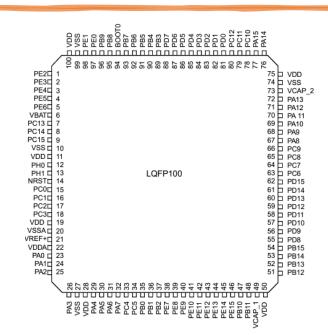


Shadi Daana

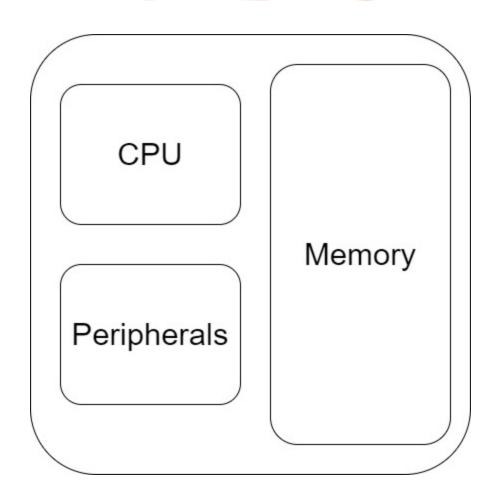
Microcontroller

- A microcontroller can be considered as a computer in a single chip
- Typically used in embedded systems to interface with sensors and actuators
- The core elements of a microcontroller are:
 - The processor (CPU)
 - Memory
 - I/O peripherals
 - System bus
- The system bus is the connective wire that links all components of the microcontroller together.
- Embedded software is programmed on a separate computer and then compiled into a list of instructions.
- These instructions then copied into the microcontroller memory
- This is often known as firmware
- The microcontroller then executes these instructions





Microcontroller Components



The processor (CPU)

- A processor can be thought of as the brain of the device.
- It processes and responds to various instructions that direct the microcontroller's function.
- This involves performing basic arithmetic, logic and I/O operations.
- It also performs data transfer operations, which communicate commands to other components in the larger embedded system

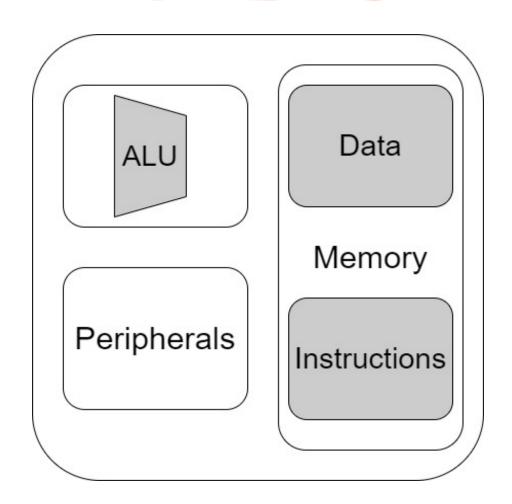
I/O Peripherals

- The input and output devices are the interface for the processor to the outside world.
- The input ports receive information and send it to the processor in the form of binary data.
- The processor receives that data and sends the necessary instructions to output devices that execute tasks external to the microcontroller.

Memory

- A microcontroller's memory is used to store the data that the processor receives and uses
 to respond to instructions that it's been programmed to carry out.
- A microcontroller has two main memory types:
 - Program memory:
 - stores long-term information about the instructions that the CPU carries out.
 - Program memory is non-volatile memory, meaning it holds information over time without needing a power source.
 - Data memory:
 - required for temporary data storage while the instructions are being executed.
 - Data memory is volatile, meaning the data it holds is temporary and is only maintained if the device is connected to a power source

Microcontroller Components



Supporting Elements

- Other supporting elements of a microcontroller include:
 - Analog to Digital Converter (ADC):
 - An ADC is a circuit that converts analog signals to digital signals.
 - It allows the processor at the center of the microcontroller to interface with external analog devices, such as sensors.
 - Digital to Analog Converter (<u>DAC</u>):
 - A DAC performs the inverse function of an ADC and allows the processor at the center of the microcontroller to communicate its outgoing signals to external analog components.
 - Serial port:
 - The serial port is one example of an I/O port that allows the microcontroller to connect to external components.
 - It has a similar function to a USB or a parallel port but differs in the way it exchanges bits.

- ARM® is a family of RISC-based microprocessors and microcontrollers designed by ARM Holdings.
- The company doesn't make processors but instead designs microprocessor and multicore architectures and licenses them to manufacturers
- ARM® designs the core and bus system
- For example, STMicroelectronics purchases a license (IP) to use the design in their own microcontrollers (MCUs)
- STMicroelectronics then adds its own peripherals, memories, and power blocks to create a functional MCU
- Companies can also purchase designs for peripherals and memory, or they can design them by themself

ARM® Processor Vs Intel Processor

- There are many differences between Intel and ARM, but the main difference is the instruction set.
 - Intel is a CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computing) processor that has a larger and more feature-rich instruction set and allows many complex instructions to access memory.
 - It therefore has more operations, addressing modes, but fewer registers than ARM. CISC processors are mainly used in normal PCs, workstations, and servers.
 - ARM is a RISC (Reduced instruction set Computing) processor and therefore has a simplified instruction set (100 instructions or less) and more general-purpose registers than CISC.
 - Unlike Intel, ARM uses instructions that operate only on registers and uses a Load/Store memory model for memory access, which means that only Load/Store instructions can access memory.

ARM® Processor Vs Intel Processor

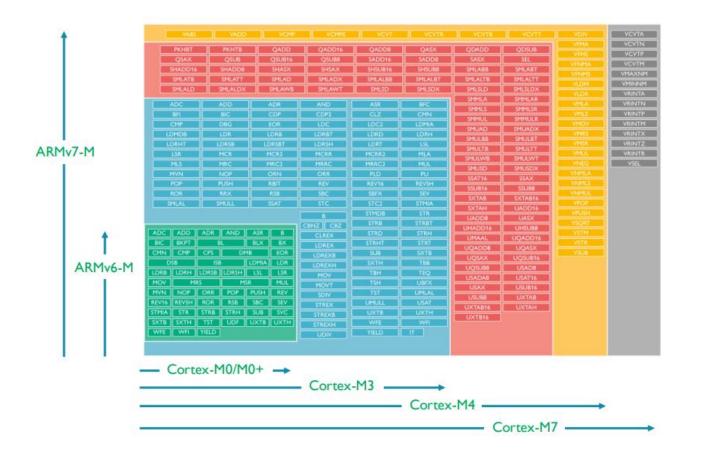
- More differences between ARM and x86 are:
 - In ARM, most instructions can be used for conditional execution.
 - The Intel x86 and x86-64 series of processors use the little-endian format
 - The ARM architecture was a little-endian before version 3. Since then ARM processors have become BI-endian and feature a setting that allows for switchable endianness.
- There are not only differences between Intel and ARM, but also between different ARM versions themselves. (Armv6, Armv7, and Armv8)

- ARM licenses a number of specialized microprocessors and related technologies, but the bulk of their product line is the Cortex family of microprocessor architectures.
- There are three Cortex architectures, conveniently labeled with the initials A, R, and M.
 - **Cortex-M:** Processors in these profiles are used for the development of microcontroller-based based embedded systems. The Cortex-M family consists of Cortex-M0, Cortex-M0+, Cortex-M1, Cortex-M3, Cortex-M4 and Cortex-M7.
 - Cortex-A: Processors in this profile are used in high-performance application devices like mobile/cellular phones.
 - Cortex-R: The main market of processors of this profile is in the real-time application, where less response time is the main target

- There are currently four popular versions of the Cortex-M series:
 - Cortex-M0: Designed for 8- and 16-bit applications, this model emphasizes low cost, ultra-low power, and simplicity. It is optimized for small silicon die size (starting from 12k gates) and use in the lowest cost chips.
 - Cortex-M0+: An enhanced version of the M0 that is more energy efficient.
 - Cortex-M3: Designed for 16- and 32-bit applications, this model emphasizes performance and energy efficiency. It also has comprehensive debug and trace features to enable software developers to develop their applications quickly.
 - **Cortex-M4**: This model provides all the features of the Cortex-M3, with additional instructions to support digital signal processing tasks.

- Under the M-Profile there are several versions of the ARM ISA
 - ARMV6-M
 - ARMV7-M
 - ARMV8-M
- A processor definition includes a version of the instruction set architecture
- In this course, we will focus on the microcontrollers built around the Cortex M4 core.
- Cortex M4 uses ARMV7-M ISA
- All Cortex-M processors support an instruction set called **Thumb**
- Thumb-2 is an expansion of Thumb
- Cortex-M processors support different subset of the instructions available in the Thumb ISA

Processor	ISA
Cortex-M/M0	ARMv6-M
Cortex-M3	ARMv7-M
Cortex-M4	ARMv7E-M
Cortex-M7	ARMv7E-M
Cortex-M23	ARMv8-M



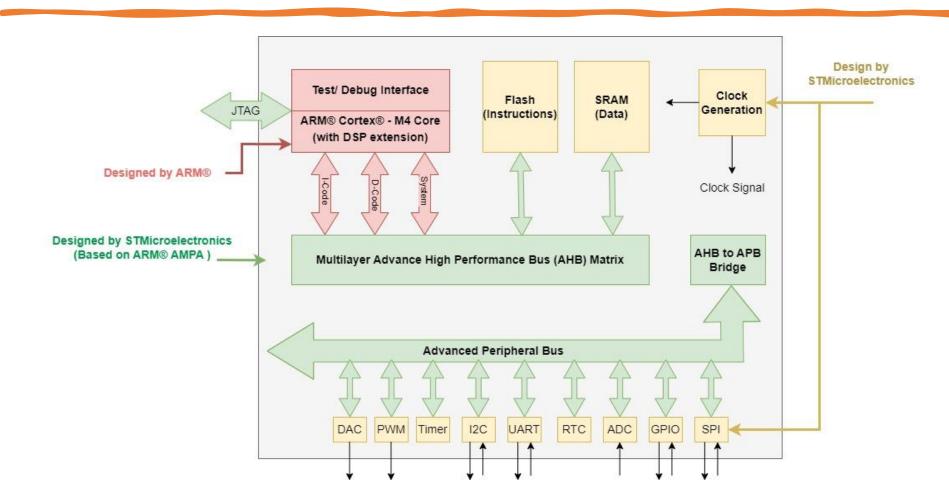
Floating Point

DSP (SIMD, fast MAC)

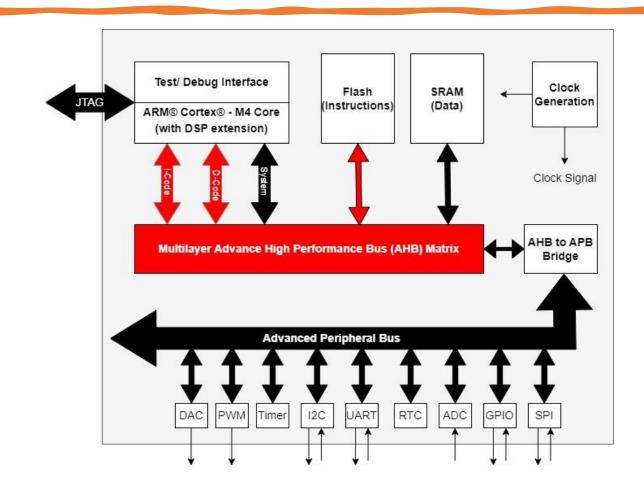
Advanced data processing bit field manipulations

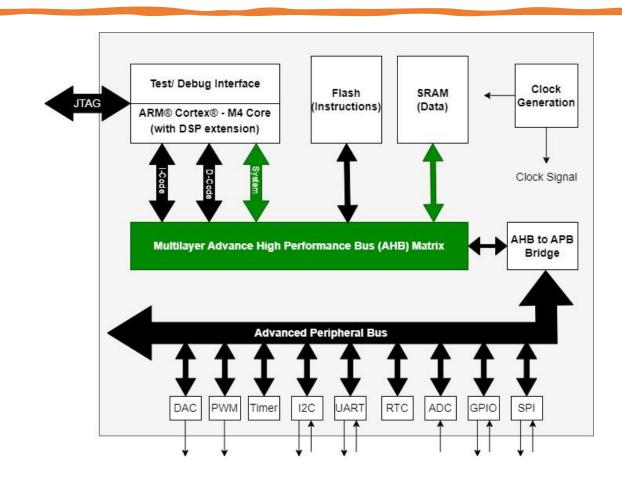
General data processing I/O control tasks

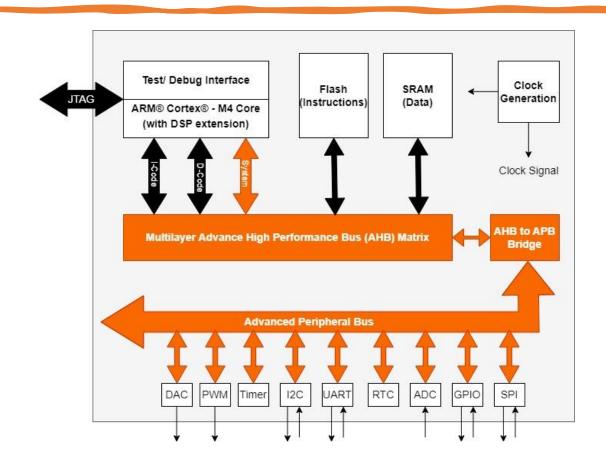
Microcontroller Architecture base ARM® Cortex®



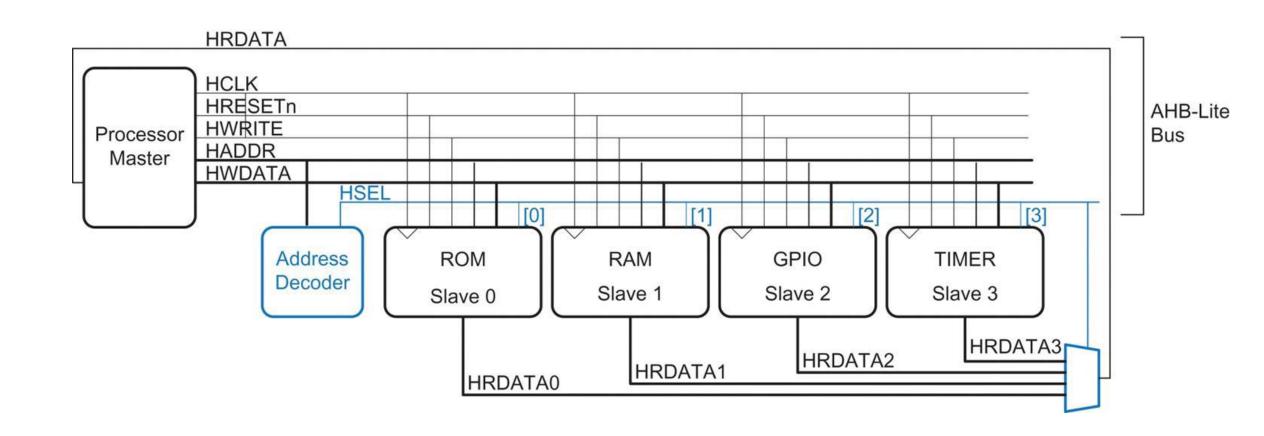
- Microcontrollers are typically Harvard machines
- In ARM Cortex M4 processor, instructions are stored in Flash memory
- This is connected to the core using I-Code and D-Code buses
- Data is stored in SRAM
- This is connected to the core using the **System** bus **(S-bus)**
- The system bus is also used to connect the core to peripheral



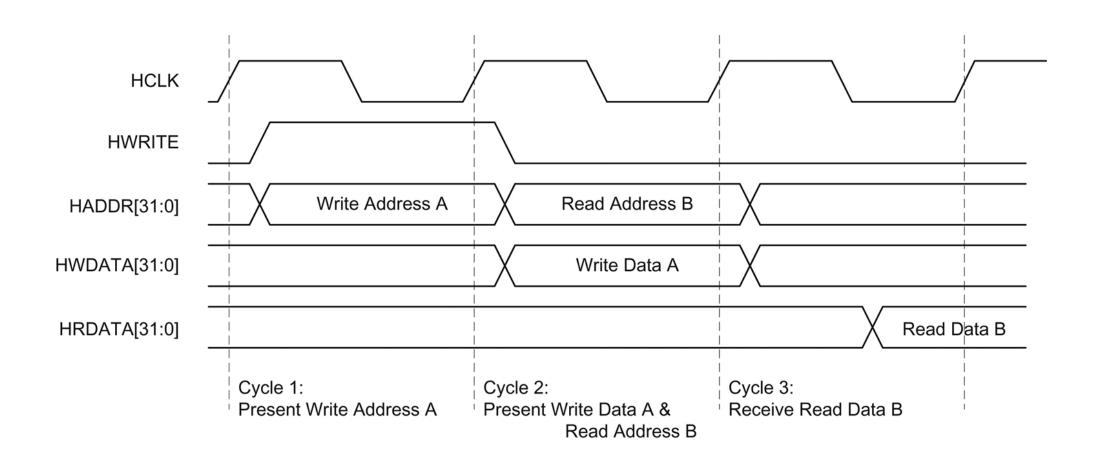




AHB-Lite Bus



AHB-Lite Bus



ARM® Cortex® M Bus interfaces

 The processor contains four external Advanced High-performance Bus (AHB)-Lite bus interfaces:

1. ICode memory interface

- Instruction fetches from Code memory space, 0x00000000 to 0x1FFFFFFF, are performed over this 32-bit AHB-Lite bus.
- The Debugger cannot access this interface.
- All fetches are word-wide.
- The number of instructions fetched per word depends on the code running and the alignment of the code in memory.

2. DCode memory interface

- Data and debug accesses to Code memory space, 0x00000000 to 0x1FFFFFFF, are performed over this 32-bit AHB-Lite bus.
- Core data accesses have a higher priority than debug accesses on this bus.
- This means that debug accesses are waited until core accesses have completed when there are simultaneous core and debug access to this bus.

ARM® Cortex® M Bus interfaces

3. System interface

- Instruction fetches, and data and debug accesses, to address ranges 0x20000000 to 0xDFFFFFFF and 0xE0100000 to 0xFFFFFFF are performed over this 32-bit AHB-Lite bus.
- For simultaneous accesses to this bus, the arbitration order in decreasing priority is:
 - data accesses
 - instruction and vector fetches
 - debug.

4. Private Peripheral Bus (PPB)

• Data and debug accesses to external PPB space, 0xE0040000 to 0xE00FFFFF, are performed over this 32-bit Advanced Peripheral Bus (APB) bus.

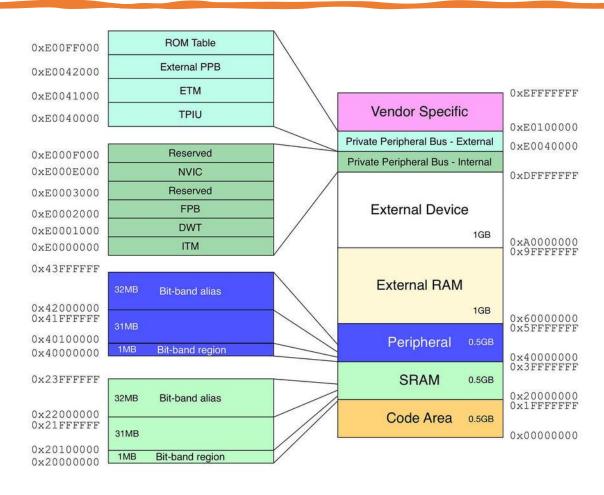
Memory Space

- The peripherals are separate circuits that enable the microcontroller to interface with sensors and actuators etc.
- Peripherals contain registers that are used to configure the peripherals
- They are memory-mapped, which means they are given an address and appear to be part of the same memory as instructions and data
- The Flash memory and RAM also appear to be in the same memory despite being physically separate
- This is known as a unified memory map

Memory Map

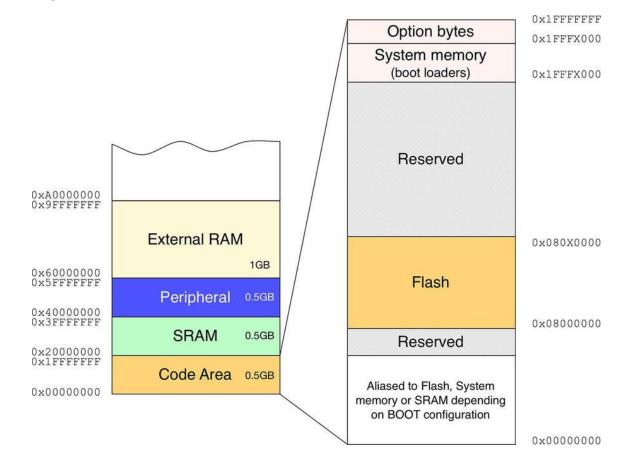
- ARM defines a standardized memory address space common to all Cortex-M cores, which ensures code portability among different silicon manufacturers.
- The address space is 4 GB wide (due to the 32-bit address line)
- It is organized into several subregions with different logical functionalities.

Memory Map

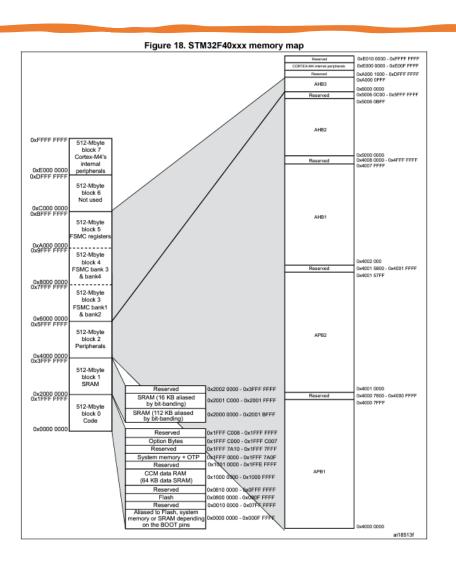


Memory Map

Memory map for code area

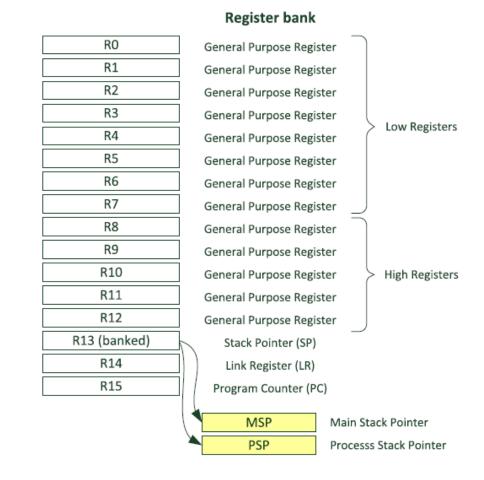


Memory Map-STM32F40xx Example

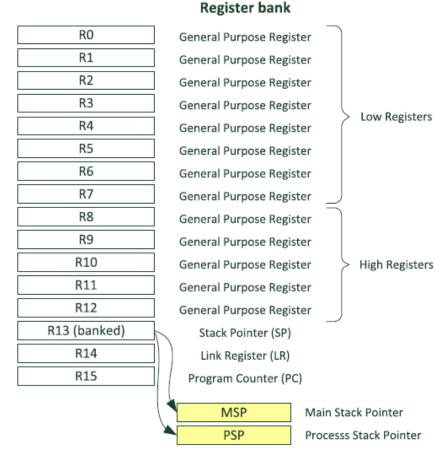


- The Cortex-M3 and Cortex-M4 processors have a number of registers inside the processor core to perform data processing and control
- Most of these registers are grouped in a unit called the register bank.
- Each data processing instruction specifies the operation required, the source register(s), and the destination register(s) if applicable.
- In the ARM architecture, if data in memory is to be processed, it has
 to be loaded from the memory to registers in the register bank,
 processed inside the processor, and then written back to the
 memory, if needed.
- This is commonly called a "load-store architecture".

- The register bank in the Cortex-M3 and Cortex-M4 processors has 16 registers.
- Thirteen of them are generalpurpose 32-bit registers, and the other three have special uses

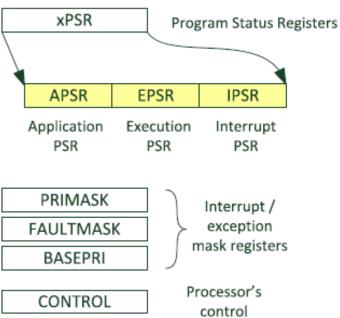


- R0- R12 are general-purpose registers, and can be used as operands for ARM instructions
- R13 is the Stack Pointer (SP) register, it is used for accessing the stack memory via PUSH and POP operations.
- R14 is the Link Register (LR) register, which is a special-purpose register which holds the address to return to when a function call completes.
- The linker register does not require the writes and reads of the memory containing the stack
- R15 is the Program Counter (PC) register, which has the address of the next instruction to be executed from memory.



- Besides the registers in the register bank, there are a number of special registers
- These registers contain the processor status and define the operation states and interrupt/exception masking.
- In the development of simple applications with high level programming languages such as C, there are not many scenarios that require access to these registers.
- However, they are needed for development of an embedded OS, or when advanced interrupt masking features are needed.

Special Registers



Instruction Set Architecture

- Where the processor stores or obtain information
 - Registers
 - Memory
 - Input/ output devices (Memory/ special instructions)
- How the processor manipulate information
 - Assembly language instructions
 - Processor hardware actions

Instruction Set Architecture

- A microcontroller is an example of a reduced instruction set computer (RISC) that has a fairly limited number of instructions
- Generally, a mnemonic is a symbolic name for a single executable machine language instruction
- mnemonics are used to specify an opcode
- An assembler is used to convert the assembly code to machine code (0's and 1's) that are stored in memory
- program often we use a high-level language (C, C++, etc.) and a compiler translates it into machine code

Instruction Format

Instruction Format

Туре	OPCODE	OPERAND
------	--------	---------

- Operation code or op-code is a part of the instruction that tells the processor what should be done.
- **Operand** is a part of the instruction that contains the data to be acted on, or the memory location of the data in a register.
- https://developer.arm.com/documentation/ddi0403/d

Instruction Format

Mnemonic	Opcode	Action
AND	0000	Bitwise AND
EOR	0001	Bitwise Exclusive OR
LSL	0010	Logical Shift Left
LSR	0011	Logical Shift Right
ASR	0100	Arithmetic Shift Right
ADC	0101	Add with Carry
SBC	0110	Subtract with Carry
ROR	0111	Rotate Right
TST	1000	Test
RSB	1001	Reverse Subtract from 0
СМР	1010	Compare High Registers
CMN	1011	Compare Negative
ORR	1100	Bitwise OR
MUL	1101	Multiply Two Registers
BIC	1110	Bitwise Bit Clear
MVN	1111	Bitwise NOT

Instruction Format

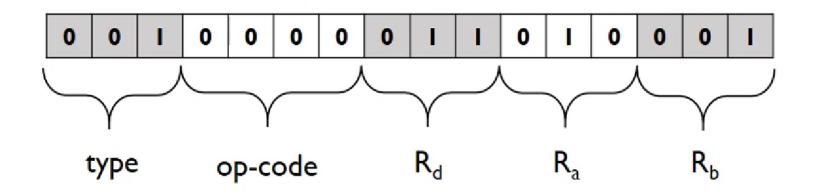
- The type of instruction can be:
 - Data processing instructions and miscellaneous instructions
 - Load/ Store instructions
 - Branch instructions
 - Media instructions
 - Coprocessor instructions
 - Floating point instructions

Instruction Format

- ARM instructions process data held in registers and only access memory with load and store instructions
- ARM instructions commonly take two or three operands

Instruction Syntax	Destination register (Rd)	Source register 1 (Rn)	Source register 2 (Rm)
ADD r3, r1, r2	r3	r1	r2

Instruction Format (Example)



Data operation

$$R_d = R_a$$
 operation R_b

ADD

R3, R2, R1

- The phrase addressing modes in ARM relates to the manner an instruction operand is expressed.
- Before the operand is actually performed, the addressing mode provides a rule for interpreting or altering the address field of the instruction.

- The address for a load or store is formed from two parts:
 - A value from a base register
 LDR RO, [R1] (This instruction loads the 32-bit word at the memory location contained in register R1 into register R0)
 - An offset.
- The base register can be any one of the general-purpose registers. For loads, the base register can be the PC. This permits PC-relative addressing for position-independent code. Instructions marked (literal)

- The offset takes one of three formats:
 - 1. Immediate addressing offset
 - 2. Register addressing offset
 - 3. Scaled register-indexed addressing offset
- The offset and base register can be used in three different ways to form the memory address. The addressing modes are:
 - Pre-indexed
 - Post-indexed

Immediate addressing offset

- The offset is an unsigned number that can be added to or subtracted from the base register value.
- Immediate offset addressing is useful for accessing data elements that are a fixed distance from the start of the data object, such as structure fields, stack offsets, and input/output registers.
- e.g.

LDR RO, [R1, #4]

(This instruction loads the register R0 with the word at the memory regions computed by adding the constant address included in the R1 register value 4 to the memory address stored in the R1 register)

Register addressing offset

- The offset is a value from a general-purpose register.
- This register cannot be the PC.
- The value can be added to, or subtracted from, the base register value.
- Register offsets are useful for accessing arrays or blocks of data.
- e.g.

LDR R0, [R1, R2]

(This instruction will load the word at the memory address determined by adding register R1 and register R2 into register R0.)

- Scaled register-indexed addressing offset
- The offset is a general-purpose register, other than the PC, shifted by an immediate value, then added to or subtracted from the base register.
- This means an array index can be scaled by the size of each array element.
 - LDR R8, [R9, R10, LSL #2] (loads the value from the memory location pointed to by R9 + (R10 * 4) into R8)

• **Offset**: The offset is added to or subtracted from the base register to form the memory address

Pre-indexed:

- Post-indexed addressing updates the base register before memory access
- LDR R1, [R0, #8] (load the value from the memory location pointed to by R0 + 8 into R1)

Post-indexed:

- Post-indexed addressing updates the base register after memory access
- LDR R6, [R7], #8 loads the value from the memory location pointed to by R7 into R6 and then increments the value in R7 by 8.

ARM Cortex M Assembly Programming

- An assembly language is a type of low-level programming language that is intended to communicate directly with a computer's hardware. Unlike machine language, which consists of binary and hexadecimal characters, assembly languages are designed to be readable by humans
- Why Learn Assembly Language?
- Learning and spending some time working at the assembly language level provides a richer understanding of the underlying computer architecture. This includes the basic instruction set, processor registers, memory addressing, hardware interfacing, and Input/Output

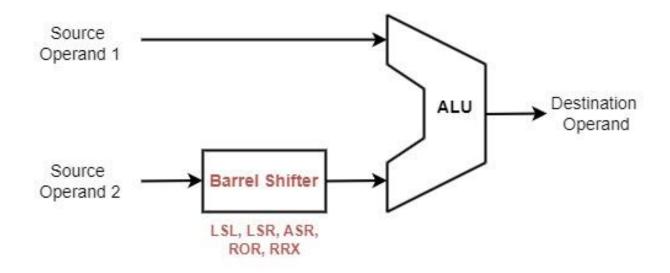
ARM Cortex M Assembly Programming

The typical instruction format:

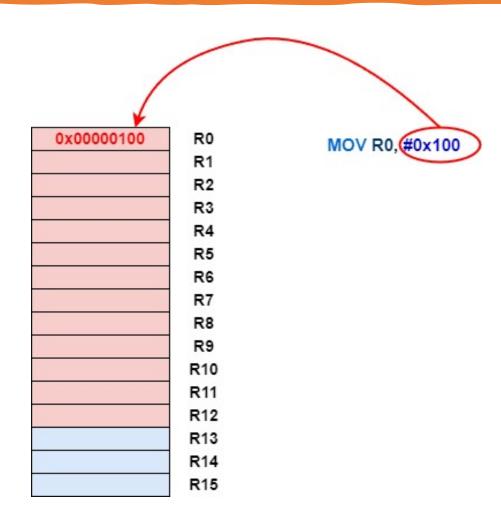
Opcode DestReg, Operand2
Opcode DestReg, SrcReg, Operand2

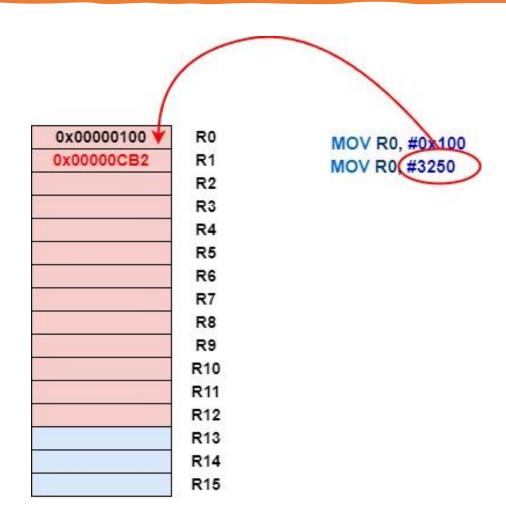
- Instructions may have two or three operands
- First operand is (almost) always a destination register
- Operand2 is a 'flexible' operand

ARM Cortex M Assembly Programming



ADD R0, R1, R2 ; R0 = R1+R2 ADD R0, R1, #1 ; R0 = R1+1 ADD R0, R1, R2, LSL #2 ; R0 = R1+R2 << 2





0x00000100 R0 0x00000CB2 R1 **OXFFFFFFB** R2 R3 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8 R9 R10 R11 R12 R13 R14 R15

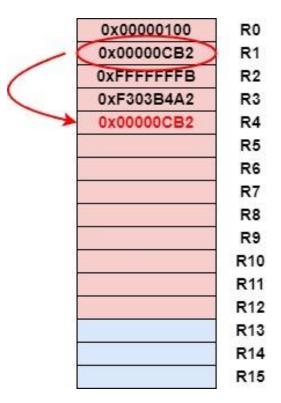
MOV R0, #0x100 MOV R1, #3250 MVN R2, #4 00....0100 11....1011

0x00000100 R0 0x00000CB2 R1 0xFFFFFFB R2 0x0000B4A2 R3 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8 R9 R10 R11 R12 R13 R14 R15

MOV R0, #0x100 MOV R1, #3250 MVN R2, #4 MOVW R3, #0xB4A2

0x00000100 R0 0x00000CB2 R1 0xFFFFFFB R2 0xF303B4A2 R3 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8 R9 R10 R11 R12 R13 R14 R15

MOV R0, #0x100 MOV R1, #3250 MVN R2, #4 MOVW R3, #0xB4A2 MOVT R3, #0xF303

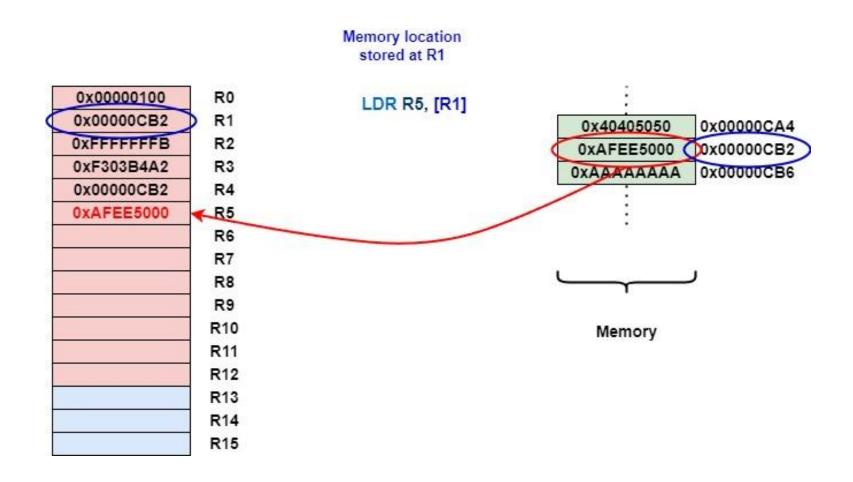


MOV R0, #0x100 MOV R1, #3250 MVN R2, #4 MOVW R3, #0xB4A2 MOVT R3, #0xF303 MOV R4, R1

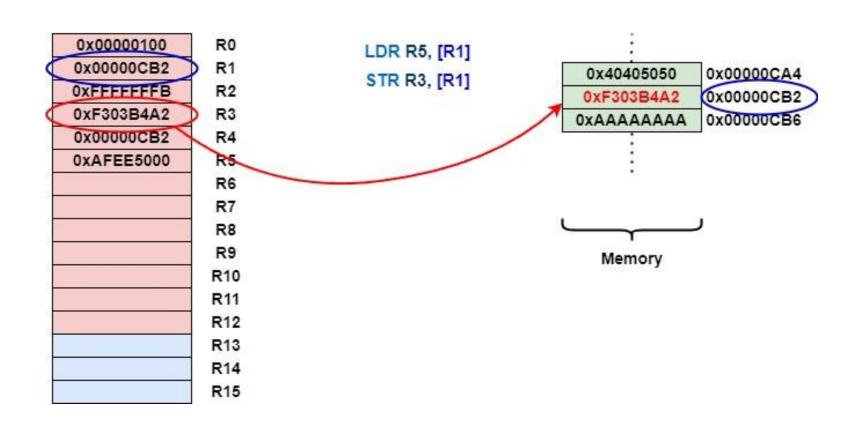
Summary

- Most instructions specify the destination as the first operand
- Immediate values are small constants that are encoded as part of instruction itself
- The (optional) # prefix marks an immediate operand
- Hexadecimal values have a prefix of 0x

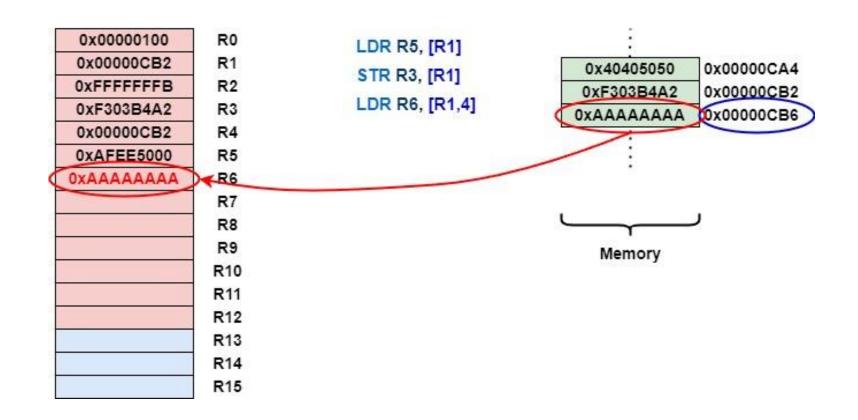
Load/Store Instructions

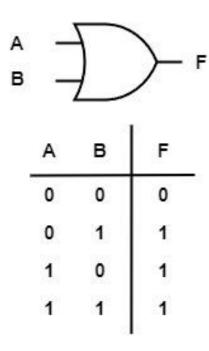


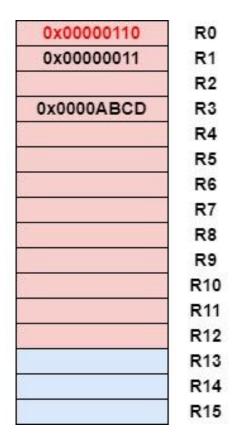
Load/Store Instructions



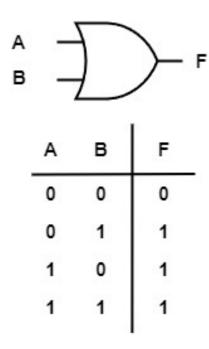
Load/Store Instructions

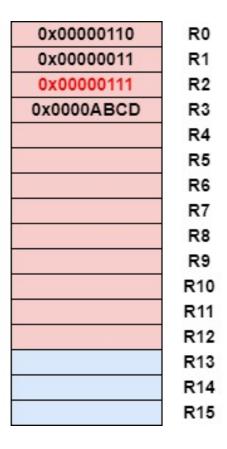




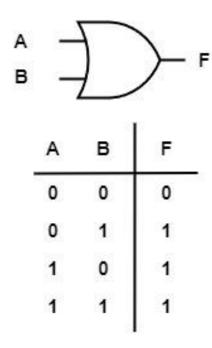


MOVW R0, #0x0110



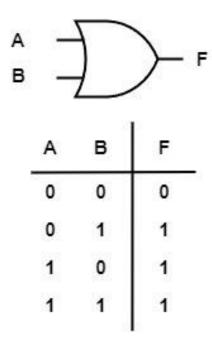


MOVW R0, #0x0110 ORR R2, R1, R0



0x00000110	R0
0x00000011	R1
0x00000111	R2
0x0000ABCD	R3
0x0000ABDD	R4
	R5
	R6
	R7
8	R8
	R9
8	R10
	R11
	R12
	R13
Ø.	R14
	R15

MOVW R0, #0x0110 ORR R2, R1, R0 ORR R4, R3, R0



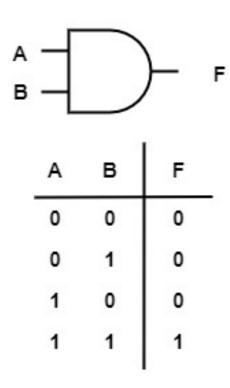
0x00000110	R0
0x00000011	R1
0x00000111	R2
0x0000ABCD	R3
0x0000ABDD	R4
	R5
Ó	R6
	R7
0	R8
	R9
	R10
	R11
	R12
	R13
	R14
	R15

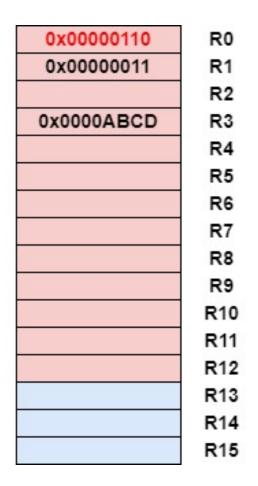
MOVW R0, #0x0110 ORR R2, R1, R0 ORR R4, R3, R0

In C we would write

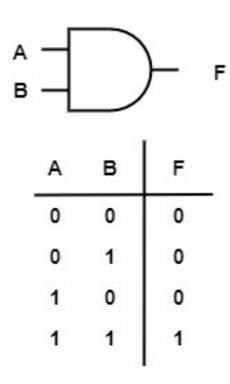
#define MASK 0x0110

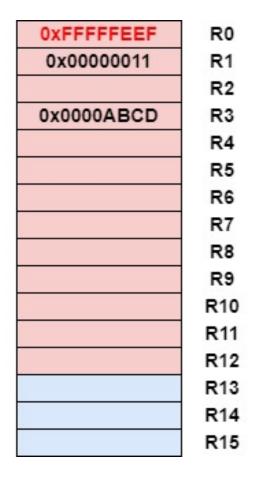
DestA = SrcA | MASK; DestB = SrcB | MASL;



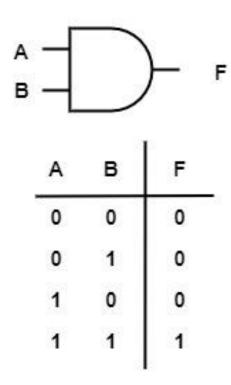


MOVW R0, #0x0110



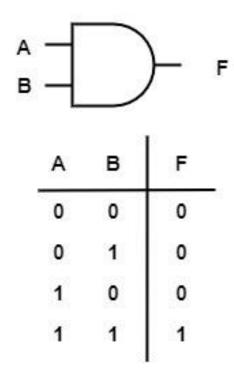


MOVW R0, #0x0110 MVN R0, R0





MOVW R0, #0x0110 MVN R0, R0 AND R2, R1, R0 AND R4, R3, R0



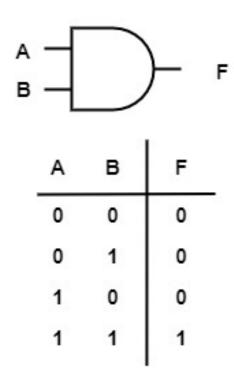
0xFFFFFEEF	R0
0x00000011	R1
0x00000001	R2
0x0000ABCD	R3
0x0000AACD	R4
	R5
<u> </u>	R6
	R7
8	R8
	R9
	R10
	R11
	R12
	R13
	R14
	R15

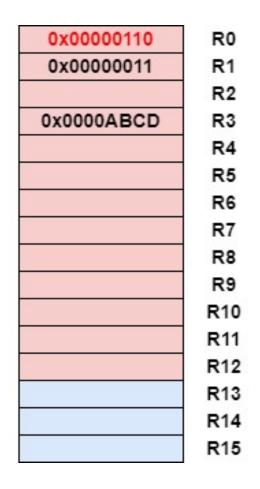
MOVW R0, #0x0110 MVN R0, R0 AND R2, R1, R0 AND R4, R3, R0

In C we would write

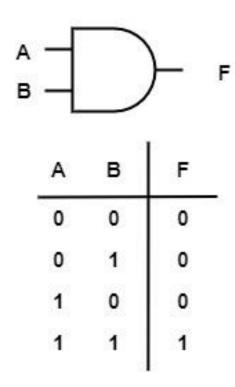
#define MASK 0x0110

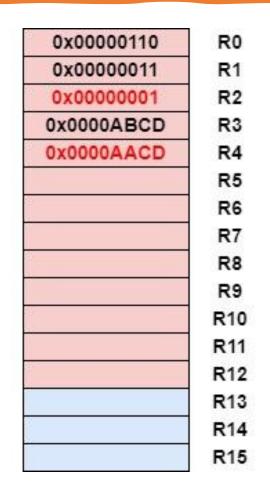
DestA = SrcA & ~ MASK; DestB = SrcB & ~MASL;





MOVW R0, #0x0110

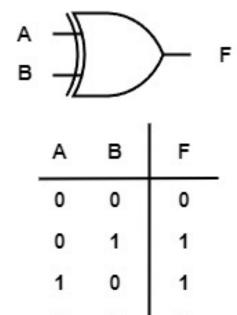




MOVW R0, #0x0110

BIC R2, R1, R0

BIC R2, R3, R0



0x00000110	R0
0x00000011	R1
0x00000101	R2
0x0000ABCD	R3
0x0000AADD	R4
	R5
	R6
	R7
	R8
	R9
	R10
	R11
	R12
	R13
	R14
	R15

MOVW R0, #0x0110 EOR R2, R1, R0 EOR R4, R3, R0

In C we would write

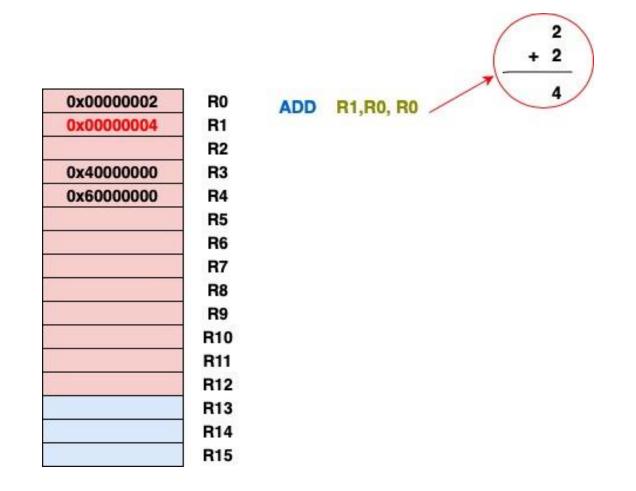
#define MASK 0x0110

DestA = SrcA ^ MASK; DestB = SrcB ^ MASK;

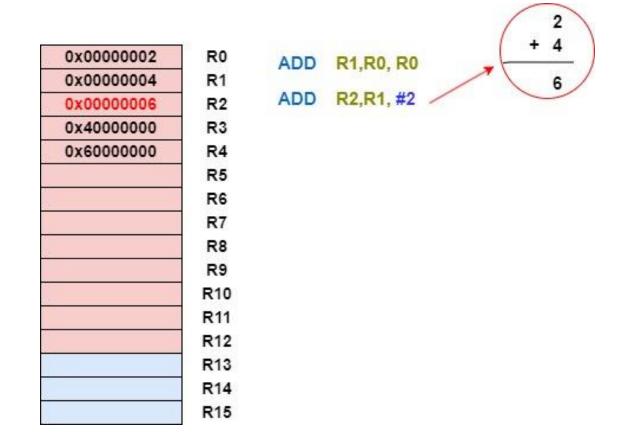
Summary

- Set bits to 1 in mask to modify corresponding bits
- Use OR instruction to force bits to 1
- Use MVN-AND instructions to force bits to 0
- Use BIC instruction to force bits to 0
- Use EOR instruction to invert bits

Arithmetic Instructions- ADD



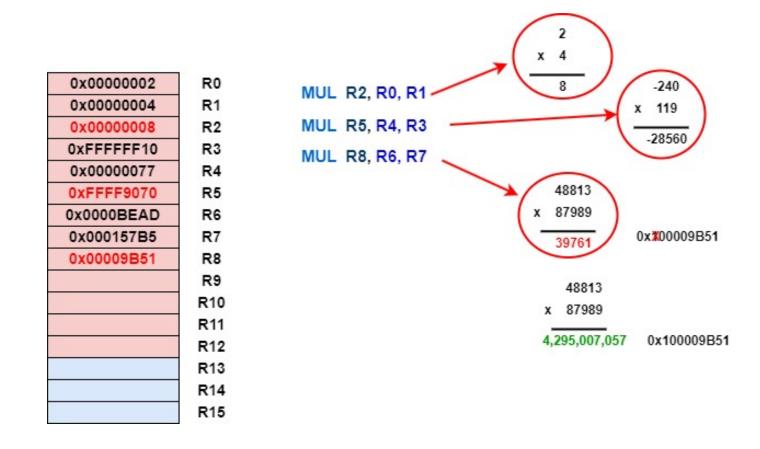
Arithmetic Instructions- ADD

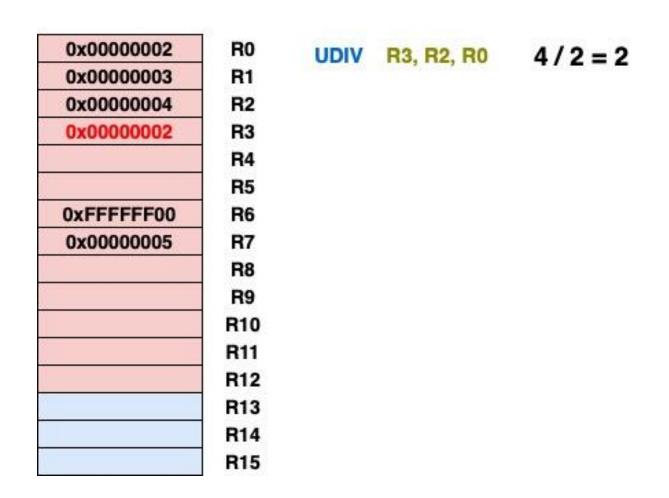


Arithmetic Instructions- ADD

0x00000002 0x00000004	R0 R1	ADD	R1,R0, R0	1073741824 + 1610612736
0x00000004	R2	ADD	R2,R1, #2	-1610612736
0x40000000	R3	ADD	R5, R3, R4	
0x60000000	R4		,,	
0xA0000000	R5			1073741824
	R6			+ 1610612736
	R7			
	R8			2684354560
	R9			
	R10			
	R11			
	R12			
	R13			
	R14			
	R15			

Arithmetic Instructions- Multiplication





0x00000002	R0	UDIV	R3, R2, R0	4/3 = 1
0x00000003	R1		Control of the Contro	., 0 – .
0x00000004	R2	UDIV	R4, R2, R1	
0x00000002	R3			
0x00000001	R4			
	R5			
0xFFFFFF00	R6			
0x00000005	R7			
	R8			
	R9			
	R10			
	R11			
	R12			
	R13			
	R14			
	R15			

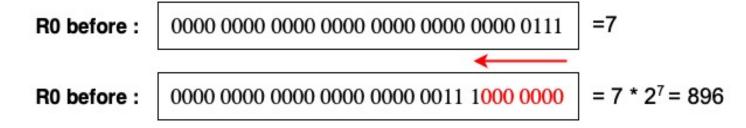
0x00000002	R0	UDIV	R3, R2, R0	3/4 = 0
0x00000003	R1		Marie Andrews	0, 1 – 0
0x00000004	R2	UDIV	R4, R2, R1	
0x00000002	R3			
0x00000001	R4	UDIV	R5, R1, R2	
0x00000000	R5			
0xFFFFFF00	R6			
0x00000005	R7			
	R8			
	R9			
	R10			
	R11			
	R12			
	R13			
	R14			
	R15			

0x00000002	R0	UDIV	R3, R2, R0	4294967040
0x00000003	R1			5
0x00000004	R2	UDIV	R4, R2, R1	J
0x00000002	R3			= 858993408
0x00000001	R4	UDIV	R5, R1, R2	
0x00000000	R5	HDIV	DO DC D7	
0xFFFFFF00	R6	UDIV	R8, R6, R7	
0x00000005	R7			
0x33333300	R8			
	R9			
j	R10			
	R11			
	R12			
	R13			
	R14			
	R15			

0x00000002	R0	UDIV	R3, R2, R0	-256 = -51
0x00000003	R1			5 = -51
0x00000004	R2	UDIV	R4, R2, R1	
0x00000002	R3			
0x00000001	R4	UDIV	R5, R1, R2	
0x00000000	R5	UDIV	R8, R6, R7	
0xFFFFF00	R6	ODIV	no, no, n1	
0x0000005	R7	SDIV	R9, R6, R7	
0x33333300	R8			
0xFFFFFCD	R9			
j	R10			
	R11			
	R12			
	R13			
	R14			
	R15			

Logical shift and rotation – Left Shift

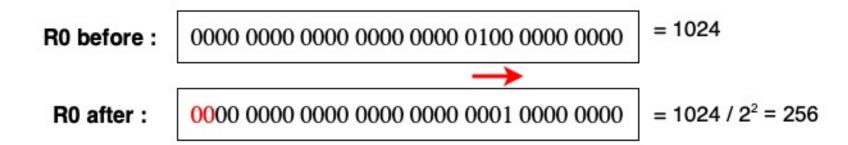
- **Left Shifts** effectively multiply the contents of a register by **2**^s where **s** is the shift amount.
- MOV R0,R0,LSL 7



 Shifts can also be applied to the second operand of any data processing instruction ADD R1,R1,R0,LSL 7

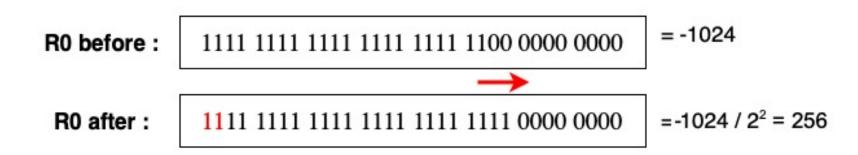
Logical shift and rotation — Right Shift

- Right Shifts behave like dividing the contents of a register by 2^s where
 s is the shift amount, if you assume the contents of the register are unsigned
- MOV R0,R0,LSR 2



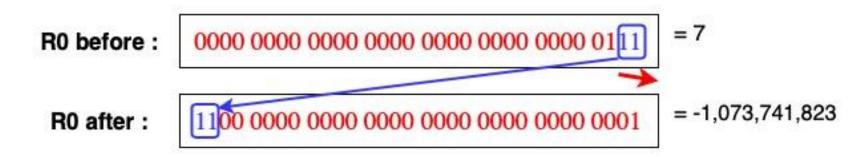
Logical shift and rotation – Arithmetic Right Shifts

- Arithmetic Right Shifts behave like dividing the contents of a register by 2^s where s is the shift amount, if you assume the contents of the register are signed
- MOV R0,R0,ASR 2



Logical shift and rotation — Rotate Right Shift

- Rotating Right Shifts have no arithmetic analogy. However, they don't lose bits like both logical and arithmetic shifts
- MOV R0,R0,ROR 2



Exercise 1- Setting a bit

- Set bit #5 in a register (assume R0) without affecting the other bits.
- a | = (1<<5);
- Use LSL to access the bit location

Exercise 2- Clearing a bit

- Clear bit #5 in a register (assume R0) without affecting the other bits.
- A &= ~(1<<5);
- Use LSL to access the bit location

Exercise 3- Toggling a bit

- Toggle bit #5 in a register (assume R0) without affecting the other bits.
- $A^{=}(1 << 5);$
- Use LSL to access the bit location

- Branches (aka Jumps) allow us to jump to another code segment. This is useful when we need to skip (or repeat) blocks of codes or jump to a specific function.
- The best examples of such a use case are conditional statements (if statements) and Loops (while and for)

```
main:
                r1, #2
                         /* setting up initial variable a */
        mov
                r2, #3
                          /* setting up initial variable b */
        mov
                r1, r2
                          /* comparing variables to determine which is bigger */
       SUR
                          /* jump to r1_lower in case r2 is bigger (N==1) */
       blt
                r1_lower
                r0, r1
                          /* if branching/jumping did not occur, r1 is bigger (or the same) so store r1 into r0 */
                          /* proceed to the end */
        ь
                end
r1_lower:
       mov r0, r2
                         /* We ended up here because r1 was smaller than r2, so move r2 into r0 */
       b end
                          /* proceed to the end */
end:
        bx lr
                        /* THE END */
```

```
int main() {
   int max = 0;
   int a = 2;
   int b = 3;
   <u>if(</u>a < b) {
   max = b;
   else {
    max = a;
   return max;
```

Conditions in Assembly

Condition Field				
Mnemonic	Description	Description (VFP)		
EQ	Equal	Equal		
NE	Not equal	Not equal, or unordered		
CS / HS	Carry Set / Unsigned higher or same	Greater than or equal, or unordered		
CC / LO	Carry Clear / Unsigned lower	Less than		
MI	Negative	Less than		
PL	Positive or zero	Greater than or equal, or unordered		
VS	Overflow	Unordered (at least one NaN operand)		
VC	No overflow	Not unordered		
HI	Unsigned higher	Greater than, or unordered		
LS	Unsigned lower or same	Less than or equal		
GE	Signed greater than or equal	Greater than or equal		
LT	Signed less than	Less than, or unordered		
GT	Signed greater than	Greater than		
LE	Signed less than or equal	Less than or equal, or unordered		
AL	Always (normally omitted)	Always (normally omitted)		

All ARM instructions (except those with Note C or Note U) can have any one of these condition codes after the instruction mnemonic (that is, before the first space in the instruction as shown on this card). This condition is encoded in the instruction.

On processors without Thumb-2, the only Thumb instruction that can have a condition code is B <label>.

All Thumb-2 instructions (except those with Note U) can have any one of these condition codes after the instruction mnemonic. This condition is encoded in a preceding IT instruction (except in the case of conditional Branch instructions). Condition codes in instructions must match those in the preceding IT instruction.

```
main:

mov r0, #0 /* setting up initial variable a */

loop:

cmp r0, #4 /* checking if a==4 */

beg end /* proceeding to the end if a==4 */

add r0, r0, #1 /* increasing a by 1 if the jump to the end did not occur */

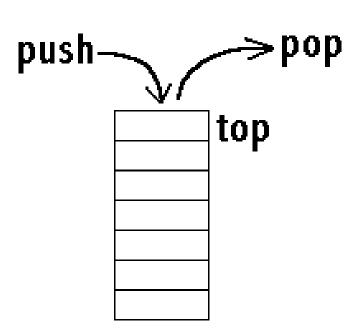
b loop /* repeating the loop */

end:

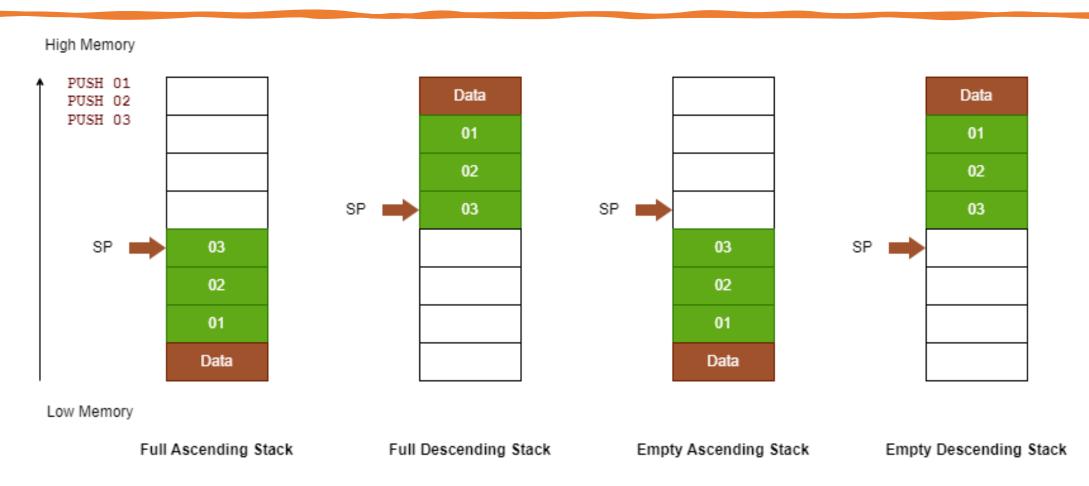
bx lr /* THE END */
```

```
int main() {
   int a = 0;
   while(a < 4) {
   a= a+1;
   }
   return a;
}</pre>
```

- Stack Memory is part of the main memory reserved for the temporary storage of data (transient data), mainly used in function call, interrupt/exception handling.
- Stack Memory is accessed in Last In First Out LIFO manner.
- Addition and removal takes place only at one end, called the top.
- The stack can be accessed using PUSH, POP or memory instructions such as LDR, STR.

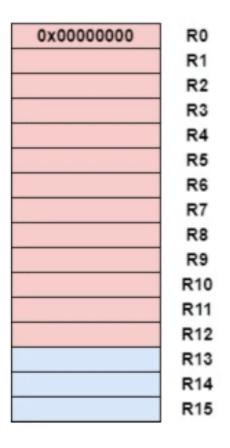


- The stack is traced by the Stack Pointer (SP), and is used to save below information:
 - Temporary storage for processor register values
 - Temporary storage for local variables of functions
 - Save the context of the current executing code before moving to exception/ interrupt handing routine
- The ARM Cortex-M processor uses a full descending stack. This means the stack pointer indicates the last stacked item on the stack memory. When the processor pushes a new item onto the stack, it decrements the stack pointer and then writes the item to the new memory location

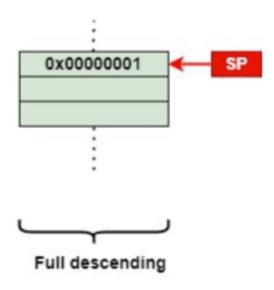


Source: https://www.codeinsideout.com/blog/stm32/stack-memory/#stack

- The ARM Cortex-M processor uses a full descending stack.
- This means the stack pointer indicates the last stacked item on the stack memory.
- When the processor pushes a new item onto the stack, it decrements the stack pointer and then writes the item to the new memory location



MOV R0, #2 PUSH {R0} MOV R0, #3 POP {R0}



Questions?