NORD PL
User's Guide

## A/S NORSK DATA-ELEKTRONIKK



NORD PL
User's Guide

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## INTRODUCTION

1.1 Machine Oriented Languages

A machine oriented language is a medium level language, standing between the high level languages and assembly code. The syntax resembles that of $A L G O L$. However. the use is intended to be like that of an assembler, because all facilities of the computer can be reached.
a) The complete instruction set with all addressing modes
b) All registers
c) All available memory locations

Comparing a machine oriented language to assembly code:
a) It is easier to write programs, and the error checking can be more extensive.
b) The programs will be more readable for others.

Comparing a machine oriented language to high level language:
a) A PL-language will give more optimal object code, about the same as for assembly code.
b) The programmer is not dependent on fixed calling sequences or data structures.

One of the main applications of machine oriented language is system programming (operating systems, compilers). where efficiency as well as readability is needed.
1.2 Properties of the NORD PL

The NORD PL is designed for the NORD-1, NORD-10 and NORD-20 computers. The object output is MAC assembler source code. Therefore, including of assembly code sequences is very easy. $\Lambda l l$ the debug facilities of MAC are immediately available, including symbolic references to labels and variables.

The statement set includes:
a) Arithmetical statements, consisting of arithmetical/logical expressions and assignments. Constant expressions are also included. These will be evaluated at compile time.
b) Control statements, including:

FOR - loop control
IF - conditional branching
GO - unconditional branching
CALL - subroutine call

## 1-2

c) Declaration staternents, with type specifications and data presetting.

The compiler also includes conditional compiling.

The compiler needs about 5.7 K of core plus main symbol table ( 5 locations per symbol). The text is compiled in one pass. The compiler and the assembler can be coupled together as co-routines, so that even the whole compiling-assembling can be performed in one single pass.

The compiler can be run either as a freestanding system, under NORD-OPS or under TSS.

STRUCTURE OF NORD PL
3.1 BasicElements

### 3.1.1 Symbols

A symbol is a string of digits and letters, where the first 5 characters only are significant. The rest will be taken as a comment. At least one of the 5 first must be a letter (not necessarily the very first). A symbol can be used for a variable, a label or a constant.

## Examples:

NEW SYMBOL, A1, 1A

### 3.1.2 Numbers

In decimal mode the compiler will normally regard a string of digits as a decimal number. If the string is immediately preceded by a \& , it will be an octal number. In octal mode the digit string will be octal in any case. Decimal/octal mode is set by commands. Initially the compiler is in octal mode.

Floating point numbers have the same syntax as MAC floating point, except that the sign \# is used instead of $E$; besides the number must always start with a digit.

Example:

$$
0.33 \not \#-33
$$

### 3.1.3 Reserved Combinations

Some symbols are reserved for special use, as operatirs, statement symbols or register identifiers. Some special characters are also used. A complete list is found in Appendix A.

### 3.1.4 Character and String Constants

Character constants have the same form as in MAC. \# \# A puts the 7 bits ASCII equivalent of $A$ right adjusted in a word, and $A B$ packs the characters $A$ and $B$ into one word. The string has also the same form.
' ABCD ' will be packed as:

| A | B |
| :---: | :---: |
| C | D |
| i |  |

### 3.1.5 Registers

The registers have fixed names:

| P | TAD |
| :--- | :--- |
| X | K |
| T | Z |
| A | Q |
| D | O |
| L | C |
| B | M |
| AD | 0 |

If the number 0 is found in an executable expression, it will be regarded as the zero register, not as a constant.

### 3.2 Data Structure

Three data types are available:

| a) | Integers | $(16 \mathrm{bits})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| b) | Double | $(32 \mathrm{bits})$ |
| c) | Real | $(48 \mathrm{bits})$ |

These types can be used either as single variables or arrays. Pointers to the actual variables can also be declared.

All data must be declared before they can be used. Ilowever, the actual location can be delayed, allowing for instance a data table to be placed after the code using it.

The addressing mode is defined by the contex: of the declaration.
Static data can be initialized.
3.3 Data Expressions

A data expression is evaluated at compile time. The operands consist of constants and symbols. If labels or variables are used, their eddress values will be used. The operators are:

| + | Add |
| :--- | :--- |
| - | Subtract |
| $*$ | Multiply |
| $>$ | Byte separation (equivalent to ${ }^{\text {"* }} 400_{8}+{ }^{\prime \prime}$ ) |

The expression is evaluated strictly from left to right. If a label or a variable's reference occurs, only + and - are allowed for the rest of the expression.

| Examples: | MAC equivalents: |
| :--- | :--- |
| $1+2^{*} 10$ | 30 |
| $1 \backslash 1$ | 401 |
| $\# \# \mathrm{~A} \backslash \# \# \mathrm{~B}$ (equivalent to \#AB) | $\not \# \mathrm{AB}$ |
| $5+2+\mathrm{LAB} 1-\mathrm{VAR} 2$ | $7+\mathrm{LAB} 1-\mathrm{VAR} 2$ |

Data expressions can be found in:
a) Declaraction statements as initializations
b) Call statements as parameters
c) Executable statements as operands, surrounded by quotes (").
3.4 Executable Expression

In general an executable expression specifies a series of operations between the primary operand, which is a register, and different secondary operands, which can be registers, variables or constants. If the expression starts with a register, this register will be the primary operand throughout the expression.

Examples:
$\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{V} 1+55=: \mathrm{V} 2$
$X+5=: L-10$

MAC equivalents
ADD V1
AAA 55
STA V2

AAX 5
COPY SX DL
AAX -10

The operations are executed strictly from left to right, with no implicit or explicit priority.

Operators
Arithmetical

| $:=$ | Load |
| :--- | :--- |
| $=:$ | Store |
| $:=:$ | Swap |
| - | Subtract |
| + | Add |
| * | Multiply |
| I | Divide (reals only) |

Shift
SHZ shift with zero end input
SH arithmetical shift
SHR rotational shift
SHL shift with link end input
Logical

| And |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| XOR | Ex |
| ,- | one's complement |
| BONE | set bit |
| BZERO | reset bit |

Special unary:
MIN Memory increment (MIN instruction)
GOSW Switch

Example:
A+4 GOSW L1, L2

MAC equivalent:
AAA 4
RADD SA DP
JMP L1
JMP L2

An expression can also start with a variable. Then the $A, A D$ or $T A D$ will be the primary operator, if the variable is an integer, double or real. The first operation is assumed to be a load.

Example:
If IX is an integer, then the expression
$I X+I Y=: I Z$ is equivalent to $A:=I X+I Y=: I Z$
If a variable is included in quotes ("), it is said to be referenced. Then it is accessed one time less indirect than otherwise. This means that a referenced pointer will be referenced as a variable, and a referenced variable or label will give the address value. A constant will have the same meaning whether it is referenced or not. Inside the quotes even whole data expressions can be placed (see Section 3.3). Then all variables will be represented with their address values (even the pointers).

Examples:
Let PNT1 be a pointer, V1 a variable and LL a label.

| NORD PL | MAC equivalents |
| :--- | :--- |
| PNT1 | LDA I PNT1 |
| "PNT1" | LDA PNT1 |
| V1 | LDA V1 |
| "V1" | LDA (V1 |
| "PNT1+V1+5" | LDA (PN T1+V1+5 |

The number 0 will be regarded as the zero register. If constant with value zero is wanted, it should be surrounded by quotes (').

## Examples:

| NORD PL | MAC equivalents |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0=:$ T | COPY DT |
| $0=:$ VAR | STZ VAR |
| "0"=:VAR | SAA 0:STA VAR |
| A. BONE "0" | BSET ONE 0 DA |

3.5

Statement Structure
A statement is normally terminated by a semicolon or a carriage return. Using a command (ICR), it is possible to set the compiler in "ignore-carriage return" mode, so that the carriage relurn will be ignored. Then a statement can consist of several lines.

A command bcgins with the percent sign (\%). Then the rest of the line will be ignored.

If a statement starts with an asterisk ( ${ }^{*}$ ), the rest of the line is regarded as MAC assembly code.

If a statement starts with an at ( 0 ), it is regarded as a command to the compiler.
3.6 Program Structure - Scope of Variables

Since the NORD-1/10/20 computers have direct addressing areas of 256 words, the programs will usually be divided into small subroutines. Therefore, NORD PL has a subroutine feature, where labels and variables defined within a subroutine are local to that subroutine. Labels and variables defined outside the subroutines are global.

There is only one level of subroutines; it is not possible to declare a subroutine within another subroutine.

Example of layout:


TIIE INDIVIDUAL STATEMENTS
4.1 Declaration Statements

### 4.1.1 Data Declarations

Variables must be declared to be one of the types:
INTEGER
DOUBLE
REAL
In addition two optional declaration symbols can be added:

## ARRAY <br> POINTER

These will modify the addressing mode. After the declaration symbols a list of variables can follow. The variables can be initialized, either as default zeros, or to specified values.

Examples: MAC equivalents
INTEGER INT1, INT2

REAL FLX
DOUBLE SYM, SY2=SYM, S3
INT1, 0
INT2, 0
FLX, 0; 0; 0;
SYM. 0; 0
SY2=SYM
S3, 0:0
INTEGER POINTER PVAR:=VAR PVAR, VAR
REAL ARRAY FX(20), FY(30) $F X=*: *+20+20+20 /$
FY=*; * $+30+30+30 /$
INTEGER ARRAY TEXT:='STRING' TEXT, 'STRING'
A declared entity can be initialized by several elements, divided by a comma, the whole list enclosed in parentheses.

INTEGER ARRAY PARLIST:=(LOGNO, AREA, " 100 ", " 15 ")

PARLI, LOGNO AREA (100 (15

Each element can be a data expression.

Data can also be initialized with no name attached to it by using the DATA statement:

DATA (44, XY, 5)
is equivalent to
INTEGER DUMMY $:=(44, \mathrm{XY}, 5)$
The actual place of data can be delayed, so that data can be placed after the code physically. Then the variables can be declared equal to question mark the first time and later be declared a second time.

Example:

```
INTEGER ARRAY TABLE=?
SUBR S
:
RBUS
IN TEGER ARRAY TABLE (1000)
```


### 4.1.2 Symbolic Contants

Symbols can be defined to be constants, using the SYMBOL statement.

Example:
SYMBOL L200 $=200$, L21 0
$=\mathrm{L} 200+10 \quad \mathrm{~L} 200=200$
$\mathrm{L} 210=\mathrm{L} 200+10$

The value can be a data expression of numbers and defined symbols. If the value is omitted, it will be one greater than the former value.

| Examples: | MAC equivalent |
| :--- | :--- |
| SYMBOL $\mathrm{S} 0, \mathrm{~S} 1, \mathrm{~S} 2, \mathrm{~S} 3$ | $\mathrm{~S} 0=0$ |
|  | $\mathrm{~S} 1=1$ |
|  | $\mathrm{~S} 2=2$ |
|  | $\mathrm{~S} 3=3$ |
|  |  |
| SYMBOL CHA $=\# \# \mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{CHB}, \mathrm{CHC}$ | $\mathrm{CIIA}=\# \# \mathrm{~A}$ |
|  | $\mathrm{CHB}=\mathrm{CHA}+1$ |
|  | $\mathrm{CHC}=\mathrm{CIIB}+1$ |

### 4.1.3 Addressing Mode Specifications

The addressing mode of a variable is dependent on the context of the declaration statement. If nothing else is stated, a variable declared inside a subroutine (between a SUBR and a RBUS statement) is directly P-relative addressed, otherwise indirect addressed. If a variable is to be $B$-relative addressed, its declaration statement must be enclosed by a BASE - ESAB pair or a DISP -PSID pair.

If the variables are static allocated, BASE can be used, followed by a base-field identifier.

Example: MAC equivalent
BASE BA
INTEGER BVAR1, BVAR2
$\mathrm{BA}=*+200$
BVAR1, 0
BVAR2,0
PSUB, SUB
ESAB

The instruction to get a BASE variable can be
LDA BVAR1 - BA, B

If the variables are dynamic allocated, for instance as variables in an element of a data structure, DISP should be used, followed by the displacement of the first variable. Such variables cannot be initialized.

Example:
DISP - 200 INTEGER D1, D2 INTEGER ARRAY DARR(10) INTEGER ENDA

MAC equivanlent
D1 $=-200$
D2 $=-177$
DARR $=-176$
$\mathrm{ENDA}=-166$

PSID
It is the user's responsibility to set the $B$ register to the proper value.

Addressing modes:

| Addr. <br> Type |  | BASE | IISP | Local | Global |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INTEGER | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{J} \\ & \text { "J" } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA J-BA , B } \\ & \text { LDA (J } \end{aligned}$ | LDA J, B | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA J } \\ & \text { LDA } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA I (J } \\ & \text { LDA }(J \end{aligned}$ |
| INTEGER POINTER | PP <br> "PP" | LDA I PP-BA, B LDA PP-BA, B | LDA 1 PP.B LDA PP, B | LDA I PP <br> LDA PP | Illegal LDA I (P!) |
| REAL | $R_{" R "}$ | LDF R-BA, B <br> LDA (R | LDF R, B | LDF R | LIDF I (R <br> LDA (R |
| IN'I'EGER ARRAY | XB <br> "XB" | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA X B-BA } \\ & \text { B. X } \\ & \text { LDA (XB } \end{aligned}$ | $\underset{\mathrm{X}}{\mathrm{LDA} X B}, \mathrm{~B}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{LDA} \text { I, X } \\ & \text { (XB } \\ & \text { LDA } \quad \mathrm{XB} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | LDA I, X (XB LDA (XB |
| INTEGER ARRAY POINTER | L゙L <br> "LL" | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA I LL-BA } \\ & , B, X \\ & \text { LDA LL-BA, B } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LDA I LL } \\ & \text { B. X } \\ & \text { LDA LL, I3 } \end{aligned}$ | Illegal | Illegal |

DISP- or BASE-addressed variables can be forced to be $X$-addressed instead of $B$-addressed. Then the variable must be preceded by an $X$ value denotation and a period (.).

| Examples: | MAC equivalents |
| :--- | :--- |
| X.DD | LDA DD, X |
| START.DD | LDX START |
|  | LDA DD, X |
| START.EL1.VAL | LDX START |
|  | LDX EL1,X |
|  | LDA VAL, X |

This access method is useful for addressing data structures.

### 4.1.4 Subroutine Declarations

A subroutine statement starts with the symbol SUBR. followed by a list of entrypoints. The entrypoints will be global symbols. Other labels and variables declared after the subroutine heading will be killed at the end of the subroutine. The end is marked by the symbol RBUS, which is a formal declaration only.

It is the programmer's responsibility to provide a return jump from the subroutine (using EXIT, EXITA or GO).

Example:
SUBR ENT1, ENT2
$\vdots$
ENT1:
$\vdots$
ENT2:
$\vdots$
RBUS
4.2 Executablestatements

An executable statement can only be found within a subroutine.

### 4.2.1 Arithmetical Statements

An arithmetical statement consists of an executable expression, as described in section 3.4. If the expression begins with a variable, the A, AD or TAD register will be used as the primary operand, depending on the type of the variable.

### 4.2.2 Control Statements

### 4.2.2.1 GO Statements

The GO statement is used for unconditional branching. It consists of the symbol GO followed by a label or a pointer.

Examples:
INTEGER POINTER RET: = RETX
LL: GO RET

GO LI,
GO ENTX \% EXTERNAL ENTRYPOINT

MAC equivalents:
RET, RETX JMP I RET

JMP LL
JMP I (ENTX

If a subroutine is long, it can be useful to force a jump to be indirect, as not to exceed the displacement range. This can be done by placing the symbol FAR after GO.

Example: MAC equivalent
GO FAR LL JMP I (LL

### 4.2.2.2 CALL Statements

The simplest form of a subroutine call is the symbol CALL followed by a subroutine entrypoint, a pointer or a local label. If it is not yet defined, it is assumed to be an entrypoint of a succeeding subroutine. The parameters can be transferred by the registers.

The simple CAIL statement can also be followed by a parameter list, being ecuivalent to the data list of the DATA statement. This can be used by placing the parameter addresses after the subroutine jump.

Examples:
INTEGER POINTER PNTR: = SUB0
CALL SUB1
CALL PNTR
CALL SUB2 (V1, SX2, WM)

MAC equivalents:
PNTR, SUB0
JPL I (SUB1
JPL I PNTR
JPL I (SUB2
V1
SX2
WM

### 4.2.2.3 EXIT Statements

Return from subroutines can be performed by EXIT (which is compiled to EXIT) or EXITA (which is compiled to EXIT AD1). If these means for subroutine return are used, the programmer should ensure that the $L$ register contents have not been destroyed, for instance by a subroutine call within the subroutine.

### 4.2.2.4 IF Statements

The IF statement has the general form:
IF < conditions> THEN <statements> ELSE <statements> FI

ELSE can be omitted.
Between IF and THEN there can be several conditions, delimited by the OR or AND symbols. The conditions are evaluated from left to right. If a condition followed by AND or THEN is not true, the statements after THEN are bypassed. If a condition followed by OR or THEN is true, the statements after THEN are executed. Otherwise more conditions will be tested.

There are two types of conditions: relations and bit lests.
A relation consists of two executable expressions with a relational operator between them:

| $>$ | Greater |
| :--- | :--- |
| $<$ | Less |
| $=$ | Faual |
| $>=$ | Greater or eaual |
| $<=$ | Less or equal |
| $><$ | Not equal |

If the first element of the first expression is a variable or a constant, the $A$ or TAD register is considered as the primary register.

If the first element of the second expression is a variable or a constant, the $T$ register is considered as the primary register. This means that the relation

IF VAR1 VAR2 THEN... is equivalent to
IF $A:=$ VAR1 $T:=$ VAR2 THEN...
An expression can be empty. Then the present value of the A or T register will be used.

IF $>$ THEN... is equivalent to
IF $\mathrm{A}>\mathrm{T}$ THEN...
This means that a construction like this is possible,
IF VAR1 $=4$ OR $=6 \quad$ OR $=7$ THEN..
If the first expression is of type REAL, the second must be equal to zero.
It is also possible to compare absolute values, where the register contents are considered as positive numbers from 0 to 64 K . Then the two relational operators can be used:

```
<< Less
>>= Greater or equal
```

In the NORD-1 version the second expression must be equal to zero.

Examples:
IF VAR-D $<$ VAR2 THEN....

IF A $+10=0$ THEN...

IF $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{LLIM} \gg=0$ THEN

MAC equivalents:
LDA VAR
RSUB SD DA
LDT VAR2
SKP IF DA LST ST JMP BYPAS

AAA 10 JAF BYPAS

SUB LLIM
BSKP ONE SSC JMP BYPAS (NORD-1 version)

A condition can be a bit test.
The bit to be tested can be one of the single bit registers. The condition can be inverted by placing the symbol NBIT after the register specification.

| Examples: | MAC equivalents: |
| :--- | :--- |
| IF K THEN... | BSKP ONE SSK |
|  | JMP BYPAS |
| IF M NBIT THEN... | BSKP ZRO SSM |
|  | JMP BYPAS |

A bit in the general registers can also be specified. An expression determines the register. Then one of the symbols BIT or NBIT selects 1 or 0 as true. At last a constant determines the bit number.

Examples: MAC equivalents:
IF T BIT 7 THEN... BSKP ONE 70 DT JMP BYPAS

IF NBIT 1 THEN BSKP ZRO 10 DA JMP BYPAS

The construction THEN GO<label > FI can be abbreviated to GO<label>.
For instance IF A $<0$ GO ERR
is equivalent to IF $A<0$ THEN GO ERR FI
MAC equivalent: JAN ERR

### 4.2.2.5 FOR Statements

The FOR statement is used for iterative purposes. Between FOR and DO the iteration specifications. Between DO and OD are the statements to be executed.

The general version has the form:
FOR <control variable> STEP <step count> TO <limit> DO < statements> OD
The control variable normally specifies a register, which can be initialized by an expression.

The step count is a constant defining the stop size. STEP can be omitted, then assuming 1 as a default step. The limit is compared to the control variable before each execution. If it exceeded, there will be no more executions.

Example:
FOR X: = VAR STEP 3 TO 50 DO A + ARR (X) OD
MAC equivalent:

|  | LDX VAR | \% SET INITIAL VALUE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEXT, | SAT 50 |  |
|  | SKP IF DT GRE SX |  |
|  | JMP BYPAS |  |
| ADD I, X (ARR LIMIT |  |  |
| AAX 3 | \% STEP CONTRON VAR |  |
| BYPAS, | JMP NEXT |  |

In case of beginning with a variable or constant, the expression after FOR will take $A$ as the primary register and the expression after TO will take T as the primary register. However, if the expression after FOR consists of one single variable, this variable will be taken as the control variable instead of a register.

Example: MAC equivalent:

FOR J TO T IOO CALL INCR OD
LDA J
NEXT, SKP IF DT GRE SA JMP BYPAS JPL I (INCR
LDA J
AAA 1
STA J JMP NEXT
BYPAS,
If only simple counting is wanted, the two following special cases are available:
a) A single variable between FOR and DO :

| Example: | MAC equivalent: |
| :--- | :--- |
| FOI VAR DO.....OD | NEXT, |

MIN VAR JMP NEXT

This means that if the control variable contains negative number before entering FOR, this will be the number of executions.
b) An X-expression between FOR and DO:

Example: MAC equivalent:
FOR X: = -5 DO....OD

SAX -5 \% 5 EXECUTIONS
NEXT,

$$
4-10
$$

The loop can also start with just a single DO. Then there will be an unconditional jump back.

| Example: | MAC equival ent: |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DO.... OD | NEXT, |

JMP NEXT

### 5.1 Commands

A command starts with a circled alpha (@) followed by the command name. The command names are not reserved symbols, so that the same symbol can be used for a command name as well as for a user variable. After the command name parameters may follow, seperated by commas.

Some of the commands are used for conditional compiling, being described in Section 5.2. In Section 5.3 in-line assembly coding is treated. The remaining commands are described below.

| @ ICR | - "Ignore carriage return"-mode. <br> This command is to be used if a statement should need; several lines (especially declaration statements). The carriage return is treated as if it were a space. |
| :---: | :---: |
| (2) CR | - "Carriage return"-mode. <br> After this command carriage return will have the same eff ect as the semicolon (;), so that it will terminate the current statement. |
| (2) EOF | - "End of file". <br> This command is used for exit from the compiler to the operating system. The MAC command) LINE is output on the object device. |
| (2CLEAR | - Clear the symbol table of the compiler. |
| @OCT | - All integer numbers will be treated as octal. |
| @DEC | - Integer numbers will be treated as decimal, except for those preceded by the "\&" sign. |
| (DDEV | - <input device>, <list device>, <object output device>. This command is used for setting device numbers for the compiler. If the list device 0 , the error messages will be printed on the oulput communication device, otherwise on the list device. |
|  | If list output and object output use the same device number, the object output will appear left adjusted and the source program will be listed 32 columns to the right. The source program will be preceded by "\%" signs, so that the mix can be assembl ed. <br> Example: @DEV 4, 5, 3 |
|  | For the TSS version files and devices can be specified symbolically in the TSS notation. The necessary closing and opening of files will be done. Numeric and symbolic representation can not be mixed in the same DEVcommand, except for the single digit 0 . |
|  | If a device is not specified at all, the old one will be used. |

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Examples:<br>(D) DEV T-R, 0, OBJECT FILE<br>( D DEV INP-FILE, L-P<br>© DEV INP, L-P, L-P

MODE - <input communication device>, <output communication device $>$. The communication devices will be defined. Normally they will be equal to 1.

## Conditional Compiling

The form of conditional compiling is conceptual somewhat similar to the "Library mode" of the MAC assembler. This means that this facility is especially well suited for extracting modules from a symbolic library.

A module to be possibly included is headed by the command
(a) LIB
followed by a logical expression of symbols. For each symbol the compiler maintains an "include"-flag, which is automatically set if the symbol is undefined, and reset when the symbol is defined. However, the programmer can also explicitly put the "include"-flag on or off using the commands

| (1) STLIB <symbol> | - Set the "library include"-flag |
| :--- | :--- |
| (4) NSLIB <symbol> | - Reset the "library include"-flag |

The expression after ( $\mathcal{D}$ LIB can have the operators

| $1 /$ | And |
| :--- | :--- |
| $1 /$ | Or |
| ,- | Not |

The expression is evaluated from left to right. If the resulting "include"value is true, the following module will be included, otherwise it will be skipped.

The module is terminated by the command
(d) ELIB

The @ LIB - @ELIB's can be nested. If a module is skipped, it is skipped until its corresponding@ELIB.

Example:

```
\vdots
    CALL SUB1
    :
    CALL SUB2
    !
    @ LIB SUB1 \/SUB2 % INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING IF
                                    % SUB1 OR SUB2 HAS BEEN
                                    % REFERENCED
    SUBR SUB1, SUB2
    :
(\lambda) ELIB % UP TO THIS POINT
```

5.3

In-line Assembly Coding
There are two ways of including assembly coding:
a) If a statement starts with an asterisk $\left(^{*}\right)$, the rest of the line will be taken as assembly code, being copied to the object output stream.
b) The command
@MAC
switches the compiler to assembly mode. The text will pass unchanged to the output stream until an at sign (@) is found.

Examples:
*TRA OPR
(d) MAC
(D) BORA 170 DX
?

## 6 USING THE COMPILER

6.1 Preparing NORD PL Programs

The compiler can be used in several contexts, such as coupled to a MAC assembler to produce immediate binary result, or as a separate system outputting MAC assembly code to a file or external device.
However, the program itself can look the same in all cases.
In case of absolute programs (not BRF), it is not necessary with any special heading; the program can start with normal statements.

If on line return to the compiler is wanted, the program should be ended with the command
(A DEV 1, 0, 0
giving the control back to the operator, which can start a new compilation. If it is the last part to be compiled, it can instead be ended with

```
A EOF
\% EXIT FROM COMPILER
```

Example of program:
\% START OF PROGRAM
INTEGER B1, B2
SUBR SUB1
$33=$ : B1
5=: B2
RBUS
(2) DEV 1,0,0

If the resulting program should be output in I3RF format, the pertinent MAC commands ) 9 BEG , ) 9 END,$) 9 \mathrm{ENT}$ and ) 9 EXT should be inserted as assembly code.

Example:
\% SUBROUTINE TO PRIN' 2 CHARACTERS
*) 9 BEG
*) 9 ENT OUT2
*) 9 EXT OUTBT
SUBR OUT2
INTEGER WORD
INTEGER POINTER LINK
OUT2: $\quad \mathrm{T}:=\mathrm{L}=:$ "LINK"
$A \doteq$ : $\dot{W} O R D$ SHZ -10 \% LEFT BYTE
T:=5: CALL OUTBT \% LINE PRINTER WORD / \377; T:=5; CALL OUTBT \% RIGIT BYTE GO LINK
RBUS
*)9END
(DEOF
a) Under TSS:

The compiler is fetched by using the command NORD-PL. It then writes the message NORD PL <version number $>$, waiting for input from the terminal. Then give the DEV command to set the appropriate devices.

Example:
@ DEV T-R, L-P, F-P
If the compiler is attached to an assembler, the intercommunication device is number 6 .

Example:

| $* 6,0,38^{\prime}$ | \% SET DEVICES FOR THE |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | \% ASSEMBLER |
| $\star$ DEV $2,5,6$ | \% SET DEVICES FOR THE |
|  | \% COMPILER |

Now the resulting BRF output will come on device no. 3 (punch).
b) Under NORD-OPS:

The control card is used:
$\$$ NORDPL (<input device $>,<$ list device $>,<$ output device>)
Example:
$\$$ NORDPL $(2,5,3)$

### 6.3 Diagnostic Messages

### 6.3.1 Diagnostic Messages from the Compiler

If the compiler detects an error, it prints a diagnostic message on the list device, preceded by some asterisks. If the list device is equal to zero. it instead on the communication device prints the name of the last label and the number of lines after the label, followed by the diagnostic message. Usually the compilation will continue; however, in a few cases the compilation has to stop, returning control to the operator (aborting if NORD-OPS) .

| Message | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: |
| Error, ill. base | Error in a BASE statement |
| Error, buffer full | Too long statement or object instruction |
| Error in command |  |
| Error in compiler | The compiler is destroyed, or may be there is a bug in the compiler |
| Error, ill. condition | Error in the conditional compiling commands (LIB, SLIB, STLIB or NSLIB) |
| Error in data expression | Illegal operand or operator in a data expression |
| Error in decl. | Error in a declaration statement |
| Error, ill. disp. | Error in a DISP statement |
| Error, ill. elem. | A basic element is found in a place where it should not be |
| Error in elem. | An ill-formed basic element |
| Error, in else/fi | Bad nesting of THEN-ELSE-FI |
| Error, ill. else/fi/od | Bad nesting of THEN-ELSE-FI or DO-OD |
| Error in expr. | Error in an executable expression |
| Error in for | Error in a FOR statement |
| Error in if | Error in an IF statement |
| Error in $1 / \mathrm{O}$ | I/O error signalled by the surrounding system |
| Error, no FI/OD | Unmatched TIIEN/ELSE or DO at the end of a subroutine |
| Error, no ( | Missing left parenthesis in a data list |
| Error, ill operation | This operation is not implemented in hardware, or non-corresponding operands |
| Error in output | Error message from the surrounding system |

$\left.\left.\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline \text { Message } & \text { Meaning } \\ \hline \text { Error in relation } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Ill-formed relation in an IF or FOR } \\ \text { statement }\end{array} \\ \text { Error in statement start } & \begin{array}{l}\text { The statement is illegal in this context, } \\ \text { or illegal element in an expression }\end{array} \\ \text { Frror in subr. } \\ \text { Error in a SUBR statement }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { Probably overlapping of compiled/assem- destroyed } \\ \text { bled program and the compiler's symbol } \\ \text { table }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { Too many symbols in the program } \\ \text { Error, table full } \\ \text { Error, too complex }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { To complex construction in an executable } \\ \text { expression; the backtracking stack is } \\ \text { filled } \\ \text { Undefined local symbols at the end of a } \\ \text { subroutine }\end{array}\right]$

$$
6-5
$$

### 6.3.2 Diagnostic Messages from the Assembler

Some errors can be detected at assembly time only, because the compiler does not keep track of memory address values. Below is a list of the most usual errors. For more information, see the manual "MAC User's Guide".
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline \text { Message } & \text { Meaning } \\
\hline \text { RANGE EX. } & \begin{array}{l}\text { A label or variable is used too far away } \\
\text { from where it was defined. It can for } \\
\text { example occur for GO to a label defined } \\
\text { earlier, or at a OD statement. }\end{array} \\
\text { POSS. FLT } & \begin{array}{l}\text { May be a label has been defined too far } \\
\text { after the place where it was used. It can } \\
\text { occur for a forward GO or in an ELSE, }\end{array}
$$ <br>
FI or OD statement. However. this <br>
message can occur if an undefined <br>
symbol is part of a data expression. <br>

Then it can normally be ignored.\end{array}\right\}\)| Too far between the filling in of literals. |
| :--- |
| The compiler outputs a FILL command |
| at each RBUS statement. However, the |
| programmer can put *) FILL commands |
| in between. |

## APPENDIX A

OPERATORS AND RESERVED SYMBOLS
A. 1 Non-alphanumeric Elements

Arithmetic Operators

| $:=$ | Load |
| :--- | :--- |
| $=:$ | Store |
| $:=:$ | Swap |
| - | Subtract |
| + | Add |
| * | Multiply |
| $/$ | Divide |
| I | Byte separator (Data expressions only) |

Logical Operators

| $/ /$ | And |
| :--- | :--- |
| $/ /$ | Or |
| ,- | One's complement |

Relational Operators

| $>$ | Greater |
| :--- | :--- |
| $<$ | Less |
| $=$ | Equal |
| $>=$ | Greater or equal |
| $<=$ | Less or equal |
| $><$ | Not equal |
| $\gg=$ | Absolute greater |
| $\ll$ | Absolute less |

