

Chapter 1: Introduction to the HCS12 Microcontrollor

Basic Computer Concepts

A computer is made up of **hardware** (from EE/CompE) and **software** (from CSC).

1. **processor** (= CPU = core) ← ENGG 32A + ENGG 36
 - the **brain** of a computer system
 - performs = **arithmetic** and **logic computations**
 - single processor (core) vs. multiple processors (cores)
2. **memory** ← ENGG 32A
 - stores **programs** and **data**
 - **semiconductor chips**: RAM, ROM, PROM, EPROM EEPROM, **flash**, etc
 - **magnetic** and/or **optical** materials: CD-R, DVD-R, hard drive, etc
3. **input devices**
4. **output devices**

Learned about a **basic CPU** and **memory devices** in ENGG 32A. [see next 3 pages.]

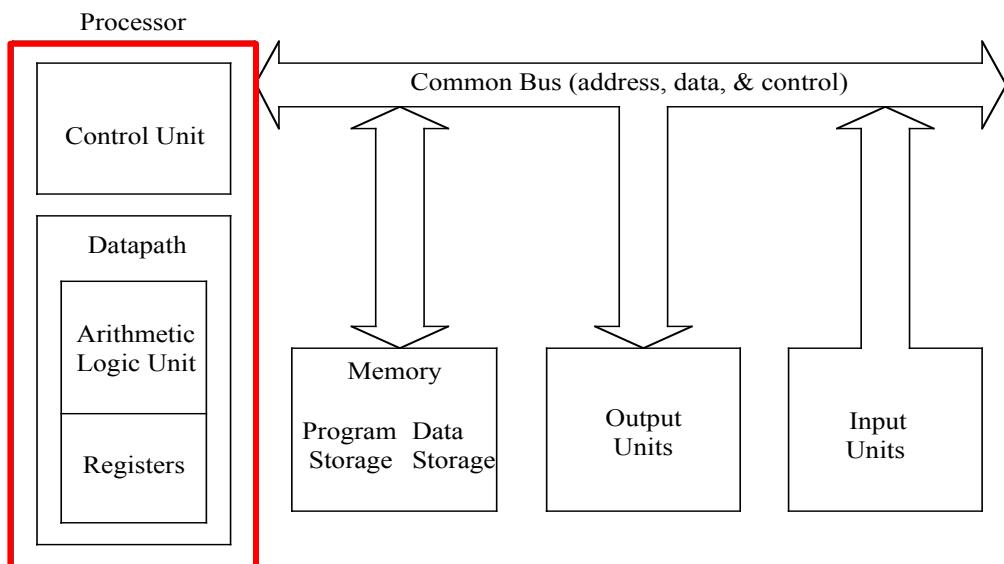


Figure 1.1 Computer Organization

The Processor

A **microprocessor** is a processor fabricated on a single **integrated circuit** (IC).

Classifying the microprocessors by using the **number of bits** (or word length) that a microprocessor can **manipulate in one operation**. For example, a **32-bit** microprocessor can only work on up to **32** bits of data in one operation.

Divided into two major parts: **Datapath** and **Control Unit**.

Datapath consists of a **register file** and an **ALU**. [see p. 3]

- Register file = multiple registers for faster data access inside CPU.
- A register is a **storage** location in the CPU, holding **data** or a **memory address**. For example, MAR, PC, MBR, DR.
- The register file makes **program execution** more **efficient** because **accessing data in registers** is **much faster** than accessing data in memory outside the CPU.
- **ALU** performs all of the **arithmetic and logic computations**.
- ALU receives **data from main memory or registers**, performs a **computation**, and writes the **result back** to main memory or registers.

Control Unit contains the **hardware instruction logic**. [see p. 4]

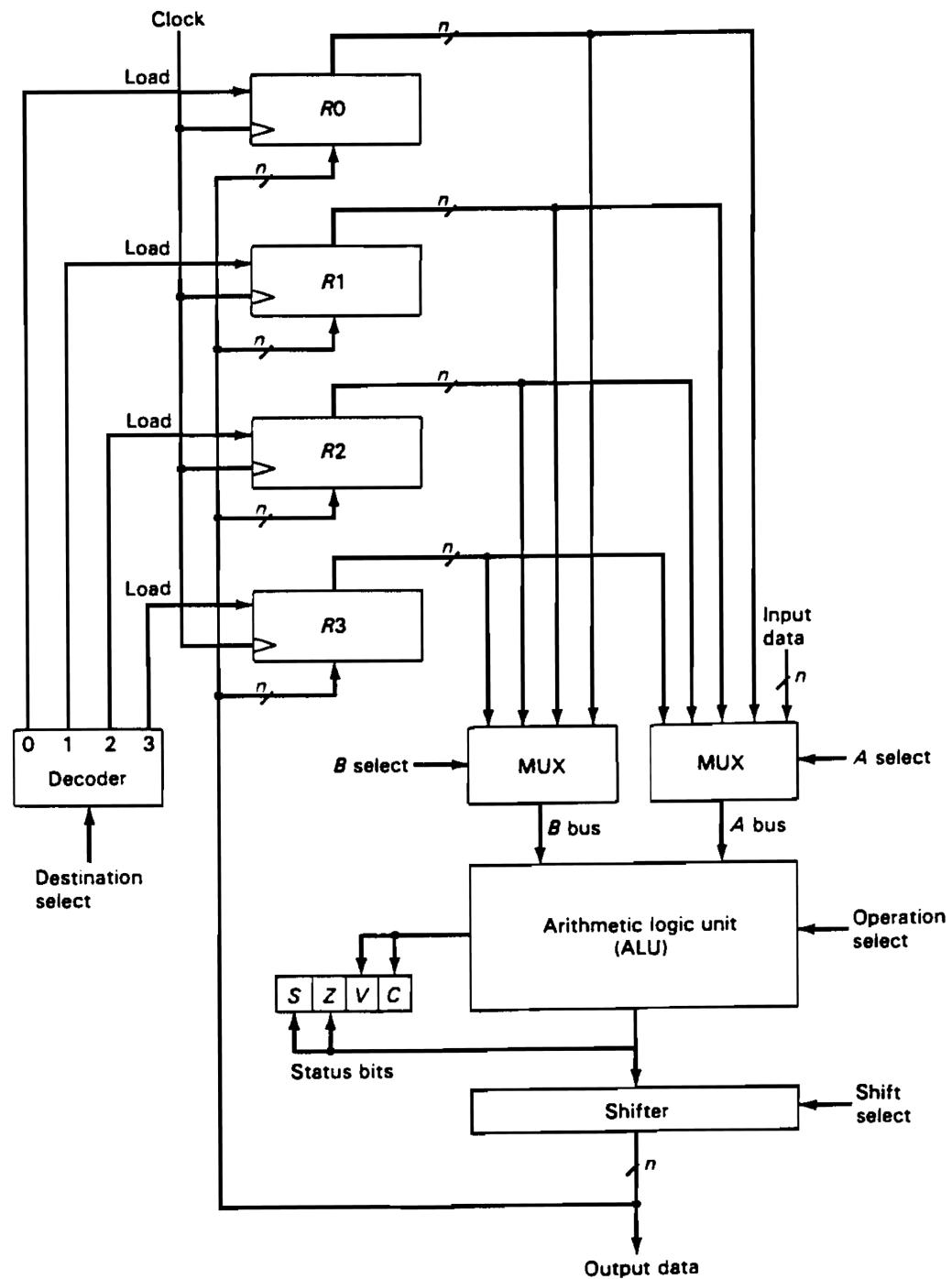
- Decodes and monitors the **execution of instruction**. (instructions = **control words** in ENGG 32A)
- **Coordinates** requests of using **CPU resources** from various parts of the computer system.
- Operation is **synchronized** by the system **clock**.
- Maintains a register called **program counter** (PC), which sets the **memory address** of the **next instruction** to be executed. → **IR = instruction register**
- A **status register** is used to store the presence of **overflow**, an addition **carry**, a subtraction **borrow**, zero/negative, interrupt enable, etc. The content of this register is then used for **program control** and **decision making**.

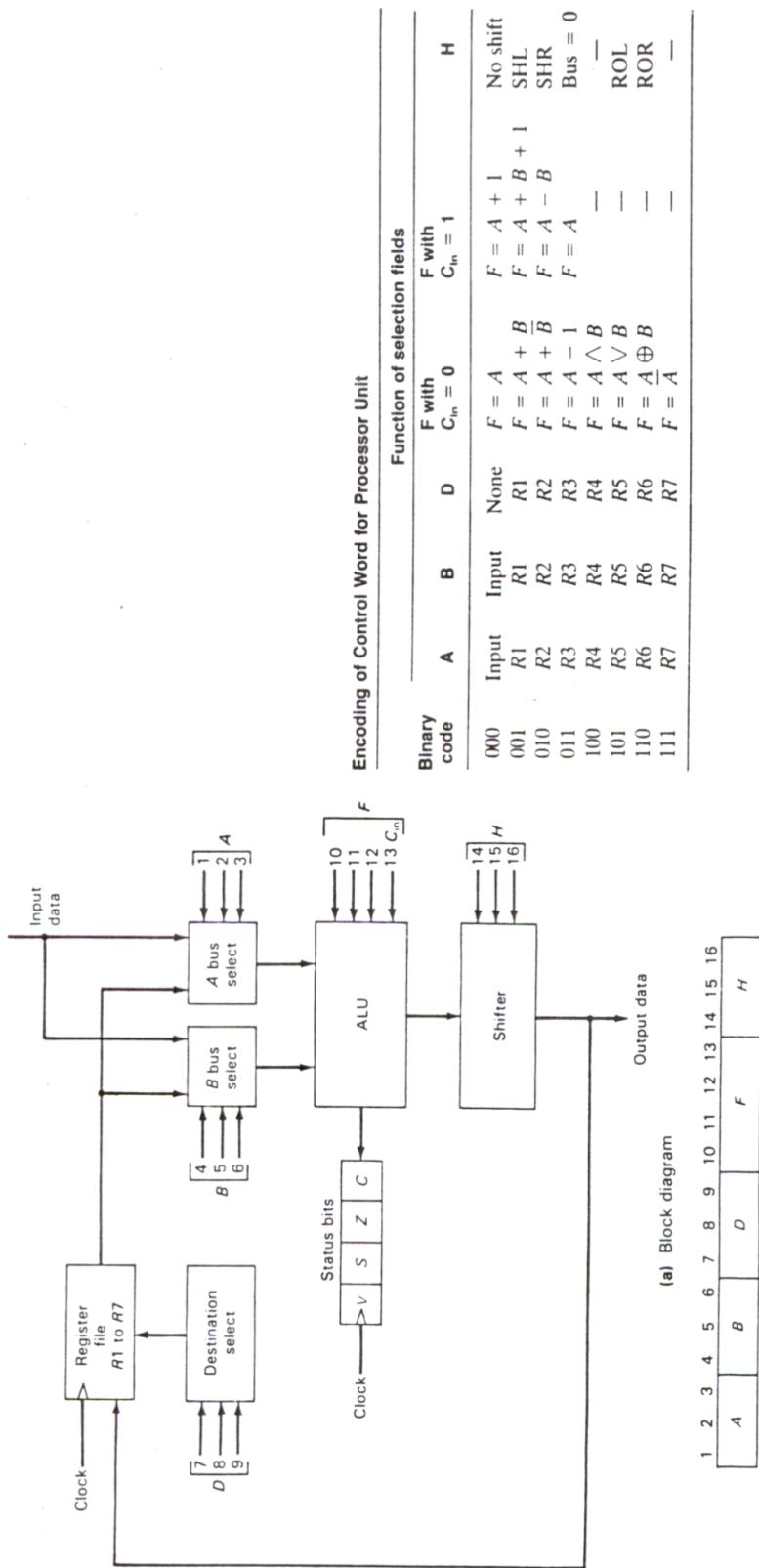
32-bit and 64-bit microprocessors incorporate **on-chip memory** (so-called **Cache** memory) to enhance performance by **prefetching** next several instructions in advance.

Microprocessors interface to **input/output** devices through **peripheral chips**.

For example, i8255 interface a parallel device such as a printer or 7-segment display with the Intel 8-bit microprocessor 8085.

A Basic CPU





Field:	A	B	D	F	H
Symbol:	<i>R2</i>	<i>R3</i>	<i>R1</i>	$F = A - B$	No shift
Control word:	010	011	001	0101	000

Examples of Microoperations for the Processor

Microoperation	Symbolic designation				Control word				H	
	A	B	D	F	H	A	B	D		
$R1 \leftarrow R2 - R3$	<i>R2</i>	<i>R3</i>	<i>R1</i>	$F = A - B$	No shift	010	011	001	0101	000
$R4 \leftarrow \text{shr}(R5 + R6)$	<i>R5</i>	<i>R6</i>	<i>R4</i>	$F = A + B$	SHR	101	110	100	0010	010
$R7 \leftarrow R7 + 1$	<i>R7</i>	—	<i>R7</i>	$F = A + 1$	No shift	111	000	111	0001	000
$R1 \leftarrow R2$	<i>R2</i>	—	<i>R1</i>	$F = A$	No shift	010	000	001	0000	000
$R1 \leftarrow R2$	—	—	—	$F = A$	No shift	011	000	000	0000	000
Output $\leftarrow R3$	<i>R3</i>	—	—	None	ROL	100	000	100	0000	101
$R4 \leftarrow \text{rol } R4$	<i>R4</i>	—	<i>R4</i>	$F = A$	ROL	101	000	101	0000	011
$R5 \leftarrow 0$	—	—	<i>R5</i>	—	Bus = 0	000	000	000	0000	011

Limitations of Microprocessors

- Require external memory to execute programs.
- Cannot directly interface with input/output devices; require peripheral chips.
- Need additional logic (such as address decoders and buffers) to interconnect external memory and peripheral interface chips with the microprocessor.
- Such a microprocessor-based system cannot be made as small as an IC chip because it is usually mounted on **printed circuit board** (= motherboard).

→ Lead to the development of **microcontrollers**.

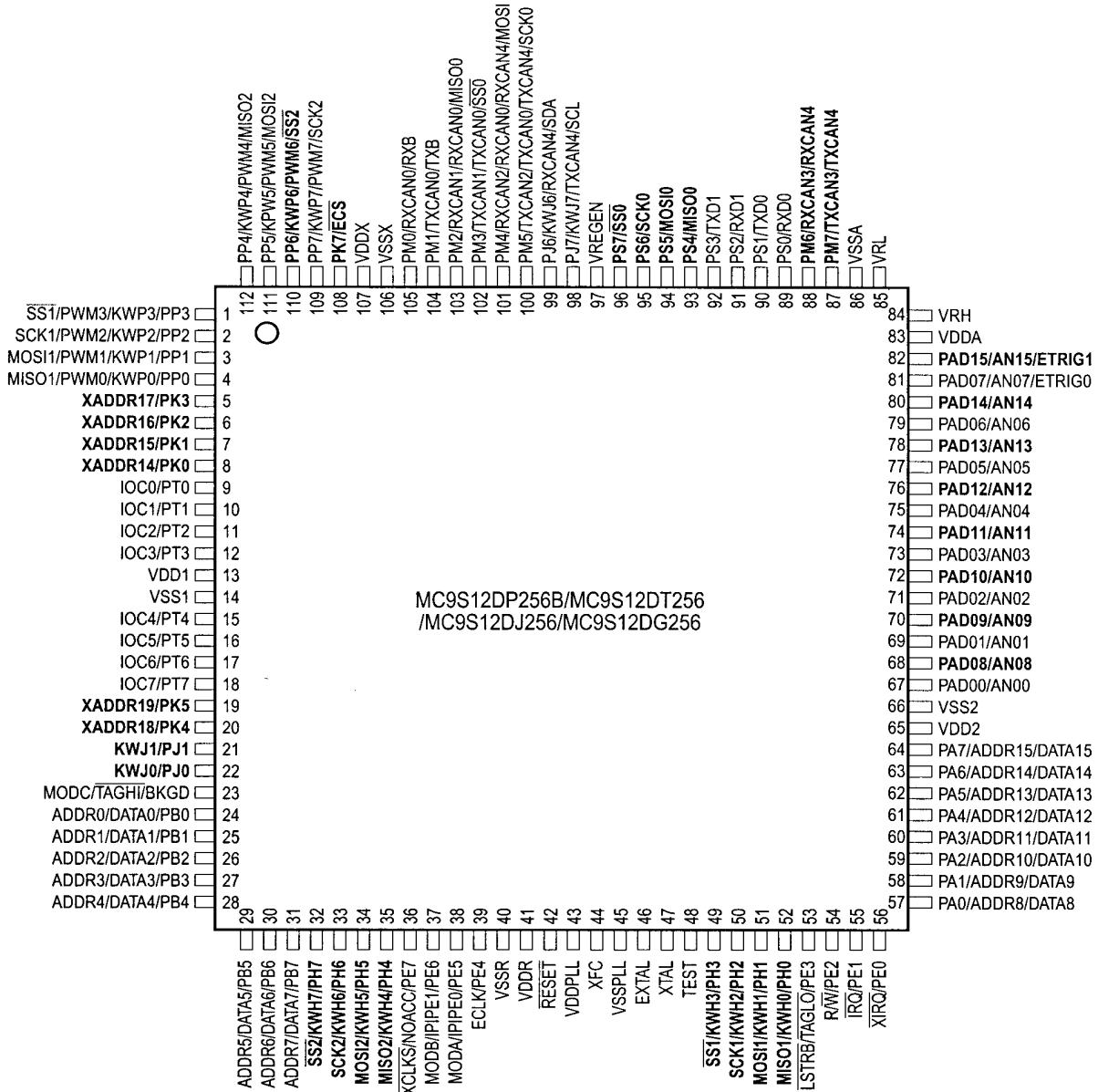
The Microcontrollers

A computer implemented on a single “very large scale integration” (VLSI) chip.
[will learn about VLSI chip design in ENGG 172]

A microcontroller contains everything a microprocessor contains plus one or more of the following components:

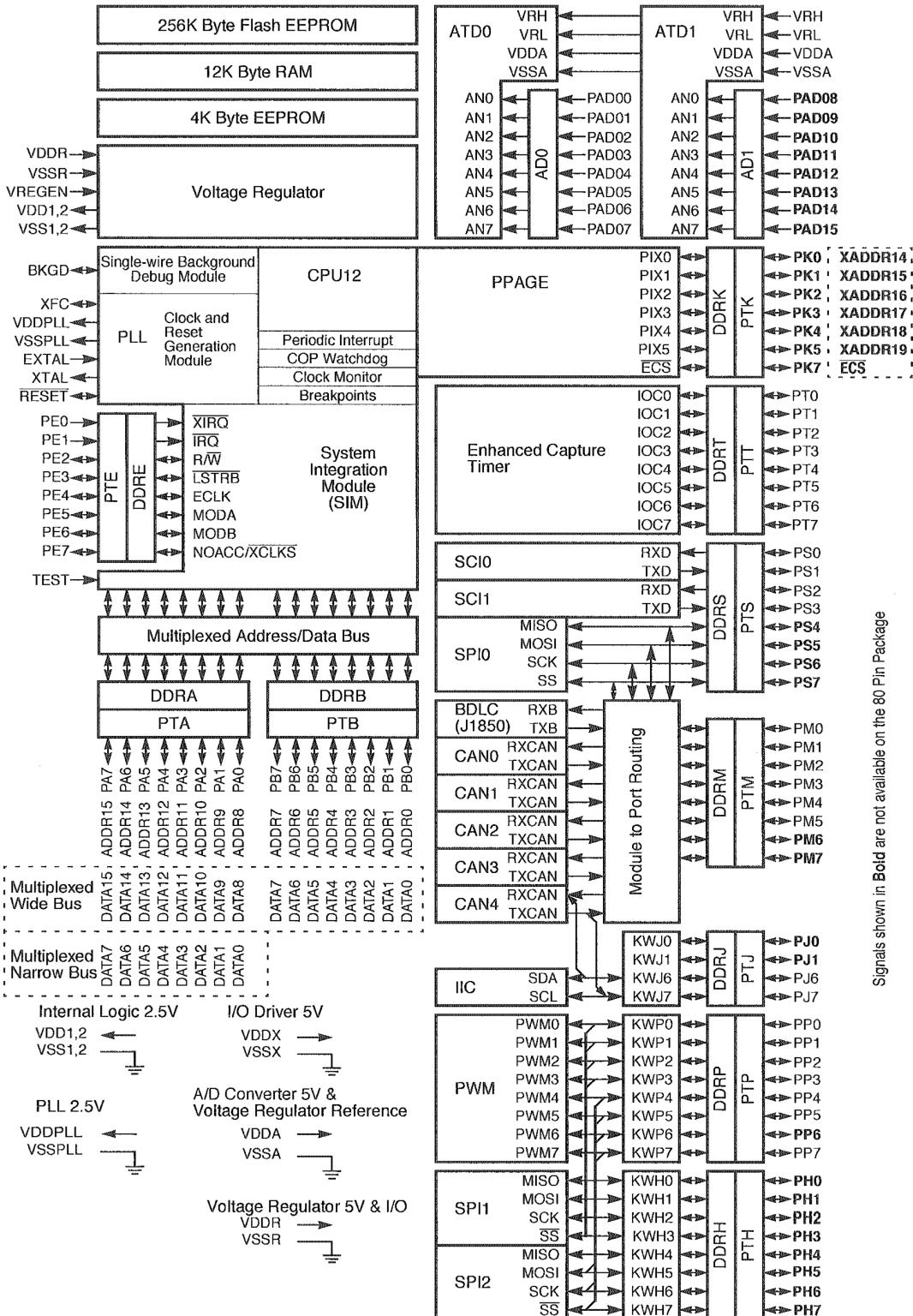
- **Memory:** stores data and programs.
- **Timer:** includes input capture, output compare, counter, pulse accumulator, pulse-width modulation (PWM) modules, real-time interrupt, etc. It can be used to measure frequency, period, pulse width, and duty cycle, create time delay, and generate waveforms. → oscilloscope
- **Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC):** often used with a sensor, converting certain non-electric quantities (temperature, weight, pressure) into an electric voltage and then into a digital value. → digital thermometer
- **Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC):** convert a digital value into a voltage output; e.g., control motor speed, adjust brightness of a light bulb. → waveform generator
- **Direct memory access (DMA) controller:** A DMA is a data transfer method that requires the CPU to perform initial setup but does not require the CPU to execute instructions to control the data transfer. → burn a DVD
- **Parallel I/O interface:** Parallel ports are used to drive parallel I/O devices. → printer
- **Asynchronous serial I/O interface:** transmits data bits serially without using a clock signal to synchronize the sender and receiver. → keyboard
- **Synchronous serial I/O interface:** transmits data bits serially with a clock signal to synchronize sender and receiver. → computer-to-computer communications
- **Memory component interface circuitry:** generates appropriate control signals to operate the memory chips.
- **Digital signal processing (DSP)** → FFT function in oscilloscope

We are using the Freescale **HC9S12DG256C** microcontroller on the Wytec **Dragon12-Plus2** Trainer.



Signals shown in **Bold** are not available on the 80 Pin Package

Pin assignment of the MC9S12DG256 MCU



Block diagram of the MC9S12DG256 MCU.

Features of the HCS12 Microcontroller Family

- 80 to 112 pins VLSI package
- 16-bit CPU
- 64 Kbytes memory space
 - 768 bytes to 4 Kbytes of on-chip EEPROM
 - 1 to 12 Kbytes of on-chip SRAM
 - 32 to 128 Kbytes of on-chip flash memory
- 8-bit or 10-bit A/D converter
- Sophisticated timer functions: input capture, output compare, pulse accumulator functions, real-time interrupt
- Pulse-width modulation (PWM)
- Multiple parallel input-output (I/O) ports
- Serial communication interfaces: asynchronous serial communication interface (SCI), synchronous peripheral interface (SPI), controller area network (CAN) bus interface, byte data link communication interface (BDLC)
- Computer operating properly (COP) watchdog timer
- Background debug mode (BDM)

Embedded Systems

A system that uses multiple microcontrollers as controller(s) is called an **embedded system**. For example, cell phones, home security systems, and modern automobiles.

Each microcontroller has its own responsibilities. These microcontrollers may need to exchange information or even coordinate their operations.

Machine Instructions

Programs = software = a set of **instructions** that the **computer hardware** can execute.

A **program** is stored in the computer's **memory** in the form of binary numbers called **machine instructions** = a **sequence** of **binary digits** executed by the CPU
→ Control Words (in ENGG 32A).

Writing programs in **machine language** is extremely **difficult** and **inefficient**. Hard to understand, program, or **debug** for human being; also, **CPU-architecture dependent!**

Machine instructions
0001 1000 0000 0001
0001 0011 0001 0001
1000 0111 0010 1000
control words

Mircrooperations
register A \leftarrow register A + register B
register A \leftarrow register A - 1
register B \leftarrow 6

Assembly Language

- Invented to **simplify** the programming job.
- Significant improvement over machine language programming.
- Consists of **assembly instructions**: mnemonic representations of machine instructions.
- Programmers **need not** to scan through 0s and 1s in order to identify what instructions are in the program.
- For example,

ABA

= add the content of register B to register A

DECA

= decrement the content of register A by 1

		object code	\leftarrow	assembler	\leftarrow	assembly instructions
<i>Line</i>	<i>address</i>	machine code				source code
1:		00002000				org \$2000
2:	2000	B6 0800				ldaa \$800
3:	2003	BB 0801				adda \$801
4:	2006	BB 0802				adda \$802
5:	2009	7A 0900				staa \$900
6:						end

↑ -- Each line of **instruction** is stored in one or more **memory addresses**.

- The **assembly program** is called source program or **source code**.
- A software program, called an **assembler**, is used to **translate** the source code in assembly language into machine instructions.
- The output (i.e., **machine instructions**) of the assembler is called **object code**.

Drawbacks of Assembly Language:

- Programmers must be very familiar with the hardware organization of the microcontroller → CPU-architecture dependent.
- The programs are not easily transferrable to other CPU architectures.
- Still difficult to understand for anyone other than the author.
- Productivity is not satisfactory for large programming projects.

High-level Language

- ✓ Examples: C, C++, JAVA.
- ✓ Syntax of a high-level language is similar to English, easier to understand.
- ✓ Another software, called a translator or compiler, is required to translate the program written in a high-level language.
- ✓ One statement in high-level language often needs to be implemented by tens or even hundreds of assembly instructions.
- ✓ High-level languages allow the user to work on the program logic at higher level, thus higher productivity.
- ✗ Resulting machine code cannot run as fast as its equivalent in assembly language due to the inefficiency of the compilation process.

Time-critical programs (e.g., arcade video games) are still written in assembly language.

A complier is a software program to translate the source program (= source code) into machine instructions (i.e., object code).

The HCS12 CPU Registers

For temporary storage inside the CPU, this family of microcontrollers has many registers: **CPU registers** and **I/O registers**.

I/O registers:

- Configure the operations of peripheral functions.
- Hold data transferred in and out of the peripheral subsystem.
- Record the status of I/O operations.
- Classified into data, data direction, control, and status registers. They are treated as memory locations when they are accessed.

CPU registers perform general-purpose operations such as arithmetic, logic, and program flow control.

CPU Registers

mostly for arithmetic operations	<table border="1"><tr><td>7</td><td>A</td><td>0</td><td>7</td><td>B</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>15</td><td></td><td></td><td>D</td><td></td><td>0</td></tr></table>	7	A	0	7	B	0	15			D		0	8-bit <u>accumulator A and B</u> or 16-bit double accumulator D =A:B
7	A	0	7	B	0									
15			D		0									
for operand address and some arithmetic operations	<table border="1"><tr><td>15</td><td>X</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	15	X	0	<u>Index register X</u>									
15	X	0												
	<table border="1"><tr><td>15</td><td>Y</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	15	Y	0	<u>Index register Y</u>									
15	Y	0												
holds the address of the top of a STACK	<table border="1"><tr><td>15</td><td>SP</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	15	SP	0	Stack pointer (see ch. 4)									
15	SP	0												
holds address of the next instruction to be executed	<table border="1"><tr><td>15</td><td>PC</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	15	PC	0	Program counter									
15	PC	0												
contain the status and conditions of the CPU	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>S</td> <td>X</td> <td>H</td> <td>I</td> <td>N</td> <td>Z</td> <td>V</td> <td>C</td> </tr> </table> <p>The diagram shows the connections between the CPU's condition codes and the CCR bits. Bit S connects to S. Bit X connects to X. Bit H connects to H. Bit I connects to I. Bit N connects to N. Bit Z connects to Z. Bit V connects to V. Bit C connects to C. There are also feedback paths from the CCR bits back to the CPU: C connects to H, N, and Z; Z connects to V; and V connects to C.</p>	S	X	H	I	N	Z	V	C	Condition code register (CCR)				
S	X	H	I	N	Z	V	C							
		<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Carry</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Overflow</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Zero</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Negative</td> </tr> </table>	Carry	Overflow	Zero	Negative								
Carry														
Overflow														
Zero														
Negative														
		I Interrupt mask												
		Half-Carry (from bit 3)												
		X Interrupt Mask												
		Stop Disable												

Figure 1.3 MC68HC12 CPU registers.

Condition Code Register = CCR

General-Purpose Accumulator A and B

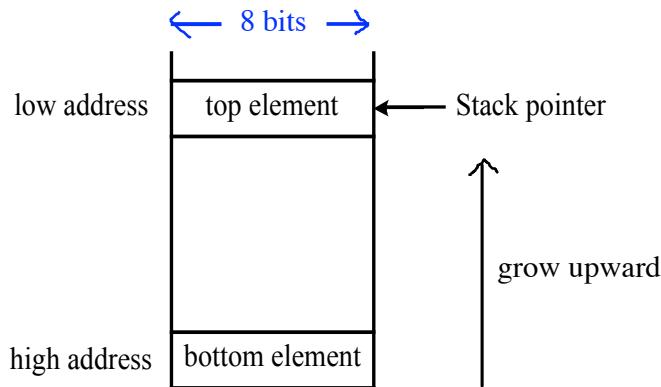
- Both are **8-bit** registers.
- Most **arithmetic** functions are performed on these two registers.
- They can also be concatenated to form a single **16-bit** accumulator, referred to as the **D accumulator**. $\mathbf{D = A:B}$

Index Registers X and Y

- Used mainly in forming **operand addresses** during the instruction execution process.
- Also used in several **arithmetic operations**.

Stack Pointer (SP)

- A stack is a **first-in-last-out (FILO)** data structure.
- The 68HC12 has a **16-bit** SP to the top byte of the stack. The stack grows toward lower address.
- For **dynamic data storage**. [see ch. 4]



Memory structure of a **stack**

Program Counter (PC)

- A **16-bit** register.
- Holds the **address** of the **next instruction** to be executed.
- Incremented by the number of bytes of the executed instruction after the instruction is executed.

Condition Code Register (CCR)

- A **8-bit** register
- Keep track of the program execution **status**, control the execution of **conditional instructions**, and enable/disable the **interrupt handling**.

Types of Data in HCS12 MCU

- Basic unit: bits
- 5-bit signed integers: formed during addressing mode computations
- 8-bit signed and unsigned integers
- 8-bit 2-digit BCD numbers
- 9-bit signed integers: formed during addressing mode computations
- 16-bit signed and unsigned integers
- 16-bit effective addresses: formed during addressing mode computations
- 32-bit signed and unsigned integers: used by extended division, extended multiply, and extended multiply-and-accumulate instructions

Negative numbers are represented in the **2's-complement** form.

16-bit or 32-bit integer is stored in memory from **most significant to least significant bytes**, starting from **low to higher addresses**.

A number can be represented in **binary**, **octal**, **decimal**, or **hexadecimal** format by adding an appropriate prefix in front of the number to indicate its base.

Prefixes for number bases inside assembly programs. (**8 bits = 1 byte = 2 hex digits**)

base	prefix	example
binary	%	%1000 1101
octal	@	@215
decimal		141
hexadecimal (hex)	\$	\$8D

Memory Addressing

- Memory consists of a sequence of directly addressable locations, referred to as an information unit.
- A memory location can be used to store **data**, **instruction**, and the **status** of peripheral devices.
- A **memory location** has two components: an **address** and its **contents**.

1 address contains 8 bits (=1 byte)

$2^{16} = 64K$ addresses
can store 64K bytes

addresses: \$0000 to \$FFFF

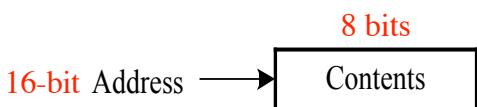
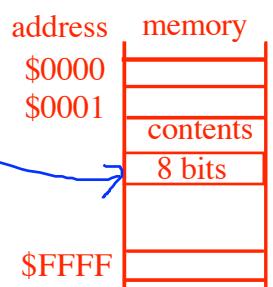
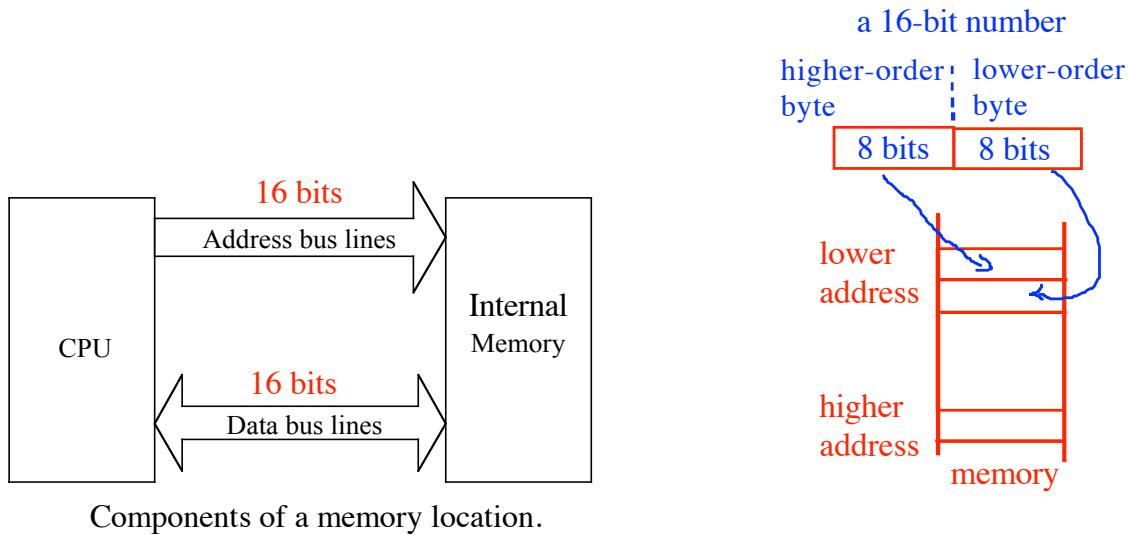


Figure 1.5 The components of a memory location



- Data transfers between the CPU and the memory are done over the common buses: **address bus** and **data bus**.
- The CPU communicates with memory by first identifying the location's address and then passing this address on the **address bus**.
- The **data** are transferred between memory and the CPU along the **data bus**.



Memory size is measured in **bytes** (i.e., groups of **8 bits**)

$$K = 2^{10} = 1,024$$

$$M = 2^{20} = 1024 \times 1024 = 1,048,576$$

$$G = 2^{30} = 1024 \times 1024 \times 1024$$

$$T \text{ (tera)} = 2^{40} = 1024 \text{ G}$$

$$P \text{ (peta)} = 2^{50} = 1024 \text{ T}$$

The HCS12 has a **16-bit address bus** and a **16-bit data bus**.

- The 16-bit data bus allows the access of **16-bit data** in **one operation**.
- The 16-bit address bus allows the access of directly up to 2^{16} (i.e., **65,536** or **64K**) different memory locations.

Certain HCS12 members use **paging techniques** to allow user programs to access more than 64Kbytes.

m[addr] represents the **contents** of a **memory location**. For example, **m[\$20]** refers to the contents of memory location at **\$0020** (in hex) or **32** (in decimal).

[reg] refers to the **contents** of a **register**. For example, **[A]** refers to the contents of accumulator A.

Addressing Modes

A 68HC12 **instruction** consists of

- one or two bytes of **opcode** (= operation)
- zero to five bytes of **operand** addressing information

Opcode bytes specify the **operation** to be performed by the CPU and the **addressing modes** to be used to access the operand(s).

Addressing modes determines how the CPU access memory locations to be acted upon.

HCS12 MCU addressing mode

Table 1.21 HCS12 addressing mode summary

Addressing mode	Source format	Abbre.	Description
1. Inherent	INST (no externally supplied operands)	INH	Operands (if any) are in CPU registers
2. Immediate	INST #opr8i or INST #opr16i	IMM	Operand is included in instruction stream. 8- or 16-bit size implied by context
3. Direct	INST opr8a	DIR	Operand is the lower 8 bits of an address in the range \$0000-\$00FF
Extended	INST opr16a	EXT	Operand is a 16-bit address
4. Relative	INST rel8 or INST rel16	REL	An 8-bit or 16-bit relative offset from the current PC is supplied in the instruction
5. Indexed (5-bit offset) Indexed (pre-decrement) Indexed (pre-increment) Indexed (post-decrement) Indexed (post-increment) Indexed (accumulator offset) Indexed (9-bit offset) Indexed (16-bit offset)	INST oprx5,xysp INST oprx3,-xys INST oprx3,+xys INST oprx3,xys- INST oprx3,xys+ INST abd,xysp INST oprx9,xysp INST oprx16,xysp	IDX IDX IDX IDX IDX IDX IDX1 IDX2	5-bit signed constant offset from x,y,sp, or pc Auto pre-decrement x, y, or sp by 1 ~ 8 Auto pre-increment x, y, or sp by 1 ~ 8 Auto post-decrement x, y, or sp by 1 ~ 8 Auto post-increment x, y, or sp by 1 ~ 8 Indexed with 8-bit (A or B) or 16-bit (D) accumulator offset from x, y, sp, or pc 9-bit signed constant offset from x, y, sp, or pc (lower 8-bits of offset in one extension byte) 16-bit constant offset from x, y, sp, or pc (16-bit offset in two extension bytes)
6. Indexed-Indirect (16-bit offset) Indexed-Indirect (D accumulator offset)	INST [opr16,xysp] INST [D,xysp]	[IDX2] [D,IDX]	Pointer to operand is found at 16-bit constant offset from (x, y, sp, or pc) Pointer to operand is found at x, y, sp, or pc plus the value in D

Note: INST = the instruction mnemonic; opr8i = 8-bit immediate value; opr16i = 16-bit immediate value; opr8a = 8-bit address; opr16a = 16-bit address; oprx3 = 3-bit value (amount to be incremented or decremented.)

1. Inherent Mode (INH)

- Instructions do not use extra bytes to specify operands because the instructions either do **not need operands** or all operands are **internal CPU registers**.
- Operands are implied by the opcode.

NOP	; no operation (this instruction has no operands)
INX	; increment index register X by 1
DECA	; decrement accumulator A by 1

2. Immediate Mode (IMM)

- Operands are included in the instruction. (**operands = numbers.**)
- CPU does **not need to access memory** for operands.
- An immediate value (i.e., operand) can be **8 bits or 16-bits**, preceded by a "#".

LDAA #\$55	; load hex value \$55 to accumulator A	A [0101 0101]
LDX #\$2000	; load hex value \$2000 to index register X	X [0010 0000 0000 0000]
LDY #\$44	; load hex value \$0044 to index register Y	Y [0000 0000 0100 0100]

8 bits
16 bits

(Although an 8-bit value was supplied in this LDY instruction, the assembler will generate the 16-bit value \$0044 because the CPU expects a **16-bit value** in this kind of register.)

How about LDAA #\$0044?

3. Direct Mode (DIR)

- This mode can only specify memory locations in the range of **0-255** (i.e., \$0000 to \$00FF in hexadecimal).
- Uses only **one byte** (= 8 bits) to specify the **operand address** to save space.

LDAA	\$20	; A $\leftarrow m[\$0020]$; load the contents in memory to A
LDAB	\$40	; B $\leftarrow m[\$0040]$ (8 bits)
LDX	\$20	; X _H $\leftarrow m[\$0020]$, X _L $\leftarrow m[\$0021]$ (16 bits)

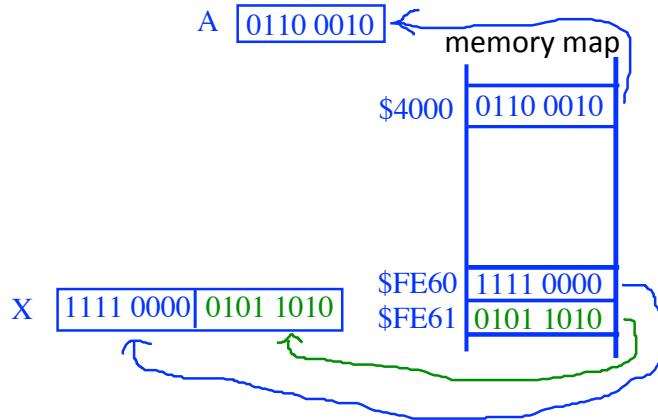
[The LDX instruction places the contents of memory locations at \$0020 and \$0021 in the higher and lower bytes (X_H and X_L) of the index register X, respectively.]

→ see example after Extended Mode in next page

Extended Mode (EXT)

- Allows full **16-bit address** of a memory location to be operated on.
- Can be used to access any location in the **64-Kbyte memory map**.

LDAA	\$4000	; A $\leftarrow m[\$4000]$
LDX	\$FE60	; X _H $\leftarrow m[\$FE60]$, X _L $\leftarrow m[\$FE61]$



4. Relative Mode (REL)

- Used only by **branch instructions** in form of **conditional statements**.
- Branching versions of **bit manipulation** instructions (BRCLR and BRSET) can also use relative addressing mode to specify branch target.
- A **short branch** instruction consists of an 8-bit opcode and a **signed 8-bit** offset, specifying a range of **-128 ~ +127** (or **\$80 ~ \$7F** in hex).
- A **long branch** instruction consists of an 8-bit opcode and a **signed 16-bit** offset, specifying a range of **-32768 ~ +32767** (or **\$8000 ~ \$7FFF** in hex).
- Both 8-bit and 16-bit offsets are **signed 2's complement** numbers to support **branching forward** and **backward** in memory.
- Branch **offset** is often specified using **a label**, rather than a numeric value, to specify the **branch target** and the assembler will calculate the actual branch offset (**distance**) from the instruction that follows branch instruction.

Instruction examples: BRCLR = branch if all selected bits are cleared to 0

BRSET = branch if all selected bits are set to 1

5. Indexed Modes (IDX)

- There are **several variations** for the indexed addressing mode.
- Uses a postbyte plus 0, 1, or 2 extension bytes after the instruction opcode.
- Uses the **sum of an index register** (X, Y, PC, or SP) **and an offset** to specify the **address** of an operand.
- The offset can be a 5-bit, 9-bit, and 16-bit signed value or the value **in** accumulator **A, B, or D**.
- Automatic **pre- or post-increment** or **pre- or post-decrement** by -8 to +8 are options.
- Indirect indexing with 16-bit offset or accumulator D as the offset is supported.

memory address = content of a 16-bit register + offset

Table 1.3 Summary of indexed operations

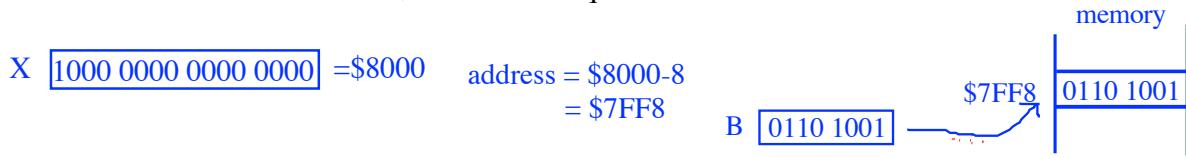
Postbyte code (xb)	source code syntax	Comments rr: 00 = X, 01 = Y, 10 = SP, 11 = PC
rr0nnnnn	r n,r -n,r	5-bit constant offset n = -16 to +15 r can be X, Y, SP, or PC
111rr0zs	n,r -n,r	Constant offset (9- or 16-bit signed) z: 0 = 9-bit with sign in LSB of postbyte (s) -256 < n < 255 1 = 16-bit 0 < n < 65535 if z = s = 1, 16-bit offset indexed-indirect (see below)
111rr011	[n,r]	16-bit offset indexed-indirect 0 < n < 65536 rr can be X, Y, SP, or PC
rr1pnnnn	n,-r n,+r n,r- n,r+	Auto pre-decrement/increment or auto post-decrement/increment ; p = pre-(0) or post-(1), n = -8 to -1 or +1 to +8 r can be X, Y, or SP (PC not a valid choice) +8 = 0111 ... +1 = 0000 -1 = 1111 ... -8 = 1000
111rr1aa	A,r B,r D,r	Accumulator offset (unsigned 8-bit or 16-bit) aa: 00 = A 01 = B 10 = D (16-bit) 11 = see accumulator D offset indexed-indirect
111rr111	[D,r]	Accumulator D offset indexed-indirect r can be X, Y, SP, or PC

5-bit Constant Offset Indexed Addressing

- This mode adds a **5-bit signed offset**, which is included in the instruction postbyte to the base index register to form the effective address.
- The base index register can be X, Y, SP, or PC.
- The range of the **offset** is from **-16 to +15**.
- Examples:

LDAA 0, X ; **loads** the contents of the memory location pointed to ; by index register X with **zero offset** into A.

STAB -8, X ; **stores** the contents of B into the memory location with ; the address equal to the contents of X minus 8.



9-bit Constant Offset Indexed Addressing

- This mode uses a **9-bit signed offset**, which is added to the base index register to form the effective address of the memory location.
- The base index register can be X, Y, SP, or PC.
- The range of the offset is from **-256 to +255**.

LDAA \$FF, X ; **loads** the contents of the memory location with ; the address equal to the value in X plus 255.

LDAB -20, Y ; **loads** the contents of the memory location with ; the address equal to the value in Y minus 20.

16-bit Constant Offset Indexed Addressing

- This mode uses a **16-bit signed offset**, which is added to the base index register to form the effective address of the memory location,
- The base index register can be X, Y, SP, or PC.
- This mode allows access any location in the **64-Kbyte** range.

LDAA \$2000, X

STAA \$4000, Y

16-bit Constant Indirect Indexed Addressing

- A **16-bit offset** is added to the base index register to form the address of a memory location that contains a pointer to the desired memory location.
- The square brackets distinguish this addressing mode from the constant offset indexing.

LDAA [10, X] ; [] = an address pointer
; X holds the base address of a table of pointers.

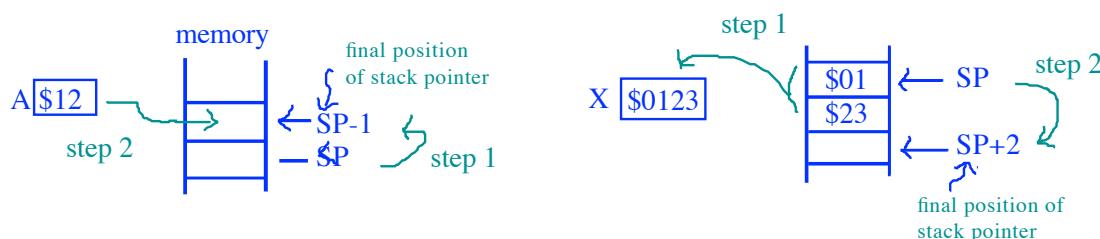


What will be the content of A if there is no “[]”?

Auto Pre/Post Decrement/Increment Indexed Addressing

- Four ways to **change the value in a base index register** (X, Y, or SP) as a part of instruction execution
- The index register can be **incremented or decremented** by an integer value either **before or after indexing** taking place, in the ranges **-8 through -1** or **1 through 8**.
- **Pre-decrement** and **pre-increment** indexed addressing modes adjust the value of the index register before accessing the memory location, and the index register retains the changed value
- **Post-decrement** and **post-increment** indexed addressing modes use the initial value in the index register to access the memory location, and then change the value of the index register
- Used to perform operations on a **series of data structure of memory**

STAA 1, -SP ; pre-decrement by 1 +SP = pre-increment
stores the contents of A at the memory location with the address equal to the value of stack pointer minus 1. After the store operation, the contents of SP are decremented by 1.



LDX 2, SP+ ; post-increment by 2 SP- = post-decrement
loads the contents of the memory locations pointed to by the stack pointer. After the instruction execution, the value of SP is incremented by 2.

Accumulator Offset Indexed Addressing

- The effective address of the operand is the sum of the accumulator (8-bit A, 8-bit B, or 16-bit D) and the base index register (X, Y, SP, or PC).
- The base register value is not changed.
- The accumulator provides an **unsigned 8-bit or 16-bit offset**.

LDAA B, X ; address = content of B + content of X
loads accumulator A with the contents of the memory location, whose address is given by the sum of the values of accumulator B and index register X.

Accumulator D Indirect Indexed Addressing

- The value in accumulator D is **added to the base index register** (X, Y, SP, or PC) to form the address of a memory location that contains the address (so-called a **pointer**) to the memory location affected by the instruction.
- The square brackets distinguish this addressing mode from accumulator D offset indexing.

JMP [D, PC] ; jump to M[D+PC] = **an address pointer**
content of D + content of PC = an address of an address

Instruction Examples

(See Appendix A of the textbook for the complete list of instructions.)

1. LOAD and STORE Instructions

- **LOAD** copies the contents of a memory location or places an immediate value into an accumulator or a CPU register.
- **STORE** copies the contents of a CPU register into a memory location.
- **N and Z flags** of the condition code register **CCR** are automatically updated and the **V flag** is cleared.
- All except for the relative addressing mode can be used to select the memory location or value to be loaded into an accumulator or CPU register.
- All except for the relative and immediate addressing modes can be used to select memory location to store contents of the CPU register.
- For example,

LDAA 0, X ; $A \leftarrow M[0+X]$ move 1 byte

loads the contents of the memory location pointed to by index register X with zero offset into accumulator A.

LDAB \$1004 ; $B \leftarrow M[\$1004]$ move 1 byte

loads the contents of the memory location at \$1004 into accumulator B.

STAA \$20 ; $M[\$0020] \leftarrow A$ move 1 byte

stores the contents of accumulator A into the memory location at \$0020.

STX \$8000 ; $M[\$8000:\$8001] \leftarrow X$ move 2 bytes

stores the contents of index register X into the memory locations at \$8000 and \$8001.

LDD #1000 ; $A:B \leftarrow 1000$ move a value

loads the decimal value 1000 into accumulator D.

What are the actual contents in D, A, and B?

Note: Each **memory location** (or **address**) has only **8 bits**.

LOAD and STORE instructions

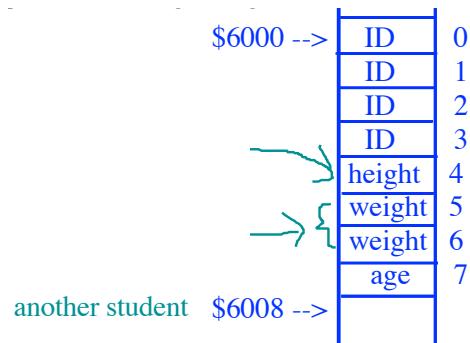
Mnemonic	Function	Operation	
LDAA	Load A	$(M) \Rightarrow A$	
LDAB	Load B	$(M) \Rightarrow B$	8 bits
LDD	Load D	$(M:M+1) \Rightarrow (A:B)$	
LDS	Load SP	$(M:M+1) \Rightarrow SP$	16 bits
LDX	Load index register X	$(M:M+1) \Rightarrow X$	
LDY	Load index register Y	$(M:M+1) \Rightarrow Y$	
LEAS	Load effective address into SP	Effective address $\Rightarrow SP$	
LEAX	Load effective address into X	Effective address $\Rightarrow X$	
LEAY	Load effective address into Y	Effective address $\Rightarrow Y$	
Store Instructions			
Mnemonic	Function	Operation	
STAA	Store A	$(A) \Rightarrow M$	
STAB	Store B	$(B) \Rightarrow M$	8 bits
STD	Store D	$(A) \Rightarrow M, (B) \Rightarrow M+1$	
STS	Store SP	$(SP) \Rightarrow M, M+1$	16 bits
STX	Store X	$(X) \Rightarrow M:M+1$	
STY	Store Y	$(Y) \Rightarrow M:M+1$	

Record

- A complex data structure.
- Usually use an **index register** or SP to point to the **beginning address** of the data structure.
- Example: A **record of students** contains four fields: ID number (4 bytes), height in inches (1 byte), weight in pounds (2 bytes), and age in years (1 byte).

Assume this record is stored in memory location starting at \$6000. The following instruction sequence accesses the height and weight fields of the first student:

```
LDX    #$6000 ; X points to the beginning
            ; of the data structure
LDAB   4, X   ; copy height into B
LDD    5, X   ; copy weight into D
```



2. Transfer and Exchange Instructions

Transfer Instructions			
Mnemonic	Function	Operation	
TAB	Transfer A to B	$(A) \Rightarrow B$	affect N, Z, V flags
TAP	Transfer A to CCR	$(A) \Rightarrow CCR$	
TBA	Transfer B to A	$(B) \Rightarrow A$	affect N, Z, V flags
TFR	Transfer register to register	$(A, B, CCR, D, X, Y, \text{ or } SP) \Rightarrow A, B, CCR, D, X, Y, \text{ or } SP$	
TPA	Transfer CCR to A	$(CCR) \Rightarrow A$	
TSX	Transfer SP to X	$(SP) \Rightarrow X$	
TSY	Transfer SP to Y	$(SP) \Rightarrow Y$	
TXS	Transfer X to SP	$(X) \Rightarrow SP$	
TYS	Transfer Y to SP	$(Y) \Rightarrow SP$	
Exchange Instructions			
Mnemonic	Function	Operation	
EXG	Exchange register to register	$(A, B, CCR, D, X, Y, \text{ or } SP) \Leftrightarrow A, B, CCR, D, X, Y, \text{ or } SP$	
XGDX	Exchange D with X	$(D) \Leftrightarrow X$	
XGDY	Exchange D with Y	$(D) \Leftrightarrow Y$	
Sign Extension Instructions			
Mnemonic	Function	Operation	
SEX	Sign extend 8-bit operand	$(A, B, CCR) \Rightarrow X, Y, \text{ or } SP$	

8 bits to 16 bits

- **TFR** is the **universal transfer** instruction.
- **TFR** does **not affect any condition code bits**.

TFR D, X ; $(D) \Rightarrow X$; move content of D to X (16 bits)
TFR A, B ; $(A) \Rightarrow B$; move content of A to B (8 bits)

How to exchange X and Y?

- **TAB** and **TBA** affect the **N, Z, and V** condition code bits.
- Example: if we want to compute the **squared value of A**

TAB ; $(A) \Rightarrow B$
MUL ; $(A)x(B) \Rightarrow A:B$; store the 16-bit product into D

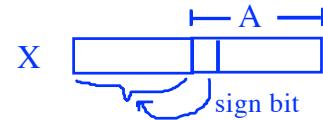
- **EXG** exchanges the contents of a pair of registers or accumulators.

EXG A, B	; exchange the contents of A and B	(8 bits)
EXG D, X	; exchange the contents of D and X	(16 bits)

- **SEX** sign-extends an **8-bit 2's complement number** into a **16-bit number** so that it can be used in 16-bit signed operations.
- The 8-bit number is copied from A, B, or CCR to D, X, Y, or SP.
- All the **bits in the upper byte** of the 16-bit result are given the value of the **most significant bit** of the 8-bit number.

SEX A, X

copies the contents of A to the lower byte of X and **duplicates** the bit 7 (= **sign bit**) of A to every bit of upper byte of X.



How to transfer 16 bits to 8 bits?

3. Move Instructions

- Move data bytes or words from a **source address(es)** to a **destination address(es)** in **memory**.
- Six combinations of immediate, extended, and index addressing modes are allowed to specify the source and destination addresses:

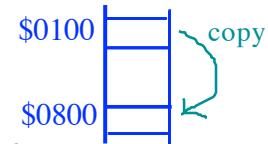
IMM \Rightarrow EXT
EXT \Rightarrow IDX

IMM \Rightarrow IDX
IDX \Rightarrow EXT

EXT \Rightarrow EXT
IDX \Rightarrow IDX

MOV_B \$0100, \$0800 ; move **1 byte**

copies the contents of the memory location at \$0100 to the memory location at \$0800.



MOV_W 0, X, 0, Y ; move **2 bytes**

copies the 16-bit word pointed to by X with zero offset to the memory location pointed by Y with zero offset.

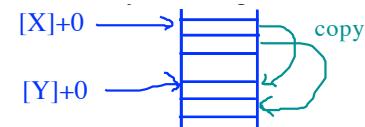


Table 1.6 Move instructions

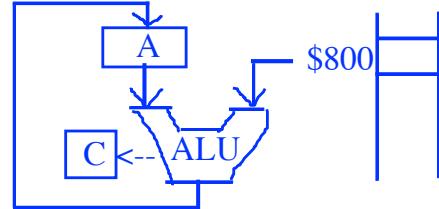
Transfer Instructions		
Mnemonic	Function	Operation
MOV _B	Move byte (8-bit)	$(M_1) \Rightarrow M_2$
MOV _W	Move word (16-bit)	$(M:M+1_1) \Rightarrow M:M+1_2$

What is **MOVW 2,X+,2,Y+ ?**

What is **MOVW X,Y ?**

4. Add and Subtract Instructions

- Perform fundamental arithmetic operations.
- The **destinations** of these instructions are always a CPU **register or accumulator**.
- There are two-operand and three-operand versions of these instructions.
- Three-operand ADD or SUB instructions always include the **C flag** as one of the operand.



ADDA	\$0800	$; A \leftarrow A + [\$0800]$	
ADCA	\$0800	$; A \leftarrow A + [\$0800] + C$	$C = \text{carry}$
SUBA	\$0802	$; A \leftarrow A - [\$0802]$	
SBCA	\$0800	$; A \leftarrow A - [\$0800] - C$	$C = \text{borrow}$

Table 1.7 Add and subtract instructions

Add Instructions		
Mnemonic	Function	Operation
ABA	Add B to A	$(A) + (B) \Rightarrow A$
ABX	Add B to X	$(B) + (X) \Rightarrow X$
ABY	Add B to Y	$(B) + (Y) \Rightarrow Y$
ADCA	Add with carry to A	$(A) + (M) + C \Rightarrow A$
ADCB	Add with carry to B	$(B) + (M) + C \Rightarrow B$
ADDA	Add without carry to A	$(A) + (M) \Rightarrow A$
ADDB	Add without carry to B	$(B) + (M) \Rightarrow B$
ADDD	Add without carry to D	$(A:B) + (M:M+1) \Rightarrow A:B$

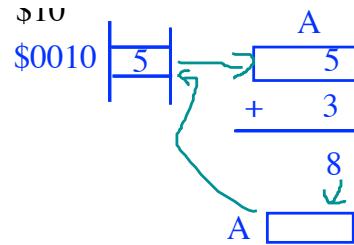
Subtract Instructions		
Mnemonic	Function	Operation
SBA	Subtract B from A	$(A) - (B) \Rightarrow A$
SBCA	Subtract with borrow from A	$(A) - (M) - C \Rightarrow A$
SBCB	Subtract with borrow from B	$(B) - (M) - C \Rightarrow B$
SUBA	Subtract memory from A	$(A) - (M) \Rightarrow A$
SUBB	Subtract memory from B	$(B) - (M) \Rightarrow B$
SUBD	Subtract memory from D	$(D) - (M:M+1) \Rightarrow D$

16 bits

16 bits

Example: Add 3 to the memory location at \$10. What is the final value in \$10?

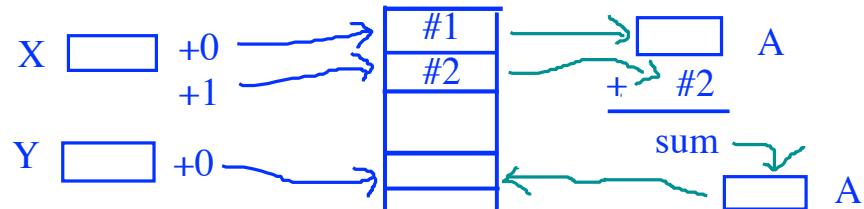
LDAA	\$10	; copy the contents at location \$0010 into A
ADDA	#3	; add 3 to A
STAA	\$10	; store the sum back to memory location \$0010



What happens without the #?

Example: Add the byte in the memory location *pointed* to by index register X with the following byte, and place the sum at the memory location *pointed* to by index register Y.

LDAA	0,X	; put the byte in the memory location pointed to by X in A
ADDA	1,X	; add the following byte to A
STAA	0,Y	; store the sum at the memory location pointed to by Y



Example: Add the numbers stored at \$0800 and \$0801 and store the sum at \$0804.

LDAA	\$0800	; copy the number at location \$0800 to A
ADDA	\$0801	; add the second number to A
STAA	\$0804	; copy the sum to \$0804

End of Chapter 1