing currently selected assembling settings, just as register sizes and such things. Therefore they are particularly useful in conditional blocks started with .IF.





#### **XI. Pseudo-instructions**

A pseudo-instruction (otherwise known as a macro-instruction) is a kind of a hard-coded macro: the assembler presents it under a single mnemonic, but during the assembling this mnemonic is expanded into a series of actual CPU instructions.

The general rules for a pseudo-instruction in ELSA are these:

1) a pseudo-instruction has to follow the syntax of a real instruction, i.e. only the otherwise existing addressing modes are allowed;

2) a pseudo-instruction must not generate confusing side effects, e.g. so that one which claims to modify the memory also modifies the accumulator and flags, without a warning.



ELSA implements these:


















## **XII. Instruction aliases**

 An alias is just an alternative mnemonic for an instruction. ELSA implements a handful of these, mostly following the CPU producer's advice.



## **XIII. Alternative syntax for some instructions**

Some instructions have been given alternative syntax as if they had additional addressing modes, which they obviously do not have; instead, it is just the way ELSA is allowing the programmer either to omit mandatory argument(s), when the value of the argument(s) is implied, or to control whether to add the argument or not for special purposes.

So, first of all, you can omit the arguments for MVN/MVP, if both arguments are to be zeros:



This does not change the code being generated, i.e. the mnemonic MVN without its arguments specified will generate the same code as MVN 0,0.

Another case are the instructions BRK and WDM. Both are in fact two-byte, but the basic syntax does not allow to specify the immediate argument. So ELSA allows this:



This *does* change the code generated. For example, BRK alone will cause two zero bytes (\$00, \$00) to be generated to the object file, but f.e. BRK #\$80 will generate \$00 \$80 instead.

The next case is BIT absolute:



The alternative syntax will cause just one byte (\$2C) to be generated to the object code. As the instruction in fact occupies 3 bytes, this may be used to mask out any following two-byte instruction, effectively skipping it. This effect was traditionally accomplished by putting .BYTE \$2C into the instruction stream, ELSA just makes it more explicit.



The purpose of these is the similar as above, i.e. masking out any following one-byte instruction. To accomplish that you just need to recognize the current condition, then use the branch for the exactly opposite condition to use it to skip something. For example:

```
clear clc
    bcs
set sec
     ror flag
```
Calling the location marked with the label CLEAR will clear the C flag, then the following BCS branch will get ignored together with the SEC instruction which will get interpreted as its argument - and this effectively makes it skipped.

The BIT zp instruction is traditionally used for this purpose (by inserting .BYTE \$24 into the instruction stream), but using a branch takes one cycle less and, unlike BIT, does not generate spare memory accesses.

#### **XIV. Divergences from the WDC-recommended syntax**

The main divergence from the syntax and mnemonic names, which are recommended by the WDC, concerns the PEA instruction. The WDC syntax is this:

PEA \$xxxx – PEA absolute PEI (\$xx) – PEA direct page indirect PER \$xxxx – PEA relative

But this "PEA absolute" simply pushes its 16-bit argument value onto the stack, so you could think that naming it (the argument) "absolute effective address", especially in a machine where effective absolute addresses are 24-bit, is quite an overstatement. Sure, we write JMP \$xxxx, and speak of the instruction as being in absolute addressing mode, but JMP actually *uses* its argument as *an address* to change the current location of the PC within the code. If we were thinking of JMP as of a 16-bit move (which it technically is), we could symbolically write it down as MOVE #\$xxxx,PC – and yes, in *this* context, *with* the hash.

So, ELSA (and some other assemblers) are treating the first instance of PEA as being in immediate mode. Therefore the syntax is as follows:



As hinted in the previous section, you can still use PEI (\$xx) and PER \$xxxx besides PEA (\$xx) and PEA \$xxxx, respectively.

## **XV. Declaring zero-page locations**

Zero-page variables may be declared the traditional way, i.e. assigning labels fixed values, like this:

```
pointer = $80
t_{\text{emp}} = $82
```
or, more conveniently, using the .ORG directive to set the PC at a zero-page address combined with the .DS directive reserving space, like this:

```
.org $80
pointer .ds 2
temp .ds 1
```
Both ways, however, are troublesome when writing or maintaining a larger program which is distributed among several source files (or "" modules"); it is best to have the variables declared in the very module which uses them, but the former way makes it difficult to track among several files which locations are occupied and which are not, and the latter one is little improvement: you can easily allocate blocks of variables, but still there may be conflicts, difficult to track down and solve, between the blocks declared by different modules of the program.

So, ELSA provides a mechanism which allows to automatically allocate zero-page variables so that they may be freely declared globally anywhere in the program, and are sequentially allocated at assembly time so that no conflicts are possible and you do not need to trouble yourself with assigning actual addresses.

To accomplish this, ELSA provides two keywords:

.ZP – which begins the zero-page declaration block, and .CODE – which ends the block.

Between these you declare your variables using the .DS directive, for example:

.zp \$80 pointer .ds 2 temp .ds 1 .code

The number to the right to the .ZP directive is the base of the zeropage variables to be declared for the entire program. *Declaring this is required for the first .ZP directive in your program.* But for all following .ZP directives this number should be omitted: the subsequent ones will then pickup the zero-page address where the last one left it and perform the sequential allocation as desired.

Following the example above, the next declaration block may look like this:



These two blocks declare the following locations: POINTER = \$80, TEMP =  $$82$ , CX =  $$83$ , CY =  $$84$ , CZ =  $$85$ . Any third declaration block will then begin allocation at the address \$86 and so on. Of course, as much actual code or data as you want may intervene between these blocks, so that zero-page variables can easily be declared not only by the modules they belong to, but they also can be just declared straight before the actual procedures which use them.

Technicalia: all this works so that the .ZP maintains own program counter. The numeric parameter next to .ZP sets this counter to a value (which is \$00 by default). Each .DS directive increases the counter, and .CODE switches back to the "main" program counter, while the .ZP counter remains intact. Any next .ZP directive (without any additional parameters) will switch to the .ZP counter and use its current value as the starting point for the allocation. The counter is 32-bit, each time it spans a 256-byte boundary the assembler generates a warning.

## **XVI. Sections DATA and BSS**

The keywords .DATA and .BSS allow your program to contain separate sections which will accumulate initialized (.DATA) or uninitialized (.BSS) variables. This way you will be able to easily split your program into two memory blocks: the code on the other side, and the data on the other side. This in turn will allow to prepare programs which can store its code and data in separate address spaces (such as separate 64k segments of memory).

Even if your program will run in unified address space (like all 6502 programs do), the BSS section can still be useful. In small programs (fitting entirely in one source module) it is usually not necessary to define a separate section for that, but in larger assemblies it may be advantageous to accumulate uninitialized variables in one memory block. Particularly all sorts of source code libraries may benefit from that, because these usually want to declare static variables in their own source files, which in turn, when they get included, makes the object code more fragmented – and this increases the size of the program and the necessary loading overhead.

## **1. BSS section**

The basic usage of the .BSS keyword is generally similar to the .ZP: switch to the BSS section using .BSS, declare space inside using .DS, switch back using .CODE. For example:

.bss cx .ds 1 cy .ds 1 cz .ds 1 .code

As in the ZP section, no code or initialized data are allowed within the BSS section. One functional difference is that the BSS section is located in the main memory, so you have to use the absolute (or absolute long) addressing mode to make references to it. *Do not worry: even if a BSS variable is declared at virtual address lesser than \$0100, the assembler will never assume that a zero page addressing mode should be used in the reference.* But otherwise everything works as in ZP sections as long as your BSS is located in a dedicated 64k segment, forming an address space truly separate from code's.

However, in programs which are smaller than 64k it is usually inconvenient to keep the BSS segment in a separate address space. To put the BSS section to the same address space where your code is living, just specify the BSS base address in the parameter, for example:

```
.bss $8000
```
This will make the assembler to allocate your BSS variables from the specified address onwards. *Note: this only defines the BSS base, and (unlike .ZP adr) does not switch sections. To switch to the BSS section you still have to use .BSS keyword without the parameter.*

If your program has to fit in one 64k segment (as 100% 6502 programs do), it is usually not very convenient to declare static addresses for sections – it is more convenient to put the BSS section directly after the main code block, so that, as this block grows while the program is being developed, the BSS section also get allocated from higher addresses so that these never overlap. To accomplish that, put the following directive after the last byte of the defined data or code in your program:

.bss \*

If you do not add this, all your .BSS variables will get allocated starting at the virtual address \$000000 and you will have to handle this situation on your own (for example, by allocating a suitable memory block at a 64k boundary and loading the bits 16-23 of its address to the DBR register).

Note that the .BSS directives do not increase the code's program counter, so in this case, after ".BSS \*", the code's PC will point to the beginning of the BSS section rather than to the end of it. So if you want to find out, where is the true end of the memory occupied by your program, you will have to add the value of the pseudolabel \_\_BSS\_\_ which holds the current BSS offset. In the following example the label ENDP will hold the address of the first byte past the BSS:

```
.bss *
endp = *+ BSS
```
## **1.1. BSS PC**

For certain technical reason the BSS base can be declared only once in a program: an attempt at redeclaration will cause the assembler to throw an error. The BSS PC, however, may be changed at will. It is done with the .ORG directive, there is only one thing to remember, namely that *in this case the .ORG's argument is not an absolute address, but an offset relative to the BSS base*.

Therefore, if you, for example, want your BSS section to occupy two 16k banks of RAM, do this:



The labels BNK1 and BNK2 will both get assigned to the same address: \$4000 and will be pointing to two overlapping areas, 16384 bytes each. It is of course up to the program to arrange things so that they do not physically overlap, but are properly assigned to different banks of RAM.

#### **1.2. BSS section in REL blocks**

In SpartaDOS X relocatable executables everything seemingly works as depicted above. But in fact there is no real BSS section in this case: the variables declared inside .BSS/.CODE scope are created as usual, but the  $\mu$ BSS  $*$ " at the end of a .REL block will implicitly aggregate them into a separate .REL block allocating memory.

Therefore you may get an impression that there are multiple .BSS sections possible, but beware: every .BSS \* appended at the end of a .REL block is in fact an equivalent to .REL \$80 – and the maximum number of .REL blocks in a program is currently only 7!

Also, for that same reason – no real BSS – you cannot use the .ORG directive to change the BSS PC value.

## **2. DATA section**

The DATA section works similarly to the BSS section, except that it contains actual data (no code or offsets are allowed). The DATA section accumulates the data being generated by keywords such as .BYTE, .WORD etc. then stores them all in one large binary block, which will be appended at the end of the object code. For example:

```
.data
cx .byte 0
cy .byte 0
cz .byte 0
    .code
```
The remarks about addressing are the same as in the case of the BSS section. You define the DATA section base by putting this at the end of your program:

.data \*

And if you want to find out the first byte past the DATA section, do this:

.data \*  $endp = * + DATA$ 

Also the .ORG directive, when used within the DATA section, works the same way as in the BSS section.

## **2.1. DATA section in REL blocks**

In the current implementation it is not possible to use the .DATA keyword inside a .REL block – this will throw an error.

#### **3. Combining DATA and BSS sections**

When your program contains both DATA and BSS sections, and all this has to fit within the same address space with the code, you have to define the sections' bases so that they would not overlap. If you want to keep the most natural order of sections, i.e. CODE first, then DATA, and BSS at the end, the following appended at the end of the last code block will do the trick:

```
.data *
.bss *+__DATA__
```
## **4. DATA/BSS quirks**

The declaration of the section base at the end of your code will cause the addresses declared within that section to get assigned different values in the first and the second assembly pass. This may cause obscure phase errors, for example:

```
.org $2010
     .data
text .byte "HELLO!",$9b
     .bss
txtadr .ds 2
     .code
start .if text&$00ff
     lda #<text
    sta txtadr
     .else
    stz txtadr
     .endif
    lda #>text
    sta txtadr+1
exit rts
    .data *
     .bss *+__DATA__
```
The label TEXT will get a value of \$000000 in the first pass, and a value of \$002010 in the second pass. Therefore the conditional will in the second pass cause the code to be 1 instruction shorter than it was in the first pass, so any label declared after the conditional (here EXIT) will trigger the phase error. The solution in this case is to .ALIGN the data section to a page boundary, but it is best to avoid using such tricks while doing references to the DATA and BSS sections, unless they are indeed going to be physically located in a separate address space each.

## **XVII. Defining structures**

## **1. Defining a structure in memory**

The keywords .RSSET and .RS (reserve space) are aimed at defining a data structure without reserving the actual memory space for it.<sup>[1](#page-54-0)</sup> The difference between .DS and .RS may be illustrated by the following examples:

```
.org $2000
dot
     .ds 1
?cy .ds 1
?cz .ds 1
?cc .ds 1
dsz = * -dot
```
After this, four bytes at address \$2000 are allocated for the structure named DOT. The component DOT?CX is to be found at \$2000, DOT? CY at \$2001, DOT?CZ at \$2002, and DOT?CC at \$2003. The program counter value ('\*') after this will be \$2004. The variables in the structure, having been assigned to memory locations, are accessed just as other local labels, e.g.

lda dot?cx

If you need to declare more DOTs, you have to either assign each a name (DOT1, DOT2, DOT3, ... DOT99 etc. which is absurd) or to declare empty space for the rest of them:

dot ?cx .ds 1 ?cy .ds 1 ?cz .ds 1 ?cc .ds 1  $dsz = * -dot$ .ds dsz\*99

Now compare with .RS:

<span id="page-54-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The idea of these keywords and their operation was borrowed from HiSoft's Devpac for Atari ST.



First of all, these are not allocated in the memory and the program counter value ('\*') does not change during definition. This only defines how a memory location (of size 'CSZ' bytes) will be internally structured when it will have been eventually allocated. The allocation is to be done as follows:

dot .ds csz

So now we have defined an abstract structure COORDS, which describes three-dimensional coordinates and color of an object, then declared a memory object named DOT which uses this structure to hold its individual coordinates and color. References to this structure can be made as follows:

lda dot+coords?cx

This may at first appear more troublesome than the method which uses .DS, but is in fact very handy when the program has to manage not even multiple objects sharing the same internal structure, but rather multiple groups of these, yet not necessarily being allocated consecutively in the memory:



Any change of the internal organization and size of all these memory objects only requires redefining the structure COORDS without redefining all the individual objects or groups of objects which share this structure. *The mechanism described is similar to what C language does when the programmer is declaring a structure using 'typedef struct' then assigning memory to it using 'struct' – ELSA itself uses this technique*

## *internally to maintain e. g. multiple program counters*.

Remark: note that the label COORDS used in the examples above will actually be assigned an address equal to the value of the program counter ('\*') at the time of .RSSET execution. So (quite differently than in the first example with .DS, where you can reference DOT instead of DOT?CX and get the same result), you cannot use COORDS alone here as an equivalent to COORDS?CX, because the former is an absolute address, while the latter is an offset. So LDA DOT+COORDS will just add the address of your memory object to a random address which was in the PC while the structure COORDS was being defined, which would be very wrong and would lead your program astray. *There is however a good reason why the assembler allows that and does not even generate a warning. This reason will hopefully become clear in the following section.*

Besides, using such a construction as DOT+COORDS (without specifying at which one of the internal variables of the structure we are aiming) would defeat the whole purpose of using the structure (which is to be able to freely alter the internal organization of multiple memory objects without re-editing all of them and all of the existing code which is referencing them).

## **2. Defining a structure on the stack**

Another purpose of the .RSSET and .RS directives is to declare offsets for local variables allocated on the stack. It is actually very convenient to use stack to store variables which are in use only within the scope of a single subroutine instead of allocating static memory locations for them: the ZP storage is too short to waste it for that purpose, and, besides, static variables make the code not re-entrant (which may be crucial in interrupt handlers, for example). Also there are programs which simply do not have free static space at their disposal or it is very limited (such as device drivers running under an operating system), and if they do find some, there is always a risk of an obscure conflict with another OS component or even an application program.

In all these cases allocating some stack space, which will vanish after use, comes in quite handy. For example:

```
mul_a_by_3
     pha
     asl
     adc $01,s
     plx
```
rts

It is all very easy when there is just one variable on the stack, but a slightly larger number of them may already become a trouble: when it is necessary to re-edit the code and add or remove a variable, all offsets must be recalculated from scratch, and it is too easy to lose track what is where. And this is where RSSET/RS come in handy, for instance:

```
mul_a_by_14
    .rsset 1
?m4 .rs 1 ;this one is on the top of the stack
?m2 .rs 1
    asl
    pha
    asl
    pha
    asl
    adc ?m2,s
    adc ?m4,s
    plx
    plx
    rts
```
Note that both examples would be of the same size if using zero-page variables instead of the stack, so it is not the code size which we are gaining here: it is the use of static memory locations which is avoided this way.

*The latter example also provides explanation on why the assembler allows the label declared straight before the .RSSET to retain its original value – in this case it is simply necessary (as the label is assigned a valid address of a subroutine) and for the assembler there is no way to tell the difference between this situation and the one described in chapter XVII.1 above.*

Also note that the .ZP directive may be used for the same purpose, i.e. allocating variables, which are visible in the scope of a specific subroutine (in other words, variables local to that subroutine). This is wasteful, but in small programs, especially those which have to run on vanilla 6502, may be very convenient:

```
mul_a_by_14
     .zp
?m4 .ds 1
?m2 .ds 1
     .code
```


## **XVIII. XREFs and XDEFs**

#### **1. XREFs**

As of version 0.94 ELSA supports external symbols for use with SpartaDOS X relocatable binaries. There are two types of external symbols: a) the symbols which have been defined externally in global memory by the system, your program may want to import these (XREFs); b) the symbols your program wants to export to the global memory for the system or other programs to use (XDEFs).

XREFs are declared using the keyword .XREF. The argument to this keyword is the label of an external symbol which is predefined by the system and otherwise known (see SpartaDOS X programming documentation), for example:

.xref COMTAB

will declare label 'COMTAB' so that your program may reference it without further definition. When your program gets assembled, that label will cause the assembler to generate an XREF record and append it to the resulting binary file. At loading time, the SpartaDOS X relocating loader will take that into account and, if the symbol exists, will resolve it to an address. XREFs are allowed in .ABS, .REL and .DATA segment types. *An XREF record will contain a symbol name converted to upper- -case and cut down to 8 characters, when it is longer than that, or spacepadded to 8 characters otherwise.*

As for that particular example, COMTAB is the SpartaDOS internal structure containing many fields located at offsets negative and positive from the point the symbol points to. Using references such as COMTAB-4 or COMTAB+255 may be inconvenient, therefore you can assign them labels, for example:

```
.xref COMTAB
divend = COMTAB-6decayt = COMTAB-19decut2 = COMTRB-21
```
The references to these "secondary" labels, when used in your pro-

gram, will cause the assembler to generate XREF records for the originating symbol. *An XREF-type label is declared as type value (not address!), and it is to be kept in mind that the result of any arithmetic, where one of the components is XREF, will also be XREF. It is also not allowed to have two or more XREFs in one equation – it would not make sense as the exact value of an XREF is unknown during assembling.*

**Notice:** an XREF label gets a value of 0 by default (the actual address being filled in at loading time, as explained above). ELSA's integer evaluator performs 32-bit computations, thus any calculation sets all the 32 bits of the result. Accordingly, COMTAB-1 =  $0-1 = -1$ , and  $-1$  is \$FFFFFFFF in 32-bit integer representation. Thus e.g. LDX COMTAB-1, intended as being in absolute addressing mode, could easily be "cast" to the long absolute addressing mode, which in turn does not exist for LDX! To prevent such unpleasant surprises, the result of an arithmetic expression which contains an XREF is (as of 0.95) cut down to 16 bits. Please keep in mind that this does not prevent XREFs from referencing locations anywhere in the 24-bit address space: this just prevents these references from spanning 64k boundaries (as e.g. \$000000-1 will wrap back to \$00FFFF – but the relocating loader is still able to fill all three bytes of a longword, when applicable).

#### **2. XDEFs**

XDEFs, on the other hand, do not require separate directives, a label is declared as a symbol to be exported using the declarator '%'; for example, this declaration:

#### @grep%

will cause the assembler to generate an XDEF record defining the symbol @GREP. At loading time the SpartaDOS X relocating loader will append that symbol to the global list, and remove it, when your program terminates (unless your program is a TSR). XDEFs are allowed in .REL segment type only. *Unlike XREF, the XDEF status is not preserved in assignments; in other words, if your assign the @grep label's value as defined above to some other label, the latter will not become an XDEF.*

## **XIX. Starting relocatable programs**

SpartaDOS programs are by default started at the beginning of the block which was consecutively the first one to be loaded to the memory. Nevertheless a relocatable program can be started from another point than its very beginning, and it can be done without additional support code.

It is just enough to know that the RUNAD vector (\$02E0) is still operational and will be used by the loader, when set; and that pointers located within an .ABS block will get fixed up during loading. Therefore, assuming that *START* is a label pointing to a location in a relocatable block, write:

.run start

This will generate an .ABS block loading the appropriate word pointer to the RUNAD vector. The program will then be started from that label rather than from the beginning.

*The use of .INIT in a relocatable program is allowed by the assembler and a formally correct binary file will be generated, but the init records will be ignored by the loader.*

## **XX. Error messages**

Errors are generated when the assembling process cannot be continued due to a condition. The assembling is aborted then and ELSA returns to DOS. On SpartaDOS X the error code is handed back to the system, so that it can be detected and acted upon in a batch file, for example.









## **XXI. Warning messages**

Warnings are generated when the assembler detects a condition, which does not prevent the program from being assembled, but which may be easily overlooked and it may prove useful to turn programmer's attention to that. The assembling is not aborted.

Warnings can be disabled using /Q in the command line options, or using .OPT W- in the source file. The effect of the latter can be reversed using .OPT W+.





## **Appendix A: SpartaDOS X system loader relocation rules**

Normally, the SpartaDOS X system loader performs fixing up the 16-bit words, which the fixup records or XREF records, appended to the binary file, identify as 16-bit addresses (within 64k address space) to be fixed during loading. Loading blocks of code to 130XE-type or Axlontype banked memory does not make any difference, because all that physically fits in the 64k address space.

Extending that scheme to the 24-bit address space requires introducing additional rules which allow the SpartaDOS X system loader to decide on the fly if the memory location to be fixed up is a 16-bit word or a 24-bit long word.

To explain that we have first to define two terms:

a) base block: it is the program's block which provides the base address for relocation. For example, if I have loaded some code at \$002000 and want to reference it from another block (loaded somewhere else), \$002000 will be the base address for my relocations: the relocating loader will add that address to any absolute reference (e.g. a JSR) I am making to that block.

b) target block: it is the program's block inside which the relocating loader will be fixing up the addresses. These locations may contain absolute references (e.g. a JSR) to the same block (internal references) as well as to other blocks (external references).

Now, as said already, the default size of all relocations is 16-bit: if I want to make a JSR from the "target" block to an address in the "base" block, the assembler will generate a JSR instruction with the argument relative to the beginning of the block the JSR is aiming at (= the base block); and the relocating loader, while the program is being loaded, will fix that word up by adding the base block load address to the argument of the JSR.

For the 6502's 64k address space, this is always the case. For the 65C816 24-bit address space the following additional rules apply:

a) if the base block is not the same as the target block, **and**

b) if the base block is loaded outside the first 64k (segment 0), **then**

c) the relocation size is 24-bit.

In pseudocode:

```
fixups = word
if base block <> target block
        b1 = base block address & $ff0000if b1 \langle \rangle 0
              fixups = long
        endif
endif
```
This means that:

a) internal references of any block, whenever it is loaded, will be resolved as 16-bit words; this makes internal long word references possible only for blocks loaded to the first 64k (segment 0);

b) external references to any block loaded to the segment 0 may be both 16-bit and 24-bit; in 24-bit long words the most significant byte will be unchanged by the relocating loader;

c) external references to any block loaded outside the segment 0 must be 24-bit.

# **Appendix B: MAE's directives not supported in ELSA**



# **Appendix C: MAE's bugs**

There are several known bugs in MAE's compiler, here is how ELSA will behave in the same circumstances:


## **Appendix D: ELSA's source statistics**

- \* Labels defined: ca 2200 (ca 50 KB)
- \* Source code lines: ca 16000
- \* Source code size: ca 192 KB
- \* Number of source files: 32
- \* Shortest source file: 70 bytes
- \* Longest source file: 30 KB





The code to test the 6000 labels:

.rept 6000

#

.endr



## **Time spent generating 32768 times LDA #\$FF**

sec.)

The code:

```
.rept 32768
lda #$ff
.endr
```


The code for ELSA:

```
.out empty.rom
.opt h-
.rept 32768
.hex ff ff ff ff ff ff ff ff
.endr
.rept 32768
.hex ff ff ff ff ff ff ff ff
.endr
```
The roughly equivalent code for MADS:

```
.opt h-
.rept 32768
.byte $ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff
.endr
.rept 32768
.byte $ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff,$ff
.endr
```