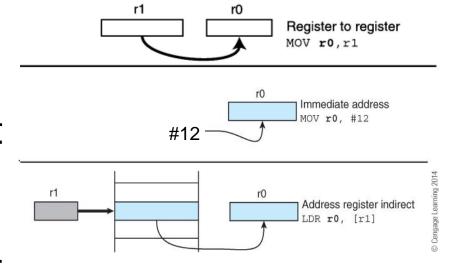
3.4 ARM Addressing Modes

Addressing Mode

Discussed previously:

- Register-to-register.
 - e.g., ADD r1, r2, r3
- Literal or immediate: the actual value is part of the instruction
 - e.g., ADD r1, r2, #5performs [r1] ← [r2] + 5



New:

Register indirect

Register indirect addressing

Register indirect: a register contains the address of the operand

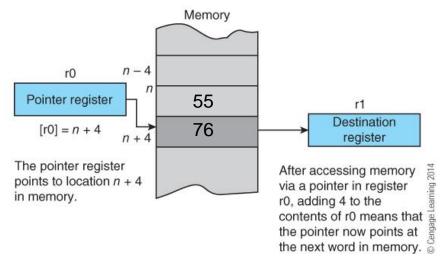
 e.g., LDR r1, [r0] copies to r1 the content of the memory location with address stored in r0.

FIGURE 3.31 Register indirect addressing Memory n-4Destination Pointer register 55 register [r0] = n76 n+4LDR r1, [r0] copies the contents of the memory The pointer register location pointed at by points to location n in register r0 into register r1. memory.

FIGURE 3.32

Effect of incrementing the pointer register

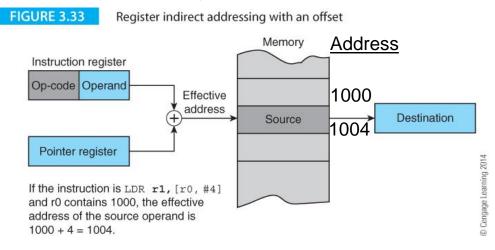
- Useful in access tables and arrays:
 - e.g., ADD r0, r0, #4 then LDR r1, [r0] moves next element of an array to r1.
 - ARM has facility for this to be done in one instruction.



Register Indirect addressing with an offset

(a) With a literal offset

- Effective address of operand = base address contained in a register + literal offset
- The literal offset is unsigned 12 bits (i.e., 0-4095 bytes)
- Example: LDR r1, [r0, #4]

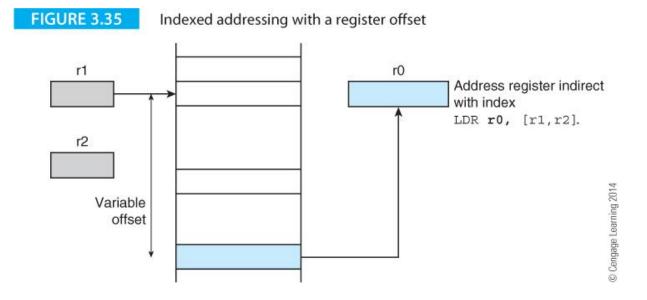


 The unsigned offset can also be subtracted from the base address: e.g., LDR r1, [r0, #-4]

Register Indirect addressing with an offset

(b) With the of set as a second register

- LDR r2, [r0,r1] - [r2] \leftarrow [[r0] + [r1]]
 - load r2 with the location pointed at by r0 plus r1
- LDR r2,[r0,r1,LSL #2]
 - [r2] ← [[r0] + 4 x [r1]]
 - Register r1 is scaled by 4. This allows you to use a scaled offset when dealing with arrays.
- The register offset can also be subtracted from the base address:



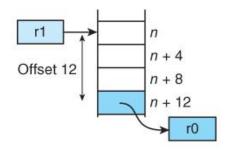
Pre-indexing and post-indexing

- Elements in an array or similar data structure are frequently accessed sequentially.
- Auto-indexing addressing modes allow pointers to be automatically adjusted to point at the next element.
- Two autoindexing modes:
 - Pre-indexed mode: Pointer updated before memory access
 - Post-indexed mode: Pointer updated after memory access

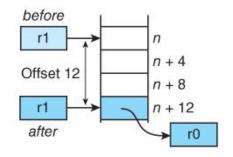
Pre-indexing and post-indexing

FIGURE 3.38

Register indirect addressing with offset



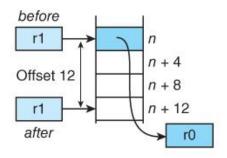
(a) LDR r0, [r1,#12] Offset added to base register to generate effective address. Operand accessed at effective address. Base register remains unchanged.



(b) LDR r0, [r1,#12]! Offset added to base register to generate effective address. Operand accessed at effective address. Base register updated after access.

Pre-indexing

 Increment address then access memory



(c) LDR r0, [r1], #12 Effective address specified by base register. Operand accessed at effective address. Offset added to base register after the access.

Post-indexing

 Access memory then increment address

Pre-indexing and post-indexing

Before operation:

```
[r1] = 0x200, [0x200] = 0x05,
[0x20C] = 0x77
After operation:
```

After operation:

```
-LDR r0, [r1, #12]

[r1] = 0x200, [r0] = 0x77

-LDR r0, [r1, #12]! (Pre-indexing)

[r1] = 0x20C, [r0] = 0x77

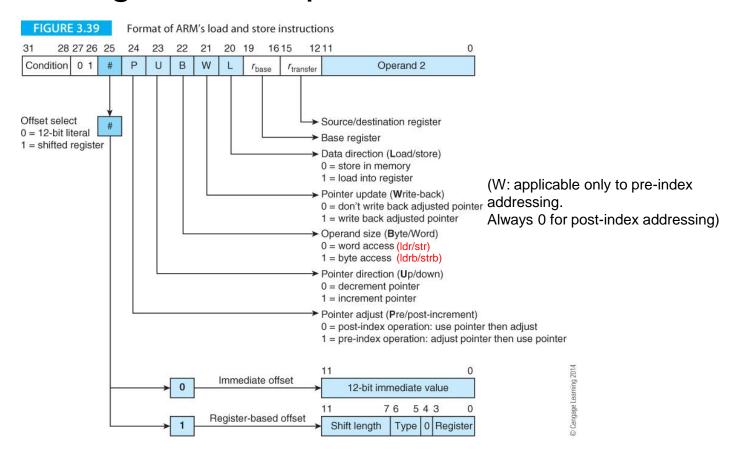
-LDR r0, [r1], #12 (Post-indexing)

[r1] = 0x20C, [r0] = 0x05
```

20C

ARM's load and store encoding

 Knowing about the encoding provides an understanding of what options are available.



ARM's load and store encoding

- W: applicable only to pre-index addressing.
- In the case of post-indexed addressing, the write back bit is redundant and must be set to zero.
- e.g., ldr r0, [r1], #4
- The non-zero offset of 4 indicates the programmer wants to increment (write-back) to address to the base address.
 Otherwise, he/she should have written ldr r0, [r1] (i.e., without the offset)
- Therefore, post-indexed data transfers always write back the modified base.

Example 1

Bits	Description	Code
31-28	Condition PL	0101
27-26	Defines a load/store instruction	01
25	Use shift register	1
24	P: Pre-index	1
23	U: Decrement Pointer (in -r6)	0
22	B: Word	0
21	W: Write back adjusted pointer	1
20	L: Store	0
19-16	r _{base} = r2	0010 (i.e., 2 in hex)
15-12	$r_{transfer} = r4$	0100 (i.e., 4 in hex)
11-7	Shift = 2 in LSL #2	00010 (i.e., 2 in hex)
6-5	LSL	00
4	Fixed	0
3-0	r6	0110 (i.e., 6 in hex)

Example 2

Bits	Description	Code
31-28	Condition AL	1110
27-26	Defines a load/store instruction	01
25	Use 12-bit immediate value	0
24	P: Post-index	0
23	U: Increment Pointer	1
22	B: Word	0
21	W: Always 0 for post-indexing	0
20	L: Load	1
19-16	r _{base} = r0	0000 (i.e., 2 in hex)
15-12	$r_{transfer} = r1$	0001 (i.e., 4 in hex)
11-0	Immediate value of 4	0000 0000 0100 (i.e., 4 in hex)

Summary of Idr/str options

- Address accessed by LDR/STR is specified by a base register plus an offset
- Offset can be:
 - An unsigned 12-bit immediate value (i.e., 0 4095 bytes).

```
LDR r0, [r1, #8]
```

A register, optionally shifted by an immediate value
 LDR r0, [r1, r2]

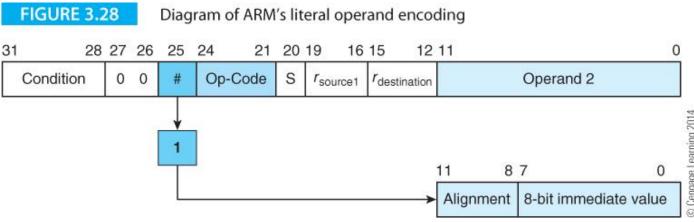
```
LDR r0, [r1, r2]
LDR r0, [r1, r2, LSL #2]
```

 This can be either added or subtracted from the base register:

```
LDR r0, [r1, #-8]
LDR r0, [r1, -r2]
LDR r0, [r1, -r2, LSL #2]
```

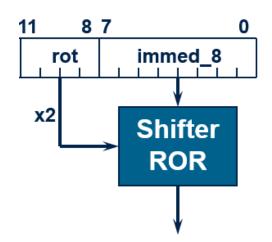
Choice of pre-indexed or post-indexed addressing

Idr pseudoinstruction



Recall about literal encoding:

- A data processing instruction (including mov) has 12 bits available for the literal consisting of an 8-bit immediate value and number of ror encoded
- Error occurs when loading a literal using mov if the literal cannot be represented by an 8-bit value with even number of ror.
- How does ARM address this error so that all 32-bit values can be loaded?



Idr pseudoinstruction

LDR rd, =const

- This will either:
 - Produce a mov or mvn instruction to generate the value (if possible).

or

- Generate an ldr instruction with a PC-relative address to read the constant from a literal pool (Constant data area embedded in the code).
- For example

```
- LDR r0,=0xFF => MOV r0,#0xFF

- LDR r0,=0x55555555 => LDR r0,[PC,#Imm12]

...

0x55555555
```

- This is the recommended way of loading constants into a register
- Called pseudoinstruction because this is not part of the processor's instruction set.

Example use in Lab 2

```
13 .org 0x1000 // Start
14 .text // Code :
15 .global _start
16 start:
17
18 // Store data in regis
19 mov ro, #4
20 mov r1, #8
21 add r2, r1, r0
22 // Copy data to memory
23 ldr r3, =Result //
24 str r2, [r3]
                   // Stc
25
26 // End program
27 _stop:
28 b _stop
29
30 .data
           // uninitial
31 .bss
32 Result:
33 .space 4 // Set aside
34
35 .end
```

```
_start:
                                ro, #4 ; 0x4
          e3a00004
00001000
                        mov
                                r1, #8 ; 0x8
00001004
          e3a01008
                        mov
          e0812000
                        add
                                r2, r1, r0
00001008
                        // Copy data to memory
                      ldr r3, =Result // Assign add
0000100c
          e59f3004
                        ldr
                                r3, [pc, #4]
                        str r2, [r3] // Store cont
00001010
          e5832000
                                r2, [r3]
                        str
                        // End program
                        stop:
                        b stop
                    _stop:
                            0x1014 (0x1014: _stop)
00001014
          eafffffe
                    23 ldr r3, =Result // Assign add
                        andeq r1, r0, r0, LSR #32
00001018
          00001020
          00000000
                        andeg
                                r0, r0, r0
0000101c
                    Result:
00001020
          0000000
                        andeq
                                r0, r0, r0
                        andeq
                                ro, ro, ro
00001024
          00000000
                    _end:
```

Source code

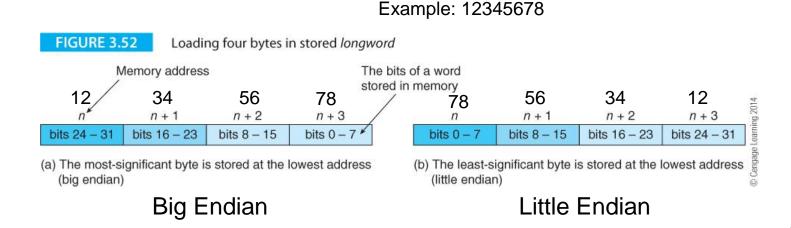
Assembled code

Example use in Lab 2

- Result is the starting address of the word we try to allocate using .space
- From the assembled code, you can see Result represents the address 0x1020
- ldr r3, =Result is actually ldr r3, =0x1020
- The assembler generate a literal 0x1020 and put it in address 0x1018 (i.e., at the end of the code section). This is an item in the literal pool.
- The instruction ldr r3, [pc, #4] tries to retrieve the content of the address 0x1018 and put it in r3.
- The address 0x1018 is 12 bytes under the ldr instruction (at 0x100C)
- For our example,
 - pc = 0x100C + 8 = 0x1014 (pipelining)
 - pc + 4 = 0x1018

Idr/str byte/halfword

- We can load or store byte (8-bit) or halfword (16-bit)
- We need to understand two ways of data organization:
 - Little Endian: Most significant byte (MSB) stored in the highest address
 - Big Endian: MSB stored in lowest address

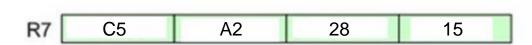


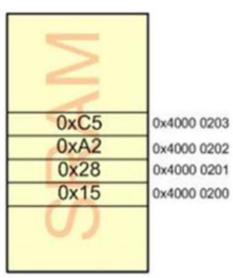
Little Endian

- We use little endian throughout the course.
- For example,

```
1dr r0, =0x40000200
str r7, [r0]
```

would give:





Byte load

• ldrb Rd, [Rx] loads one byte from a memory location pointed to by Rx into the least significant byte of Rd.

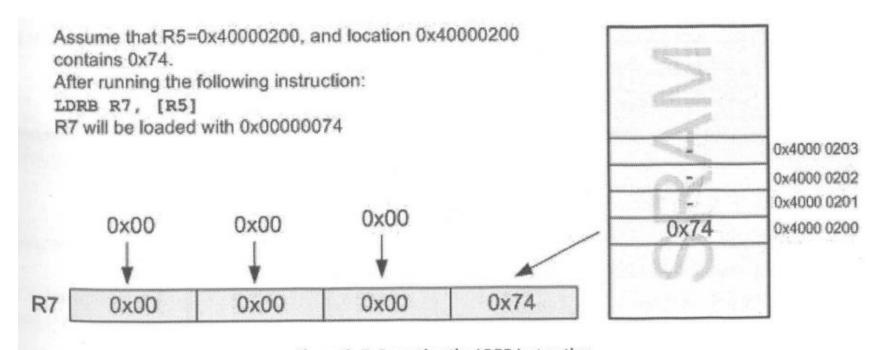


Figure 2-7: Executing the LDRB Instruction

Byte store

• strb Rd, [Rx] stores the least significant byte of Rx to the memory location pointed to by Rx

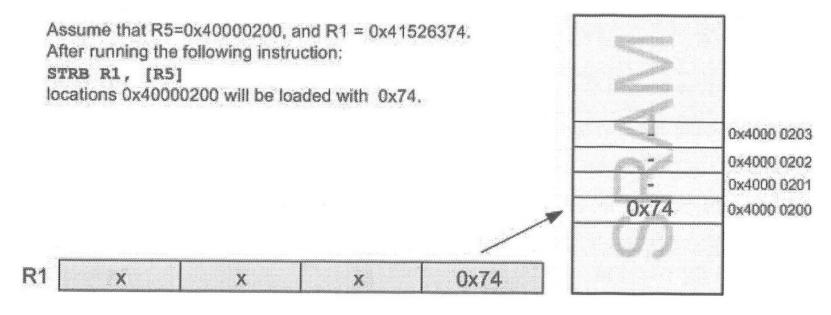


Figure 2-8: Executing the STRB Instruction

Half-word load

• ldrh Rd, [Rx] loads two bytes (half-word) from a memory location pointed to by Rx into the least significant byte of Rd.

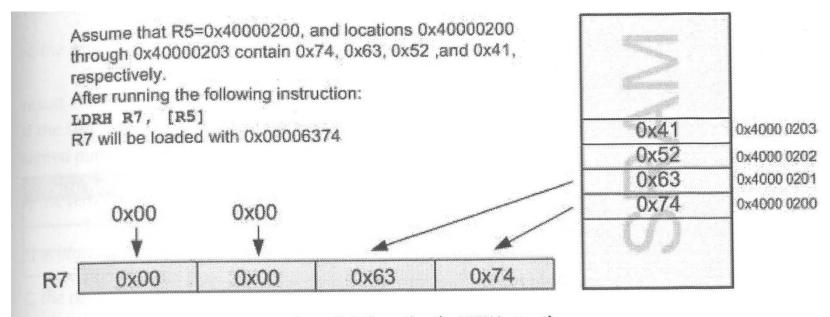


Figure 2-9: Executing the LDRH Instruction

Half-word store

 strh Rd, [Rx] stores the lower 16-bit contents to the memory location pointed to by Rx

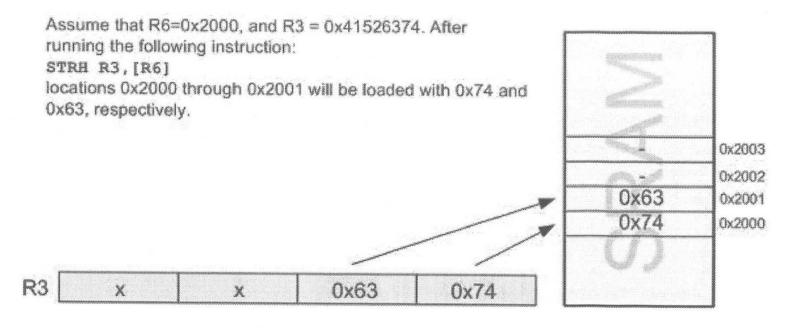


Figure 2- 10: Executing the STRH Instruction

Half-word/byte load with sign extension

- Sign extension of signed number
 - Positive number: e.g., extending the 8-bit number of 56₁₆ to a 32-bit number will result in 00000056₁₆
 - Negative number: e.g., extending the 8-bit number of 82₁₆ to a 32-bit number will result in FFFFF82₁₆
 - 82₁₆ is -7E₁₆
 - With 32-bit, this number is represented as the 2'complement of $0000007E_{16} \rightarrow FFFFFF82_{16}$
 - Thus, signed extension involves copying the signed bit (D7) to the upper 24 bits of the 32-bit register. Similar for half-word.

Half-word/byte load with sign extension

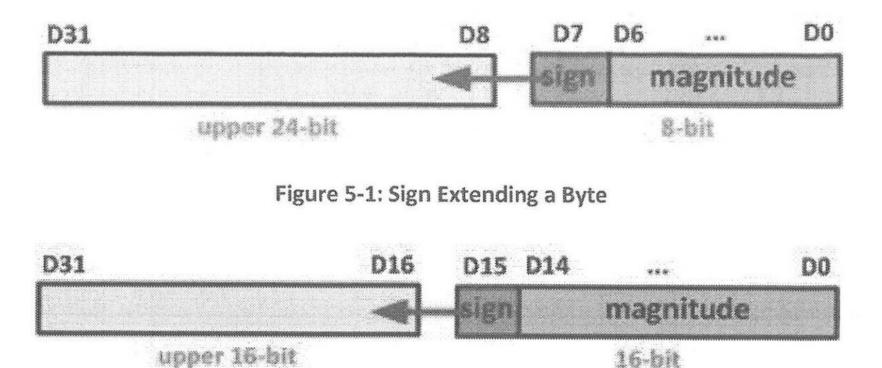


Figure 5-2: Sign Extending a Half-word

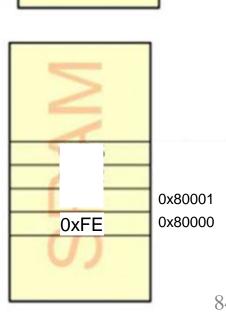
Byte load with sign extension

ldrsb r0, [r1]

• Assume [r1] = 0x80000 and the content in the memory location 0x80000 is 60, then [r0] =00000060



 If instead, the content in the memory location 0x80000 is FE (=-2), then [r0] = FFFFFFFE



0x60



84

0x80001 0x80000

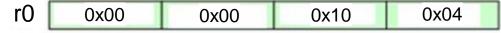
Half-word load with sign extension

ldrsh r0, [r1]

r0

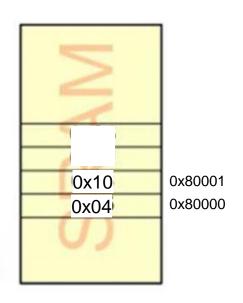
0xFF

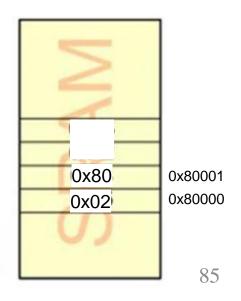
Assume [r1] = 0x80000 and the content in the memory location 0x80000 is 0104, then [r0] = 00000104



0xFF

 If instead, the content in the memory location 0x80000 is 8002 (= -32766₁₀), then [r0] = FFFF8002

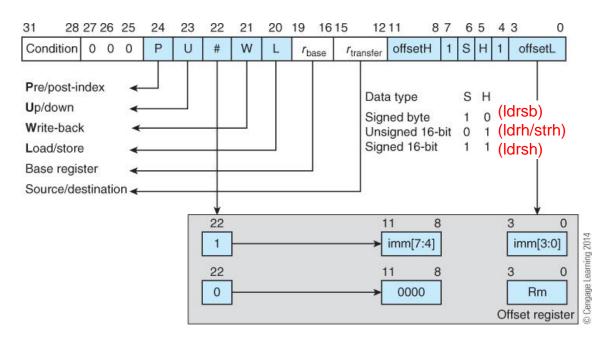




0x02

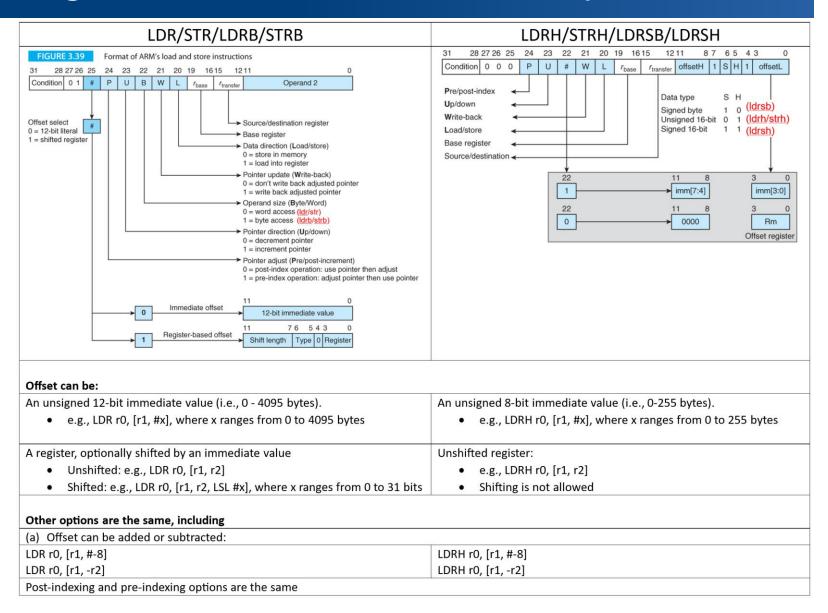
0x80

Half-word/byte load/store encoding



- For halfword and signed halfword / byte, offset can be:
 - An unsigned 8-bit immediate value (i.e., 0-255 bytes).
 - A register (unshifted).

Regular load vs half-word/byte load



Regular Idr/str vs half-word/byte Idr/str

Legal	Illegal
ldr r0, [r1, #4000] ldrb r0, [r1, #4000] ldr r0, [r1, r2] ldrh r0, [r1, r2] ldr r0, [r1, r2, LSL #30]	ldrh r0, [r1, #4000] (offset is limited to 0 to 255) ldrh r0, [r1, r2, LSL #30] (no shifting is allowed for ldrh)
	ldr r0, [r1, r2, LSL r3] ldrh r0, [r1, r2, LSL r3] (no dynamic shift offset is allowed for all ldr/str operations) ldr r0, [r1, r2, LSL #40] (shift is limited to 0 to 31)

Example: Lookup Table

This example converts a hexadecimal digit to its corresponding ASCII code according to the following lookup table:

Hexadecimal	ASCII
0	0x30
1	0x31
2	0x32
3	0x33
4	0x34
5	0x35
6	0x36
7	0x37
8	0x38
9	0x39
Α	0x41
В	0x42
C	0x43
D	0x44
E	0x45
F	0x46

Example: Lookup Table

```
.text
  .global start
   start:
5 ldr r1, =Data
  ldr r2, =0xB //Hex Input
  ConvertHexToASCII:
  ldrb r0, [r1, r2] //Output stored in r0
11
12 stop:
  b stop
14
   .data
16 Data:
   .byte 0x30, 0x31, 0x32, 0x33, 0x34, 0x35
18 .byte 0x36, 0x37, 0x38, 0x39
19 .byte 0x41, 0x42, 0x43, 0x44, 0x45, 0x46
20 Data:
22 .end
```

- .text: Identifies the code section of the program.
- .data: Defines a section of code that contains initialized data and variables rather than executable code.
- The list begins at the address labeled Data
- The list values are comma-separated and are byte-sized (as defined by .byte)

Example: Lookup Table

```
1 .text
2 .global _start
  start:
5 ldr r1, =Data
7 ldr r2, =0xB //Hex Input
9 ConvertHexToASCII:
10 ldrb r0, [r1, r2] //Output stored in r0
11
12 stop:
13 b stop
14
15 .data
16 Data:
17 .byte 0x30, 0x31, 0x32, 0x33, 0x34, 0x35
18 .byte 0x36, 0x37, 0x38, 0x39
19 .byte 0x41, 0x42, 0x43, 0x44, 0x45, 0x46
20 Data:
21
22 .end
```

Hexadecimal	ASCII
0	0x30
1	0x31
2	0x32
3	0x33
4	0x34
5	0x35
6	0x36
7	0x37
8	0x38
9	0x39
Α	0x41
В	0x42
С	0x43
D	0x44
E	0x45
F	0x46

Example: Convert the hex digit B to its corresponding ASCII code

- Set [r2] ← 0xB
- Set base address to be the address of the label Data, store it in r1.
- The desired ASCII code is located at address [r1]+[r2]
- Use ldrb r0, [r1, r2] to retrieve the desired ASCII code.

3.5 Looping and Branching

Looping in ARM

- Loop repeating a sequence of instructions a certain number of times.
- e.g., To add 9 to r0 five times, I could do:

```
mov r0, #0
mov r1, #9
add r0, r0, r1
```

- Disadvantage: Too much code space is needed if repeating 100 times
- Use looping

Three steps in writing a for loop

- Step 1: Initialize variables
 - Count: specifies how many times you want to repeat the loop. (e.g., [r2] = 5 in previous example)
 - Other variables depending on application.
- Step 2: Identify statement(s) to repeat
 - In the previous example, it would be: add r0, r0, r1
- Step 3: Determine whether to stop looping
 - Use subs r2, r2, #1 to decrement [r2] after one iteration (repetition) of the loop, and check whether [r2] is 0. Two possibilities:
 - If [r2] = 0 (i.e., finished the desired number of iterations), exit loop.
 - If [r2] ≠ 0, branch back to Step 2.

 e.g., Write a program to (a) clear r0, (b) add 9 to r0 a thousand times.

```
mov r0, #0

ldr r2, =1000; Step 1

AddMore:

add r0, r0, #9; Step 2

subs r2, r2, #1; Step 3

bne AddMore
```

General format of a for loop

```
MOV r0,#10 // Step 1
Loop:
code ... // Step 2
SUBS r0,r0,#1 // Step 3
BNE Loop
Post loop ... ;fall through on zero count
```

- Write a program to place the value 0x55 into 100 consecutive bytes starting from address 0x1500.
- Step 1: Initialization

 - -[r0] = 25
 - -[r2] = 0x1500
- Step 2: Statements to repeat
 - str r1, [r2], #4
- Step 3: Termination conditions
 - -[r0] = [r0] 1
 - Stop repetition if [r0] = 0

```
mov r0, #25
1dr r1, =0x55555555
1dr r2, =0x1500
Again:
str r1, [r2], #4
subs r0, r0, #1
bne Again
Here:
b Here
```

While loop

Pseudocode:

```
while expression statement(s) end
```

- If expression is true, run statement(s) once.
- Assembly code:

```
Loop:
cmp r0, #0
beq WhileExit
.... statement(s)
b Loop
WhileExit:
Post loop ...; Exit
```

Example 1 using while loop

 e.g., Write a program to (a) clear r0, (b) add 9 to r0 a thousand times.

```
mov r0, #0
ldr r2, =1000 // Step 1
AddMore:
cmp r2, #0
beq WhileExit
add r0, r0, #9 // Step 2
sub r2, r2, #1 // Step 3
b AddMore
WhileExit: Post loop; Exit
```

- This example traverses a list and operates on each value of the list.
- Let's have a good understanding of the list first:

- The list begins at the address labeled Data
- The list values are comma-separated and are wordsized (as defined by .word)
- The address of the end of the list (i.e., immediately after the last item) is labeled as _Data. This is important as otherwise we have no way to know where the list ends.

Q Memory (Ctrl-M)											
Go to address, label, or register: 1030 ■ Refresh											
Address	Memory contents and ASCII										
00001030	4	5	-9	0	• • • •	••••	••••	••••			
00001040	3	0	8	-7	• • • •	••••	• • • •	••••			
00001050	12	0	0	0	• • • •	••••	••••	••••			

- Data items are stored correctly as displayed above because the list *Data* starts on the word boundary (address divisible by 4).
- However, this is not guaranteed. For example, the list would be unaligned by adding a single byte with a value of 1 in front of the *Data* list

The resulting memory looks like:

Q Memory (Ctrl-M)												
Go to addre	ss, label, or register:	1030		•	Refresh							
Address	Memory contents	and ASCII										
00001020	1025	1280	-2304		255							
00001030	768	0	2048		-1792			••••				
00001050	3327	0	0		0	••••	••••	••••	••••			

- The original list values are still there, but because they are now shifted by a byte, they no longer make sense in decimal.
- We can correct this with the .align directive:

This code traverses the list:

```
16 .org 0x1000 // Start at memory location 1000
         // Code section
17 .text
18 .global _start
19 start:
20
21 ldr r2, =Data // Store address of start of list
22 ldr r3, = Data // Store address of end of list
23
24 Loop:
25 ldr r0, [r2], #4 // Read address with post-increment ([r0] <- [[r2]], [r2] <- [r2] + 4)
26 cmp r3, r2 // Compare current address with end of list
      Loop // If not at end, continue
27 bne
28
29 _stop:
30 b stop
31
32 .data
33 .align
34 Data:
35 .word 4,5,-9,0,3,0,8,-7,12 // The list of data
36 Data: // End of list address
37
38 .end
```

does the following:

- loads the value at the address stored in r2 to r0.
 This is initially the first element of the Data list.
- The value of r2 is then incremented by 4. r2 now points to the second element of the *Data* list.

```
.data // Data section
Data:
.word 4,5,-9,0,3,0,8,-7,12 @ The list of data
_Data: // End of list address
```

 This continues until some end condition is reached.

The end condition in this case is to compare the current address in r3 against the address immediately following the end of the list, i.e., the value in *Data*:

- If [r3]>[r2], end has not been reached, Z = 0, the branch bne is taken.
- If [r3]=[r2], end is reached, Z = 1, bne not taken.

 Suppose we want to process a list of values, and count how many positive, negative, and zero values are in the list.

To do it:

- We would use three registers to store the number of positive, negative and zero values.
- 2. For each value we traverse using the above program, we test whether it is greater than, equal to or less than 0 and add 1 to the appropriate register.

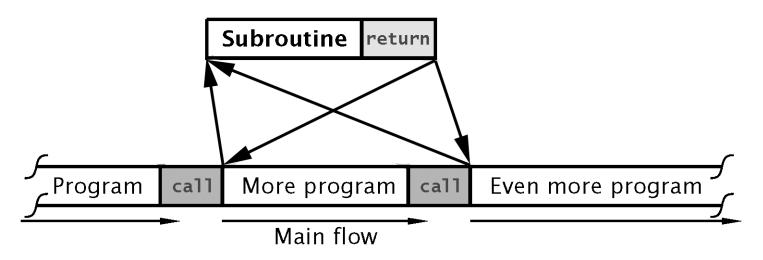
```
18 .text
19 ldr r2, =Data
                   // Store address of start of list
20 ldr r3, =_Data // Store address of end of list
21 mov r5, #0
                   // Initialize negative count
                   // Initialize positive count
22 mov r6, #0
                   // Initialize zero count
23 mov r7, #0
24
25 Loop:
26 ldr r1, [r2], #4
                       // Read address with post-increment ([r0] \leftarrow [[r2]], [r2] \leftarrow [r2] + 4)
   cmp r1, #0
                       // Compare number to 0
   // Conditional executions
           r5, r5, #1 // Increment the negative value count if r1 is negative
30 addlt
          r6, r6, #1 // Increment the positive value count if r1 is positive
31 addgt
32 addeg
          r7, r7, #1 // Increment the zero value count if r1 is zero
33
           r2, r3
                      // Compare current address with end of list
34 cmp
                      // If not at end, continue
35 bne
           Loop
```

3.6 Subroutine call and return

Subroutine

- A subroutine is a sequence of instructions that can be called from different places in a program.
- Two reasons for creating subroutines:
 - The problem is too big: Easier to divide the problem into smaller sub-problems
 - There are several places in a program that need to perform the same operation

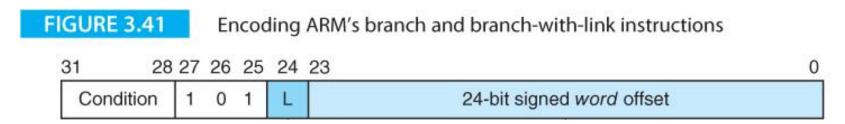
Calling subroutine: Is it just branching?



- Calling subroutine involves the "jumping" part, which is the same as branching.
- But we need to get back to the main program after the subroutine returns.
- Thus, we need a location in which the return address can be stored.

ARM support for subroutine

- Use BL (branch with link)
 - Performing branching and
 - Store the return address (i.e., the address of the instruction immediately below the bl instruction) into r14 (also called 1r) register.



 At the end of the subroutine, use BX lr to return [lr] to [pc].

Suppose that you want to evaluate if x > 0 then x = 16x + 1 else x = 32x several times in a program. Assuming that x = x = 10, we can write:

```
Func1: cmp r0, #0 //test for x > 0 movgt r0, r0, lsl #4 // if x > 0 x = 16x addgt r0, r0, #1 // if x > 0 then x = 16x + 1 movle r0, r0, lsl #5 // ELSE if x < 0 THEN x = 32x bx lr // [pc] <- [lr]
```

```
6 .text
 7 .global start
 8 _start:
10 ldr r0, =-1
12 bl Func1
14 ldr r4, =0 \times 1000
15 str r0, [r4] // store the result in address 1000
17 Here:
18 b Here
20 Func1:
21 cmp r0, #0 //test for x > 0
22 movgt r0, r0, lsl #4 // if x > 0 x = 16x
23 addgt r0, r0, #1 // if x > 0 then x = 16x + 1
24 movle r0, r0, lsl \#5 // ELSE if x < 0 THEN x = 32x
25 bx lr // [pc] <- [lr]
27 .end
```

Instructions calling the subroutine Func1:

- Set up r0 as the input parameter
- After Func1 generates an output stored in r0, copy the output to address 1000

Note that the subroutine appears after the Here:
b Here instruction. This guarantees that the subroutine will not be executed by mistake.

Address Machine

```
Code
                   10 	 ldr r0, =-1
                   start:
00000000
         e3e00000
                               r0, #0 ; 0x0
                       mvn
                   12 bl Func1
                       bl 0x14 (0x14: Func1)
00000004
                   14 ldr r4, =0x1000
                               r4, #4096
80000000
         e3a04a01
                       mov
                                         ; 0x1000
                   str r0, [r4] // store the result in address 1000
         e5840000
                               r0, [r4]
0000000c
                       str
                   17 Here:
                   18 b Here
00000010
         eafffffe
                       b 0x10 (0x10: Here)
                   20 Func1:
                   21 cmp r0, #0 //test for x > 0
                   Func1:
00000014
         e3500000
                               r0, #0 ; 0x0
                   22 movgt r0, r0, lsl #4 // if x > 0 x = 16x
                       lslgt
                             r0, r0, #4
00000018
         c1a00200
                   23 addgt r0, r0, #1 // if x > 0 then x = 16x + 1
0000001c
         c2800001
                             r0, r0, #1 ; 0x1
                   movle r0, r0, lsl \#5 // ELSE if x < 0 THEN x = 32x
         d1a00280
                             r0, r0, #5
00000020
                   25 bx lr // [pc] <- [lr]
         e12fff1e
                       bx lr
00000024
                   end:
```

After execution of the blinstruction:

$$\circ$$
 [lr] = 0x08

$$\circ$$
 [pc] = 0x14

After execution of the bx instruction inside the subroutine Func1:

$$\circ$$
 [pc] = 0x08

thus returning to the line immediately below the blinstruction.

Encoding at the blinstruction

$$\frac{Dest - Current PC}{4}$$

$$= \frac{0x14 - 0x0C}{4} = 2$$

Encoded Address = 000002

Example 2 (Lab 5)

1. Instructions calling the swap subroutine

3. Data storage

```
51 .data
52 .align
53 x:
54 .word 9
55 y:
56 .word 4
57
58 .end
```

2. swap subroutine

```
26 swap:
27 /*
29 Swaps location of two values in memory.
30 Equivalent of: swap(*x, *y)
32 Parameters:
[r0] - address of x
34 [r1] - address of y
35 Uses:
36 [r2] - value of x
37 [r3] - value of y
38 -----
39 */
40 stmfd sp!, {r0-r3} // preserve all registers
41
44 str r2, [r1] // store value of x in y
45 str r3, [r0] // store value of y in x
46
47 ldmfd sp!, {r0-r3} // pop preserved registers
48 bx
        lr  // return from subroutine
```

Example 2 (Lab 5)

```
20 bl swap // call the s
                      bl 0x1010 (0x1010: swap)
00001008
         eb000000
                  22    stop:
                  23 b stop
                   stop:
         eafffffe
                      b 0x100c (0x100c: stop)
0000100c
                      swap:
                      Swaps location of two values
                      Equivalent of: swap(*x, *y)
                      Parameters:
                  33 [r0] - address of x
                  34 [r1] - address of y
                  35 Uses:
                  36 [r2] - value of x
                  37 [r3] - value of y
                      */
                      stmfd sp!, {r0-r3} // pr
                  swap:
                      push {r0, r1, r2, r3}
00001010
         e92d000f
```

 After execution of the bl instruction:

```
\circ [lr] = 0x100C
```

$$\circ$$
 [pc] = 0x1010

 After execution of the bx instruction inside the subroutine swap:

$$\circ$$
 [pc] = 0x100C

Preserving Registers

- The values in registers should be the same before and after a subroutine call, except registers being updated (e.g., r0 in Example 1) or those used to return a value.
- Registers are preserved and recovered by pushing and popping their values to the stack.
- ARM provides instructions for pushing and popping multiple register values at once by stmfd and ldmfd.

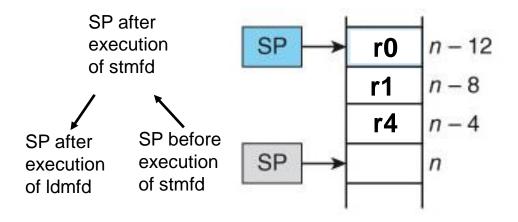
stmfd (Store Memory Full Descending stack)

- copies a block of data from registers to memory
 Idmfd (Load Memory Full Descending stack)
 - copies a block of data from memory to registers

```
stmfd sp!, {r0,r1,r4} ldmfd sp!, {r0,r1,r4}
```

The FD option:

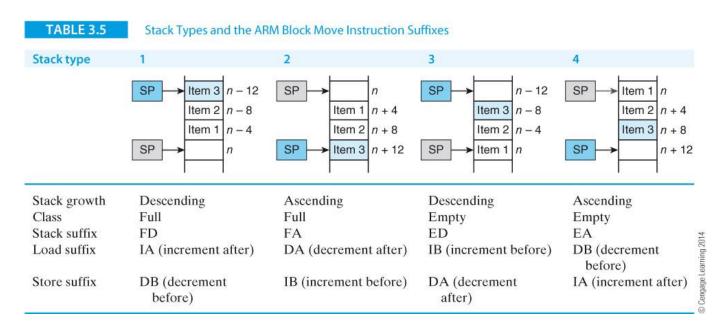
- Full
 - SP points to the top item of stack
- Descending
 - stack grows towards lower addresses



Note that sp moves only if appended with an!

The full descending (FD) option is most often used in this course, but you should know about other options:

- Full vs. Empty
 - Full: SP points to the top item of the stack
 - Empty: SP points to the next empty element above the top of stack
- Descending vs. Ascending
 - The stack grows towards either lower (descending) or higher (ascending) addresses.



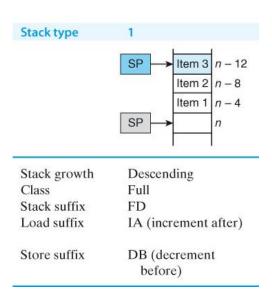
stmfd = stmdb db = decrement before

 SP decrements before storing the next element

Idmfd = Idmia ia = increment after

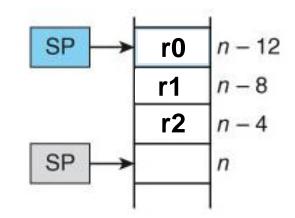
 SP increments after popping each element

Try to understand equivalence in other types of stacks.



```
stmfd sp!, \{r0-r2\}
```

- If multiple registers are adjacent, they can be listed with a dash (-):
 - e.g., stmfd sp!, {r0-r2}
 pushes r0, r1 and r2.

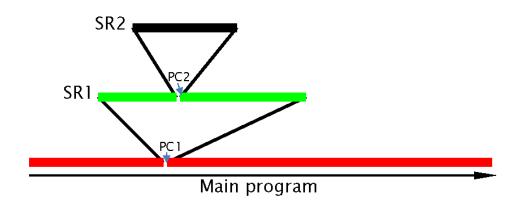


- Note that the registers are pushed in right-to-left order (i.e., pushing r2, then r1 then r0)
- The same would happen even with stmfd sp!, {r2, r0, r1}
- If you require the stack to be in a different order, you must issue separate stmfd instructions.

Preserving registers in the swap subroutine

```
26 swap:
27 /*
29 Swaps location of two values in memory.
30 Equivalent of: swap(*x, *y)
32 Parameters:
[r0] - address of x
  [r1] - address of y
35 Uses:
36 [r2] - value of x
37 [r3] - value of v
39 */
                       // preserve all registers
40 stmfd
          sp!, {r0-r3}
41
      r2, [r0] // get value at x
42 ldr
43 ldr
      r3, [r1] // get value at y
                      // store value of x in y
44 str r2, [r1]
                         // store value of y in x
45 str
       r3, [r0]
46
47 ldmfd
          sp!, {r0-r3}
                            pop preserved registers
          lr
                           return from subroutine
48 bx
```

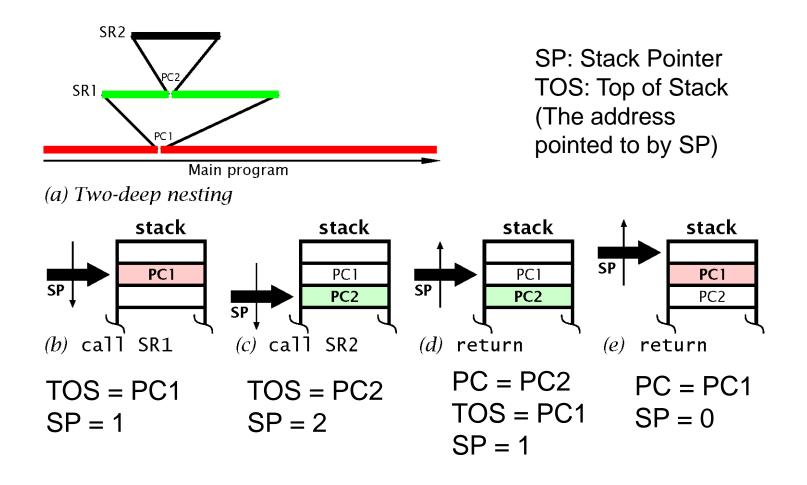
Nested subroutine



- Nested subroutine: calling a subroutine within a subroutine.
- BL call from Main saves the return address (PC1) to the link register (Ir).
- BL call from SR1 saves the return address (PC2) to the Ir, thereby overwriting PC1 → SR1 cannot return to Main.

Nested subroutine

Some microcontrollers have a dedicated stack to handle nested subroutines, but not ARM.



How does ARM handle nested subroutine calls?

- In ARM, no such stack. Need to create our own stack.
- A leaf routine doesn't call another routine (at the end of tree).
 - If you call a leaf routine with BL, the return address is saved in link register r14. A return to the calling point is made with bx lr
- If the routine is not a leaf routine, you cannot call another routine without first saving the link register.

```
; call a simple leaf routine
       BL
               XYZ
                                   ; call a routine that calls a nested routine
       BΤι
               XY71
                                   ; code (this is the leaf routine)
XYZ
                                   ; copy link register into PC and return
       bx 1r
       STMFD sp!, {r0-r4,lr}
                                   ; save working registers and link register
XYZ1
       BΤι
               XY7
                                   ; call XZY - overwrites the old link register
       LDMFD sp!, {r0-r4,pc} ; restore registers and force a return
```

- The link register (Ir) is preserved just as other registers
- At the end of the subroutine the preserved Ir is popped to pc.

Example of a nested subroutine

 The following program calculates the value of f(0x07) where

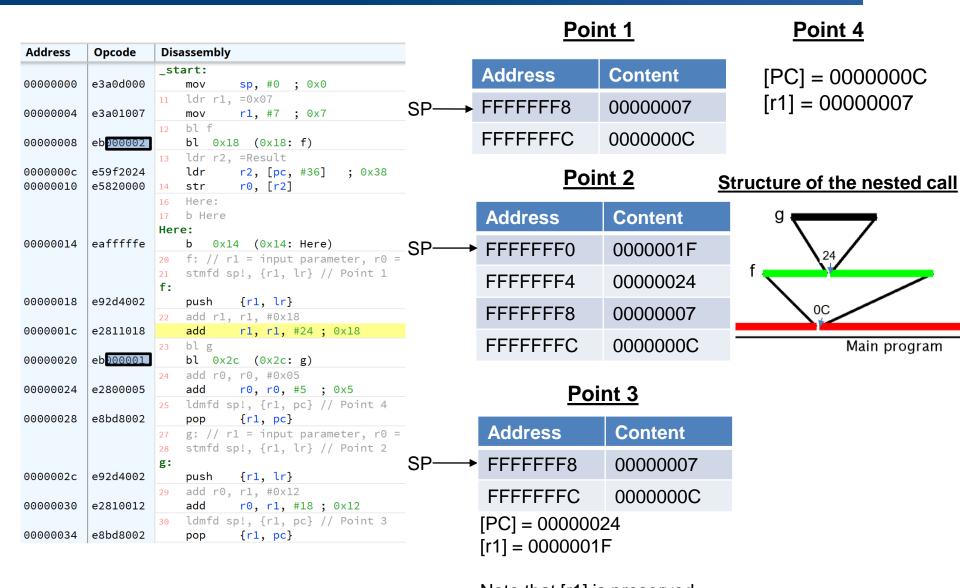
```
-f(x) = g(x+0x18) + 0x05
```

- -g(x) = x + 0x12
- Determine the status of the stack at Points 1-4.

Example of a nested subroutine

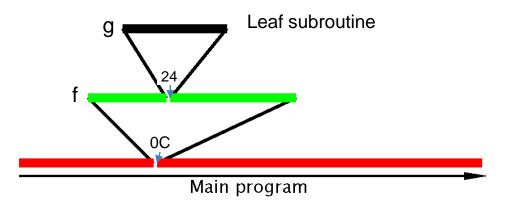
```
6 .text
 7 .global _start
 8 start:
10 ldr sp, =0
11 ldr r1, =0x07
12 bl f
13 ldr r2, =Result
14 str r0, [r2]
15
16 Here:
17 b Here
18
19
20 f: // r1 = input parameter, r0 = output value
21 stmfd sp!, {r1, lr} // Point 1
22 add r1, r1, #0x18
23 bl g
24 add r0, r0, #0x05
                                                        Could do this because q is a leaf subroutine,
25 ldmfd sp!, {r1, pc} // Point 4
                                                        but saving to stack is always safe:
26
  g: // r1 = input parameter, r0 = output value
                                                        q:
28 stmfd sp!, {r1, lr} // Point 2
                                                        stmfd sp!, {r1}
29 add r0, r1, #0x12
                                                        add r0, r1, \#0x12
30 ldmfd sp!, {r1, pc} // Point 3
                                                        ldmfd sp!, {r1}
                                                        bx lr
32 .data
33 .bss
34 Result:
35 .space 4
36
37 .end
```

Example of a nested subroutine



Note that [r1] is preserved (i.e., the bl call does not change its value)

Further notes



- bx lr can be used only in leaf subroutine (e.g., g)
 - Saving lr in stack is safe for all subroutine though.
- What happens if f is returned by bx lr?
 - Upon completion of f, program should return to address 0C
 - After f is called, [lr] = 0C
 - After g is called, [Ir] = 24, overwriting 0C
 - Thus, f cannot be returned by bx lr.