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# COMPUTER SYSTEM CROSS-FERTILIZATION: MAKING YOUR TI 980 PLAY YOUR TMS 9900* 

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## ABSTRACT

Being faced with the considerable problem of wanting to use TMS 9900 devices in several small control and data acquisition applications, but not wanting to pay for a development system to do it, we developed several simple, effective techniques for doing TMS 9900 programming and debugging on our TI 980 system. The 980 assembler lends itself easily to the redefinition of operation codes required to assemble programs for the 9900. Also, a simple interconnection between the 980 and the 9900 allows us to operate the 9900 and to monitor the operation on the 980 . Finally, we have developed special operation codes within the 980 assembler which allow us to program hardware control on the 9900 system via a macro-language tailored to a particular 9900 hardware configuration.

## INTRODUCTION

Back in the early days of the TMS 9900 (the spring of 1976 when the price was $\$ 99.32$ ), it became obvious that this particular device was going to become very useful to us. We deal in one-of-a-kind applications, many requiring fairly high rates of transfer of 16-bit data. For example, we designed and built a special-purpose disc controller for our TI 980 system. The TMS 9900 appeared on the scene just in time to do the job for us, and is still performing admirably. In another application, we needed a preprocessor for data from an array of sodium iodide crystals in a series of tomographic experiments with heavy ions. Again, the TMS 9900 had just appeared and is today preprocessing data to be shipped to a 16-bit minicomputer system. Operating speed, the on-chip multiply, the 16-bit word length and the CRU input-output made the device peculiarly useful to us.

[^0]However, several age-old problems existed back in 1976. There were no development systems availitble for the TMS 9900 and even if there were, our budqet was not ready to accept what would have been a relatively expensive item for developing a system around an as-yet. untried product. Als, althouqh assembly language is fine for some simple jobs (and ren red for some fast iobs), it can be a very trying and expensive diet if tuken too reqularly.

G tting started, we attacked these various problems in qood engineering fr. hion; one at a time, and using our available resources, mainly a TI 980 A system which we inherited from a defunct series of experiments. Our initial thought was to develop a simple cross-assembler so we could at leas: dse the editing capabilities of the 980 . From the depths of despair ar thinking about this idea, however, came what proved proved to be an spiration. The 980 assembler allows the definition of new op-codes (JPD, Operation Define) using existing instruction formats. It also allows the user to define fields for new instruction's (FRM, Format a New Instruction). Using these two features allowed us, to produce an assembler for the TMS 9000 which executed on our TI 980-A system, the entire project (after the initial inspiration) requiring less than an hour to implement. The TMS 9900 assembler, including comments, consists of exactly 130 lines of code.

Of course, there are some small irreconcilable differences between the 080 and the 9900 , but like the Wright Brothers we were off the ground at last.

Certcin 9900 instructions correspond in form with 980 instructions. (See Fiqure 1) These, of course, fit directly into the the 980 assembler (with an COD directive for each.) These are 9900 formats 2, 6, 7, and 8 which correrinond in form to 980 formats, respectively, $1,3,5$, and 6 as illustrated in Fiqure 1. The remaining 9900 instructions are implemented in the 980 assembler via the FRM directive. One directive is used per class of instruction, fol wed by EOU (equivalent) statements to define the appropriate 9900 mnemonics. Figure 2 is a listing of "SAL 99003." This 130-1 ine block must preceed each assembly. Notice that a JMP instruction goes in as:

$$
\text { JMP } \quad \text { ARG }
$$

whereas a MOV instruction becomes:

$$
\text { ARI } \quad \text { MOV,D,0,I,13. }
$$

ADD becomes:

| ART | $A, X, 0, X, 0$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| DATA | SOURCE, DESTINATION |

The system is not ideal. Routines written this way cannot be run verbatim into any assembler existing on any 9900-based system. Also, since the 980 assembler only recognizes 8 registers (but fortunately will accept 16 -register codes), we get meaningless error flags for some 9900 format 6 instructions. However, as a group which never had the opportunity to become accustomed to 9900 -based assembly language, we quickly became fluent in our own version.

A fundamental difference between the 9900 and the 980 is memory addressing. The 9900 uses byte addrєssing, except for JMP instructions, IMP instructions use word-relative addressing, making them compatible with 900 field mnemonics. For example, 9900 Format 1 instructions (add, subtract, move, compare, and, or) require:

ARI FRM $4,2,4,2,4$,
the first field corresponding to an operation code and the subsequent fields setting up addressing. Next, to allow mnemonic references to the five fields, the following equivalences are defined lusing MOV as an example):

| MOV | EQU | $>C$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $D$ | EQU | 0 |
| $I$ | EQIJ | 1 |
| $X$ | EOU | 2 |
| XINC | EQU | 3 |

The $D, I, X$ and XINC equivalences define mnemonics for use in the two 2-bit fields (fields 2 and 4) which specify addressing type. $D$ is for register direct, I for indirect, X for indexed and XINC for indirect/auto incrementing. A move instruction which is designed to move a word of data into register 0 from a location pointed to by register 2 , for example, is mnemonically written as:

MOV, D, O, I, 2.

To move a word of data from some arbitrary memory lucation:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ARI } & \text { MOV, } D, 0, X, 0 \\
\text { DATA } & \text { SOURCE }+ \text { SOURCE }
\end{array}
$$

SOURCE DATA VALUE

Where SOURCE is a pointer to the data word containing VALUE. In 980 language, memory addresses are assumed to be 16-bit word addresses. In g900 language, memory is addressed by bytes. Consequently, an address which the 980 assembler defines as a memory address must be doubled to produce toe correct 9900 memory address. This is the reason for representing the location of SOURCE in the above statement as SOURCE+SOURCE. The statement source*2 could be used if the result of the multipication is less than 32,768 (most significant bit reset). Utherwise, the hardware multiply instruction used by the 980 assembler may reset this bit, producing an incorrect value ( 980 hardware assumes the most significant bit of each half of a multiply result to be a sign bit.) Our cne-hour assembler is displayed in Figure 2. Since we have never had the legitimate 9900 assembler to learn on, the peculiarities of our own version have become conventions to us, no longer seeming particularly clumsy or illogical.

## CARRYING ON

Now we were assembling proarams for our embryonic systems. However, as anybody who has tried it knows, debugging computer programs with iust an oscilloscope and selected test points (without the benefit of a control panel) is, at best, tedious.

One possible solution to this dilemma would have been to build a control panel complete with lights, switches and debugging features. Our solution was to connect a 9900 chip to our 980 via a standard 16 -in/16-out data module. This connection allowed us to program the 980 to use a reserved block of its memory as the memory space of the 9900. Enough logic was added to the connection to allow the 980 to micro-step the 9900 , to generate 9900 interrupts and to implement the CRU channel (see Figure 3).

Next we wrote a 980 program to drive the 9900 , allowing the 980 to intervene in selected memory accesses. For examp?e, the 980 can record and display every memory access. Or it can select only Instruction Acquisition (IAQ) accesses to record and display. The 980 can also display only-write or only-read accesses; or accesses only to seiectrd memory locations, or only to selected IAO locations. The 980 can set breakpoints at arbitary points and then operate the 9900 chip until it reaches a breakpoint.

Now we could write a program and run through its execution in enough detail to be sure it would not suffer software hangups. Of course, the 9900 was not being operated at top speed, and many 9900 inpur/output operations were not practical to emulate with this scheme. However, our er.jnomy bootstrap routine was running.

## LANGAUAGE DEVELOPMENTS

As mentioned earlier, we deal in one-of-a kind hardware projects. Our latest has been an $X$-ray fluorescence trace element analysis system which counts secondary $X$-radiation from a series of samples mounted in carriers and moved through the counting station by a nechanical transport mechanism. The 0000 subsystem in this is responsible for monitoring and moving the mechanical pieces as well as for reading and recording the raw data in a large attached paged memory. The heavy analysis for the system is done on an attached desk-top programahle calculator. It is desirable for us to produce a system which is easy to change and for which simple changes do not require delving into the details of an assembly-language prcgram. Consequently, we have done our 9900 assembly lariguage programming in smali packets which du specific jobs for specific hardware. Each small packet is affiliated with a driver routine which simultaneously services several of the packets. By passing appropriate arguments to this driver routine, the appropriate packet or sequence of packets is called to perform the necessary job.

In order to simply and efficiently make these routines accessable to a user in a flexible way, we have utilized the unique context-switching capability of the 9900 -based subsystem. The 9900 executes a short loop, which controls a pseudo program-counter steppirg through a list of pseudo-instructions. The pseudo-instructions form the body of a language tailor-made to operate the attached hardware.

Each pseudo-instruction is defined by a workspace pointer/program counter pair which form the calling parameters for a 9900 BLWP instruction (Figure 4). The op-code for the pseudo-instruction is defined as the pointer to the appropriate workspace pointer/program counter parameter pair. To execute a program in pseudo-language requires the 9900 loop:

| START | LI | 0,PROGM | POINTER TO FIRST STEP (PSEUDO-PC) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RUN | MOV | I, 0,0, 2 | OPCOUE IS PARAMETER POINTER |
|  | JE! | Start | ZERO OP CODE MEANS RESTART |
|  | INCT | D,0 | STEP PSEUDO PC |
|  | BL $\mathrm{SP}^{\text {P }}$ | I, ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | EXECUTE THE PSEUDO-INSTRUCTION |
|  | , MP | RUN | LOOP |

Each instruction execution is a context switch. A user program example would be:

| PROGM | ASCAL | RESET | RESET SCALER |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | OTIMR | RESET | RESET TIMER |
|  | OTIMR | START | START TIMER |
|  | OADC | ON | TURN ON ADC |
|  | FIN |  | END. RESTART. |

The operations (such as SCAL, TIMR) are defined in 980 assembly language directives, and the a preceeding the mnemonic (@SCAL, @TIMR) forces the a80 arsempler to reserve an extra instruction word. Location START in the execution loop resets the pseudo program-counter (register 0) to point to the first statement of the user program (PP.JGM). Op code 0 is the FIN statement which signals the end of the user program (and forces a restart). Next, the pseudo program-counter is stepped to point to the next location in the user program. This is the location of the parameter RESET. The SCAL routine will pick up this parameter and use it to direct resetting the scaler. The SCAL routine steps the pseudo program-counter after getting the parameter (INCT 1,13), thus preparing for an exit via RTWP after its job is finisher.

## EPILOG

What we have described is not a tutorial on what to do. Nearly everything we have done has been superceded in economic and efficient fashion by material now available from Texas Instruments. We still use our cross assembler simply because we have it and we are very familiar with it. However, TIBUG achieves much of what we were attempting with our cross-connection between the 980 and a 9900 chip , and the recent introduction of POWER BASIC supercedes our own pseudo-language developments.

What we have described is, first of all, history. It is a story of challenges successfully met when a new and apparently useful device appear. d without much manufacturer support. It is also a story of how to learn in great depth ahout a new device. Finally it is a story about the immeasurable value of ingenuity in the face of crucial challenges coupled with a perenial budget crunch.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Reterences to a company or product name does not imply approval or recommendation of the product by the University of California or the United States Department of Energy to the exclusion of others that may be suitable.

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Fig. 1: The correspondence between 9900 and 980 instruction format, allowing some simple op-code redefinitions. The 980 OPD directive defines a 16 -bit op cocie independent of the size determined by the above field definitions.


Fig. 2: A listing of SAL 9900.3 - TMS 9900 assembly language defined in TI 980 terms. Formats 2,6,7, and 8 ( 9900 language) are defined with the OPD directive. The remainder use the FRM directive and EQUalities for complete instruction definitions.


FIG. 2 page 2


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Fig. 3: Logic required to connect the 980 as 9900 memory and control.

USER PROGRAM (LIST OF PRE-DEFINED

OPERATIONS)


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Fig. 4: Linkage required for running the user program in the user pseudo-language.


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