COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND ARCHITECTURE

Themes and Variations

ARM Processor WORKBOOK

Alan Clements

INTRODUCTION

This workbook has been written to accompany *Computer Organization and Architecture: Themes and Variations* and is designed to give students a practical introduction to the ARM processor simulator from Kiel. I have provided examples of the use of the ARM family simulator plus notes and comments in order to allow students to work together in labs and tutorials, or for individual study at home.

Before we introduce the simulator, we look at several background topics that are needed before you can begin to write assembly-language level programs.

THE INSTRUCTION SET ARCHITECTURE

An *instruction set architecture*, or ISA, is an abstract model of a computer that describes *what* it does, rather than *how* it does it. You could say that a computer's instruction set architecture is its *functional definition*. Essentially, the ISA is concerned with a computer's internal storage (its registers), the operations that the computer can perform on data (the instruction set), and the addressing modes used to access data. The term *addressing mode* is just a fancy way of expressing where the data is; for example, you can say that the data is in location 100, or you can say that it's 200 location from here, or you can say, "here's the actual data itself".

The first part of *Computer Organization and Architecture: Themes and Variations* is concerned with the instruction set architecture, and the second part is concerned with *computer organization* which described an ISA is actually implemented. Today, the term *microarchitecture* has largely replaced the *computer organization*. In this workbook, we are interested in the ISA, rather than the microarchitecture.

REGISTERS

A *register* is a storage device that holds a single data word exactly like a memory location. Registers are physically located on the CPU chip and can be accessed far more rapidly than memory. You can think of a register as a place in which data is waiting to be processed. When computers operate on data, they frequently operate on data that is in a register. For example, to perform the multiplication A = B × C, you first read the values of *B* and *C* from memory into two registers. Then, you multiply the two numbers in the registers and put the result in a register. Finally, the result is transferred from a register to location *A* in memory.

In principle, there's no fundamental difference between a location in memory and a register. There are just a few registers in a computer, but millions of storage locations in memory. Consequently, you need far fewer bits to specify a register than a memory location. For example, if a computer has eight data registers, an instruction requires only three bits to select one of the eight registers to be used by an operation; that is from 000 to 111. If you specify a memory location, you need 32 bits to select one out of 2^{32} possible locations (assuming a 32-bit address space).

The size of a register (its width in bits) is normally the same size as memory locations and the size of the arithmetic and logical operations in the CPU. If you have a computer with 32-bit words, they are held in 32-bit memory locations and 32-bit registers and are processed by 32-bit adders, and so on.

There is no fundamental difference between a register and a memory location. If you could store gigabytes of high-speed memory on a CPU chip and you could use very long instruction words (i.e., with the long addresses needed to specify one individual location) then there would be no point in using registers. If you had a computer with 4 Gbytes of memory (2^{32} bytes) and wished to have an instruction that could implement C = A + B (i.e., `ADD C,A,B`) the you would require typically 16 + 32 + 32 + 32 = 112 bits (the 16 bits represent the number of bits to encode the actual operation and the three 32-bits are needed for the addresses A, B, and C). No mainstream modern computer has such a long instruction word.

PROBLEM SET 1

1. In your own words, explain what a register is in a computer.
2. How many registers does the 68K have?
3. How many registers does the ARM have?
4. What's the processor with the largest number of registers that you can find?
5. If a computer has 128 user-accessible general-purpose registers, how many bits are be required to access a register? That is, how many bits does it take to specify 1 out of 128?
6. Suppose a computer has eight registers and a 24-bit instruction length. A data processing instruction is of the `ADD r1,r2,r3` which implements r1 = r2 + r3. How many bits in an instruction can be allocated to specifying an operation if there are four general-purpose registers?

IMPORTANT POINT

Never confuse the following two concepts: **value** and **address** (or location). A *memory location* holds a *value* which is the information stored in that location. The address of an item is *where* it is in memory and its value is *what* it is.

For example, suppose memory location 1234 contains the value 55. If we add 1 to 55 we get 55 + 1 which is 56. That is, we've changed the value of a variable. Now, if we add 1 to the address 1234, we get 1235. That's a different location in memory which holds a different variable.

The reason for making this point is that it is all too easy to confuse these two concepts because of the way we learn algebra at high school. We use equations like $x = 4$. When we write programs that use variables, the variables usually refer to the locations of data not to the values. So, when we say $x = 4$, we actually mean that the memory location called x contains the value 4.

PROBLEM SET 2

The following problems are intended to help you understand the history of the computer. These problems are intended as discussion points and don't have simple right or wrong answers. In order to do these questions you will need to read the Web-based history material that accompanies this text. You will also need to use the web as a research tool.

1. When did the idea of a computer first occur to people?
2. What is a computer?
3. One of the names most associated with the history of computing is *John von Neumann*. Who was von Neumann? Did he invent the computer?
4. When was the first microprocessor created – and by whom?
5. What was the form of the first memory used by computers (or computing devices)?
6. Who said (and when) "*There is a world market for maybe five computers*".
7. What was the first hobby computer (personal computer) and when was it built?
8. Who was Konrad Zuse?

This warning symbol will appear whenever a particularly important or tricky concept is introduced.

ADDRESSING MODES

An addressing mode is simply a means of *expressing the location of an operand*. An address can be a register such as r3, or D7, or PC (program counter). An address can be a location in memory such as address 0x12345678. You can even express an address *indirectly* by saying, for example, "the address is the location whose address is in register r1". All the various ways of expressing the location of data are called collectively *addressing modes*.

Suppose someone said, "Here's ten dollars". They are giving you the actual item. This is called a **literal** or **immediate** value because it's what you actually get. Unlike all other addressing modes, you don't have to retrieve immediate data from a register or memory location.

If someone says, "Go to room 30 and you'll find the money on the table", they are telling you *where* the money is (i.e., its address is room 30). This is called an **absolute address** because expresses absolutely exactly where the money is. This addressing modes is also called d**irect addressing**.

Now here's where the fun starts. Suppose someone says, "Go to room 40 and you'll find something to your advantage on the table". You arrive at room 40 and see a message on the table saying, "The money is in room 60". In this case we have an **indirect address** because room 40 doesn't give us with the money, but a pointer to where it is. We have to go to a second room to get the money. Indirect addressing is also called **pointer-based** addressing, because you can think of the note in room 40 as pointing to the actual data.

In real life we can't confuse a room or address in with a sum of money. However, in a computer all data is stored in binary form and the programmer has to remember whether a variable (or constant) is an address or a data value.

By the way, because there is no means of telling which operand is a *source* and which is a *destination* in a computer instruction such as `MOVE A,B` and different computers use different conventions, I have decided to write the destination operand in bold font to make it easier to understand the code. For example, `MOVE` **`A,`**`B` means that *B* is moved to *A*, because *A* is bold and therefore the destination of the result.

Let's look at three computer instructions in 68K assembly language. The operation `MOVE D0,`**`D1`** means copy the contents of register D0 into D1. The operation `MOVE (A0),`**`D1`** means copy the contents of the memory location *pointed at by register A0* into register D1. This is an example of indirect addressing because the instruction specifies register A0 as the source operand and then this value has to be read in order to access the desired operand in memory.

Here we've used 68K instructions (the 68K instruction set is given as an appendix on page 8). In ARM assembly language, which is the subject of this Workbook, indirect addressing is indicated by square brackets. For example, `LDR` **`r0,`**`[r1]` indicates that the contents of the memory location pointed at by register r1 is to be read and copied into register r0. Note that the ARM and 68K assembly languages specify the order of operands differently. In the assembly language we use in this course:

Immediate (literal) addressing is indicated by a '#' symbol in front of the operand (this convention is used by both the ARM and 68K). Thus, #5 in an instruction means the actual value 5. A typical ARM instruction is `MOV` **`r0,`**`#5` which means move the value 5 into register r0.

Absolute (direct) addressing is not implemented by the ARM processor. It is provided by the 68K and Intel IA32 processors; for example, the 68K instruction `MOVE 1234,`**`D0`** means load register D0 with the contents of memory location 1234. The ARM supports only register indirect addressing.

Indirect addressing is indicated by ARM processors by placing the pointer in square parentheses; for example, [r1]. All ARM indirect addresses are of the basic form `LDR` **`r0,`**`[r1]` or `STR r3,`**`[r6]`**. There are variations on this addressing mode; for example, `LDR` **`r0,`**`[r1,#4]` specifies an address that is four bytes on from the location pointed at by the contents of register r1.

ADDRESSING MODES EXAMPLE

Let's clarify addressing modes with a simple example. The memory map below gives the contents of each of the locations of a simple 16-word memory. Each of these locations contains a 4-bit binary value. We are going to look at some examples of the effect of computer operations. We adopt ARM-style assembly instructions and assume 4-bit addresses and 4-bit data.

0000	0010
0001	0011
0010	0010
0011	1010
0100	0000
0101	0010
0101	0001
0111	0011
1000	1010
1001	1111
1010	1010
1011	0011
1100	0001
1101	1000
1110	0000
1111	1010

Assume that r1 initially contains 0001 and r2 contains 1000

a.	`MOV r0,#1100`	Literal address	Register r0 is loaded with 1100
b.	`LDR r0,[r1]`	Register indirect address	Register r0 is loaded with 0011
c.	`LDR r0,[r2]`	Register indirect address	Register r0 is loaded with 1010
d.	`LDR r0,[r1,r2]`	Register indirect address (sum of r1 and r2)	Register r0 is loaded with 1111
e.	`LDR r0,[r2,#4]`	Register indirect address (r2 + 4)	Register r0 is loaded with 0001
f.	`LDR r0,[r2,#-4]`	Register indirect address (r2 – 4)	Register r0 is loaded with 0000

As you can see, the processor uses the address in r1 or r2 to access the appropriate memory location. ARM processors (like other processors) are able to perform limited pointer arithmetic. For example, in (d) the effective address is given as [r1,r2], which is the location pointed at by the sum of these two registers. The sum of r1 and r2 is 0001 + 1000 = 1001, so the contents of location 1001 (i.e., 1111) are loaded into r0.

Example (e) calculates an effective address by adding 4 to the contents of r2 to get 1000 + 0100 = 1100. The contents of memory location 1100 is 0001 and that value is loaded into r0. Note that example (f) is almost the same except that the constant is negative. In this case the contents of location 1000 – 0100 = 0100 (i.e., 0000) are loaded into r0. A negative offset like this accesses a location at a lower address.

EXAMPLE

A special-purpose computer has an instruction with a word-length of 24 bits. It is intended to perform operation of the type `ADD r3, #24` where `ADD` is an operation, #24 is a literal (an actual number), and r3 is a destination register.

If there are 200 different instructions and 32 registers, what is the range of unsigned integer literals that can be supported by this computer?

SOLUTION

We know that the number of bits used to represent the instruction, plus the number of bits used to select a register, plus the number of bits used to specify a literal must be 24. There are 200 instructions. The next power of 2 greater than this is 256. Since $2^8 = 256$, we need 8 bits for the instruction. There are 32 registers and it requires 5 bits (as $2^5 = 32$) to address a register. Having allocated 8 bits to the instruction field and 5 bits to the register field, we have 24 – 8 – 5 = 11 bits left over to specify a literal (constant). Consequently, the range of literals that can be handled is 0 to 2047 (as $2^{11} = 2048$).

REGISTER TRANSFER LANGUAGE

Before we introduce computer instructions, we are going to define a notation that makes it possible to define instructions clearly and unambiguously (English language is not a good tool for defining instructions).

Register-transfer language (RTL) is an algebraic notation that describes how information is accessed from memories and registers and how it is operated on. You should appreciate that RTL is just a *notation* and not a programming language. RTL uses square brackets to indicate the *contents* of a memory location; for example, the expression

```
[6] = 3
```

is interpreted as *the contents of memory location 6 contains the value 9*. If we were using symbolic names, we might write `[Time] = HoursWorked`.

If you want to refer to a register, you simply use its *name* (the names of registers vary from computer to computer – the 68K has eight data registers called D0, D1, D2, …, D7, whereas the ARM has 16 registers called r0 to r15). So, to say that register D6 contains the number 123 we write

```
[D6] = 123
```

A left or *backward* arrow ← indicates the transfer of data. The left-hand side of an expression denotes the *destination* of the data defined by the *source* of the data defined on the right-hand side of the expression. For example, the expression

```
[MAR] ← [PC]
```

indicates that the contents of the *program counter*, PC, are copied into the *memory address register*, MAR. The program counter is the register that holds the location of the next instruction to be executed. The MAR is a register that holds the address of the next item to be read from memory or written to memory. Note that the contents of the PC are not modified by this operation.

The operation `[3] ← [5]` means copy the contents of memory location 5 to location 3.

The operation [3] ← [5] tells us what's happening at the *micro* level or register-transfer level. In a high-level language this operation might be written in the rather more familiar form

```
x = y;
```

Consider the RTL expression

```
[PC] ← [PC] + 4
```

which indicates that the number in the PC is increased by 4; that is, the contents of the program counter are read, 4 is added, and the result is copied into the PC.

Suppose the computer executes an operation that stores the contents of the program counter in location 2000 in the memory. We can represent this action in RTL as

```
[2000] ← [PC].
```

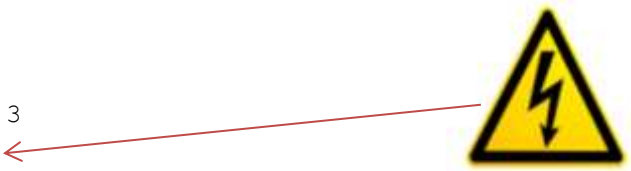
Occasionally, we wish to refer to the individual bits of a register or memory location. We will do this by means of the subscript notation (p:q) to mean bits *p* to *q* inclusive; for example if we wish to indicate that bits 0 to 7 of a 32-bit register are set to zero, we write

$[R6_{(0:7)}] \leftarrow 0.$

Numbers are assumed to be decimal, unless indicated otherwise. Computer languages adopt conventions such as 0x12AC or $12AC to indicate hexadecimal values. In RTL we will use a subscript; that is $12AC_{16}$.

As a final example of RTL notation, consider the following RTL expressions.

a. [20] = 6
b. [20] ← 6
c. [20] ← [6]
d. [20] ← [6] + 3
e. [20] ← [[2]]



The symbol "←"is equivalent to the assignment symbol in high-level languages. Remember that RTL is not a computer language; it is a *notation* used to define computer operations.

Example (a) states that memory location 20 contains the value 6. Example (b) states that the number 6 is *copied* or *loaded* into memory location 20. Example (c) indicates that the contents of memory location 6 are copied into memory location 20. Example (d) reads the contents of location 6, adds 3 to it, and stores the result in location 20. Example (e) is most interesting. Here, the contents of memory location 2 is read, and that value used to access memory a second time. The new value is loaded into the contents of memory location 20. This is an example of memory indirect addressing.

Consider the following examples that illustrate the assembly language of four processors and define each instruction in RTL.

Processor family	Instruction mnemonic	RTL definition
1. 68K	`MOVE D0,(A5)`	`[[A5]] ← [D0]`
2. ARM	`ADD r1,r2,r3`	`[r1] ← [r2] + [r3]`
3. IA32	`MOV ah,6`	`[ah] ← 6`
4. PowerPC	`li r25,10`	`[r25] ← 10`

RTL AND ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

Don't confuse RTL and assembly language. An assembly language is a human-readable form of a computer's binary code. It is designed to be used by programmers and may not always be logical or consistent. Some of you may notice inconsistencies in the assembly language that we learn in this course.

RTL is a formal notation that can be manipulated like any algebraic expression. It offers a means of precisely defining operations without using ambiguous English. Consider the RTL example:

Suppose that [4] = 3, [10] = 4, and [[10]] = y.

We can say that y = 3, because we can substitute y = [[10]] = [4] = 3

Similarly, [[4] + [10] + 6] = [3 + 4 + 6] = [13]

QUICK OVERVIEW OF THE ARM

Before looking at the ARM processor in detail, we provide a very brief overview. The ARM processor is classified as a 32-bit RISC (reduced instruction set processor) with a three-operand register-to-register instruction set. This is just a fancy way of saying that computer operations involve three operands in registers such as `ADD r1,r2,r3`. There are a few instructions that have two operands and some that have four, but that doesn't change the overall classification.

In order to get data into and out of registers (transfers between memory and registers), there are two special instructions called load and store. Load transfers data from memory to a register and store transfers data from a register to memory. These instructions have the forms `LDR r0,[r1]` and `STR r0,[r1]`. As we have seen, these instructions use register indirect (i.e., pointer-based) addressing. The location of the memory element to be accessed is held in a register and the addressing mode indicated by [r1].

The ARM uses a special instruction called `ADR` (load register with an address) that sets up a pointer in the first place). For example

```
ADR r0,List     ;register r0 points at the list
```

Later, we will explain why this is a special instruction.

An ARM instruction like `SUB r3,r2,#4` subtracts the actual value 4 (remember that the literal is indicated by the # symbol) from the contents of register r2 and puts the result in r3. Data operations implemented by ARM processors write the destination (result) operand first on the left. We write the destination operand in bold font to remind you where the result goes.

Let's create a very simple example.

```
MOV r0,#2               ;Put 2 in register r0
MOV r1,#3               ;Put 3 in register r1
ADD r2,r0,r1            ;Add r0 to r1 and put the result in r2
MOV r4,#10              ;Put 10 in r4 (this is where we are going to store the result)
STR r2,[r4]             ;Store r2 in memory location 10
```

Note how simple all this is. You perform one primitive operation at a time.

QUICK OVERVIEW OF THE 68K

Although this text uses the ARM processor family to illustrate an instruction set architecture, we do occasionally refer to the Motorola 68K family. In brief, the Motorola 68K is a 32-bit processor first sold in 1980. The 68K family later became the ColdFire family and is now supported by Freescale because Motorola dropped out of the microprocessor market. The 68K is contemporary with Intel's IA32. Both the 68K and IA32 have classic register-to-memory architecture.

The 68K has a moderately regular instruction set in comparison with the IA32 architecture. Here, the term *regular* implies that if instruction *X* has addressing mode *Y*, then instruction *P* will also have addressing mode *Y*. The 68K's main features are:

- A 32-bit architecture with 32-bit registers.
- Separate data registers (D0 to D7) and address registers (A0 to A7). Address registers may only be used as pointer registers in generating effective addresses. A register indirect is indicated by `(A0)`.
- All registers are 32 bits wide. However, many operations can act on the lower-order 8 bits of a data register, on the lower-order 16 bits, or on the entire 32 bits. The data size is indicated by appending .B, .W, or .L to specify an 8-bit, 16-bit, or 32-bit operation. For example `MOVE.B D0,(A0)`.
- Data registers can take part in all data operations. Address registers can take part only in move, add, subtract, and compare operations (that is, `MOVA`, `ADDA`, `SUBA`, `CMPA`).
- Operations on data registers update the CCR register, whereas operations on address registers (apart from compare) do not affect the CCR.
- All operations on an address register yield a 32-bit result. You can perform 16-bits additions, subtractions, and loads on an address register, but the result is always sign-extended to 32 bits.
- 68K instructions are variable length. The shortest instruction is 16-bits. If a single operand is required, the length may be 16+16 or 16+32 bits. The longest instruction is 10 bytes for a move memory location to memory location such as `MOVE Data1,Data2`.
- The addressing modes are: literal (8-, 16-, or 32-bit constant), absolute (actual address of the operand in memory), address register based {(A0), (#offset,A0), (D0,A0)}, predecrementing -(A0), postincrementing (A0)+}
- Address register A7 is the system stack pointer and is used to store the return address after a subroutine call. The instruction `RTS` implements a subroutine return by popping the return address off the top of the stack and loading it in the PC.
- Program counter relative addressing is supported. For example, `MOVE (PC,#offset),D0`.
- The creation and deletion of stack fames is supported by `LINK` (create a frame) and `UNLK` (delete a frame).

A typical fragment of 68K code is:

```
        CLR    D0          ;clear the total in D0
        MOVEA  #X,A0       ;A0 points at X
        MOVEA  #Y,A1       ;A1 points at Y
        MOVE   #32,D1      ;32 times round the loop
Loop    MOVE   (A0)+,D2    ;get Xi and increment pointer
        MOVE   (A1)+,D3    ;get Yi and increment pointer
        MULU   D2,D3       ;multiply Xi and Yi
        ADD    D3,D0       ;update running total
        SUB    #1,D2       ;decrement loop counter
        BNE    Loop        ;Repeat until all done
```

As you can see, this is not too far from ARM code. The significant difference is the two-operand instruction format.

68K INSTRUCTION SET

Here's a summary of the 68K operations. We give the mnemonic, name of the operation, addressing modes, and operand sizes supported (Bytes, Word, Longword).

ABCD	Add BCD with extend	Dx, Dy,	-(Ax), -(Ay)	B
ADD	ADD	Dn,<ea>,	<ea>,Dn	BWL
ADDA	ADD binary to An	<ea>,An		WL
ADDI	ADD Immediate	#x,<ea>,	#<1-8>,<ea>	BWL
ADDQ	ADD 3-bit immediate			BWL
ADDX	ADD eXtended	Dy,Dx,	-(Ay),-(Ax)	BWL
AND	Bit-wise AND	<ea>,Dn,	Dn,<ea>	BWL
ANDI	Bit-wise AND with Immediate	#<data>,<ea>		BWL
ASL	Arithmetic Shift Left	#<1-8>,Dy,	Dx,Dy, <ea>	BWL
ASR	Arithmetic Shift Right			BWL
Bcc	Conditional Branch	Bcc <label>		BW
BCHG	Test a Bit and CHanGe	Dn,<ea>	#<data>,<ea>	BL
BCLR	Test a Bit and CLeaR			BL
BSET	Test a Bit and SET			BL
BSR	Branch to SubRoutine	BSR <label>		BW
BTST	Bit TeST	Dn,<ea>	#<data>,<ea>	BL
CHK	CHecK Dn Against Bounds	<ea>,Dn		W
CLR	CLeaR	<ea>		BWL
CMP	CoMPare	<ea>,Dn		BWL
CMPA	CoMPare Address	<ea>,An		WL
CMPI	CoMPare Immediate	#<data>,<ea>		BWL
CMPM	CoMPare Memory	(Ay)+,(Ax)+		BWL
DBcc	Looping Instruction	DBcc Dn,<label>		W
DIVS	DIVide Signed	<ea>,Dn		W
DIVU	DIVide Unsigned	<ea>,Dn		W
EOR	Exclusive OR	Dn,<ea>		BWL
EORI	Exclusive OR Immediate	#<data>,<ea>		BWL
EXG	Exchange any two registers	Rx,Ry		L
EXT	Sign EXTend	Dn		WL
ILLEGAL	ILLEGAL-Instruction Exception			
JMP	JuMP to Affective Address	<ea>		
JSR	Jump to SubRoutine	<ea>		
LEA	Load Effective Address	<ea>,An		L
LINK	Allocate Stack Frame	An,#<displacement>		
LSL	Logical Shift Left	Dx,Dy #<1-8>	,Dy <ea>	BWL
LSR	Logical Shift Right			BWL
MOVE	Between Effective Addresses	<ea>,<ea>		BWL
MOVE	To CCR	<ea>,CCR		W
MOVE	To SR	<ea>,SR		W
MOVE	From SR	SR,<ea>		W
MOVE	USP to/from Address Register	USP,An, An,USP <ea>,An		L
MOVEA	MOVE Address			WL
MOVEM	MOVE Multiple	<register list>,<ea>	<ea>,<register list	WL
MOVEP	MOVE Peripheral	Dn,x(An) ,	x(An),Dn	WL
MOVEQ	MOVE 8-bit immediate	#<-128.+127>,Dn		L
MULS	MULtiply Signed	<ea>,Dn		W
MULU	MULtiply Unsigned	<ea>,Dn		W
NBCD	Negate BCD	<ea>		B
NEG	NEGate	<ea>		BWL
NEGX	NEGate with eXtend	<ea>		BWL
NOP	No OPeration			
NOT	Form one's complement	<ea>		BWL
OR	Bit-wise OR	<ea>,Dn	Dn,<ea>	BWL
ORI	Bit-wise OR with Immediate	#<data>,<ea>		BWL
PEA	Push Effective Address	<ea>		L
RESET	RESET all external devices			
ROL	ROtate Left	#<1-8>,Dy	Dx,Dy, <ea>	BWL
ROR	ROtate Right			BWL
ROXL	ROtate Left with eXtend			BWL
ROXR	ROtate Right with eXtend			BWL
RTE	ReTurn from Exception			
RTR	ReTurn and Restore			
RTS	ReTurn from Subroutine			
SBCD	Subtract BCD with eXtend	Dx,Dy	-(Ax),-(Ay)	B
Scc	Set to -1 if True, 0 if False	<ea>		B
STOP	Enable & wait for interrupts	#<data>		
SUB	SUBtract binary	Dn,<ea>	<ea>,Dn	BWL
SUBA	SUBtract binary from An	<ea>,An		WL
SUBI	SUBtract Immediate	#x,<ea>		BWL
SUBQ	SUBtract 3-bit immediate	#<data>,<ea>		BWL
SUBX	SUBtract eXtended	Dy,Dx,	-(Ay),-(Ax)	BWL
SWAP	SWAP words of Dn	Dn		W
TAS	Test & Set MSB & Set N/Z-bits	<ea>		B
TRAP	Execute TRAP Exception	#<vector>		
TRAPV	TRAPV Exception if V-bit Set	TRAPV		
TST	TeST for negative or zero	<ea>		BWL
UNLK	Deallocate Stack Frame	An		

THE ARM FAMILY

We use the ARM family in this course to illustrate computer architecture for several reasons. First, it illustrates all the important elements of an instruction set architecture. Second, it is easy to understand and has a very gentle learning curve in comparison with some other processors; for example an add operation is specified by `ADD r1,r2,r3` which adds register r2 to register r3 and puts the result in r1. What could be simpler? Third, the ARM has some very interesting attributes such as *predicated execution* that make it an excellent vehicle for teaching computer architecture.

THE ARM REGISTER SET

The ARM has 16 *general-purpose* 32-bit data registers, r0 to r15, that can be used by the programmer to store temporary variables. However, registers r14 and r15 that special purposes. Register r14 holds a subroutine return address after a subroutine call. Consequently, you should use r14 only to deal with return addresses.

Register r15 holds the program counter, the next instruction to be executed. You cannot use r15 for any other purpose. The ARM is highly unusual in this respect because all other microprocessor families have a dedicated program counter that is not normally directly accessible by the programmer. The ARM programmer must not use r15 as a general-purpose data register as that would crash the computer.

THE INSTRUCTION

Computer instructions are executed sequentially, one by one in turn, unless a special instruction deliberately changes the *flow of control* or unless an event called an *exception* (interrupt) takes place.

The structure of instructions varies from machine to machine. The format of an instruction running on an Intel processor is different to the format of an instruction running on a 68K or an ARM (even though the instructions might do the same thing). Instructions are classified by what they do and by the number of operands they take. The three basic instruction types are: *data movement* that copies data from one location to another, *data processing* that operates on data, and *flow control* that modifies the order in which instructions are executed. Instruction formats can take zero, one, two, three, or even four operands. Consider the following examples of instructions with zero to three operands. In these examples operands P, Q, and R may be memory locations or registers.

Operands	Instruction	Effect
Three	`ADD P,Q,R`	Add R to Q and put the result in P
Two	`ADD P,Q`	Add P to Q and put the result in P
One	`ADD P`	Add P to an accumulator
Zero	`ADD`	Add the top two items on the stack and push the result

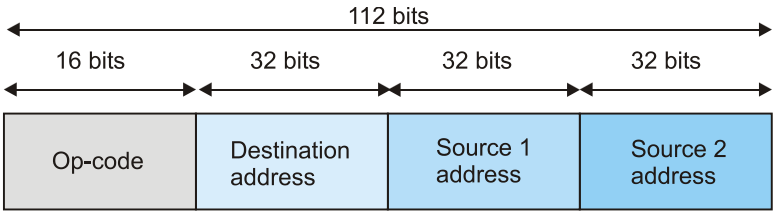
A *three-address* computer instruction can be written

```
operation destination,source1,source2
```

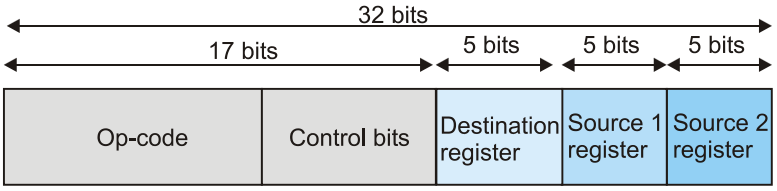
where `operation` defines the nature of the instruction, `source1` is the location of the first operand, `source2` is the location of the second operand, and **`destination`** is the location of the result. The instruction `ADD r3,r1,r7` adds r1 and r7 to get *r3*.

This is a little pedantic, but… When we say that r1 is added to r7, we really mean that the *contents* of r1 is added to the contents of r7. However, it gets boring being so precise so we often just use a register's name when we really mean the contents of that register.

Microprocessors don't implement three-address instructions that access memory; you can access only registers. It's not the fault of the instruction designer. It's a limitation imposed by the practicalities of computer technology. Suppose that a computer has a 32-bit address that allows a total of 2^{32} bytes of memory to be accessed. The three address fields, *P*, *Q*, and *R* needed to implement `ADD P,Q,R` would each be 32 bits, requiring 3 × 32 = 96 bits to specify the operands. Assuming a 16-bit operation code (allowing up to 2^{16} = 65,536 instructions), the total instruction size would be 96 + 16 = 112 bits or 14 bytes. This instruction format is shown below.



(a) Format of a hypothetical instruction with three address fields



(b) Format of a hypothetical instruction with a register-to-register architecture

Part (b) of the above figure illustrates a typical RISC instruction format. This uses a register-to-register architecture that allows three registers to be specified. Each has a 5-bit address field which allows 32 registers.

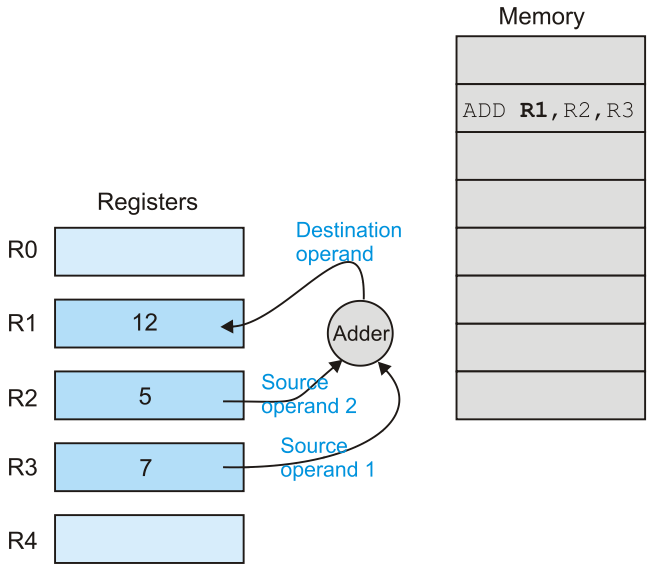
POSSIBLE THREE-ADDRESS INSTRUCTION FORMATS

Computer technology developed when memory was very expensive indeed. Implementing a 14-byte instruction was not cost-effective in the 1970s. Even if memory had been cheap, it would have been too expensive to implement 112-bit-wide data buses to move instructions from point to point in the computer. Finally, main memory is intrinsically slower than on-chip register.

The modern RISC processor allows you to specify three addresses in an instruction by providing three 5-bit operand address fields. This restriction lets you select from one of only 32 different operands that are located in registers within the CPU itself. By using on-chip registers to hold operands, the time taken to access data is minimized because no other storage mechanism can be accessed as rapidly as a register. An instruction with three 32-bit operands requires 3 × 5 bits to specify the operands which allows a 32-bit instruction to use the remaining 32 – 15 = 17 bits to specify the instruction.

We'll use the `ADD` instruction to add together four values in registers r2, r3, r4, and r5. In the following fragment of code, the semicolon indicates the start of a comment field that is not part of the executable code. This code is typical of RISC processors like the ARM.

```
ADD    r1,r2,r3        ;r1 = r2 + r3
ADD    r1,r1,r4        ;r1 = r1 + r4
ADD    r1,r1,r5        ;r1 = r1 + r5 = r2 + r3 + r4 + r5
```



Implementing a three-address instruction

TWO-ADDRESS MACHINES

A CISC machine like, the 68K, has a two-address instruction format. Clearly, you can't execute P ← Q + R with just two operands. You can execute Q ← P + Q. One operand appears *twice*, first as a source and then as a destination. The operation `ADD P,Q` implements [Q] ← [P] + [Q]. The price of a two-operand instruction format is the destruction of one of the source operands.

Most computer instructions can't directly access two memory locations. Typically, the operands are either two registers or one register and a memory location; for example, the 68K `ADD` instruction can be written:

Instruction	RTL definition	Mode
`ADD D0,D1`	[D1] ← [D1] + [D0]	Register-to-register
`ADD P,D2`	[D2] ← [D2] + [P]	Memory-to-register (P is a directly address memory location)
`ADD D7,P`	[P] ← [P] + [D7]	Register-to-memory

The 68K has seven general-purpose registers D0 to D7; there are no restrictions on the way in which you use these registers; that is, if you can use Di you can also use Dj for any *i* or *j* from 0 to 7.

ONE-ADDRESS MACHINES

A one-address machine specifies only one operand in the instruction. The second operand is a register called an *accumulator* that always takes part in the operation. For example, the one-address instruction `ADD P` means `[A] ← [A] + [P]`. The notation [A] indicates the contents of the accumulator. A simple high-level operation R = P + Q can be implemented by the following fragment of 8-bit code (from a 6800 8-bit processor).

```
LDA  P    ;load accumulator with P
ADD  Q    ;add Q to accumulator
STA  R    ;store accumulator in R
```

Eight-bit machines have one-address architectures. Eight-bit code is verbose, because you have to load data into the accumulator, process it, and then store it in memory to avoid it being overwritten by the next data-processing instruction. One-address machines are still widely used in embedded controllers in low-cost systems.

DATA SIZE

I don't want to go into the details of data size here because it's a large topic. However, I do need to introduce a basic concept. If a computer can move data from *A* to *B*, or can perform an operation on data, we need to know the number of bits in a word being moved or processed.

The very first microprocessor, the Intel 4004, used a 4-bit word because the technology at that time could not economically fabricate chips capable of handling longer wordlengths. The 4004 was able to handle 4-bit values.

Very shortly after the introduction of the 4040, 8-bit microprocessors appeared. An 8-bit word is called a byte and operations in 8-bit computers are applied to bytes. You can't perform a 6-bit operation and you can't perform a 10-bit operation. Although an 8-bit word can handle text efficiently, it is unsuited to the representation of addresses or to any quantity that can have more than 256 possible values. Eight-bit processors can concatenate two 8-bit words to create a 16-bit address.

Over the years, microprocessors grew in complexity to support 16-bit, 32-bit and 64-bit words. The larger the word size, the more work you can do in an instruction. In this course we use ARM processors that have 32-bit data words and 32-bit addresses.

However, just as 4-bit and 8-bit words are too short to represent many types of data, 32-bit and 64-bit words are often too big. For example, if you use ASCII-encoded text, each character requires 8 bits. If you put an ASCII character in a 32-bit register, 24 bits are unused. This represents an inefficient use of storage. So, programmers often employ tricks to pack more than one character in a word.

SUB-WORD OPERATIONS

If you wish to access individual bytes in a 16- or 32-bit processor, you need special instructions. The 68K family deals with 8-bit, 16-bit, and 32-bit data by permitting most data-processing instructions to act on an 8-, 16-, or 32-bit slice of a register; for example `ADD.B D0,D1`, `ADD.W D0,D1` and `ADD.L D0,D1` each adds the contents of data register D0 to D1 and puts the result in D1. The suffix **`.B`** specifies an 8-bit byte operation, **`.W`** specifies a 16-bit word operation, and **`.L`** specifies a 32-bit longword operation. In each case the bits taking part in the operation are the low-order bits, and bits not taking part in the operation do not change. For example, the RTL definition of `ADD.W D1,D3` is

$[D3_{(0:15)}] \leftarrow [D3_{(0:15)}] + [D1_{(0:15)}]$

RISC processors do not (generally) support 8- or 16-bit data-processing operations on 32-bit registers, but they do support 8-bit and 16-bit memory accesses. Consider the following ARM examples.

```
LDR   r0,[r1]   ;load r0 with the 32-bit contents of memory pointed at by register r1
LDRB  r0,[r1]   ;load r0 with the 8-bit contents of memory pointed at by register r1
LDRH  r0,[r1]   ;load r0 with the 16-bit contents of memory pointed at by register r1
```

There is also a similar set of store mnemonics with the forms `STR`, `STRB`, and `STRH`.

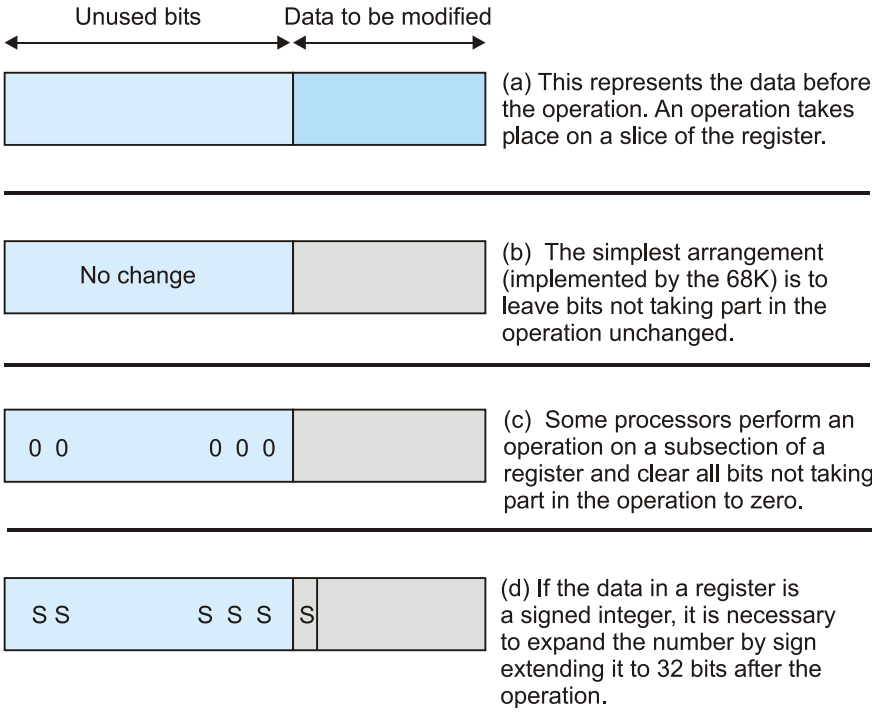
In 68K terminology 8/16/32 bit values are called byte/word/longword, whereas ARM processor literature uses byte/half word/word.

Suppose a processor supports operations that act on a subsection of a register. What happens to the bits that do not take part in the operation? Assume that a register is partitioned as figure (a) demonstrates.

Figure (b) shows how some processors deal with the problem by ignoring higher-order bits. If you add the two-low-order bytes in a 32-bit word, bits 0 to 7 are added together and bits 8 to 31 remain unchanged; for example, 0x12345678 + 0x11111111 = 0x12345**89**. This is true of the 68K processor.

Figure (c) demonstrates an alternative arrangement. Here, the bits not taking part in an operation are automatically cleared. In this case, 0x12345678 + 0x11111111 = 0x00000**89**.

In (d) the bits not taking part in an operation are sign-extended. This means that if you add two bytes in a 32-bit word, the result is sign extended to 32 bits. The 68K treats the contents of address registers in this way. If you perform a 16-bit operation on an address register, the result is sigh-extended to 32 bits.



PROBLEM SET 3

These questions ask you about the role of registers in computer architecture, the role of addressing modes, and the design of computer instruction sets.

1. In the context of microprocessors, what is a ***user-visible*** register?
2. Modern microprocessors have more registers than previous generations of microprocessors. Why?
3. Registers are used in different ways by different microprocessor families (e.g., Intel IA32, Motorola 68K, ARM etc.). Describe some of the differences in the way in which registers are used and comment on the relative merits.
4. A special-purpose computer's instruction set is 24 bytes wide. This is a three-operand load and store (register-to-register) machine. If this computer provides 64 general-purpose registers, how many different instructions can be implemented?
5. A 32-bit computer with a 32-bit instruction word uses 122 different instructions. If this computer has a three-address register-to-register instruction set, how many registers can be supported?
6. A computer devotes only 4 bits in its instruction word to the selection of one of 16 registers. Can you suggest of ways of providing more than 16 registers while keeping the number of bits in an instruction that selects a register at 4?

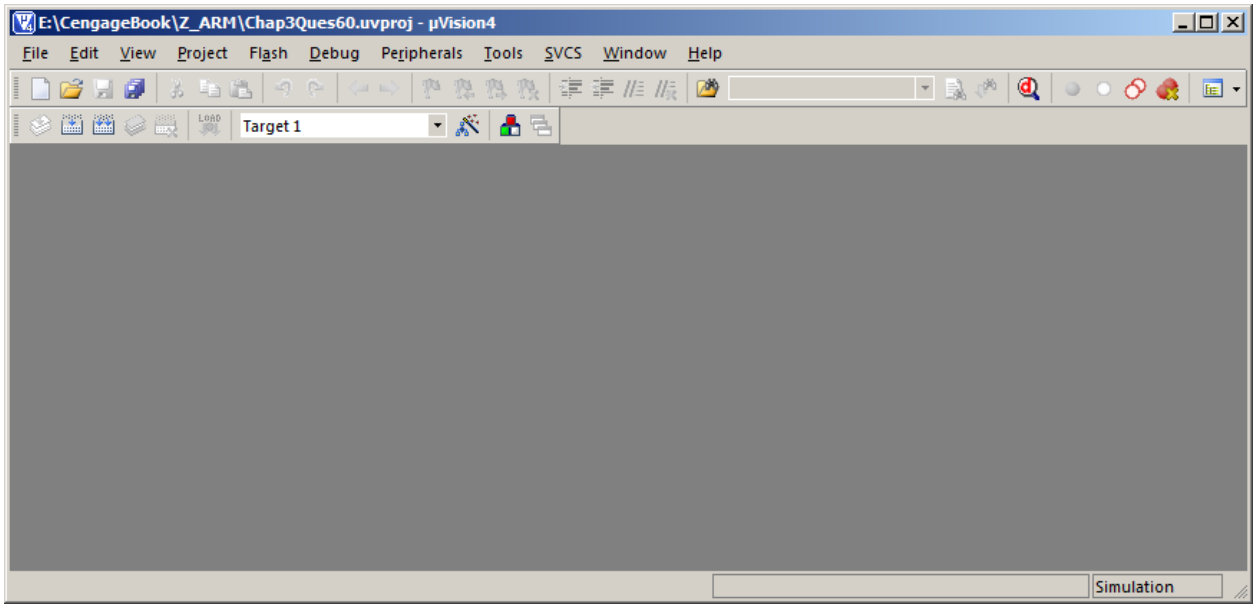
7. What are the various groups of instruction types implemented by typical microprocessors (i.e., how are instructions classified)? Give examples of different types of instructions.
8. What are the relative merits of one-address, two-address, and three-address instructions?
9. Under what circumstances is it possible to have a zero-address computer?
10. Are there occasions where 4-address or even 5-address instructions could prove useful?

USING THE KEIL SIMULATOR

The processor in the PC is not a member of the ARM family. It's usually a member of Intel's IA32 family or an AMD processor. However, you can run ARM code processor on your PC using a program from Keil™. This can be found at www.keil.com. The Keil package, called µVision4, is very sophisticated and is intended for engineers designing embedded ARM-based systems. Consequently,it includes far more facilities than we need. The demonstration version that you can download for a PC is limited to assembly-level programs smaller than 32K bytes. This restriction is not be a problem for students.

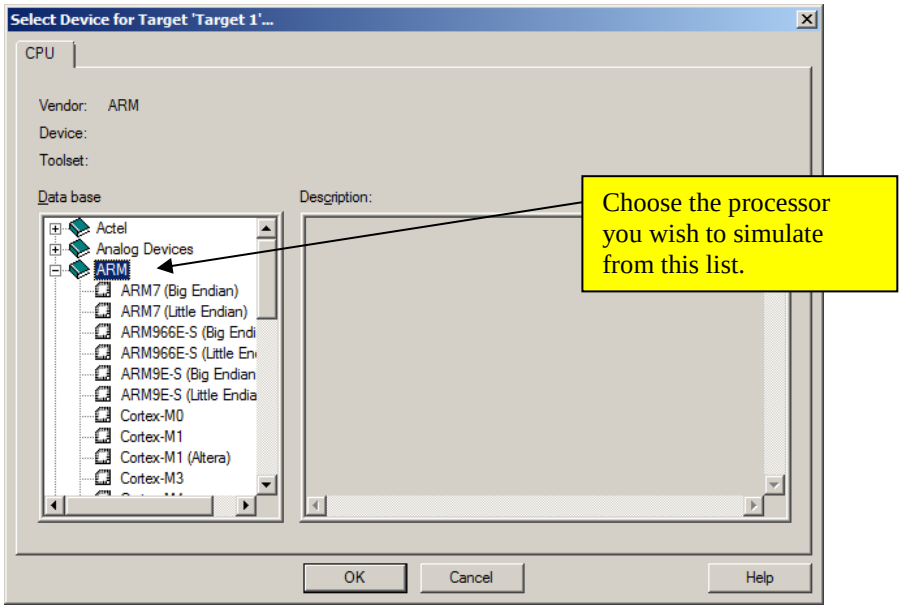
Essentially, µVision4 is an IDE (integrated development system) that is *project-based*; that is, each new program must be part of a project. You begin by creating a project (i.e., a container for all your files) and then select the target processor you are going to use. You create source files (in our case, these will be assembly language files) and then you build your application (i.e., create code for your chosen processor). µVision4 allows you to construct projects with multiple source files and files in C or C++, although we will not be using these facilities. Having built your file, you can execute it and follow the progress of its execution.

Let's step through the process of creating a program. Note that this package will continue to be upgraded during its life and there may be differences between these examples and the system you are using. However, the sequence of operations should remain substantially the same. On loading µVision4 you are presented with the following screen.



To start, select **Project** from the upper row of tabs and then **New µVision Project** from the pull-down window. This brings up the **Create New Project** Window and you create a project name in the selected directory. I will use *FirstExample*. The development system automatically appends a file type to create **FirstExample.uvproj**.

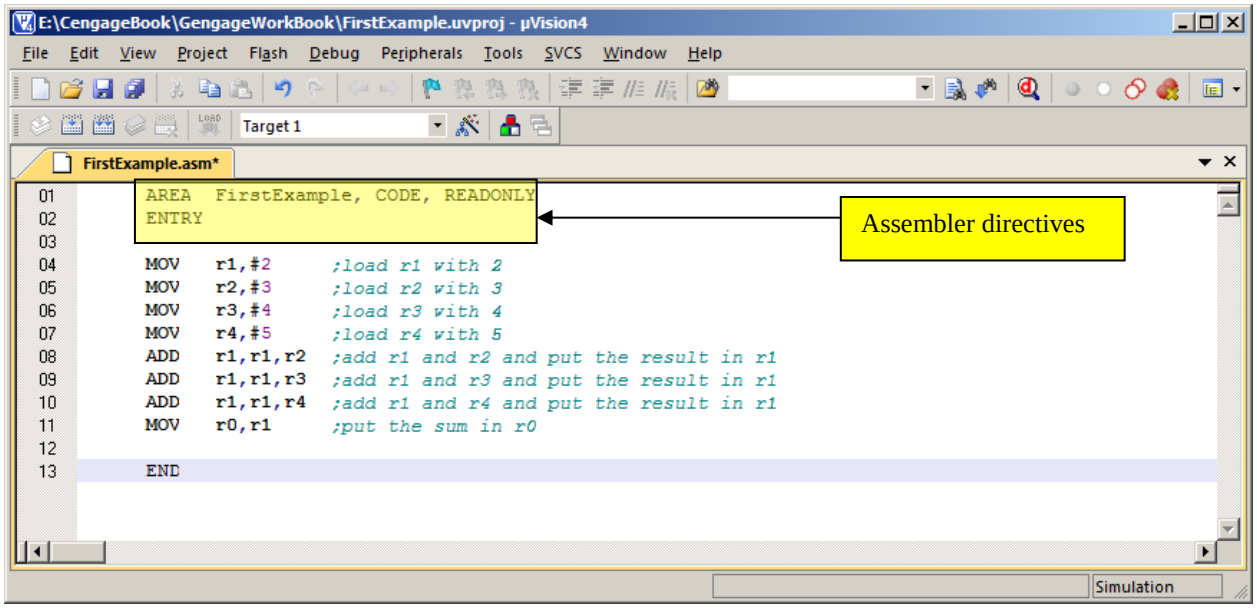
When you hit **save**, a new window will automatically appear that invites you to select the device you are going to use. In this case it is the ARM (see the figure below). If you select the ARM pull-down window, it will offer various ARM versions. I used the **ARM7 (Big Endian)** version. Once you have elected the processor, a return is made to the basic project window.



Selecting the target device

The next step is to create a source file. Click **File** in the main window. This will open a file window with the default name Text1. Now you can enter you source program.

After entering the program you need to save it. This is done in the normal Windows way: select **file** and then **save**. You then have to give it a name. I chose **FirstExample.asm**. Note that I used the extension **.asm** (assembly langue) because the development system does not know which type of source file you are creating. The following image shows the screen after the program has been entered and saved.



This program is simple. It loads register with numbers (literals), adds them together and then moves the result into register r0. Note that there are three lines that are not part of the assembly language. These are **assembler directives** that tell the assembler things it needs to know. The first assemble directive is

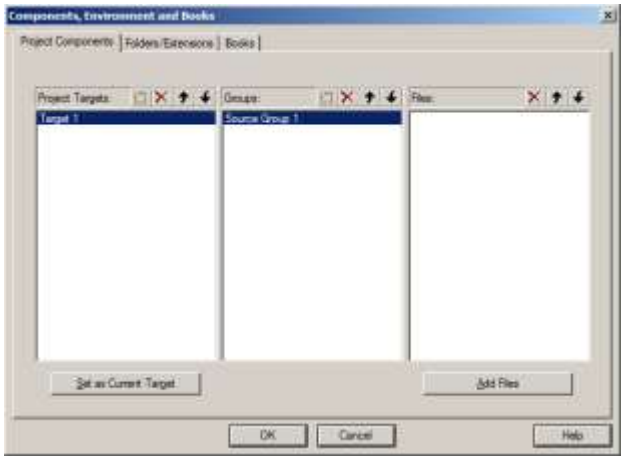
```
AREA FirstExample, CODE, READONLY
```

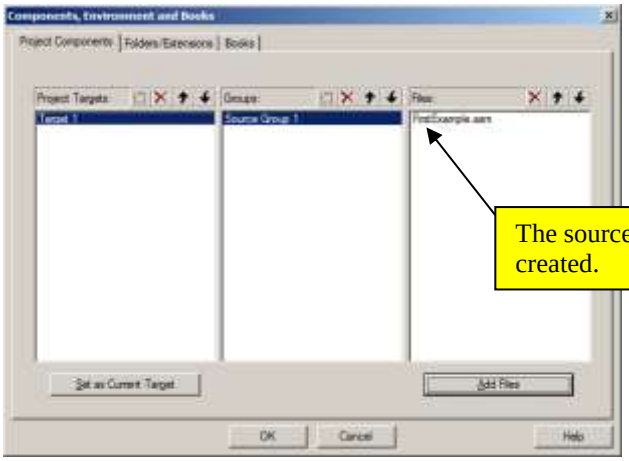
The purpose of this `AREA` directive is to name the region of memory where the program will be located. In this case we've used `FirstExample`. The parameter `CODE` indicates that the data will be code rather than data. The third parameter `READONLY` indicates that the memory is read-only becausewe are not going to alter its contents.

The `ENTRY` directive simply tells the assembler that the code is to be executed from this point. It's the starting point.

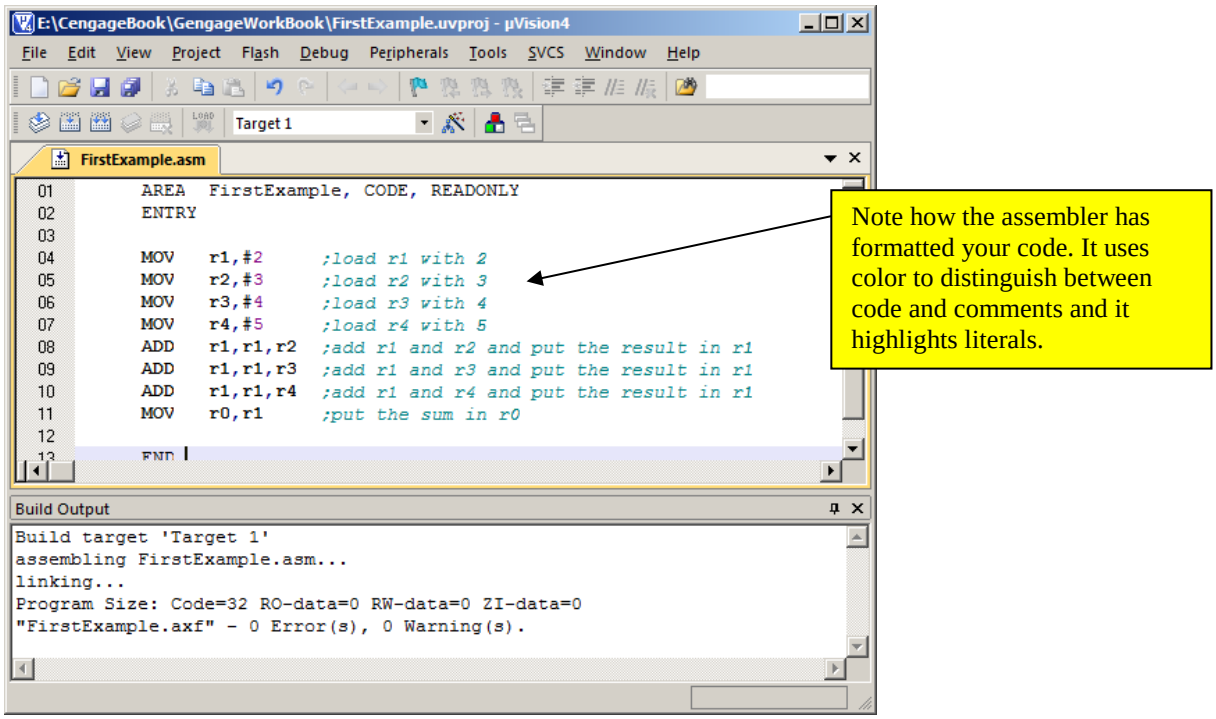
The final directive, `END`, indicates the end of the program and that there is no further code beyond this point.

The next step is to tell the project manager about the assembly file we've just created. Click on **Project** to select the project drop-down menu and then select **Manage**. Then select **Components, Environment, Books...** from the secondary drop-down window. The figure (below left) shows this situation. Now click **Add Files** to select your source file. You will have to change the **File of Type** box from its default C Source file (*.C) to ASM Source file. Having done that, you should have the situation below right with one file displayed. Then click OK to end the sequence.



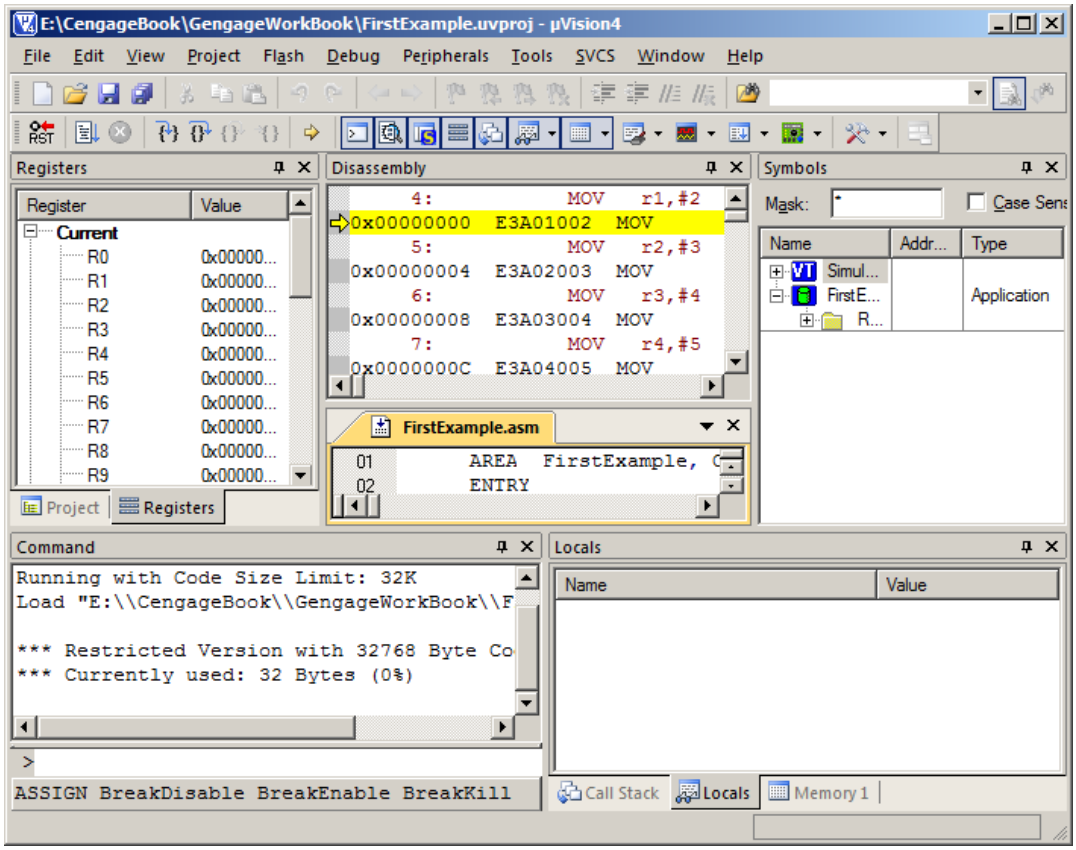


At this stage, we have a project, a processor, and a source file. Now we need to create the environment and assemble the code. Click on **Project** and then **Build target** from the drop-down window. The following image shows the screen after we have built the target.



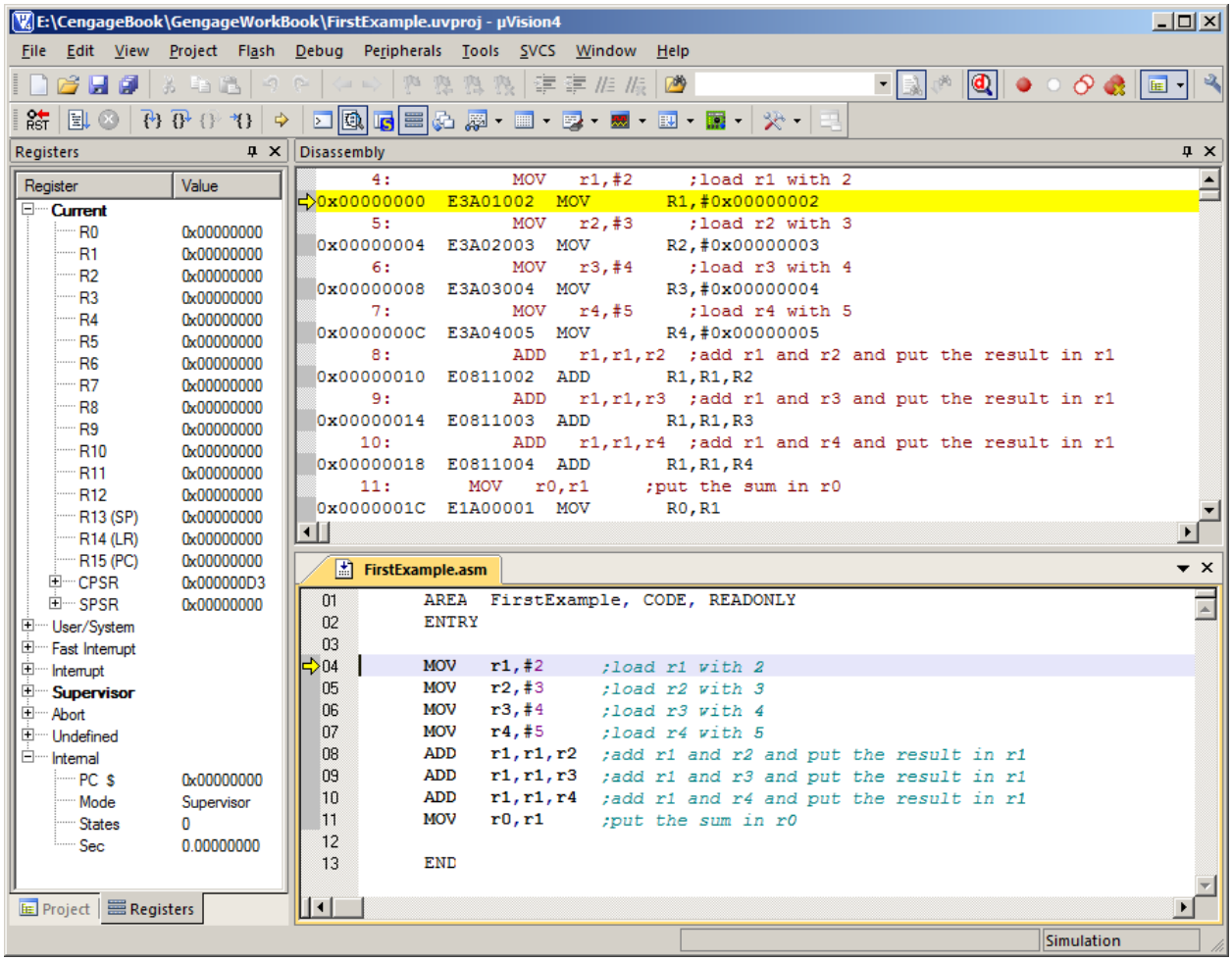
The **Build Output** window shows the status of the process. Here we are interested only in the magic words **`0 Error(s)`** that indicate all went well. Had there been any errors in the code, we would have been informed and would have had to edit the source file and then rebuild it. This cycle is repeated until there are no errors reported.

The final step is to run the program in the simulator. To do this select **Debug** from the main window and click on **Start/Stop Debug Session**. This brings up the EVALUATION MODE box that tells you are restricted to 32K. Click on OK to bring up the simulator window as shown below.

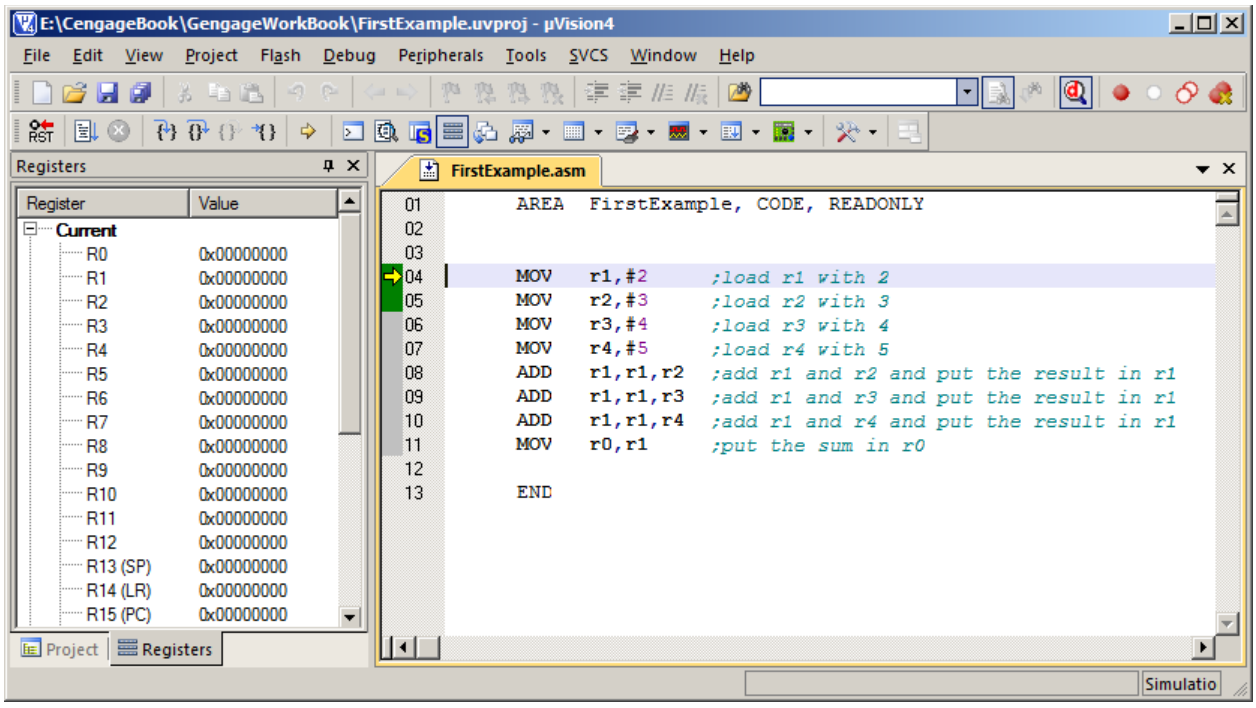


We don't need all this. Using normal Windows features we can resize and remove windows not of immediate importance to get the following image. We now have three windows. On the left there is a window, **Registers**, showing the contents of registers. All values are in hexadecimal. The other items (which have expansion boxes) are not of interest at the moment; these describe the status of the processor and the value of carry and overflow bits etc.

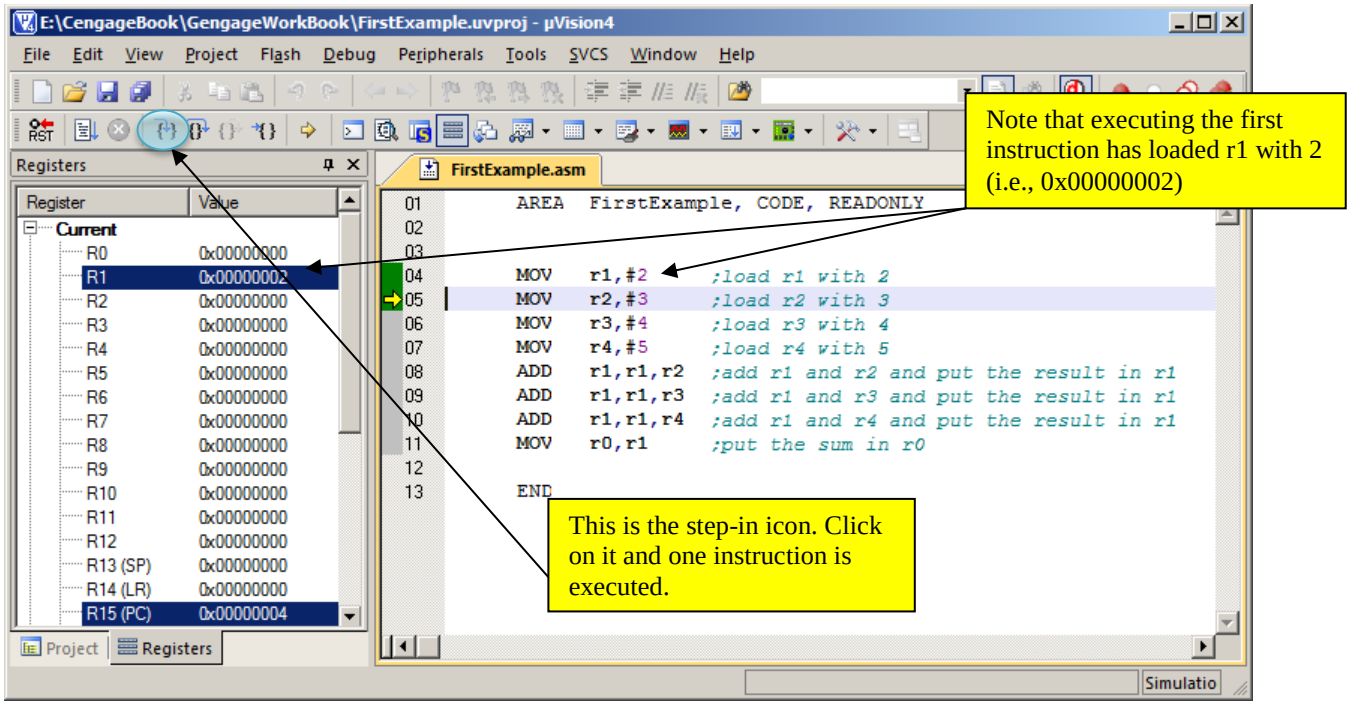
The window on the top right, **Disassembly**, is not necessary in this example. We could have closed it but have left it open in order to demonstrate the structure of the program in memory. This window takes code in memory and transforms it back into ARM processor op-code and mnemonics. However, should it encounter data (i.e., number or text etc.) it will produce meaningless code. In this example, you can see each of the instructions. The leftmost column is the memory address, the next column the 32-bit value (in hexadecimal) at that location. The third column contains the disassembled op-code; for example, at address 0x0000000C we have the value E3A04005 which translates into `MOV r4,#5`. Note that this window also contains the original source code instructions and the line numbers.



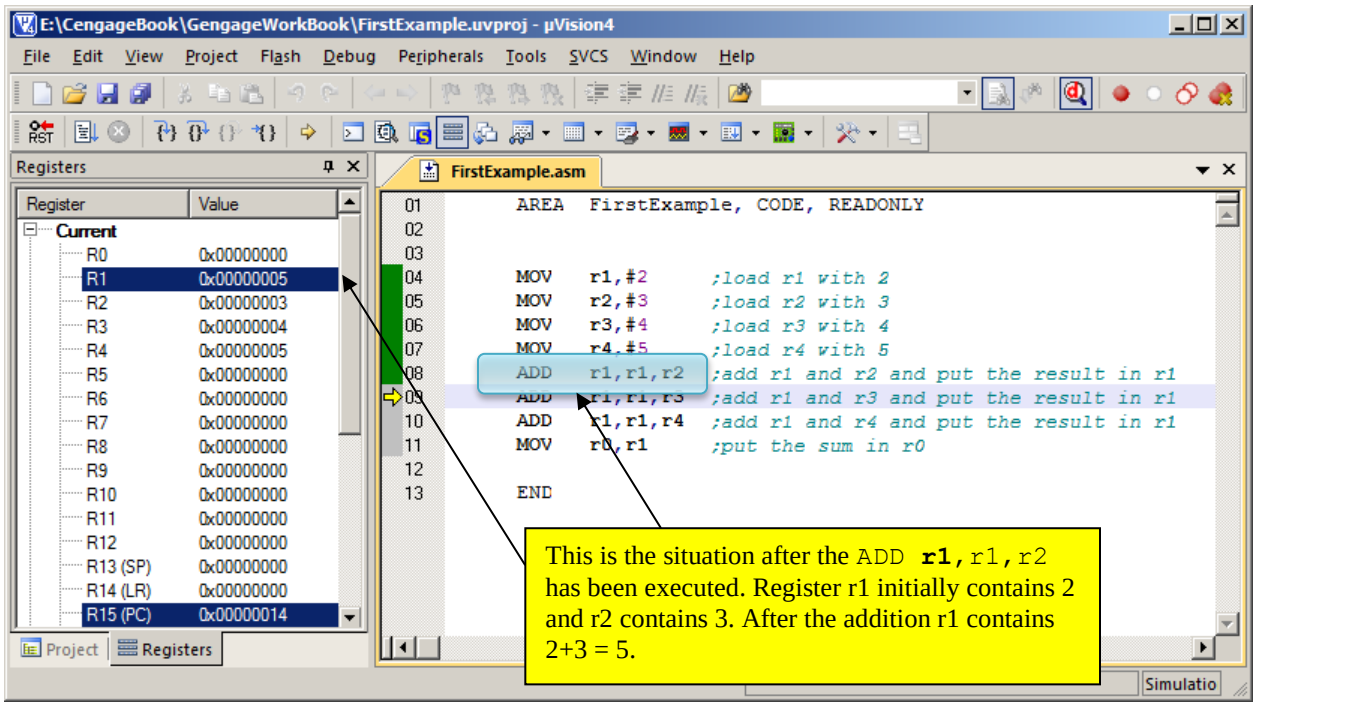
The window below is the same as above except that we've closed the disassembly window and resized to reduce clutter.



The final step is to run the code. We can run it in several different ways. Here, we are going to execute it line by line so that we can observe the way in which the contents of the registers change after each instruction. In the image below, we have clicked on the *step one line icon* (highlighted in the image) and the first instruction has been executed. Note that in the register list, r1 is highlighted and it has the value 2 (because it was loaded with 2). The contents of the program counter, r15, are 4 because it now points to the second instruction.



The next image shows the screen after we have clicked the step-in button five times and have executed the first five instructions.



Note that you have to click on **Debug** and then **Start/stop Debugging Session** to get out of the debug mode.

USING THE KEIL SIMULATOR: A SECOND EXAMPLE

Let's now look at a more realistic example of the use of the simulator that includes both a loop and an example register indirect addressing. We are going to add together five numbers stored in memory.

```
        AREA Pointers, CODE, READONLY
        ENTRY

Start   ADR   r0,List       ;register r0 points to List
        MOV   r1,#5         ;initialize loop counter in r1 to 5
        MOV   r2,#0         ;clear the sum in r3

Loop    LDR   r3,[r0]       ;copy the element pointed at by r0 to r3
        ADD   r0,r0,#4      ;point to the next element in the series
        ADD   r2,r2,r3      ;add the element to the running total
        SUBS  r1,r1,#1      ;decrement to the loop counter
        BNE   Loop          ;repeat until all elements added

Endless B     Endless       ;infinite loop

List    DCD   3,4,3,6,7     ;the data (five 32-bit words)
        END
```

A COMMENT ON PROGRAM LAYOUT

When writing an assembly language program, column one is reserved for a user-defined name that allows us to refer to that line (more specifically, it corresponds to the address of that line in the program when it's been assembled into machine code). In this example, the four labels are `Start`, `Loop`, `Endless`, and `List`. Actually, `Start`, is a dummy label in the sense we never refer to it. I added it simply to demonstrate that we can label a line just for the programmer (this indicates the start of the program).

Anywhere after column one, we can write an instruction. The only rule is that there must be at least one space following the mnemonic, and that parameters must be separated by commas. Spaces after a comma are optional; for example, we can write

```
ADD r1,r2,r3 or
ADD       r1,    r2,    r3
```

Finally, we can append a comment to the right. The assembler we are using requires a semicolon to separate it from the code. Although we don't have to write a program in columns as we've done above, it makes the program easier to read.

The *executable* code consists of three parts. The first part beginning with the label `Start` sets up the environment. The instruction `ADR r0,List` is a pseudo instruction that loads the 32-bit value of `List` into register r0. `List` is a label that refers to the five items of data in memory. What is the value of `List`? That's something the programmer doesn't have to worry about; the assembler's job is to convert labels into their actual values. However, in this case it is easy. The assembler begins at address zero and each instruction occupies four bytes. The code consists of eight instructions which occupy 8 × 4 = 32 bytes. Consequently `List` refers to location 0x00000020.

The two move instructions initialize a loop counter (we are going to go round five times), and set the initial total to zero.

The body of the code which we've printed in blue performs the actual addition. The `LDR r3,[r0]` instruction loads register r3 with the contents of the memory location pointed at by r0. Since we initialized r0 to point to `List`, we will first access the

value 3. Then, we increment the pointer in r0 to point to the next word in memory to be added. This lets us step through the sequence of five numbers.

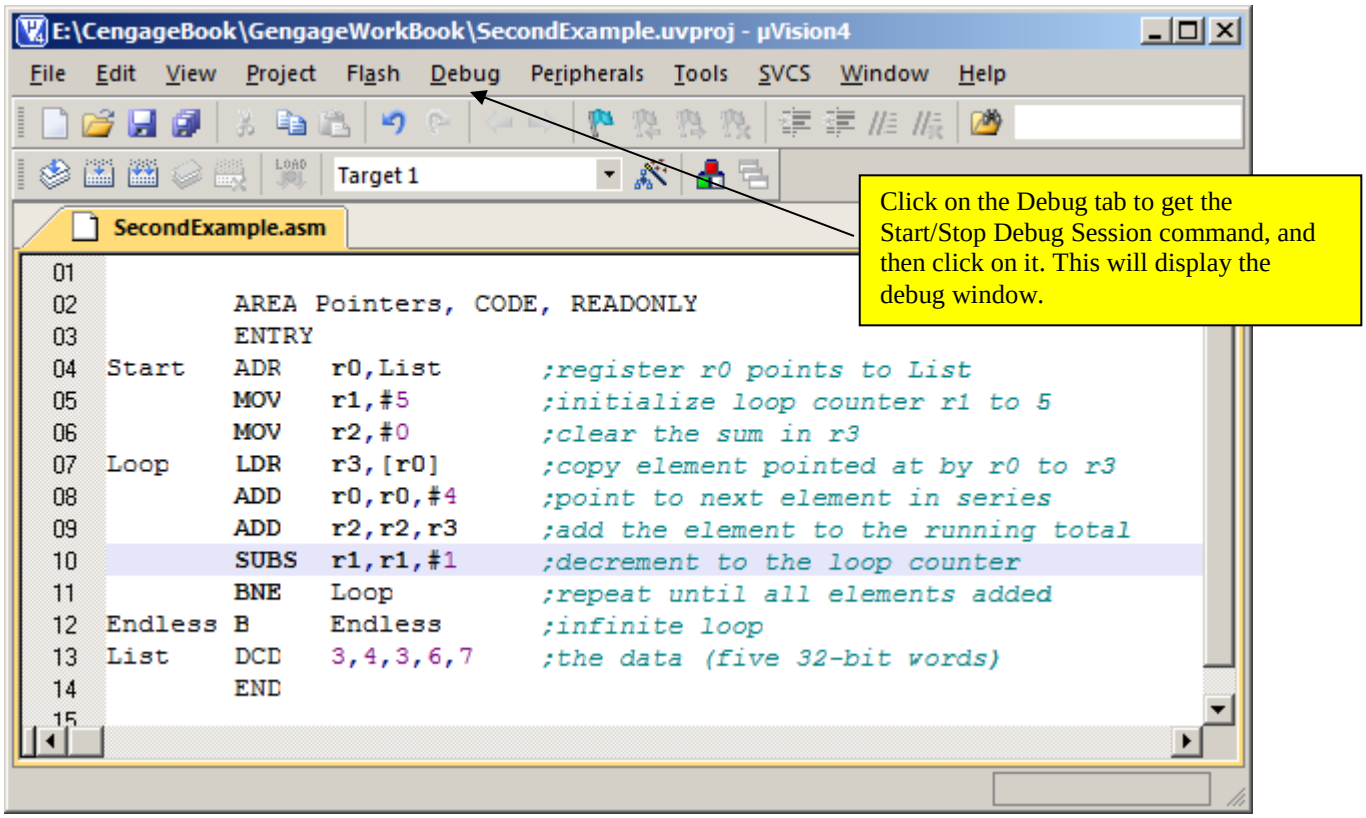
The next step is to add the value of r3 we've just read to the running total in register r2 using `ADD r2,r2,r3`.

Finally, the instruction `SUBS r1,r1,#1` subtracts 1 from the loop counter in r1, which goes from 5 to 4 on the first cycle round the loop. The `S` on the end of `SUB` tells the processor to update the condition codes (carry, zero, negative, overflow) at the end of the subtract operation. The next instruction, `BNE Loop`, tests for the zero condition that we get when the loop count goes from 1 to 0. If the loop count is not 0, the `BNE` (branch on not zero) forces a jump to the line labeled by `Loop` and this block of code is executed again. If the loop count is 0, we have finished the loop and fall through to the next instruction.

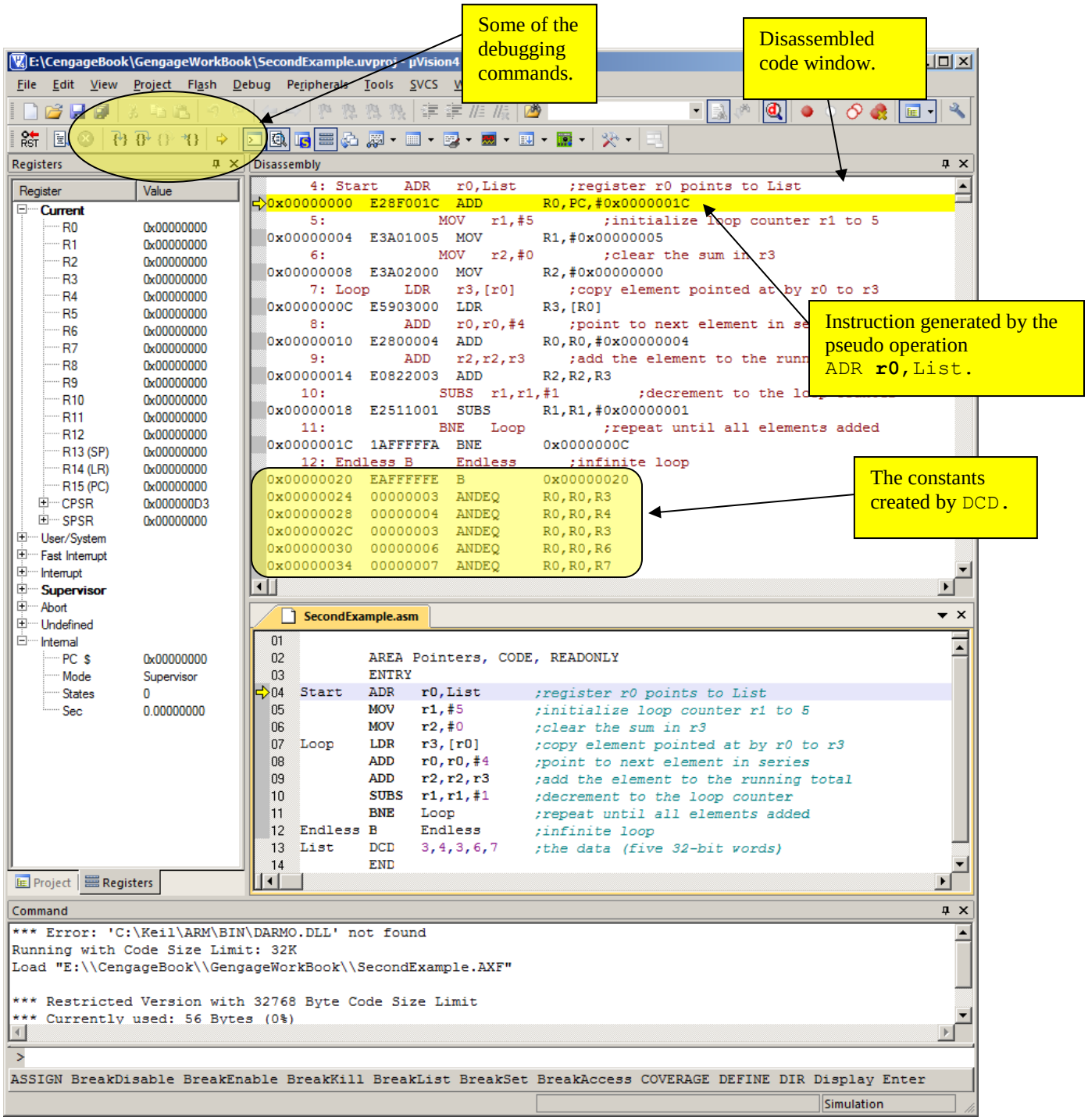
There's nothing for us left to do, so we "jam" the computer by inserting the `B Endless` instruction. This is an unconditional branch (jump) to the line labeled by `Endless`. Because a jump is made to this line, the operation is repeated endlessly. This is a classic way of stopping a simulation.

Following the executable code, the assembler directive `DCD` (define constant data) allows you to preload data into memory before the program runs. In this case, the values 1, 4, 3, 6, and 7 are each loaded into memory as a 32-bit value.

The following snapshot demonstrates the state of the program after it has been loaded the **project Build target** function used to perform the assembly.



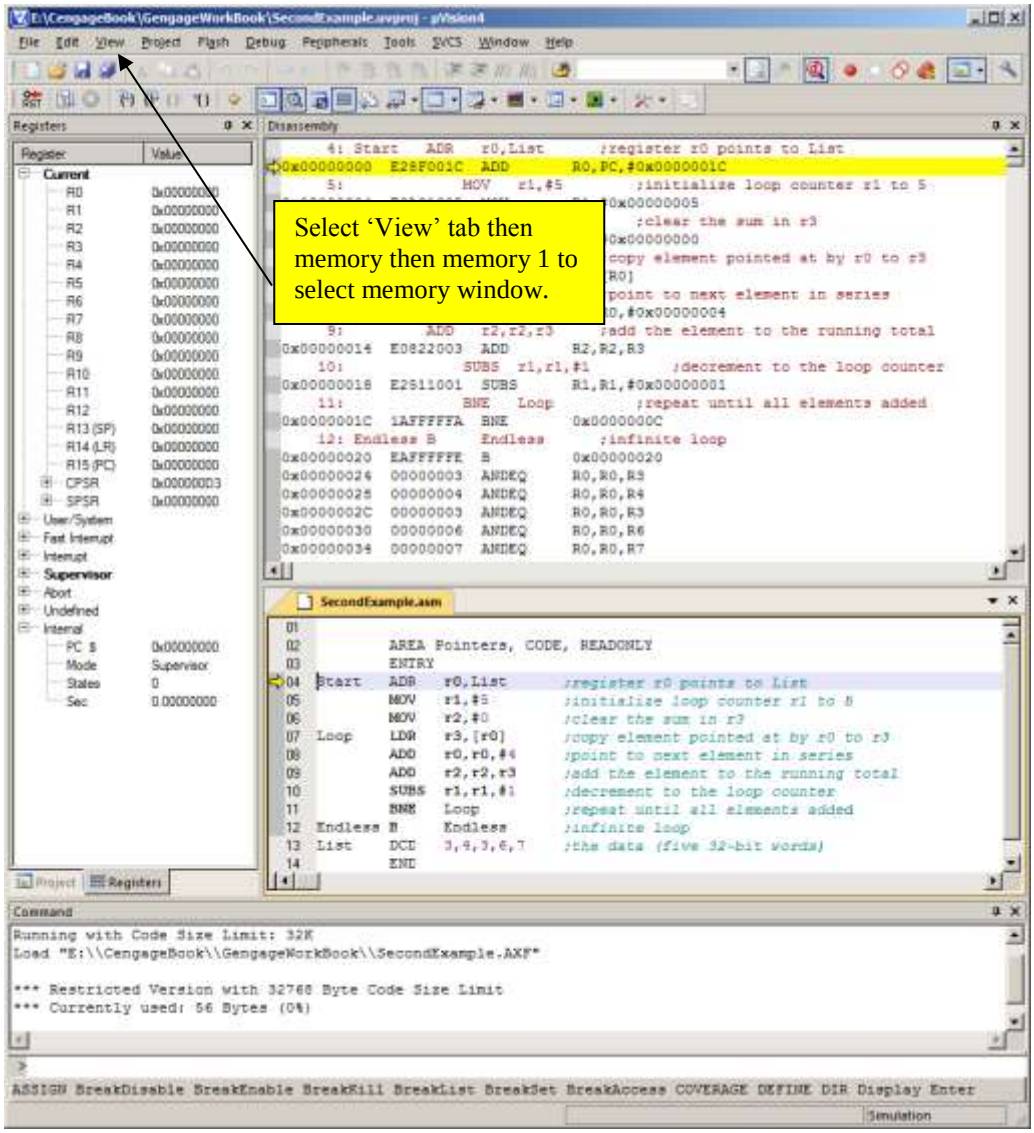
The next snapshot shows the result of entering the debug mode. For clarity, we have removed some of the windows that are not needed.

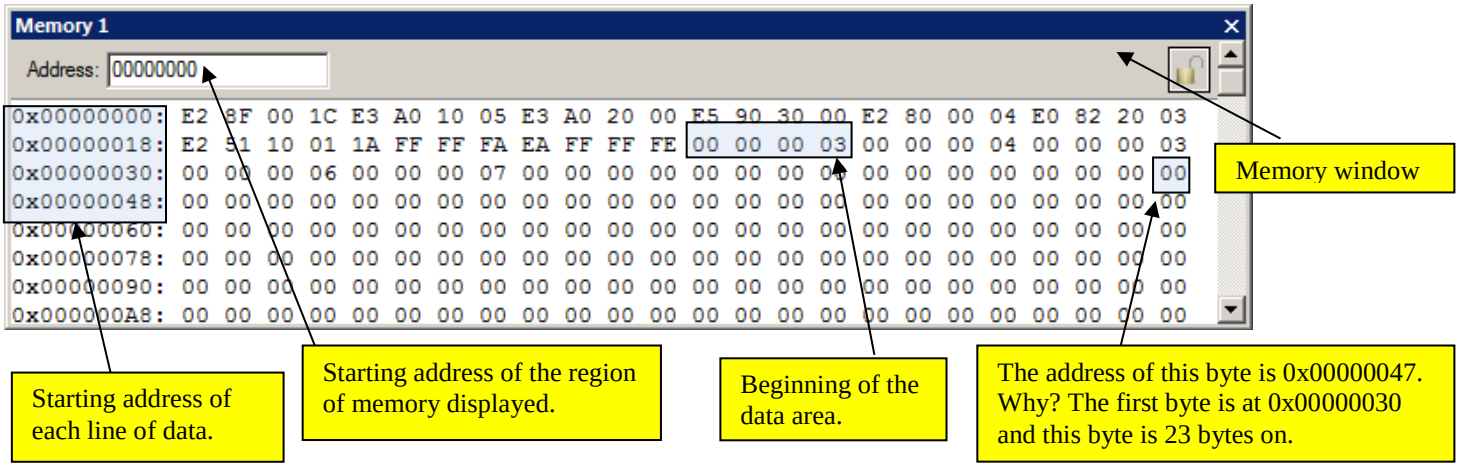


There are two notable features. First, the pseudo operation `ADR r0,List` has been translated into the actual instruction `ADD r0,PC,#0x0000001C`. A pseudo operation uses existing instruction to create an operation that loads a 32-bit value into a register. The assembler might generate different code on different occasions.

A second interesting feature also appears in the disassembly window. You can easily recognize the program in this window. However, the data values stored by the assembler in memory (i.e., 5, 5, 6, 7) are read by the disassembler and translated into instructions. In this case the first value, 5, corresponds to the code for `ANDEQ r0,r0,r3`). Of course, this code is nonsense. However, the disassembler does not know this; it just translates anything in memory into an instruction.

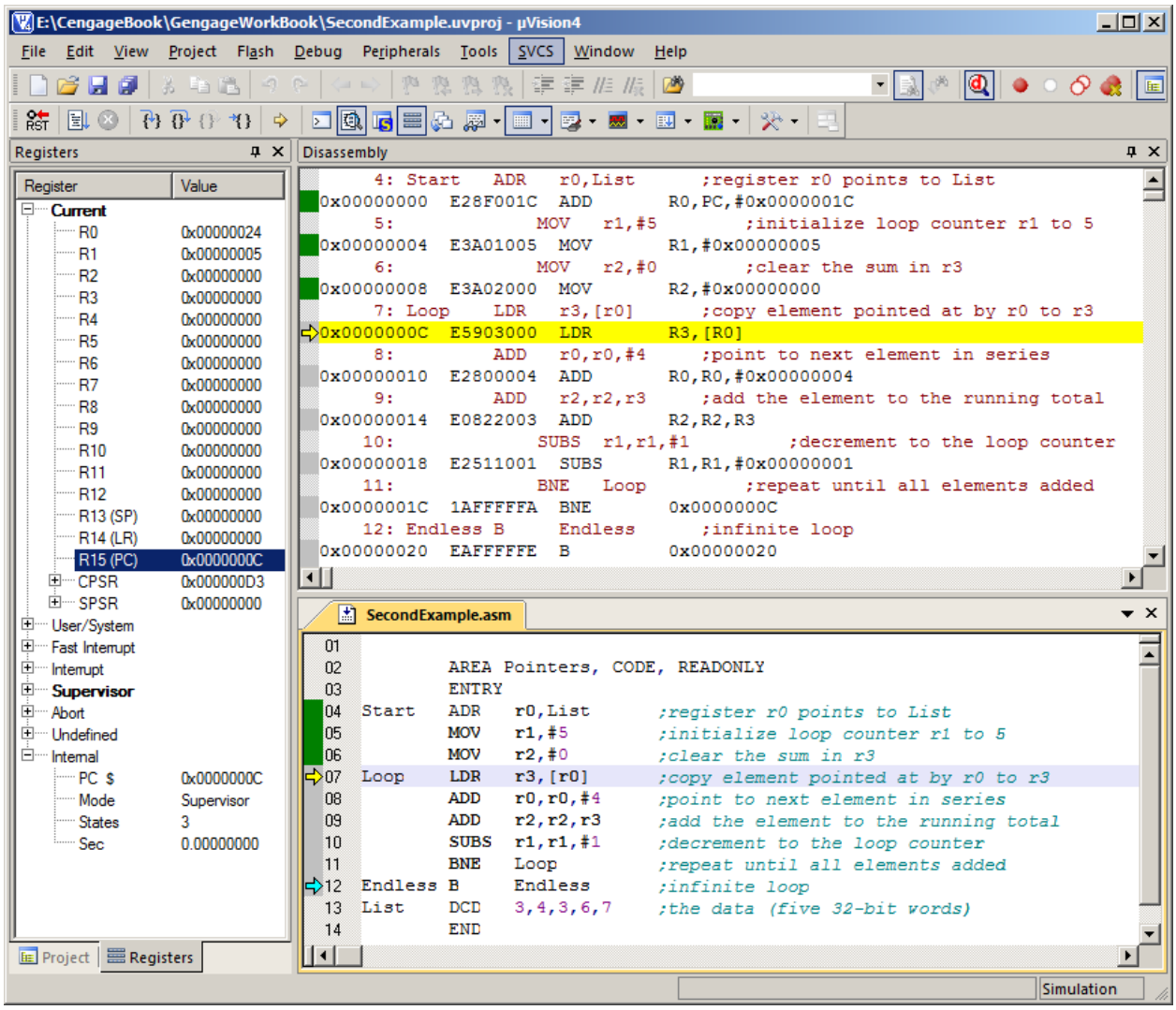
We are now going to create a memory window. To do this, click on **View** then select **Memory Window** and then **Memory 1**. Enter the starting address in the **Address** box in the memory window (which is 0) and hit return. This produces the display as shown below. In the memory window we can see both the code and data. Note that I have resized the memory window (it may have a different number of bytes per line on your system). You can drag the edge of the memory window to display as many or as few bytes per line as you require.





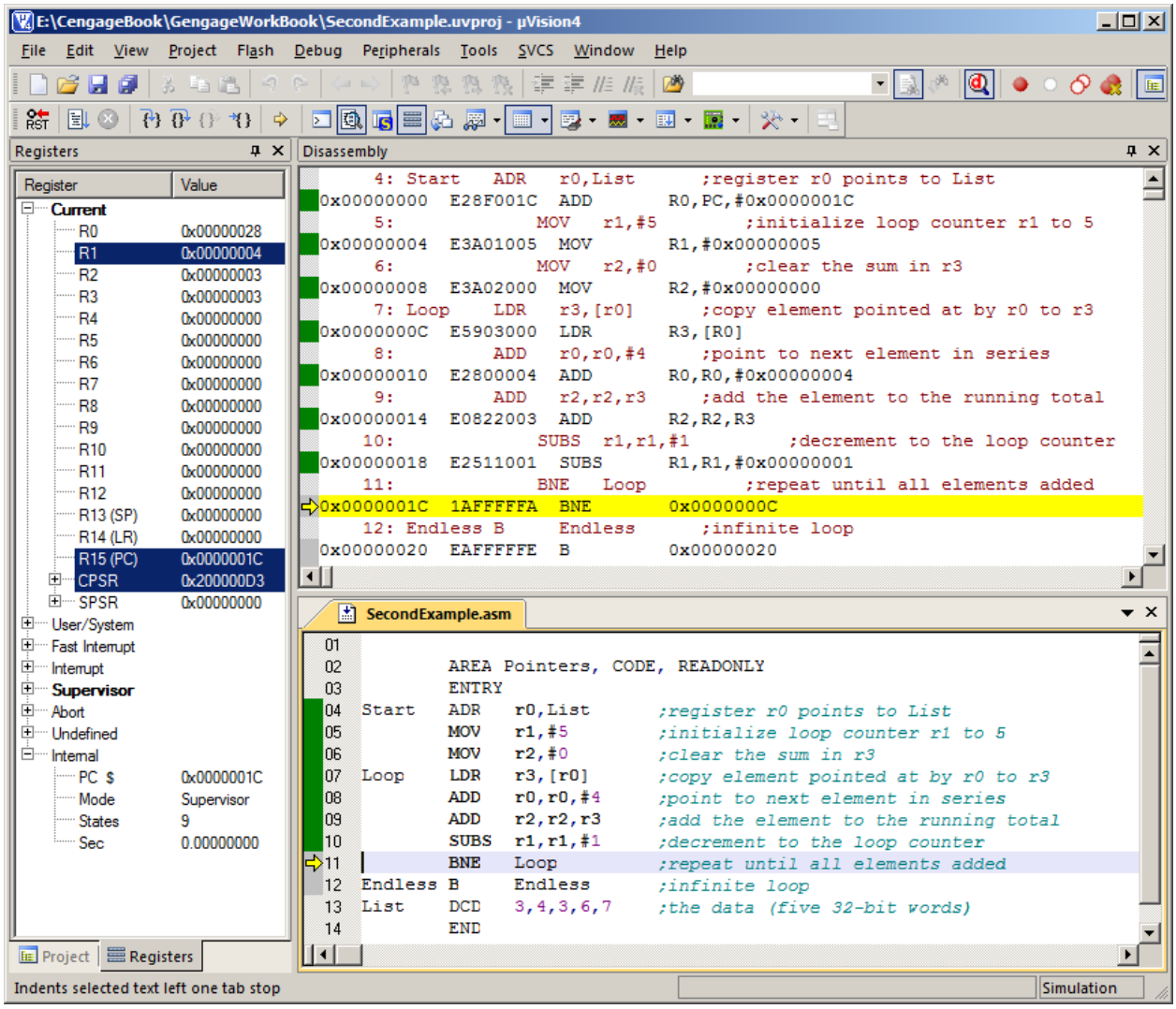
Let's now run through a debug session with this program. The snapshot below shows the screen after we have executed the first three instructions. You can see that r0 is loaded with 0x24 (the start of the data area), r1 contains 5, and r2 contains 0 (note, we have to clear r2 to 0 in the code because, in a real system, r2 will probably not contain 0 at the start of a block of code). Failure to initialize registers is proably the most common error that students make when writing assembly language programms.

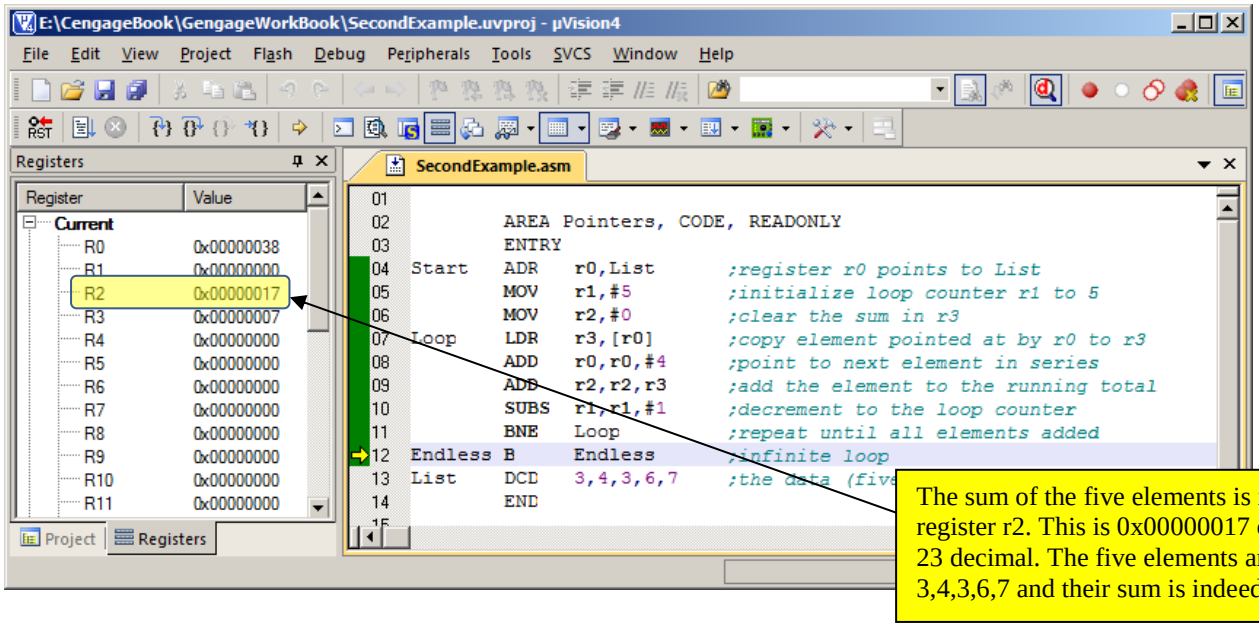
The next instruction to be executed is highlighted in both the program and disassembly windows.



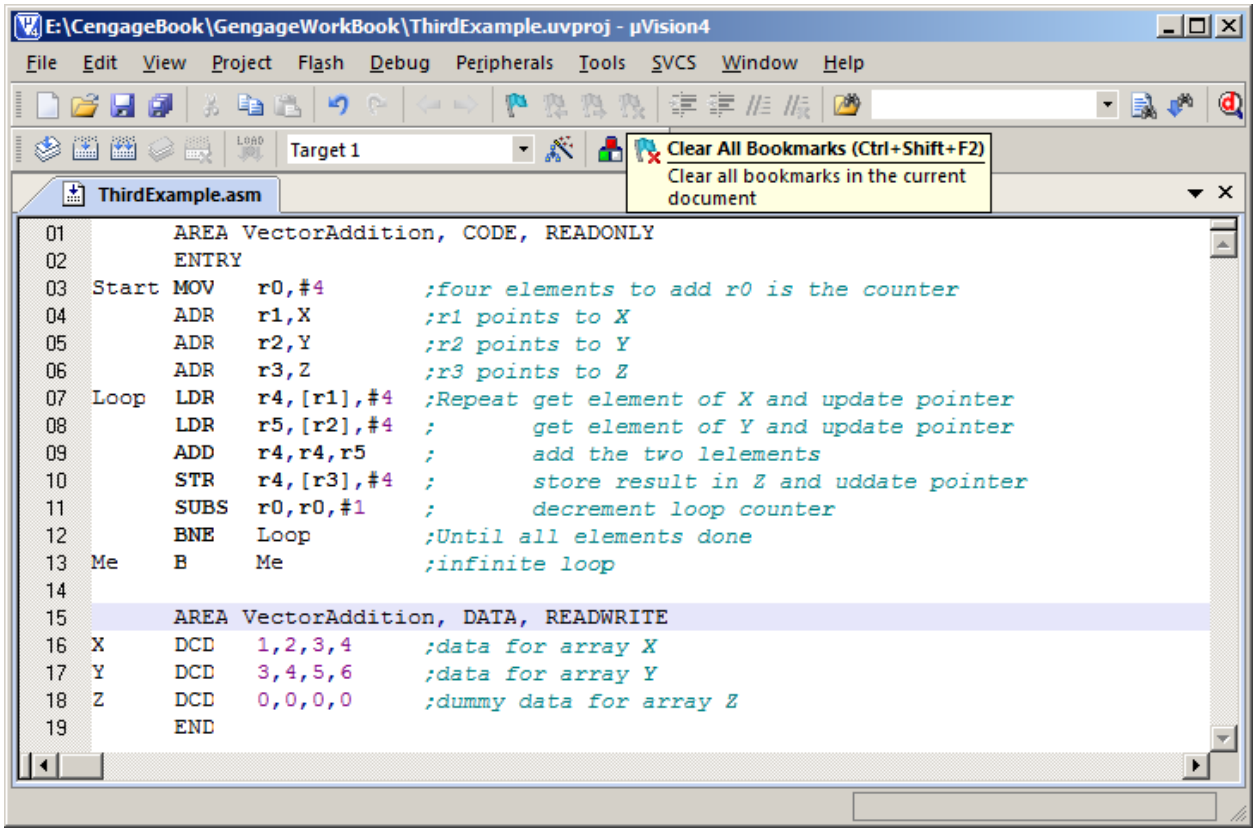
The next snapshot shows the state of the simulator after we have nearly completed one trip round the loop and are at the last instruction, the branch to `Loop` on not zero. The value of r0 is 28 (i.e., 24 + 4) because we are pointing at the next data item. The value of r1 (the loop counter) is 4 because we've decremented it on this trip. The value of r3 is 3 because we've loaded the first number, and the value of r2 is three because the sum contains only one number so far.

The final snapshot for this example just shows some of the registers and code. Rregister r2 now holds the sum of the five numbers in memory. The value of r0 contains 0x38 which the next location after the five numbers (24 + 5 × 4 = 38 using hexadecimal arithmetic).





Let's look another program that uses pointer-based addressing to access memory. The snapshot below illustrates a program that adds together pairs of elements of two vectors X and Y, and puts the result in Z; that is, it performs $z_i = x_i + y_i$ for $i = 0$ to 3.



We've defined two data areas: `AREA VectorAddition, CODE, READONLY` where the program code is located, and `AREA VectorAddition, DATA, READWRITE`. The parameters `CODE` and `DATA` refer to regions of memory that contain code or data, and the parameters `READONLY` and `READWRITE` indicate that the region of memory space can only be read (as in the case of the program), or can be both read from or written to (using parameter `READWRITE`).

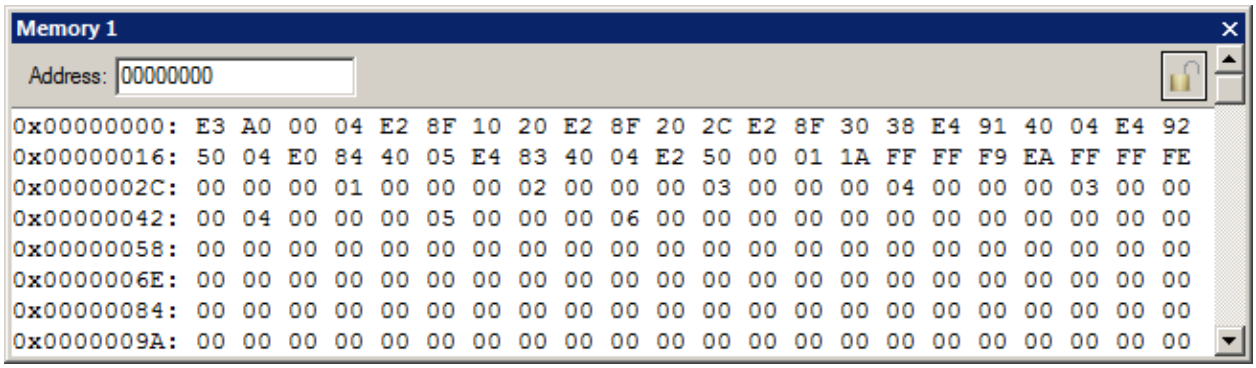
Once the program is ready to run, you select **Debug** and **Start/Stop Debug Session** in the normal way. We then have to perform an additional step to indicate that the data memory is writable. Click the **Debug** tab and then the **Memory Map** tab.

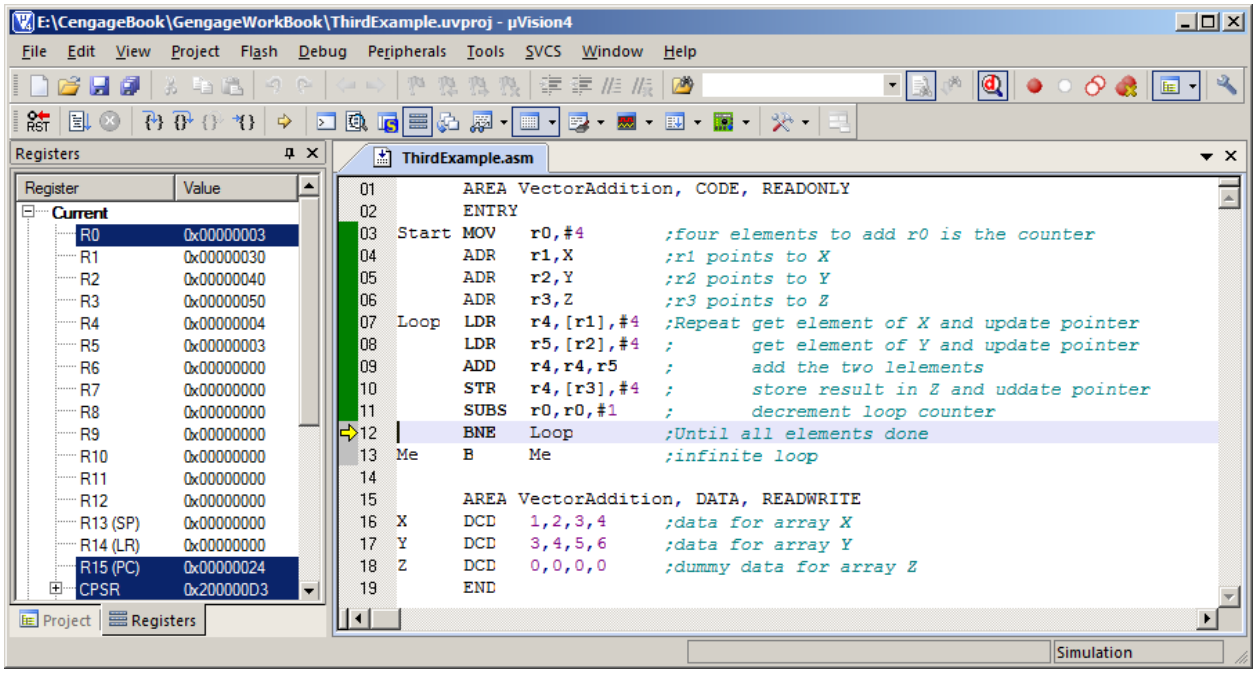
The Memory Map below shows the situation with the address range 0x00 to 0x5B defined as both executable and readable memory. We need to define locations 0x38 to 0x5B as writable locations. To do this, enter the values in the **Map Range box** and tick **Read** and **Write**.

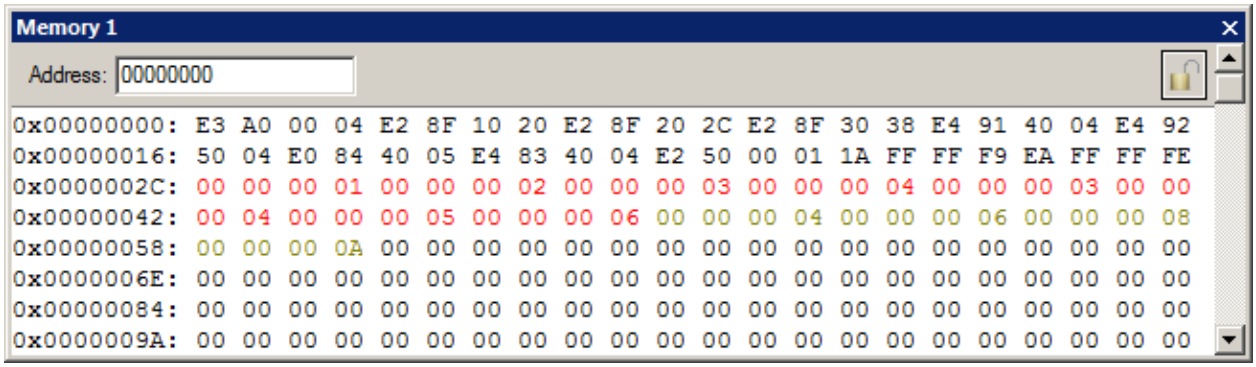
The image on the left shows the *Memory Map* box after we've entered the read/write range. Now click the **Close** tag.

The final three snapshots for this example show, in order, the initial memory map, the state of the system during execution, and the final memory map.

The initial memory map shows the code from 0x00000000 to 0x0000001B, and the data area starting at 0x0000002C. The snapshot is taken at the end of the first cycle of iteration. The three pointer registers are loaded with addresses that are four bytes greater than the start of the three vectors, because auto-incrementing is used and the pointer is increased after it has been used. The final memory map shows the source data in read and the data written back to memory in green.







PROBLEM SET 4

1. What is an assembler?
2. What is a cross-assembler?
3. What is a (CPU) simulator?
4. Does a simulator run as fast as the *native* or *target* processor being simulated? For example, does ARM processor code being executed by a simulated ARM processor on a PC run faster or slower than the same code being run on a real ARM processor?
5. What is the wrong with `ADD r0,r16,r1`?
6. Is there anything wrong with `ADD r0,r0,r0`?
7. Why is `ADD r1,#5,r2` wrong?
8. What is the difference between a **syntax** error and a **semantic** error?
9. What is the difference between an instruction and an assembler directive?
10. What is the effect of `ADR r0,1234`?
11. `ADR r0,#1234` is known as a pseudo instruction. What is a pseudo instruction and what is its purpose?
12. What's wrong, if anything, with `ADD r15,r2,r3`?

PROBLEM SET 5

Here we provide an introduction to the Keil ARM processor development system.

1. Write a simple program to perform: Z = A + B + C – (D × E)

   The instructions you may use are `ADD`, `SUB`, and `MUL`. Assume that the data is in registers r0 to r4 (representing A to E) and the result is put in r5.

   Enter your program into the Keil simulator and run it. You can use move instruction to load data into registers. Do you get the expected answer?

2. Now assume A, B, C, D and E are 16-bit values in memory. You can load them by using a `DCD` directive. Remember that you use a label to define the first memory location and you can put successive values on the same line by separating them by commas. However, since each data item needs its own name, you are going to have to use one directive per element; that is:,

   ```
   A    DCD  4
   B    DCD  12
   C    DCD  -2
   ```

   Enter the program, compile (build) it and test it.

3. Write a program that includes deliberate syntax errors. Enter it in the development system, assemble (build) it and then debug it.

POINTER-BASED ADDRESSING MODES

We have already introduced addressing modes. Here we discuss the ARM processor's register indirect addressing mode that supports several variations. This is an important topic because it's essential to the efficient manipulation of data structures such as tables, arrays, matrixes, and vectors.

Let's first review the basic concept of register indirect, or *pointer-based*, addressing. Indirect addressing specifies a *pointer* to the actual operand which is invariably in a register. For example, the instruction, `LDR r0,[r1]`, first reads the contents of register r1 to obtain the pointer that gives you the address of the actual operand in memory. It then reads the memory location specified by the pointer in r1 to get the required data. This addressing mode requires *three* memory accesses; the first is to read the instruction to identify the register containing the pointer, the second is to read the contents of the register to get the pointer. And the third is to get the desired operand at the location specified by the pointer.

You can easily see why this addressing mode is called **indirect** because the address register specifies the operand indirectly by telling you *where* it is, rather than *what* it is. This is the only form of addressing that the ARM processor can use to access memory. The box below describes three variations on this addressing mode and gives their assembly language forms, defines the addressing mode (using RTL), and gives them names. The naming of addressing modes is not always consistent in computer science and manufacturers sometimes use different names for the same addressing mode.

ARM PROCESSOR POINTER-BASED ADDRESSING MODES

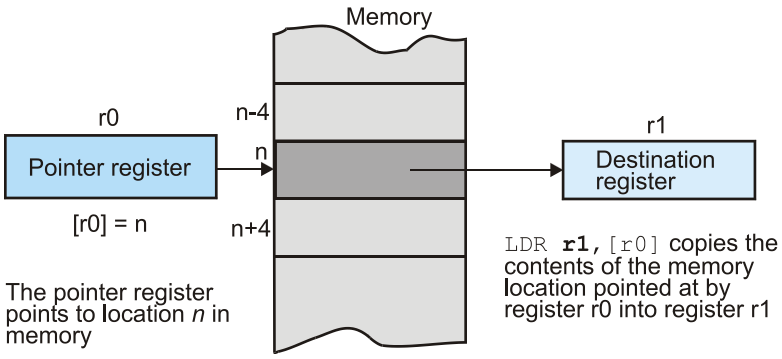
1. `LDR r1,[r0]`
   r0 points at the operand
   [r1] ← [[r0]]
   Base register addressing

2. `LDR r1,[r0,#4]`
   The operand is 4 bytes on from the location pointed at by r0
   [r1] ← [[r0 + 4]]
   Pre-indexed addressing

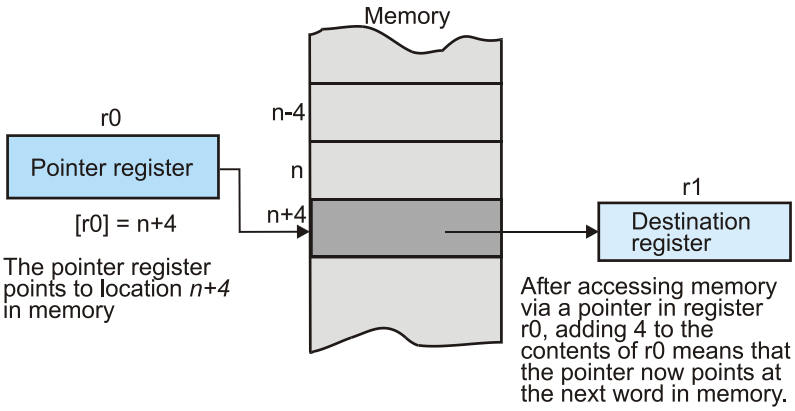
3. `LDR r1,[r0,#4]!`
   The operand is 4 bytes on from the location pointed at by r0. After loading the operand, the pointer register is incremented by 4
   [r1] ← [[r0 + 4]]
   [r0] ← [r0] + 4
   Pre-indexed addressing with writeback
   Autoincrementing preindexed addressing

4. `LDR r1,[r0],#4`
   The operand is pointed at by r0. After making the access, r0 is updated by 4.
   [r1] ← [[r0]]
   [r0] ← [r0] + 4
   Post-indexed addressing

The following figure describes the basic register indirect (sometimes called indexed or base addressing). The instruction specifies an address register and that register points at the actual location of the data in memory.



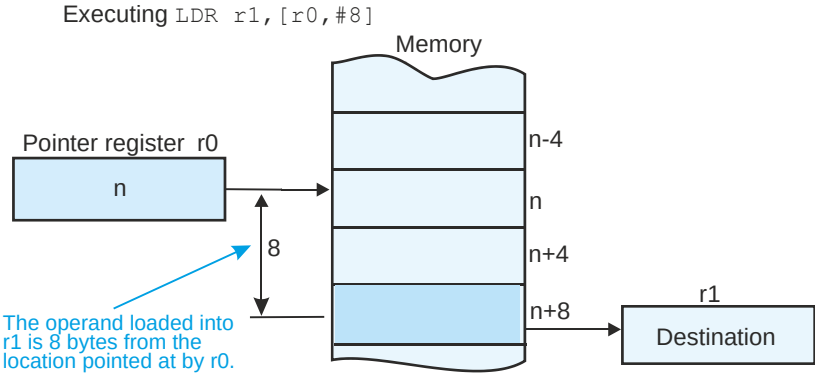
This diagram demonstrates the effect of incrementing r0 by 4. Now, r0 points at the *next* word so that executing `LDR r1,[r0]` accesses a different location; that is, the same instruction has a different outcome.



PLAYING WITH POINTERS

In principle, you don't need any addressing mode other than the simple register indirect [r0]. In practice, computer design is very much about the tradeoff between computational efficiency, complexity, and cost. Most computers provide variations on the basic register indirect addressing mode in order to reduce the size of the code and speed up its execution. In the 1980s, this was taken to extremes by the 68020 microprocessor that had truly complex addressing modes that could perform amazing operations with a single instruction. However, such addressing modes were so complex that compilers could not handle them optimally, and they took up a big chunk of the silicon chip. They were, at best, used infrequently. And they were slow.

Consider the operation `LDR r1,[r0,#8]`. This is only a slight modification of ARM's plain vanilla register indirect addressing. The difference is the literal within the square brackets. The address of the operand is found at [r0] + 8; that is, the operand is 8 bytes on from the location pointer at by r0. This addressing mode is sometimes called **pre-indexed addressing**.



The offset, in this case 8, is not added to the contents of the pointer in the register. The contents of r0 are fed to an adder, the offset added, and the result used to access memory. The contents of register r0 do not change.

A typical application of pre-indexed addressing is in accessing a table. Consider a table in memory containing 12 entries corresponding to January to December. Register r0 points at the start of the table (i.e., January). The following operations have the effect:

```
LDR r1,[r0]          ;Load r1 with the January data
LDR r2,[r0,#8]       ;Load r2 with the March data
LDR r3,[r0,#28]      ;Load r3 with the August data
STR r4,[r0,#44]      ;Store the data in r4 in August's location
```

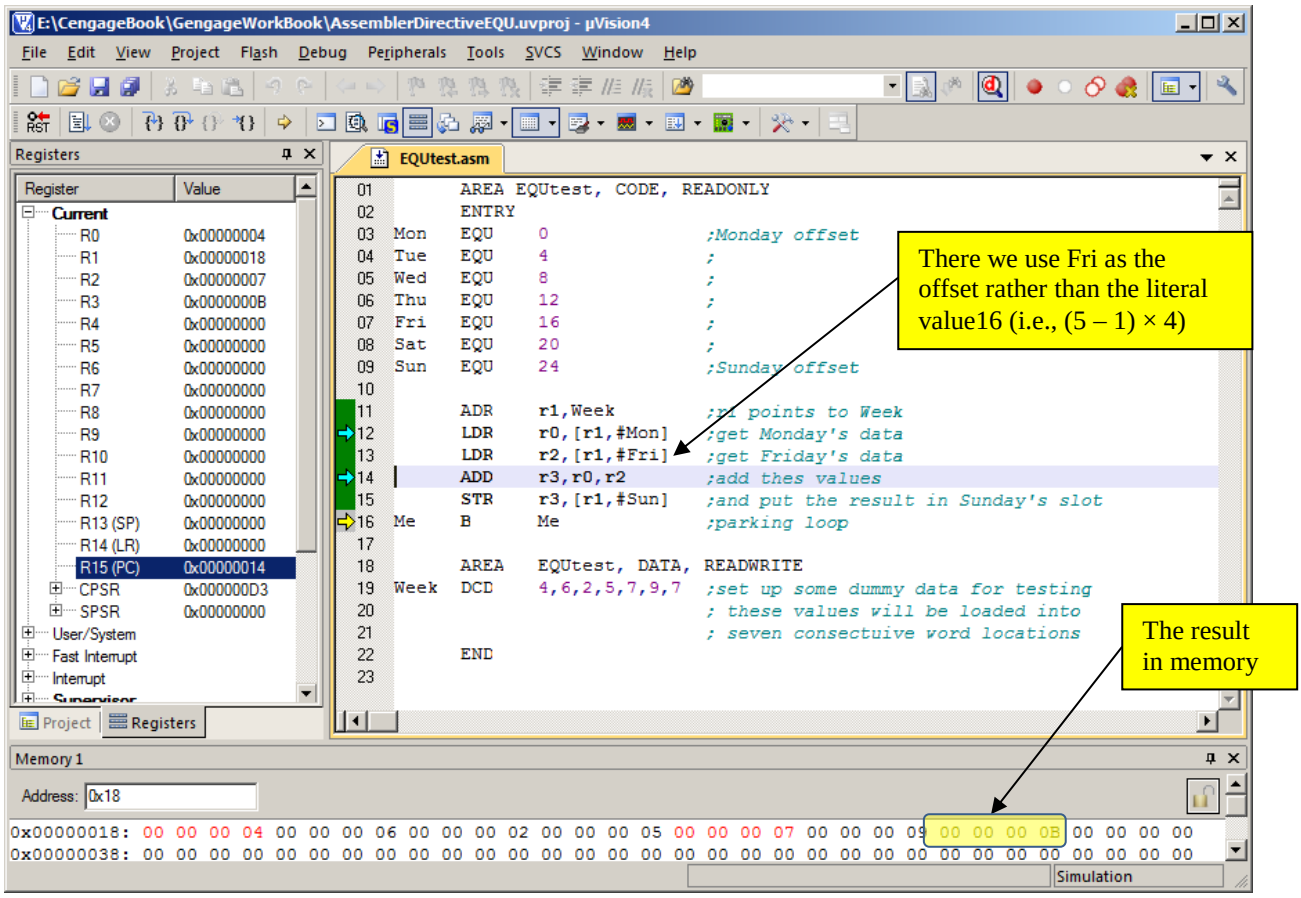
Why are the offsets 12, 32, and 44? The wordlength of an ARM processor is 32 bits or 4 bytes. If r0 points at January, the data occupies locations [r0], [r0] + 4, [r0] + 8, [r0] + 12, etc. For example, February is the second month and its data is at [r0] + 4.

The offset for the first month is 0, and the offset of month *i* is (*i* - 1 * 4); e.g., May is month 5 and its offset is (5 - 1) * 4 = 16.

In practice, programmers rarely used literal numeric offsets. The `EQU` (equate) directive assembler directive allows you to replace any number by a name; for example,

```
Hastings  EQU 1066
```

This assembler directive causes the assembler to substitute 1066 for `Hastings` whenever it sees it. It doesn't matter whether you write `ADR r0,Hastings` or `ADR r0,1066`, it has the same effect. The example below demonstrates how we can use assembler directives with pre-indexed addressing to access an array of days, add two values together, and store the result. The memory data shows that the final value (4 + 7 = 11 = 0x0B) has been correctly stored.



Suppose we didn't have pre-indexing. What would we do? We'd have to write something like:

```
MOV r1,r0          ;Save pointer r0 in r1.
ADD r1,r1,#4       ;Create a new temporary pointer in r1
LDR r2,[r1]        ;Read the required data from memory
                   ; LDR r2,[r0,#4] Does this in one instruction and doesn't  tie up a second register
```

Simple pre-indexing is useful for accessing elements at a specified offset. However, it does not change the pointer. Sometimes, we are stepping through a data structure and we need to permanently update the pointer each time it's used; for example:

```
        MOV   r2,#64        ;Set up loop count for 64 elements
        MOV   r3,#0         ;Clear the sum
        ADR   r0,Table      ;Point to the table of data elements to be summed
Next    LDR   r1,[r0]       ;Repeat: Read an element
        ADD   r0,r0,#4      ;       Update the pointer
        ADD   r3,r3,r1      ;       Add a new element to the total
        SUBS  r2,r2,#1      ;       Decrement loop counter
        BNE   Next          ;Repeat until all done
```

There's nothing new here. After accessing an element we update the pointer ready for the next cycle of iteration (in blue). Fortunately, ARM processors provide a **post-indexed** addressing mode. The offset is provided after the pointer, as the example demonstrates.

```
        LDR   r1,[r0],#4
```

In this case, the operand is accessed at the address pointer at by r0, and then r0 is incremented by 4. This addressing mode saves an instruction without incurring a time penalty. We can now write.

```
        MOV   r2,#64        ;Set up loop count for 64 elements
        MOV   r3,#0         ;Clear the sum
        ADR   r0,Table      ;Point to the table of data elements to be summed
Next    LDR   r1,[r0],#4    ;Repeat: Read an element and update the pointer
        ADD   r3,r3,r1      ;       Add a new element to the total
        SUBS  r2,r2,#1      ;       Decrement loop counter
        BNE   Next          ;Repeat until all done
```

OVERVIEW OF THE ARM PROCESSOR'S INSTRUCTIONS

We now look at the type of operations ARM processors can carry out. In general, all computer instructions fall into a small number of groups. The main groups are:

Data movement: These are all the operations that move data from one place to another and often account for about 70% of all the instructions in a program.

Data processing: These are instructions that operate on data; that is, change its value. This group is often subdivided into arithmetic operations, logical operations (also called Boolean or bitwise), and shift operations. The following table describes there instructions.

Arithmetic	Arithmetic instructions perform operations on data in numeric form.
Logical	A logical operation treats data as a string of bits and performs a Boolean operation on these bits; for example 11000111 AND 10101010 yields 10000010.
Shift	Shift instructions move the bits in a register one or more places left or right; for example shifting 00000111 one place left yields 00001110.
Bit	A bit instruction acts on an individual bit in a register, rather than the entire contents of a register. Bit instructions allow you to test a single bit in a word (for 1 or 0), to set a bit, to clear a bit to 0, or to flip a bit into its complementary state.
Compare	Compare instructions compare two operands and set the processor's status flags accordingly; for example, a compare operation allows you to carry out the test `(X < Y)` or `(x == y)`.

Flow control: This group is concerned with modifying the sequence in which instructions are executed. There are three main subgroups: the unconditional branch that forces a jump to a specific point in a program, the conditional branch that forces a jump to a point in a program, if and only if a specified condition is met, and the subroutine call and return. The terms *branch* and *jump* are used largely interchangeably in computing.

STATUS FLAGS

The processor status register records the *outcome* of an instruction and implements conditional behavior by selecting one of two courses of action. Some processors call this register a ***condition code*** register. Conditional behavior lets us implement high-level language operations such as

```
if (x == 4) then
```

or

```
(i = 0; i < 20; i++).
```

A processor status register contains at least four bits, Z, N, C and V, whose values are set or cleared after an instruction has been executed. These four flags (i.e., status bits) are:

Z-bit Set if the result of the operation is zero

N-bit Set if the result is negative in a two's complement sense; that is the leftmost bit is zero.

C-bit Set if the result yields a carry-out; that is, if the C-bit is 1.

V-bit Set if the result is out-of-range in a two's complement sense.

Typical CISC processors update these flags after each operation. Most RISC processors like the ARM require you to explicitly update the condition codes. This makes sense because you can update the condition codes at one point in the program and test them later as long as you haven't performed a second update. ARM processors require you to append an S after an instruction in order to force an update. Compare instruction do not need the S because, by definition, they update condition codes. Consider the following example:

```
ADD    r0,r1,r2  ;add r1 to r2
SUB    r0,r0,r3  ;subtract r3 to get r1+ r2 - r3
SUBS   r0,r0,#5  ;subtract 5 to get r1+ r2 - r3 - 5 and update condition codes.
```

Consider the following example using 8-bit arithmetic. Suppose r0 contains 00110101_2 and r1 contains 01100011_2, the effect of adding these two values together with `ADD r1,r0,r1` would result in

$$\begin{array}{r} 00110101_2 \\ +01100011_2 \\ \hline 10011000_2 \end{array}$$

The result is 10011000_2 which is deposited in r1. If we interpret these numbers as twos complement values, we have added two positive values to yield a negative result. Consequently, the V-bit is set to indicate arithmetic overflow. The result is not zero, so the Z-bit is cleared. The carry out is 0. The most-significant bit is 1 and the N-bit is set. Consequently, after this operation C = 0, Z = 0, N = 1, V = 1.

DATA MOVEMENT INSTRUCTIONS

Although the most frequently executed computer operation is *data movement*, it is incorrectly named because the one thing it does not do is to *move* data. Data movement instructions *copy* data; for example, the instruction `MOV r1,r0` copies the contents of r0 to r1, but does not modify the value of r1. You could say that a data movement instruction is a d*ata propagate* or *data copy* instruction. You can also move a literal; for example, `MOV r1,#12`.

ARM processors have one highly unusual move instruction, the `MVN`, *move negative*, that takes the bits of one register, inverts them, and then copies them to the destination register; that is,

`MVN r0,r1` has the effect [r0] ← 0xFFFFFFFF ⊕ r1 (performing an exclusive OR with 1 inverts a bit). This is not the two's complement of the register; it is the inverted bits of the register and differs from the two's complement by 1.

Like other RISC processors, the ARM has special-purpose data load and store instruction that copy data to and from memory; that is `LDR` and `STR`. We have encountered these instructions many times. CISC processors generally allow combined memory access and data operations. For example, the 68K instruction `ADD D2,address` that adds the contents of memory location `address` to register D2 and puts the sum in D2. This is a two-address instruction.

ARM processors do, in fact, implement a special *swap memory with register* (`SWP`) instruction that copies a memory location to a register and a register to the memory location. This operation is *atomic* and cannot be split up or interrupted (i.e., both the memory transfer to the register and from the register must take place without any interruption). You don't have to worry about this instruction because we will not be using it. It's intended for signaling between distributed processes.

ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS

Arithmetic operations are those that act on numeric data (i.e., signed and unsigned integers).

ADD **r2**,r1,r0	Add	[r2] ← [r1] + [r0]
ADC **r2**,r1,r0	Add with carry	[r2] ← [r1] + [r0] + C
SUB **r2**,r1,r0	Subtract	[r2] ← [r1] - [r0]
SBS **r2**,r1,r0	Subtract with borrow	[r2] ← [r1] - [r0] - C
RSB **r2**,r1,r0	Reverse subtract	[r2] ← [r0] - [r1]
RSC **r2**,r1,r0	Reverse subtract with carry	[r2] ← [r0] - [r1] - C
MUL **r2**,r1,r0	Multiply (unsigned)	[r2] ← [r1] × [r0]

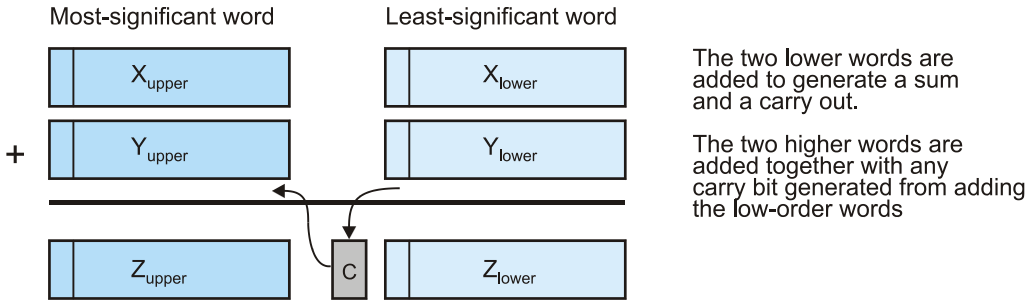
Add The ADD instruction adds the contents of two operands and deposits the result in the destination operand. One operand may be in memory. All addition and subtraction instructions update the contents of the condition code register unless the destination operand is an address register.

Add with Carry The *add with carry* instruction, ADC, is almost the same as the ADD. The difference is that ADC adds the contents of two registers together with the carry bit; that is ADC **r2**,r1,r0 performs [r2] ← [r1] + [r0] + C, where C is the carry bit generated by a previous operation.

This instruction is used in extended arithmetic. Suppose you wish to add two 64-bit numbers using a 32-bit ARM processor. Assume that the most-significant 32 bits of X are in r0 and the least-significant 32 bits in r1. The most-significant 32 bits of Y are in r2 and the least-significant bits in r3. We can perform the 64-bit addition X + Y by

```
ADD  r5,r3,r1  ;Add the low-order 32 bits, update carry flag
ADC  r4,r2,r0  ;Add the high-order 32 bits plus any carry
```

We use ADD to add the two low-order 32-bit words. An addition records and carry bit generated by the addition and moves it to the C-bit. The ADC adds the high-order words together with any carry that was generated by adding the low-order words. The figure below demonstrates Z = X + Y where X, Y and Z are 64-bit values and the addition is to be performed with 32-bit arithmetic. Each of the operands is divided into an upper and a lower 32-bit word.



Subtract The subtract instruction subtracts the first source operand from the second source operand and puts the result in the destination. SUB **r2**,r1,r0 performs [r2] ← [r1] - [r0]. A subtract with borrow, SBC **r2**,r1,r0 performs [r2] ← [r1] - [r0] - C (the carry bit is also subtracted from the result). This is entirely analogous to the corresponding add with carry instruction and is used in the same way to perform extended arithmetic.

The ARM processor has a most unusual variant of the subtract instruction, RSB (reverse subtract) that performs a reverse subtraction in which the operands are reversed; that is,

SBC **r2**,r1,r0 performs [r2] ← [r1] - [r0] (normal subtraction)
RSB **r2**,r1,r0 performs [r2] ← [r0] - [r1] (reverse subtraction)

At first sight, this instruction seems pointless. After all, if you want to reverse the order of the operands, you can just write them the other way round and write SUB **r2**,r1,r0 or SUB **r2**,r0,r1 as required. However, ARM instructions that specify a literal operand are always of the form ADD **r1**,r2,#12 and the position of the literal cannot be changed. Therefore, the reverse subtraction allows you to perform the operation, say, 123 - r0 by writing RSB **r0**,r0,#123.

Multiplication All members of the ARM processor family have a basic multiplication instruction, MUL, that multiplies two 32-bit words together and keeps the 32-bit lower-order word of the 64-bit result. Its format is:

MUL $\mathbf{r_d}, r_n, r_m$ which performs $[r_{d(0:31)}] \leftarrow [r_{n(0:15)}] \times [r_{m(0:15)}]$

There are other multiplication instructions that are implemented by other members of the ARM family. We do not deal with these variations.

Members of the ARM processor family include an interesting and powerful instruction, the *multiply and accumulate* (MLA). When you multiply two numbers, what do you do with the product? More often than not, you add it to a running total. This is a fundamental operation in signal processing, image processing, and a range of other applications. For example, if **A** and **B** are vectors, then their *inner product* is defined as $s = \Sigma a_i.b_i$ for $i = 0$ to $n - 1$.

The operation `MLA` **`r`**$_d$`,`r_n`,`r_m`,`r_a is defined as $\mathbf{r_d} = r_a + r_n \times r_m$. This is unusual because it is a four-operand instruction. Suppose we want to form the inner product of two four-component vectors, we can write:

```
        MOV   r0,#4          ;Set up loop count for 4 components
        MOV   r1,#0          ;Clear the inner product
        ADR   r2,VecA        ;r2 points to vector A
        ADR   r3,VecB        ;r3 points to vector B
Next    LDR   r4,[r2],#4     ;Repeat: Read an element from vector A
        LDR   r5,[r3],#4     ;        Read an element from vector B
        MLA   r1,r4,r5,r1    ;        Multiply a pair of components and add to the total
        SUBS  r0,r0,#1       ;        Decrement loop counter
        BNE   Next           ;Repeat until all done
```

This code is very similar to that we used before, except that we have two pointers, one to each of the vectors. As an exercise, convert this into a program and run it on the Keil simulator. Provide your own data (by means of a `DCD` directive and debug the program. Ensure that the result is correct by evaluating it yourself and comparing it with the result from the simulator.

Division Most members of the ARM family have very few division instructions. In fact, none at all. If you wish to perform division you have to write a routine to perform the division using other operations. Fortunately, division is a surprisingly infrequent operation.

COMPARE INSTRUCTIONS

High-level language provide conditional constructs of the form

```
if (x == y) {a = b * c};
```

We examine how these constructs are implemented later. At this stage we are interested in the comparison part of the above construct, `(x == y)`, that tests two variables for equality. We can also test for greater than or less than. The operation that performs the test is called *comparison*.

The ARM processor provides a compare instruction `CMP` **`r0`**`,r1,` that evaluates `[r0] - [r1]` and updates the bits of the bits in the condition code register accordingly, Consider the examples,

r0	r1	Operation	Processor status flags
10101010	10101010	CMP r0,r1	Z = 1, C = 1, N = 0, V = 0
10101010	00000000	CMP r0,r1	Z = 0, C = 1, N = 1, V = 0
10101010	11000001	CMP r0,r1	Z = 0, C = 0, N = 1, V = 0
10101010	01000001	CMP r0,r1	Z = 0, C = 1, N = 0, V = 1
01101010	10101010	CMP r0,r1	Z = 0, C = 0, N = 1, V = 1

A compare instruction is inevitably followed by a branch instruction that chooses one of two courses of action depending only on the outcome of the comparison. Here we demonstrate a compare followed by a branch.

Consider the high-level construct `if (x == 5) {x = x + 10};`

We can write the following fragment of code.

```
      LDR  r1,[r0]     ;get X in r1 (we assume that r0 is pointing at X in memory)
      CMP  r1,#5       ;is X == 5?
      BNE  Exit        ;if not equal then go to 'exit'
      ADD  r1,r1,#10   ;else add 10 to X
      STR  r1,[r0]     ;restore X to memory
Exit                   ;
```

In this example the branch instruction `BNE Exit` forces a branch (jump) to the line labeled by Exit if the outcome of the compare operation yields not zero.

LOGICAL INSTRUCTIONS

Logical operations allow you to directly manipulate the individual bits of a word. When a logical operation is applied to two 32-bit values, the logical operation is applied (in parallel) to each of the 32 *pairs* of bits; for example, a logical AND between words **A** and **B** would perform $c_i = a_i \cdot b_i$ for all values of bit i.

Mnemonic	Operation	Definition	Example
`AND r2,r1,r0`	Logical AND	[r2] ← [r1] · [r0]	11110000 AND 10101010 = 10100000
`ORR r2,r1,r0`	Logical OR	[r2] ← [r1] + [r0]	11110000 OR 10101010 = 11111010
`EOR r2,r1,r0`	Exclusive OR	[r2] ← [r1] ⊕ [r0]	11110000 EOR 10101010 = 01011010
`NOT r2,r1`	Logical NOT	[r2] ← [r1]	11110000 = 00001111
`MVN r2,r1`	Move negated	[r2] ← [r1]	11110000 = 00001111
`BIC r2,r1,r0`	Logical AND NOT	[r2] ← [r1] · [r0]	11110000 AND 10101010 = 01010000

The AND operation is *dyadic* and is applied to two source operands. Bit i of the source is ANDed with bit i of the destination and the result is stored in bit i of the destination. If [r1] = 11001010_2, the operation `AND r1,#2_11110000` results in [r1] = 11000000_2. Remember that the symbol # indicates a literal or actual operand, and the prefix 2_ indicates a binary value.

The AND operation *masks* the bits of a word. If you AND bit x with bit y, the result is 0 if $y = 0$, and x if $y = 1$. A typical application of the AND instruction is to strip the parity bit off an ASCII-encoded character. That is,

```
      AND  r2,r1,#2_01111111
```

clears bit 7 of r1 to zero, and leaves bits 0 to 6 unchanged.

The OR operation is used to set one or more bits of a word to 1. ORing a bit with 0 has no effect, and ORing the bit with 1 sets it. For example, if [r1] = 11001010_2, the operation

```
      ORR  r2,r1,#2_11110000
```

results in [r2] = 11111010_2.

The exclusive OR, EOR, operation is used to toggle (i.e., invert) one or more bits of a word. EORing a bit with 0 has no effect, and EORing it with 1 inverts it. For example, if [r1] = 11001010_2, the operation

```
      EOR r2,r1,#2_11110000
```

results in [r1] = 00111010_2.

By using the NOT, AND, OR, and EOR instructions, you can perform any logical operations on a word. Suppose you wish the clear bits 0, 1, and 2, set bits 3, 4, and 5, and toggle bits 6 and 7 of the byte in r0. You could write:

```
AND   r2,r1,#2_11111000   ;Clear bits 0, 1, and 2
ORR   r2,r1,#2_00111000   ;Set bits 3, 4, and 5
EOR   r2,r1,#2_11000000   ;Toggle bits 6 and 7
```

If [r1] initially contains 01010101_2, its final contents will be 10111000_2. We will look at a more practical application of bit manipulation after we have covered branch operations in a little more detail.

ARM processors lack a `NOT` instruction that takes the logical complement of a word. However, the `MVN`, move negated instruction inverts the bits of the data being moved, so that `MVN r1,r1` is the same as `NOT r1`.

ARM processors have a *bit clear instruction*, `BIC`, that performs a combined AND with a negation. The effect of a `BIC` is to AND the first operand with the negated second operand; that is, if the operands are *A* and *B*, then $C = A \cdot \overline{B}$. This instruction is used as a mask to selectively clear bits; for example, the mask word 00001111, can be used to clear the four lower-order bits of the source operand. Consider,

```
BIC   r2,r1,#2_00001111   ;If r1 contains 00111010 the value of r2 is 00110000
```

SHIFT INSTRUCTIONS

A shift operation moves a group of bits one or more places left or right as the table below demonstrates.

Source	After shift left	After shift right
00110011	01100110	00011001
11110011	11100110	01111001
10000001	00000010	01000000

Shift operations are used to multiply or divide by a power of 2, rearrange the bits of a word, and access bits in a specific location of a word. Suppose 11001010_2 is shifted one place right. A logical shift right operation introduces a 0 into the leftmost bit position vacated by the shift, and the new value is $\mathbf{0}1100101_2$.

Although there are only two shift directions, left and right, there are several variations on the basic shift operation, depending on whether we are treating the value being shifted as an integer or a signed value, and whether we include the carry bit in the shifting.

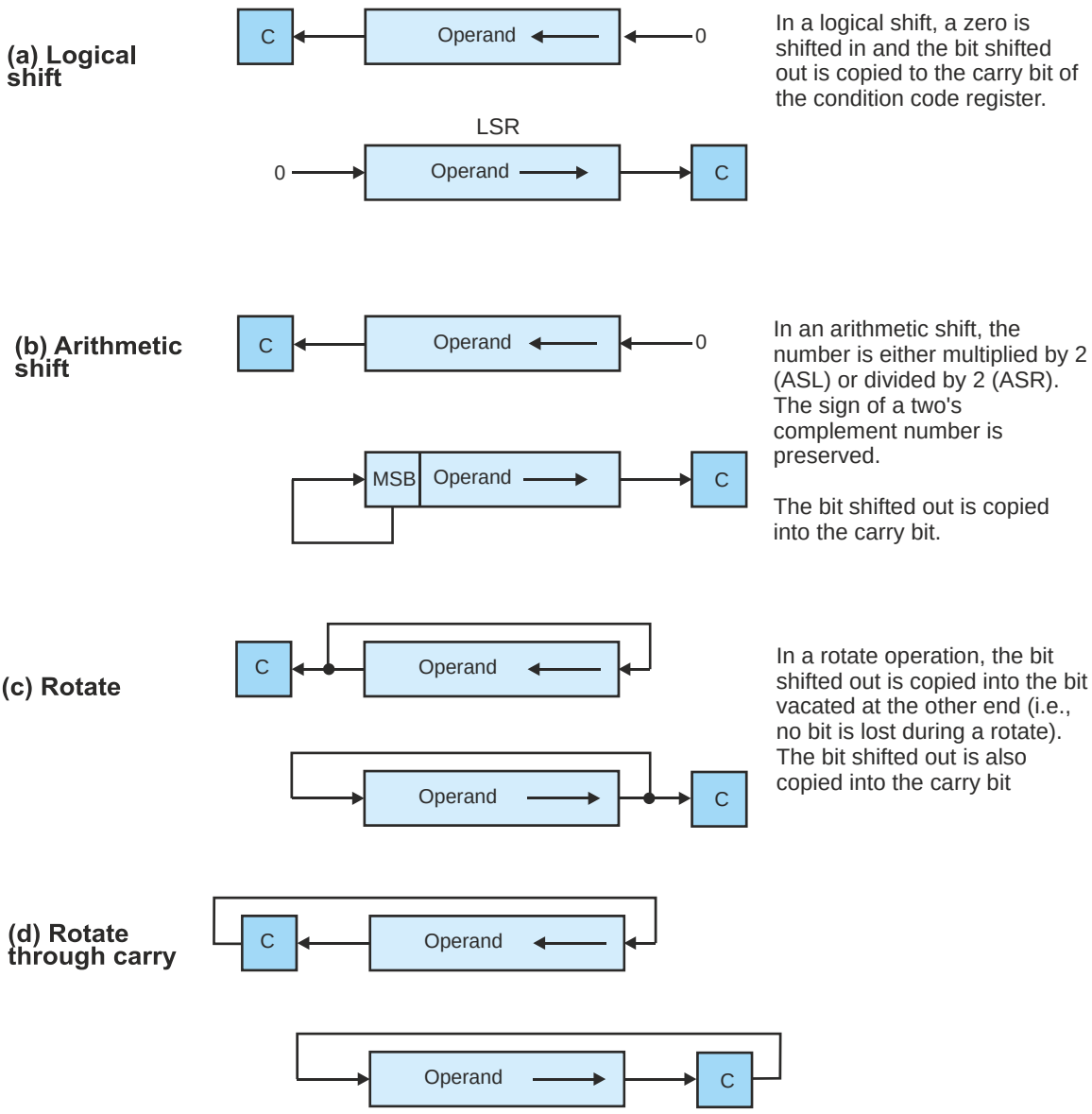
All microprocessors have a set of shift operations that move the bits of a word one or more places left or right. However, the ARM processor is unique because it doesn't have an *explicit* shift operation. Instead, shift operations are incorporated in all data processing operations as an option. The second operand can be shifted before it takes part in an operation.

THE FOUR CLASSES OF SHIFT INSTRUCTION

Arithmetic shifts treat the data shifted as a signed two's complement value. The sign-bit is propagated by an arithmetic shift right. The number 11001010_2 = -54 is negative, and an `ASR` gives $\mathbf{1}1100101_2$ (i.e., -27).

When a word is shifted right arithmetically, the old least-significant bit is copied into the carry flag bit. An arithmetic shift left is equivalent to multiplication by 2, and an arithmetic shift right is equivalent to division by 2.

The number of bits to be shifted can be a *constant* defined in the program and the shift instruction always executes the same number of shifts. Some computers let you specify the number of bits to be shifted as the contents of a register. This allows you to implement *dynamic* shifts because you can change the contents of the register that specifies the number of shifts. The following figure graphically illustrates the various forms of shift.



A circular shift operation treats the data being shifted as a ring with the most-significant bit adjacent to the least-significant bit. Circular shifts result in the most-significant bit being shifted into the least-significant bit position (left shift), or vice versa for a right shift. No data is lost during a circular shift. Consider the following examples.

Shift type	Before circular shift	After circular shift
Rotate left, ROL	11001110	10011101
Rotate right, ROR	11001110	01100111

The last type of shift operation is called *rotate through carry*. The carry bit is treated as part of the word to be shifted. A circular shift is performed with the old carry bit being shifted into the register, and the bit lost from the register being shifted into the carry bit. Suppose that the carry bit is currently 1 and that the 8-bit value 11110000_2 is to be shifted one place right through carry. The final result is 11111000_2 and the carry bit is 0.

The ARM processor's shift options are:

`LSL #n` The operand is shifted left by $0 \leq n \leq 31$ places. The vacated bits at the least-significant end of the operand are filled with zeros.

`LSR #n` The operand is shifted right by $1 \leq n \leq 32$ places. The vacated bits at the most-significant end of the operand are filled with zeros.

`ASR #n` The operand is shifted right by $1 \leq n \leq 32$ places. The vacated bits at the most-significant end of the operand are filled with zeros if the original operand was positive, or with 1s if it was negative (i.e., the sign-bit is replicated). This divides a number by 2 for each place shifted.

`ROR #n` The operand is rotated right by $1 \leq n \leq 31$ places. The bit shifted out of the least-significant end is copied into the most-significant end of the operand. This shift preserves all bits.

`RRX` The operand is rotated right by one bit. The bit shifted out of the least-significant end of the operand is shifted into the C-bit. The old value of the C-bit is copied into the most-significant end of the operand; that is, shifting takes place over 33 bits (i.e., the operand plus the C-bit).

Note that there should be *ten* versions if all possibilities are included (2 directions × 5 modes). However, the missing operations can be synthesized from the existing operations; for example, an arithmetic shift left is identical to a logical shift left, and a rotate left can be achieved by rotating right (e.g., one shift left is the same as 31 shifts right).

If you want to perform a simple shift, you can apply it to a `MOV` instruction; for example,

```
MOV    r2,r1, LSL #4        ; this will perform a 4-bit logical shift left
                            ; on the contents of r1 and copy the result to r2.
```

Let's look at another example. Consider the addition operation.

```
ADD    r2,r1,r0, LSL #2     ; this will perform a 2-bit logical shift left on the contents
                            ; of r0, add the result to r1, and put the sum in r2; that is
                            ; [r2] ← [r1] + [r0] × 4
```

In this case, r0 is shifted left twice which is equivalent to multiplying by 4. Consequently, this forms the sum of r1 plus 4 r0. Such an operation is often used in calculating the value of addresses in array accesses and pointer manipulation.

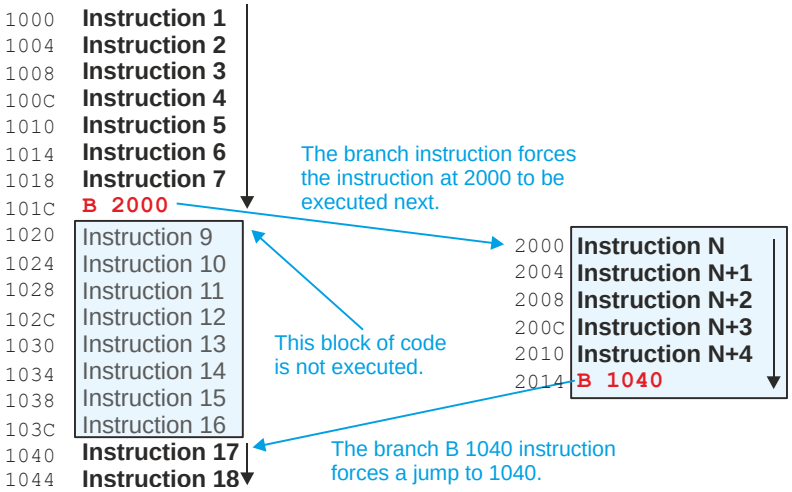
BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS

A *branch instruction* modifies the flow of control and causes the program to continue execution at the *target address* specified by the branch. The simplest branch instruction is the *unconditional* branch instruction, `B target`, that always forces a jump to the instruction at the target address. In the following fragment of code, the '`B Here`' instruction forces the ARM processor to execute next the instruction on the line with the labeled by `Here`.

```
        B       Here            ; jump to the line that begins 'Here'
        .
        .
        .
Here    ADD     r1,r1,r0
```

In the next example, execution continues sequentially from instruction 1 to instruction 8, which is `B 2000` (branch to instruction *N* at location 2000_{16}). The address of the first instruction is 1000_{16} and each instruction takes 4 bytes. Execution then continues with the instruction at location *N*. Instruction *N* + 5 is `B 1040` (branch to instruction 17 at location 1040_{16}.) and a change of flow takes place again. Note that in reality, the ARM processor's branch instruction does not use an absolute

address but a relative address giving the distance to branch from the current instruction. We've used an absolute address here for convenient. In practice, the programmer uses a symbolic name (the line to branch to) and the assembler works out the appropriate relative offset.



We have already used a simple unconditional branch in ARM programs when we wrote `Here B Here` when we wanted to force the computer into an infinite loop at the end of a program.

The most important feature of any computer is its ability to implement *conditional behavior* by carrying out a test and then branching on the result of the text. The next example demonstrates the flow of control with a conditional branch.

Let's look at this conditional behavior in high-level language. Consider the following example of the high-level construct

```
if (x == 3) then y = 4.
```

We can translate this construct into the following ARM processor code.

```
      CMP  r1,#3        ;(x == 3)?
      BNE  exit         ;if x is not 3 then leave
      MOV  r2,#4        ;if x is 3 then y = 4
exit  ...
```

The instruction `CMP r1,#3` compares the contents of register r1 with the literal 3 by evaluating [r1] - 3 and setting the status flags. If the result of the operation is zero, the Z-bit is set to 1. If the result is not zero (i.e., r1 does not contain 3), the Z-bit is set to 0.

The key instruction is `BNE exit`, which means '*branch on not zero to the instruction labeled exit*'. The effect of this instruction is to test the Z-bit of the status flags and then branch to the instruction with the label 'exit' if Z = 0 (i.e., r1 is not 3). If r1 is 3, Z = 1, the branch is not taken and the `MOV r2,#4` instruction is executed.

ARM processors provide 16 branch instructions of the form `Bcc` where the suffix cc defines the branch condition. Some of these 16 conditions are described below.

Mnemonic	Condition	Flags
BEQ	equal	Z = 1
BNE	not equal (not zero)	Z = 0
BCS/BHS	carry set/higher or same	C = 1
BCC/BLO	carry clear/lower	C = 0
BMI	negative	N = 1
BPL	positive or zero	N = 0
BVS	overflow set	V = 1
BVC	overflow clear	V = 0

CONDITIONAL BRANCH EXAMPLE

Let's look at a simple application of conditional branching. You can implement a loop construct in the following way

```
      MOV  r0,#20          ;load the loop counter r0 with 20
Next  .                    ;body of loop
      .
      .
      SUBS r0,r0,#1        ;decrement loop counter and set status flags
      BNE  Next            ;repeat until loop count = zero
```

Let's look at another example of the use of branching. Suppose we have a number in r0 and we wish to set r1 to 1 if the number is odd, set r1 to 2 if the number is divisible by 4, and set r2 to 1 if it is greater than 200. This can be expressed as

```
r1 = 0;
r2 = 0;
if (r0 > 200) then r2 = 1
if (r0%2 == 1) then r1 = 1 //%2 is modulus 2
if (r0%4 == 0) then r1 = 2 //%4 is modulus 4
```

We can translate this into ARM processor code as

```
      MOV   r1,#0          ;clear r1
      MOV   r2,#0          ;clear r2
      CMP   r0,#200        ;is r0 > 200
      BLE   Next           ;if not then do next test
      MOV   r2,#1          ;if it is, then set r2 to 1
Next  MOVS  r3,r0,ROR #1   ;dummy rotate right (and update status). R3 is a temp reg
      BCC   Next1          ;if carry clear then try next test
      MOV   r1,#1          ;if set, number odd, then set r1 to 1
      B     Exit           ;and leave this block
Next1 BICS  r3,r0,#0xFFFFFFFC ;clear all bits except 2 least sig and update status
      BNE   Exit           ;if not zero then exit
      MOV   r1,#2          ;if zero, number divisible by 4, then set r1 to 2
Exit  . . .
```

As you can see, the code consists of tests and the actions or branches round actions. Note the way we test for divisibility by 4. The effect of `BICS r3,r0,#0xFFFFFFFC` is to perform a logical AND between the contents of r0 and the logical inverse of the literal, which is 000…11. This operation masks r0 down to the two least-significant bits 000…bb. In order for the number to be divisible by 4, bb must be 00. Therefore, if we test for zero and the result is zero, the number was divisible by 4.

Note that in the testing we end up with some dummy values. In these cases we use r3 as a dummy register.

PREDICATED EXECUTION

The ARM processor is unusual in the sense that it provides a *conditional* (or *predicated*) execution mode that very few other processors support. When an instruction is read from memory, the processor checks its associated condition. If the condition is true, it is executed. If the condition is false, it is simply ignored and the next instruction in sequence dealt with. That is, instruction execution can be squashed.

All ARM processor instructions are conditional. So far, we have ignored this because the default condition is always execute. If you wish to attach an explicit condition, you simply add a condition suffix to the end of an instruction. Exactly the same suffixes used by conditional branches; for example `EQ`. Consider the following example,

```
ADDEQ r0,r1,r2
```

This is a conditional version of the `ADD`. If the Z-bit (zero) is true, this instruction will be executed. Otherwise, it will be ignored. Let's look at the previous example again.

We can translate this into ARM processor code using conditional instructions.

```
MOV   r1,#0             ; r1 = 0
MOV   r2,#0             ; r2 = 0
CMP   r0,#200           ; if (r0 > 200) then r2 = 1
MOVGE r2,#1             ;
MOVS  r3,r0,ROR #1      ; if (r0%2 == 1) then r1 = 1 //%2 is mod 2
MOVCS r1,#1             ;
BICS  r3,r0,#0xFFFFFFFC ; if (r0%4 == 0) then r1 = 2 //%4 is mod 4
MOVEQ r1,#2             ; if zero, number divisible by 4, then set r1 to 2
```

Notice how much more compact the code it. All the branch instructions have gone. We perform a test and then a predicated operation. There's nothing to stop us doing multiple operations; for example,

```
CMP   r1,#123           ; if r1 == 123
ADDEQ r3,r3,#1          ;    r3 = r3 + 1
SUBEQ r4,r4,#5          ;    r4 = r4 + 1
```

In this case, two operations are conditional and they are both predicated on outcome of the test on r1. We can also make tests themselves predicated in order to test compound conditions; for example.

```
if (r0 > 200)&&(r2 == 4) then r2 = 1

   CMP   r0,#200           ; if r0 > 200
   CMPGT r3,r3,#4          ;    if r3 = r3 + 1
   MOVEQ r2,#2             ;       r4 = r4 + 1
```

Here, we do a test (`CMP r0,#200`) and then a second test if the outcome is true. The third instruction is executed only if the previous two tests were true.

BRANCH AND LINK

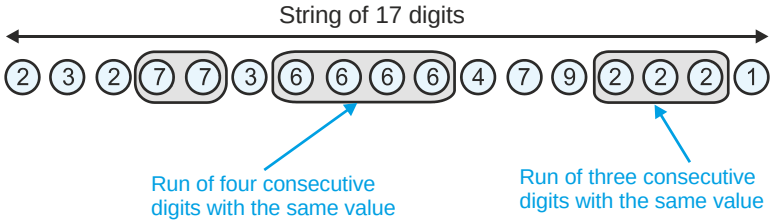
The ARM processor includes a *branch with link* instruction that executes a branch and saves the return address. This allows you to call a subroutine and then return to the calling point. The form of the instruction is `BL target`, where `BL` is the op-code and `target` the address of the point at which execution is to continue. The branch with link instruction stores the return address in the link register r14. Consequently, programmers should not use r14 as a general-purpose register. If you use a second `BL` instruction you will overwrite the previous address in the link register.

Consider the following example.

```
        MOV   r1,#4             ; put parameter in r1
        MOV   r2,#3             ; put second parameter in r2
        BL    TestSub           ; call the subroutine
        . . .                   ; return here
        . . .
TestSub ADD   r3,r1,r2          ; very simple subroutine to do addition
        MOV   PC,lr             ; same as MOV r15,r14 (forces jump back)
```

THE MAXIMUM SEQUENCE COUNTER

For our next example we return to the problem of the sequence counter we introduced in Chapter 1 of Computer Organizatrion and Architecture. Our problem is to take a sequence of digits, one by one, and determine the longest run in a sequence of digits as the following figure demonstrated. The figure below is taken from the text and shows a string of digits where the longest sequence is 4.



The pseudocode we developed to solve this problem is expressed as follows.

```
1.   Read the first digit in the string and call it New_Digit
2.   Set the Current_Run_Value to New_Digit
3.   Set the Current_Run_Length to 1
4.   Set the Max_Run to 1
5.   REPEAT
6.     Read the next digit in the sequence (i.e., read New_Digit)
7.     IF its value is the same as Current_Run_Value
8.           THEN Current_Run_Length = Current_Run_Length + 1
9.           ELSE {Current_Run_Length = 1
10.               Current_Run_Value = New_Digit}
11.    IF Current_Run_Length > Max_Run
12.          THEN Max_Run = Current_Run_Length
13.  UNTIL The last digit is read
```

This code can be converted into ARM assembly language in the following way.

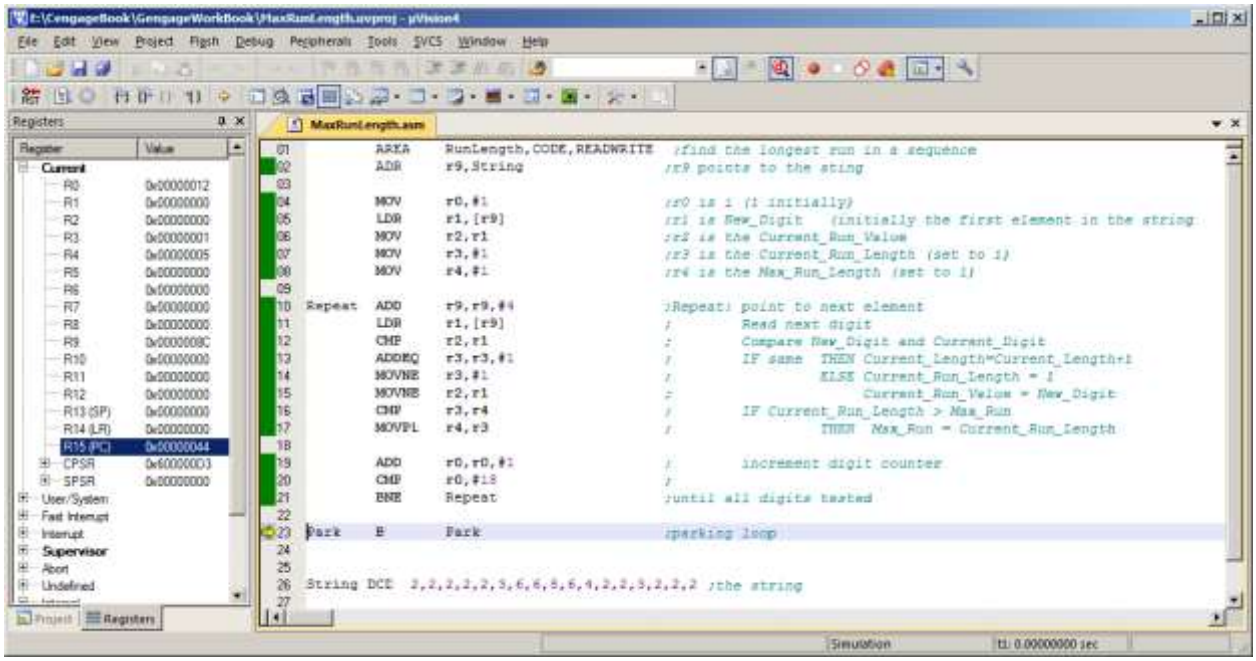
```
        AREA   RunLength,CODE,READWRITE  ;find the longest run in a sequence
        ADR    r9,                       ;r9 points to the sting

        MOV     r0,#1                    ;r0 is i (1 initially)
        LDR     r1,[r9]                  ;r1 is New_Digit   (initially the first element in the string
        MOV     r2,r1                    ;r2 is the Current_Run_Value
        MOV     r3,#1                    ;r3 is the Current_Run_Length (set to 1)
        MOV     r4,#1                    ;r4 is the Max_Run_Length (set to 1)

Repeat  ADD     r9,r9,#4                 ;Repeat: point to next element
        LDR     r1,[r9]                  ;        Read next digit
        CMP     r2,r1                    ;        Compare New_Digit and Current_Digit
        ADDEQ   r3,r3,#1                 ;        IF same THEN Current_Length=Current_Length+1
        MOVNE   r3,#1                    ;                ELSE Current_Run_Length = 1
        MOVNE   r2,r1                    ;                Current_Run_Value = New_Digit
        CMP     r3,r4                    ;        IF Current_Run_Length > Max_Run
        MOVPL   r4,r3                    ;                THEN  Max_Run = Current_Run_Length

        ADD     r0,r0,#1                 ;        increment digit counter
        CMP     r0,#18                   ;
        BNE     Repeat                   ;until all digits tested

Park    B       Park                     ;parking loop
String  DCD     2,2,2,2,2,3,6,6,8,6,4,2,2,3,2,2,2 ;the string
        END
```

The interesting part of this code is in red. Instead of using a conventional test and branch operation (e.g., `CMP r1,r2` followed by `BEQ abc`) we make use of conditional or predicated execution. Consider the code fragment:

```
CMP     r2,r1                   ;       Compare New_Digit and Current_Digit
ADDEQ   r3,r3,#1                ;       IF same THEN Current_Length=Current_Length+1
MOVNE   r3,#1                   ;               ELSE Current_Run_Length = 1
MOVNE   r2,r1                   ;               Current_Run_Value = New_Digit
```

Initially, r2 is compared with r1 which sets the zero and negative flags. The `ADDEQ` instruction is executed if r1 and r2 were equal. The next two instructions are predicated by NE (not equal or not zero). If r1 is not equal to r2 then both these instructions are executed. Both parts of the IF THEN ELSE clause are mutually exclusive and we do not need branch instructions.

The following snapshot shows the execution of the code in the Keil simulator at the end of the program (note that this example uses a different sequence of digits to the one in the figure above). Register r4 contains the length of the longest run which is 5.



THE STACK

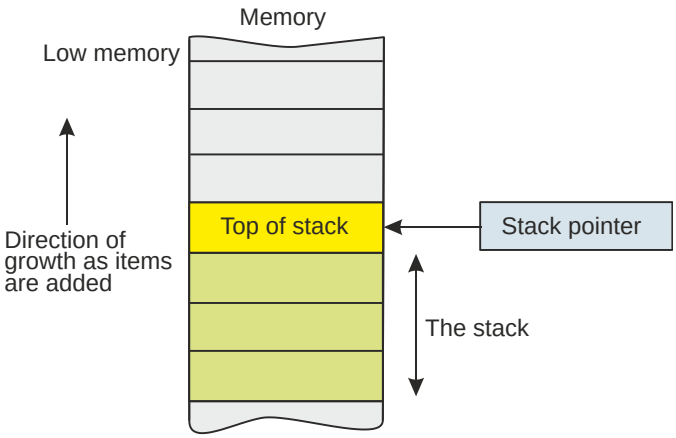
The stack is a *last-in-first-out* (LIFO) data structure. It is a queue with only one end; that is, new items enter at the same point as old items leave. Items leave a stack in the reverse order in which they arrive. A LIFO queue is the same as a stack in conventional English. If you pile books on top of each other and then remove them from the top, it behaves exactly like a stack.

A stack can be used in many ways. However, we are interested in the following three applications of the stack:

1. Storing subroutine return addresses
2. Passing parameters from a program to a subroutine
3. Providing temporary storage (local workspace) in a subroutine.

The following diagram illustrates one possible stack structure (there are four variations that are determined by the way in which the stack grows). The stack can be located in any region of memory. This stack grows up t***owards low addresses***; that is, the address of an item at the top of the stack is lower than the address of an item at the bottom of the stack.

Address register r13 is used as the *stack pointer* by convention. It should not be used for any other purpose. When an item enters the stack it is said to be ***pushed*** on the stack. When an item leaves the stack, it is said to be ***pulled*** off the stack.



In this stack, the stack pointer points to the item at the top of the stack. This item is the last element pushed on the stack and will be the first item pulled off the stack (hence the term LIFO or *last-in first-out*).

Suppose you have an item in register r0 and wish to push it on the stack. Since the stack pointer points at the top of the stack, the pointer must be moved up (i.e., decremented) before the item is moved to the location now pointed at. We can do this by

```
SUB   r13,r13,#4  ;decrement the stack pointer to move it up
STR  r0,[r13]     ;now put the item on the stack
```

Fortunately, you can combine these two operations together by using the ARM processor's auto-decrementing addressing mode

```
STR   r0,[r13,#-4]!
```

This instruction stores the contents of r0 at an address -4 bytes from r13; that is, 4 bytes above it. The contents of r13 are then decremented by 4.

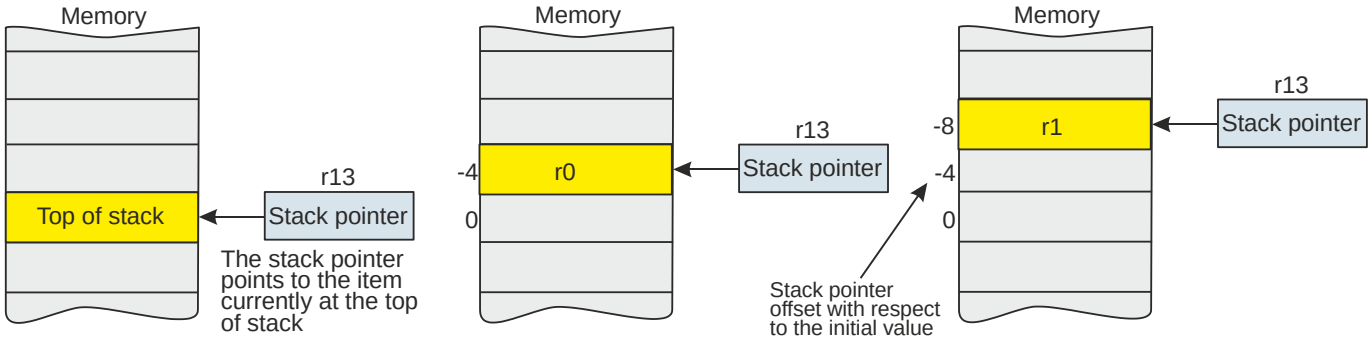
To pull (pop) a word off the stack, we perform the inverse operation; that is, we read the item currently at the top of the stack pointed at by r13 and then increment r13 to point to the new item at the top of the stack. We can do this by:

```
LDR   r0,[r13]        ;read the item at the top of the stack
ADD   r13,r13,#4      ;increment the stack pointer
```

Once again, you can combine these two operations together by using the ARM processor's auto-incrementing addressing mode

```
LDR   r0,[r13],#4
```

The next figure shows the state of the stack after pushing r0 and then r1 on the stack by executing `STR r0,[r13,#-4]!` and `STR r0,[r13,#-4]!`. Note that we've used the sp synonym for r13.



(a) Initial stack

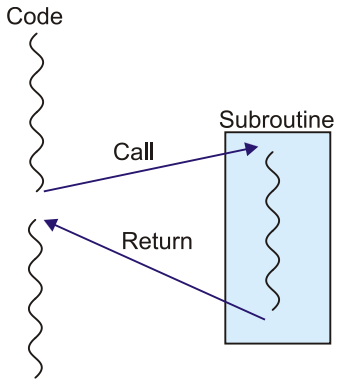
(b) Stack after `STR r0,[sp,#-4]!`

(c) Stack after `STR r1,[sp,#-4]!`

The next step is to look at the subroutine and demonstrate how subroutines use the stack to handle return addresses, pass parameters, and create space for local variables required by a subroutine during its life.

SUBROUTINE CALLS

A subroutine is a piece of code that is called, executed and a return is made to the calling point. Subroutines are very important because they implement the *function* or *procedure* at the high-level language level. At this point, we are interested only in the principle of the subroutine call and return.



This figure demonstrates the subroutine call. Code is executed sequentially until a subroutine call is encountered. The current place in the code sequence is saved and control is then transferred to the subroutine; that is, the first instruction in the subroutine is executed and the processor continues executing instructions in the subroutine until a *return* instruction is encountered. Then, control is transferred back to the point immediately after the subroutine call by retrieving the saved return address.

Consider a simple subroutine called `ABC` that calculates the value of $2x^2$ (where x is a 16-bit value passed in r0). This subroutine is called by the instruction `BL ABC` (branch to subroutine) that jumps and saves a copy of the return address in the link register, r14. A return back to the calling point is made by copying the return address from the link register to the program counter, r15. Note that typical CISC processors like the Intel IA32 family automatically use the stack to store the return address and employ an `RTS` (return from subroutine) instruction to return to the calling point.

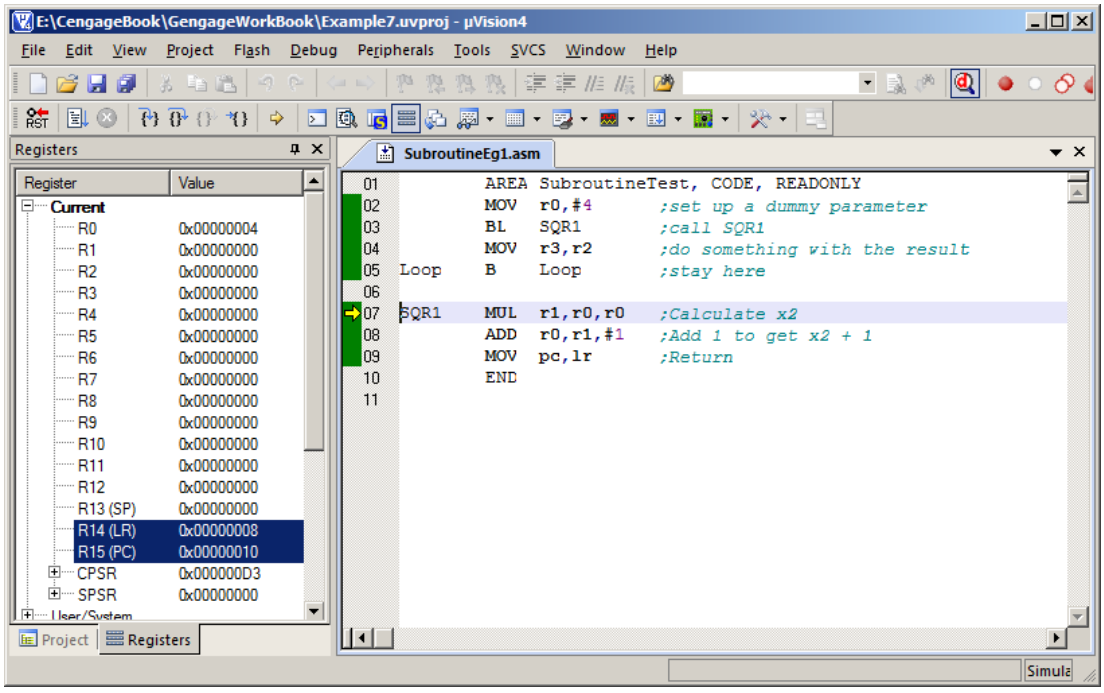
A typical ARM processor call and return routine is:

```
        BL    XYZ          ;call XYZ
        …                  ;return here


XYZ                        ;The subroutine
        …                  ;
        MOV   pc,lr        ;copy saved address to PC to return
```

Let's create a simple example. Consider a subroutine that calculates the value of $x^2 + 1$, where x is in register r0 and the result is returned in r0.

```
        MOV   r0,#4        ;set up a dummy parameter
        BL    SQR1         ;call SQR1
        MOV   r3,r2        ;do something with the result
Loop    B     Loop         ;stay here

SQR1    MUL   r1,r0,r0     ;Calculate x2 (note – can't use source register as destination)
        ADD   r0,r1,#1     ;Add 1 to get x2 + 1
        MOV   pc,lr        ;Return
```

The following snapshots show the state of this program at the point the subroutine has been called. Note that r14 (the link register) contains the return address 0x00000008 (this is the third instruction `MOV r3,r2`)



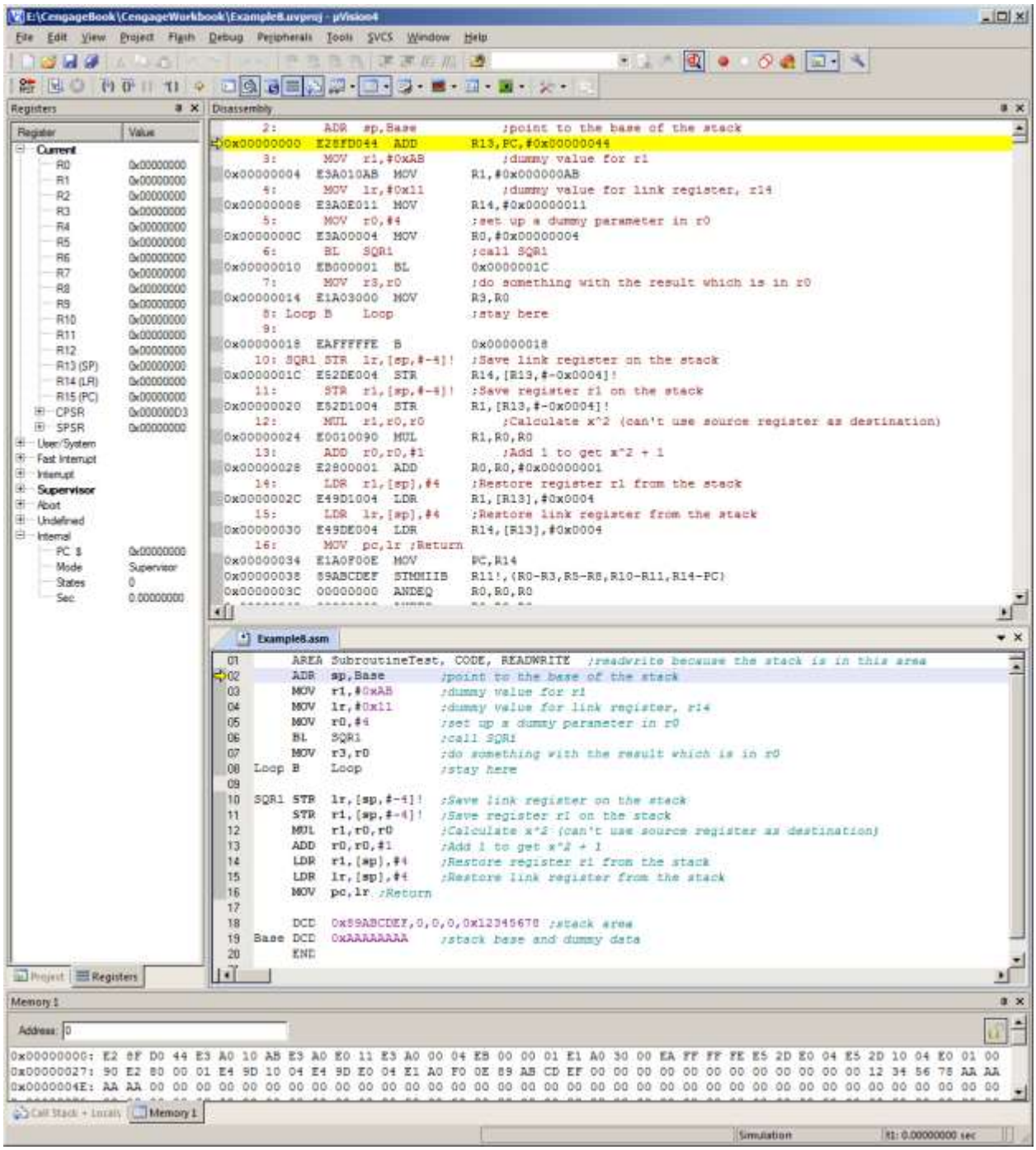
This subroutine mechanism has two flaws. First, because the multiply instruction can't use the same register for source and destination, we have to use r1 to receive the result. This means that r1 is used by the subroutine and any data in it will be overwritten. Second, this subroutine can't call another subroutine or be reused because the return address is in r13, the link register, and another subroutine call would overwrite it.

One way of solving these problems is to save the link register at the beginning of a subroutine and then restore it at the end. Where should it be saved? The stack is the best place to save registers because the stack grows upward, and all data is placed on top and not removed or overwritten as new data is added. We can also save other registers on the stack. We can now rewrite the previous subroutine as:

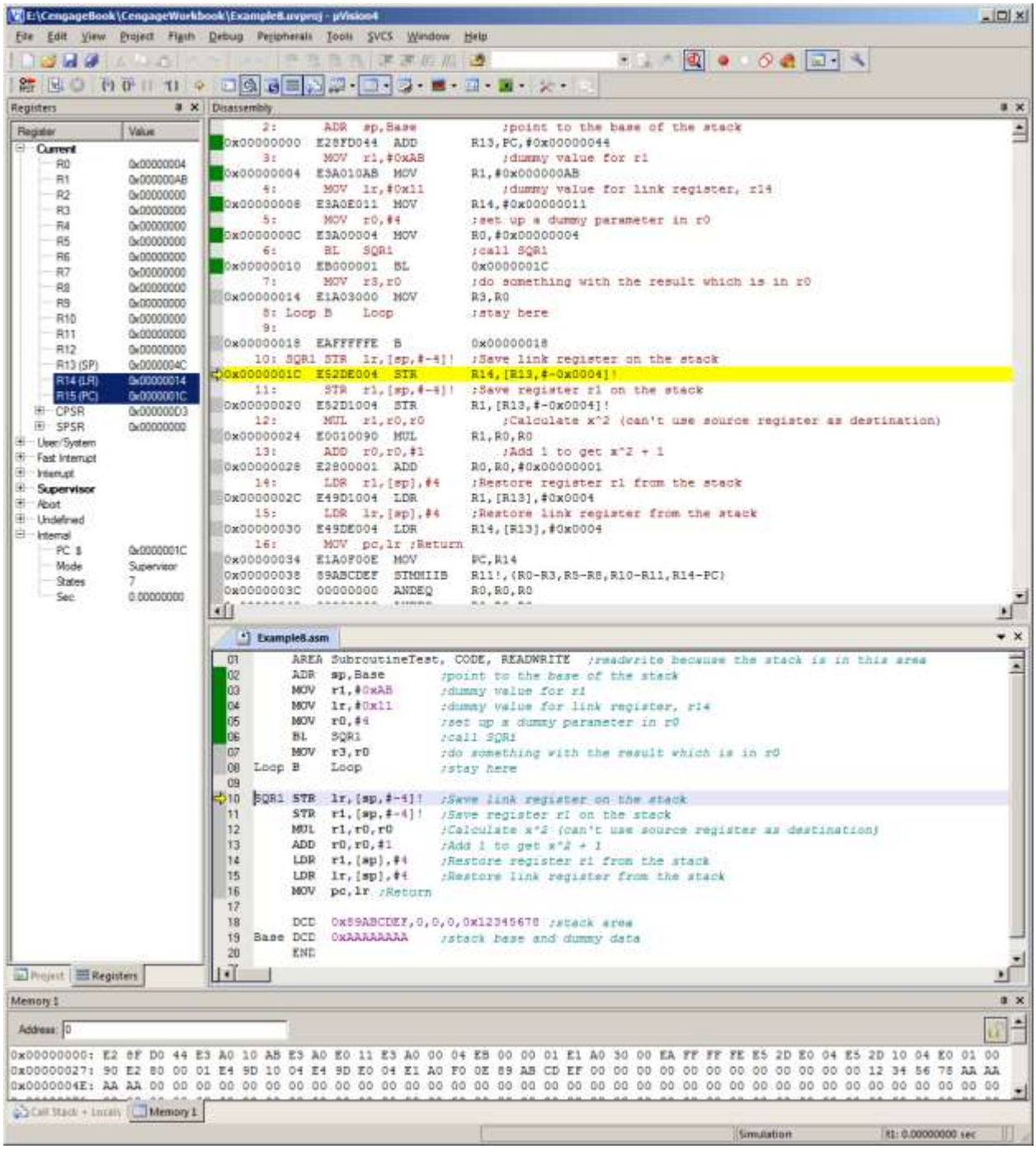
```
SQR1   STR   lr,[sp,#-4]!      ;Save link register on the stack
       STR   r1,[sp,#-4]!      ;Save register r1 on the stack
       MUL   r1,r0,r0          ;Calculate x^2 (remember that we can't use source register as destination with MUL)
       ADD   r0,r1,#1          ;Add 1 to get x^2 + 1
       LDR   r1,[sp],#4        ;Restore register r1 from the stack
       LDR   lr,[sp],#4        ;Restore link register from  the stack
       MOV   pc,lr             ;Return
```

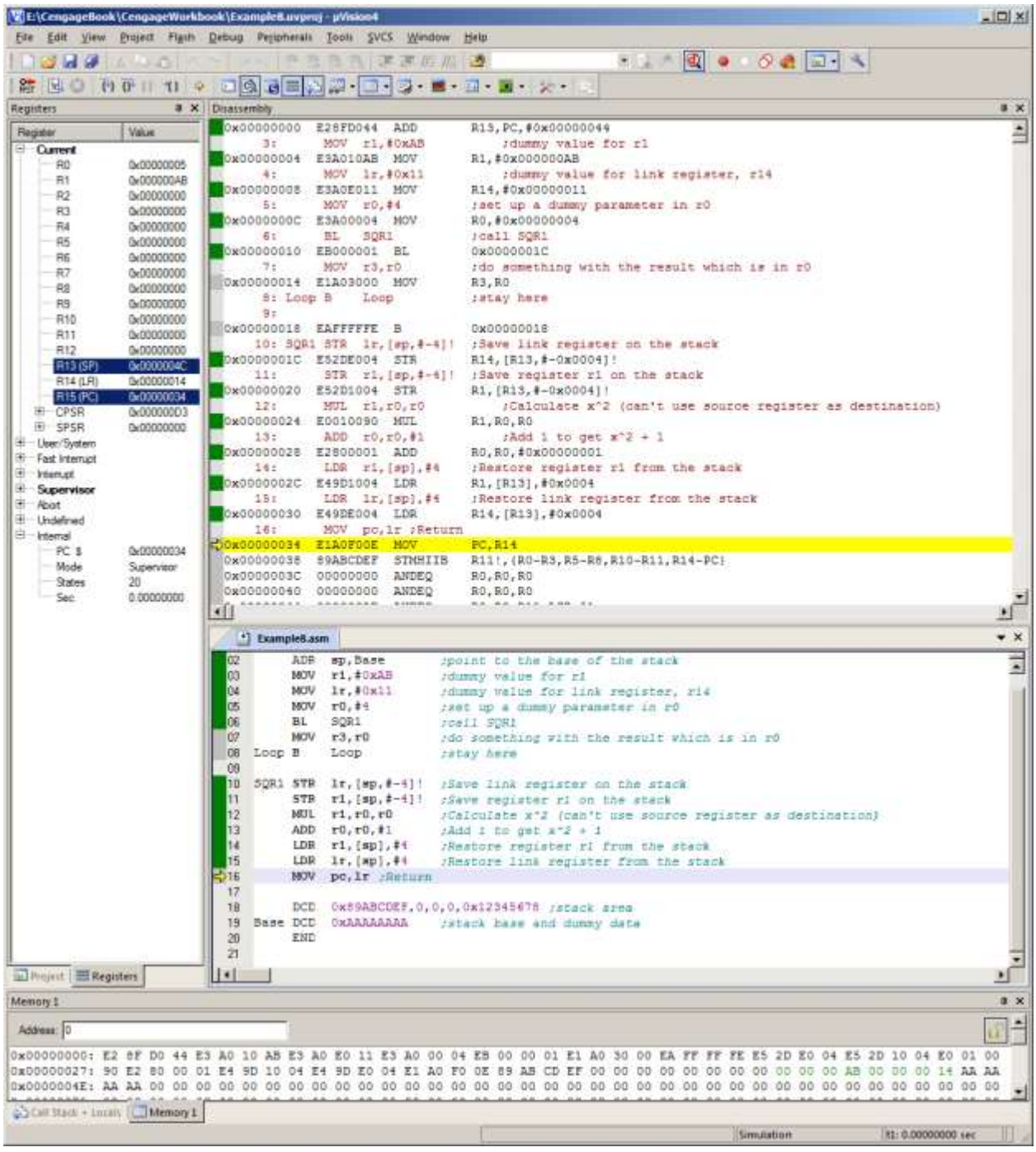
The detailed code is as follows. Note the markers.

```
       AREA SubroutineTest, CODE, READWRITE  ;make readwrite because we have the stack in this area
       ADR  sp,Base          ;point to the base of the stack
       MOV  r1,#0xAB         ;dummy value for r1
       MOV  lr,#0x11         ;dummy value for link register, r14
       MOV  r0,#4            ;set up a dummy parameter in r0
       BL   SQR1             ;call SQR1
       MOV  r3,r0            ;do something with the result which is in r0
Loop   B    Loop             ;stay here

SQR1   STR  lr,[sp,#-4]!     ;Save link register on the stack
       STR  r1,[sp,#-4]!     ;Save register r1 on the stack
       MUL  r1,r0,r0         ;Calculate x^2 (note - can't use source register as destination)
       ADD  r0,r0,#1         ;Add 1 to get x^2 + 1
       LDR  r1,[sp],#4       ;Restore register r1 on the stack
       LDR  lr,[sp],#4       ;Restore link register on the stack
       MOV  pc,lr            ;Return

       DCD  0x89ABCDEF,0,0,0,0x12345678 ;stack area
Base   DCD  0xAAAAAAAA       ;stack base and dummy data
       END
```

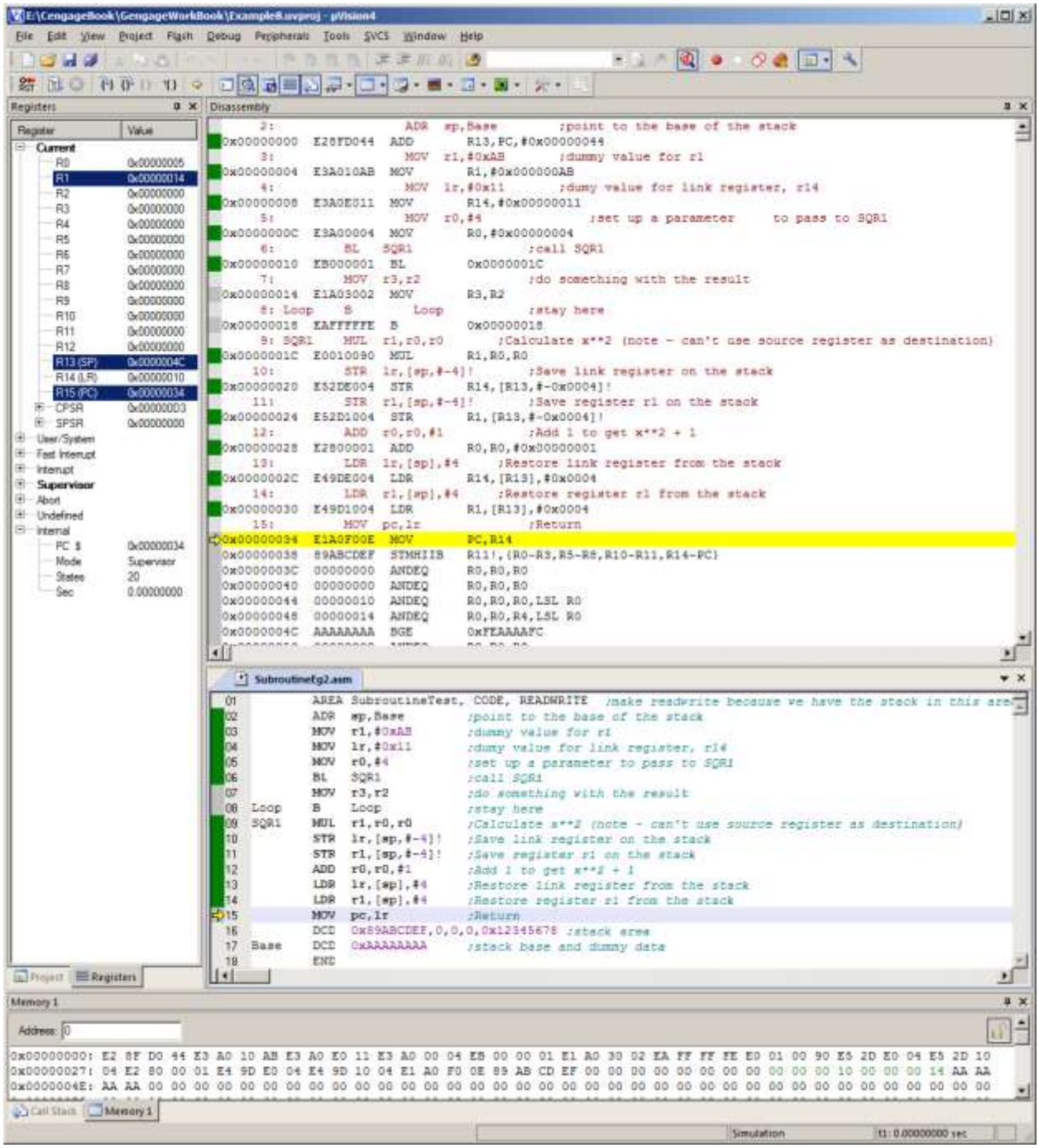


The next snapshot shows the situation at the point the subroutine `SQR1` is called.





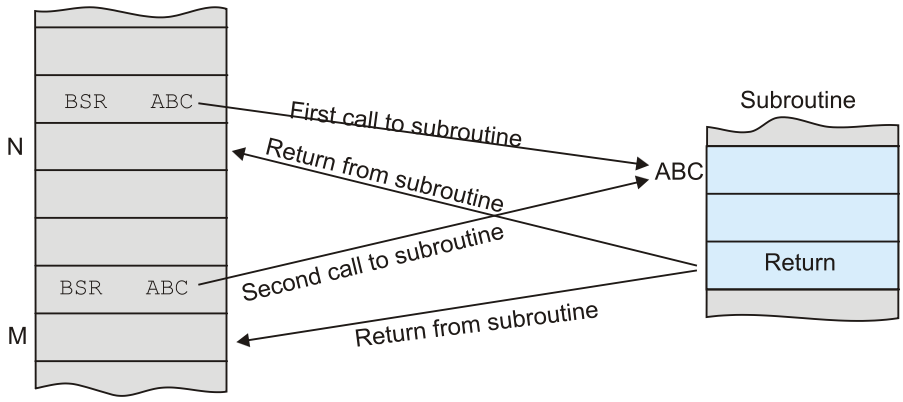
The final screen shows the situation immediately before the return that is made by copying the link register to the PC.



MULTIPLE SUBROUTINE CALLS

We next extend the example by demonstrating a multiple call. Here, we've used a typical CISC instruction `BSR ABC` to implement the call. A branch to subroutine instruction automatically saves the return address on the stack (unlike the ARM that saves it in the link register). Because subroutine return addresses are stacked, you can call subroutines from within a subroutine (nesting). In the following figure, the main body of the code calls subroutine ABC. At the end of the subroutine, a return instruction makes a return to the point immediately following the call. In this example, the subroutine is called from two different places and yet a return is made to the correct point in each case.

In order to achieve this objective with the ARM processor, we can use the ARM's *block move instructions* that copy multiple registers to and from the stack.



USING BLOCK MOVE INSTRUCTIONS

In practice, programmers don't use the simple code we've written above to save registers on the stack and to retrieve them. Traditionally, RISC processors provide simple, regular instructions that take one cycle (in principle) to execute. The ARM processor family is different because it has a set of instructions that perform multiple actions. These instructions are called block move operations and are able to copy the contents of several registers to or from memory.

When you first encounter ARM's block move instruction you are likely to be overwhelmed by their apparent complexity. In fact, they are not complex; it's just that there are several options to choose from. So, to keep things simple, we will just discuss one option here. These two block move instructions we are going to use are:

```
STMFD       ;Push a group of registers on the stack
LDMFD       ;Pull a group of registers off the stack
```

Couldn't be simpler. The `STMFD` mnemonic stands for *store multiple registers full descending*. The expression "full descending" tells you two things. The term *full* means that the stack points at the top item on the stack. The term *descending* tells you that the stack grows towards lower addresses as items are pushed. This is exactly the same type of stack we've already described. When we wish to store data on the system stack, we have to use r13 which we can write as sp. We also have to write sp! or r13! to tell the assembler that we want to use automatic indexing. Finally, we have to create a register list by enclosing the registers to be moved between braces; that is, {r0,r1,r7} specifies registers r0, r1 and r7, We can use a dash to denote a sequence of registers; for example {r0-r5,r8,r11} indicates the register list r0, r1, r2, r3, r4, r5, r8, and r11.

To push r0 and r1 on the stack, we write `STMFD sp!,{r0,r1}`. Similarly, to pull r1 and r2 off the stack, we write `LDMFD sp!,{r0,r1}`

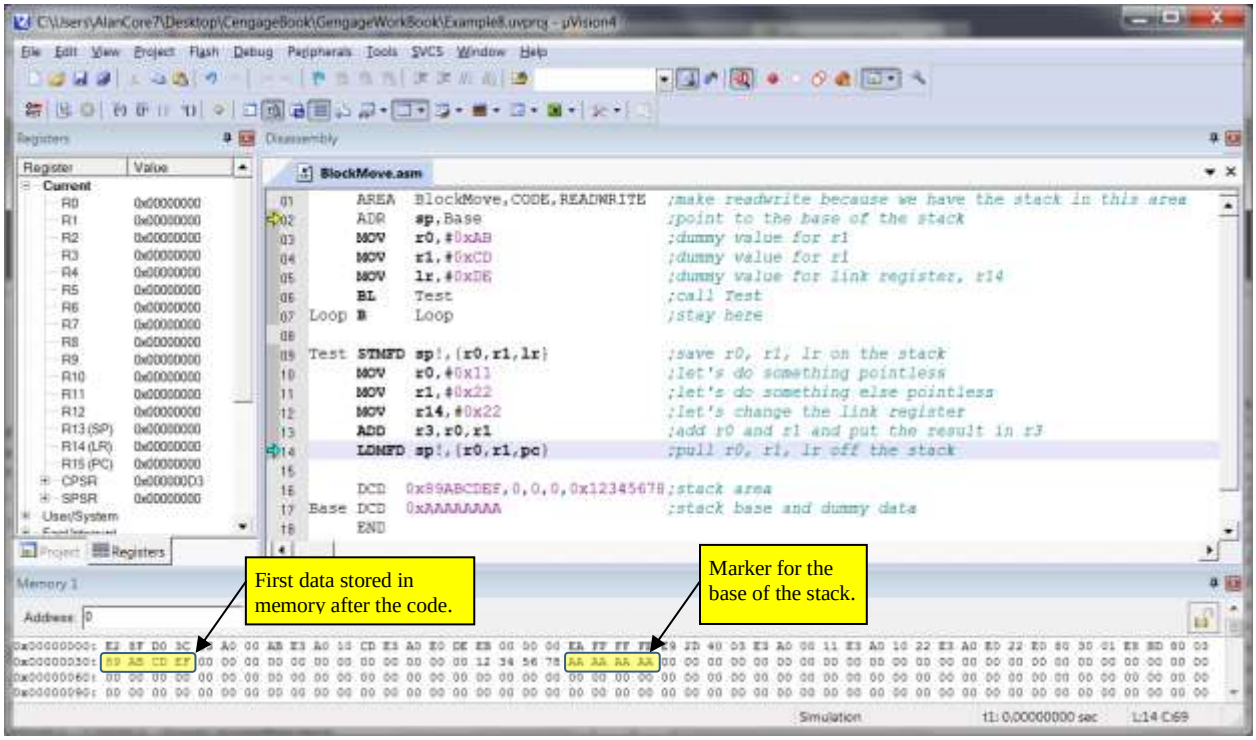
Suppose we use a different register list for the store and retrieve multiple register operations. What would happen if we execute `STMFD sp!,{r0,r1}` then `LDMFD sp!,{r5,r7}`? Well, we push r0 and r1 and then we pull their values off the stack and transfer them to registers r5 and r7, In other words, we've copied one group of registers into another group.

Let's demonstrate these block move instructions in action.

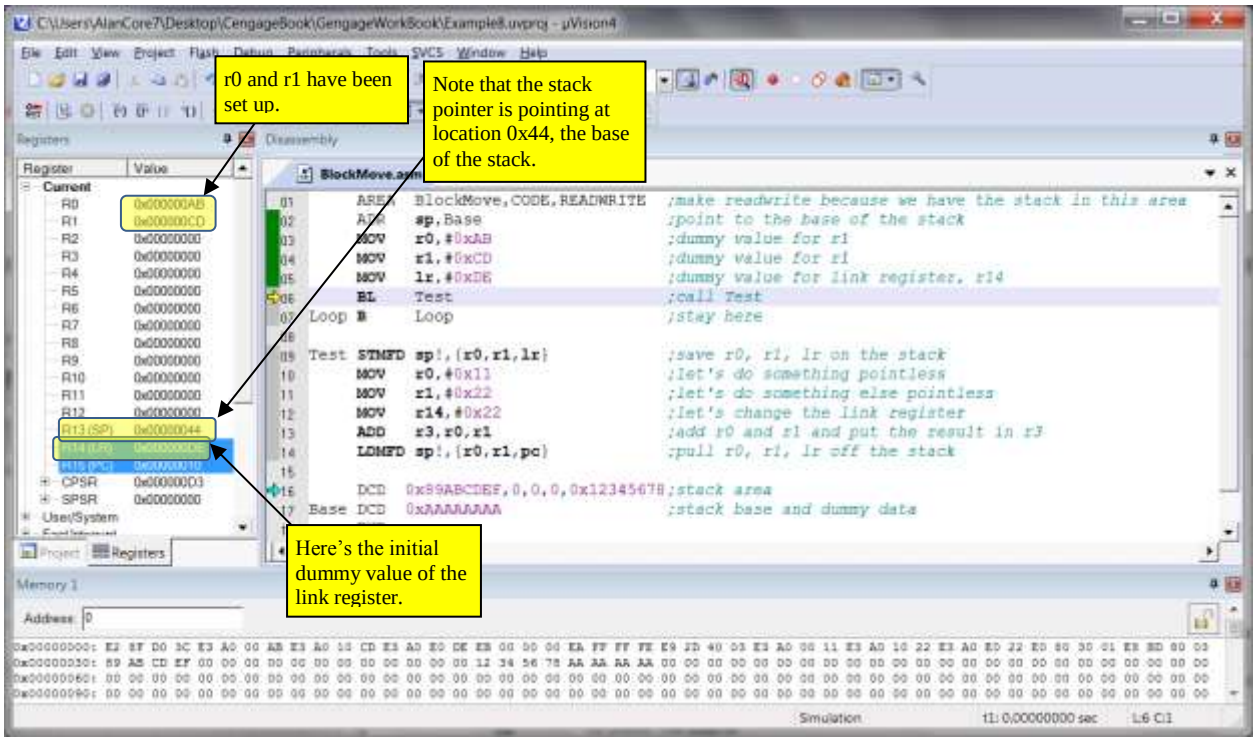
```
      AREA   BlockMove,CODE,READWRITE   ;make readwrite because we have the stack in this area
      ADR    sp,Base                    ;point to the base of the stack
      MOV    r0,#0xAB                   ;dummy value for r0
      MOV    r1,#0xCD                   ;dummy value for r1
      MOV    lr,#0xDE                   ;dummy value for link register, r14
      BL     SQR1                       ;call Test
Loop  B      Loop                       ;stay here

Test  STMFD  sp!,{r0,r1,lr}             ;save r0, r1, lr on the stack
      MOV    r0,#0x11                   ;let's do something pointless
      MOV    r1,#0x22                   ;let's do something pointless
      MOV    r14,#0x22                  ;let's change the link register
      ADD    r3,r0,r1                   ;ladd r0 and  r1 and put the result in r3
      LDMFD  sp!,{r0,r1,pc}             ;pull r0, r1, lr off the stack

      DCD   0x89ABCDEF,0,0,0,0x12345678 ;stack area
Base  DCD   0xAAAAAAAA                  ;stack base and dummy data
      END
```

This code is built on the previous example and uses the same basic format and stack structure. We use markers in memory like 0xAAAAAAAA and register values like 0xAB so that we can see the data in memory when we come to debug the code. We're going to run this example and examine the state of the registers and memory at three points.

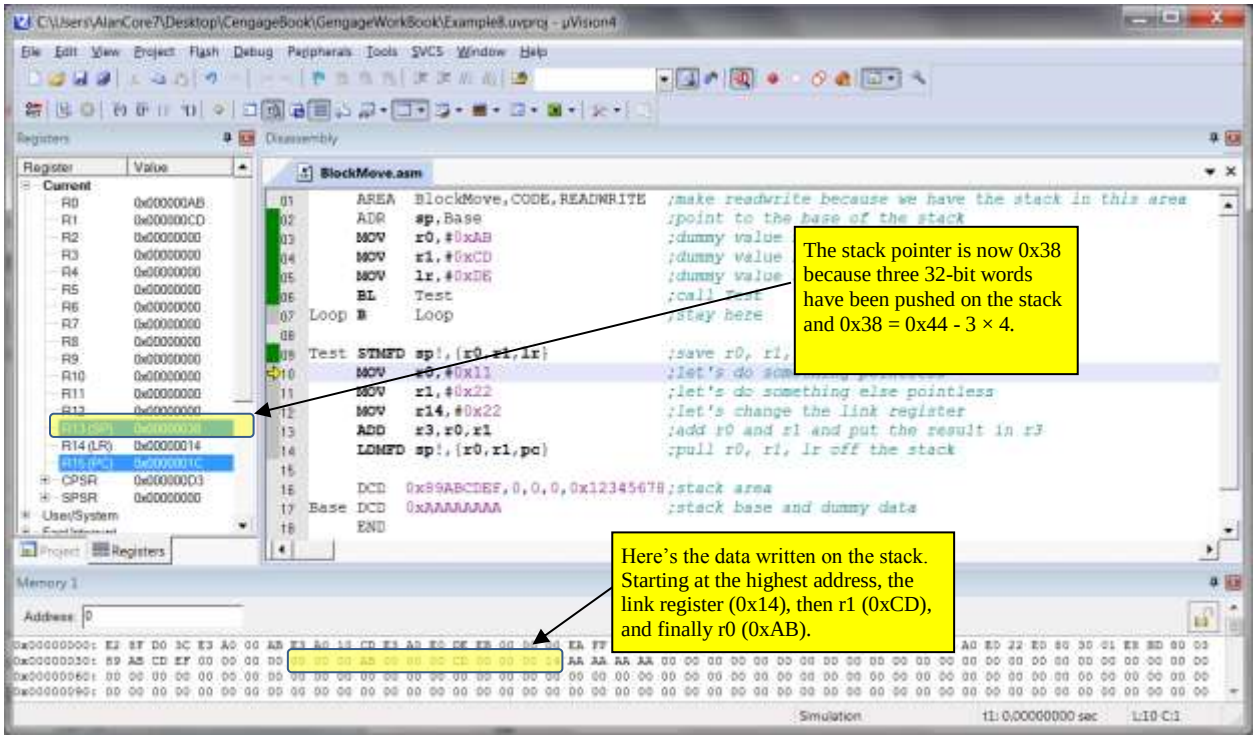
The next snapshot shows the situation immediately after the program has been loaded.



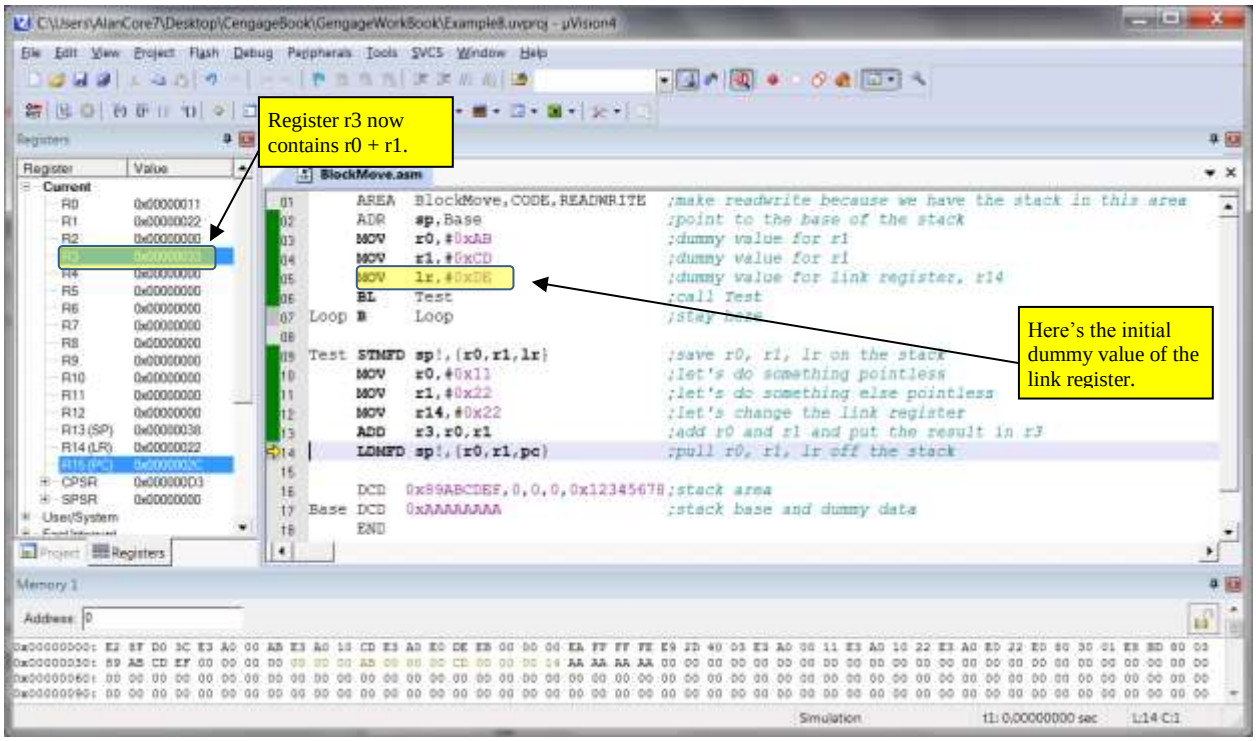
The next snapshot shows the state immediately before the branch with link instruction.



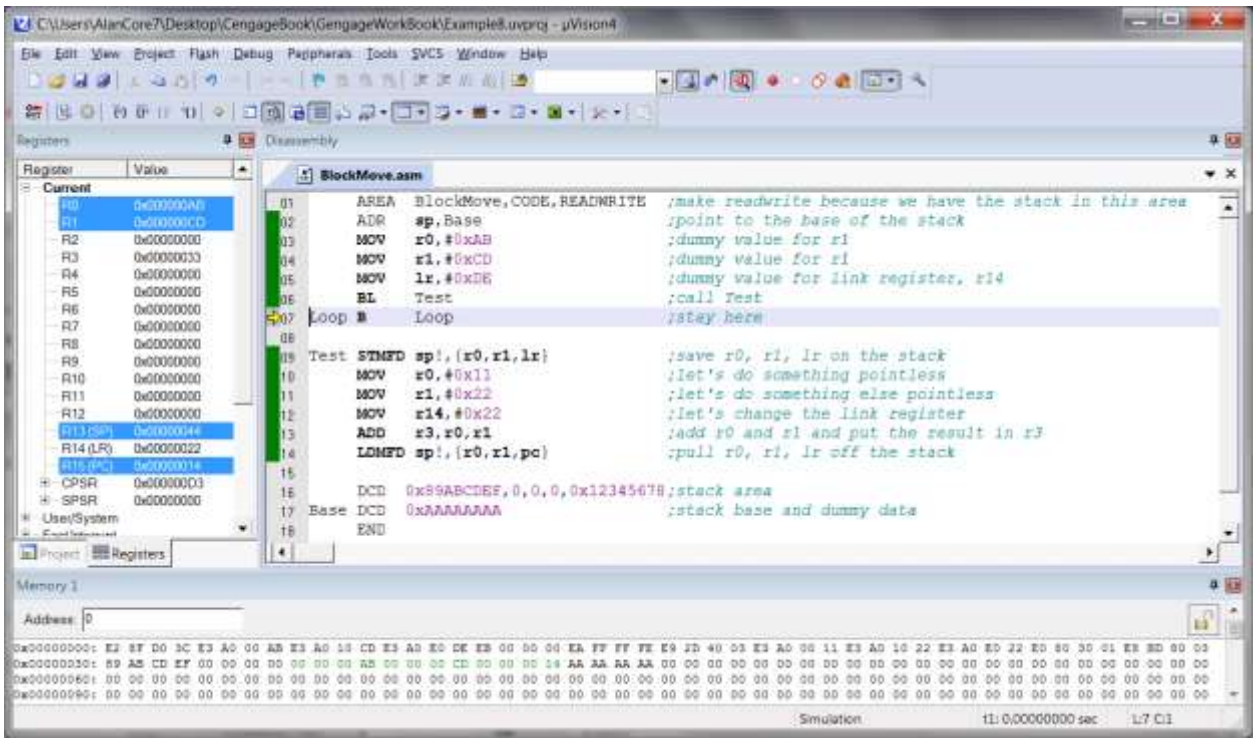
The next snapshot shows the state after we have called the subroutine and executed the first instruction.



The next snapshot shows the state immediately before we execute the last subroutine instruction and return.



The final final shows the state after we have executed the last instruction in the subroutine and have returned to the calling program.



PASSING A PARAMETER TO A SUBROUTINE

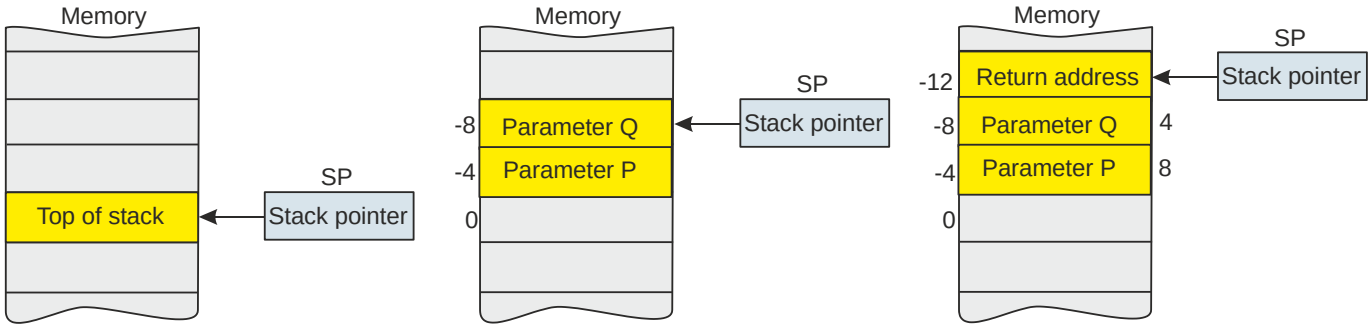
When you call a subroutine, you often have to pass parameters to the subroutine. In a high-level language you might call subroutine XYZ with parameters P and Q by `XYZ(P,Q)`. In a low-level language, you can push the parameters on the stack immediately before calling the subroutine. Of course, you don't have to pass parameters via the stack; for example, if there are a very few, you can transfer them via registers.

Consider the following example where we have a very simple subroutine that adds two numbers P and Q and returns their result S = P + Q. Using pseudocode, we can write the following sequence of actions that describes the passing of the two parameters and the receiving of the result.

Push P
Push Q
Call ADD
Pull S
Adjust the stack

We push the two parameters on the stack and call the subroutine. The subroutine reads the two parameters off the top of the stack, and replaces one by the result. Note that we have to adjust the stack to take account of the fact that we have pushed two parameters but pulled only one. The stack must always be balanced with equal numbers of push and pull operations.

The next diagram shows the effect of pushing a parameter on the stack before calling a subroutine. State (a) demonstrates the situation immediately before the subroutine is called. State (b) shows the situation in which both parameters have been pushed. State (c) shows the situation in which a subroutine has been called and the return address is saved on the stack (typical of CISC processors).

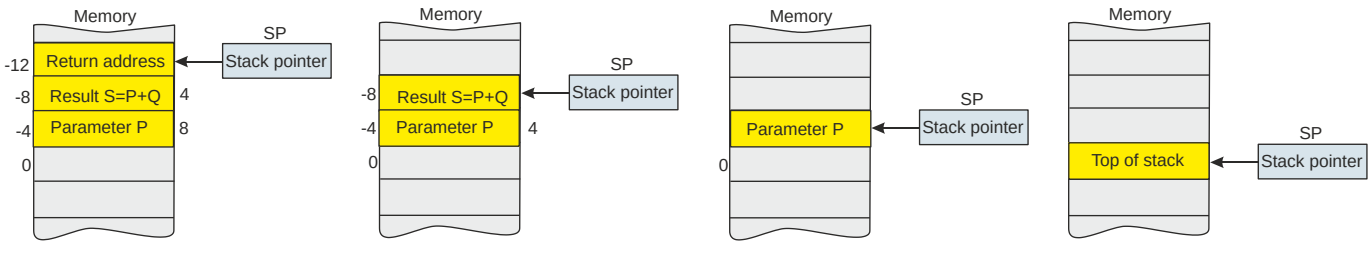


(a) Initial stack

(b) Stack after pushing P and Q

© Stack after pushing the return address

The next figure demonstrates the behavior of the stack during the subroutine execution.



(a) Stack after the subroutine reads Q and P and stores the sum.

(b) Stack after returning from subroutine

(c) Stack after pulling the result

(d) Stack after adjusting the stack pointer

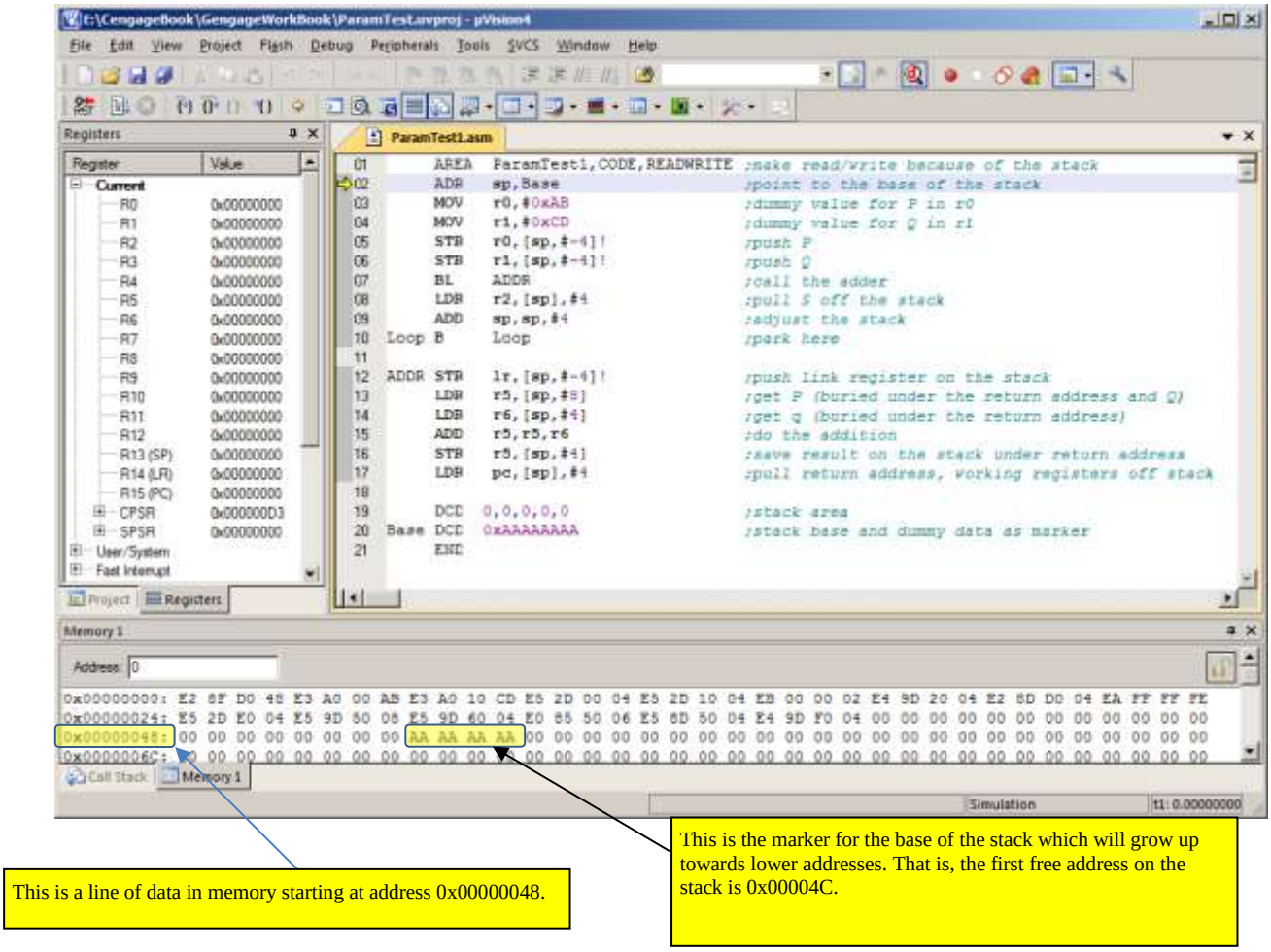
As you can see, the stack grows as parameters are pushed and the subroutine called. Then the stack declines as a return made and the two items on the stack removed. Now, let's look at this process in detail using an ARM processor.

USING THE STACK - AN ARM EXAMPLE

The following code sets up an environment and carries out the actions we have described.

```
      AREA   ParamTest,CODE,READWRITE    ;make readwrite because of the stack
      ADR    sp,Base                     ;point to the base of the stack
      MOV    r0,#0xAB                    ;dummy value for P in r0
      MOV    r1,#0xCD                    ;dummy value for Q in r1
      STR    r0,[sp,#-4]!                ;push P
      STR    r1,[sp,#-4]!                ;push Q
      BL     ADDR                        ;call the adder
      LDR    r2,[sp],#4                  ;pull S off the stack
      ADD    sp,sp,#4                    ;adjust the stack pointer
Loop  B      Loop                        ;park here

ADDR  STR    lr,[sp,#-4]!                ;push the link register on the stack
      LDR    r5,[sp,#8]                  ;get P (buried under the return address and Q)
      LDR    r6,[sp,#4]                  ;get q (buried under the return address)
      ADD    r5,r5,r6                    ;do the addition
      STR    r5,[sp,#4]                  ;save result on the stack under return address (overwrite Q)
      LDR    pc,[sp],#4                  ;pull return address off the stack

      DCD   0,0,0,0,0                    ;stack area
Base  DCD   0xAAAAAAAA                   ;stack base and dummy data as marker
      END
```

The following snapshot demonstrates the situation when the program has been loaded.



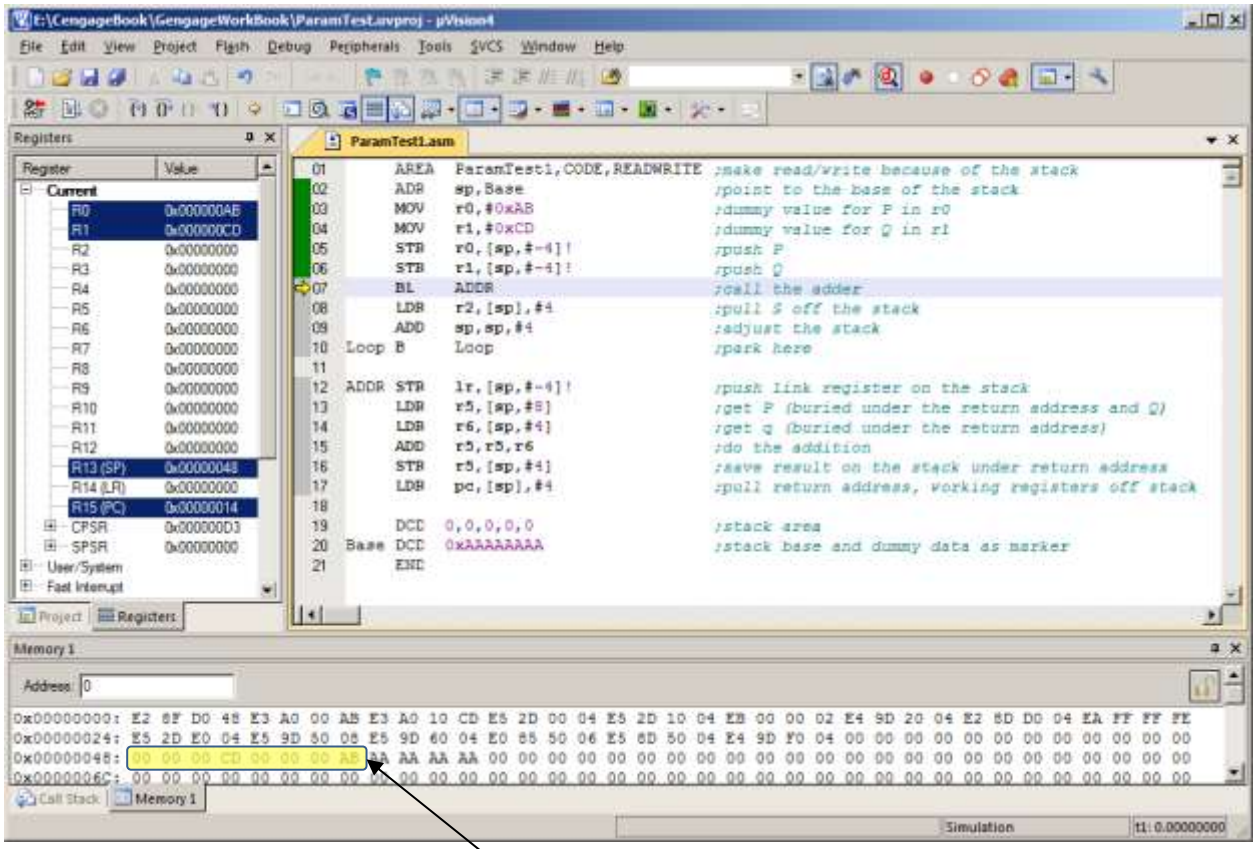
This is a line of data in memory starting at address 0x00000048.

This is the marker for the base of the stack which will grow up towards lower addresses. That is, the first free address on the stack is 0x00004C.

The first five lines set up the stack pointer, put some data (the parameters P and Q) into registers r0 and r1 and then push the parameters on the stack using pre-indexing with auto decrementing; that is, the stack pointer is moved up by one word (4 bytes) and then the data stored at that location.

```
ADR    sp,Base          ; point to the base of the stack
MOV    r0,#0xAB         ; dummy value for P in r0
MOV    r1,#0xCD         ; dummy value for Q in r1
STR    r0,[sp,#-4]!     ; push P
STR    r1,[sp,#-4]!     ; push Q
```

The following snapshot demonstrates the situation before calling the subroutine (i.e., we are about to execute the branch with link instruction).

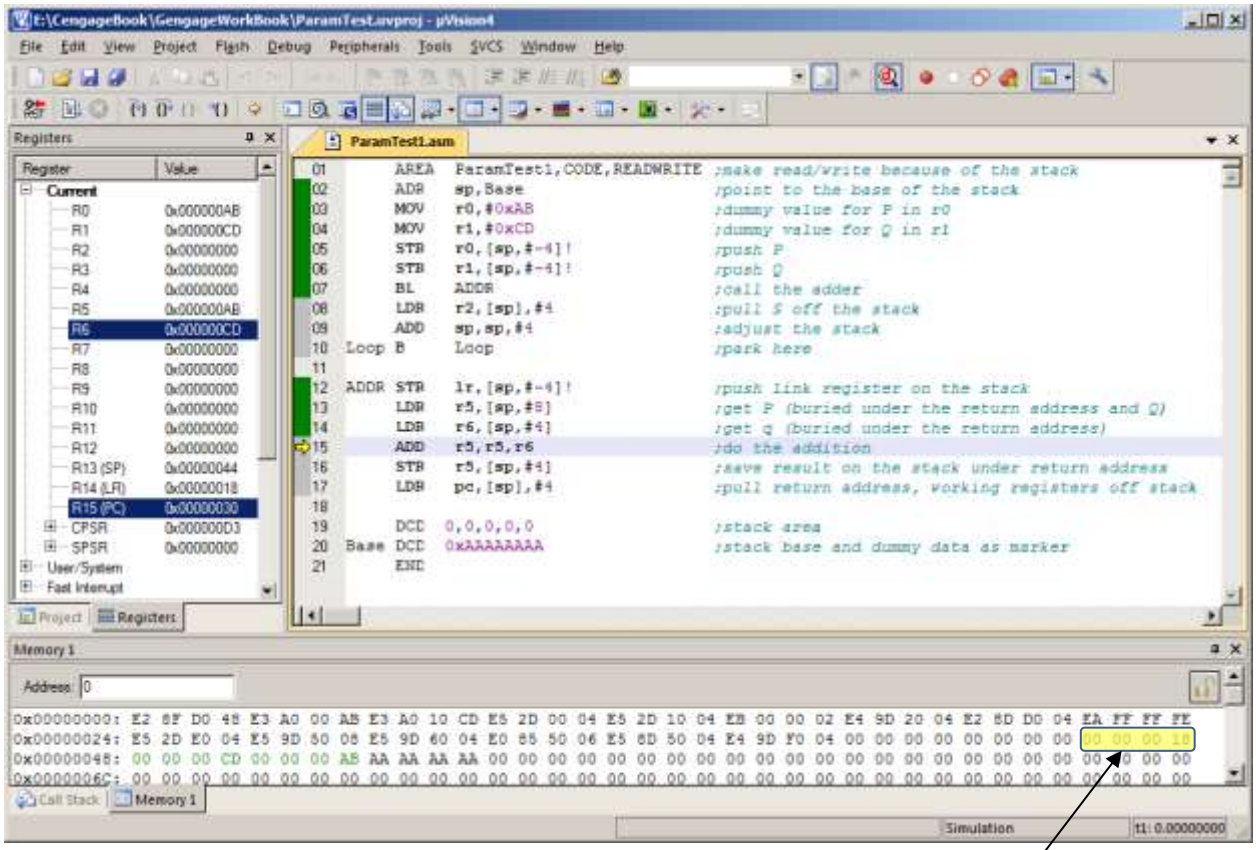


These are the two parameters pushed on the stack

The snapshot of the system below shows situation in the subroutine after reading the two parameters and pushing the return address. We have called a subroutine and loaded r14, the link register, with the return address, and then executed the following code:

```
ADDR STR    lr,[sp,#-4]!          ; push the link register on the stack
     LDR    r5,[sp,#8]            ; get P (buried under the return address and Q)
     LDR    r6,[sp,#4]            ; get Q (buried under the return address)
```

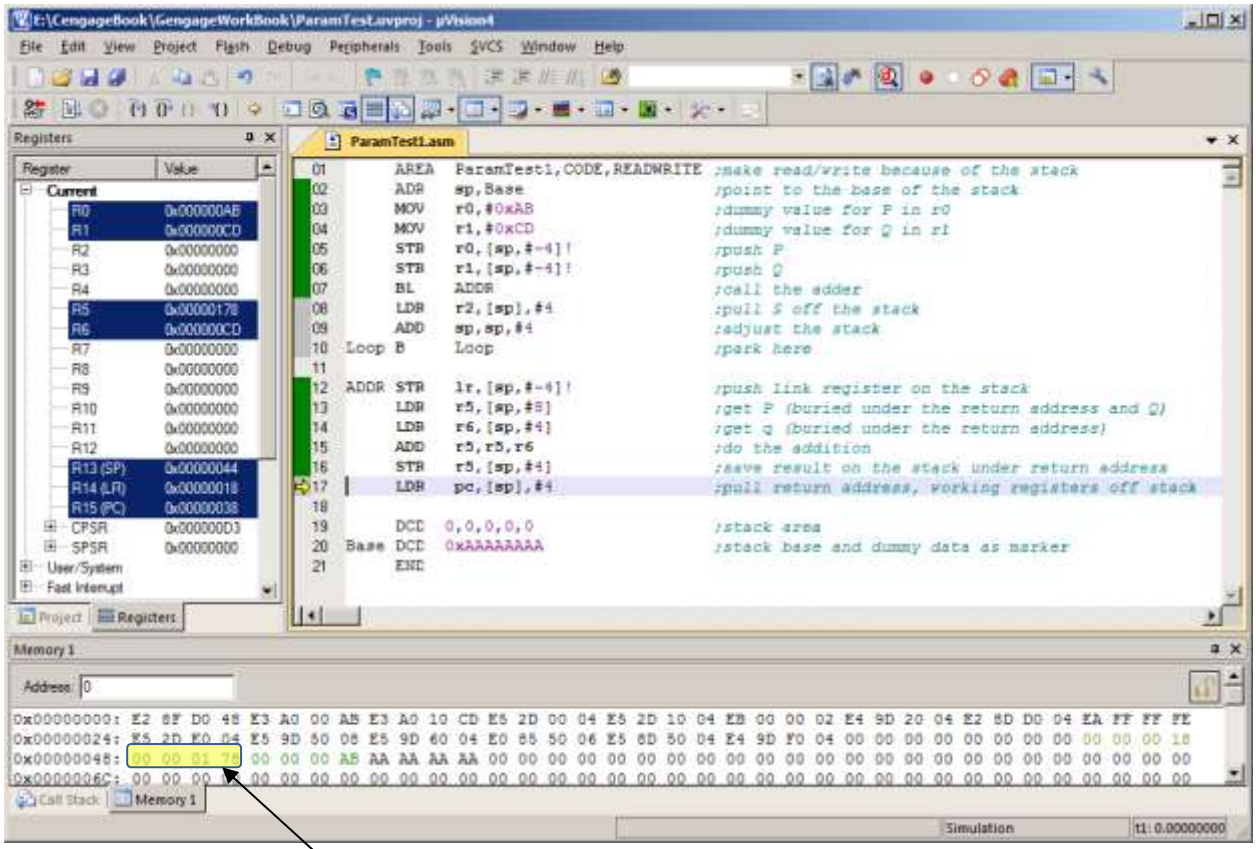
This code first pushes the link register on the stack and then reads the two parameters off the stack. You will see that registers r5 and r6 contain the same parameters are r0 and r1, and that the contents of the link register are now the topmost element on the stack.



The next snapshot shows the situation immediately before the return from subroutine. We have just executed

```
ADD    r5,r5,r6                ;do the addition
STR    r5,[sp,#4]              ;save result on the stack under return address
```

These instructions perform the addition of the parameters in registers r5 and r6 and then store the result at [sp] + 4 which is one word below the top of the stack; that is, the location of parameter Q. The following memory map shows that Q (in memory) has changed from 0x000000CD to 0x00000178.

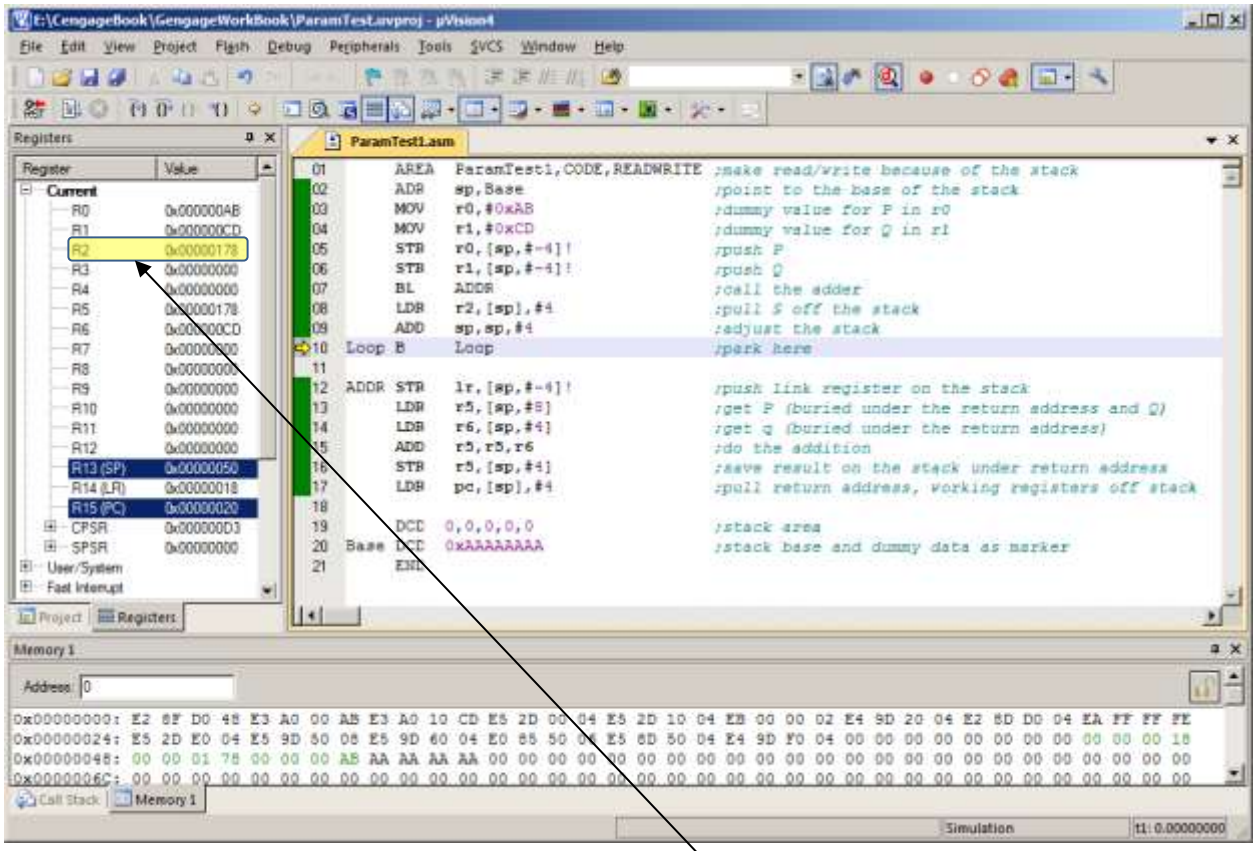


The final snapshot shows the situation at the end of the program when we have executed the following code.

```
        LDR    pc,[sp],#4      ;pull return address off the stack (last line of subroutine)

        LDR    r2,[sp],#4      ;pull S off the stack (first operation after the subroutine)
        ADD    sp,sp,#4        ;adjust the stack pointer
Loop    B      Loop            ;park here
```

Note that this code is rewritten in execution order rather than program order; that is, the first line is the last operation in the subroutine and the second line is the first instruction at the return point.

A return is made by pulling the link register off the stack and putting it in the program counter. In the calling routine, the top of the stack is pulled (i.e., the result) and put in r2. Finally, the stack pointer is incremented by 4 to restore it to its original value.

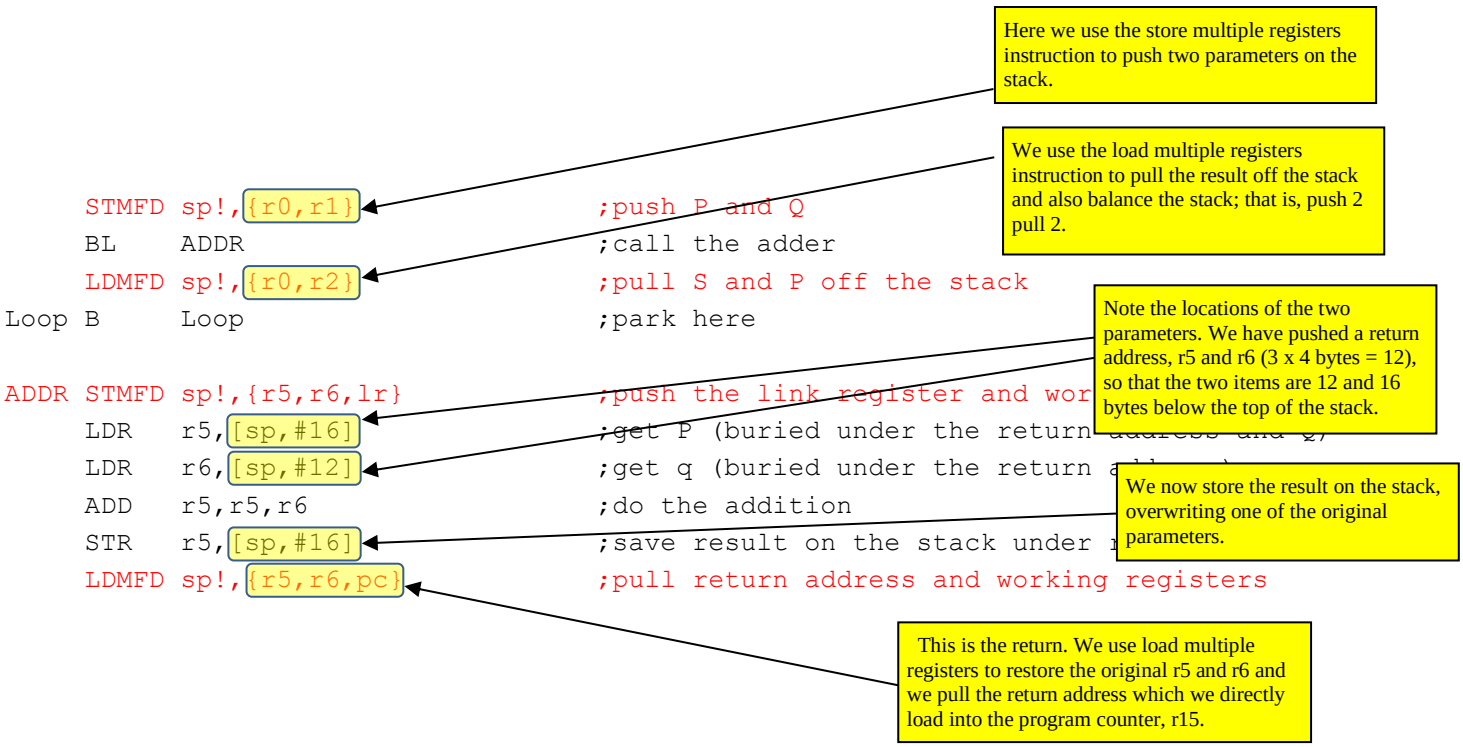


IMPROVING THE CODE

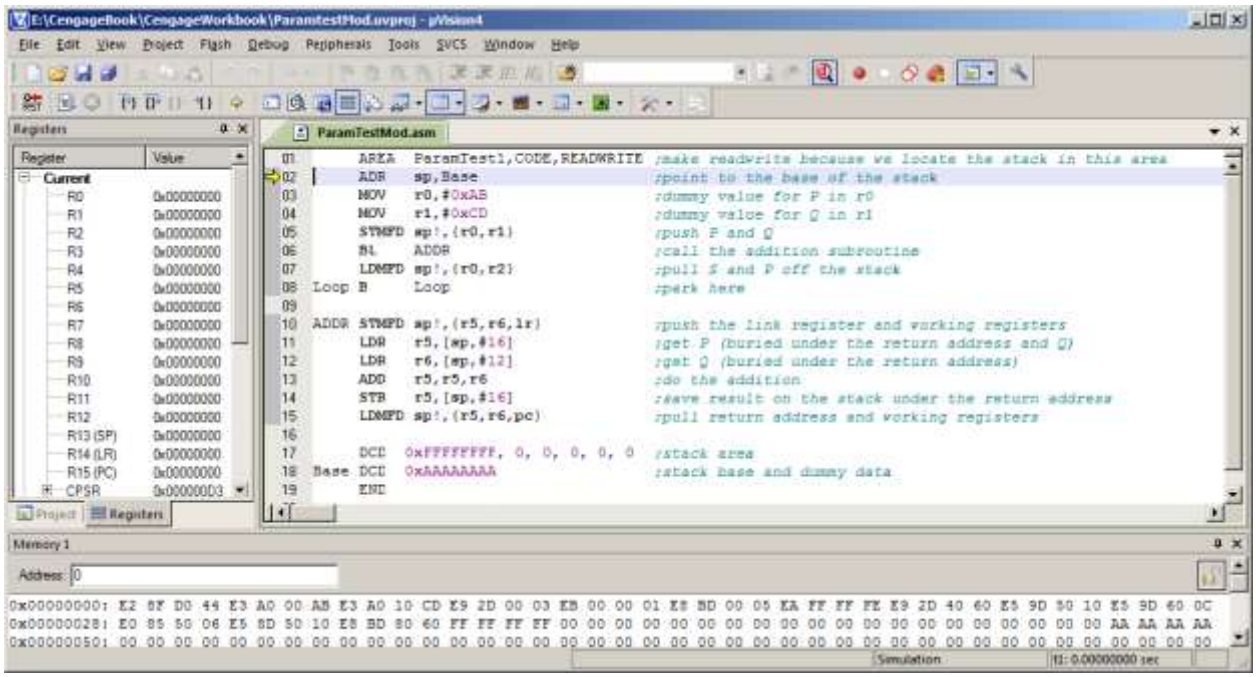
Few programmers would write the code we used in the previous example. A more reasonable approach is:

```
      AREA   ParamTest1,CODE,READWRITE  ;make readwrite because we locate the stack in this area
      ADR    sp,Base                   ;point to the base of the stack
      MOV    r0,#0xAB                  ;dummy value for P in r0
      MOV    r1,#0xCD                  ;dummy value for Q in r1
      STMFD  sp!,{r0,r1}               ;push P and Q
      BL     ADDR                      ;call the addition subroutine
      LDMFD  sp!,{r0,r2}               ;pull S and P off the stack
Loop  B      Loop                      ;park here

ADDR  STMFD  sp!,{r5,r6,lr}            ;push the link register and working registers
      LDR    r5,[sp,#16]               ;get P (buried under the return address and Q)
      LDR    r6,[sp,#12]               ;get Q (buried under the return address)
      ADD    r5,r5,r6                  ;do the addition
      STR    r5,[sp,#16]               ;save result on the stack under the return address
      LDMFD  sp!,{r5,r6,pc}            ;pull return address and working registers

      DCD   0xFFFFFFFF,0,0,0,0,0       ;stack area
Base  DCD   0xAAAAAAAA                 ;stack base and dummy data
      END
```

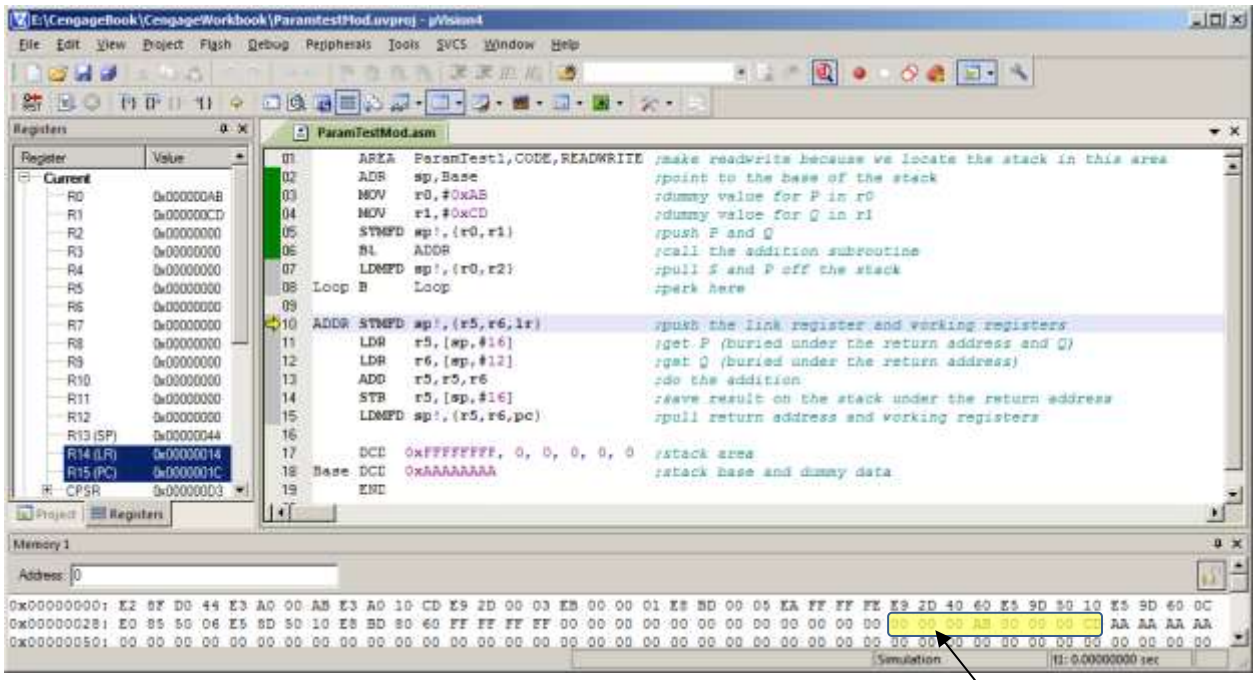
We need to look at some of the features of this program in greater detail.



Now we can execute this code in debug mode and trace its execution. The next snapshot shows the situation after the code has been loaded and simulation is about to begin.

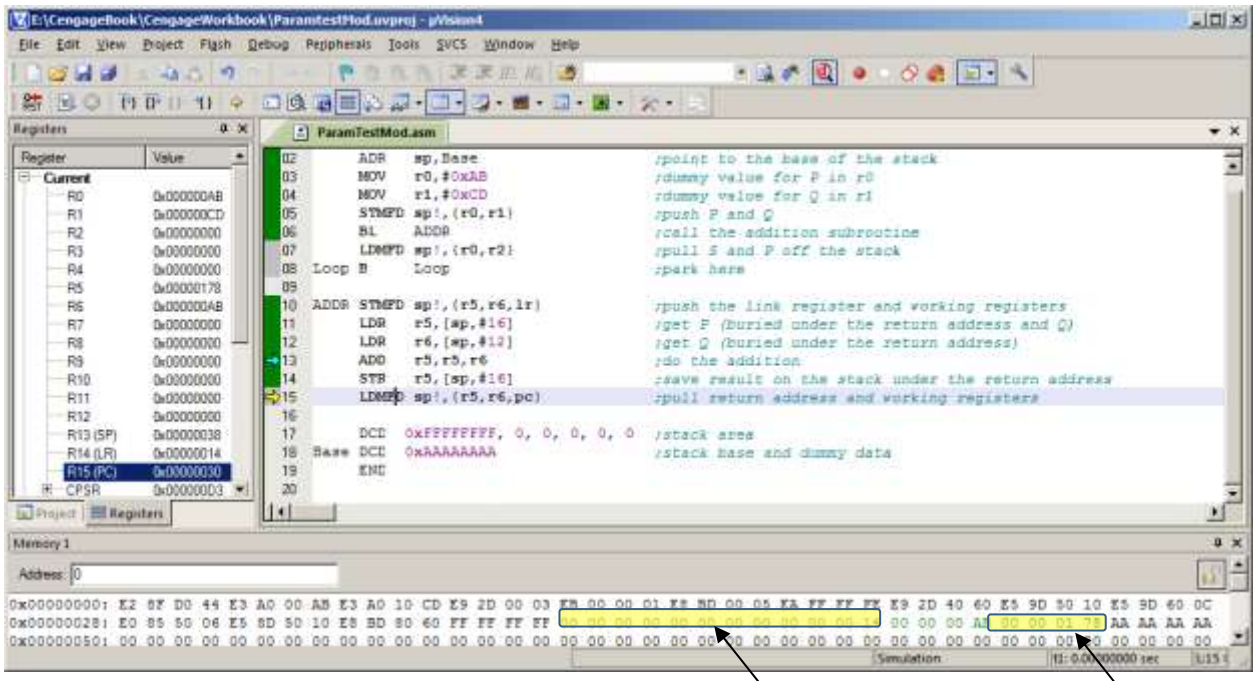


The next snapshot shows the situation after the code has been executed up to the beginning of the subroutine.

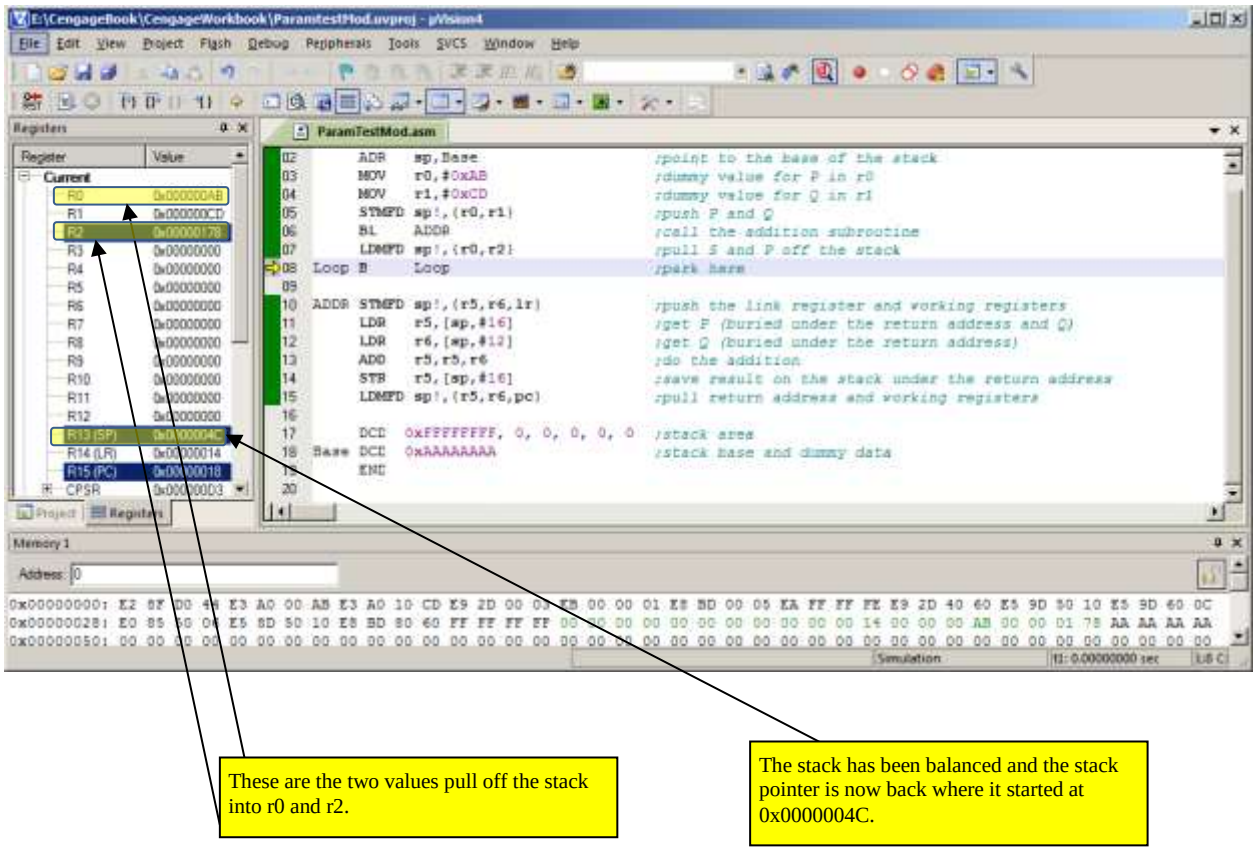


Here are parameters P and Q on the stack. Note that there are above 0xAAAAAAAA that we have used as a marker to show the base of the stack.

The next snapshot shows the situation immediately before the subroutine return.



The final snapshot shows the situation at the end of the program after the data has been pulled off the stack.



PASSING A PARAMETER BY ITS ADDRESS

Some languages let you pass parameters by reference rather than by value; that is, you send the *address* of the parameter to a subroutine. The 68K processor has a *push effective address* instruction, `PEA` that pushes a 32-bit address on the stack. ARM programmers have to use conventional memory store instructions.

When you retrieve a parameter passed by reference (address), you have to pull the address off the stack (or read it from the stack) and then access the parameter by means of address register indirect addressing. Consider the following fragment of code that pushes an address (initially in register r0), call a subroutine, and then retrieves the actual parameter (i.e., its *value*) in the subroutine..

```
        STR   r0,[sp,#-4]!        ;Push the address of parameter P on the stack (address is in r0)
        BL    ABC                 ;Call subroutine ABC and save the link register
        .
ABC     STR   lr,[sp,#-4]!        ;Save the return address on the stack
        LDR   r1,[sp,#4]          ;Read the address of parameter P under the return address
        LDR   r2,[r1]             ;Get the value of parameter P
        .
        LDMFD sp!,{pc}            ;Return by loading the PC with the return address from the stack
```

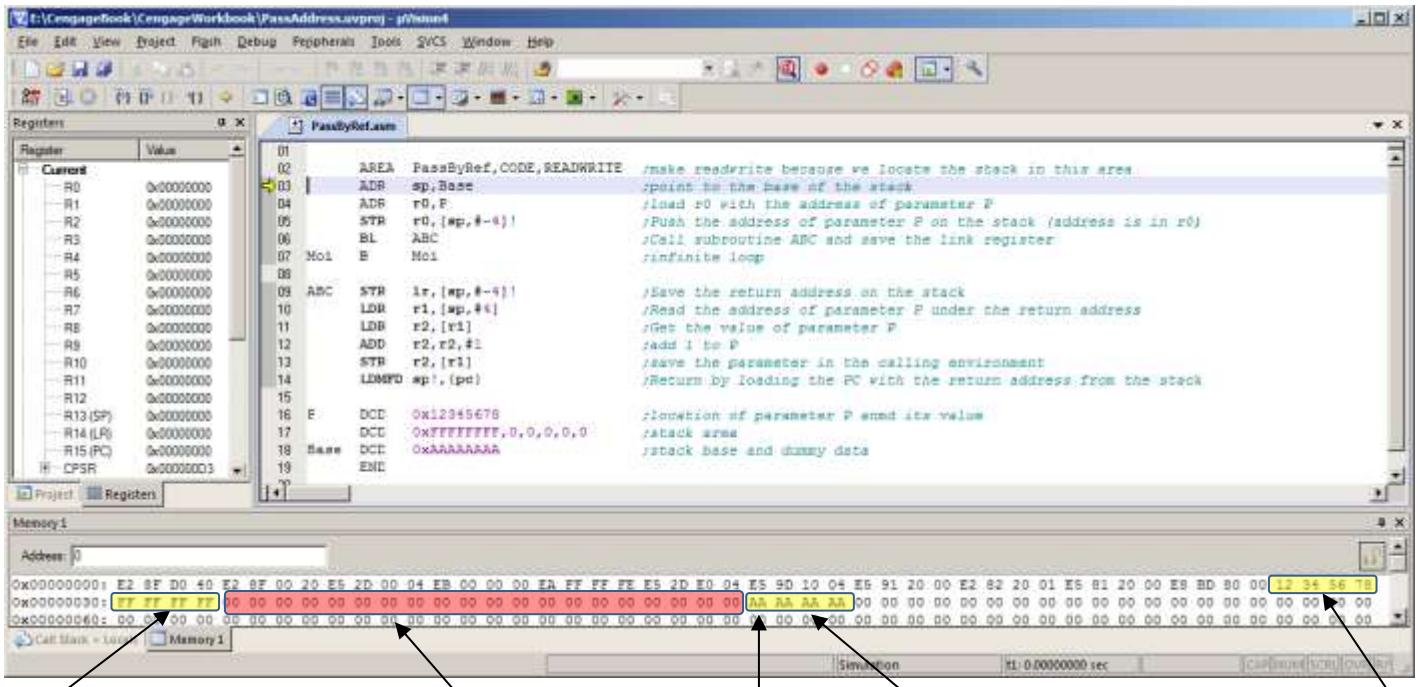
Retrieving a parameter by reference is a two-step operation. The first part is to get the parameter's address, and the second part is to get the value pointed at by that address. In this case we first load the address of P using `LDR r1,[sp,#4]` to get the *address* of P in r1 and then use `LDR r2,[r1]` to get the *value* of P in r2. We have put these two lines in blue to highlight their importance.

Let's use this code in an actual program. Below, we use subroutine ABC to perform P + 1. The effect of this program should be to add 1 to P's initial value 0x12345678 to give 0x12345679 in the memory location defined as P. Since there are 11 instructions before this location, the address of P is 0x0000002C (i.e., 11 x 4 expressed in hexadecimal).

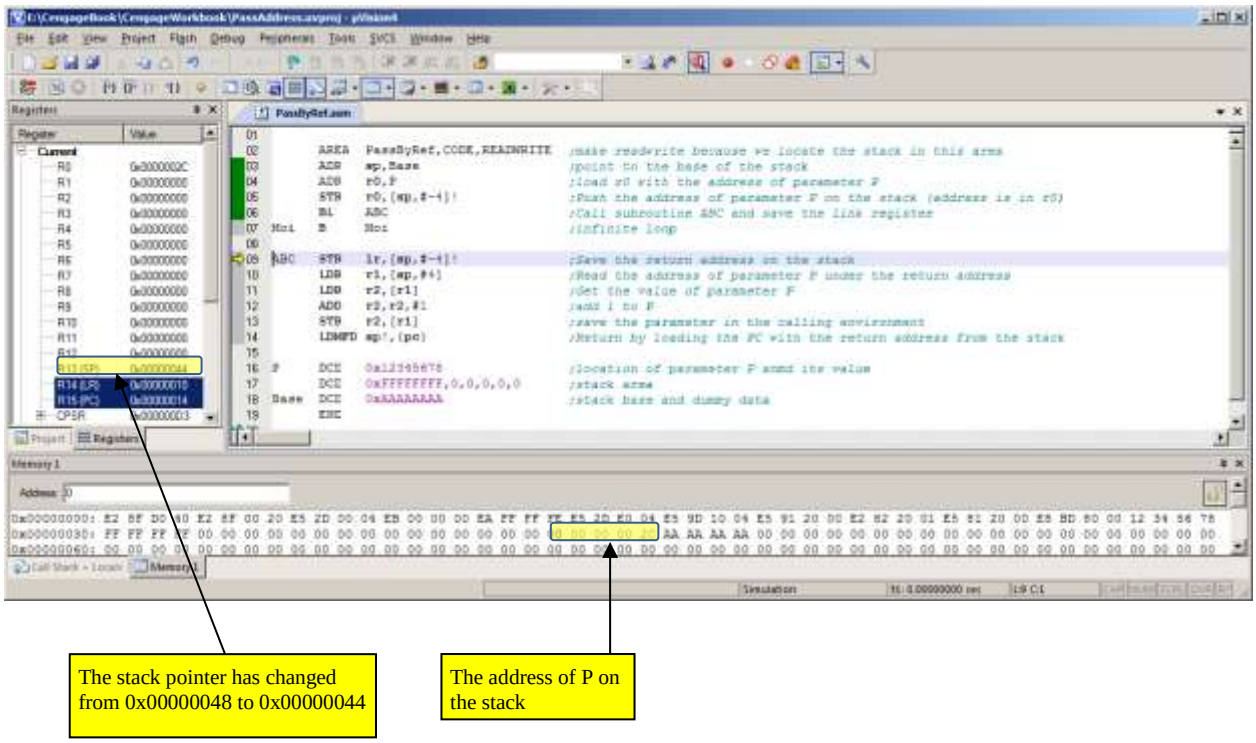
```
        AREA  PassByRef,CODE,READWRITE  ; Make readwrite because we locate the stack in this area
        ADR   sp,Base                   ; Point to the base of the stack
        ADR   r0,P                      ; Load r0 with the address of parameter P
        STR   r0,[sp,#-4]!              ; Push the address of parameter P on the stack (address is in r0)
        BL    ABC                       ; Call subroutine ABC and save the link register
Moi     B     Moi                       ; Infinite loop to end the program

ABC     STR   lr,[sp,#-4]!              ; Save the return address on the stack
        LDR   r1,[sp,#4]                ; Read the address of parameter P under the return address
        LDR   r2,[r1]                   ; Get the value of parameter P
        ADD   r2,r2,#1                  ; Add 1 to P
        STR   r2,[r1]                   ; Save the parameter in the calling environment
        LDMFD sp!,{pc}                  ; Return by loading the PC with the return address from the stack

P       DCD   0x12345678                ; Location of parameter P and its value
        DCD   0xFFFFFFFF,0,0,0,0,0      ; Stack area
Base    DCD   0xAAAAAAAA                ; Stack base and dummy data
        END
```

The first instruction, `ADR sp,Base`, loads the stack pointer with the initial base of the stack, and the second instruction, `ADR r0,P`, loads r0 with the address of P. It is important to stress here that we are loading the address of P (0x0000002C) and not it's value (0x12345678).

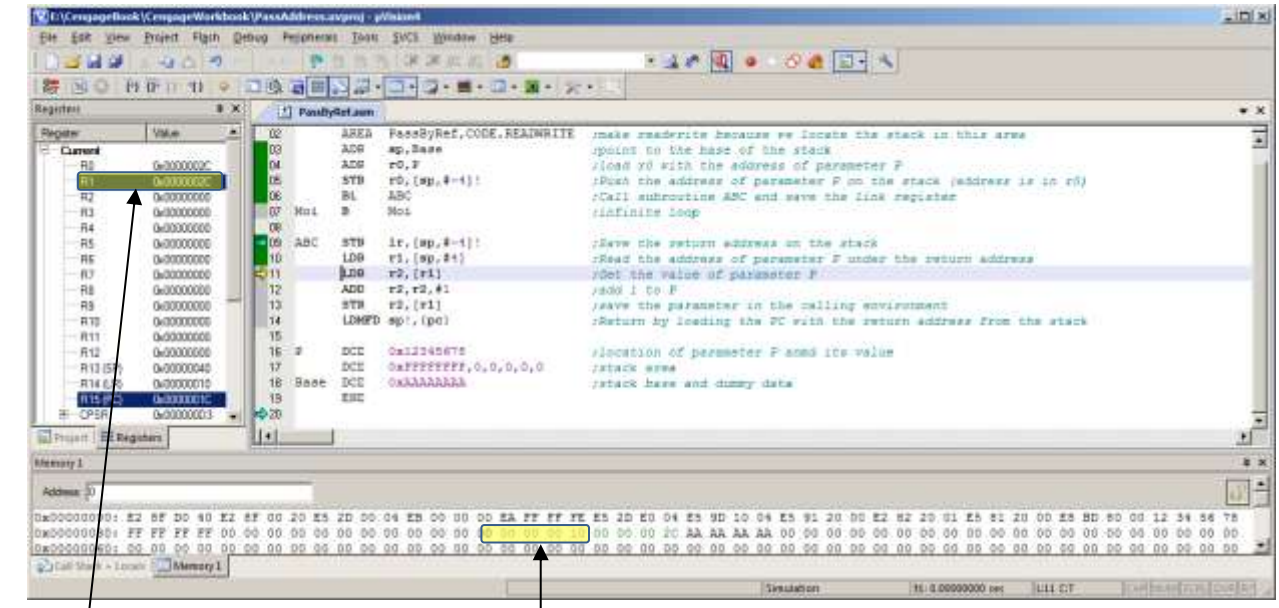
The following snapshot demonstrates the situation immediately after the program has been loaded. We've highlighted the data area and the stack.



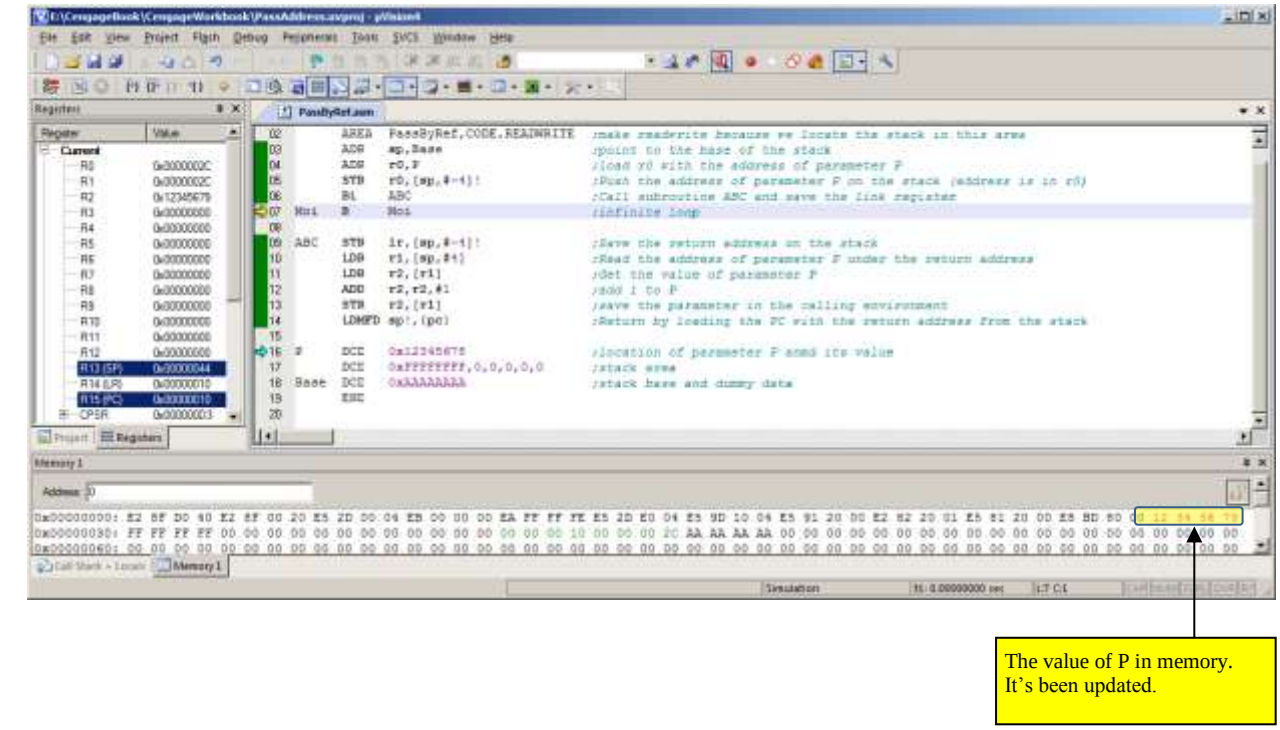
The next snapshot shows the state of the system up to the start of the subroutine. You can see that r0 contains the address of parameter P (i.e., 0x0000002C). The stack pointer has been moved up from its initial value of 0x00000040 to 0x00000044.



The next snapshot traced execution to the point at which the address of P has been read off the stack into r1, but the value of P has not yet been loaded into r2.



The final snapshot shows the sitiation at the end of the program. The value of P in memory has been updated.



The Stack Frame and Low-Level Support for High-Level Languages

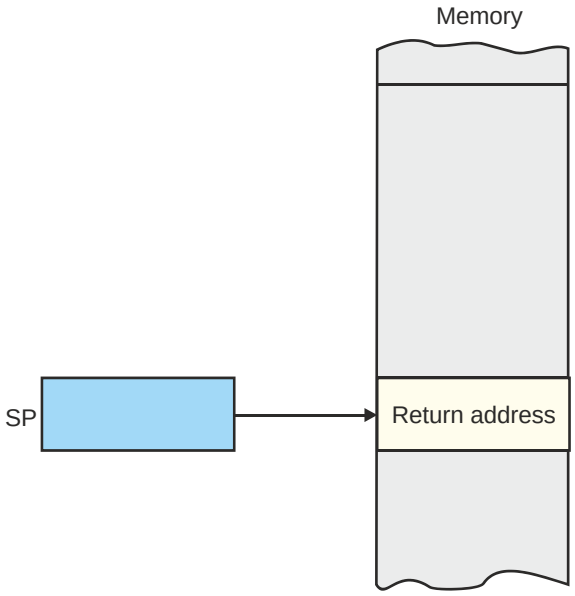
We now look at how a low-level language provides support for local variables in subroutines, and discuss how parameters are passed to and from procedures in greater detail.

In addition to the parameters passed between a subroutine and its calling program, a subroutine sometimes needs local workspace for its temporary variables. Each time the subroutine is called, a new workspace must be assigned to it.

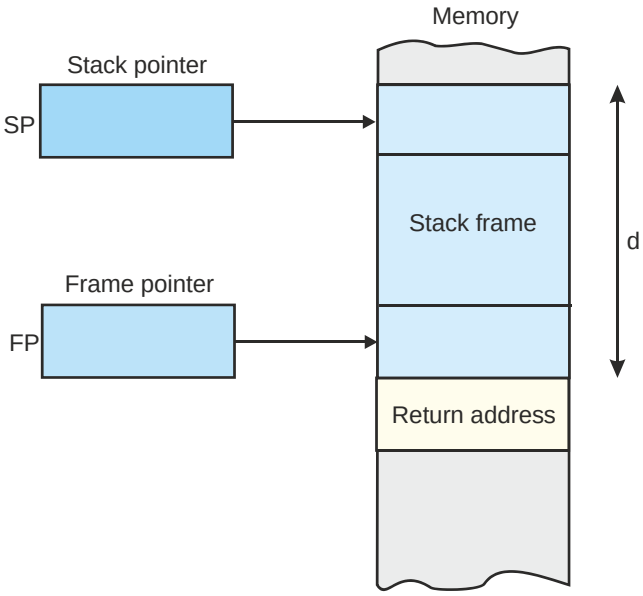
Suppose task A is using a subroutine and workspace has been allocated for use by the subroutine's variables. Assume a task switch takes place while task A is executing the subroutine and task B uses the same subroutine. Clearly, task B must be allocated new workspace for its own variables, if it is not to corrupt task A's variables. The stack provides a convenient mechanism for implementing the dynamic allocation of workspace. This storage allocation is dynamic because it is allocated to variables when they are created and then de-allocated when the variables are no longer required.

Two items closely associated with dynamic storage techniques are the stack frame (SF) and the frame pointer (FP). The stack frame is a region of temporary storage at the top of the current stack. The frame pointer, which is in an address register, points to the bottom of the stack frame. Figure (a) illustrates the state of the stack after a subroutine call and figure (b) illustrates the stack frame that has been created on top of the subroutine's return address.

A stack frame can exist in several forms. It is, of course, programmer, dependent. Figure (b) shows a stack frame with a stack that grows towards low addresses. Note that, in this example, the frame pointer points to the empty base of the frame above the return address on the stack.



a. The state of the stack immediately after a subroutine call



b. The state of the stack after creating a stack frame

Let's consider the creation of a simple stack frame as figure (b) above demonstrates. We look at a more realistic example later. First we need to move the stack pointer up by one word to point at the empty base of the frame. We can do this by `SUB sp,sp,#4`. The next step is to make the frame pointer, fp, point at the base of the stack, which we can do with `MOV fp,sp`; that is, we copy the stack pointer into the frame pointer. A stack-frame is then created by moving the stack pointer up by *d* locations at the start of a subroutine. For example, reserving 16 bytes of memory is achieved by executing `sub sp,sp,#-16`. Once the stack frame has been created, local variables can be accessed via the stack pointer and a suitable offset. Consider the following code:

```
AnySub  SUB   sp,sp,#4        ;Move the stack pointer up one word past the return address on the stack
        MOV   fp,sp           ;Set up the frame pointer to point to the top of the stack
        SUB   sp,sp,#16       ;Move the stack pointer to the top of the stack frame (we'll allocate 16 bytes)
        .
        .                     ;The subroutine proper (i.e., the code goes here)
        .
        ADD   sp,sp,#20       ;Collapse the stack frame (i.e., 16 + 4)
        MOV   pc,lr           ;and return from subroutine
```

Before a return from subroutine is made, the stack frame must be collapsed by an `ADD sp,sp,#20` instruction. This simply moves the stack pointer down. In practice, this code would not be used, because it doesn't preserve the old frame pointer; that is, the frame pointer is *destroyed* by this code.

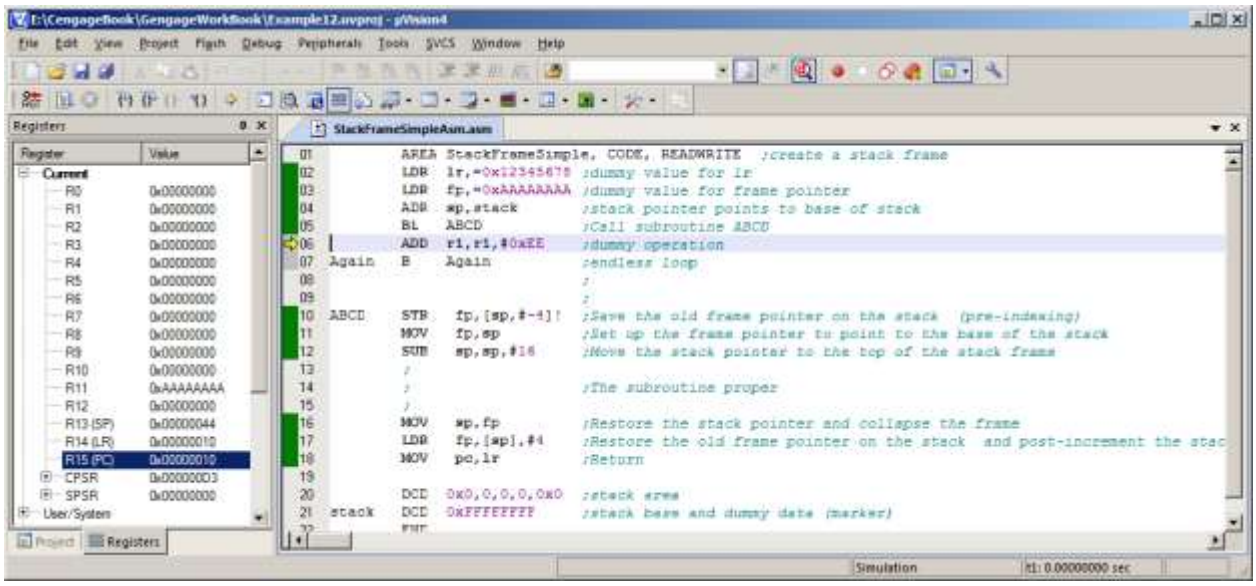
A better way of implementing a stack frame is to save the old frame pointer on the stack before creating the frame itself; that is,

```
AnySub  SUB   sp,sp,#4        ;  Move the stack pointer up to create space for the old frame pointer
        STR   fp,[sp]         ;  Save the old (existing) frame pointer on the stack
        MOV   fp,sp           ;  Set up the frame pointer to point to the base of the stack
        SUB   sp,sp,#16       ;  move the stack pointer to the top of the stack frame
        .
        .                     ;  The subroutine proper
        .
        MOV   sp,fp           ;  Restore the stack pointer and collapse the frame
        LDR   fp,[sp],#4      ;  Restore the old (existing) frame pointer on the stack

        ADD   sp,sp,#4        ;  Move the stack pointer down to point to the return address
        MOV   pc,lr           ;  and return from subroutine
```

In practice the code would be more compact with the ARM's facilities (e.g., auto incrementing and decrementing addressing modes) being better used. Consider the following example. In this case consider the following example where a subroutine is called using a `BL` instruction (branch with link). In this case the return address is not saved on the stack.

```
        BL    ABCD            ;Call subroutine ABCD
                              ;
                              ;
ABCD    STR   fp,[sp,#-4]!    ;Save the old frame pointer on the stack  (pre-indexing)
        MOV   fp,sp           ;Set up the frame pointer to point to the base of the stack
        SUB   sp,sp,#16       ;Move the stack pointer to the top of the stack frame
        .
        .                     ;The subroutine proper
        .
        MOV   sp,fp           ;Restore the stack pointer and collapse the frame
        LDR   fp,[sp],#4      ;Restore the old frame pointer on the stack  and post-increment the stack
        MOV   pc,lr           ;Return
```

The following snapshot of the simulator demonstrates this fragment of code in the simulator using some dummy data to keep track of register values.



Up to now, we've demonstrated simple examples of stack frames. The next step is to provide a more realistic (albeit simple) example. This example will demonstrate various aspects of machine-level programming; for example, the use of registers (global and local), the use of temporary storage (stack frames), and parameter passing.

PASSING PARAMETERS TO AND FROM A STACK FRAME

We are going to use a subroutine that is called by pushing the return address on the stack. We pass two parameters to the stack; one by value and one by reference. Let's assume that the stack performs $B = A^2 + B$, where A is passed by reference and B by value.

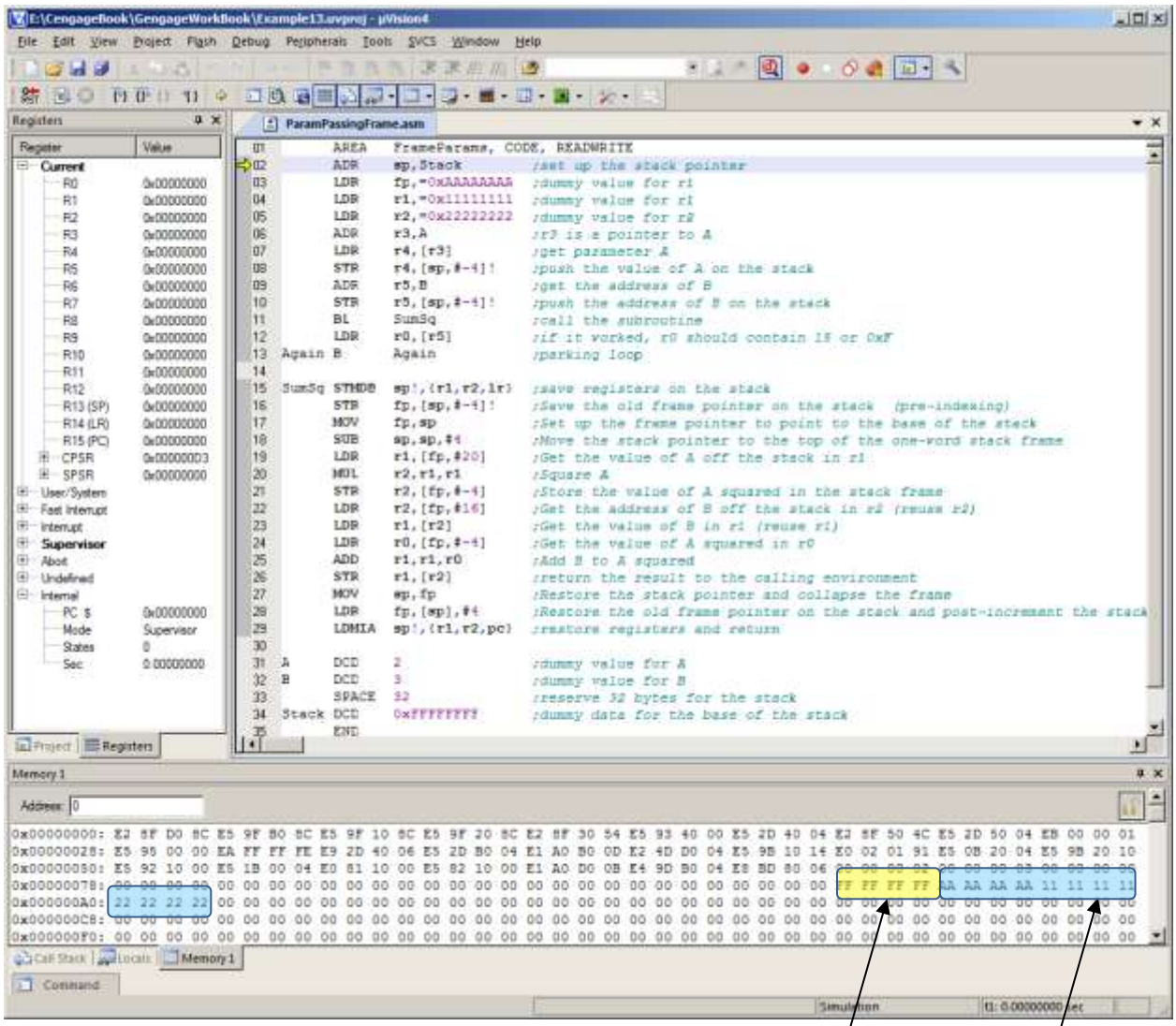
In this example, we use two registers in the subroutine, r1 and r2, that are saved on the stack at the start of the subroutine by a store multiple registers and then retrieved at the end of the subroutine by a load multiple registers. One register, r0, is a global scratchpad and does not have to be preserved by the subroutine. Finally, we create a stack frame for one variable in the subroutine.

The code for this example is given below. We have created initial dummy values for registers so you can see them when they are saved in memory and used 0xFFFFFFFF as the stack base in order to make the stack visible in the memory map.

```
        AREA    FrameParams, CODE, READWRITE
        ADR     sp,Stack            ;set up the stack pointer
        LDR     fp,=0xAAAAAAAA      ;dummy value for fp
        LDR     r1,=0x11111111      ;dummy value for r1
        LDR     r2,=0x22222222      ;dummy value for r2
        ADR     r3,A                ;r3 is a pointer to A
        LDR     r4,[r3]             ;get parameter A
        STR     r4,[sp,#-4]!        ;push the value of A on the stack
        ADR     r5,B                ;get the address of B
        STR     r5,[sp,#-4]!        ;push the address of B on the stack
        BL      SumSq               ;call the subroutine
        LSR     r0,[r5]             ;if it worked, r0 should contain 7
Again   B       Again               ;parking loop
```

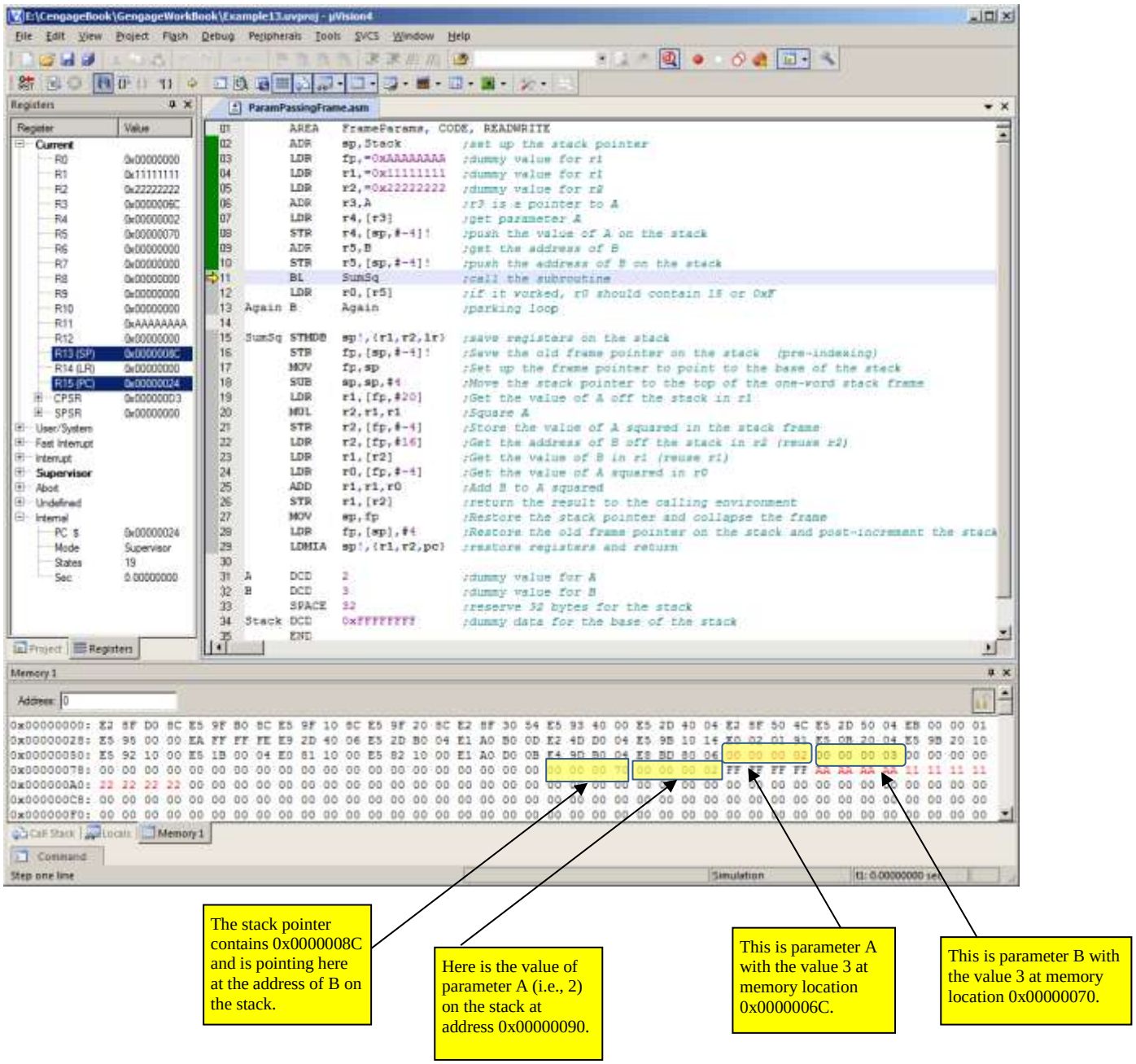
```
SumSq STMDB   sp!,{r1,r2,lr}   ;save registers on the stack
      STR     fp,[sp,#-4]!     ;Save the old frame pointer on the stack  (pre-indexing)
      MOV     fp,sp            ;Set up the frame pointer to point to the base of the stack
      SUB     sp,sp,#4         ;Move the stack pointer to the top of the one-word stack frame
      LDR     r1,[fp,#20]      ;Get the value of A off the stack in r1
      MUL     r2,r1,r1         ;Square A
      STR     r2,[fp,#-4]      ;Store the value of A squared in the stack frame
      LDR     r2,[fp,#16]      ;Get the address of B off the stack in r2 (reuse r2)
      LDR     r1,[r2]          ;Get the value of B in r1 (reuse r1)
      LDR     r0,[fp,#-4]      ;Get the value of A squared in r0
      ADD     r1,r1,r0         ;Add B to A squared
      STR     r1,[r2]          ;Return the result to the calling environment
      MOV     sp,fp            ;Restore the stack pointer and collapse the frame
      LDR     fp,[sp],#4       ;Restore the old frame pointer on the stack  and post-increment the stack
      LDMIA   sp!,{r1,r2,pc}   ;Restore registers and return

A     DCD     2                ;dummy value for A
B     DCD     3                ;dummy value for B
      SPACE   16               ;reserve 16 bytes for the stack
Stack DCD     0xFFFFFFFF       ;dummy data for the base of the stack
      END
```

The next simulator snapshot shows the simulator window when the program is first loaded.

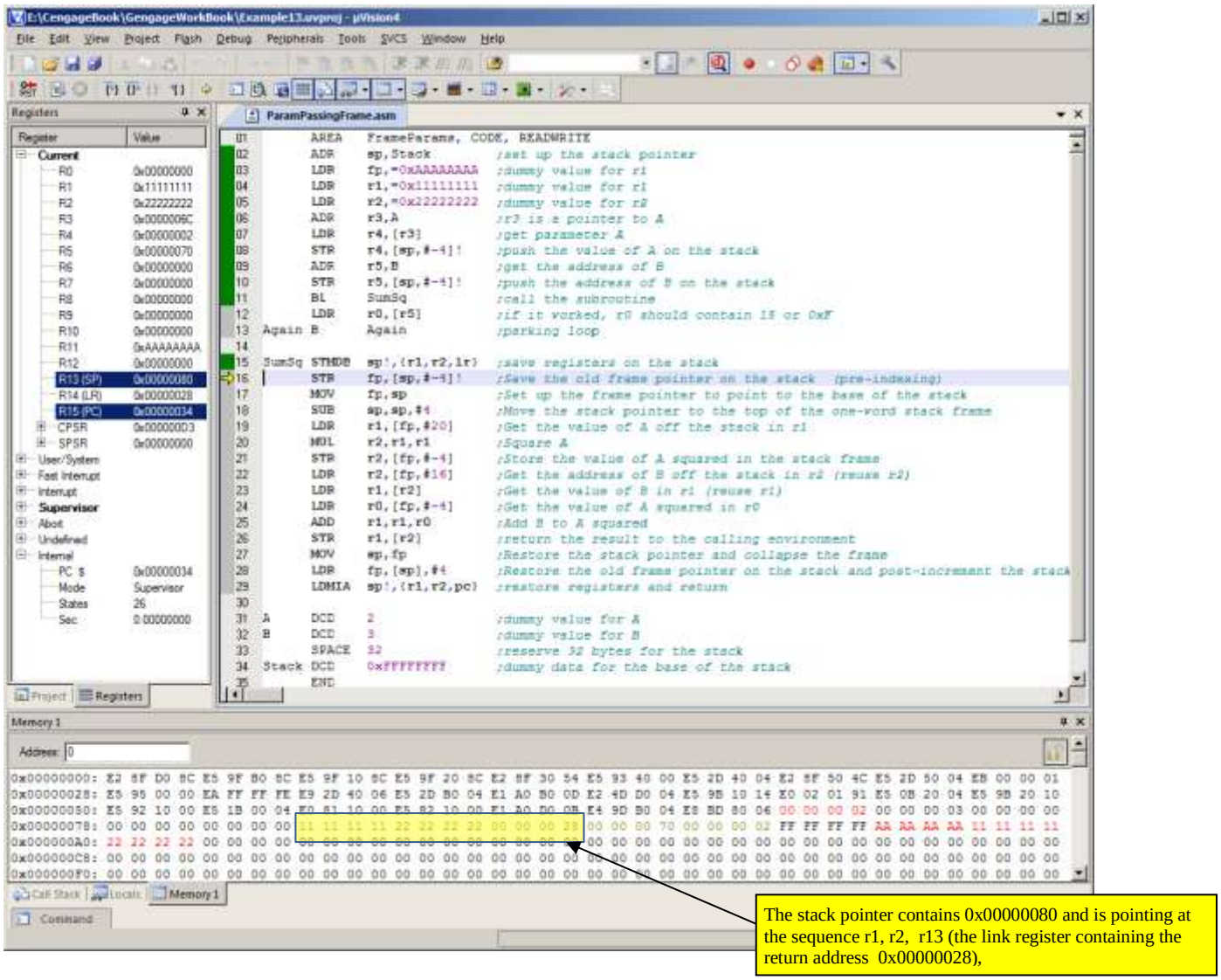


The next memory map demonstrates the situation immediately before the subroutine call. You can see that registers r1 and r2 have been loaded with the markers 0x11111111 and 0x22222222. Register r4 contains the parameter A (i.e., 2) and register r5 contains the address of parameter B (i.e., 0x00000070).

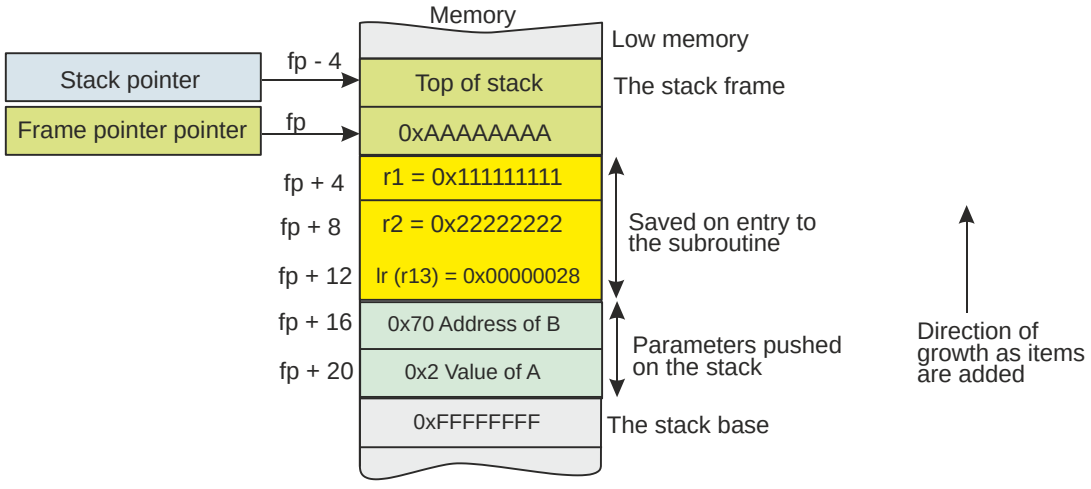
The stack pointer, sp or r13, contains the value 0x00000008C and is pointing at the last value pushed on the stack; that is, the address of B. Finally, the frame pointer, contains the marker 0xAAAAAAAA.



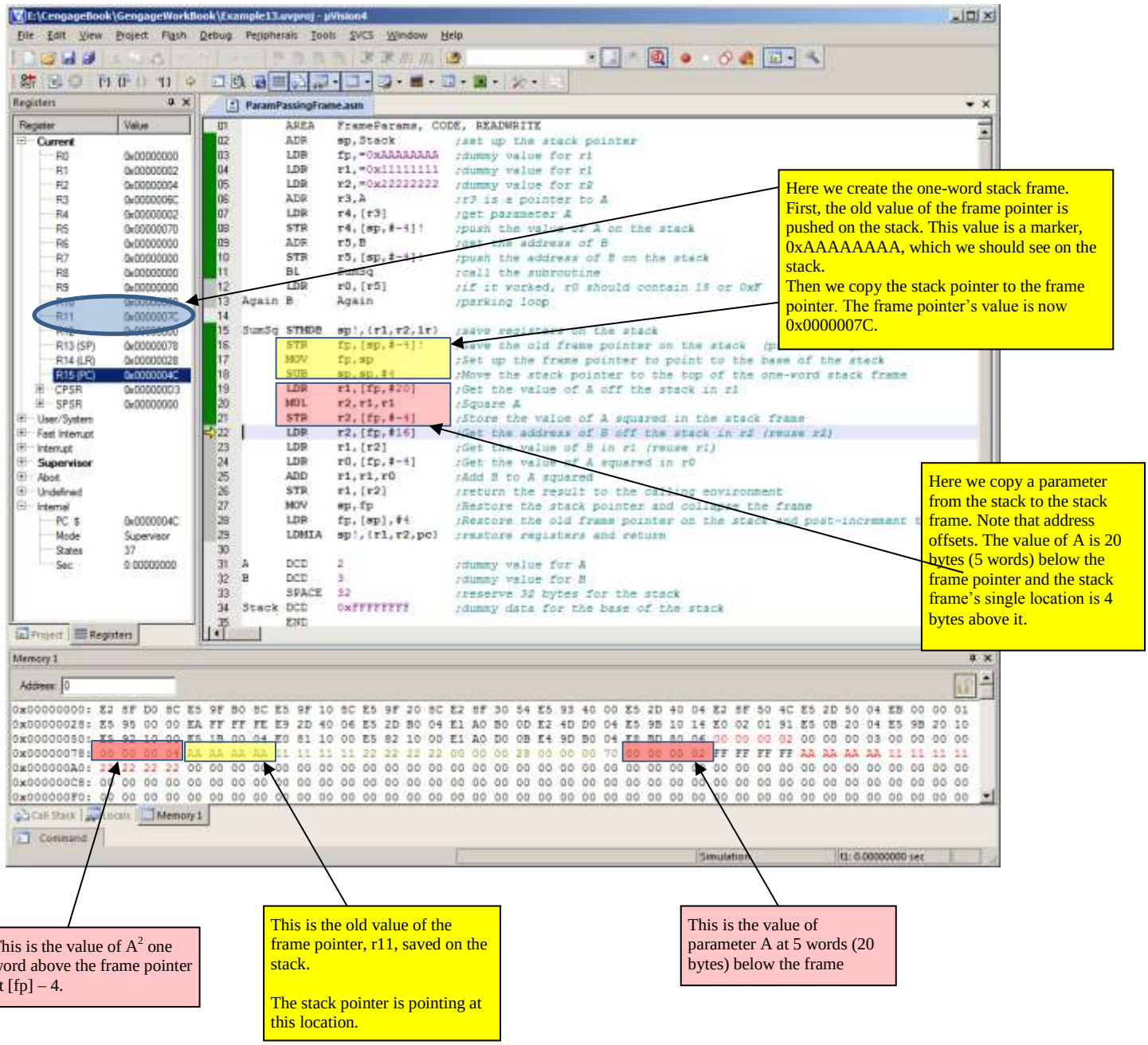
The next memory map shows the situation in the subroutine after saving r1, r2, and the link register on the stack.



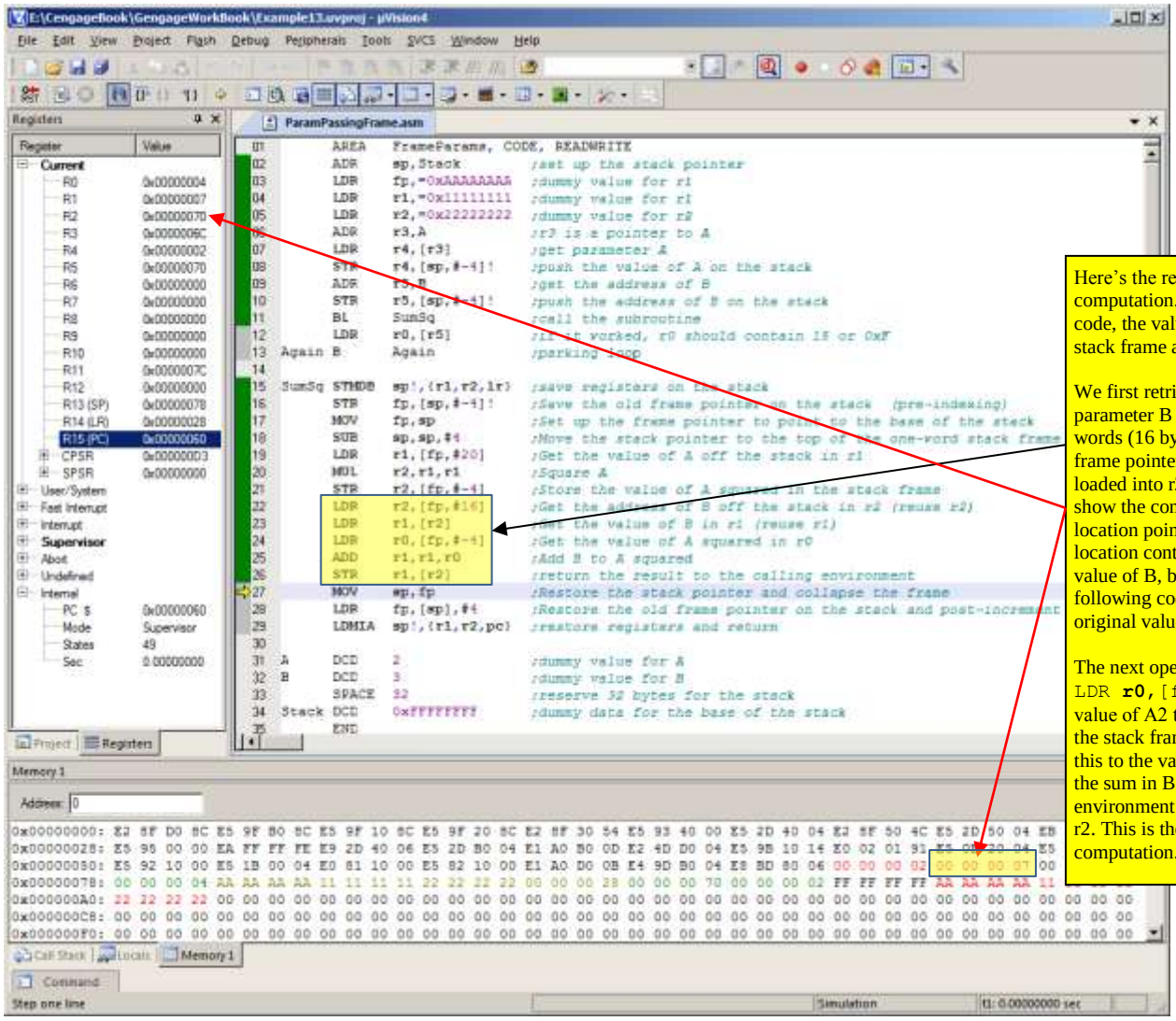
The following figure demonstrates the structure of the stack in this example. Note that addresses on the left are given with respect to the frame pointer. This helps to relate the stack to the offsets in the above code.



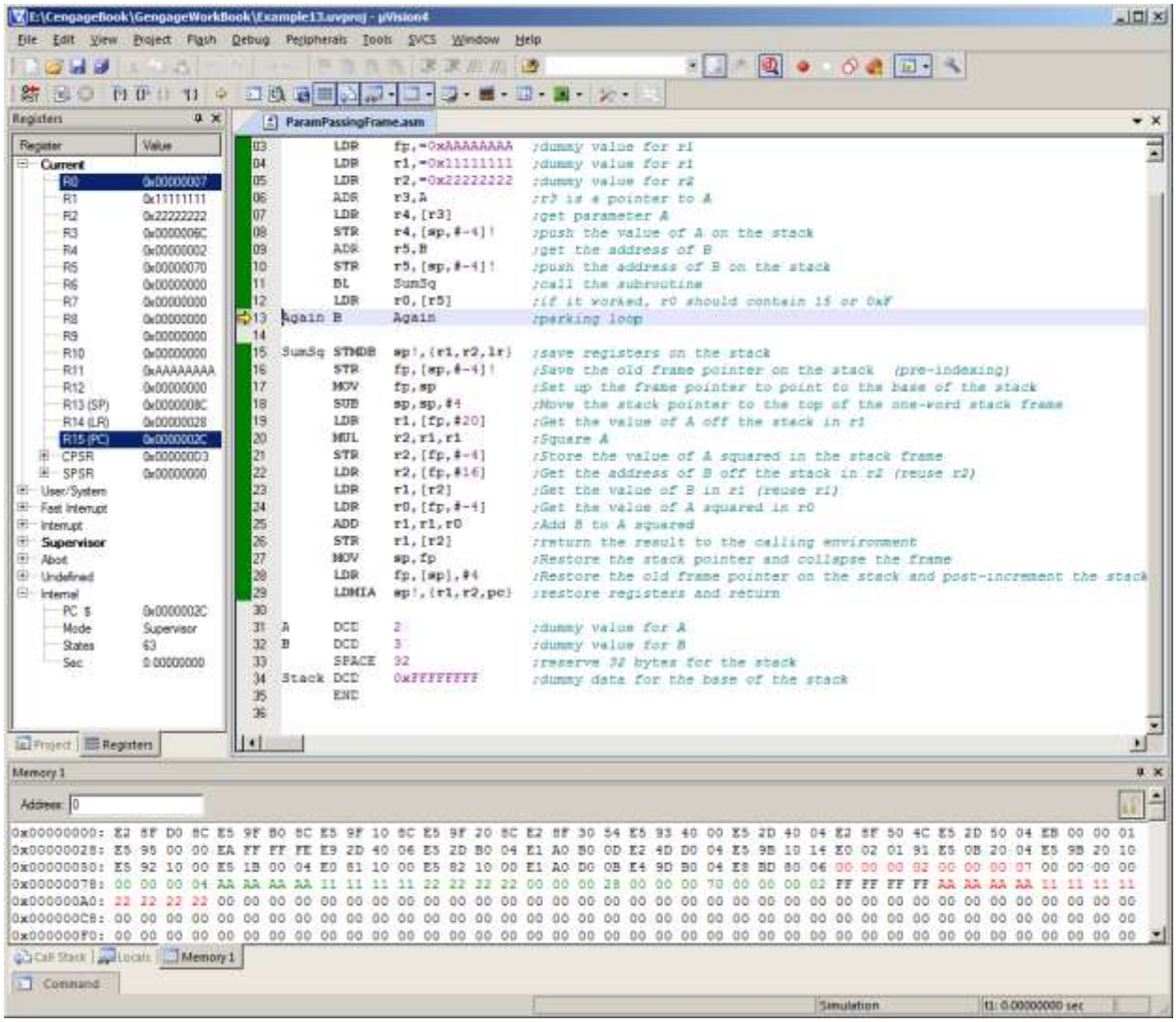
The following figure shows the memory map after squaring A and putting it in the stack frame.



The next memory map shows the situation after storing the result in the calling environment and before cleaning up the stack frame.



In the final snapshot of memory we show the memory map at the end of the program. A return has been made to the calling program and we have completed the program and are in a parking loop. All the registers have been reset to their original values except r13, the stack pointer, the program counter, and r0 which was a global scratchpad register.



The point of this example was to demonstrate the stack frame and passing parameters both be reference and value.

This is both a good example and a bad example. It is good in the sense that it is relatively simple. It is bad in the sense that no one would write this code because a stack frame is not necessary because there are enough registers for the local storage.

However, this example does illustrate how much overhead is associated with accessing data in memory.

APPENDIX

ARM Mnemonics

This appendix provides brief details of the part of the ARM's instruction set. We haven't included instructions that operate on the coprocessor.

ADC	Add with carry	Rd ← Rn + Op2 + Carry
ADD	Add	Rd ← Rn + Op2
AND	AND	Rd ← Rn AND Op2
B	Branch	R15 ← address
BIC	Bit Clear	Rd ← Rn AND NOT Op2
BL	Branch with Link	R14 ← R15, R15 ← address
BX	Branch and Exchange	R15 ← Rn, T bit← Rn[0]
CMN	Compare Negative	CPSR flags ← Rn + Op2
CMP	Compare	CPSR flags ← Rn - Op2
EOR	Exclusive OR	Rd ← Rn ⊕ Op2
LDM	Load multiple registers	
LDR	Load register from memory	Rd ← [address]
MLA	Multiply Accumulate	Rd := (Rm · Rs) + Rn
MOV	Move register or constant	Rd ← Op2
MRS	Move PSR status/flags to Register	Rn ← PSR
MSR	Move register to PSR	status/flags PSR ← Rm
MUL	Multiply	Rd ← Rm · Rs
MVN	Move negative	register Rd ← 0xFFFFFFFF EOR Op
ORR	OR	Rd ← Rn OR Op2
RSB	Reverse Subtract	Rd ← Op2 - Rn
RSC	Reverse Subtract with Carry	Rd ← Op2 - Rn - 1 + Carry
SBC	Subtract with Carry	Rd ← Rn - Op2 - 1 + Carry
STM	Store Multiple	
STR	Store register to memory	[address] ← Rd
SUB	Subtract	Rd ← Rn - Op2
SWI	Software Interrupt	OS call
SWP	Swap register with memory	Rd ← [Rn], [Rn] ← Rm
TEQ	Test bitwise equality	CPSR flags ← Rn EOR Op2
TST	Test bits	CPSR flags ← Rn AND Op2