Atari 2600 Programming for Newbies

By Andrew Davie

# Session 1: Start Here

So, you want to program the Atari 2600 and don't know where to start?

Welcome to the first installment of "000001010 00101000 00000000 1100101"—which at first glance is a rather odd name for a programming tutorial—but on closer examination is appropriate, as it is closely involved with what it's like to program the Atari 2600. The string of 0's and 1's is actually a binary representation of "2600 101".

I'm Andrew Davie, and I've been developing games for various computers and consoles since the late 1970s. Really! What I plan to do with this tutorial is introduce you to the arcane world of programming the '2600, and slowly build up your skill base so that you can start to develop your own games. We'll take this in slow easy stages.

Developing for the Atari 2600 is much simpler today than it was when the machine was a force in the marketplace (back in the 1980s). We have a helpful online community of dedicated programmers, readily available documentation, tools, and sample code—and online forums where we can pose questions and get almost instant feedback and answers. So don't be scared—with a bit of effort, anyone can do this!

It is this online community which makes developing for the machine 'fun'—though I use that in the broadest sense of the word. My 'fun' may be another man's 'torture'. For programming this machine is tricky at best—and not for the feint of heart. But the rewards are great—making this simple hardware do anything at all is quite an achievement—and making it do something new and interesting gives one a warm fuzzy feeling inside.

So, let's get right into it … here's your first installment of "2600 101". We're going to assume that you know how to program \*something\*, but not much more than that. We'll walk through binary arithmetic, hexadecimal, machine architecture, assemblers, graphics, and whatever else gets in our way. And we'll probably divert on tangential issues here and there. But hopefully we'll come out of it with a greater understanding of this little machine, and appreciation for the work of those brilliant programmers who have developed the classics for this system.

## The Basics

A game on the '2600 comes in the form of a cartridge (or 'tape') which is plugged into the console itself. This cartridge consists of a circuit board containing a ROM (or EPROM) which is basically just a silicon chip containing a program and graphics for displaying the game on your TV set. This program (and graphics) are really just a lot of numbers stored on the ROM which are interpreted by the CPU (the processor) inside your '2600 just like a program on any other computer. What makes the '2600 special is … nothing. It's a computer, just like any other!

A computer typically consists of a CPU, memory, and some input/output (I/O) systems. The '2600 has a CPU (a 6507), memory (RAM for the program's calculations, ROM to hold the program and graphics), and I/O systems (joystick and paddles for input, and output to your TV).

### The CPU

The CPU of the '2600 is a variant of a processor used in computers such as the Apple II, the Nintendo NES, the Super Nintendo, and Atari home computers (and others). It's used in all these machines because it is cheap to manufacture, it's simple to program, but also effective—the famous '6502'. In this course we will learn how to program the 6502 microprocessor … but don't panic, we'll take that in easy stages (and besides, it's not as hard as it looks).

The '2600 actually uses a 6507 microprocessor—but this is really just a 6502 dressed in sheep's clothing. The 6507 is able to address less memory than the 6502 but is in all other respects the same. I refer to the '2600 CPU as a 6502 purely as a matter of convenience.

### Memory

Memory is severely restricted on the '2600. When the machine was developed, memory (both ROM and RAM) were very expensive, so we don't have much of either. In fact, there's only 128 BYTES of RAM (and we can't even use all of that!)—and typically (depending on the capabilities of the cartridge we're going to be using for our final game) only about 4K of ROM. So, then, here's our first introduction to the 'limitations' of the machine. We may all have great ideas for '2600 games, but we must keep in mind the limited amount of RAM and ROM!

[If you'd like to create and sell games with a lot more ROM and RAM, check out the Melody boards at AtariAge. And be sure to pick up a Harmony Cartridge for testing your games on a real Atari 2600.]

### Input/Output

Input to the '2600 is through interaction by the users with joystick and paddle controllers, and various switches and buttons on the console itself. There are also additional control devices such as keypads—but we won't delve much into those. Output is invariably through a television picture with sound (the game that we see on our TV).

So, there's not really much to it so far—we have a microprocessor running a program from ROM, using RAM, as required, for the storage of data—and the output of our program being displayed on a TV set. What could be simpler?

## The Development Process

Developing a game for the '2600 is an iterative process involving editing source code, assembling the code, and testing the resulting binary (usually with an emulator). Our first step is to gather together the tools necessary to perform these tasks.

### Source Code

'Source code' is simply one or more text files (created by the programmer and/or tools) containing a list of instructions (and 'encoded' graphics) which make up a game. These data are converted by the assembler into a binary which is the actual data placed on a ROM in a cartridge, and is run by the '2600 itself.

### Text Editor

To edit your source code, you need a text editor—and here the choice is entirely up to you. I use Microsoft Developer Studio myself, as I like its features—but any text editor is fine. Packages integrating the development process (edit/assemble/test) into your text editor are available, and this integration makes the process much quicker and easier (for example, Developer-Studio integration allows a double-click on an error line reported by the assembler, and the editor will position you on the very line in the source code causing the error).

### Assembler

To convert your source code into a binary form, we use an 'assembler'. An assembler is a program which converts assembly language into binary format (and in particular, since the '2600 uses a 6502-variant processor, we need an assembler that knows how to convert 6502 assembly code into binary). Pretty much all '2600 development these days is done using the excellent cross-platformAvailable for multiple machines such as Mac, Linux, Windows, etc. assembler 'DASM' which was written by Matt Dillon in about 1988.

DASM is available online. It would be a good idea to go there now and get a copy of DASM, and the associated support-files for '2600 development. In this course, we will be using DASM exclusively. We'll learn how to setup and use DASM shortly. [DASM is also included with batari Basic, so you could get it there if you don't trust other sources.]

### Emulator

Development of a game in the 1980s consisted of creating a binary imageWrite source code, assemble into binary. and then physically 'burning' the binary onto an EPROM, putting that EPROM onto a cartridge and plugging it into a '2600. This was an inherently slow process (trust me, I did this for NES development!) and it sometimes took 15 minutes just to see a change!

Nowadays, we are able to see changes to code almost immediately because of the availability of good emulators. An emulator is a program which pretends to be another machine/program. For example, a '2600 emulator is able to 'run' binary ROM images and display the results just as if you'd actually plugged a cartridge containing a ROM with that binary into an actual '2600 console. Today's '2600 emulators are very good indeed.

So, instead of actually burning a ROM, we're just going to pretend we've burned one—and look at the results by running this pretend-ROM on an emulator. And if there's a problem, we go back and edit our source code, assemble it to a binary, and run the binary on the emulator again. That's our iterative development process in action.

There are quite a few '2600 emulators available, but two of note are:

* Stella
* z26

Stella is your best choice if you're programming on non-Windows platform. I use Z26 for Windows development, as it is quite fast and appears to be very accurate. Either of these emulators is fine, and it's handy to be able to cross-check results on either.

We'll learn how to use these emulators later—but right now let's continue with the gathering of things we need…

Now that we have an editor, an assembler, and an emulator—the next important things are documentation and sources for information. There are many places on the 'net where you can find information for programming '2600, but perhaps the most important are:

* The Stella List
* AtariAge

## Documentation

And finally, documentation. A copy of the technical specifications of the '2600 hardware (the Stella Programmer's Guide) is essential…

* Stella Programmer's Guide

## Summary

OK, that's all we need. Here's a summary of what you should have…

* Text editor of your choice.
* DASM assembler and '2600 support files.
* Emulator (Z26 or Stella)
* Stella Programmer's Guide
* Bookmarks to AtariAge and the #Stella mailing list.

That's it for this session. Have a read of the Stella Programmer's Guide (don't worry about understanding it yet), and try installing your emulator (and play a few games for 'research' purposes). Next time we will make sure that our development environment is setup correctly, and start to discuss the principles of programming a '2600 game.

P.S. I can't promise to complete this 'course'—but hopefully what I do write will be interesting and helpful.

# Session 2: Television Display Basics

Hopefully you've been through the first part and have your editor, assembler, emulator and documentation ready to go. What we're going to look at now is a basic overview of how a television works, and why this is absolutely necessary prerequisite knowledge for the '2600 programmer. We're not going to cover a lot of '2600 specific stuff this time, but this is most definitely stuff you NEED TO KNOW!

Television has been around longer than you probably realize. Early mechanical television pictures were successfully broadcast in the '20s and '30s (yes, really!—see tvdawn.com). The mechanical 'scanning' technology utilized in these early television systems are no doubt the predecessors to the 'scanning' employed in our modern televisions.

A television doesn't display a continuous moving image. In fact, television displays static (non-moving) images in rapid succession—changing between images so quickly that the human eye perceives any movement as continuous. And even those static images aren't what they seem—they are really composed of lots of separate lines, each drawn one after the other by your TV, in rapid succession. So quick, in fact, that hundreds of them are drawn every image, and many images are drawn every second. In fact, the actual numbers are very important, so we'll have a look at those right now.

## NTSC, PAL, and SECAM

The Atari 2600 console was released in many different countries around the world. Not all of these countries use the same television 'system'—in fact there are three variations of TV systems (and there are three totally different variations of Atari 2600 hardware to support these systems). These systems are called NTSC, PAL, and SECAM. NTSC is used for the USA and Japan, PAL for many European countries, and Australia, and SECAM is used in France, some ex-French colonies (for example, Vietnam), and Russia. SECAM is very similar to PAL (625/50Hz), but I won't spend much time talking about it, as Atari SECAM units are incredibly rare, and little if any development is done for that format anyway. Interestingly, the differences in requirements for displaying a valid TV image for these systems leads to the incompatibility between cartridges made for NTSC, PAL and SECAM Atari units. We'll understand why, shortly!

### Images Per Second (Frequency)

A television signal contains either 60 images per second (on NTSC systems) or 50 images per second (on PAL systems). This is closely tied to the frequency of mains AC power in the countries which use these systems—and this is probably for historical reasons. In any case, it's important to understand that there are differences. Furthermore, NTSC images are 525 scanlines deep, and PAL images are 625 scanlines deep. From this, it follows that PAL images have more detail—but are displayed less frequently—or alternatively, NTSC images have less detail but are displayed more often. In practice, TV looks pretty much the same in both systems.

But from the '2600 point of view, the difference in frequency (50Hz vs. 60Hz) and resolution (625 scanlines vs. 525 scanlines) is important—very important—because it is the PROGRAMMER who has to control the data going to the TV. It is not done by the '2600 (!!)—the '2600 only generates a signal for a single scanline.

This is completely at odds with how all other consoles work, and what makes programming the '2600 so much 'fun'. Not only does the programmer have to worry about game mechanics—but he or she also has to worry about what the TV is doing (for example, what scanline it is drawing, and when it needs to start a new image, etc.).

Let's have a look at how a single image is drawn by a TV…

### Scanline

A television is a pretty amazing piece of 1930's technology. It forms the images we see by shining an electron beam (or 3, for color TVs) onto a phosphor coating on the front of the picture tube. When the beam strikes the phosphor, the phosphor starts to glow—and that glow slowly decreases in brightness until the phosphor is next hit by the electron beam. The TV 'sweeps' the electron beam across the screen to form 'scanlines'—at the same time as it sweeps, adjusting the intensity of the beam, so the phosphor it strikes glow brightly or dimly. When the beam gets to the end of a scanline, it is turned off, and the deflection circuitry (which controls the beam) is adjusted so that the beam will next start a little bit down, and at the start (far left-hand-side) of the next scanline. And it will then turn on, and sweep left-to-right to draw the next scanline. When the last scanline is drawn, the electron beam is turned off, and the deflection circuitry is reset so that the beam's position will next be at the top left of the TV screen—ready to draw the first scanline of the next frame.

This 'turning-off' and repositioning process—at the end of a scanline, and at the end of an image—is not instantaneous—it takes a certain amount of time for the electronics to do this repositioning, and we'll understand this when we come to talk about the horizontal blank (when the beam is resetting to the left of the next scanline) and the vertical blank (when the beam is resetting to the top left scanline on the screen). I'll leave that for a later session, but when we do come to it, you'll understand what the TV is doing at these points.

A fairly complex—but nonetheless simple-to-understand analog signal controls the sweeping of the electron beam across the face of the TV. First it tells the TV to do the repositioning to the start of the top left line of the screen, then it includes color and intensity information for the electron beam as it sweeps across that line, then it tells the TV to reposition to the start of the next scanline, etc., right down to the last scanline on the screen. Then it starts again with another reposition to the start… That's pretty much all we need to know about how that works.

The Atari 2600 sends the TV the "color and intensity information for the electron beam as it sweeps across that line", and a signal for the start of each new line. The '2600 programmer needs to feed the TV the signal to start the image frame.

#### Interlacing

A little side-track, here. Although I stated that the vertical resolution of a TV image is 625 lines (PAL) and 525 lines (NTSC), television employs another 'trick' called interlacing. Interlacing involves building up an image out of two separate 'frames'—each frame being either the odd scanlines, or the even scanlines of that image. Each frame is displayed every 1/30th of a second (30Hz) for NTSC, or every 1/25th of a second (25Hz) for PAL. By offsetting the vertical position of the start of the first scanline by half a scanline, and due to the persistence of the phosphor coating on the TV, the eye/brain combines these frames displaying alternate lines into a single image of greater vertical resolution than each frame. It's tricky and messy, but a glorious 'hack' solution to the problem of lack of bandwidth in a TV signal.

The upshot of this is that a single FRAME of a TV image is actually only half of the vertical resolution of the image. Thus, a NTSC frame is 525/2 = 262.5 lines deep, and a PAL frame is 625/2 = 312.5 lines deep. The extra .5 of a line is used to indicate to the TV if a frame is the first (even lines) or second (odd lines) of an image. An aside: about a year ago, the #stella community discussed this very aspect of TV images, and if it would be possible for the Atari to exploit this to generate a fully interlaced TV frame—and, in fact, it is possible. So some 25 years after the machine was first released, some clever programmers discovered how to double the resolution of the graphics.

Back to basics, though. We just worked out that a single frame on a TV is 262.5 (NTSC) and 312.5 (PAL) lines deep. And that extra .5 scanline was used to tell the TV if the frame was odd or even. So the actual depth of a single frame is 262 (NTSC) and 312 (PAL) lines. Now, if TV's aren't told that a frame is odd, they don't offset the first scanline by half a scanline's depth—and so, scanlines on successive frames are exactly aligned. We have a non-interlaced image, displayed at 60Hz (NTSC) or 50Hz (PAL). And this is the 'standard' format of an Atari 2600 frame sent to a TV.

In summary, an Atari 2600 frame consists of 262 scanlines (NTSC) or 312 scanlines (PAL), sent at 60Hz (NTSC) or 50Hz (PAL) frequency. It is the job of the '2600 programmer to make sure that the correct number of scanlines are sent to the TV at the right time, with the right graphics data, and appropriate control signals to indicate the end of the frame are also included.

### Color Encoding

One other aspect of the difference between TV standards—and a consequence of the incremental development of television technology (first we had black and white, then color was added—but our black and white TVs could still display a color TV signal—in black and white)—is that color information is encoded in different places in the signal for NTSC and PAL (and SECAM) systems. So, even though the programmer is fully-responsible for controlling the number of scanlines per frame, and the frequency at which frames are generated, it is the Atari itself which encodes the color information into the TV signal.

This is the fundamental reason why there are NTSC, PAL, and SECAM Atari systems—the encoding of the color information for the TV signal! We get some interesting combinations of Atari and games, for example…

If we plug a NTSC cartridge into a PAL '2600, then we know that the NTSC game is generating frames which are 262 lines deep, at 60Hz. But a PAL TV expects frames 312 lines deep, at 50Hz. So the image is only 262/312 of the correct depth, and also images are arriving 60/50 times faster than expected. If we were viewing on a NTSC TV, then the PAL console would be placing the color information for the TV signal in a completely different place than the TV is expecting—so we would see our game in black and white.

There are several combinations you can play with—but the essence is that if you use a different '2600 variant than TV, you will only get black and white (for example, NTSC '2600 with PAL TV or PAL '2600 with NTSC TV) as the color information is not in at the correct frequency band of the signal. And if you plug in a different cartridge than TV (NTSC cart with PAL TV or vice-versa) then what you see depends on the television's capability to synchronize with the signal being generated—as it is not only the incorrect frequency, but also the incorrect number of scanlines.

## Summary

All of this may sound complicated—but really all we need to do is create a 'kernel' (which is the name for your section of an Atari 2600 program which generates the TV frame) which does the drawing correctly—and once that's working, we don't really need to worry too much about the TV—we can abstract that out and just think about what we want to draw.

Well, I lie, but don't want to scare you off TOO early.

Next time, let's have a look how the processor interacts with hardware, I/O and memory.

# Sessions 3 & 6: The TIA and the 6502

Let's spend this session having a look at how some of the hardware generates a scanline for the TV. Remember in session 2, we had a good look at how a TV works, and in particular how a TV frame is composed of 262 scanlines (NTSC) or 312 scanlines (PAL). It's the programmer's job to control how many scanlines are sent to the TV, but it is the '2600 which builds the actual signal comprising the color and intensity information for any scanline. This color and intensity information is derived from the internal 'state' of the TIA (Television Interface Adaptor) chip inside the '2600. The TIA is responsible for creating the signal for a single scanline for the TV.

## The TIA

The TIA 'draws' the pixels on the screen 'on-the-fly'. Each pixel is one 'clock' of the TIA's processing time, and there are exactly 228 color clocks of TIA time on each scanline. But a scanline consists of not only the time it takes to scan the electron beam across the picture tube, but also the time it takes for the beam to return to the start of the next line (the horizontal blank, or retrace). Of the 228 color clocks, 160 are used to draw the pixels on the screen (giving us our maximum horizontal resolution of 160 pixels per line), and 68 are consumed during the retrace period.

### 6502 Clock

The 6502 clock is derived from the TIA clock through a divide-by-three. That is, for every single clock of 6502 time, three clocks of TIA time have passed. Therefore, there are \*exactly\* 228/3 = 76 cycles of 6502 time per scanline. The 6502 and TIA perform a complex 'in-step' dance—one cycle of 6502, three cycles of TIA. A side-note: 76 cycles per line x 262 lines per frame x 60 frames per second = the number of 6502 cycles per second for NTSC (roughly equals 1.19MHz).

So, as our 6502 program is executing its instructions, the TIA is also sending data for each scanline. Every cycle of 6502 time we know that the TIA has sent 3 color clocks of information to the TV. If the TIA was in the first 68 color clocks of the scanline, then it was in the horizontal retrace period. If it was in color clock 68-227, then it was drawing pixels on the visible scanline. And so we go, the 6502 program doing its stuff and at the very same time the TIA doing its stuff.

The magic happens when you start changing the 'state' of the TIA, because those changes are reflected immediately in the TIA output to the TV! Since the 6502 is 'locked' to the TIA through their shared timing origin, it is possible for the programmer to know exactly what pixel on a scanline the TIA is currently drawing. And knowing where the TIA 'is at' allows us to change what it is drawing at particular positions on the scanline. We don't have much scope for change, but we do have some. And it is this ability that master '2600 programmers use to achieve all those amazing effects.

Naturally, to achieve this sort of precision timing, programmers have to know exactly how long the 6502 takes to do each instruction. For example, a load/store combination takes a minimum of 5 cycles of 6502 time. How many onscreen pixels is that? Remember, 3 color clocks per 6502 cycle, so that's 3 x 5 = 15 pixels. Essentially, if one were using the quickest possible load/store combinations to change the color of, say, the background, then the absolute quickest this could be done would be every 15 pixels (just on 11 times per scanline).

### TV Timing

Here's an updated image of the TV timing, taken from the Stella Programming Guide. Some of the numbers should make sense, now. The ones that don't … we'll cover those soon.

Have a good look at this image, and try and understand what it's showing. Your understanding of this will greatly assist your '2600 programming efforts, especially when it comes to designing your kernel.

A screen shot of a video game

Description automatically generated

## Summary

Don't despair! It is not necessary for you to learn how to count 6502 cycles at this stage. Those sort of tricks are for more advanced '2600 programming—and the original design of the TIA hardware made this unnecessary. It's only when you need to push the hardware (TIA) beyond its original design, that you will come to appreciate the benefit inherent in the way that the 6502 and TIA are intricately tied together.

Next session we'll have a closer look at the TIA and how it determines what color to use for each pixel of the scanline it is drawing. In particular, we'll start to look at background, playfield, sprite, missile and ball graphics.

# Session 4: The TIA

Last session we were introduced to the link between the 6502 and the TIA. Specifically, how every cycle of 6502 time corresponds to three color clocks of TIA time.

## The TIA

The TIA determines the color of each pixel based on its current 'state', which contains information about the color, position, size and shape of objects such as background, playfield, sprites (2), missiles (2) and ball. As soon as the TIA completes a scanline (228 cycles, consisting of 160 color clocks of pixels, and 68 color clocks of horizontal blank), it begins drawing the next scanline. Unless there is some change to the TIA's internal 'state' during a scanline, then each scanline will be absolutely identical.

Consequently, the absolute simplest way to 'draw' 262 lines for a NTSC frame is to just WAIT for 262 (lines) x 76 (cycles per line) 6502 cycles. After that time, the TIA will have sent 262 identical lines to the TV. There are other things that we'd need to do to add appropriate control signals to the frame, so that the TV would correctly sync to the frame—but the essential point here is that we can leave the TIA alone and let it do its stuff. Without our intervention, once the TIA is started it will keep sending scanlines (all the same!) to the TV. And all we have to do to draw n scanlines is wait n x 76 cycles.

It's time to have a little introduction to the 6502.

### Binary Numbers

The CPU of the '2600, the 6502, is an 8-bit processor. Basically this means that it is designed to work with numbers 8-binary-bits at a time. An 8-bit binary number has 8 0's or 1's in it, and can represent a decimal number from 0 to 255. Here's a quick low-down on binary…

In our decimal system, each digit 'position' has an intrinsic value. The units position (far right) has a value of 1, the tens position has a value of 10, the hundreds position has a value of one hundred, the thousands position has a value of 1000, etc. This seems silly and obvious—but it's also the same as saying the units position has a value of 10^0 (where ^ means to the power of), the tens position has a value of 10^1, the hundreds position has a value of 10^2, etc. In fact, it's clear to see that position number 'n' (counting right to left, from n=0 as the right-most digit) has a value of 10^n.

That's true of ANY number system, where the 10 is replaced by the 'base'. For example, hexadecimal is just like decimal, except instead of counting 10 digits (0 to 9) we count 16 digits (0 to 15, commonly written 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F—thus 'F' is actually a hex digit with decimal value 15—which again, is 1 x 10^1 + 5 x 10^0 ). So in hexadecimal (or hex, for short), the digit positions are 16^n. There's no difference between hex, decimal, binary, etc., in terms of the interpretation of a number in that number system. Consider the binary number 01100101—this is (reading right to left) … 1 x 2^0 + 0 x 2^1 + 1 x 2^2 + 0 x 2^3 + 0 x 2^4 + 1x2^5 + 1x2^6 + 1x2^7. In decimal, the value is 101. So, %01100101 = 101 where the % represents a binary number. Hexadecimal numbers are prefixed with a $.We'll get used to using binary, decimal and hex interchangeably—after all they are just different ways of writing the same thing. When I'm talking about numbers in various bases, I'll include the appropriate prefix when not base-10.

So now it should be easy to understand WHY an 8-bit binary number can represent decimal values from 0 to 255—the largest binary number with 8 bits would be %11111111—which is 1 x 2^7 + 1 x 2^6 + … + 1 x 2^0.

The 6502 is able to shift 8-bit numbers to and from various locations in memory (referred to as addresses)—each memory location is \*UNIQUELY\* identified by a memory address, which is just like your house street address, or your post-box number. The processor is able to access memory locations and retrieve 8-bit values from, or store 8-bit values to those locations.

### Registers

The processor itself has just three 'registers'. These are internal memory/storage locations. These three registers (named 'A', 'X', and 'Y') are used for manipulating the 8-bit values retrieved from memory locations and for performing whatever calculations are necessary to make your program do its thing.

What can you do with just three registers? Not much … but a hell of a lot of not much adds up to something! Just like with the TV frame generation, a lot of work is left for the programmer. The 6502 cannot multiply or divide. It can only increment, decrement, add and subtract, and it can only work with 8-bit numbers! It can load data from one memory location, do one of those operations on it (if required) and store the data back to memory (possibly in another location). And out of that capability comes all the games we've ever seen on the '2600. Amazing, innit?

At this stage it is probably a good idea for you to start looking for some books on 6502 programming—because that's the ONLY option when programming '2600. Due to the severe time, RAM and ROM constraints, every cycle is precious, every bit is sacred. Only the human mind is currently capable of writing programs as efficiently as required for '2600 development.

That was a bit of a diversion—let's get back to the TIA and how the TIA and 6502 can be used together to draw exactly 262 lines on the TV. Our first task is simply to 'wait' for 76 cycles, times 262 lines.

### NOP

The simplest way to just 'wait' on the 6502 is just to execute a 'nop' instruction. 'nop' stands for no-operation, and it takes exactly two cycles to execute. So if we had 38 'nop's one after the other, the 6502 would finish executing the last one exactly 76 cycles after it started the first. And assuming the first 'nop' started at the beginning of the scanline, then the TIA (which is doing its magic at the same time) would have just finished the last color clock of the scanline at the same time as the last nop finished. In other words, the very next scanline would then start as our 6502 was about to execute the instruction after the last nop, and the TIA was just about to start the horizontal retrace period (which, as we have learned, is 68 color clocks long).

How do we tell the 6502 to execute a 'nop'? Simply typing nop on a line by itself (with at least one leading space) in the source code is all we have to do. The assembler will convert this mnemonic into the actual binary value of the nop instruction. For example…

; sample code

    NOP

    nop

; end of sample code

The above code shows two nop instructions—the assembler is case-insensitive. Comments are preceded by semicolons, and occupy the rest of a line after the ; Opcodes (instructions) are mnemonics—typically 3 letters—and must not start at the beginning of a line! We can have only one opcode on each line. An assembler would convert the above code into a binary file containing two bytes—both $EA (remember, a $ prefix indicates a hexadecimal number) = 234 decimal. When the 6502 retrieves an opcode of $EA, it simply pauses for 2 cycles, and then executes the next instruction. The code sequence above would pause the processor for 4 cycles (which is 12 pixels of TIA time, right?!)

But there are better ways to wait 76 cycles! After all, 38 'nop's would cost us 38 bytes of precious ROM—and if we had to do that 262 times (without looping), that would be 9432 bytes—more than double the space we have for our ENTIRE game!

### WSYNC

The TIA is so closely tied to the 6502 that it has the ability to stop and start the 6502 at will. Funnily enough, at the 6502's will! More correctly, the 6502 has the ability to tell the TIA to stop it (the 6502), and since the TIA automatically re-starts the 6502 at the beginning of every scanline, the very next thing the 6502 knows after telling the TIA to stop the CPU is that the TIA is at the beginning of the very next scanline. In fact, this is the way to synchronize the TIA and 6502 if you're unsure where you're at—simply halt the CPU through the TIA, and next thing you know you're synchronized. It's like a time-warp, or a frozen sleep—you're simply not aware of time passing—you say 'halt' and then continue on as if no halt has happened. It has, but the 6502 doesn't know it.

This CPU-halt is achieved by writing any value to a TIA 'register' called WSYNC. Before we get into reading and writing values to and from 'registers' and 'memory', and what that all means, we'll need to have a look at the memory architecture of the '2600—and how the 6502 interacts with memory, including RAM and ROM.

## Summary

We'll start to explore the memory map (architecture) and the 6502's interaction with memory and hardware, in our next installment.

# Session 5: Memory Architecture

Let's have a look at the memory architecture of the '2600, and how the 6502 communicates with the TIA and other parts of the '2600 hardware.

## Memory Mapping

The 6502 communicates with the TIA by writing, and sometimes reading values to/from TIA 'registers'. These registers are 'mapped' to certain fixed addresses in the 6502's addressing range.

In its simplest form, the 6502 is able to address 65536 (2^16) bytes of memory, each with a unique address. Each 16-bit address ultimately directly controls the 'wires' on a 16-bit buspathway to memory, selecting the appropriate byte of memory to read/write. However, the '2600 CPU, the 6507, is only able to directly access 2^13 bytes (8192 bytes) of memory. That is, only 13 of the 16 address lines are actually connected to physical memory.

This is our first introduction to 'memory mapping' and mirroring. Given that the 6507 can only access addresses using the low 13 bits of an address, what happens if bit 14, 15, or 16 of an address are set? Where does the 6507 go to look for its data? In fact, bits 14,15, and 16 are totally ignored—only the low 13 bits are used to identify the address of the byte to read/write. Consider the valid addresses which can be formed with just 13 bits of data…

from %0000000000000 to %1111111111111

= from $0000 to $1FFF

### Zero is Zero

Note: $0000 is the same as 0 is the same as %000 is the same as %0000000000. 0 is 0. In the same vein, any number with leading zeros is the same as that number without zeros. I often see people writing $02 when they could just write $2, or better yet … 2. Your assembler doesn't care how numbers are written. It's the value of numbers that matter. So use the most readable form of numbers, where it makes sense. Remember, 0 is 0000 is %0 is $000

### Memory Footprint

So we've just written down the minimum and maximum addresses that can be formed with 13 bits. This gives us our memory 'footprint'—the absolute extremes of memory which can be accessed by the 6507 through a 13-bit address.

### Reads and/or Writes

This next idea is important, so make sure you understand! All communication between the CPU and hardware (be it ROM, RAM, I/O, the TIA, or other) is through reads and/or writes to memory locations. Read that again.

The consequences of this are that some of that memory range (between $0 and $1FFF) must contain our RAM, some must contain our ROM (program), and some must presumably allow us to communicate with the TIA and whatever other communication/control systems the machine has. And that's exactly how it works.

### RAM

We have just 128 bytes of RAM on the '2600. That RAM 'lives' at addresses $80 - $FF. It's always there, so any write to location $80 (128 decimal) will actually be to the first byte of RAM. Likewise, any read from those locations is actually reading from RAM.

So we've just learned that the 6507 addresses memory using 13 bits to uniquely identify the memory location, and that some areas of that memory 'range' are devoted to different uses. The area from $80 to $FF is our 128 bytes of RAM!

Don't worry too much about understanding this yet, but TIA registers are mapped in the memory addresses 0 to $7F, RIOT (a bit of '2600 hardware we'll look at later) from $280 - $2FF (roughly), and our program is mapped into address range $1000 to $1FFF (a 4K size).

Note: 1K = 1024 bytes = $400 bytes = %10000000000 bytes.

### The TIA

In essence, then, to change the state of the TIA we just have to write values to TIA 'registers' which look to the 6507 just like any other memory location and which 'live' in addresses 0 to $7F. To the 6502 (and I'll revert to that name now we've emphasized that the 6507 only has 13 address lines as opposed to the 6502's 16 and all other things are equal) a read or write of a TIA register is just the same as a read or write to any other area of memory. The difference is, the TIA is 'watching' those locations, and when you write to that memory, you're really changing the TIA 'registers'—and potentially changing what it draws on a scanline.

## Summary

So now we know how to communicate with the TIA, and where it 'lives' in our memory footprint. And we know how to communicate with RAM, and where it 'lives'. Even our program in ROM is really just another area in our memory 'map'—the program that runs from a cartridge is accessed by the 6502 just by reading memory locations. In effect, the cartridge 'plugs-in' to the 6502 memory map. Let's have a quick look at what we know so far about memory…

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Address Range | Function |
| $0000 - $007F | TIA registers |
| $0080 - $00FF | RAM |
| $0200 - $02FF | RIOT registers |
| $1000 - $1FFF | ROM |

We'll keep it simple for now—though you may be wondering what 'lives' in the gaps in that map, between the bits we know about. The short answer is 'not much'—so let's not worry about those areas for now. Just remember that when we're accessing TIA registers, we're really accessing memory from 0 to $7F, and when we access RAM, we're accessing memory from $80 to $FF, etc.

Now that we understand HOW the 6502 communicates with the TIA, one of our next steps will be to start to examine the registers of the TIA and what happens when you modify them. It won't be long now before we start to understand how it all works. Stay tuned.

I might give up writing "next time we'll talk about…" because I seem to end up covering something completely different.

# Session 7: The TV and our Kernel

Time to complete our understanding of what constitutes a TV frame—exactly what has to be sent to the TV to make it display a picture correctly.

Let's take another look at the diagram with the timing information and the Pitfall! image inside.

## TV Timing Diagram

A screen shot of a video game

Description automatically generated

### Numbers Across the Top

Your understanding of the numbers across the top should be good, but we'll briefly revisit what they mean, just to make sure.

There are 228 TIA color clocks on each scanline. 160 of those are spent drawing pixels, and 68 of them are the horizontal retrace period for the TV's scanning of the electron beam back to the start of the next line. In the diagram we see the horizontal blank (retrace) at the left side, so our very first color clock for the TIA's first visible pixel on the screen is cycle #68. We should understand this timing fairly well by now.

### Numbers Down the Right Side

What we're going to finalize this session is our understanding of the numbers down the right-hand side—which represent the scanlines sent to the TV. The diagram shows a valid NTSC TV frame—and thus it consists of 262 scanlines. A PAL diagram would consist of 312 scanlines—and the inner 'picture' area would increase from 192 lines to 242 lines.

#### Reset Signal

Let's go from the top. The first thing that the TV needs is a 'reset signal' to indicate to it that a new frame is starting. This is the 3-scanline section at the very top of the frame. There are special ways to trigger the TIA to send this signal, but we're not going to have to worry too much about understanding that—just about every game does it exactly the same way—all we need to remember is that the first thing to send is that reset trigger (called VSYNC).

#### Vertical Blank and Overscan

TVs are not all made the same. Some cut off more of the picture than others, some show wider pictures, some show taller pictures, etc. To 'standardize' the picture, the diagram shows the recommended spread of valid picture lines, surrounded by blank (or 'overscan') lines. In this case, there are 192 lines of actual picture. We don't \*HAVE\* to stick to this—we could steal some of the lines from the vertical blank section, and some from the overscan section, and increase our picture section appropriately.

As long as our total number of scanlines adds up to 262 for NTSC TVs (or 312 for PAL TVs), then the TV will be able to display the frame. But remember, the further we get 'out of specs' with this method, the less likely it is that ALL TVs will show the picture section in its entirety.

#### Right Side Number Recap

OK, let's march through the numbers on the right side of the diagram.

* 3 Scanlines devoted to the vertical synchronization.
* 37 scanlines of vertical blank time.
* 192 (NTSC) or 242 (PAL) lines of actual picture.
* 30 scanlines of overscan.

Total: 262 scanlines (NTSC) or 312 scanlines (PAL), constituting a valid TV frame. You send the TV this, and it will be a rock-solid display.

### Scanlines and PAL TV

One interesting aside: if you send a PAL TV an \*odd\* number of scanlines, it will only display in black and white. I don't know the exact reason for this, but it must be to do with where/when the color signal is encoded in the TV image, and where the TV looks for it. So remember, always send an even number of scanlines to a PAL TV.

### Scanline Standards

You \*can\* send frames with different numbers of scanlines. That is, 262 and 312 are not totally immutable values. But if you do vary these numbers, it is highly likely that an increasing number of TVs—the further you deviate from these standards—will simply not be able to display your image. So, although you \*can\* … you shouldn't.

Fortunately, emulators available to us today are able to show us the actual number of scanlines which are being generated on each frame. This must have been quite a challenging task for early '2600 programmers—nowadays its quite easy to make sure we get it right.

## Summary

Well, now we have all the knowledge we need about the composition of a TV frame. Once we know how to make the TIA generate its reset signal at the top of the frame, and how to wait the correct amount of time to allow us to correctly generate the right number of scanlines for those other sections, we will be able to design our first 'kernel'—the bit that actually 'draws' the frame.

When we have our kernel working, there's not much more to a '2600 game other than moving sprites around, changing colors, etc. See you next time.

# Session 8: Our First Kernel

We're going to jump right in, now that we know what a kernel needs to do. Seen below, and in the attached file, is the source code for a working '2600 kernel. It displays the image you see here. Not bad for just a few lines of code. Over the next few sessions we'll learn how to modify this code, and assemble it—and, of course, what all those strange words mean.

For now, have a look at the structure of the code and note how closely it relates to the structure of the TV frame diagram in the earlier sessions:

A screen shot of a video game

Description automatically generated

Don't expect to understand everything—we'll walk through every line soon. For now, all you need to know is that the "sta WSYNC" is where the 6502 is telling the TIA to halt the 6502 until the start of the next horizontal blank period (which is at the start of the next scanline, at TIA color clock 0). So each of those lines is where one complete scanline has been sent to the TV by the TIA. Have a close look at those lines, and see how there are 3, followed by 37 (vertical blank period), followed by 192 (picture) followed by 30 (overscan)—and how this exactly matches our TV frame diagram, above.

Yes, this is a complete kernel. It's not that difficult!

## Source Code

            processor 6502

            include "vcs.h"

            include "macro.h"

            SEG

            ORG $F000

Reset

StartOfFrame

   ; Start of vertical blank processing

            lda #0

            sta VBLANK

            lda #2

            sta VSYNC

               ; 3 scanlines of VSYNCH signal...

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

            lda #0

            sta VSYNC

               ; 37 scanlines of vertical blank...

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

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                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

               ; 192 scanlines of picture...

                ldx #0

                REPEAT 192; scanlines

                    inx

                    stx COLUBK

                    sta WSYNC

                REPEND

            lda #%01000010

            sta VBLANK       ; end of screen - enter blanking

               ; 30 scanlines of overscan...

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

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                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

            jmp StartOfFrame

            ORG $FFFA

            .word Reset          ; NMI

            .word Reset          ; RESET

            .word Reset          ; IRQ

            END

I tried to make the code sample above as understandable as possible. It is certainly not the most efficient code—for it uses too many bytes of ROM to achieve its effect. But we're learning, and what's important right now is understanding how things work.

Here's a screenshot:

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated

## Summary

Next session we'll have a look at how to actually assemble this code using DASM, and how to make modifications so you can play with it and test it on the emulator to see what effect your changes have.

# Session 9: 6502 and DASM - Assembling the Basics

This session we're going to have a look at the assembler "DASM", what it does, how it does it, why it does it, and how to get it to do it.

The job of an assembler is to convert our source code into a binary image which can be run by the 6502. This conversion process ultimately replaces the mnemonics (the words representing the 6502 instructions we use when writing in assembler) and the symbols (the various names we use for things, such as labels to which we can branch, and various other things like the names of TIA registers, etc) with numerical values.

So ultimately, all the assembler needs to do is figure out a numerical value for all the things which become part of the binary—and place that value in the appropriate place in the binary.

## NOP

We've already had a brief introduction to a 6502 instruction—the one called NOP. This is the no-operation instruction which simply takes 2 cycles to execute. Whenever we enter NOP into our source code, the assembler recognizes this as a 6502 instruction and inserts into the binary the value $EA. This shows that there can be a simple 1:1 relationship between source-code and the binary.

NOP is a single-byte instruction—all it requires is the opcode, and the 6502 will happily execute it. Some instructions require additional 'parameters’ value that is passed to a routine.

## DASM

DASM is the assembler used by most (if not all) modern-day '2600 programmers. It is a multi-platform assembler written in 1988 by Matt Dillon (you should all find his email address and send him a "thank-you" sometime). It's a great tool.

DASM isn't just capable of assembling 6502 (and variant) code—it also has inbuilt capability to assemble code for several other microprocessors. Consequently, one of the very first things that it is necessary to do in our source code is tell DASM what processor the source code is written for…

     processor 6502

This should be just about the first line in any '2600 program you write. If you don't include it, DASM will probably get confused and spit out errors. That's simply because it is trying to assemble your code as if it were written for another processor.

We've just seen how mnemonics (the standard names for instructions) are converted into numerical values by the assembler. Another job the assembler does is convert labels and symbols into values. We've already encountered both of these in our previous sessions, but you may not be familiar with their names.

### Symbol Table

Whenever DASM is doing its job assembling, it keeps a list of all the 'words' it encounters in a file in an internal structure called a symbol table. Think of a symbol as a name for something. Remember the 'sta WSYNC' instruction we used to halt the 6502 and wait for the scanline to be rendered? The 'sta' is the instruction, and 'WSYNC' is a symbol. When it first encounters this symbol, DASM doesn't know much about it, other than what it's called (ie: 'WSYNC'). What DASM needs to do is work out what the \*value\* of that symbol is, so that it can insert that value into the binary file.

When it's assembling, DASM puts all the symbols it finds into its symbol table—and associated with each of these is a value. If it doesn't 'know' the value, that's OK—DASM will keep assembling the rest of the file quite happily. At some point, something in the code might tell DASM what the value for a symbol actually IS—in which case DASM will put that value in its symbol table alongside the symbol. So whenever that symbol is used anywhere, DASM now knows its correct value to put into the binary file.

In fact, it is absolutely necessary for all symbols which go into the binary file to be given values at some point. DASM can't guess values—it's up to you, the programmer, to make sure this happens. A symbol doesn't have to be given a value at any PARTICULAR point in the code, but it does have to be given a value somewhere in the code. DASM will make multiple 'passes'—basically going through the code from beginning to end again and again until it manages to resolve all the symbols to correct values.

#### vcs.h

We've already seen in some sample code how 'sta WSYNC' appears in our binary file as the bytes $85 $02. The first byte $85 is the 'sta' instruction (one variant of many—but let's keep it simple for now) and it is followed by a single byte giving the address of the location into which the byte in the 'A' register is to be stored. We can see this address is location 2 in memory. Somehow, DASM has figured out from the code that the symbol WSYNC has a value of 2, and when it creates the binary file it replaces all occurrences of the symbol with the numeric value 2.

How did it get the value 2? Remember, WSYNC is one of the TIA registers. It appears to the 6502 as a memory location, as the TIA registers are 'mapped' into locations 0 - $7F. The file 'vcs.h' defines (in a roundabout way) the values and names (symbols) for all of the TIA registers. By including the file 'vcs.h' as a part of the assembly for any source file, we automatically tell DASM the correct numeric value for all of the TIA register 'names'.

That's why, at the top of most files, just after the processor statement, we see…

     include "vcs.h"

You don't really need to know much about vcs.h at this stage—but be aware that a 'standardized' version of this file is distributed with the DASM assembler as the '2600 support files package. I would advise you to always use the latest and greatest version of this file. Standards help us all.

So now we know basically what DASM does with symbols—it keeps an internal list of symbols—and their values, if known. DASM will keep going through the code and 'resolving' the symbols into numeric values, until it is complete (or it couldn't find ANYTHING to resolve, in which case it gives an error). Once all symbols have been resolved, your code has been completely processed by the assembler, and it creates the binary image/file for you—and assembly is complete.

### DASM Summary

To summarize: DASM converts source-code consisting of instructions (mnemonics) and symbols into a binary form which can be run by the 6502. The assembler converts mnemonics into opcodes (numbers), and symbols into numbers which it calculates the value of during the assembly process.

### Command Line

DASM is a command-line program—that is, it runs under DOS (or whatever platform you happen to choose, provided you have a runnable version for that platform). DASM is provided with full source-code (it's written in C) so as long as you have a C-compiler handy, you can port it to just about any platform under the sun.

It does come with a manual—and it's always a good idea to familiarize yourself with its capabilities. In the interests of getting you up and running quickly, so you can actually assemble the sample kernel posted a session or two ago, here's what you need to type on the command-line…

dasm kernel.asm -lkernel.txt -f3 -v5 -okernel.bin

This is assuming that the file to assemble is named 'kernel.asm' (.asm is a standard prefix for assembler files, but some prefer to use .s—you can use whatever you want, really, but I always use .asm). Anything prefixed with a minus-sign ('-') is a 'switch'—which tells DASM something about what it is required to do. The -l switch we discussed very briefly, and that tells DASM to create a listing file—in this case, it will write a listing to the file 'kernel.txt'. The -o switch tells DASM what file to use for the output binary—in this case, the binary will be written to 'kernel.bin'. That file can be loaded into an emulator, or burned on an EPROM—it is the ROM file, in other words.

The other switches '-f3' and '-v5' control some internals of DASM—and for now just assume you need these whenever you assemble with DASM. Remember, if you're curious you can always read the manual!

## Output

If all goes well, DASM will output something like this…

DASM V2.20.05, Macro Assembler (C)1988-2003

START OF PASS: 1

----------------------------------------------------------------------

SEGMENT NAME INIT PC INIT RPC FINAL PC FINAL RPC

f000 f000

RIOT [u] 0280 0280

TIA\_REGISTERS\_READ [u] 0000 0000

TIA\_REGISTERS\_WRITE [u] 0000 0000

INITIAL CODE SEGMENT 0000 ???? 0000 ????

----------------------------------------------------------------------

1 references to unknown symbols.

0 events requiring another assembler pass.

--- Symbol List (sorted by symbol)

AUDC0 0015

AUDC1 0016

AUDF0 0017

AUDF1 0018

AUDV0 0019

AUDV1 001a

COLUBK 0009 (R )

COLUP0 0006

COLUP1 0007

COLUPF 0008

CTRLPF 000a

CXBLPF 0006

CXCLR 002c

CXM0FB 0004

CXM0P 0000

CXM1FB 0005

CXM1P 0001

CXP0FB 0002

CXP1FB 0003

CXPPMM 0007

ENABL 001f

ENAM0 001d

ENAM1 001e

GRP0 001b

GRP1 001c

HMBL 0024

HMCLR 002b

HMM0 0022

HMM1 0023

HMOVE 002a

HMP0 0020

HMP1 0021

INPT0 0008

INPT1 0009

INPT2 000a

INPT3 000b

INPT4 000c

INPT5 000d

INTIM 0284

NUSIZ0 0004

NUSIZ1 0005

Overscan f02c (R )

PF0 000d

PF1 000e

PF2 000f

Picture f01d (R )

REFP0 000b

REFP1 000c

RESBL 0014

Reset f000 (R )

RESM0 0012

RESM1 0013

RESMP0 0028

RESMP1 0029

RESP0 0010

RESP1 0011

RSYNC 0003

StartOfFrame f000 (R )

SWACNT 0281

SWBCNT 0283

SWCHA 0280

SWCHB 0282

T1024T 0297

TIA\_BASE\_ADDRESS 0000 (R )

TIM1T 0294

TIM64T 0296

TIM8T 0295

TIMINT 0285

VBLANK 0001 (R )

VDELBL 0027

VDELP0 0025

VDELP1 0026

VerticalBlank f014 (R )

VSYNC 0000 (R )

WSYNC 0002 (R )

--- End of Symbol List.

Complete.

Here we can actually SEE the symbol table, and the numeric values that DASM has assigned to the symbols. If you look at the listing file, wherever any of these symbols is used, you will see the corresponding number in the symbol table has been inserted into the binary.

There are lots of symbols there, as the vcs.h file defines just about everything you'll ever need to do with the TIA. The symbols which are actually USED in your code are marked with a (R )—indicating 'referenced'.

Now you should be able to go and assemble the sample kernel I provided earlier. Don't be afraid to have a play with things, and see what happens! Experimenting is a big part of learning.

## Summary

Soon we'll start playing with some TIA registers and seeing what happens to our screen when we do that! For now, though, make sure you are able to assemble and run the first kernel. If you have any problems, ask for assistance and I'm sure somebody will leap to your aid.

# Session 10: DASM Symbols

We've had a brief introduction to DASM, and in particular mnemonics (6502 instructions, written in human-readable format) and symbols (other words in our program which are converted by DASM into a numeric form in the binary).

Now we're going to have a brief look at how DASM uses the symbols (and in particular the value for symbols it calculates and stores in its internal symbol table) to build up the binary ROM image.

## Symbols

Each symbol the assembler finds in our source code must be defined (given an actual value) in at least one place in the code. A value is given to a symbol when it appears in our code starting in the very first column of a line. Symbols typically cannot be redefined (given another value).

In an earlier session we examined how the code 'sta WSYNC' appeared in our binary file as $85 $02 (remember, we examined the listing file to see what bytes appeared in our binary. At that point, I indicated that the assembler had determined the value of the symbol 'WSYNC' was 2 (corresponding to the TIA register's memory address)—through its definition in the standard vcs.h file.

But how does the assembler actually determine the value of a symbol?

### Symbol Values

The answer is that the symbol must be defined somewhere in the source code (as opposed to just being referenced). Definition of a symbol can come in several forms. The most straightforward is to just assign a value…

WSYNC = 2

or…

WSYNC EQU 2

The above examples are equivalent—DASM supports syntax (style) which has become fairly standard over the years. Some people (me!) like to use the = symbol, and some like to use EQU. Note that the symbol in question must start in the very first column, when it is being defined. In both cases, the value 2 is being assigned to the symbol WSYNC. Wherever DASM encounters the symbol WSYNC in the code, it knows to use the value 2.

That's fairly straightforward stuff. But symbols can be defined in terms of other symbols! Also, DASM has a quite capable ability to understand expressions, so the following is quite valid…

AFTER\_WSYNC = WSYNC + 1

In this case, the symbol 'AFTER\_WSYNC' would have the value 3. Even if the WSYNC label was defined after the above code, the assembler would successfully be able to resolve the AFTER\_WSYNC value, as it does multiple passes through the code until symbols are all resolved.

### Automatic Symbol Values

Symbols can also be given values automatically by the assembler. Consider our sample kernel where we see the following code near the start (here we're looking at the listing file, so we can see the address information DASM outputs)…

     10  0000 ????          SEG

     11  f000           ORG  $F000

     12  f000

     13  f000       Reset

     14  f000

     15  f000

     16  f000

     17  f000

     18  f000

     19  f000

     20  f000       StartOfFrame

     21  f000

     22  f000      ; Start of vertical blank processing

     23  f000

     24  f000         a9 00        lda  #0

     25  f002         85 01        sta  VBLANK

'Reset' and 'StartOfFrame' are two symbols which are definitions at this point because they both start at the first column of the lines they are on. The assembler assigns the current ROM address to these symbols, as they occur. That is, if we look at these 'labels' (=symbols) in the symbol table, we see…

StartOfFrame             f000              (R )

Reset                    f000              (R )

They both have a value of $F000. This form of symbol (which starts at the beginning of a line, but is not explicitly assigned a value) is called a label, and refers to a location in the code (or more particularly an address). How and why did DASM assign the value $F000 to these two labels, in this case?

As the assembler converts your source code to a binary format, it keeps an internal counter telling it where in the address space the next byte is to be placed. This address increments by the appropriate amount for each bit of data it encounters. For example, if we had a 'nop' (a 1-byte instruction), then the address counter that DASM maintains would increment by 1 (the length of the nop instruction). Whenever a label is encountered, the label is given the value of the current internal address counter at the point in the binary image at which the label occurs. The label itself does not go into the binary—but the value of the label refers to the address in the binary corresponding to the position of the label in the source code.

In the above code snippet, we can see the address in column 2 of the output, and it starts at 0 (with ???? after it, indicating it doesn't actually KNOW the internal counter/address at this point), and (here's the bit I really want you to understand) it is set to $F000 when we get the 'org $F000' line. 'Org' stands for origin, and this is the way we (the programmer) indicate to the assembler the starting address of next section of code in the binary ROM. Just to complicate things slightly, it is not the actual offset from the start of the ROM (for a ROM might, for example, be only 4K but contain code assembled to live at $F000-$FFFF—as in a 4K cartridge). So it's not an offset, it's a conceptual address.

### Labels

These labels are very useful to programmers to give a name to a point in code, so that point may be referred to by the label, instead of us having to know the address. If we look at the end of our sample kernel, we see…

     70  f3ea         4c 00 f0        jmp  StartOfFrame

The 'jmp' is the mnemonic for the jump instruction, which transfers flow of control to the address given in the two byte operand. In other words, it's a GOTO statement. Look carefully at the binary numbers inserted into the ROM (again, the columns are left to right, line number, address, byte(s), source code). We see $4C, 0, $f0. The opcode for JMP is $4C—whenever the 6502 fetches this instruction, it forms a 16-bit address from the next two bytes (0,$F0) and code continues from that address. Note that the 'StartOfFrame' symbol/label has a value $F000 in our symbol table.

### 16-Bit Numbers

It's time to understand how 16-bit numbers are formed from two 8-bit numbers, and how 0, $F0 translates to $F000. The 6502, as noted, can address 2^16 bytes of memory. This requires 16 bits. The 6502 itself is only capable of manipulating 8-bit numbers. So 16-bit numbers are stored as pairs of bytes. Consider any 16-bit address in hexadecimal—$F000 is convenient enough. The binary value for that is %1111000000000000. Divide it into two 8-bit sections (equivalent to 2 bytes) and you get %11110000 and %00000000—equivalent to $F0 and 0. Note, any two hex digits make up a byte, as hex digits require 4 bits each (0-15 or %0000-%1111). So we could just split any hex address in half to give us two 8-bit bytes. As noted, 6502 manipulates 16-bit addresses through the use of two bytes. These bytes are generally always stored in ROM in little-endian format (that is, the lowest significant byte first, followed by the high byte). So $F000 hex is stored as 0, $F0 (the low byte of $F000 followed by the high byte).

Now the binary of our jmp instruction should make sense. Opcode ($4C), 16-bit address in low/high format ($F000). When this instruction executes, the program jumps to and continues executing from address $F000 in ROM. And we can see how DASM has used its symbol table—and in particular the value it calculated from the internal address counter when the StartOfFrame label was defined—to 'fill in' the correct low/hi value into the binary file itself where the label was actually referred to.

This is typical of symbol usage. DASM uses its internal symbol table to give it a value for any symbol it needs. Those values are used to create the correct numbers for the ROM/binary image.

### ORG

Let's go back to our magical discovery that the 'org' instruction is just a command to the assembler (it does not appear in the binary) to let the assembler know the value of the internal address counter at that point in the code. It is quite legal to have more than one ORG command in our source. In fact, our sample kernel uses this when it defines the interrupt vectors…

     70  f3ea         4c 00 f0        jmp  StartOfFrame

     71  f3ed

     72  f3ed

     73  fffa           ORG  $FFFA

     74  fffa

     75  fffa         00 f0        .word.w  Reset; NMI

     76  fffc         00 f0        .word.w  Reset; RESET

     77  fffe         00 f0        .word.w  Reset; IRQ

Here we can see that after the jmp instruction, the internal address counter is at $F3ED, and we have another ORG which sets the address to $FFFA (the start of the standard 6502 interrupt vector data). Astute readers will notice the use of the label 'Reset' in three lines, with the binary value $F000 (if the numbers are to be interpreted as a low/high byte pair) appearing in the ROM image at address $FFFA, $FFFC, $FFFE. We briefly discussed how the 6502 looks at the address $FFFC to give it the address at which it should start running code. Here we see that this address points to the label 'Reset'. Magic.

It's quite legal to use one symbol as the value for an ORG command. Here's a short snippet of code which should clarify this…

START = $F800; start of code - change this if you want

  ORG START

HelloWorld

In the above example, the label HelloWorld would have a value of $F800. If the value of START were to change, so would the value of HelloWorld.

We've seen how the ORG command is used to tell DASM where to place bits of code (in terms of the address of code in our ROM). This command can also be used to define our variables in RAM. We haven't had a play with RAM/variables yet, and it will be a few sessions before we tackle that—but if you want a sneak peek, have a look at vcs.h and see how it defines its variables from an origin defined as 'ORG TIA\_BASE\_ADDRESS'. That code is way more complex than our current level of understanding, but it gives some idea of the versatility of the assembler.

## Summary

We're almost done with the basic commands inserted into our source code to assist DASM's building of the binary image. Now you should understand how symbols are assigned values (either by their explicit assignation of a value, or by implicit address/location value)—and how those values—through the assembler's internal symbol table—are used to put the correct number into the ROM binary image. We also understand that DASM converts mnemonics (6502 commands in human-readable form) directly into opcodes. There's not much more to actual assembly—so we shall soon move on to actual 6502 code, and playing with the TIA itself.

# Session 11: Colorful Colors

Even our language treats 'color' differently—here in Oz we write 'colour' and in the USA they write 'color'. Likewise, '2600 units in different countries don't quite speak the same language when it comes to color.

We have already seen why there are 3 variants of '2600 units—these variations (PAL, NTSC, SECAM) exist because of the differences in TV standards in various countries. Specifically, the color information is encoded in different ways into the analogue TV signal for each system, and the '2600 hardware is responsible for inserting that color information in the data sent to the TV.

## 3 Different Color Palettes

Not only do these different '2600 systems write the color information in different ways, they also write totally different colors! What is one color on a NTSC system is probably NOT the same color on PAL, and almost certainly not the same color on SECAM!

Here are some wonderful color charts that show the colors used by each of the systems…

A group of colors with different shades of colors

Description automatically generated

Colors are represented on the '2600 by numbers. How else could it be? The color to number correspondence is essentially an arbitrary association—so, for example on a NTSC machine the value $1A is yellowish, on PAL the same color is gray, and on SECAM it is aqua (!). If the same color values were used on a game converted between a NTSC and PAL system, then everything would look very weird indeed! To read the color charts on the page linked to above, form a 2-digit hex number from the hue and the lum values (ie: hue 2, lum 5 -> $25 value -> brown(ish) on NTSC, and as it happens, a very similar brown(ish) on PAL.

[Instead of getting your color values from static charts, you can do it the easy way and use the interactive palettes on the TIA Color Charts and Tools page. It includes an NTSC/PAL color conversion tool and Atari 2600 color compatibility tools that can help you quickly find colors that go great together (possibly saving you a lot of time and energy).]

## COLUBK (Color-Luminosity Background)

We've already played with colors in our first kernel! In the picture section (the 192 scanlines) we had the following code…

       ; 192 scanlines of picture...

        ldx #0

        REPEAT 192; scanlines

          inx

          stx COLUBK

          sta WSYNC

        REPEND

We should know by now what that 'sta WSYNC' does—and now it's time to understand the rest of it. Remember the picture that the kernel shows? A very pretty rainbow effect, with color stripes across the screen. It's the TIA producing those colors, but it's our kernel telling the TIA what color to show on each line. And it's done with the 'stx COLUBK' line.

Remember how the TIA maps to memory in locations 0 - $7F, and that WSYNC is a label representing the memory location of the TIA register (which happens, of course, to be called WSYNC). In similar fashion, COLUBK is a label which corresponds to the TIA register of the same name. This particular register allows us to set the color of the background that the TIA sends to the TV!

A quick peek at the symbol table shows…

 COLUBK          0009       (R )

In fact, the very best place to look is in the Stella Programmer's guide—for here you will be able to see the exact location and usage of this TIA register. This is a pretty simple one, though—all we do is write a number representing the color we want (selected from the color charts linked to, above) and the TIA will display this color as the background.

## NTSC/PAL/SECAM

Remember that it also depends on what system we're running on! If we're doing a PAL kernel, then we will see a different color than if we're doing a NTSC or SECAM kernel. The bizarre consequence of this is that if we change the number of scanlines our kernel generates, the COLORS of everything also change. That's because (if we are running on an emulator or plug a ROM into a console) we are essentially switching between NTSC/PAL/SECAM systems, and as noted these systems send different color information to the TV! It's weird, but the bottom line is that when you choose colors, you choose them for the particular TV standard you are writing your ROM to run on. If you change to a different TV system, then you will also need to rework all the colors of all the objects in your game.

## A, X, and Y Registers

Let's go back to our kernel and have a bit of a look at what it's doing to achieve that rainbow effect. There's remarkably little code in there for such a pretty effect.

As we've learned, the 6502 has just three 'registers'. These are named A, X, and Y—and allow us to shift bytes to and from memory—and perform some simple modifications to these bytes. In particular, the X and Y registers are known as 'index registers', and these have very little capability (they can be loaded, saved, incremented and decremented). The accumulator (A) is our workhorse register, and it is this register used to do just about all the grunt-work like addition, subtraction, and bit manipulation.

Our simple kernel, though, uses the X register to step a color value from 0 (at the start), writing the color value to the TIA background color register (COLUBK), incrementing X by one each scanline. First (outside the repeat) we have 'ldx #0'. This instruction moves the numeric value 0 into the X register. ld is an abbreviation for 'load', and we have lda, ldx, ldy. st is the similar abbreviation for store, and we have stx sty sta. Inside our repeat structure, we have 'stx COLUBK'. As noted, this will copy the current contents of the x register into the memory location 9 (which is, of course, the TIA register COLUBK). The TIA will then \*immediately\* use the value we wrote as the background color sent to the TV. Next we have an instruction 'inx'. This increments the current value of the X register by one. Likewise, we have an 'iny' instruction, which increments the y register. But, alas, we don't have an 'ina' instruction to increment the accumulator (!). We are also able to decrement (by 1) the x and y registers with 'dex' and 'dey'.

The operation of our kernel should be pretty obvious, now. The X register is initialized with 0, and every scanline it is written to the background color register, and incremented. So the background color shows, scanline by scanline, the color range that the '2600 is capable of. In actual fact, you could throw another 'inx' in there and see what happens. Or even change the 'inx' to 'dex'—what do you think will happen? As an aside, it was actually possible to blow up one early home computer by playing around with registers like this (I kid you not!)—but you can't possibly damage your '2600 (or emulator!) doing this. Have fun, experiment.

#### The Old Wrap Around

Since we're only doing 192 lines, the X register will increment from 0 to 192 by the time we get to the end of our block of code. But what if we'd put two 'inx' lines in? We'd have incremented the X register by 192 x 2 = 384 times. What would its value be? 384? No—because the X register is only an 8-bit register, and you would need 9 bits to hold 384 (binary %110000000). When any register overflows—or is incremented or decremented past its maximum capability, it simply 'wraps around'. For example, if our register had %11111111 in it (255, the maximum 8-bit number) and it was incremented, then it would simply become %00000000 (which is the low 8-bits of %100000000). Likewise, decrementing from 0 would leave %11111111 in the register. This may seem a bit confusing right now, but when we get used to binary arithmetic, it will seem quite natural. Hang in there, I'll avoid throwing the need to know this sort of stuff at you for a while.

### WSYNC

Now you've had a little introduction to the COLUBK register, I'd just like to touch briefly on the difference apparent between the WSYNC register and the COLUBK register. The former (WSYNC) was a strobe—you could simply 'touch' it (by writing any value) and it would instantly halt the 6502. Didn't matter what value you wrote, the effect was the same. The latter register (COLUBK) was used to send an actual VALUE to the TIA (in this case, the value for the color for the background)—and the value written was very much important. In fact, this value is stored internally by the TIA and it keeps using the value it has internally as the background color until it changes.

### Initialize the TIA Registers

If you think about the consequences of this, then, the TIA has at least one internal memory location which is in an unknown state (at least by us) when the machine first powers on. We'd probably see black—which happens to be value 0 on all machines), but you never know. I believe it is wise to initialize the TIA registers to known-states when your kernel first starts—so there are no surprises on weird machines or emulators. We have done nothing, so far, to initialize the TIA—or the 6502, for that matter—and I think we'll probably have a brief look at system startup code in a session real-soon-now.

Until then, have a play with the picture-drawing section, and see what happens when you write different values to the COLUBK register. You might even like to change it several times in succession and see what happens. Here's something to try (with a bit of head-scratching, you should be able to figure all this out by now)…

               ; 192 scanlines of picture...

                ldx #0

                ldy #0

                REPEAT 192; scanlines

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    inx

                    stx COLUBK

                    nop

                    nop

                    nop

                    dey

                    sty COLUBK

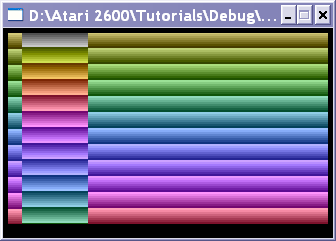
                    sta WSYNC

                REPEND

One caution: as the above code is wrapped inside a repeat structure which creates 192 copies of the enclosed code, we're actually running short of ROM space! With the above code installed, there's only 10 bytes free in our entire ROM! Clearly, using REPEAT in this sort of situation is wasteful, and the code should be written as a loop. We covered looping for scanline draw early on—but because both X and Y registers are in use at the moment, it's a bit more tricky.

So for now, we'll just have to accept that we can't add any more code—but at least you can see what effect adding/removing cycles can have on the existing code.

Here's a screenshot:



# Session 12: Initialization

One of the joys of writing '2600 programs involves the quest for efficiency—both in processing time used, and in ROM space required for the code. Every now and then, modern-day '2600 programmers will become obsessed with some fairly trivial task and try to see how efficient they can make it.

If you were about to go up on the Space Shuttle, you wouldn't expect them to just put in the key, turn it on, and take off. You'd like the very first thing they do is to make sure that all those switches are set to their correct positions. When our Atari 2600 (which, I might point out in a tenuous link to the previous sentence, is of the same vintage as the Space Shuttle) powers-up, we should assume that the 6502, RAM and TIA (and other systems) are in a fairly unknown state. It is considered good practice to initialize these systems. Unless you really, \*really\* know what you're doing, it can save you problems later on.

At the end of this session I'll present a highly optimized (and best of all, totally obscure piece of code which manages to initialize the 6502, all of RAM \*and\* the TIA using just 9 bytes of code-size. That's quite amazing, really. But first, we're going to do it the 'long' way, and learn a little bit more about the 6502 while we're doing it.

## Initializing RAM

We've already been introduced to the three registers of the 6502—A, X, and Y. X and Y are known as index registers (we'll see why, very soon) and A is our accumulator—the register used to do most of the calculations (addition, subtraction, etc).

Let's have a look at the process of clearing (writing 0 to) all of our RAM. Our earlier discussions of the memory architecture of the 6502 showed that the '2600 has just 128 bytes ($80 bytes) of RAM, starting at address $80. So, our RAM occupies memory from $80 - $FF inclusive. Since we know how to write to memory (remember the "stx COLUBK" we used to write a color to the TIA background color register), it should be apparent that we could do this…

    lda #0            ; load the value 0 into the accumulator

    sta $80           ; store accumulator to location $80

    sta $81           ; store accumulator to location $81

    sta $82           ; store accumulator to location $82

    sta $83           ; store accumulator to location $83

    sta $84           ; store accumulator to location $84

    sta $85           ; store accumulator to location $85

; 119 more lines to store 0 into location $86 - $FC. . .

    sta $FD           ; store accumulator to location $FD

    sta $FE           ; store accumulator to location $FE

    sta $FF           ; store accumulator to location $FF

You're right, that's ugly! The code above uses 258 bytes of ROM (2 bytes for each store, and 2 for the initial accumulator load). We can't possibly afford that—and especially since I've already told you that it's possible to initialize the 6502 registers, clear RAM, \*AND\* initialize the TIA in just 9 bytes total!

The index registers have their name for a reason. They are useful in exactly the situation above, where we have a series of values we want to read or write to or from memory. Have a look at this next bit of code, and we'll walk through what it does…

    ldx #0

    lda #0

ClearRAM  sta $80,x

    inx

    cpx #$80

    bne ClearRAM

Firstly, this code is nowhere-near efficient, but it does do the same job as our first attempt and uses only 11 bytes. It achieves this saving by performing the clear in a loop, writing 0 (the accumulator) to one RAM location every iteration. The key is the "sta $80,x" line. In this "addressing mode", the 6502 adds the destination address ($80 in this example—remember, this is the start of RAM) to the current value of the X register—giving it a final address—and uses that final address as the source/destination for the operation.

### ClearRAM

We have initialized X to 0, and increment it every time through the loop. The line "cpx #$80" is a comparison, which causes the 6502 to check the value of X against the number $80 (remember, we have $80 bytes of RAM, so this is basically saying "has the loop done 128 ($80) iterations yet?". The next line "bne ClearRAM" will transfer program flow back to the label "ClearRAM" every time that comparison returns "no". The end result being that the loop will iterate exactly 128 times, and that the indexing will end up writing to 128 consecutive memory locations starting at $80.

    ldx #$80

    lda #0

ClearRAM

    sta 0,x

    inx

    bne ClearRAM

Well, that's not a LOT different, but we're now using only 9 bytes to clear RAM—somehow we've managed to get rid of that comparison! And how come we're writing to 0,x not $80,x? All will be revealed…

### Flags Register

When the 6502 performs operations on registers, it keeps track of certain properties of the numbers in those registers. In particular, it has internal flags which indicate if the number it last used was zero or non-zero, positive or negative, and also various other properties related to the last calculation it did. We'll get to all of that later. All of these flags are stored in an 8-bit register called the "flags register". We don't have easy direct access to this register, but we do have instructions which base their operation on the flags themselves.

We've already used one of these operations—the "bne ClearRAM" we used in our earlier version of the code. This instruction, as noted "will transfer program flow back to the label "ClearRAM" every time that comparison returns "no". The comparison returns "no" by setting the zero/non-zero flag in the processor's flags register!

In actuality, this zero/non-zero flag is also set or cleared upon a load to a register, an increment or decrement of register or memory, and whenever a calculation is done on the accumulator. Whenever a value in these circumstances is zero, then the zero flag is set. Whenever the result is non-zero, the zero flag is cleared. So, we don't even need to compare for anything being 0—as long as we have just done one of the operations mentioned (load, increment, etc)—then we know that the zero flag (and possibly others) will tell us something about the number. The 6502 documentation gives extensive information for all instructions about what flags are set/cleared, under what circumstance.

### The Wrap Around Trick

We briefly discussed how index registers, only holding 8-bit values "wrap-around" from $FF (%11111111) to 0 when incremented, and from 0 to $FF when decremented. Our code above is using this "trick" by incrementing the X-register and using the knowledge that the zero-flag will always be non-zero after this operation, unless X is 0. And X will only be 0 if it was previously $FF. Instead of having X be a "counter" to give 128 iterations, this time we're using it as the actual address and looping it from $80 (the start of RAM) to $FF (the end of RAM) + 1. SO our store (which, remember, takes the address in the instruction, adds the value of the X register and uses that as the final address) is now "sta 0,x". Since X holds the correct address to write to, we are adding 0 to that.

### Cycles and Timing

I would \*highly\* recommend that you don't worry too much about this sort of optimization while you're learning. The version with the comparison is perfectly adequate, safe, and easy to understand. But sometimes you find that you do need the extra cycles or bytes (the optimized version, above, is 160 cycles faster—and that's 160x3 color clocs = 480 color clocks = more than two whole scanlines !! quicker). So you can see how crucial timing can be—by taking out a single instruction (the "cpx #$80") in a loop, and rearranging how our loop counted, we saved more than two scanlines—(very) roughly 1% of the total processing time available in one frame of a TV picture!

## Initializing the TIA

Initializing the TIA is a similar process to initializing the RAM—we just want to write 0 to all memory locations from 0 to $7F (where the TIA lives!). This is safe—trust me—and we don't really need to know what we're writing to at this stage, just that after doing this the TIA will be nice and happy. We could do this in a second loop, similar to the first, but how about this…

    ldx #0

    lda #0

Clear

    sta $80,x     ; clear a byte of RAM

    sta 0,x       ; clear a byte of TIA register

    inx

    cpx #$80

    bne Clear

That's a perfectly adequate solution. Easy to read and maintain, and reasonably quick. We could, however, take advantage of the fact that RAM and the TIA are consecutive in memory (TIA from 0 - $7F, immediately followed by RAM $80 - $FF) and do the clear in one go…

## Initializing RAM and the TIA

    ldx #0

    lda #0

Clear

    sta 0,x

    inx

    bne Clear

The above example uses 9 bytes, again, but now clears RAM and TIA in one 'go' by iterating the index register (which is the effective address when used in "sta 0,x") from 0 to 0 (ie: increments 256 times and then wraps back to 0 and the loop halts). This is starting to get into "elegant" territory, something the experienced guys strive for!

Furthermore, after this code has completed, X = 0 and A = 0—a nice known state for two of the 3 6502 registers.

That's all I'm going to explain for the initialization at this stage—we should insert this code just after the "Reset" label and before the "StartOfFrame" label. This would cause the code to be executed only on a system reset, not every frame (as, every frame, the code branches back to the "StartOfFrame" for the beginning of the next frame).

## Summary

Before we end today's session, though, I thought I'd share the "magical" 9-byte system clear with you. There's simply no way that I would expect you to understand this bit of code at the moment—it pulls every trick in the book—but this should give you some taste of just how obscure a bit of code CAN be, and how beautifully elegant clever coding can do amazing things.

   ; CLEARS ALL VARIABLES, STACK

   ; INIT STACK POINTER

   ; ALSO CLEARS TIA REGISTERS

   ; DOES THIS BY "WRAPPING" THE STACK - UNUSUAL

    LDX #0

    TXS

    PHA           ; BEST WAY TO GET SP=$FF, X=0

    TXA

CLEAR PHA

    DEX

    BNE CLEAR

   ; 9 BYTES TOTAL FOR CLEARING STACK, MEMORY

   ; STACK POINTER NOW $FF, A=X==0

Though the above was a truly magical piece of code, I've since developed an EIGHT byte solution to the problem of clearing RAM and initializing the stack and registers.

        ldx #0

        txa

Clear   dex

        txs

        pha

        bne Clear

After the above, X=A=0, and all of RAM and the TIA has been initialized to 0, and the stack pointer is initialized to $FF. Amazing!

# Session 13: Playfield Basics

In the last few sessions, we started to explore the capabilities of the TIA. We learned that the TIA has "registers" which are mapped to fixed memory addresses, and that the 6502 can control the TIA by writing and/or reading these addresses. In particular, we learned that writing to the WSYNC register halts the 6502 until the TIA starts the next scanline, and that the COLUBK register is used to set the color of the background. We also learned that the TIA keeps an internal copy of the value written to COLUBK.

Today we're going to have a look at playfield graphics, and for the first time learn how to use RAM. The playfield is quite a complex beast, so we may be spending the next few sessions exploring its capabilities.

The '2600 was originally designed to be more or less a sophisticated programmable PONG-style machine, able to display 2-player games—but still pretty much PONG in style. These typically took place on a screen containing not much more than walls, two "players"—usually just straight lines and a ball. Despite this, the design of the system was versatile enough that clever programmers have produced a wide variety of games.

The playfield is that part of the display which usually shows "walls" or "backgrounds" (not to be confused with THE background color). These walls are usually only a single color (for any given scanline), though games typically change the color over multiple scanlines to give some very nice effects.

The playfield is also sometimes used to display very large (square, blocky looking) scores and words.

Just like with COLUBK, the TIA has internal memory where it stores exactly 20 bits of playfield data, corresponding to just 20 pixels of playfield. Each one of these pixels can be on (displayed) or off (not displayed).

## Horizontal Resolution

The horizontal resolution of the playfield is a very-low 40 pixels, divided into two halves—both of which display the same 20 bits held in the TIA internal memory. Each half of the playfield may have its own color (we'll cover this later), but all pixels either half are the same color. Each playfield pixel is exactly 4 color-clocks wide (160 color clocks / 40 pixels = 4 color clocks per pixel).

The TIA manages to draw a 40 pixel playfield from only 20 bits of playfield data by duplicating the playfield (the right side of the playfield displays the same data as the left side). It is possible to mirror the right side, and it is also possible to create an "asymmetrical playfield"—where the right and left sides of the playfield are NOT symmetrical. I'll leave you to figure out how to do that for now—we'll cover it in a future session. For now, we're just going to learn how to play with those 20 bits of TIA memory, and see what we can do with them.

## Sample Code

Let's get right into it. Here's some sample code which introduces a few new TIA registers, and also (for the first time for us) uses a RAM location to store some temporary information (a variable!). There are three TIA playfield registers (two holding 8 bits of playfield data, and one holding the remaining 4 bits)—PF0, PF1, PF2. Today we're going to focus on just one of these TIA playfield registers, PF1, because it is the simplest to understand.

; 2600 for Newbies

; Session 13 - Playfield

                processor 6502

                include "vcs.h"

                include "macro.h"

;--------------------------------------------------------------------------

                SEG

                ORG $F000

Reset

   ; Clear RAM and all TIA registers

                ldx #0

                lda #0

Clear           sta 0,x

                inx

                bne Clear

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; Once-only initialization...

                lda #0

                sta PATTERN            ; The binary PF 'pattern'

                lda #$45

                sta COLUPF             ; set the playfield color

                ldy #0                 ; "speed" counter

       ;------------------------------------------------

StartOfFrame

   ; Start of new frame

   ; Start of vertical blank processing

                lda #0

                sta VBLANK

                lda #2

                sta VSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC               ; 3 scanlines of VSYNC signal

                lda #0

                sta VSYNC

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; 37 scanlines of vertical blank...

                ldx #0

VerticalBlank   sta WSYNC

                inx

                cpx #37

                bne VerticalBlank

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; Handle a change in the pattern once every 20 frames

       ; and write the pattern to the PF1 register

                iny                    ; increment speed count by one

                cpy #TIMETOCHANGE      ; has it reached our "change point"?

                bne notyet             ; no, so branch past

                ldy #0                 ; reset speed count

                inc PATTERN            ; switch to next pattern

notyet

                lda PATTERN            ; use our saved pattern

                sta PF1                ; as the playfield shape

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; Do 192 scanlines of color-changing (our picture)

                ldx #0           ; this counts our scanline number

Picture         stx COLUBK       ; change background color (rainbow effect)

                sta WSYNC        ; wait till end of scanline

                inx

                cpx #192

                bne Picture

       ;------------------------------------------------

                lda #%01000010

                sta VBLANK          ; end of screen - enter blanking

   ; 30 scanlines of overscan...

                ldx #0

Overscan        sta WSYNC

                inx

                cpx #30

                bne Overscan

                jmp StartOfFrame

Here's a screenshot:

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated

What you will see is our rainbow-colored background, as before—but over the top of it we see a strange-pattern of vertical stripe(s). And the pattern changes. These vertical stripes are our first introduction to playfield graphics.

### PF1

Have a good look at what this demo does; although it is only writing to a single playfield register (PF1) which can only hold 8 bits (pixels) of playfield data, you always see the same stripe(s) on the left side of the screen, as on the right. This is a result, as noted earlier, of the TIA displaying its playfield data twice on any scanline—the first 20 bits on the left side, then repeated for the right side.

### Equates

Let's walk through the code and have a look at some of the new bits…

PATTERN         = $80       ; storage location (1st byte in RAM)

TIMETOCHANGE    = 20        ; speed of "animation" - change as desired

At the beginning of our code we have a couple of equates. Equates are labels with values assigned to them. We have covered this sort of label value assignation when we looked at how DASM resolved symbols when assembling our source code. In this case, we have one symbol (PATTERN) which in the code is used as a storage location …

     sta PATTERN

… and the other (TIMETOCHANGE) which is used in the code as a number for comparison

    cpy #TIMETOCHANGE

Remember how we noted that the assembler simply replaced any symbol it found with the actual value of that symbol. Thus the above two sections of code are exactly identical to writing "sta $80" and "cpy #20". But from our point of view, it's much better to read (and understand) when we use symbols instead of values.

So, at the beginning of our source code (by convention, though you can pretty much define symbols anywhere), we include a section giving values to symbols which are used throughout the code. We have a convenient section we can go back to and "adjust" things later on.

### Playfield Pattern

Here's our very first usage of RAM…

                lda #0

                sta PATTERN        ; The binary PF 'pattern'

Remember, DASM replaces that symbol with its value. And we've defined the value already as $80. So that "sta" is actually a "sta $80", and if we have a look at our memory map, we see that our RAM is located at addresses $80 - $FF. So this code will load the accumulator with the value 0 (that's what that crosshatch means—load a value, not a load from memory) and then store the accumulator to memory location $80. We use PATTERN to hold the "shape" of the graphics we want to see. It's just a byte, consisting of 8 bits. But as we have seen, the playfield is 20 bits each being on or off, representing a pixel. By writing to PF1 we are actually modifying just 8 of the TIA playfield bits. We could also write to PF0 and PF2—but let's get our understanding of the basic playfield operation correct, first.

### Playfield Color

                lda #$45

                sta COLUPF         ; set the playfield color

When we modified the color of the background, we wrote to COLUBK. As we know, the TIA has its own internal 'state', and we can modify its state by writing to its registers. Just like COLUBK, COLUPF is a color register. It is used by the TIA for the color of playfield pixels (which are visible—ie: their corresponding bit in the PF0, PF1, PF2 registers is set).

If you want to know what color $45 is, look it up in the color charts presented earlier. I just chose a random value, which looks reddish to me :)

### Speed Counter

                ldy #0                 ; "speed" counter

We should be familiar with the X, Y and A registers by now. This is loading the value 0 into the y register. Since Y was previously unused in our kernel, for this example I am using it as a sort of speed throttle. It is incremented by one every frame, and every time it gets to 20 (or more precisely, the value of TIMETOCHANGE) then we change the pattern that is being placed into the PF1 register. We change the speed at which the pattern changes by changing the value of the TIMETOCHANGE equate at the top of the file.

### Speed Throttle and Pattern Change

That speed throttle and pattern change is handled in this section…

       ; Handle a change in the pattern once every 20 frames

       ; and write the pattern to the PF1 register

         iny                ; increment speed count by one

         cpy #TIMETOCHANGE  ; has it reached our “change point”?

         bne notyet         ; no, so branch past

         ldy #0             ; reset speed count

         inc PATTERN        ; switch to next pattern

notyet

         lda PATTERN        ; use our saved pattern

         sta PF1            ; as the playfield shape

This is the first time we've seen an instruction like "inc PATTERN"—the others we have already covered. "inc" is an increment—and it simply adds 1 to the contents of any memory (mostly RAM) location. We initialized PATTERN (which lives at $80, remember!) to 0. So after 20 frames, we will find that the value gets incremented to 1. 20 frames after that, it is incremented to 2.

### Binary Number System

Now let's go back to our binary number system for a few minutes. Here's the binary representation of the numbers 0 to 10…

00000000

00000001

00000010

00000011

00000100

00000101

00000110

00000111

00001000

00001001

00001010

Have a real close look at the pattern there, then run the binary again and look at the pattern of the stripe. I'm telling you, they're identical! That is because, of course, we are writing these values to the PF1 register and where there is a set bit (value of 1) that corresponds directly to a pixel being displayed on the screen.

See how the PF1 write is outside the 192-line picture loop. We only ever write the PF1 once per frame (though we could write it every scanline if we wished). This demonstrates that the TIA has kept the value we write to its register(s) and uses that same value again and again until it is changed by us.

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated

The diagram above shows the operation of the PF1 register, and which of the 20 TIA playfield bits it modifies. You can also see the color-register to color correspondence.

### Play with It

The rest of the code is identical to our earlier tutorials—so to get our playfield graphics working, all we've had to do is write a color to the playfield color register (COLUPF), and then write actual pixel data to the playfield register(s) PF0, PF1 and PF2. We've only touched PF1 this time—feel free to have a play and see what happens when you write the others.

You might also like to play with writing values INSIDE the picture (192-line) loop, and see what happens when you play around with the registers 'on-the-fly'. In fact, since the TIA retains and redraws the same thing again and again, to achieve different 'shapes' on the screen, this is exactly what we have to do—write different values to PF0, PF1, PF2 not only every scanline, but also change the shapes in the middle of a scanline!

Today's session is meant to be an introduction to playfield graphics—don't worry too much about the missing information, or understanding exactly what's happening. Try and have a play with the code, do the exercises—and next session we should have a more comprehensive treatment of the whole shebang.

## Summary

Subjects we will tackle next time include…

* The other playfield registers (PF0, PF2)
* The super-weird TIA pixel -> screen pixel mapping
* Mirrored playfields
* Two color playfields
* Asymmetrical playfield

See you then, then!

## Exercises

1. Modify the kernel so that instead of showing a rainbow-color for the background, it is the playfield which has the rainbow effect
2. What happens when you use PF0 or PF2 instead of PF1? It can get pretty bizarre—we'll explain what's going on in the next session.
3. Can you change the kernel so it only shows \*ONE\* copy of the playfield you write (that is, on the left side you see the pattern, and on the right side it's blank). Hint: You'll need to modify PF1 mid-scanline.

We'll have a look at these exercises next session. Don't worry if you can't understand or implement them—they're pretty tricky.

# Session 14: Playfield Weirdness

The diagram below shows the bizarre way that bits in the TIA playfield registers (PF0, PF2) map to the onscreen pixels in reverse order. We have already seen how PF1 works—it is shown in this diagram, too.

A screen shot of a computer

Description automatically generated

This strange backwardness (not to mention inconsistency!) is probably a result of the fact that it was simpler (cheaper) to design the hardware to operate in this fashion. Among other things, this layout of pixels in our TIA registers makes scrolling horizontally a major pain in the neck!

The bits marked with a cross are not used by the '2600 (including the low bit in the color registers), and you may write any value to these—it is ignored.

The diagram shows a shadowy ‘right-side’—where the 20 pixels of the left side are duplicated. Be aware that this right-side may also be mirrored, further complicating things.

## Optional Exercises

1. Confirm that PF0 and PF2 have reverse pixel to bit position ordering (Hint: using binary for your values will assist you to see exactly what pixel corresponds to what bit (ie: lda #%01000000, sta PF0)
2. What happens if you write PF0, PF1 or PF2 in the middle of a scanline? What would you expect to happen? Can you see any use for this? (Hint: how do you think an asymmetric playfield—a different pattern on the left and right of the screen—is created?)
3. Write some solid shape(s) to PF0, PF1, PF2 (ie: lda #%01011110, sta PF0, sta PF1, sta PF2) and then play with changing the playfield color several times during a scanline. How many color changes (maximum) do you think you can get on any line? Why is there a limit?
4. How would a game do horizontal scrolling? This is a difficult question—but I'm trying to get you to think about the implications of the odd playfield->pixel correspondence, and the implications for game writing.
5. How would you make a 'wall' which was 8 scanlines high, full screen width, followed by left and right walls just 1 pixel wide each, at extreme left/right edges of the screen, 176 scanlines high, followed by another horizontal 'wall', full screen width and 8 scanlines high? Note: this would form a 'box' border around the entire playfield.

## Summary

Next session we'll walk through exactly what all this playfield oddity is about.

# Session 15: Playfield Continued

We've had a bit of time to think about the playfield, and hopefully have a go at some of the exercises. Admittedly I threw you in the deep end with the last session—so we'll go back a step and walk through exactly what all this playfield oddity is about. We'll also tackle some of the exercises to show that there's more than one way to skin a fish.

Last session we learned that the playfield registers PF0 and PF2 are reversed. Specifically, the order of pixels in the playfield registers (one bit per pixel, remember!) is backward, compared to the order for the first playfield register we encountered—PF1. This backward ordering is rather confusing, but that's just the way it is. Have a close look at the diagram presented in the last session and try and understand exactly the "playfield register/bit" to "pixel position on the scanline" correspondence.

A screen shot of a computer

Description automatically generated

## Playfield Mirroring

There's one new playfield-related capability of the '2600 which I'd like to introduce now—playfield mirroring. I've already introduced this to you when I stated that the right hand side of the playfield was a copy of the left hand side (that is, the left 20 pixels come from the 20 playfield bits held in the TIA registers PF0, PF1 and PF2—and the right 20 bits are a copy of the same bits). That copy can be displayed 'normally'—or 'mirrored'. When mirrored, the bits are literally a mirrored copy of the left side of the playfield.

We're already familiar with two 'types' of TIA register. There's the strobe-type, where a write of any value to the register causes something to happen, independent of the value written (an example is WSYNC, which halts the 6502 until the TIA starts the next scanline). A second type is the normal register to which we write a byte, and the TIA uses that byte for some internal purpose (examples of these are the playfield registers PF0, PF1 and PF2). PF0 was a special-case of this type, where—though we wrote a byte—only four of the bits were actually used by the TIA. The remaining bits were discarded/ignored (have a look at the PF0 register in the diagram in the last session—the X for each bit position in bits D0-D3 indicates those bits are not used).

### CTRLPF

The third type of register (they're not really 'types'—but I want you to understand the difference between the way we're writing data to the TIA) is where we are interested in just the state of a single BIT in a register. Time to introduce a new TIA register, called CTRLPF. It's located at address 10 ($A)

CTRLPF

This address is used to write into the playfield control

register (a logic 1 causes action as described below)

D0 = REF (reflect playfield)

D1 = SCORE (left half of playfield gets color of

player 0, right half gets color of player 1)

D2 = PFP (playfield gets priority over players so they

can move behind the playfield)

D4 & D5 = BALL SIZE

D5 D4 Width

0 0 1 clock

0 1 2 clocks

1 0 4 clocks

1 1 8 clocks

Wow! This register has a lot of different stuff associated with it! Most of it is related to playfield display (bits D0, D1, D2) but bits D4 and D5 control the 'BALL SIZE'—we'll worry about those bits later :)

### D0 (Reflection)

Bit D0 controls the reflection (mirroring) of our playfield. If this bit is 0, then we have a 'normal' non-mirrored playfield, and that's what we've been seeing so far in our demos. If we set this bit to 1, then the '2600 will display a reflected playfield (that is, the right-side of the playfield is a mirror-image of the left-side, instead of a copy). Note that only a single bit is used to control this feature—if we wrote a byte with this bit set (ie: %00000001) to CTRLPF we would also be setting those other bits to 0—and we should be very sure this is what we want. In fact, it's often NOT what we want, so when we are writing to registers such as this (which contain many bits controlling different parts of the TIA hardware/display), we should be very careful to keep all the bits exactly as we need them. Sometimes this is done with a 'shadow' register—a RAM copy of our current register state, and by first setting or clearing the appropriate bit in the shadow register, and THEN writing the shadow register to the TIA register. This is necessary because many/most of the TIA registers are only writable—that is, you cannot successfully read their contents and expect to get the value last written.

Let's have a quick look at those other bits in this register, related to playfield…

### D1 (Two Colors)

D1 = SCORE. This is interesting. Setting this bit causes the playfield to have two colors instead of one. The left side of the playfield will be displayed using the color of sprite 0 (register COLUP0), and the right side of the playfield will be displayed using the color of sprite 1 (register COLUP1). We won't play with this for now—but keep in mind that it is possible. Remember, this machine was designed for PONG-style games, so this sort of effect makes sense in that context.

### D2 (Playfield Priority)

D2 = PFP. Playfield priority. You may have the playfield appear in front of, or behind, sprites. If you set this bit, then the playfield will be displayed in front, and all sprites will appear to go behind the playfield pixels. If this bit is not set, then all sprites appear to go in front of the playfield pixels.

That's a very quick rundown of this register. We know now that it controls the playfield mirroring (=reflection), the playfield color control for left/right halves, the playfield priority (if sprites go in front of or behind the playfield), and finally it does something with the 'BALL SIZE' which we're not worrying about yet.

### Shadow Register

I've indicated that it's useful to have a 'shadow' copy of the register in RAM, so that we can easily keep track of the state of this sort of register. In practice, this is rarely done—as we generally just set the reflection on or off, the score coloring on or off, the priority on or off, and the ball size as appropriate… and then forget it. But if, for example, you were doing a game where you were changing the priority on the fly (so your sprites went behind SOME bits background, but not other bits) then you'd need to know what those other values should be.

In any case, the point of this is to introduce you slowly to more TIA capabilities, and at the same time build your proficiency with 6502 programming. Here's how we set and clear bits with 6502.

  CTRLPF\_shadow = $82 ; a RAM location for our shadow register

  lda #%00000000

  sta CTRLPF\_shadow   ; init our shadow register as required

   ; lots of code here

  lda CTRLPF\_shadow

  sta CTRLPF          ; copy shadow register to TIA register

The above code snippet shows the general form of shadow register usage. The shadow register is initialised—and at some point later in the code, we copy it to the TIA register. Now for the fun bit—setting and clearing individual bits in the shadow register…

   ; how to set a single bit in a byte

   lda CTRLPF\_shadow  ; load the shadow register from RAM

   ora #%00000001     ; SET bit 0 (D0 = 1)

   sta CTRLPF\_shadow  ; save new register value back to RAM

   ; how to clear a single bit in a byte

   lda CTRLPF\_shadow

   and #%11111110  ; keep all bits BUT the one we want to clear

   sta CTRLPF\_shadow

### AND and OR

OK, that's not too difficult to understand. The two new 6502 instructions we have just used are 'ORA', which does a logical-OR (that is, combines the accumulator with the immediate value bit-by-bit using a OR operation)—and the 'AND', which does a logical-AND (again, combines the accumulator with the immediate value bit-by-bit using an AND operation). Now this is getting into pretty basic binary math—and you should read up on this stuff if you don't already know.

A bit is like a simple light switch. It can be on or off.

AND = OFF (0 = OFF 1 = UNTOUCHED)

* Use 0 to make sure the light switch is off.
* Use 1 to leave it as it is.

OR = ON (1 = ON 0 = UNTOUCHED)

* Use 1 to make sure the light switch is on.
* Use 0 to leave it as it is.

XOR = FLIP (1 = FLIP 0 = UNTOUCHED)

* Use 1 to reverse the position of the light switch.
* Use 0 to leave it as it is.

Here are some truth tables for you…

OR operation

BIT | 0 1

-----+------------

0 | 0 1

|

1 | 1 1

AND operation

BIT | 0 1

-----+------------

0 | 0 0

|

1 | 0 1

Basically the above two tables give you the result FOR A SINGLE BIT POSITION, where you either OR or AND together two bits. For example, if I 'OR' together 1 and 0, the resultant value (bit) is 1. Likewise, if I 'AND' together a 1 and 0, I get a 0. This logical operation is performed on each bit of the accumulator, with the corresponding bit of the immediate value as part of the instruction. So 'ora #%00000001' will actually leave the accumulator with the lowest bit SET. No matter what. Likewise, 'and #%11111110' will leave the accumulator with the lowest bit CLEAR. No matter what. And in the other bits, their value will remain unchanged. You should try some values and check this out, because understanding this binary logical operation on bits is pretty fundamental to '2600 programming.

### Playfield Reflection

In the initialization section of your current kernel, add the following lines…

    lda #%00000001

    sta CTRLPF

That's our playfield reflection in operation—if you're running any sort of playfield code, you will see that the right-side is now a mirror-image of the left-side. Now have a think about the exercise I offered in session 14…

How would you make a 'wall' which was 8 scanlines high, full screen width, followed by left and right walls just 1 pixel wide each, at extreme left/right edges of the screen, 176 scanlines high, followed by another horizontal 'wall', full screen width and 8 scanlines high? Note: this would form a 'box' border around the entire playfield.

It should be apparent, now, that in this sort of situation we really only need to worry about the left side of the playfield! If we let the '2600 reflect the right side, we will get a symmetrical copy of the left, and we'll have our box if only we do the left-side borders. This is a huge advantage to the programmer, because we suddenly don't have to write new PF0, PF1, PF2 values each scanline. Remember (and I'll drum this into you until the very last session!) we only have 76 cycles per scanline—the less we have to do on any line, the better. At the very least, rewriting PF0, PF1 and PF2 twice per scanline would cost 30 cycles IF you were being clever. That's almost half the available time JUST to draw background—and there's still colors, sprites, balls and missiles to worry about! However, if you just use a reflected playfield, then we are only looking at single writes to PF0, PF1, PF2, cutting our playfield update to only 15 cycles per line (eg: lda #value / sta PF0 / lda #value2 / sta PF1 / lda #value3 / sta PF2).

Just an aside, here—some people have been posting code IN UPPERCASE. It is quite acceptable to use upper or lowercase for the mnemonics of your 6502 code. I prefer lowercase, as I find it easier to read and LESS LIKE SHOUTING! But its totally up to you—you will typically (but not always) find my code is lowercase, and you may feel free to adopt a style that suits you. I make my constants UPPERCASE, my variables typically a mixture, and my mnemonics lower-case. Your mileage may vary.

So, let's get down to it—here's a solution for exercise 5, of session 14…

; '2600 for Newbies

; Session 15 - Playfield Continued

; This kernel draws a simple box around the screen border

; Introduces playfield reflection

                processor 6502

                include "vcs.h"

                include "macro.h"

;----------------------------------------------------------------------------

                SEG

                ORG $F000

Reset

   ; Clear RAM and all TIA registers

                ldx #0

                lda #0

Clear           sta 0,x

                inx

                bne Clear

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; Once-only initialization. . .

                lda #$45

                sta COLUPF             ; set the playfield color

                lda #%00000001

                sta CTRLPF             ; reflect playfield

       ;------------------------------------------------

StartOfFrame

   ; Start of new frame

   ; Start of vertical blank processing

                lda #0

                sta VBLANK

                lda #2

                sta VSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC

                sta WSYNC               ; 3 scanlines of VSYNC signal

                lda #0

                sta VSYNC

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; 37 scanlines of vertical blank. . .

                ldx #0

VerticalBlank   sta WSYNC

                inx

                cpx #37

                bne VerticalBlank

       ;------------------------------------------------

       ; Do 192 scanlines of color-changing (our picture)

                ldx #0                 ; this counts our scanline number

                lda #%11111111

                sta PF0

                sta PF1

                sta PF2

   ; We won't bother rewriting PF0-PF2 every scanline of the

   ; top 8 lines - they never change!

Top8Lines     sta WSYNC

              inx

              cpx #8                 ; Are we at line 8?

              bne Top8Lines          ; No, so do another

                   ; Now we want 176 lines of "wall"

                   ; Note: 176 (middle) + 8 (top) + 8 (bottom) = 192 lines

              lda #%00010000  ; PF0 is mirrored <-- direction,

                             ; low 4 bits ignored

              sta PF0

              lda #0

              sta PF1

              sta PF2

                ; Again, we don't bother writing PF0-PF2 every

                ; scanline - they never change!

MiddleLines   sta WSYNC

              inx

              cpx #184

              bne MiddleLines

             ; Finally, our bottom 8 scanlines - the same as the top 8

             ; AGAIN, we aren't going to bother writing PF0-PF2 mid scanline!

              lda #%11111111

              sta PF0

              sta PF1

              sta PF2

Bottom8Lines  sta WSYNC

              inx

              cpx #192

              bne Bottom8Lines

       ;------------------------------------------------

              lda #%01000010

              sta VBLANK          ; end of screen - enter blanking

   ; 30 scanlines of overscan. . .

              ldx #0

Overscan      sta WSYNC

              inx

              cpx #30

              bne Overscan

              jmp StartOfFrame

;----------------------------------------------------------------------------

            ORG $FFFA

InterruptVectors

            .word Reset          ; NMI

            .word Reset          ; RESET

            .word Reset          ; IRQ

      END

This kernel is interesting in that it achieves the box effect by writing the playfield registers BEFORE the scanline loops to do the appropriate section. It uses the knowledge that the TIA has an internal state and will keep displaying whatever it already has in the playfield registers. So, in fact, the actual cost (in cycles) of drawing the 'box' playfield on each scanline is 0 cycles—ie; it's free. We just had that short initial load before each section (taking a few cycles out of the very first scanline of each section). This is how you need to think about '2600 programming—how to remove cycles from your scanlines—and do the absolute minimal necessary.

Here's a screenshot:

A computer screen shot of a black screen

Description automatically generated

## Summary

That will do for today's session. We've had an introduction to controlling individual TIA register bits, and seen how to achieve a reflected playfield at next to no cost. We've had a brief introduction to the CTRLPF register, and seen how it has a myriad (well, more than 3) uses. Although some of the previous sessions have asked you to think about tricky subjects like horizontal scrolling, and asymmetrical playfields—now is not the time to actually discuss these tricky areas. So until next time (when we'll develop our playfield skills a bit more)… ciao!

## Exercises

1. Introduce a RAM shadow of the CTRLPF register, and modify it differently in each section of the kernel. For example turn reflection on and off partway through the midsection of the box, and see what happens.
2. Have a play with the SCORE bit in the CTRLPF register, and in conjunction with that the COLUP0 and COLUP1 color registers. Note how this SCORE bit changes where the color for the playfield comes from.

# Session 16: Letting the Assembler do the Work

This session we're going to have a brief look at how DASM (our assembler) builds up the binary ROM file, and how we can use DASM to help us organize our RAM.

As we've discovered, DASM keeps a list of all symbols and as it is assembling our code, it assigns values (= numbers, or addresses) to those symbols. When it is creating the binary ROM image, it replaces opcodes (=instructions) with appropriate values representing the opcode, and it replaces symbols with the value of the symbol from its internal symbol table.

## Symbols

OK, that basic process should be clear by now. When we view our symbol table (which is output when we use the -v5 switch on our command-line when assembling a file), we will see that there are some symbols which are unused (the used ones have (R ) after them, in the symbol table output). We can see, then, that it is not necessary for a symbol to actually be in the ROM binary file for it to have a value. There are several reasons why we'd want to have a symbol with a value, but not have that symbol "do anything" or relate to anything in the binary.

For example, we could use a symbol as a switch to tell the compiler which section of code to compile. A symbol could be used as a value to tell us how many scanlines to draw… eg:

SCANLINES = 312; PAL

;...later

    iny

    cpy #SCANLINES   ; at the end?

    bne AnotherLine  ; do another line

We can even implement a compile-time PAL/NTSC switch something like this…

PAL = 0

NTSC = 1

SYSTEM = PAL   ; change this to PAL or NTSC

#if SYSTEM = PAL

   ; insert PAL-only code here

#endif

#if SYSTEM = NTSC

   ; insert NTSC-only code here

#endif

This sort of use of symbols to drive the DASM assembly process can be quite useful when you want various sections of code to behave differently—for whatever reason. You might have a test bit of code which you can conditionally compile by defining a symbol as in the above example.

## Variables

Now that we're comfortable with DASM's use of symbols as part of the compilation process, let's have a look at how we've been managing our RAM so far…

VARIABLE = $80  ; variable using the 1st byte of RAM

VAR2 = $81      ; another variable using the 2nd byte of RAM

VAR3 = $82      ; etc

That's perfectly fine—and as we already know, lines like this will add the symbols to DASM's internal symbol table, and whenever DASM sees those symbols it will instead use the associated value. Consider the following example…

VARIABLE = $80  ; variable using 1st TWO bytes of RAM

VAR2 = $82      ; another variable must start after the

                ; 1st variable's space

In this case we've created a 2-byte variable starting at the beginning of RAM. So the second variable has to start at $82 instead of $81—because the first variable requires locations $80 and $81. The above will work fine—but there's no clear correspondence between the variable declaration (which is really just assigning a number/address to a symbol) and the amount of space required for the variable. Furthermore, if we later decided that we really needed 4 bytes (instead of 2) for VARIABLE, then we'd have to 'shift down' all following variables—that is, VAR2 would have to be changed to $84, etc.. This is not only extremely annoying and time-consuming, it is a disaster waiting to happen—because you humans are fallible.

What we really want to do is let DASM manage the calculation of the variable/symbol addresses, and simply say "here's a variable, and it's this big". And fortunately, we can do that.

First, let's consider 'normal code'

    ORG $8000

LABEL1    .byte 1,34,12,3

LABEL2    .byte 0

When assembled, DASM will assign $8000 as the value of the symbol LABEL1, and $8004 as the value of the symbol LABEL2 (that is, it assembles the code, and starting at location $8000 (which is also the value of LABEL1) we will see 4 bytes (1, 34, 12, 3) and then another byte (0) which is at $8004—the value of the symbol LABEL2.

### .byte

Note, the '.byte' instruction (actually it's called a pseudo-op, as it's an instruction to the assembler, not an actual 6502 instruction) is just a way of telling DASM to put particular byte values in the ROM at that location.

Remember when we wrote 'NOP' to insert a no-operation instruction—which causes the 6502 to execute a 2 cycle delay? When we looked at the listing file, we saw that the NOP was replaced in the ROM image by the value $EA. Well, instead of letting DASM work out what the op-code's value is, we can actually just put that value in ourselves, using a .byte instruction to DASM. Example…

    .byte $EA   ; a NOP instruction!

Now, this isn't often done—but there are extremely rare cases where you might want to do this (typically with extremely obscure and highly godlike optimizations). We won't worry about that for now. But it's important to understand that just like DASM—which simply replaces a list of instructions with their values, we can just as easily do the same thing and put the values there ourselves.

### ds (Define Space)

Now it's easy to see how DASM gets its values for the labels from the address of the data it is currently assembling—in the earlier example, we started assembly (the ORG pseudo-op) at $8000, and then DASM encountered the label LAB1—which was given the value $8000, etc. We then inserted 4 bytes with the '.byte' pseudo-op. Instead of '.byte' which places specific values into the output binary file, we could have used the 'ds' pseudo-op—which stands for 'define space'. For example, the following would give the same two addresses to LAB1 and LAB2 as the above example, but the data put into the binary would differ…

    ORG $8000

LAB1 ds 4

LAB2 ds 1

Typically, the 'ds' pseudo-op will place 0's in the ROM—as many bytes as specified in the value after the 'ds'. In the above example, we'll see 4 0's starting at $8000 followed by another at $8004.

Now let's consider our RAM… which starts at $80. What would we have if we did something like this…?

    ORG $80 ; start of RAM

VARIABLE  ds 3     ; define 3 bytes of space for this variable

VAR2      ds 1     ; define 1 byte of space for this one

VAR3      ds 2     ; define 2 etc..

Now that's much nicer, isn't it! It won't work, though :) The problem is, DASM will quite happily assemble this—and it will correctly assign values $80 to VARIABLE, $83 to VAR2 and $84 to VAR3—but it will ALSO generate a binary ROM image containing data at locations $80-$85. That's RAM, not ROM—and it most definitely doesn't belong in a ROM binary. In fact, our ROM would now also be HUGE—because DASM would figure that it needs to create an image from location $80 - $FFFF (ie: it will be about 64K, not 4K).

What we need to do is tell DASM that we're really just using this code-writing-style to calculate the values of the symbols, and not actually creating binary data for our ROM. And we can do that. Let's plunge right in…

### SEG.U

    SEG.U variables

    ORG $80

VARIABLE  ds 3     ; define 3 bytes of space for this variable

VAR2      ds 1     ; define 1 byte of space for this one

VAR3      ds 2     ; define 2 etc..

The addition is the 'SEG.U' pseudo-op, followed by a segment name. This is telling DASM that all the following code (until a next 'SEG' pseudo-op is encountered) is an uninitialized segment. When it encounters a 'segment' defined like this, DASM will not generate actual binary data in the ROM—but it will still correctly calculate the address data for the symbols.

Note: It is important to give the segment a name (though this parameter is optional, you should choose a unique name for each segment). Naming segments assists the assembler in keeping track of exactly which parts of your code are initialized and uninitialized.

If you now go back and have a close look at the vcs.h file, you may begin to understand exactly how the values for all of the TIA registers are actually defined/calculated. Yes, they're defined as an uninitialized segment starting at a specific location. Typically this start-location is 0, and each register is assigned one byte. We keep the register symbols in the correct order and let DASM work out the addresses for us. There's a reason for this—to do with bankswitching cartridge formats—but the general lesson here is that it's nice to let DASM do the work for us—particularly when defining variables—and let it worry about the actual addresses of stuff—we just tell it the size.

One final word on the SEG pseudo-op. Though it is not strictly necessary, all of our code uses it. Without the .U extension, SEG will create binary data for our ROM. With the .U, SEG just allows DASM to populate its symbol table with names/values.

So from now on, let's define variables 'the proper way'. We'll use an uninitialized segment starting at $80, and give each variable a size using the 'ds' pseudo-op. And don't forget after our variable definitions to place another 'SEG' which will effectively tell DASM to start generating binary ROM data. Here's an example…

  SEG.U vars  ; the label "vars" will appear in our symbol

              ; table's segment list

  ORG $80     ; start of RAM

Variable ds 1  ; a 1-byte variable

    SEG    ; end of uninitialized segment - start of ROM binary

    ORG $F000

; code....

### Variable Overlays

This is as good a place as any to mention variable overlays. This is a handy 'trick' you can use to re-use RAM by assigning different usage (=meaning) to RAM locations based on the premise that some RAM locations are only needed for some parts of a game, and some for others. If you have two variables which do not clash in terms of the area in the code they are used, then there's no real reason why those variables can't use the same RAM location.

#### Stella List Posting

Here's my original post to the stella list on this issue (7/Feb/2001).

As I'm trying to optimize RAM usage, I'd been using a general scratchpad variable ('temp') and using that in the code wherever I need to. I managed the allocation and meaning of the variables manually. That is, I might know that 'temp+1' is the variable for the line #, etc., etc. It works, but it is prone to error.

So, I was thinking of a better way, and came up with this...

    org $80   ; start of our overlay section

temp        ds 8           ; general area for variable overlays

   ; other RAM variable declarations here....

   ; and now come the 'overlays'... these effectively use the

   ; 'temp' RAM location, referenced by other names...

   ; overlay section 1

    org temp         ; <--- this is the bit that is the trick

overlayvar1    ds 1        ; effectively 'temp'

overlayvar2    ds 2        ; effectively 'temp+1'

overlayvar3    ds 2        ; effectively 'temp+3'

   ; overlay section 2

    org temp                ; ANOTHER overlay on the 'temp'

variable

linecounter    ds 1         ; effectively 'temp'

indirect        ds 2         ; effectively 'temp+1'

   ; etc...

   ; overlay section 3

    org temp

sect3var        ds 8

   ; can't add more in this overlay (#3) as it's already

   ; used all of temp's size

This all works fine... as long as you remember that when you are using variables in overlays, you can't use two different overlays at the same time. That is, the same routine (or section of code) CANNOT use variables in overlay section 1 AND overlay section 2. It's not that much of a restriction, and allows you to use nice variable names throughout your code.

Just be careful your overlays don't get bigger than the general area allocated for each section.

The advantages of this system are that you can CLEARLY see what your variables are, and you only have to change sizes/declarations/usage in a single place (the RAM overlay declaration) … not hunt through your code when you decide to change usage.

/end of posting to stella

To summarize, we declare one 'variable' which is a block of RAM which is used for sharing RAM. This is our overlay section. We then declare each of our Overlays by setting the origin to the start of the overlay section and define new variables. This works because the assembler is generating an UNINITIALIZED segment for our RAM variables. What that means is that we're just using the assembler to assign values to labels (to its symbols), but not actually generating ROM data. So each overlay section starts in the same spot, and defines variables (ie: assigns addresses to labels) starting at that spot. We essentially share RAM locations for those variables, with other variables which are also defined the same way.

I've used this technique now for many demos. It can give the effect of dramatically increasing available RAM. Just have to be careful that you don't try and use two variables sharing the same location at any time. With a bit of careful management it comes naturally.

Here's a generic 'shell' with comments I use for overlay RAM variables...

    ; This overlay variable is used for the overlay variables. That's OK.

    ; However, it is positioned at the END of the variables so, if on the

    ; off chance we're overlapping stack space and variable, it is LIKELY

    ; that won't be a problem, as the temp variables (especially the

    ; latter ones) are only used in rare occasions.

    ; FOR SAFETY, DO NOT USE THIS AREA DIRECTLY (ie: NEVER reference

    ; 'Overlay' in the code). ADD AN OVERLAY FOR EACH

    ; ROUTINE'S USE, SO CLASHES CAN BE EASILY CHECKED.

Overlay    ds 0;   ; --> overlay (share) variables

                   ; (make sure this is as big as the biggest overlay

                   ; subsection)

;----------------------------------------------------------------------------

; OVERLAYS!

; These variables are overlays, and should be managed with care. That is,

; variables are ALREADY DEFINED, and we're reusing RAM for other purposes.

; EACH OF THESE ARE VARIABLES (TEMPORARY) USED BY ONE ROUTINE (AND IT'S

; SUBROUTINES) THAT IS, LOCAL VARIABLES. USE 'EM FREELY, THEY COST NOTHING.

; TOTAL SPACE USED BY ANY OVERLAY GROUP SHOULD BE <= SIZE OF 'Overlay'

;----------------------------------------------------------------------------

                org Overlay

   ; ANIMATION/LOGIC SYSTEM

   ; place variables here

;----------------------------------------------------------------------------

                org Overlay

   ; DRAWING SYSTEM

   ; place variables here

   ; etc

Hope that's clear enough.

## Summary

That will do nicely for this session—see you next time!

# Sessions 17 & 18: Asymmetrical Playfields (Parts 1 & 2)

By now you should be familiar with how the '2600 playfield works. In summary, there are three playfield registers (PF0, PF1, PF2) and these hold 20 bits of playfield data. The '2600 displays this data twice on every scanline, and you can have the second half mirrored, if you wish. Playfield is a single-color, but each half of the screen may be set to use the colors of the players (more about those, later!). In short, though, we have a fairly versatile system just great for PONG-style games.

Pretty soon, though, programmers started doing much more sophisticated things with the TIA—and especially with the playfield registers—than just displaying symmetrical (or mirrored) playfields.

Since writes to TIA immediately change the internal 'state' of the TIA, and since the TIA and 6502 work in tandem during the display of a TIA frame, there's no reason why the 6502 can't modify things on-the-fly in the middle of scanlines. For example, any write to playfield registers will IMMEDIATELY reflect in changes to the data that the TIA is sending for a particular scanline. I qualify this slightly by my non-knowledge if these immediate changes are on a per-pixel basis, or on a per-byte basis. Something for us all to play with!

In any case, as will probably have become obvious to you by now, it is possible to display a different 'shape' on the left and right of any scanline. As stated, if we left the TIA alone then it would display the same (or a mirrored version) data on the left and right halves of the screen—coming from its 20 pixel playfield data. But if we modify any of the playfield registers on-the-fly (that is, mid-scanline) then we will see the results of that modification straight away when the TIA draws the rest of the scanline.

## The TIA and Frame Timing

Let's revisit briefly our understanding of the TIA and frame timing. Please refer to the earlier sessions where the timing of the TIA and 6502 were covered. In summary, there are exactly 228 color-clocks of TIA 'time' on any scanline—160 of those clocks are actual visible pixels on the screen and 68 of them are the time it takes for the horizontal retrace to occur.

Our 'zero point' of any scanline is the beginning of horizontal retrace. This is the point at which the TIA re-enables the 6502 if it has been halted by a WSYNC write. At the beginning of any scanline, then, we know that we have exactly 68 color clocks (68/3 = 22.667 cycles) before the TIA starts 'drawing' the line itself.

You should already be familiar with the horizontal resolution of '2600 playfield—exactly 40 pixels per scanline. I use the term 'pixels' interchangeably here—to mean a minimum unit of graphic resolution. For the playfield, there are 40 pixels a line. But the TIA has 160 color-clocks per line, and in fact sprite resolution is also 160 pixels per line. Another way of looking at this is that each playfield pixel is 4 color-clocks wide, and each sprite pixel is 1 color clock wide (as a minimum, anyway—this can be adjusted to give double-wide and quadruple-wide sprites. We'll get to sprites soon, I promise!)

### WSYNC Refresher

There are 228 (160 visible + 68 not visible) color clocks on each scanline. The CPU is active ALL the time, \*unless\* you write to WSYNC at which point the CPU is \*immediately\* halted and doesn't become active again until the start of the next scanline. Since it takes 3 cycles to actually write WSYNC, a kernel which is using this to time scanlines only has 73 CPU cycles per line. Why 73? Because if we look at the color clocks per line, we see 228; but if we look at 3 color clocks for every CPU cycle, we actually have 228/3 = 76 CPU cycles per line. And if we use 3 of those to do a WSYNC, then we only have 73 available for other stuff. Voila!

And note, these 76 cycles for the whole line actually encompass the WHOLE line … 228 color clocks worth. Some of those will be during the 160 visible onscreen pixels (color clocks). Some will be during the 68 'horizontal blank' period—the invisible color clocks. And the CPU can be halted by a WSYNC at \*any\* time during the line—and it will be turned on at the start of the next line—no matter how long away that is.

### Synchronization

It's quite important to understand the timing of things. Let's delve a bit more deeply into the synchronization between the 6502 and the TIA, and have a close look at when/where each pixel of the playfield is actually being drawn.

As stated above, the first 68 cycles of each scanline are the horizontal retrace period. So the very first pixel of playfield (which is 4 color-clocks wide, remember!) starts drawing on TIA cycle 68 (of 228 in the line). So if we want that pixel to be the right 'shape' (ie: on or off, as the case may be) then we really have to make sure we have the right data in the right bit of PF0 before cycle 68.

Likewise, we should really make sure that the second pixel has its correct data set before cycle 72 (68 + 4 color clocks). In fact, you should now understand that the 4 playfield pixels at the left of the scanline occupy TIA color clocks (68-71) (72-75) (76-79) and (80-83). The very first pixel of PF1, then, starts displaying at clock 84. So we need to make sure that data for PF1 is written before TIA clock 84. And so it goes, we should make sure that PF2 data is written to PF2 before the TIA starts displaying PF2 pixels. And that happens on clock (84 + 8 \* 4 = 116)

Finally, we can now see that PF2 will take 32 color clocks (because it's 8 pixels, at 4 clocks each). As it starts on TIA clock 116, it will end on clock 147. The obvious calculation is 147 (end) - 68 (start) = 80 color clocks. Which nicely corresponds to 20 pixels at 4 color clocks each. OK, that's straightforward, but you should now follow exactly the correspondence between TIA color clocks and the start of display of particular pixels on any scanline.

Now, what happens at color clock 148? The TIA starts displaying the second half of the playfield for the scanline in question, of course! Depending on if the playfield is mirrored or not, we will start seeing data from PF2 (mirrored) or from PF0 (non-mirrored).

Now, and here's the really neat bit—and the whole trick behind 'asymmetric' playfields—we know that if we rewrite the TIA playfield data AFTER it has been displayed on the left half of the scanline, but BEFORE it is displayed on the right half of the scanline, then the TIA will display different data on the left and right side of the screen.

In particular, this method tends to use a non-mirrored playfield. We noted that PF0 finished displaying its 4 pixels on color clock 83 (inclusive). So from color clock 84 onwards (up to 148, in fact), we may freely write new data to PF0 and we won't bugger anything currently being displayed. That's 60 color clocks of time available to us.

### More About Timing

Time to revisit the timing relationship between the 6502 and the TIA. The TIA has 228 color clocks per scanline, but the 6502 speed is derived from the TIA clock through a divide-by-three. So the 6502 has only 76 cycles (228/3) per scanline. So if there are 60 color clocks of time available to change PF0, that corresponds to 60/3 = 20 cycles of 6502 time. Further conversions between TIA time and 6502 cycles show us that it must start after TIA cycle 84 (= 84/3) = 6502 cycle 28, and it must end before TIA cycle 148 (6502 cycle 148/3 = 49.3333). Aha! How can we have a non-integer cycle? We can't, of course. All this tells us is that it is IMPOSSIBLE to exactly change data on TIA color clock 148. We can change TIA data on any divisible-by-three cycle number, since the 6502 is working in tandem with the TIA but only gets a look-in every 3 cycles.

This inability to exactly time things isn't a problem for us now, as we have already noted that there are 60 TIA color clocks in which we can effect our change for PF0.

PF1 and PF2 operate in exactly the same fashion. PF1 is displayed from clocks 84-115 and on the right-side from clock 164 onwards (remember the right-side starts at clock 148, PF0 takes 16 color-clocks (4 pixels at 4 color-clocks each). So to modify PF1 so it displays different right-side and left-side visuals, we need to modify it between color clock 116 and 164. That gives us a narrower window of time in which we can make our modification—just 48 color clocks. But still, we can do that, right?

Finally, PF2 is displayed from clock 116-147 (let's check, that's 32 color clocks inclusive - 32 = 8 pixels x 4 clocks per pixel. Yep!). And on the right-side of the scanline, PF2 will display from clock 164 + 32 = 196 to clock 227. 227 - 196 = exactly 32 color clocks. Voila! So the window of opportunity for PF2, so to speak, is from color clock 148 to 195 inclusive. That's another 48 clocks.

So to summarize the timing for writing the right-hand-side PF register updates, we can safely modify PF0 from clocks 84 - 147, PF1 from clocks 116 - 163 inclusive, and PF2 from 148 - 195 inclusive. Note the overlap on these times. We could safely modify PF1 on (say) cycle 116, and then modify PF0 on cycle 130, and finally modify PF2 on cycle 190. The point being, it's not the ORDER of the modifications to the playfield registers that count—it's the TIMING that counts. As long as we modify the registers in the period when the TIA isn't drawing them, we won't see glitches on the screen.

### One Thing You Need to Remember

Well, now you have all the information you need to generate an asymmetrical playfield. But there's one thing you need to remember—once you write data to the TIA, the TIA retains that 'state', or the data that you last wrote. So if you want an asymmetrical playfield, you not only have to write the new data for the right-half of the scanline, you have to write the right data for the left side of the NEXT scanline!

In fact, we already covered that. As long as PF0 is written before cycle 68 then it will display OK on the left … etc. So a typical asymmetrical playfield kernel will be writing 6 playfield writes (two to PF0, two to PF1, two to PF2) on each and every scanline. As you can imagine, you don't get a lot of change out of just 76 cycles of 6502 time per scanline, when as a minimum a load/store is going to cost you 5 cycles of time—and in most cases more like 6 or 7. That can equate to 40 or more cycles of your 76, JUST drawing the playfield data. Ouch!

## Timing Diagram

The following diagram shows the timing relationship between the TIA, the 6502, and playfield pixels. Further, it shows the times at which it is safe to write the playfield registers for both left and right-sides of the screen.

A close-up of a ruler

Description automatically generated

## Summary

Rather than give you a code sample this session, I'd like you to grab the last playfield code and convert it to display an asymmetrical playfield. Doesn't have to be fancy—just demonstrate a consistent change between left and right halves of the screen, writing PF0, PF1 and PF2 twice each on each scanline. Once you've mastered this concept you can truly say you're on the way to programming a '2600 game!

# Session 19: Addressing Modes

We're already familiar with a few ways of loading numbers into the 6502's registers, and storing numbers from those registers into RAM or TIA registers. We'll re-visit those methods we know about, learn some new ones (not all of the 6502's addressing modes, but enough to get by with).

This session we're going to have a bit of a look at the various ways that the 6502 can address memory, and how to write these in source code.

## A, X, and Y Registers

As you should be aware by now, the 6502 has three registers—A, X, and Y. 'A' is our workhorse register, and we use this to do most of our loading, storing, and calculations. X and Y are index registers, and we generally use these for looping, and counting operations. They also allow us to access 'lists' or tables of data in memory.

Let's start with the basics. To load and store actual values to and from registers, we can use the following…

    lda #$80    ; load accumulator with the number $80

                ; (=128 decimal)

    lda $80     ; load accumulator with contents of

                ; memory location $80

    sta #$80    ; meaningless!  DASM will kick a fit.

                ; You can't store to a number!

    sta $80     ; store accumulator's contents to

                ; memory location $80

    ldx #$80    ; load x-register with the number $80

   ; etc..

All registers can load numbers directly (called 'immediate values'). The above examples show the accumulator being loaded with #$80 (the number 128) and also the X register being loaded with the same value. You can do this with the Y register, too.

You can't STORE the accumulator to an immediate value. This is a meaningless concept. It's like me asking you to put a letter in your three. You may have a post-box numbered 'three', but you don't have a 'three'.

### Absolute Addressing

All registers can load and store values to memory addresses by specifying the location of that address (or, of course, a label which equates to the location of that address). For example, the following two sections of code are equivalent…

    lda $F000  ; load accumulator with contents of $F000

    ; or. . .

where = $F000

    lda where   ; ditto

As noted, the above will work for X and Y registers, too. This form of addressing (addressing means "how we access memory") is called 'absolute addressing'. Earlier we covered how the 6502 addresses code over a 16-bit memory range (that is, there are 2^16 distinct addresses that the 6502 can access, ranging from 0 to $FFFF). To form a 16-bit address, the 6502 uses pairs of bytes—and these are always stored in little-endian format (which means that we put the low-byte first, and the high-byte last). Thus, the address $F023 would be stored in memory as two bytes in this order … $23, $F0.

Now, when DASM is assembling our code, it converts the mnemonic we write for an instruction (eg: 'lda') into an opcode (a number) which is the 6502's way of understanding what each instruction is meant to do. We already encountered the mnemonic 'nop' which converted into $EA. Whenever the 6502 encountered an $EA as an instruction, it performed a 2-cycle delay (it 'executed' the NOP).

We've briefly covered how each 6502 instruction may have one or two additional parameters—that is, there's always an opcode—but there may be one or two additional bytes following the opcode. These bytes hold things such as address data, or numeric data. For example, when we write 'lda #$56', DASM will place the bytes $A9, $56 into the binary. The 6502 retrieves the $A9, recognizes this as a 'lda' instruction, then fetches the next byte $56 and transfers this value into the accumulator.

To signify absolute addresses, the two bytes of the address are placed in little-endian format following the opcode. If we write 'ldy $F023'—indicating we wish to load the contents of memory location $F023 into the Y register, then DASM will put the bytes $AC, $23, $F0 into our binary. And the 6502 when executing will retrieve the $AC, recognize it as a 'ldy' instruction which requires a two-byte address—and then fetches the address from the next two bytes, giving $F023—and THEN retrieving the contents of that memory location and transferring it into the y register.

### Zero-Page Addressing

As you can see, this division of 16-bit addresses into low and high byte pairs essentially divides the memory map into 256 'pages' of 256 bytes each. The very first page (with the high-byte equal to 0) is known as 'zero-page', and this is treated a bit differently to the rest of memory. To optimize the space required for our binary, the 6502 designers decided that they would include a special version of memory addressing where, if the access was to zero page (and thus the high byte of the memory address is 0), then you could use a different opcode for the instruction and only include the low-byte of the address in the binary. This form of addressing is known as zero-page addressing.

As with our above example, if we were accessing memory location $80 (which is the same as $0080—remember, leading zeroes are superfluous when writing numbers), then we \*COULD\* have an absolute access to this location (with the bytes $AC, $80, $00—interpreted in a similar fashion as described above). But DASM is smart—and it knows that when we are accessing zero-page addresses, it uses the more efficient (both smaller code-size and faster execution) form of the instruction, and instead places the following in our binary … $A4, $80. The 6502 recognizes the opcode $A4 as a 'ldy' instruction (as was the $AC) but in this case only one byte is retrieved to form the low byte of the address, and the high byte is assumed to be 0.

Mostly we can rely on DASM to choose the best form of addressing for us.

So far, we have seen that what we can do with all the registers is essentially the same. Unfortunately, this is not the case with all the addressing modes! The 6502 is not 'orthogonal'The registers aren't all equal. Some operations require certain registers. For example, you can only do math with the A register and if you want to set the stack pointer, you have to use the X register. There are many examples.

(Adapted from a post by Ed Fries)—and this has some bearing on our choice of which register to use for which purpose, when designing our kernel.

OK, so now we should know what is meant by 'absolute addresses' and 'zero page addresses'. Pretty simple, really. Both refer to the address of memory that the 6502 can theoretically access—and zero page addresses are those in the range $0000 to $00FF inclusive.

### Absolute,X, Absolute,Y, Zero Page,X, and Zero Page,Y

The session discussing Initialization introduced an efficient way of clearing memory in a loop, using a register to run through 256 bytes, and storing 0 to the memory location formed by adding the contents of the x register to a fixed memory address. These addressing modes (using the X or Y register to add to a fixed memory address, giving a final address for access) are known as 'Absolute,X' and 'Absolute,Y' and 'Zero Page,X' and 'Zero Page,Y'. It is probably a good idea now to track down a good 6502 book

    ldx #1

    lda $23,x    ; load accumulator with contents of

                 ; location 36 (=$24)

    ldy $23,x    ; load Y register with contents of

                 ; location %100100

    ldy #2

    ldx $23,y    ; load X register with contents of

                 ; location $25

    lda $23,y    ; load accumulator with contents of

                 ; location $25

That last line is interesting—an example of the non-orthogonality of our instruction set. All of the above examples deal with zero-page addresses (that is, the high byte of the address is 0). Theoretically, these instructions don't need to include the high-byte in the address parameters in the binary. However, there is no 'zero page,y' load for the accumulator! There is a zero page,x one, though. Its a bit bizarre :)

So DASM will assemble 'ldx $23,y' to a zero page,y instruction—2 bytes long—but it will assemble 'lda $23,y' to an absolute,y instruction—3 bytes long. Such is life.

These zero page indexed instructions have a catch—the final address is always always always a zero page address. So in the following example…

    ldy #1

    lda $FF,y

Since (as we just discussed) this is an absolute indexed instruction, the accumulator is loaded with the contents of memory location $100. However, the following…

    ldy #1

    ldx $FF,y

Since this will assemble to a zero page indexed instruction, the final address is always zero-page (the high byte is set to 0 after the index register is added)—so we will actually be accessing the contents of memory location 0 (!!). That is, the address is formed by adding the y register and the address ($FF+1 = $100) and dropping the high-byte. Something to be very aware of!

### Absolute Indexed Addressing Modes

Absolute indexed addressing modes are handy for loading values from data tables in ROM. They allow us to use an index register to step (for example) the line number in a kernel, and use the same register to access playfield values from tables. Consider this (mockup) code…

      ldx #0   ; line #

Display

      lda MyPF0,x     ; load a value from the data table "MyPF0"

      sta PF0

      lda MyPF1,x     ; use table "MyPF1"

      sta PF1

      lda MyPF2,x     ; use table "MyPF2"

      sta PF2

      sta WSYNC

      inx

      cpx #192

      bne Display

     ; other stuff here

      jmp StartOfFrame

MyPF0

      .byte 1,2,3,4,5,6  ;...etc 192 bytes of data here, giving data

                        ; for PF0

MyPF1

      .byte 234,24,1,23,41,2 ; PF 1 data (should be 192 bytes long)

MyPF2

      .byte 64,244,31,73,43,2,0,0 ; PF 2 data (should be 192 bytes long)

The above code fragment uses tables of data in our ROM. These tables contain the values which should be written to the playfield registers for each scanline. The x register increments once for each scanline, and our absolute,x load for each playfield register will load consecutive values from the appropriate tables.

Then, creating pretty graphics becomes simply a matter of putting the right values into those tables MyPF0, MyPF1, and MyPF2. This is where building tools to convert from images to data tables becomes extremely useful! We'll cover more of this way of doing things when we complete our sessions on asymmetrical playfields. The plan is to use a tool to create these data tables, and simplify our kernel by using data tables to display just about any asymmetrical image we want!

## Summary

Soon we'll cover the remaining 6502 addressing modes, and also discuss the 6502's stack.

## Exercises

1. Use this method of absolute,x table access to modify or create a kernel which loads the graphics data from tables. Separate each playfield register into its own table, as above.
2. Can you extend this system to asymmetrical playfield? Don't worry, we're going to give a complete asymmetrical playfield kernel (and tools!) in the next session.
3. How would you incorporate color changes into this system (ie: if you wanted clouds on the left, sun on the right)?
4. Each table requires 1 byte of ROM per PF register per scanline. Can you think of ways to reduce this requirement? What trade-offs are necessary when reducing the table size?
5. Find a 6502 cycle-timing reference, and try to calculate exactly how many cycles each instruction in your kernel is taking. Add-up all the instructions on each line, and work out just how much time you have left to do "all the other stuff". Such as sprite drawing!

# Session 20: Asymmetrical Playfields (Part 3)