

FML: a VM implemented in SML

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Abstract

For our project we have decided to build a virtual machine(VM) in SML. The name FML is just an arbitrary three letter name and has no meaning or interpretation. The VM is a RISC machine using a Von-Neuman architecture. It has a very minimalistic instruction set. The design of FML resembles those of older 8-bit architectures such as the MOS 6510 and the Z80 microprocessors commonly in use during the late 70s and early 80s. The FML machine has no “bus width” and works exclusively with signed integersⁱ. The lack of a physical bus enables the VM to do things which an ordinary CPU could not achieve such as reading from two registers at the same time. Even though the CPU has very few operations (only 27) a very effective instruction set architecture makes these operations very flexible and there are roughly 600 valid instruction codes. It is also noteworthy that FML is asynchronous and has no predefined clock frequency.ⁱⁱ

So even though FML is a very minimalistic machine it is quite powerful. We have also built a fully featured assembler for the FML machine.

ⁱThe details of the integers used are dependent on which SML implementation is used

ⁱⁱAlthough for debugging purposes one can use both manual stepping and a fixed update speed.

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1 Our work

We have tried to work as independent as possible. This has ofcourse led to some difference in how we have commented the code, some slight differnces in naming and indentation. The way we have chosen do describe how our programs work differes a bit here depending on who wrote the code for the given part of the VM.

We have not been using any form of unit testing. But instead we have done a series of more and more complicated online tests. This due to the scale and the complexity of the various funtions and algorithms of the project.

We have continously have meetings both with just us in the group and also some with our assigned TAⁱⁱⁱ. These meetings have primairly been about informing eathother about how the VM works and how the various components of it should be implemented. We have then had an ongoing discussion on facebook regarding details and problems wich we have encountered.

We have been using Git as a source code management system. We have been using BitBucket for to host the project and troughout all of the development process the repository has been hidden and only we in the group and our TA have had access to the code.

We are using an array in the current implementation of the memory for the VM. Now i know that it is stated in the project description that the project should be written in a functional and pure way. I discussed with both Dave Clarke and Tjark Weber about using a “monad like” structure to hide the sideeffects of the array hadling and they said that it was okay. The Signature handling the memory is written in such a way that any other part of the program implementing the memmory structure will not be able to se that there are any side effects. I.e there are no semantically observable side effects of the memory structure. All of the code would look exactly the same from “the outside” regardsles of how we implemented the memory. And thus the program is pure disregarding I/O

1.1 Personal notes

In this section we will give som personal notes regarding our parts in the project.

1.1.1 Henrik Sommerland

I have been incharge of designing the VM and writing the assembler. I have also written some signatures for the others in the group to help them get started. I began work very early, as soon as we had gotten permission to start on the project. I began by writing the specifications for the VM.

Even though i have never had any formal education in how computer achi- tectures work I have learnt a lot about it on my own. When i was younger

ⁱⁱⁱOur TA has during this project been Tobias Neil

(around 17) i designed a 8-bit cpu from TTL logic chips (the 7400 series). It was during this time I learned how to build a cpu. So the design of the FML machine was for me very straight forward. I have done all of the design myself and i have not copied anything from books or any previous designs. Although my way of thinking and reasoning about cpu architectures comes primarily from my own work and the designs of older 8-bit cpus. The design of the cpu took roughly one or two days to finish and then there has been a continuous process of ironing out bugs and inconsistencies.

Then I started to write the assembler. From the start I had a pretty good idea about what I wanted the assembler to do and I had a pretty good idea how to implement it. I wrote the assembler in about three days and I then had a fully working assembler.

After I had completed the assembler I sat out to start testing it and to write the documentation for it. As I wrote the documentation and did more extensive testing of the assembler I worked out the last few bugs and such in the code.

Then I started to write signature files and such for the others in the group to get to work on. I also started to write on the major report for the entire program whilst guiding the others in the group.

In general I have found this project to be incredibly fun and interesting. This will sound very sad (which it is) but doing things like this and climbing is what makes life worth living. In the beginning I was worried that the others in the group were not going to be able to understand how it all worked and even though it's really hard to explain something complex which is crystal clear in my head to other people the others in the group have been very enthusiastic and have really pulled through this mammoth of a project.

I know i might have gotten a bit carried away here. I'm actually on medication not to do stuff like this.

2 The VM

Here is an informal description of the workings of the machine. For a more detailed description see the VM specifications in the appendix.

2.1 General

The FML machine is built up as a very simple von-neuman architecture. The machine consists of a few major components. It's noteworthy that there is no instruction decoder present. This is since all of the instruction decoding and handling takes place within the software implementation of the machine. The size of the memory the machine has available is arbitrary and is defined at the initialization of the machine. Below will follow a dataflow diagram of the machine, describing all of the components and how they can communicate.

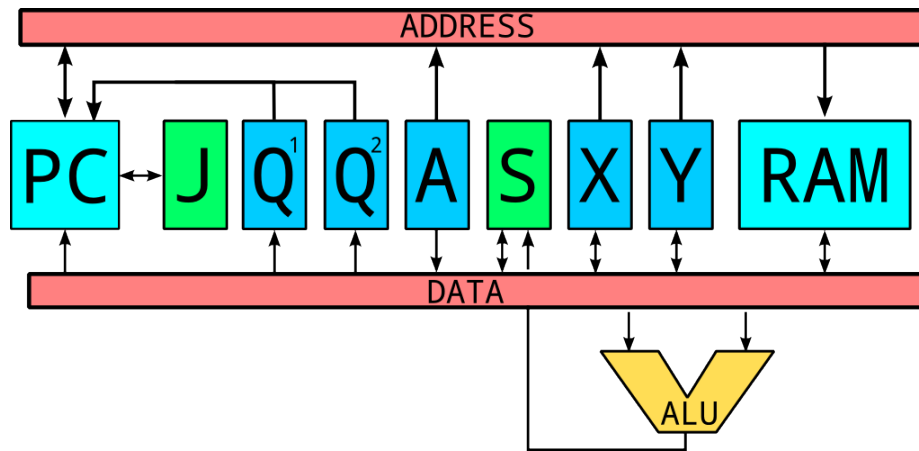


Figure 1: Dataflow diagram of the FML machine

Now this image might be a little bit confusing. One should consider the two read rectangles DATA and ADDRESS as “virtual buses”. One can interpret the picture as: X can both read and write from other components and be used for addressing. Below will follow brief descriptions of the components. More indepth descriptions are given in the appendix.

X and Y

These are the two general purpose registers wich can be read, written to and used for addressing.

S

This is the general purpose stack. It can be both read and written to. Ev-
erytime some thing gets written to the stack it gets pushed onto the stack
and everytime something is read from the stack the stack gets popped.
The stack can not be used for addressing.

A

This is only a virtual register. It is read only and can be used for address-
ing. This is only used if an instructuion uses a non-register argument^{iv}.

Q¹ and Q²

These are the two interupt registers. These are very special and can only
be written to. They will hold the addresses to wich the machine should
jump if an prepherial component makes a interupt request. More on this
later.

^{iv}A non-registry argument is a argument wich is not any of the registers, the stack, or
something from the memmory. The value of A will (if used) be at the memmory cell directly
following the one at wich the program counter is.

PC

This is the program counter. It keeps track on where in the memory the instructions are being read from. It also handles the jumping.

J

This is the jump stack. This stack is used to store the return addresses for subroutine jumps. This stack can only be manipulated by the program counter.

ALU

This is not really a ALU. The machine does not have a separate ALU component but this is just here to illustrate that the all of the components which can be read from can be used as arguments for arithmetic and logical operations. All of the results from the arithmetic and logical operations are always put on the stack.

RAM

This is the random access memory of the machine.

2.2 Instruction Set Architecture

The ISA of the VM is built in a special but simple fashion. Each instruction corresponds to a six digit integer.. Where each digit corresponds to specific information regarding different types of opcodes. The digits counting from right to left is:

First Second argument

Second First argument

Third Arithmetic operations

Fourth Logic operations

Fifth Jump operations

Sixth Special

This system of encoding information into each digit of the instruction makes the implementation of the instruction controller and the assembler much easier. It allows for all the operation types to be grouped into numerical ranges and it gives a lot of flexibility. Note that some of the instructions may be invalid and some might be nonsensical but the instruction controller crashes if a invalid instruction is encountered. The assembler is written in such a way that it can only generate valid instructions. So an example would be: 000401. Where the 4 tells us that it we should perform a modulo operation, the 0 says that the second argument is the **X**register and the last 1 says that the first argument is the **Y**register. Notice that the order of the last two digits is reversed in respect to the order of the arguments in the operation. This is due to a design choice made

early in the design phase. It makes the instructions code a bit more confusing to read but it makes the assembly code become far more intuitive.

For a more detailed description of the ISA see the VM specifications in the appendix.

3 Utilities

For this program we have written some utility files. The `IO.sml` and the `StringUtils.sml` files just contains general helper functions and thus play little importance in the larger scheme of things. These two files will not be described here.

We will though give a shorter descriptions of the `OpcodeResolve.sml` file. This is an important file since it works ^v as a interface for both the assembler and the VM. If both the assembler and the VM adheres to this structure the assembler will not generate any instructions not accepted by the VM. In general the `ResolveOpcode` structure just contains a lot of lookup tables in one can find important information regarding the different instructions and opcodes, such as which number corresponds to what type of operation, which arguments are allowed for each operations and so forth. Since this structure was not properly used in the VM implementation there are still some things left to write for it, such as a series of reverse lookup functions and checking for invalid opcodes.

4 Assembler

4.1 General

The assembler wich we have written for the FMI machine is a very basic yet powerfull assembler. The assembler doesnt do much more than catch invalid opcodes and arguments. It also enables the use of both label pointers and value pointers. The main tasks of the assembler is the instruction code generation and address resolution. The syntax of the assembler is inspired by the syntax for the MOS 6510 assembly language and primarily the syntax of the Turbo Assembler for the Commodore 64. The assembler is now fully functional and there we dont see any need to augment it or redesigning any specs of it. The assembler should only generate valid instructions but due to a major design error in the implementation of the VM this is not neccesarily true any more. Below a short example of a assembly program will follow:

```
% This a simple program wich fills a part
% of the memmory with 100 consecutive integers
% trough rellative addressing.
#start
MOV 0 x
```

^vIt was supposed to work like this but due to an implemtation fault in the VM it does not.

```

@start_address
MOV start_address y
#loop
MOV x $y
INC x
INC y
BLE x 100
JMP loop
HLT

```

A line starting with a # declares a label. The address of the label will correspond to where in the code the label gets declared. A line starting with a @ declares a value. The address of the label will be assigned independent of where in the code it appears. For a more indepth description of how the assembly language see the Assembler part of the description.

4.1.1 Implementation

4.1.1.1 General The assembler works in a fairly straight forward way. The first step in the process of assembling is the lexiographical analysis in wich the lines in the text file gets tokenized. In this tage an “intermediate structure”^{vi} gets constructed. This is an object wich contains all of the labels, values and alist of the tokenized lines. The list of the tokens contains tupels of (label,offsett,token) wherer the lable is the last initialized label and the offset is how many addresses away from that line the current token is. Allof the labels and values will not be assigned an adress in this phase. It is in theis phase where the opcodes and their arguments gets converted in to there corresponding numerical instruction code. It is also during this phase in wich the syntax gets checked. If a syntax error is encountered the assembler will stop emideatly. When the lexiographical analysis has been completed a check for duplicate pointer declaration is performed.

The next phase in the assembly is the address resolution phase. This is done in two phases, in the first one the labels gets resolved and in the second the values gets resolved. It begins by first resolving the labels. This is done by first giving the assembler a *base address* wich is the adress of the first label. As of now the first non comment line in the input file has to be a label since every line has to have a label assigned to it. Then the address resolution function continues down the intermediate sturcture and remebering wich line it is at and what its last read label was. When it runns into a new label token it will sett the new label to its current address and then continue on untill it has gone trough the entire intermediate structure. After the labels have been resolved the assembler starts to resolve the values. This is done in a very straightforward way. The assembler just looks at the last address of the last entry in the output of the frisst pass and looks at the last address, adds one to it and the just places

^{vi}The use of the word structure here is a bit ambigious since it actually is a structure in sml. But in this text it will reffere to an abstract structure of data.

the all the values in after that address in the same order as they appeared in the file. After all the adress has been resolved the assembler runns trough the list of tokens and replaces every pointer token with its correct adress.

After this is completed the assembler finalizes the code by converting everything into a list of integers wich then gets outputed to a file. And that children is how assembly code gets turned in to machine code.

the assembler runns in linear time with respect to the number of lines in the code. This is under the assumption that the number of lines are far greater than the number of values and labels in the code. This is a safe assumption for any resonably written code.

4.1.1.2 Flow chart Below a flow chart will folow for how the assembler assembler the assembles the assembly code.

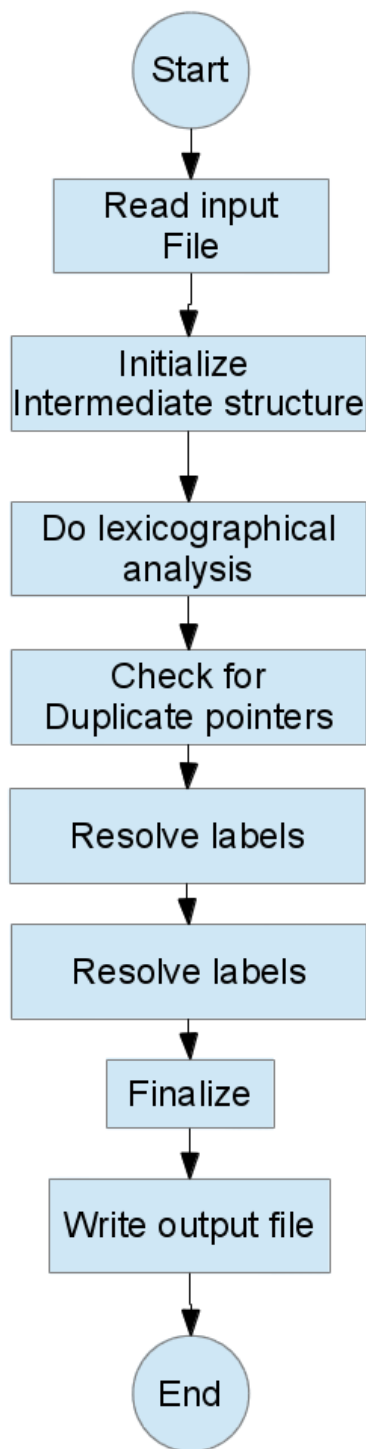


Figure 2: Dataflow diagram of the assembler

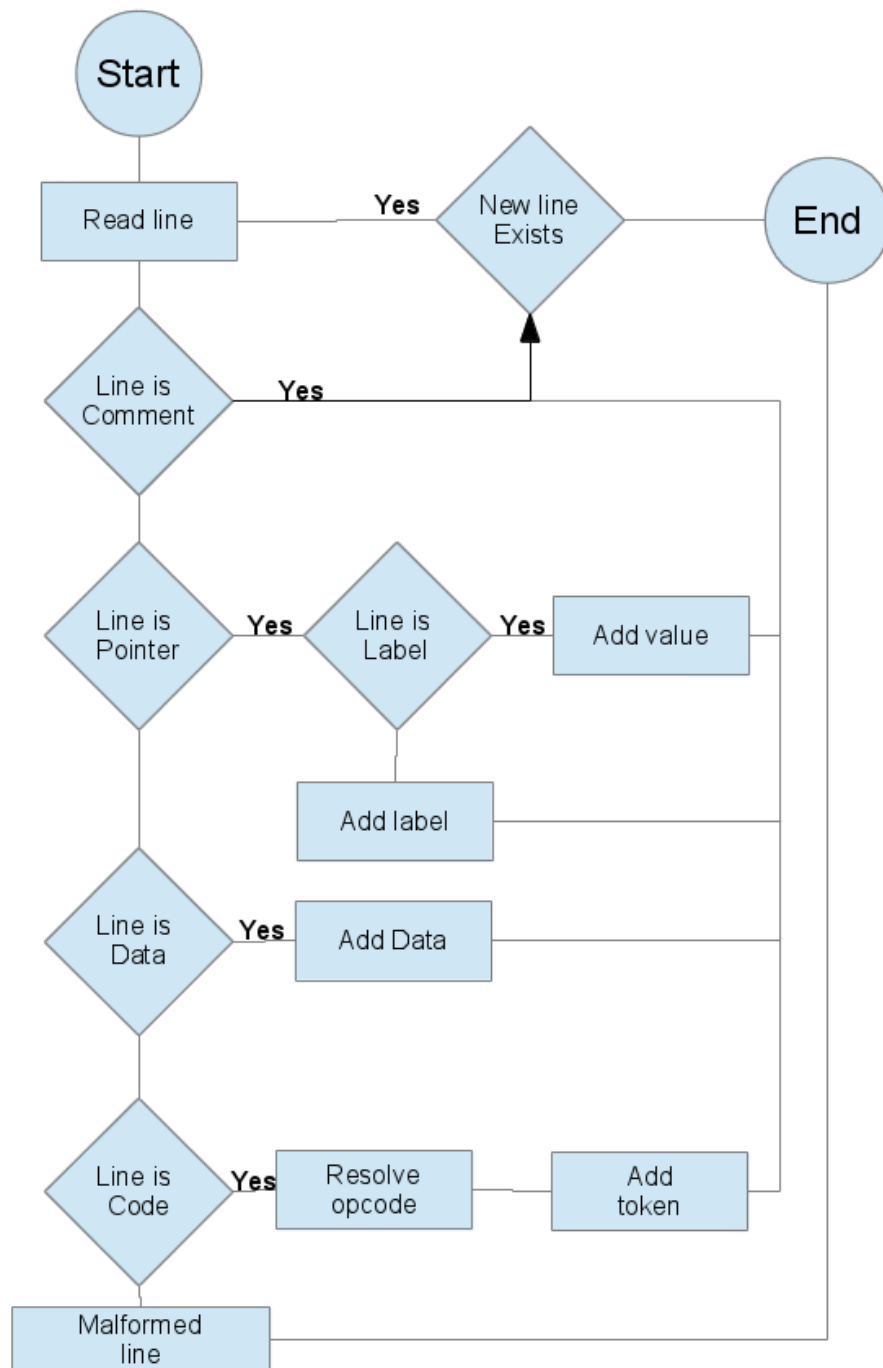


Figure 3: Dataflow diagram of the tokenization phase

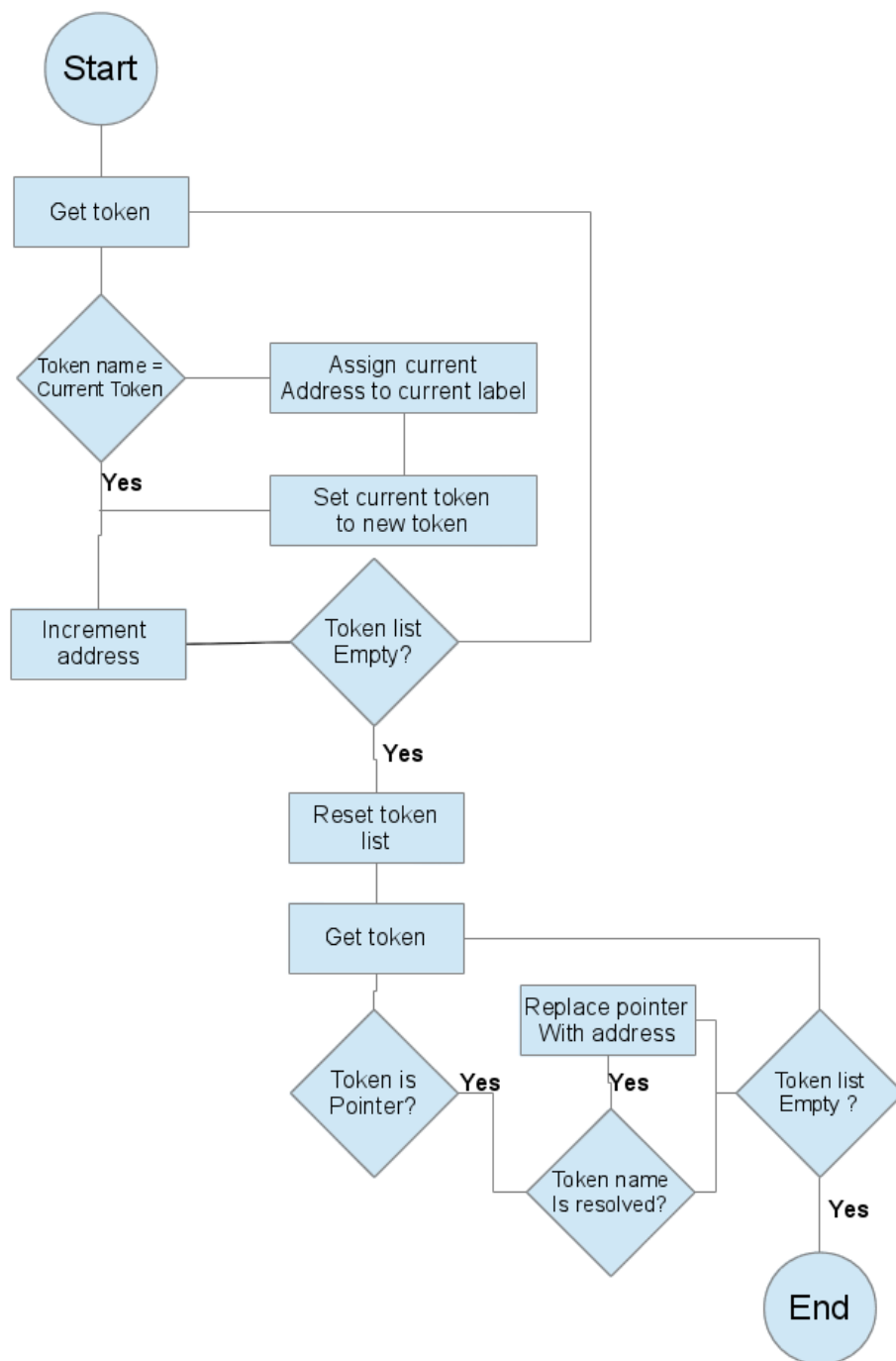


Figure 4: Dataflow diagram of the label address resolution

The i have not included a flowchart for the address resolution of the values or the finalization part since these are trivial.

4.1.1.3 Usage To use the assembler properly one has to know how to write assembly code and understand the detailed workings of the machine. We recomend studying both the VM spcifications and the assembler documentation in the appendix before you start to write programs for the machine.

The working of the assembler program is very straight forward. just frite your assembly code in a file called `in.asm` and run the `Assembler.sml` file in the sml interperter of your choosing and if there are no errors encountered during the assembling of the program the assembeled program will be outputted to a file named `out.fml`.

5 Appendix

5.1 VM specifications

5.1.1 Structure

The VM consists of 9 components. Two general purpouse registers(**X** , **Y**), one general purpose stack (**S**), One virtual read only register (**A**), One jump stack **J**, Two IRQ adress registers (**Q₁** , **Q₂**), One “ALU”, One program counter (**PC**) and of course a random acces memory.

5.1.1.1 The general purpose registers

The two general purpose registers **X** and **Y** are both capable of being used for all arithmetic operations and their values can also be used as addresses. These two registers can be incremented and decremented.

5.1.1.2 The stack

The stack **S** is a standard LIFO stack of unlimited size. The stack can not be used for adresssing. One can not read the top of the stack without popping it. If one tries to get a value from an empty stack an exception will be raised and the VM must halt.

5.1.1.3 The Argument Register

Now this is just a virtual read only register. The argument **A** is only accesible if the instruction being executed takes a predefined argument. The argument will be the value of the memory location after the location at which the **PC** is currently pointing. No well formed instruction should refere to **A** unless it is supposed to.

5.1.1.4 The Jump Stack

The jump stack **J** is not accesible by anything besides the **PC**. The program counter is of infinite size. The jump stack is responsible for keeping track of

the return address when a subroutine is performed. Every time someone issues a subroutine jump the current address will be pushed onto the stack. When a return jump is issued **J** gets popped and its value gets assigned to the **PC**. The top entry on the stack can not be accessed without popping the stack. If someone tries to execute a return jump if the jump stack is empty a exception shall be raised and the VM must crash.

5.1.1.5 The IRQ registers

The IRQ registers **Q₁** and **Q₂** are two pointers to the memory. These are two write only registers and can only be read by the **PC**. The IRQ registers can be assigned values like all the other registers. If a interrupt is issued the **PC** will be assigned to the value of the corresponding IRQ register and the current value of the **PC** will be pushed onto **J**.

5.1.1.6 RAM

The RAM in this machine works pretty much like any other random access memory. If any instruction tries to wrtie or read from addresses lying outside of the size of the ram the VM should crash.

5.1.2 ISA

Every opcode is represented by a integer where each digit provides information about what the VM is to do in that step. The digits are from right to left as follows.

First Read location

Second Write location

Third Arithmetic operations

Fourth Logic operations

Fifth Jump operations

Sixth Special

Below is a table describing what each digit value corresponds to:

Value	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Read	X	Y	S	M_X	M_Y	M_A	A			
Write	X	Y	S	M_X	M_Y	M_A	Q₁	Q₂	A	
Arit		INC	DEC	ADD	SUB	MUL	DIV	MOD		
Logic		EQL	GRT	LES	BRL	BRR	AND	ORR	XOR	NOT
Jump		JMP	BEQ	BLE	BGR	JSR	RET			
Special		H	Se	POP						

Here $\mathbf{M_X}$, $\mathbf{M_Y}$ and $\mathbf{M_A}$ is to be read as address of \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{A} . All arithmetic and logic operations operations writes their output to the stack.

Here some examples follows:

000042 \rightarrow Move value at \mathbf{S} to memory cell at the address stored in \mathbf{Y} .

000401 \rightarrow Get \mathbf{X} mod \mathbf{Y} and write result to \mathbf{S}

020046 \rightarrow Skip next instruction if $\mathbf{M_Y}$ is equal to \mathbf{A}

First i would like to mention that 000000 will be the NOP operation since it would translate to just moving **X** to **X** . We can now group the instructions in to numerical ranges:

000000	NOP
000001-000076	Move operations
000100-000776	Arithmetic operations
001000-009076	Logic operations
010000-070000	Jump operations
100000	Special

As is apparent from this list many values would yield invalid or nonsense operations. The instruction decoder must take this into consideration.

Below will follow specifications for all the instruction types.

5.1.3 Instruction types

Every instruction will take exactly one cycle. Almost every instruction needs only one memory cell and should increment the **PC** by one. Any operation using a argument i.e **A** will occupy two memory cells and increment the **PC** by two.

Using jump operations may affect the **PC** in other ways. No operation except moves to the IRQ registers (**Q₁** and **Q₂**) are allowed. If any other operation where to try to access the IRQ registers the opcode is invalid and the VM should crash.

5.1.3.1 Move operations

The only invalid move operations are those where the second digit is a 8 since one can not write to **A**. Although some are nonsensical such as 000011 since it would move **Y** to **Y** .

5.1.3.2 Arithmetic operations

The increment(++) and decrement(--) operations only take one write argument and the read argument should be ignored. Incrementing or decrementing a register or memory cell updates the value stored in that registry directly and does not affect any thing else.

The other arithmetic operations takes the write digit as the first argument to the operation and the write operation will be the second argument. The result of the operation is always stored on the stack.

If one tries division by zero a exception should be thrown and the VM shall crash.

5.1.3.3 Logic operations

The logic operations work in the same way as the arithmetic operations. The comparison operations will return 0 if the result is false and 1 otherwise. Any logic operation where the 3:d digit is non zero is an illegal instruction and a exception should be thrown and the VM shall crash.

5.1.3.4 Jump operations

The standard address jump (J) will jump the **PC** to the address given by its read digit.

The conditional breaks takes the write digit as its first argument and the read digit as its second argument. If the test fails the **PC** will skip the next instruction. This will require some tricks to implement. The VM must, at runtime, identify whether or not the following instruction takes up one or two memory cells.

A JSR (subroutine jump) will take an argument in **A** and move the **PC** there and it will also put its current value on **J**.

A return jump will jump to the address at the top of **J** plus one or two depending on whether a non register argument is used.^{vii} and then pop the stack. If the jump where to be empty the VM should crash and an exception should be raised.

5.1.3.5 Special

The Halt operation which just stops the VM and raises an exception.

And the SEM or Stack empty operation which returns 1 if the stack is empty and 0 else. The POP just pops the stack. I.e removing the top object.

^{vii}If the return jump where to return to the value at the top of the stack it where to return to the address where the subroutine jump is and thus get stuck in a loop

5.1.4 Opcodes

Below a short summary of all the available opcodes will follow.

Mnemonic	Description	X	Y	S	A	M _A	M _X	M _Y	Args
NOP	No Operation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0
MOV	Move operations	b	b	b	r	b	b	b	1
INC	Increment	b	b	x	x	x	x	x	1
DEC	Decrement	b	b	x	x	x	x	x	1
ADD	Add	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
SUB	Subtract	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
MUL	Multiply	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
DIV	Division	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
MOD	Modulus	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
EQL	Equal	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
LES	Less	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
GRT	Greater	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
BRL	Rotate L	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	1
BRR	Rotate R	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	1
AND	And	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
ORR	Or	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
XOR	Xor	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
NOT	Not	r	r	b	r	r	r	r	2
JMP	Jump	r	r	x	r	r	r	r	1
BEQ	Jump Equal	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	2
BLE	Jump Less	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	2
BGR	Jump Greater	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	2
JSR	Subroutine Jump	r	r	x	r	r	r	r	1
RET	Return Jump	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0
HLT	HALT	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0
SEM	Stack Empty	x	x	w	x	x	x	x	0
POP	Pop Stack	x	x	w	x	x	x	x	0

5.2 Assembler usage guide

In this part of the appendix a brief explanation of how the assembly language works is given here.

5.2.1 Syntax

The syntax for the assembly code is pretty straight forward. Each declaration is written on a single line. There are a few reserved identifiers:

Identifier	Name	Description
%<text>	Comment	Will be ignored by the assembler
#<name>	Label	Declares a label called <name>
@<name>	Value	Declares a value called <name>
:<data>	Raw input	Returns <data> as is
\$<a>	Address	Dereferences a
x	x	The X register
y	y	The Y register
s	s	The stack S
q1	IRQ1	The Q₁ register
q2	IRQ2	The Q₂ register

The names given to *labels* and *values* can contain any characters except for whitespace ones.

Operations are declared in a straightforward approach as:

<opcode> <arg1> <arg2>

Wich arguments are allowed are dependent upon the opcode.

Any non whitespace character can be used for names of labels and values.

Each file has to start with a label.

5.2.2 Usage

5.2.2.1 General

One noteworthy thing to point out is the limitations on the arguments. Due to limitations in the VM only one “none registry” argument can be used for any operation. A “non registry” argument is one wich is either a number or a a pointer. Dereferencing a pointer is a registry operations so they are valid. Below follows some examples:

```
#label
@value
MOV label value      This is not accepted
MOV $label $value    This is perfectly fine
MOV 10 value         This is invalid
MOV 10 $value        But this is
ADD 1 10             This is invalid
ADD $1 $10           This is valid
ADD 1 $1             So is this
```

5.2.2.2 Registers

The usage of the registers is pretty straight forward. One has to remeber that **q1** and **q2** are write only registers and that **s** cant be used for addressing so **\$s** is not allowed and will generate a **syntax** error. It is also good to keep in mind that all operations reading from the stack will consume what is on top of the stack.

5.2.2.3 Pointers

Using pointers is fairly straight forward. Although one has to keep in mind how the addresses are resolved. All pointers will be resolved after the tokenization of the code. First the *labels* will be resolved and then the *values*. This means that the first *value* will lie after the last line of code. Since the address of a *label* depends on where in the code their addresses are easy to reason about. However for *values* things are bit different. Since values will be given addresses which are “independent” of where in the code they appear it is hard to reason about the address of a *value*. Although the *value* pointers are resolved in order the first *value* declared will lie immediately after the last line of code and the last *value* declared will lie “at the end” of the memory used by the program. This can be exploited to use relative addressing. Although great care has to be taken.

It's important to remember that all pointers are referred to throughout the entire program therefore it's not allowed to define two pointers with the same name. If this were to be allowed it would generate unpredictable behaviour so instead the assembler will return an **assembler** error.

labels and *values* are interchangeable. Since opcodes take pointers as arguments and has no idea whether or not they are *labels* or *values*. From this the need for caution arises. Since one can use *value* pointers as arguments to jump operation like this:

```
@bad_idea
ADD x y
MOV s x
MUL x y
JMP bad_idea
```

Since it is not known what where **bad_idea** points jumping to it is suicidal.

Since pointers are just numbers under the hood one needs to take into account whether or not one uses them for their address or for their *values*. Here are some examples

```
@pointer
% This stores x in pointer
MOV x value
% This stores x in the address which is
% stored at pointer
MOV x $value
% This adds one to the value stored at
% pointer
ADD $pointer 1
% This adds one to the address of pointer
ADD pointer 1
```

Pointers are immutable and once they have been declared they can not be changed. One has to do some tricking to achieve relative addressing using *labels* or *values*.

5.2.2.4 Labels

Labels are declared using the `#` identifier. *Labels* are resolved first and their addresses correspond to location in the code where they are written. For example:

```
MOV x y
#loop
INC x
MOV x s
JMP loop
```

In this code `loop` points to the address where `INC x` is stored. In the tokenization of the assembly code the lines where a pointer is defined will be ignored and the address where the next instruction or raw entry occurs. This can lead to that poorly written code becomes ambiguous. For example:

```
MOV x y
#loop
#silly
INC y
```

Here `loop` and `silly` will both point to the same address which is `silly`.

Because tokenization of the code happens before the address resolving a *label* will be “in scope” throughout the entire code. So this code is perfectly valid:

```
MOV x y
JMP ahead
INC x
ADD x y
#ahead
ADD s x
```

The `JMP ahead` will jump to `ADD s x` even though the `ahead` label is defined after the jump. This was not a conscious design choice but it is actually quite useful since one can define subroutines anywhere in the code which can be accessed from anywhere in the code.

One possible pitfall arises due to the fact that the assembler does not know the difference between a *label* and a *value* after their addresses have been resolved. So this code is valid assembly code:

```
#loop
ADD s x
MOV s $loop
JMP loop
```

Although what this will do is that it will change what is at the address of `loop`. But there `ADD s x` lies! This is what is known as self-modifying code and it's the spawn of Satan and should be avoided like one avoids Miami Beach during

spring break. Although in some cases the interchangeability of *value* and *label* can be very useful if one wants to have “arrays” in one’s code. This is easily achieved like this:

```
#array
:0
:1
:2
:3
```

Here `array` can be used as a pointer to the array. One can then manipulate the array through using relative addressing of `array` like this:

```
ADD 2 array
MOV s y
MOV 5 $y
#array
:0
:1
:2
:3
```

This code would change the 2 into a 5. But great care needs to be taken since one could easily end up outside of the “array” and corrupt the program.

5.2.2.5 Values

Values are far more straightforward than *label*. One only has to take into account that what address a *value* is given is somewhat independent of where in the code it gets defined.

5.2.2.6 Jumping

Doing ordinary jumps using the `JMP` operation is very straightforward. The machine will just jump to the address given to the `JMP` operator.

But for conditional branching things become a little bit less obvious. If the test given to a conditional test fails the machine will skip the next instruction. Let’s illustrate this with a few examples:

```
MOV 10 x
BLE x 2
JMP this_does_not_happen
BGR x 2
JMP this_happens
```

Subroutine jumps work in a very straightforward fashion. You just make a subroutine call using `JSR <address>` and then you use the `RET` operations to return to the address immediately after the one from which the jump was issued. One has to be careful not to execute a `RET` jump unless one has actually made a subroutine jump. The VM will crash if a return jump is issued and the jump stack is empty.

5.2.2.7 Arithmetic and logic operations

The arithmetic and logic operations are quite straight forward. The arguments given to the operations appear as they would in the normal case. So `ADD x y` is $x+y$ and `MOD x y` is $x \bmod y$. All of these operations (except for `INC` and `DEC`) store their result on the stack.

5.3 Componets.sml description

Due to misscommunication a radically different description of how the `Componets.sml` file works was written and have been included here as an appendix.

5.3.1 Introduction

The following structures and signatures are present in `Components.sml` are the `Ram`, `Stack`, `Register` and `ProgramCounter`.

5.3.2 The Ram structure

5.3.2.1 Synopsis

signature `RAM`
structure `Ram` :>`RAM`

The `Ram` structure provides a base of the functions of a ram memory. This structure acts as something akin to a “monad”. It hides all of the sideeffects sued for the array handling.

5.3.2.2 INTERFACE

```
type memory = int array
val initialize : int → memory
val getSize : (memory) → int
val write : (memory * int * int) → memory
val read : (memory * int) → int
val load : (memory * int list) → memory
val writeChunk : (memory * int * (int array)) → memory
val readChunk : (memory * int * int) → int array
val dump : memory → string
```

5.3.2.3 Description

```
val initialize : int → memory
Initialize the ram to a memory with the size of int, when int  $\neq 0$ 
val getSize : (memory) → int
Gets the size of the memory
val write : (memory * int * int) → memory
write takes a memory and writes a new value of int at the pointer of the first
int and returns the memory
val read : (memory * int) → memory
```

read takes a memory and reads the value of the place of int
 val load: (memory * int list) → memory
 load takes a list of values and loads them to the memory
 val writeChunk: (memory* int *(int array)) → memory
 writeChuck takes a memory and a start pointer and adds a chunk to the memory
 val readChunk: (memory * int *int) → int array
 readChunk takes a memory and reads a chunk form first int to the last int and gives the values as an int array
 val dump: memory → string
 dump takes a memory and returns the value as strings

5.3.3 The Stack structure

5.3.3.1 Synopsis

signature STACK

structure Stack :>STACK

The Stack structure provides a base for the stack part of the Pc structure.

5.3.3.2 INTERFACE

datatype stack = Stack of (int list)

val empty : stack

val push : stack * int → stack

val pop : stack → stack

val top : stack → int

val isEmpty : stack → bool

val dumpStack : stack → string

5.3.3.3 Description

val empty : stack

is a definition of a empty Stack

val push : stack * int → stack

takes a stack and adds the value of int to the stack.

val pop : stack → stack

takes a Stack and pops the first element of the stack.

val top : stack → int

takes the stack and returns the first element of the stack

val isEmpty : stack → bool

takes a stack and checks if it is empty if it is then true else false.

val dumpStack : stack → string

takes a stack, then pops the stack until its empty and returns all values as string

5.3.4 The Register structure

5.3.4.1 Synopsis

signature REGISTER

structure Register :>REGISTER

The Register structure provides a base structure of the different register that is contained in the Pc as well the Virtual machine. The vm has two different registers.

5.3.4.2 INTERFACE

```
datatype reg = Reg of int
val setData : (reg * int) → reg
val getData : reg → int
val increment : reg → reg
val decrement : reg → reg
val dumpRegister : reg → string
```

5.3.4.3 Description

```
val setData : (reg * int) → reg
Setups a new Register
val getData : reg → int
Gets the value of the reg as an int
val increment : reg → reg
Takes a reg and increment it with one.
val decrement : reg → reg
Takes a reg and decrements it with one.
val dumpRegister : reg → string
Takes the register and adds all elements to a string.
```

5.3.5 The Program Counter structure

5.3.5.1 Synopsis

```
signature PROGRAM_COUNTER
structure ProgramCounter :>PROGRAM_COUNTER
```

The ProgramCounter structure controls the execution flow of the VM

5.3.5.2 INTERFACE

```
datatype pc = Pc of (int * Stack.stack * Register.reg * Register.reg)
val incrementPointer : (pc * int) → pc
val jump : (pc * int) → pc
val subroutineJump : (pc * int) → pc
val return : pc → pc
val interrupt : (pc * int) → pc
```

val dumpPc : pc → string

5.3.5.3 Description

val incrementPointer : (pc * int) → pc

Takes a Pc and adds a int ≥ 0

val jump : (pc * int) → pc

Takes a Pc and jumps the pc counter to the value of int ≥ 0

val subroutineJump : (pc * int) → pc

Takes a Pc and preforms SubroutineJump with the value of int ≥ 0 and adds the value of the pointer + 1 to the stack

val return : pc → pc

Takes a pc and gets the value from the pointer and pops the stack with the value

val interrupt : (pc * int) → pc

if the value of a is 1 or 2, then the value of i is added to s

val dumpPc : pc → string

Takes a pc and dumps the content of the pc as a string (the Pc contained a pointer, Stack, and tow registers)