

# Chapter 4: Advanced Assembly Programming

- A program consists of two parts: **data structures** and **algorithms**
- Algorithms deal with systematic methods for information processing (see ch. 2)
- Data structures deal with how information is organized, such as
  - **stacks**: a first-in-last-out (FILO) data structure
  - **arrays**: an ordered set of elements of the same type
  - **strings**: a sequence of characters

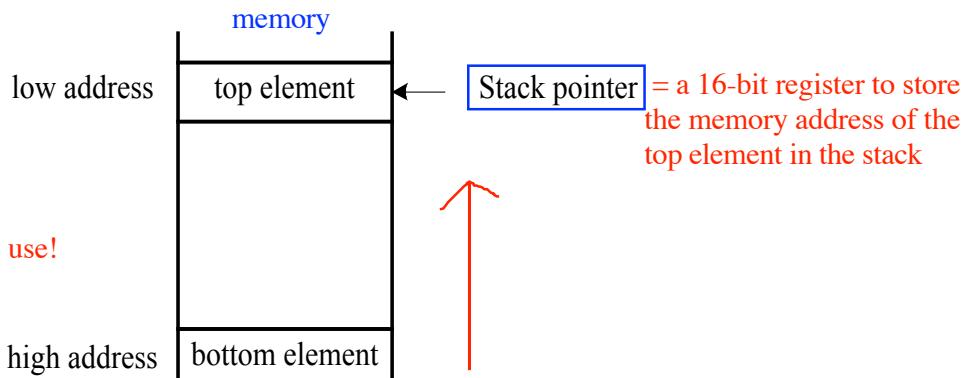
## Stack

- A data structure with a top element and a bottom element
- Elements can only be added (so-called **push**) or deleted (so-called **pull**) from the **top** of the stack
- A reserved RAM area in main memory when programs agree to perform only push and pull operations
- 68HC12 has a **16-bit stack pointer** (SP) that points to the memory location (in byte) of the **top element**
- Grows from **higher** address towards **lower** address
- Must check the stack **overflow** and **underflow** (or pulled too many times) to make sure that the program won't crash
- 2 step process:
  - Push writes data from a register to the **top of the stack** after decrementing the SP
  - Pull loads data from the **top of the stack** to a register before incrementing the SP

PUSH = 1. up SP  
2. write to stack

PULL = 1. read from stack  
2. down SP

up/down SP depends on the register in use!



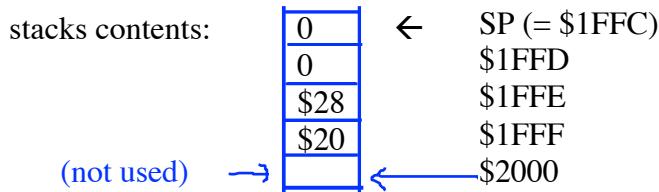
- Instructions have equivalent store and instructions combined with predecrement and postincrement indexed addressing modes

Table 4.1 68HC12 push and pull instructions and their equivalent load and store instructions

Mnemonic	Function	Equivalent instruction	
psha	push A into the stack	staa 1, -SP	8 bits use 1 address
pshb	push B into the stack	stab 1, -SP	
pshc	push CCR into the stack	none	
pshd	push D into stack	std 2, -SP	
pshx	push X into the stack	stx 2, -SP	16 bits user 2 addresses
pshy	push Y into the stack	sty 2, -SP	
pula	pull A from the stack	ldaa 1, SP+	
pulb	pull B from the stack	ldab 1, SP+	
pulc	pull CCR from the stack	none	
puld	pull D from the stack	ldd 2, SP+	
pulx	pull X from the stack	ldx 2, SP+	
puly	pull Y from the stack	ldy 2, SP+	

Example: What would be the contents of the stack after the execution of the following instruction sequence?

SP <- \$2000	LDS	#\$2000	; initializes the SP to memory location \$2000
A <- 0010 0000	LDAA	#\$20	; load the 8-bit value \$20 to A
stack <- (A)	STAA	1,-SP	; push A into stack (= PSHA), one byte
B <- 0010 1000	LDAB	#\$40	; load the 8-bit value 40 (hex \$28) to B
stack <- (B)	STAB	1,-SP	; push B into stack (= PSHB), one byte
	LDX	#0	; load the 16-bit value 0 to X
	STX	2,-SP	; push X into stack (= PSHX), two bytes



- Main use of the stack is **saving the return address for a subroutine call**.
- Need to set up the stack pointer's memory location before using the stack.
- HCS12's external SRAM has the address space **\$1000~\$3BFF** open for the **user program and the stack**. Since the stack grows from higher towards lower addresses, a good initial setting for the **SP** would be **\$2000**, while \$2000 is used as **starting address** of the **user program**.

# Indexable Data Structures

dc.b = define constant byte  
 dc.w = define constant word = 2 bytes  
 rmb = reserve memory space

- Vectors (1-D) and matrices (2-D) are indexable data structures.
- First element of a vector is associated with the index **i = 0**.
- Directives **dc.b**, **db**, and **fcb** are used to define arrays of 8-bit elements.
- Directives **dc.w**, **dw**, and **fdb** are used to define arrays of 16-bit elements.
- Directives **ds.b**, **ds**, and **rmb** are used to reserve memory space for arrays of 8-bit elements.
- Directives **ds.w** and **rmw** are used to reserve memory space for arrays of 16-bit elements.

```

org      $1000          ; first element of vec_x starts at $1000
dc.b    11,12,13,14,15   ; array of five 8-bit numbers
  
```

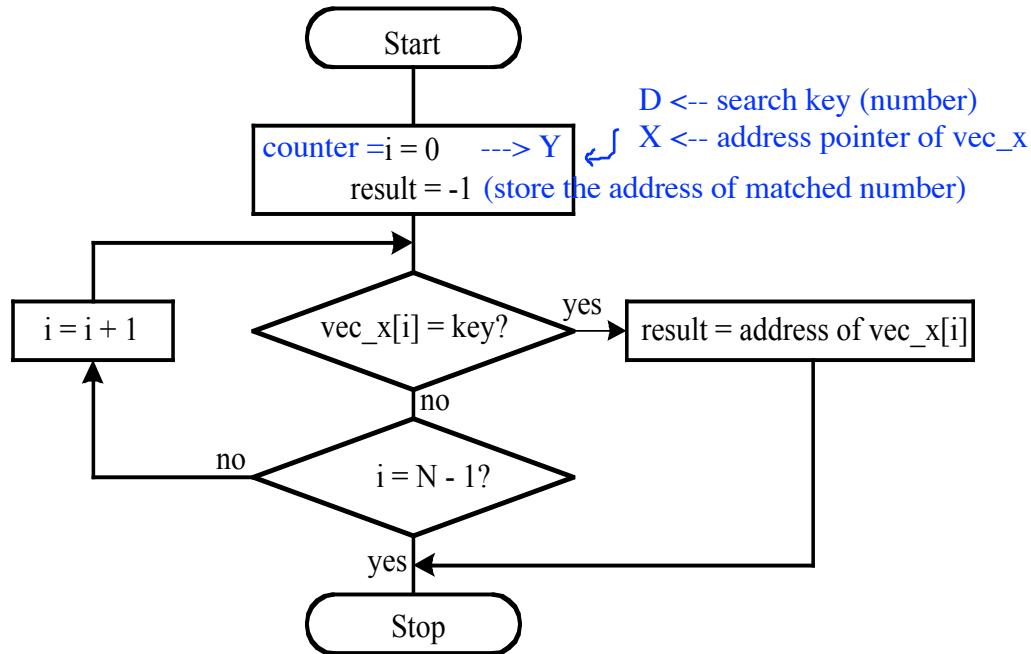
t	
\$1000	0000 1011
\$1001	0000 1100
\$1002	0000 1101
\$1003	0000 1110
\$1004	0000 1111

Example: (**Search a number in an array**) Write a program to find out if the array *vec\_x* contains a value stored in *key*. The array has N **16-bit elements** and is **not sorted**.

To implement the sequence search algorithm, we will

- Use the double accumulator **D** to hold the **search key**.
- Use the index register **X** as a **pointer** to the **array**.
- Use the index register **Y** to **hold the loop counter**.
- **Compare** the search key with every array element.

Why cannot use A and B?



<b>constants</b>  <b>watch out the use of #</b>	N equ 30 ; array size notfound equ -1 ; flag for key not found key equ 190 ; define the <b>searching key = 190</b>
	result org \$1000 ; memory location for “result” rmw 1 ; reserve 16 bits for “result” @ \$1000 & \$1001
	org \$2000 ; starting address of the program ldy #N ; set up loop counter in Y ldd #notfound ; std result ; initialize the search result to -1 ldd #key ; ldx #vec_x ; place the starting address of vec_x in X loop cpd 2,X+ ; compare the key D with array element [X], ; then increment X by 2 <b>[Why?]</b> ; (post-increment indexed addressing)
<span style="font-size: 2em;">-----</span> <span style="font-size: 1.5em;">why need them?</span>	beq found ; branch to “found” if equal dbne Y,loop ; decrement Y, then branch to “loop” if ≠ 0 bra done ; if = 0, branch to “done” dex ; need to restore X to point to the address of dex ; the matched element stx result ; swi ; return to the DBug12 monitor
<span style="font-size: 1.5em;">found</span> <span style="font-size: 1.5em;">done</span>	vec_x dw 13,15,320,980,42,86,130,319,430,4,90,20,18,55,30,51,37 dw 89,550,39,78,1023,897,930,880,810,650,710,300,190 end

; the number 190 is located at \$4058.  
; “result” is located at \$1000, which contains the address (\$4058) of the matched key 190.  
; type “md 1000” to see the content.

cpd 2,X+ = cpd X  
inx  
inx

The above is a **sequential search**:

- search an array **element-by-element sequentially**
- **inefficient** (e.g., what if the matching number is the last element)

# Binary Search

- If an array (e.g., a lookup table) needs to be searched frequently, then a sequential search is very inefficient.
- A better approach is to **sort** the array first and **then use the binary search algorithm**.
- Assumptions:
  - Requires a **sorted array**
  - The sorted array (in ascending order) has  $n$  elements and is stored at memory locations starting at label ***arr***.
  - Let ***max*** and ***min*** represent the highest and lowest range of **array indices** to be searched. [Norte: they are not address or element values.]
  - Let ***mean*** represent the average of *max* and *min*.  $\text{mean} = (\text{max}+\text{min})/2$
- The binary search algorithm divides the array into **3 portions**:
  1. The portion of the array with indices ranging from ***mean+1* to *max***.
  2. The **element with index** equal to ***mean*** (i.e., middle element).
  3. The portion of the array with indices ranging from ***min* to *mean-1***.
- The algorithm then compare the key with the middle element:
  - If the **key equals** the **middle element**, then **stop**.
  - If the **key is larger** than the middle element, then the key can be found only in the portion of the array with **larger indices**. The search will be continued in the **upper half**.
  - If the **key is smaller** than the middle element, then the key can be found only in the portion of the array with **smaller indices**. The search will be continued in the **lower half**.

```
>
key = array[mean]
<
```

**Step 1:** Initialize variables ***max*** to  $n-1$  and ***min*** to  $0$ .

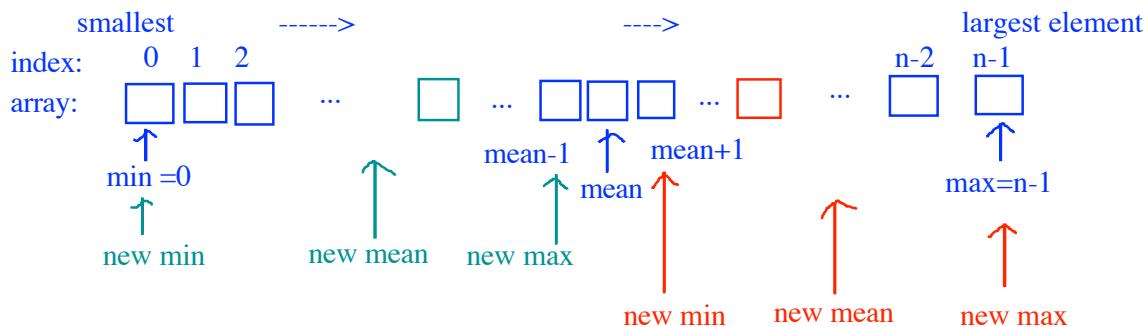
**Step 2:** If ***max < min***, then **stop**. No element matches the key.

**Step 3:** Let  $\text{mean} = (\text{max} + \text{min})/2$ .

**Step 4:** If ***key = arr[mean]***, then key is found in the array, exit.

**Step 5:** If ***key < arr[mean]***, then set ***max*** to ***mean-1*** and go to step 2.

**Step 6:** If ***key > arr[mean]***, then set ***min*** to ***mean+1*** and go to step 2.



Example: Write a sequence of instructions to implement the binary search algorithm.  
Use an array of N 8-bit elements. Store a “1” as the result if key is found in the array.

n	equ	30	; array size
key	equ	69	; define the search <b>key = 69</b>
	org	\$1000	; reserves memory space for <b>variables</b>
max	rmb	1	; reserve one byte for maximum <b>index</b>
min	rmb	1	; reserve one byte for minimum <b>index</b>
mean	rmb	1	; reserve one byte for mean <b>index</b>
result	rmb	1	; for search result (1=found; 0=no match)
	org	\$2000	; program start address
	clra		; clear A
	staa	min	; initialize <b>min</b> to 0
	staa	result	; initialize <b>result</b> to 0 (no match)
	ldaa	#n-1	; watch out “#”
	staa	max	; initialize <b>max</b> to n-1
	ldx	#arr	; use X as the pointer to the array ( <b>start address</b> )
loop	ldab	min	; copy min to B
	cmpb	max	; compute (B) – (max)
	lbhi	notfound	; if <b>min &gt; max</b> , long branch to “notfound”
	addb	max	; max+min (compute mean)
B=index of mean	lsrb		; divide by 2 (shift right)
wacth out "#"	stab	mean	; save mean
	ldaa	b,x	; get a copy of the element arr[mean]
	cmpa	#key	; compute arr[mean] – key
step 4:	beq	found	; if =0, branch to “found”
step 5:	bhi	search_lo	; if >0, arr[mean] is on RHS of the key
	ldaa	mean	; if <0, arr[mean] is on LHS of the key
step 6:	inca		; replace min by mean+1
	staa	min	; but max stays the same
	bra	loop	
search_lo	ldaa	mean	; replace max by mean-1
	deca		; but min stays the same
	staa	max	
	bra	loop	
found	ldaa	#1	; set “result”=1
	staa	result	
notfound	swi		
arr	db	1,3,6,9,11,20,30,45,48,60	
	db	61,63,64,65,67,69,72,74,76,79	
	db	80,83,85,88,90,110,113,114,120,123	
	end		

; \$0F is found at location \$1002, which is the memory location of “mean”.

; \$0F corresponds to the 15th element in the “array”, array[15]=69=the search key.

# Strings

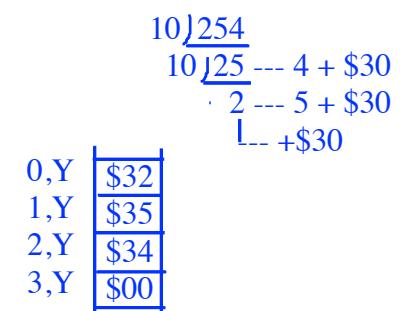
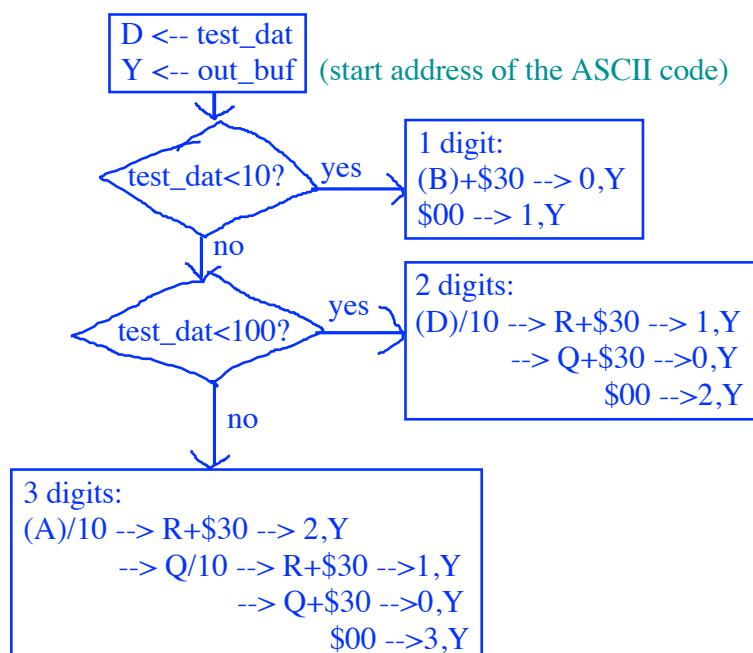
- A sequence of characters **terminated by a NULL** (ASCII code **\$00**) or other special character such as EOT (ASCII code 4).
  - Heavily used in input and output operations. Example: **Display text/numbers** on a computer **screen**.
  - All characters are stored as **ASCII codes** in microcontroller **memory**.
  - A number (stored in **binary** format in memory) must be **converted to ASCII code** before being displayed on the computer screen.
  - To convert a binary number into an ASCII string, we **divide the binary number by 10 repeatedly until the quotient is zero**. The remainder gives the corresponding BCD digit. For each remainder, the hex number **\$30** is **added** to get the **ASCII character** of the digit.

# Binary to BCD ASCII Conversion

Example: Convert the **unsigned 8-bit** number in accumulator A into three BCD digits terminated by a **NULL character**. Each digit is represented in the **ASCII form**.

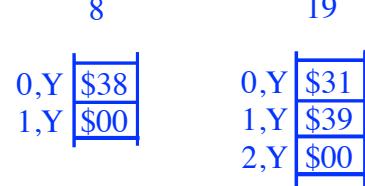
Since an 8-bit number can be from 0 to 255, we need to use

1. 4 bytes to hold the four ASCII codes of the three BCD digits and the NULL character.
  2. Repeat the division-by-10 + \$30 method.



X=divisor=#10  
D=the number  
Y=result address pointer

### What not to use A or B?



8

```

test_dat    equ 254      ; the 8-bit number (Note: this is a constant)
out_buf     rmb 4       ; below is a variable
              ; the ASCII code of 3 BCD digits + 1 NULL

; watch "#" for
; constant &
; variable
              org $2000   ; starting address of the program
              ldaa #test_dat ; load the test data (A=254)
              ldy #out_buf  ; load the address of the converted result (Y=$1000)
              tab           ; transfer from A into B [Why this step?]

; check to see if the number has only one digit
              cmpb #9
              bhi chk_99
              addb #$30
              stab 0,y
              clr  1,y
              jmp   done

; check to see if the number has two digits
chk_99       clra
              cmpb #99
              bhi three_dig
              ldx   #10
              idiv
              addb #$30
              stab 1,y
              xgdx
              addb #$30
              stab 0,y
              clr  2,y
              bra   done

;

three_dig    ldx   #10
              idiv
              addb #$30
              stab 2,y
              xgdx
              ldx   #10
              idiv
              addb #$30
              stab 1,y
              xgdx
              addb #$30
              stab 0,y
              clr  3,y

done        swi
            end

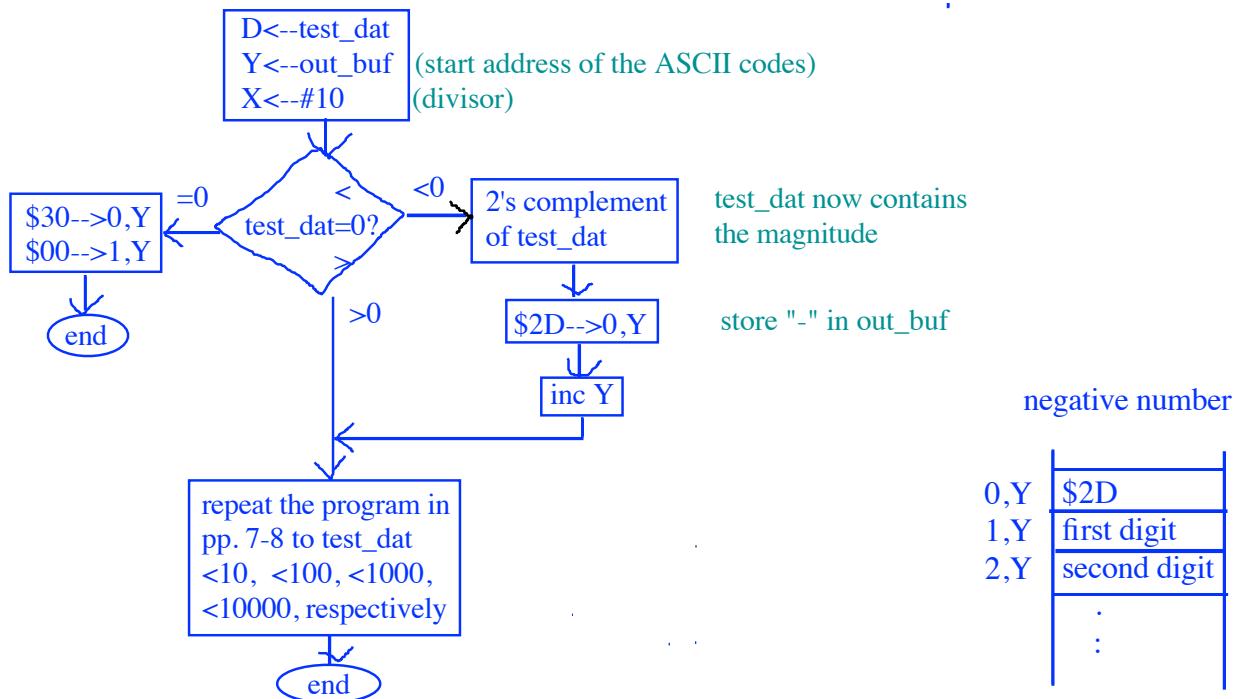
```

Annotations and notes:

- test\_dat** and **out\_buf** are highlighted in red.
- A blue double-headed arrow connects **test\_dat** and **out\_buf**.
- The comment **[Why this step?]** is in blue.
- Blue arrows point from the assembly code to the corresponding comments.
- Brackets on the right side group the code into units:
  - unit digit**: The first section of code (one-digit check).
  - tens digit**: The second section of code (two-digit check).
  - unit digit**: The third section of code (three-digit check).
  - tens digit**: The fourth section of code (three-digit check).
  - hundreds digit**: The fifth section of code (three-digit check).

Example: Convert the **16-bit signed integer** stored in D into a string of BCD digits.

- A **signed 16-bit integer** is in the range of **-32768 to +32767**.
- A negative number is stored in **signed-2's complement** form.
- A **minus character** is needed for a negative number, plus **changing 2's complement to magnitude**.
- A **NUL character** is needed to **terminate** the converted BCD string.
- **Up to 7 bytes** are needed to hold the converted digits in BCD format.
- Repeat the **division-by-10 + \$30** method.



```
test_dat    equ -4300      ; this is a constant
            org $1000      ; below are variables
out_buf     rmb 7          ; storage of the resulted BCD digits
temp        rmb 2          ; temporary storage
```

```
watch "#" for constant & variable
          org $2000
          ldd #test_dat   ; load the test data (D = -4300)
          ldy #out_buf    ; Y as the pointer to the output buffer (Y=$1000)
          cpd #0           ; compare D with 0
          lbpl chk_9       ; if plus, no complement and jump to p. 10
          lbeq zero         ; is the given number a 0? (If yes, jump to p. 12)
; the following three instructions compute the magnitude of the given number in D
          coma             ; perform 1's complement to A
          comb             ; and B → 1's complement of D
          addd #1           ; 1's complement +1 = 2's
          std temp          ; store the magnitude into "temp"
```

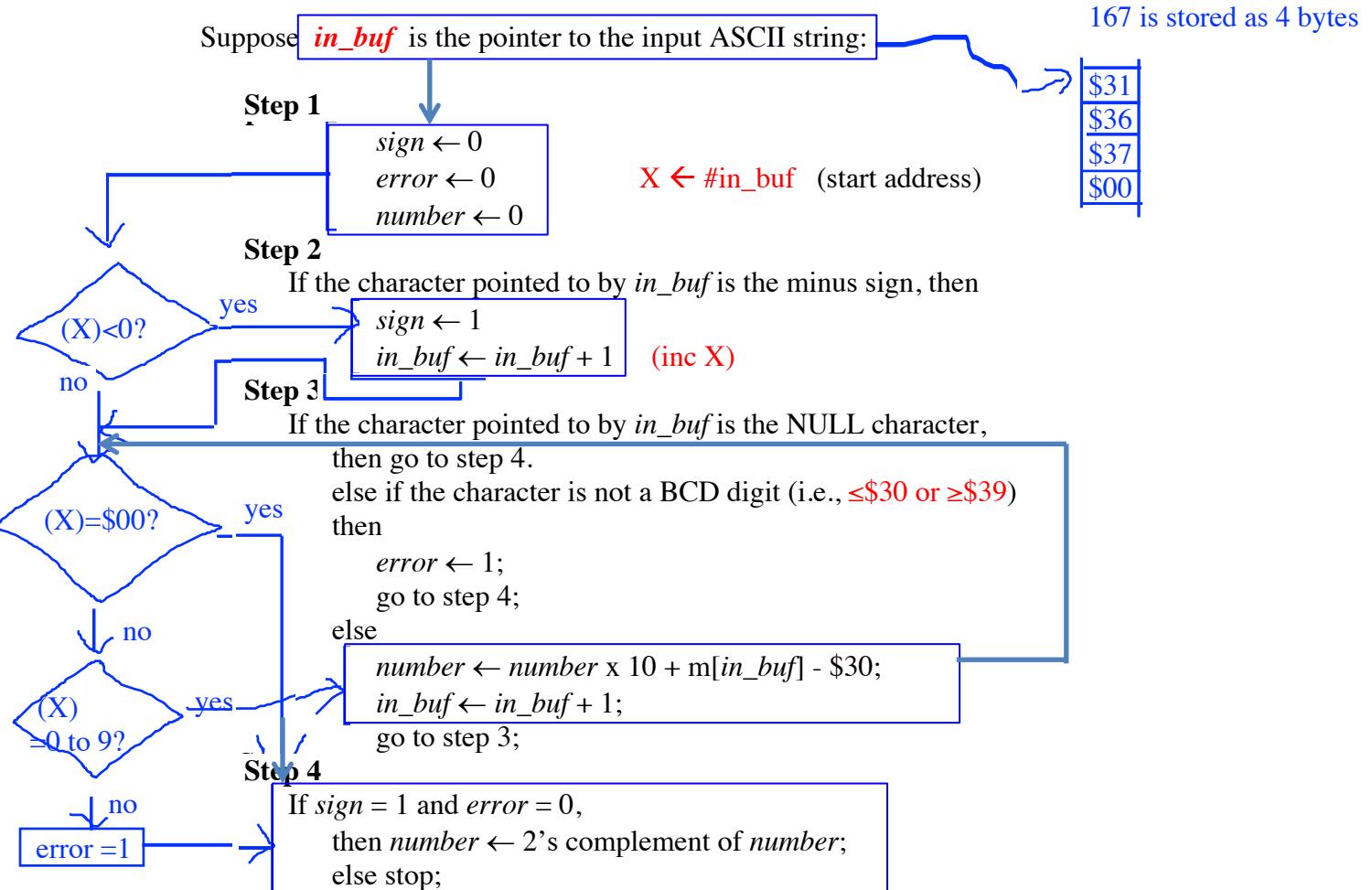
2's complement is converted back to magnitude

	ldaa #\\$2D	; place a negative sign (\$2D=ASCII of -)
	staa 0,y	; store the sign to Y=\$1000
	iny	; set storage address for the next converted digit
	ldd temp	; move "temp" back to D
chk_9	cpd #9	; compute (D)-9
	lbhi chk_99	; if >0, then long branch to consider 2 digits
	addb #\\$30	; convert the digit to ASCII
	stab 0,y	;
	clr 1,y	; terminate the string with NULL
	lbra done	; long branch
chk_99	cpd #99	; does the number have only two digits?
	lbhi chk_999	; branch if the number has more than two digits
	ldx #10	
	idiv	
	addb #\\$30	; convert the ones digit to BCD ASCII
	stab 1,y	; save the ones digit
	xgdx	
	addb #\\$30	
	stab 0,y	; save the tens digit
	clr 2,y	; add a NULL character
	lbra done	
chk_999	cpd #999	; does the number have only three digits?
	lbhi chk_9999	; branch if the number has more than three digits
	ldx #10	
	idiv	
	addb #\\$30	; convert the ones digit
	stab 2,y	; save the ones digit
	xgdx	
	ldx #10	
	idiv	
	addb #\\$30	
	stab 1,y	; save the tens digit
	xgdx	
	addb #\\$30	; convert the hundreds digit
	stab 0,y	
	clr 3,y	; add a NULL character
	lbra done	
chk_9999	cpd #9999	; does the number have only four digits?
	lbhi five_digit	; branch if the number has five digits
	ldx #10	
	idiv	
	addb #\\$30	
	stab 3,y	; save the ones digit
	xgdx	
	ldx #10	
	idiv	

	addb #\$30
	stab 2,y
	xgdx
	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 1,y
	xgdx
	addb #\$30
	stab 0,y
	clr 4,y ; add a NULL character
	lbra done
<hr/>	
five_digit	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 4,y ; save the ones digit
	xgdx
	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 3,y ; save the tens digit
	xgdx
	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 2,y ; save the hundreds digit
	xgdx
	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 2,y ; save the hundreds digit
	xgdx
	ldx #10
	idiv
	addb #\$30
	stab 1,y ; save the thousands digit
	xgdx
	addb #\$30
	stab 0,y ; save the ten-thousands digit
	clr 5,y ; add a NULL character
done	swi
zero	ldaa #\$30
	staa 0,y
	clr 1,y
	swi
	end

## BCD ASCII to Binary Conversion

- When a number is entered from a keyboard, it is often in the form of a NULL-terminated ASCII string.
- Need to convert from the ASCII string that represents a BCD number to a binary number (in signed-2's complement form) for memory storage.



Example: Convert a BCD ASCII string (in the range of  $-2^{15} \sim 2^{15}-1$  for 2 bytes) to a binary number. Store the result in D.

4 bytes	minus	equ \$2D	; ASCII code of minus sign (a constant)
	in_buf	org \$1000	
		fcc "167"	; input a string of characters to be converted
		fcb 0	; followed by the NULL character
	out_buf	rmb 2	; store the converted value of the characters
	buf2	rmb 1	; temporary storage holds upper byte
	buf1	rmb 1	; holds the lower byte of the converted number
	sign	rmb 1	; holds the sign of the number
	error	rmb 1	; indicates the occurrence of illegal character

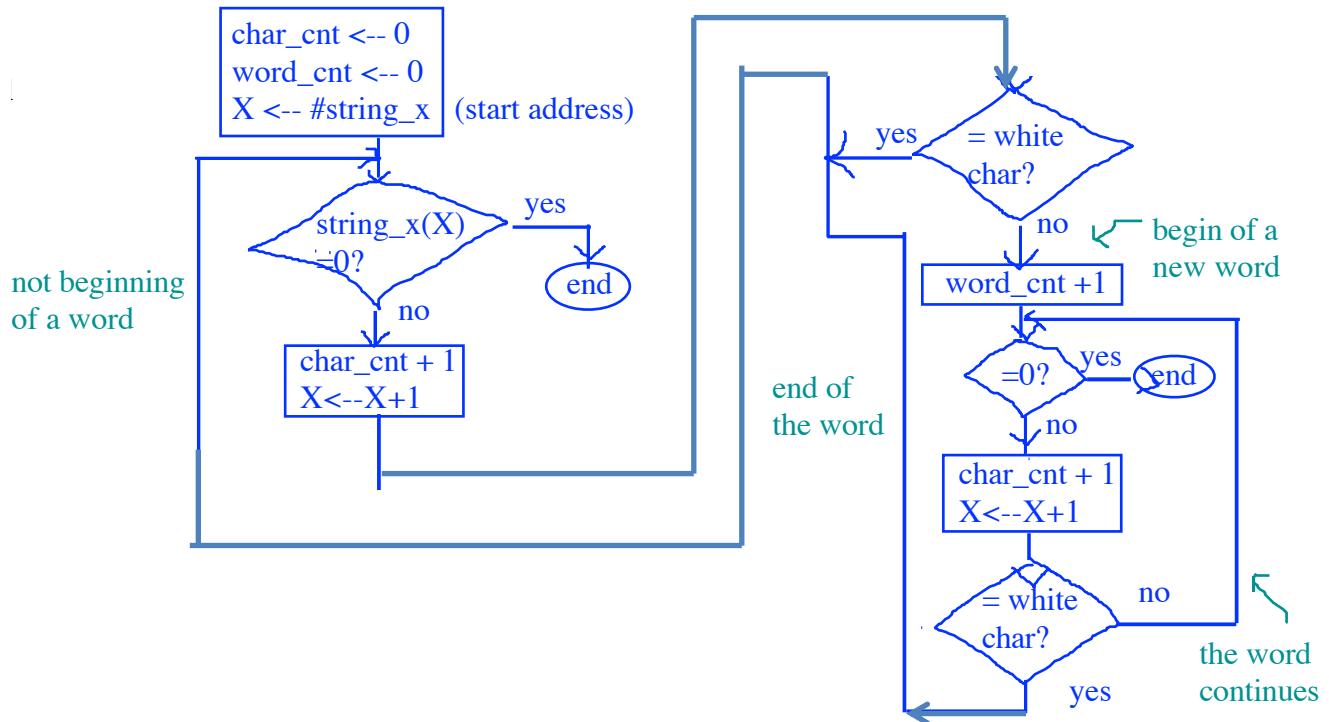
167 = \$00A7 will be stored in \$1004 & \$1005

	org \$2000	
	clr sign	
	clr error	
	clr out_buf	
	clr out_buf+1	
	clr buf2	
	ldx #in_buf	; X points to the start address of digits (X=\$1000)
	ldaa 0,x	; load the ASCII of the first character (A=\$31)
	cmpa #minus	; is the first character a minus sign?
	bne continue	; if not equal, branch
	inc sign	; set the sign to 1
	inx	; X points to the address of 2nd character
continue	ldaa 1,x+	; load X into A; afterwards, increment X by 1
	lbeq done	; is the current character a NULL character?
	cmpa #\$30	; if =0, end of the string is reached (0=\$00=NULL)
check if the ASCII character is a number	lblo in_error	; if <0, error is detected and jumps to in_error
	cmpa #\$39	
	lbhi in_error	; if >39, error is detected and jumps to in_error
	suba #\$30	; convert to the BCD digit value
	staa buf1	; save the digit value temporarily buf1 $\leftarrow$ (A)-#30
	lld out_buf	
	ldy #10	
	emul	; perform 16-bit x16-bit Y:D $\leftarrow$ DxY
	addd buf2	; add buf1 value (16 bits=buf2:buf1) & buf2=\$00
	std out_buf	; above steps give out_buf $\leftarrow$ out_bufx10 + buf1
	bra continue	
in_error	ldaa #1	; set error flag = 1
	staa error	
	swi	
done	ldaa sign	; check to see if the original number is negative
	beq positive	
	lld out_buf	; if negative, change the 2 bytes to 2's complement
	coma	; "
	comb	; "
	addd #1	; "
	std out_buf	
positive	swi	
	end	

; md \$1000 \$31 \$36 \$37 00 00 A7 ... 167  
; \$00 = NULL; \$00 A7 = 167 in hex

## Character and Word Counting

- A string is terminated by the **NULL** character.
- Every **non-NULL** character (includes white space and punctuation) causes the **character count** to be incremented by one.
- A new word is surrounded by white space or punctuation.
- When a new word is identified, it must be scanned through the remaining nonwhite characters before the next word can be identified.



white characters	tab	equ	\$09	; ASCII table of special characters; tab key
	sp	equ	\$20	; space key
	cr	equ	\$0D	; enter key
	lf	equ	\$0A	; line feed
		org	\$1000	

char_cnt	rmb	1	: character counter
word_cnt	rmb	1	; word counter
string_x	fcc	"this is a strange test string to count chars and words."	
	fcb	0	; Null character for string termination

```

        org $2000
        ldx #string_x      ; load start address of the string      (X=$1002)
        clr char_cnt
        clr word_cnt

```

```

ldab 0,X
inx
        string_lp: ldab 1,x+      ; get one character and move pointer to next char
                    lbeq done      ; is this the end of the string? (= $00=NULL?)
                    inc  char_cnt
; the following 8 instructions skip white space characters between words
                    cmpb #sp
                    beq  string_lp
                    cmpb #tab
                    beq  string_lp
                    cmpb #cr
                    beq  string_lp
                    cmpb #lf
                    beq  string_lp
; a non-white character is the start of a new word
                    inc  word_cnt
wd_loop:   ldab 1,x+      ; get one character and move pointer to next char
                    lbeq done
                    inc  char_cnt
; the following 8 instructions check the end of a word
                    cmpb #sp
                    lbeq string_lp
                    cmpb #tab
                    lbeq string_lp
                    cmpb #cr
                    lbeq string_lp
                    cmpb #lf
                    lbeq string_lp
                    bra   wd_loop
done:      swi
end

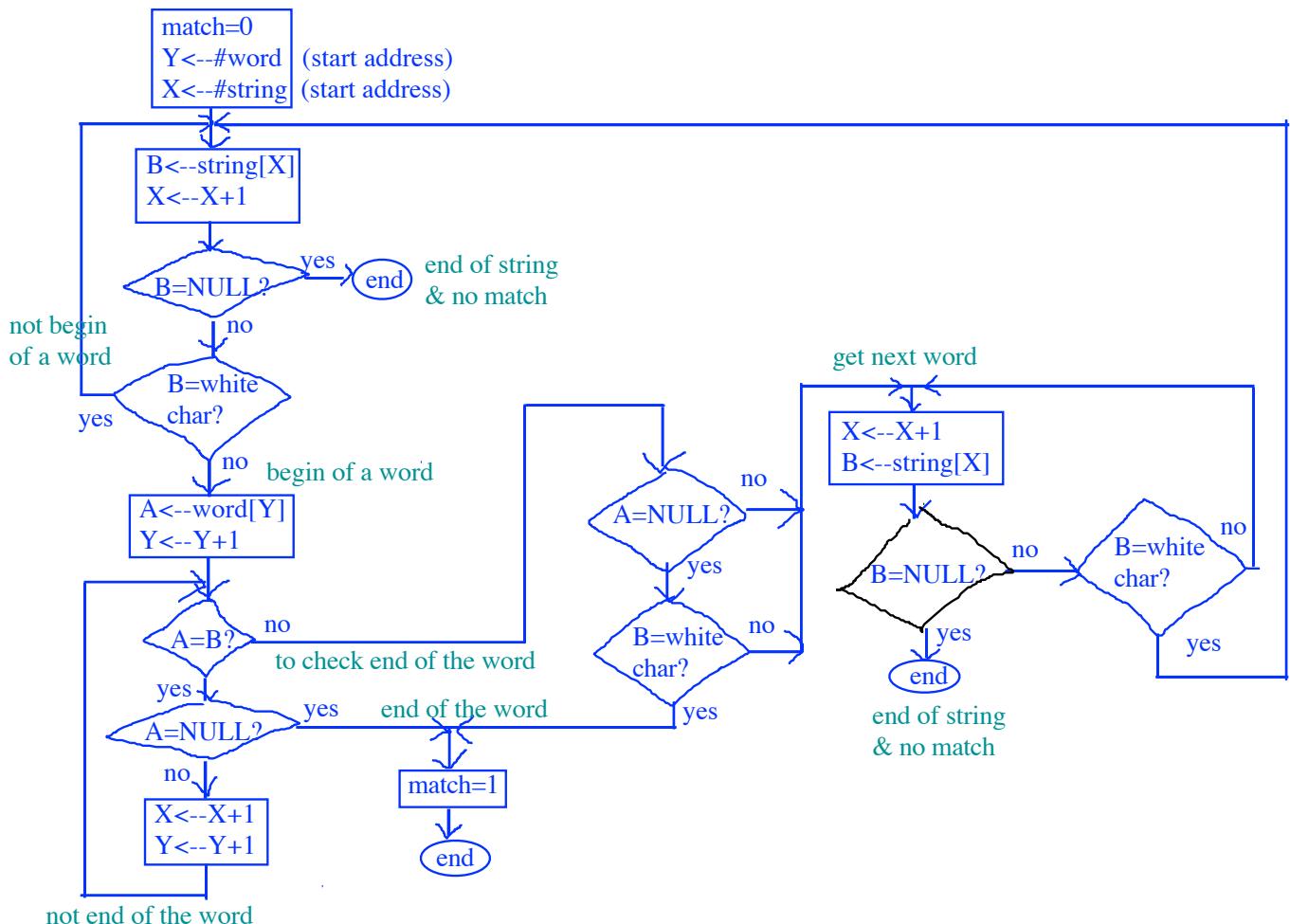
```

; md \$1000 **37 0B** 74 68 69  
; number of characters = \$37 (=55, includes white space and period)  
; number of words = \$0B (=11), \$74=t; \$68=h; ...

## Word Matching

- Searching process starts from the beginning of the **given string**, and looks for the next new word from the given string and **compare** it with the **given word**.
- The comparison is performed **character-by-character** until two words are found to be either matched or unmatched.
- If **not equal**, then the **remaining characters** of the word in the string are **skipped**.
- The **comparison** must be performed **one character beyond the last character of the given word** if the comparison is matched, and there are **3 possible outcomes**:

- the matched word is not the last word in the string. Comparison of the last characters will yield “not equal.”
- the matched word is the last word of the given string, but comparison of the last characters will again give the result “not equal.”
- the matched word is the last word of the given string, and it is followed by the NULL character. The comparison result for the last character is “equal.”



tab	equ	\$09
sp	equ	\$20
cr	equ	\$0D
lf	equ	\$0A
period	equ	\$2E
comma	equ	\$2C
semicolon	equ	\$3B
exclamation	equ	\$21
null	equ	\$0

; ASCII table of special characters

match up to here

"I am a testing program to perform a test."+NULL  
 ↑ --->  
 X = string pointer

"test"+NULL

↑ --->

Y = word pointer

```

        org    $1000
match   rmb    1           ; reserve 1 byte for result

        org    $2000
        clr    match
loop    ldx    #string_x   ; load X the start address of the string
        ldab   1,x+       ; copy the first character of the string into B,
                           ; then increment X by 1 to point to next character
; following 10 instructions skip white spaces to look for next word
        tstb
        beq    done
        cmpb   #sp          ; B contains a character in the string
        beq    loop
        cmpb   #tab         ; if (B)=NULL, the end of string, jump to "done"
        beq    loop
        cmpb   #cr          ; if not, test (B)= white characters
        beq    loop
        cmpb   #lf          ; skip white characters
        beq    loop

; the first nonwhite character is the beginning of a new word to be compared
        ldy    #word_x      ; load Y the start address of the matching word
        ldaa   1,y+       ; A contains a character in the matching word
                           ; increment Y by 1 to point to next character
next_ch  cba
        bne    end_of_wd   ; compute (A)-(B)
                           ; if not equal, jump to "end of word" to check if
                           ; the end of word is reached special characters
                           ; check if the end of the matching word is reached
                           ; if yes, then there is a match
                           ; if not, get next character from the matching word
                           ; get the next character from the string
                           ; repeat the process
check next characters
        cmpa   #null
        beq    matched
        ldaa   1,y+
        ldab   1,x+
        bra    next_ch

; the following 10 instructions check to see if the end of the given word is reached
end_of_wd  cmpa   #null
            bne    next_wd   ; if the special character is not NULL,
                           ; then not the end of string
                           ; matched in other special characters
                           ; a word is surrounded by white space
                           ; or punctuation
            cmpb   #cr
            beq    matched
            cmpb   #lf
            beq    matched
            cmpb   #tab
            beq    matched
            cmpb   #sp
            beq    matched
            cmpb   #period
            beq    matched
            cmpb   #comma
            beq    matched

```

**check if B contains a white character**

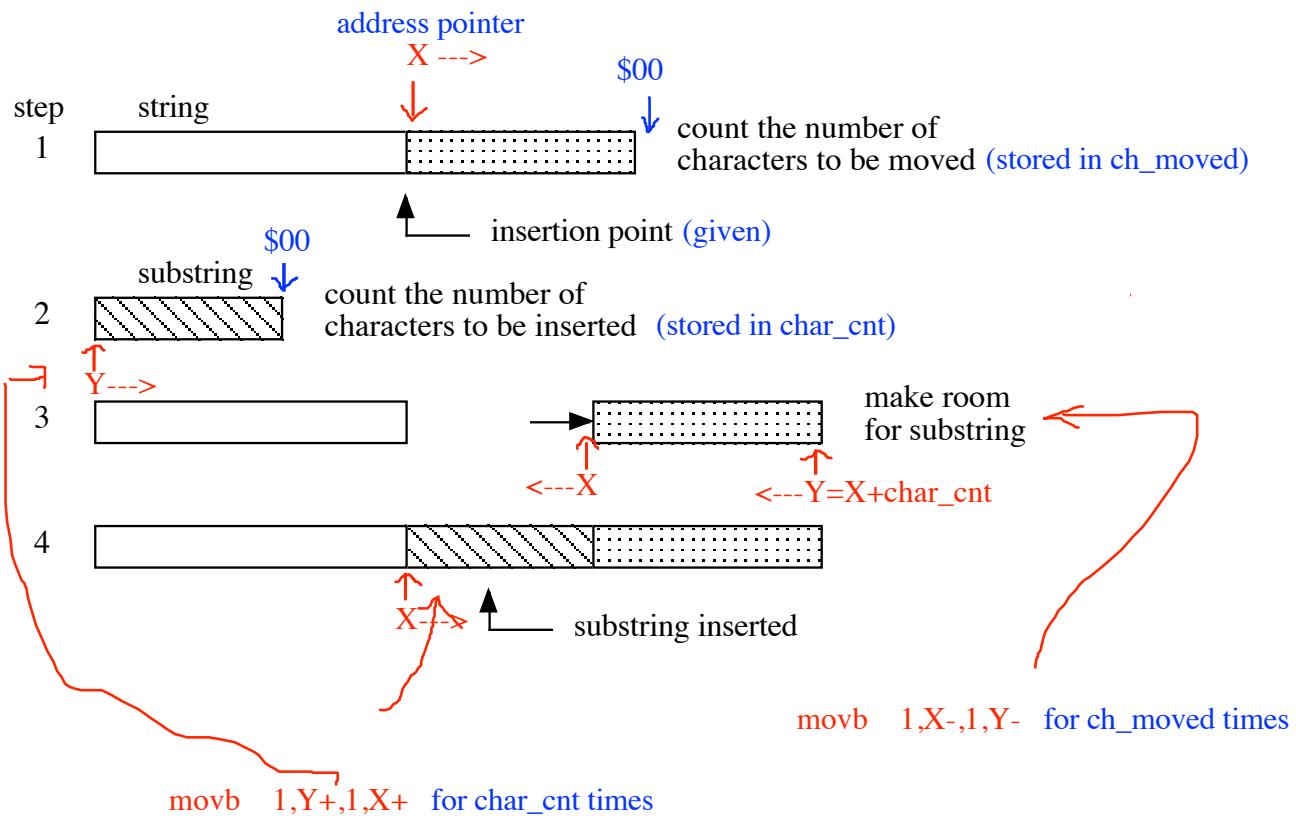
**if yes, word is matched**

	cmpb	semicolon	
	beq	matched	
	cmpb	exclamation	
	beq	matched	
next_wd	ldab	1,x+	; Is the next character of the string NULL?
	beq	done	; if yes, the end of string is reached
	cmpb	#cr	; if not, is it a special character?
	lbeq	loop	; if yes, repeat the matching process
	cmpb	#lf	
	lbeq	loop	
	cmpb	#tab	
	lbeq	loop	
	cmpb	#sp	
	lbeq	loop	
	bra	next_wd	
matched	ldab	#1	
	stab	match	
done	swi		
string_x	fcc	"This string contains certain number of words to be matched."	
	fcb	0	
word_x	fcc	"word"	
	fcb	0	
	end		

## String Insertion

- The address pointers to the string and the substring to be inserted are given.
- All of the characters starting from the inserting point until the end of the string must be moved by the distance equal to the length of the substring.

- Step 1:** Count the number of characters that need to be moved. The NULL character is included because the resultant new string must be terminated by a NULL character.
- Step 2:** Count the number of characters in the substring to be inserted, excluding the NULL character.
- Step 3:** Move the characters in the string starting from the insertion point until the end of string (move the last character first).
- Step 4:** Insert the substring (the first character of the substring is inserted first).



```

org      $1000
ch_moved    rmb 1           ; reserve 1 byte for substring counter
char_cnt     rmb 1           ; reserve 1 byte for character to be moved
sub_strg     fcc "the first and most famous "
              fcb 0           ; null character to terminate string
string_x      fcc "Yellowstone is national park."
              fcb 0           ; null character to terminate string
offset        equ 15          ; position of insertion point in string
ins_pos       equ string_x+offset ; memory location of insertion point

org      $2000
; the next 7 instructions count the number of characters to be moved
cnt_moved    ldaa #1          ; initialize the counter to count the number
              staa ch_moved   ; of characters after the insertion point
              ldx #ins_pos    ; use X to point to the insertion point
              ldcaa 1,x+       ; load A with a string character
              beq cnt_chars   ; Is it a NULL? If yes, counting is completed
              inc ch_moved   ; if not, continue to count the number of
              bra cnt_moved  ; characters after the insertion point
              dex             ; subtract 1 from X so it points to NULL
cnt_chars    ldv #sub_strg  ; use Y as a pointer to the substring address
              clr             ;

```

why needs dex?

```

; the following 3 instructions count the move distance
char_loop    ldab   1,y+           ;
              beq    mov_loop        ; is it a NULL? If yes, counting is completed
              inc    char_cnt       ; store the number of characters in substring
              bra    char_loop        ;


---

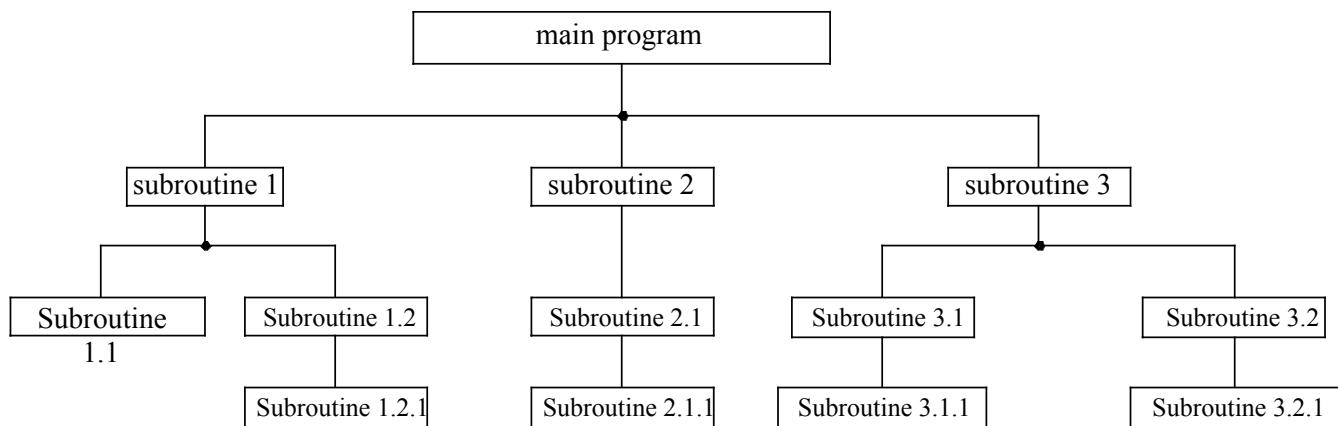

mov_loop     tfr    x,y           ; make a copy of X to Y
              ldab   char_cnt
              aby   char_cnt        ; compute the copy destination: Y+B → Y
              ldab   ch_moved       ; place the # of characters to be moved in B

; two following instructions copy the contents of the address pointed to by X to the
; location of Y. Afterwards, X and Y are decremented by 1. (In the beginning, X points
; to the end of the string and Y points to the end of the inserted string.)
again        movb  1,x,-1,y-      ; make room for insertion
              dbne  b,again
              ldx   #ins_pos        ; X points to the insert point of string
              ldy   #sub_strg       ; Y points to the substring
              ldab  char_cnt       ; B has the # of characters of substring
insert_lp    movb  1,y+,1,x+    ; copy (Y) to X; then increment X and Y
              dbne  b,insert_lp      ; decrement B. If B≠0, repeat.
              swi
              end

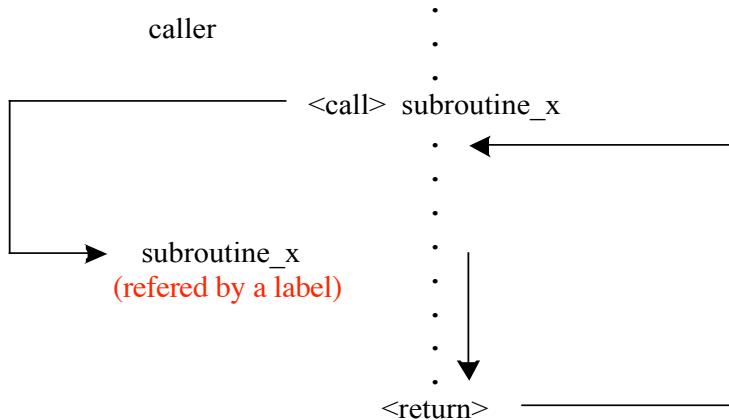
```

## Subroutines

- Good program design is based on the concept of **modularity**--the partitioning of a large program into subroutines.
- Simplifies the design of a **complex program** by the **divide-and-conquer** approach.
- Sequences of instructions that can be called from various places in the program.
- Allow the same operations to be performed with different parameters.



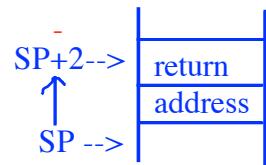
- Program execution must **return** to the **point immediately after the subroutine call** (this address is called **return address**) when the subroutine completes its computation.
- Subroutine call instruction will **save the return address in the system stack**.
- When completing the task, a return instruction in the subroutine will retrieves the return address from the system stack and transfer CPU control to it.



**BSR <rel>** ; branch to subroutine with address offset given by optional *rel*

- Use the **relative addressing mode** to specify the subroutine to be called.
- Relative address is specified by **using a label** and the assembler will figure out the relative offset and place it in the program memory.
- When executed, the **stack pointer (SP)** is **decremented by 2**, the **return address** is **saved in the stack**, the offset in the instruction is added to the current PC value, and finally instruction execution is continued from there.

**BSR bubble** ; bubble is the label containing the offset



**JSR <opr>** ; jump to subroutine with the given address *opr*

- More general than BSR; use **direct, extended, indexed, and indexed indirect addressing modes** to specify the subroutine to be called.
- The subroutine can be located anywhere within **64 Kbyte**.
- First **saves the return address** in the stack and then jump to execute the subroutine.

**JSR \$FF** ; call the subroutine located at \$FF

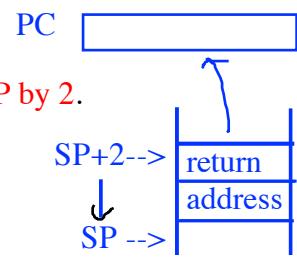
**JSR sq\_root** ; call the subroutine sq\_root

**JSR 0,X** ; call the subroutine pointed to by X

**RTS**

; return from subroutine

- Loads PC with a 16-bit value pulled from the stack and increments the SP by 2.
- Program execution continues at the address restored from the stack.



**CALL <opr>**

; to be used in expanded memory

- Designed to work with expanded memory (larger than 64 Kbytes) supported by some 68HC12 members, which treat the 16-Kbyte memory space from \$8000 to \$BFFF as a program memory window.
- See page 129 of the textbook for detail.

**RTC**

; return from CALL

- Terminates subroutines in expanded memory invoked by CALL.

## Issues in Subroutine Calls

Caller = the program unit that makes the subroutine call

Callee = the subroutine

1. **Parameter passing:** The caller usually wants the subroutine to perform computations using the parameters passed to it.

from main to  
subroutine

- Use CPU registers – convenient when there are only a few parameters to be passed.
- Use the stack – the stack must be cleaned up after the computation is completed. This can be done by either the caller or the callee.
- Use global memory – accessible to both the caller and callee.

2. **Returning results:**

from subroutine  
to main

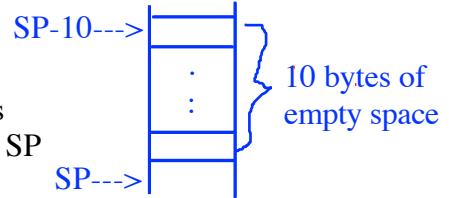
- Use CPU registers.
- Use the stack – the caller created a hole in which the result will be placed.
- Use global memory.

3. **Local variable allocation:** A subroutine may need memory locations (pointed to by SP) to hold temporary variables (i.e., local variables) and results.

in subroutine  
right after entry

- Allocated by the callee in the stack so that they are not accessible to any other program units.
- **LEAS** is the most efficient method of local variable allocation. It loads the SP with an effective address specified by the program.

`leas -10,sp` ; allocate 10 bytes in the stack for local variables  
; subtracts 10 from SP and puts the difference to SP



#### 4. Local variable deallocation

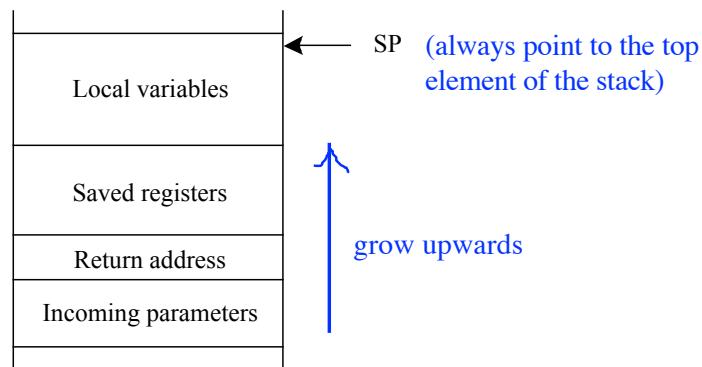
in subroutine  
right before exit

- The stack space allocated to local variables must be deallocated by the subroutine before the subroutine returns to the caller.

`leas 10,sp` ; deallocate 10 bytes from the stack before returning to the caller  
; adds 10 to SP and puts the sum to SP

## Stack Frame

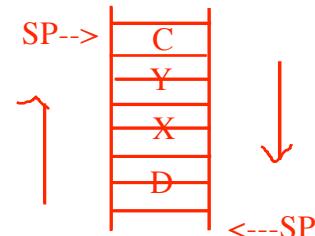
- Stack is heavily used during a **subroutine call**.
  - the caller **passes parameters** to the callee.
  - the callee **saves registers** and **allocates local variable** in the stack.
- Stack frame** is the region in the stack that holds incoming parameters, subroutine return address, local variables, and saved registers.
- Stack frame is also called the **activation record of the subroutine**.



If a subroutine saves registers when it is entered, it must **restore** them in the **reverse order** (i.e., **first-in-last-out**, FILO) **before returning** to the caller.

Example: Right after entering the subroutine, the following registers are saved in following order:

`pshd` ; from **registers to stack**  
`pshx` ; **watch out 1 vs. 2 bytes**  
`pshy`  
`pshc`

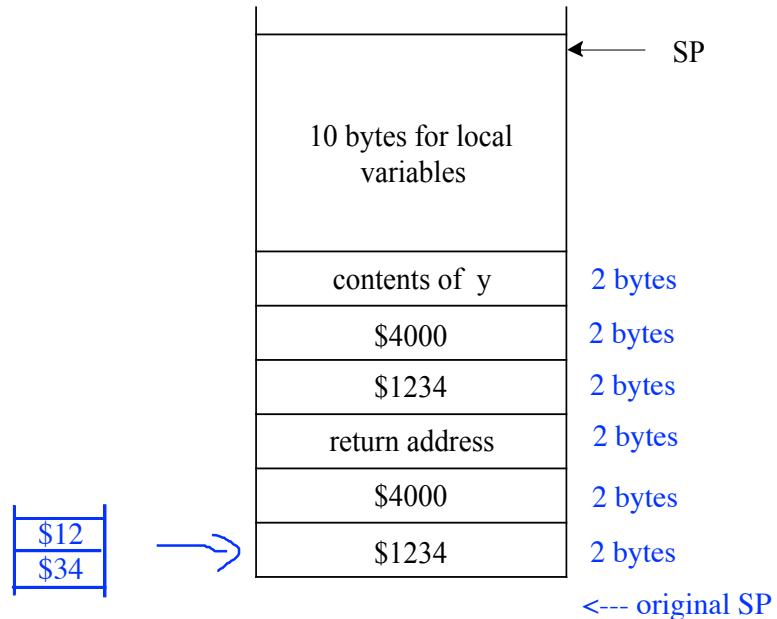


Before leaving the subroutine, restoration is in the reverse order:

```
pulc      ; from stack back to registers  
puly  
pulx  
puld
```

Example: Draw the stack frame for the following program segment after LEAS -10,SP is executed:

```
ldd    #$1234      ; pushes a 16-bit word from D into the stack  
pshd  
ldx    #$2000      ; pushes a 16-bit word from X into the stack  
pshx  
jsr    sub_xyz     ; return address is stored into the stack  
...  
sub_xyz pshd      ; the subroutine pushes the contents of D, X, Y  
pshx  
pshy  
leas   -10,sp     ; allocate 10 bytes in the stack  
...
```



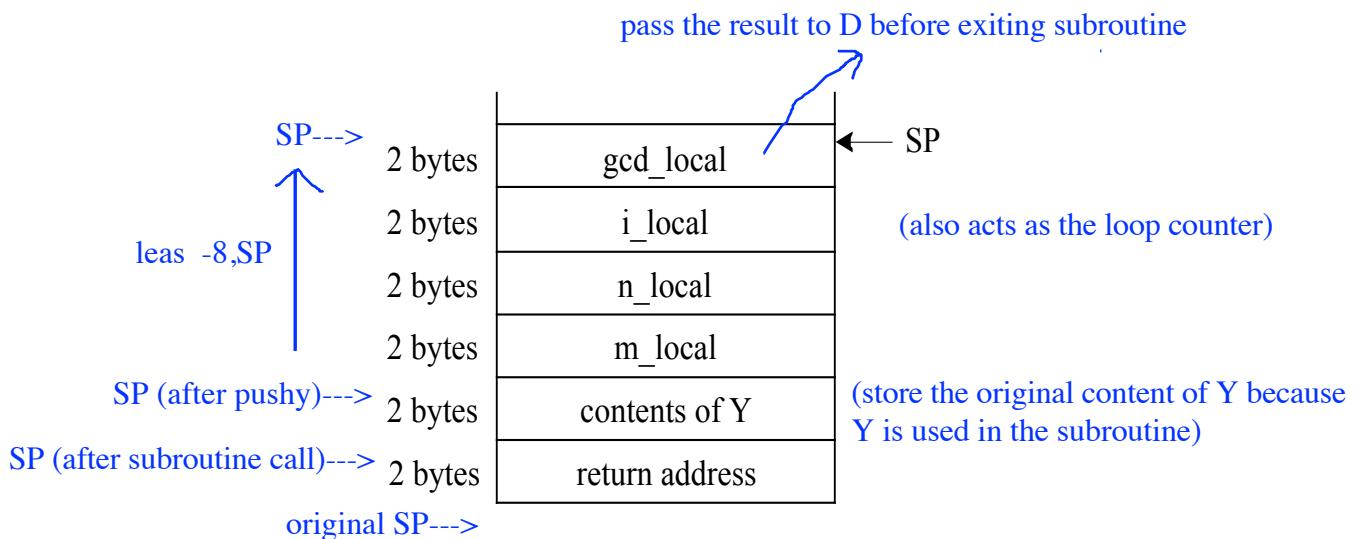
# Examples of Subroutines

Finding the Greatest Common Divisor (GCD) of positive integers m and n.

<b>Step 1:</b>	If $m = n$ , then $gcd \leftarrow m;$ return.	$GCD(3,3)=3$
<b>Step 2</b>	if $n < m$ , then swap m and n.	$GCD(9,3)=GCD(3,9)=3$
<b>Step 3</b>	if $m = 1$ , then $gcd \leftarrow 1;$ return.	make sure the first number is smaller $GCD(1,n)=1$
<b>Step 4</b>	For $i = 2$ to $m$ do if $\text{remainder}(m/i) = 0$ and $\text{remainder}(n/i) = 0$ , then $gcd \leftarrow i;$ return.	

Assume two 16-bit unsigned integers m and n are stored in X and D.

- Subroutine parameters are passed in X and D, as global variables.
- Subroutine local variables:
  1. **gcd\_local** = temporary gcd.
  2. **i\_local** = a value to test divide m and n.
  3. **n\_local** = hold the incoming n value.
  4. **m\_local** = hold the incoming m value.



gcd_local	equ	0	; the <b>distance</b> of gcd_local <b>from the stack top</b>
i_local	equ	2	; the distance of i_local from the stack top
n_local	equ	4	; the distance of n_local from the stack top
m_local	equ	6	; the distance of m_local from the stack top
local_var	equ	8	; number of <b>bytes</b> to be allocated to local variables
m	org	\$1000	; store the <b>16-bit numbers</b> and result in SRAM
	dw	375	; the first operand (the variables all takes <b>2 bytes</b> )
n	dw	1250	; the second operand
gcd	rmw	1	; reserve 2-byte space for the gcd result.
	org	\$2000	; start address of main program
	ldd	m	; D contains m
	ldx	n	; X contains n
	jsr	find_gcd	; jump to the subroutine
	std	gcd	; save the gcd in memory
	swi		; return to monitor
; the subroutine find_gcd			
	pshy		; store Y to the stack
	leas	-local_var,sp	; move up SP by the amount in local_var (8 bytes)
	stx	n_local,sp	; copy n to stack location SP+4
	std	m_local,sp	; copy m to stack location SP+6
	ldy	#1	;
	sty	gcd_local,sp	; initialize gcd (at stack location SP+0) to 1
step 1	cpd	n_local,sp	; compute D-(SP+4); i.e., m-n
	beq	m_equ_n	; if m = n, then branch to set gcd = m
	blo	m_less_n	; if < 0, then branch to the m < n case
	exg	d,x	; if m>n, then swap m and n
	std	m_local,sp	; also make sure the stack frame copy of
	stx	n_local,sp	; m and n are swapped
	cpd	#1	; the m<n case
	beq	done	; if m = 1, then gcd = 1
step 2	ldx	#2	; if not, prepare the division loop of i
	stx	i_local,sp	; initialize i to 2
	ldx	i_local,sp	;
	cpx	m_local,sp	; compute (X)-(SP+6); i.e., i-m
	bhi	done	; if i>m, then gcd is found
step 3	ldd	m_local,sp	; if i≤m, then perform D/X (i.e., m/i)
	idiv		; divide m by i; D = remainder
	cpd	#0	; check remainder = 0?
	bne	next_i	; if ≠0, increment i for the next loop
	ldd	n_local,sp	; if =0, continue to check n/i
	ldx	i_local,sp	;
	idiv		; divide n by i
	cpd	#0	; check remainder = 0?

```

        bne    next_i      ; if ≠0, increment i for the next loop
        ldd    i_local,sp   ; if =0, i is the gcd
        std    gcd_local,sp ; set i as the current gcd
next_i   ldx    i_local,sp   ; increment i for the next loop
        inx
        stx    i_local,sp   ; increment i
        jmp    loop         ; repeat the loop
m_equ_n  ldd    m_local,sp   ; pass the gcd to D
        bra    exit
done     ldd    gcd_local,sp ; pass the gcd to D
exit     leas   local_var,sp ; deallocate local variables
        puly
        rts
end

```

## Bubble sort

- Sorting is useful for **improving the searching speed** when an array or a file needs to be searched many times.
- Bubble sort is a **simple** widely known sorting method.
- Basic idea is to **go through the array sequentially** several times.
  - Each iteration consists of comparing each element in the array with its successor (i.e., **compare  $x[i]$  with  $x[i+1]$** ) and interchanging the two elements if they are not in proper order. (**pairwise compare & swap**)
  - The element  $x[n-i]$  will be in its **proper position after iteration  $i$** .
  - Array of  **$n$  elements** requires **no more than  $n-1$  iterations**.
  - Since elements in positions greater than or equal to  $n-i$  are already in proper position after iteration  $i$ , they need not be considered in succeeding iterations. Thus, in iteration  $i$ ,  **$n-i$  comparisons** are made.
  - Each number slowly bubbles up to its proper position.

**pairwise compare and swap**



Example: Sort the array 157, 13, 35, 9, 98, 810, 120, 54, 40, 30 in ascending order.

After the **1st iteration**, the array becomes 13, 35, 9, 98, **157**, 120, 54, 10, 30, **810**.  
The largest element (in this case 810) is in its proper position within the array.

inner loop

**n-1 compares**

**outer loop**

After the **2nd iteration**, the array becomes 13, 9, **35**, 98, 120, 54, 10, 30, **157**, 810.  
The second largest element (in this case 157) is in its proper position within the array.

**n-2 compares**

**n-3 compares**

After the **3rd iteration**, the array becomes 13, 9, 35, 98, 54, 10, 30, 120, 157, 810.

...

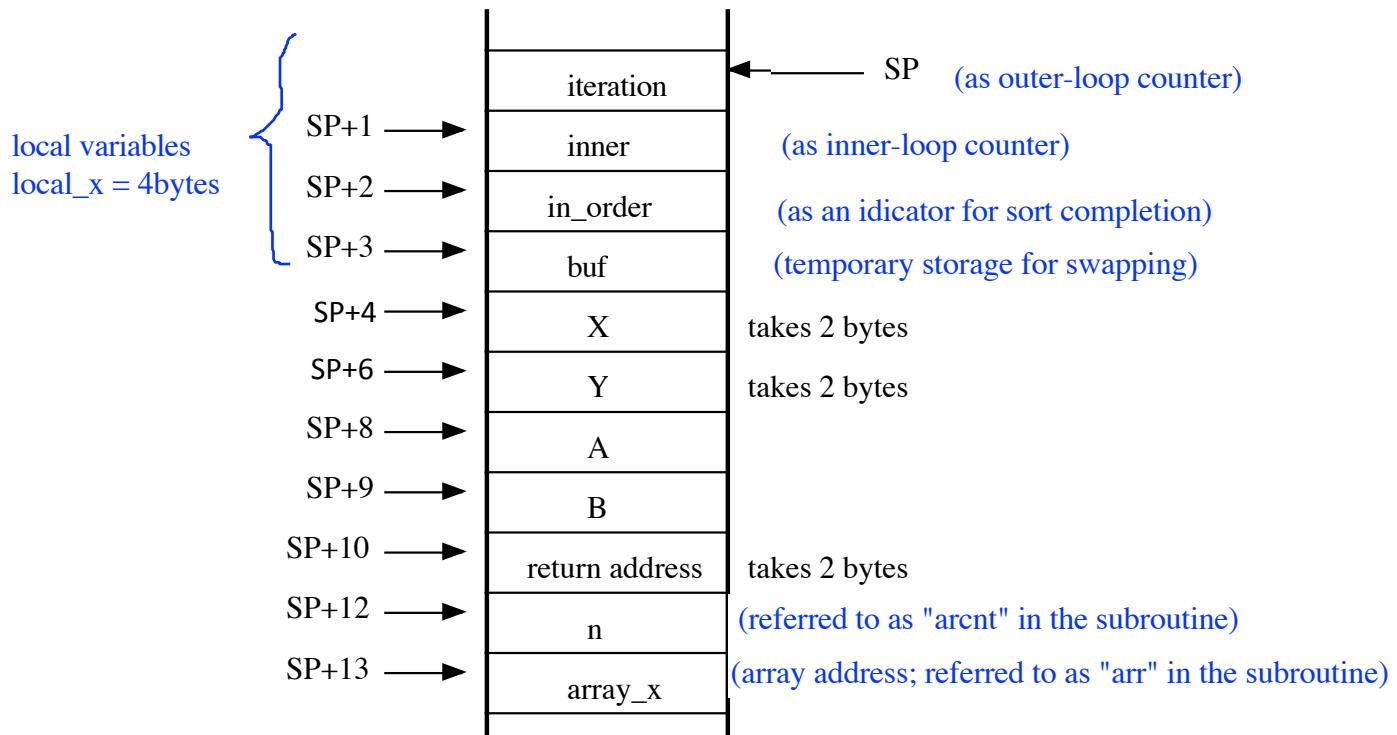
After the **9th iteration**, the array becomes 9, 10, 13, 30, 35, 54, 98, 120, 157, 810.

only needs at most  $n-1=9$  iterations

**n-9 compares**

Example: Use an array that consists of N **8-bit unsigned integers** for testing a bubble-sort subroutine.

- Pass the base address of the array and the array count in the stack.
- Four bytes are needed for local variables:
- Buf: buffer space for swapping adjacent elements.
- In\_order: flag to indicate whether the array is in order after an iteration.
- Inner: loop count for each iteration.
- Iteration: number of iterations remains to be performed.



array start address	arr	equ	13	; distance of the variable arr from stack top
number of elements	arcnt	equ	12	; distance of the variable arcnt from stack top
	buf	equ	3	; distance of local variable buf from stack top
	in_order	equ	2	; distance of local variable in_order from stack top
	inner	equ	1	; distance of local variable inner from stack top
	iteration	equ	0	; distance of local variable iteration from stack top
	true	equ	1	
	false	equ	0	
	n	equ	30	; array count
<b>localx</b>		equ	4	; number of bytes used by local variables
		org	\$1000	
array_x		db	3,29,10,98,54,9,100,104,200,92,87,48,27,22,71	
		db	1,62,67,83,89,101,190,187,167,134,121,20,31,34,54	

```

org      $2000
lds      #$2000      ; initialize SP (can be ignored by default)
ldx      #array_x     ; X has the start address of the array
pshx
ldaa    #n           ; A has the address of n
psha
jsr     bubble
leas   3,sp        ; deallocate space used by outgoing parameters
swi    ; break to D-Bug12 monitor

why needs this? --->

setup n-1 iteration
A <-- n          [ ploop
cloop             [ loop
loop              [ looptest
looptest          [ done
done

bubble      pshd
            pshy
            pshx
leas   -localx,sp ; allocate space for local variables, move SP up 4
ldaa    arcnt,sp   ; compute the number of iterations to be performed
deca
staa    iteration,sp ; A ← n-1
ldaa    #true       ; number of iterations = n-1=29
staa    in_order,sp ; set array in_order flag to true before any iteration
ldx     arr,sp      ; "
ldaa    iteration,sp ; use X as the array address pointer (SP+13)
staa    inner,sp    ; use A as the loop counter      [A=29 initially]
ldaa    0,x         ; initialize inner loop count for each iteration
cmpa   1,x         ; compare two adjacent elements
bls    looptest    ; compute arr[x]-arr[x+1]
staa    buf,sp      ; if <0, then continue on next array element
ldaa    1,x         ; if ≥ 0, then swap two adjacent elements
staa    0,x
ldaa    buf,sp
staa    1,x
ldaa    #false      ; set the in-order flag to false
staa    in_order,sp ; "
inx
dec    inner,sp    ; compare next array element by increment X
bne    cloop       ; decrement the inner loop counter by 1
bne    done         ; if counter ≠0, repeat the inner loop
tst    in_order,sp ; if =0, test array in_order flag after each iteration
bne    ploop       ; if in_order=true; then the array is sorted
dec    iteration,sp ; if not, decrement the loop counter
bne    ploop       ; repeat the outer loop
leas   local,sp    ; deallocate local variables

pulx
puly
puld
rts

end

```

# Finding the Square Root

One of the methods for finding the square root of an integer  $q$  is based on

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

The equation can be transformed into

$$q = n^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (2i + 1)$$

Run a loop with  $i$  as the loop counter to perform the summation:  
if  $\text{sum} > q$ , then  $i+1 = \text{square root of } q$ .

Suppose we want to compute the square root of  $q$ , and  $n$  is the integer value that is closest to the true square root. One of the following three relationships is satisfied:  $n^2 < q$ ,  $n^2 = q$ , and  $n^2 > q$ .

Example: Implement the square root algorithm on a 32-bit (or 4-byte) unsigned integer. The parameter  $q$  is pushed onto the stack and the **square root of  $q$**  ( $= 4$  bytes) is returned in **D** ( $= 2$  bytes).

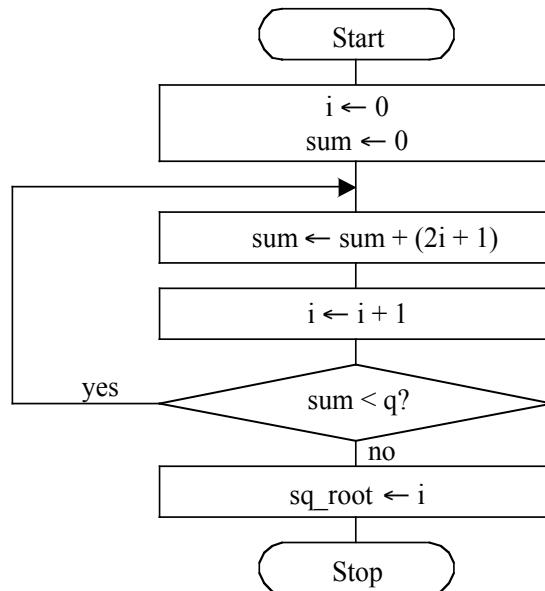
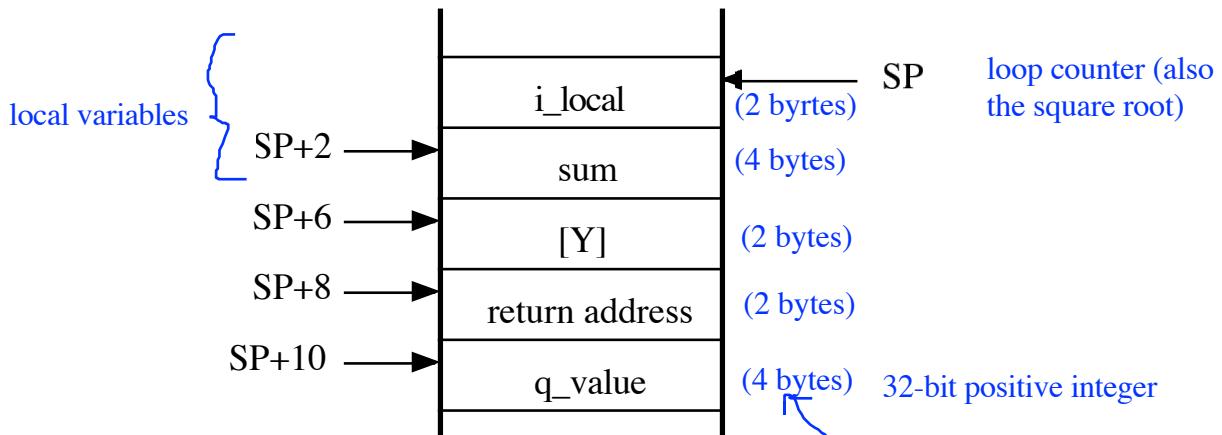


Figure 4.16 Algorithm for finding the square root of integer  $q$ .

- This algorithm will find the exact integer square root if the given number has one.
- If the given number does not have an exact integer square root, then the number returned by subroutine may not be the closest approximation.
- The algorithm will **stop only when  $\text{sum} > q$** .
- The last  $i$  value may not be as close to the real square root as it the value  $i-1$ .
- This can be fixed easily by comparing  $i^2 - q\_val$  and  $q\_val - (i-1)^2$ .

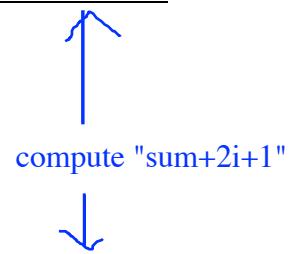


q_hi	equ	\$000F	; upper word of q	<b>[q has 4 bytes]</b>
q_lo	equ	\$4240	; lower word of q	
i_local	equ	0	; distance of local variable <b>i</b> from the stack top	
sum	equ	2	; distance of local variable <b>sum</b> from the stack top	
q_val	equ	10	; distance of incoming q from the stack top	
localx	equ	6	; number of bytes allocated to local variables	

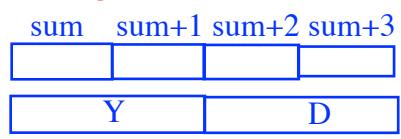
sq_root	org	\$1000		
	rmb	2	; to hold the square root of q	
	org	\$2000		
	ldd	#q_lo	; push q to the stack (q-value the bottom of stack)	
	pshd			
	ldd	#q_hi		
	pshd			
	jsr	find_sq_root	; jump to the subroutine	
	std	sq_root	; the square root is found	
	leas	4,sp	; deallocate 4 bytes from the stack	
	swi			

find_sq_root:		; subroutine starts here	
	pshy	; save y in the stack	
	leas	-localx,sp	; allocate local variables (move SP up by 6)
	ldd	#0	; initialize local variable i to 0
	std	i_local,sp	; "
	std	sum,sp	; initialize local variable sum to 0
	std	sum+2,sp	; sum has 4 bytes

loop	ldd	i_local,sp	; load i to D
	ldy	#2	; load 2 to Y
	emul		; compute 2i (i.e., Y:D=DxY)
C    C	addd	sum+2,sp	; add 2i to sum



compute "sum+2i+1"



why needs Y->D?

	std	sum+2,sp	; the following instructions
	tfr	y,d	; are needed because sum
	adcb	sum+1,sp	; has 4 bytes (i.e., two 16-bit
	stab	sum+1,sp	; additions)
	adca	sum,sp	;
	staa	sum,sp	;
	ldaa	#1	; add 1 to sum
	adda	sum+3,sp	; the following instructions
	staa	sum+3,sp	; are needed because sum
	ldaa	sum+2,sp	; has 4 bytes.
	adca	#0	; (need to propagate carry to the
	staa	sum+2,sp	; most significant byte of sum)
	ldaa	sum+1,sp	
	adca	#0	
	staa	sum+1,sp	
	ldaa	sum,sp	
	adca	#0	
	staa	sum,sp	
	ldd	i_local,sp	; increment i by 1 for next iteration
	addir	#1	
	std	i_local,sp	
; compare sum to q_val by performing subtraction (need consider borrow)			
	ldd	sum+2,sp	; load lowest 2 bytes of sum to D
	subd	q_val+2,sp	; (D)-q → D
	ldaa	sum+1,sp	; load the second highest byte of sum to D
	sbca	q_val+1,sp	; (A)-q-borrow → A
	ldaa	sum,sp	; load the highest byte of sum to D
	sbca	q_val,sp	; gives the C flag a 1 (borrow) or 0
	lblo	loop	; if C=1 (i.e., sum<q), perform next iteration
	ldd	i_local,sp	; place sq_root in D before return
exit	leas	localx,sp	; deallocate space used by local variables
	puly		
	rts		
	end		

End of Chapter 4