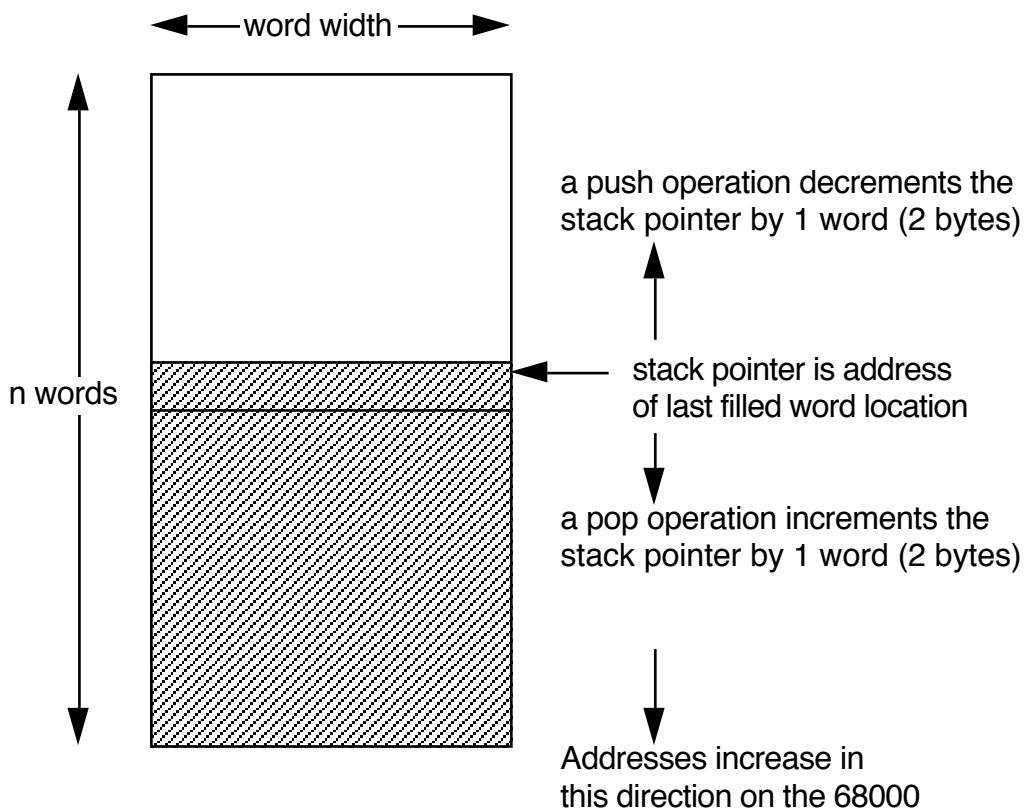


STACK

A stack is a first in, last out buffer usually implemented as a block of n consecutive bytes (it doesn't have to be bytes—it could be words or long words). In the example below, the stack is composed of words.



NOTES ABOUT 68000 STACKS

On the 68000 stack addresses begin in high memory (\$60000 for example) and are pushed toward low memory (\$50000 for example). Other machines might do this in the reverse order.

A stack can be implemented as bytes or longwords. The normal 68000 stack pointer is in A7 (Don't use this register for anything else!!!). If you want to use a special stack which is byte or long word in width you will need to use another register; A7 is only for word width stacks.

USES FOR STACKS

- data storage

This application is similar to an array, but is more useful for handling input/output information.

- program tracking & control
- The stack is usually used to pass variables to and from subroutines and for storage of local variables.

ALLOCATING THE STACK IS THE PROGRAMMER'S RESPONSIBILITY!

This means that the programmer is responsible for reserving memory for stack operations and for properly initializing the value of the stack pointer at the top of the stack memory area.

For example, the following code will allocate memory for a stack of 200 words

```
DS.W      $200  
BOTTOM    EQU      *
```

To initialize the stack pointer, put the high memory address of the stack into A7

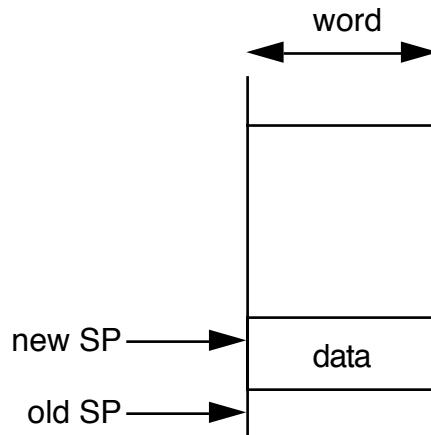
```
MOVE      #BOTTOM,A7
```

To “push” something onto the stack, the stack pointer must be decremented by one word and then <source> can be put on the stack.

```
MOVE      <source>,-(SP)
```

To “pop” something off the stack, the information must be fetched from the stack, the stack pointer incremented by 1 word, and the information put into <destination>.

```
MOVE      (SP)+,<destination>
```



The stack is usually put just ahead of the program in embedded microprocessor systems. This is not true for personal computers such as the Macintosh. They put the stack in very high memory (just under the heap) and put program information in low memory. For example, the program would begin just after the memory reserved for the stack in an embedded system.

```
DS.W      $200  
BOTTOM    EQU      *  
<program code begins here>
```

A major problem with stacks is that the programmer makes them too small. The word size of a stack is a measure of the greatest number of data items that might be put into it.

stack overflow attempt to push below the bottom end of the stack

stack underflow attempt to pop an item from an empty stack

EXAMPLE: BACKWARD ECHO PROGRAM

This program will accept a character string terminated by a carriage return-line feed (CR-LF), place it into a stack buffer (temporary storage area), and output the string in reverse order to a computer terminal.

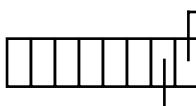
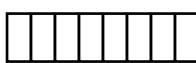
Functional specification (pseudocode)

```
initialize stack
push CR onto stack; push LF onto stack

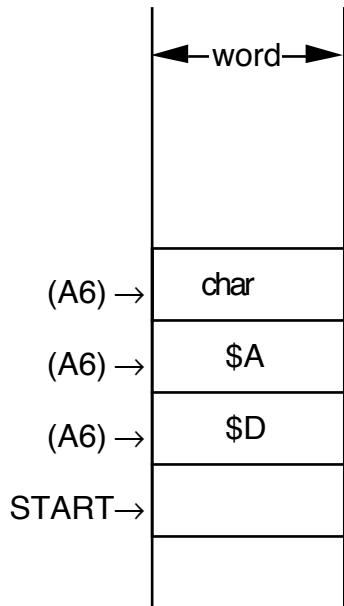
inloop
if (TRMSTAT[0] ≠ 1) then goto inloop      ;wait for input from
                                             ;keyboard - this is polled
                                             ;I/O
get next char
if (char = CR) goto outloop                ;CR denotes end of input
push char onto stack
goto inloop

outloop
if (TRMSTAT[1] = 1) then goto outloop      ;wait for busy display
pop char from stack
output char                                 ;ideal application for
                                             ;CharOut
if (SP less than initial SP) then goto outloop ;anything left in stack?
```

TRMSTAT and TRMDATA are special memory locations which are connected to the hardware of a computer terminal. Bit 0 of TRMSTAT indicates whether a character has been input from the keyboard: 1 indicates a character has been input and can be found in TRMDATA, 0 indicates that nothing has been input since the last read of TRMDATA. Bit 1 of TRMSTAT indicates whether the terminal display is busy outputting the character last placed into TRMDATA. A 1 indicates that the terminal is still busy and is not ready for the next character to be output. TRMDATA is used for input and output of ASCII data. When read, TRMDATA indicates input from the keyboard whereas a write to TRMDATA will send the character to the display.

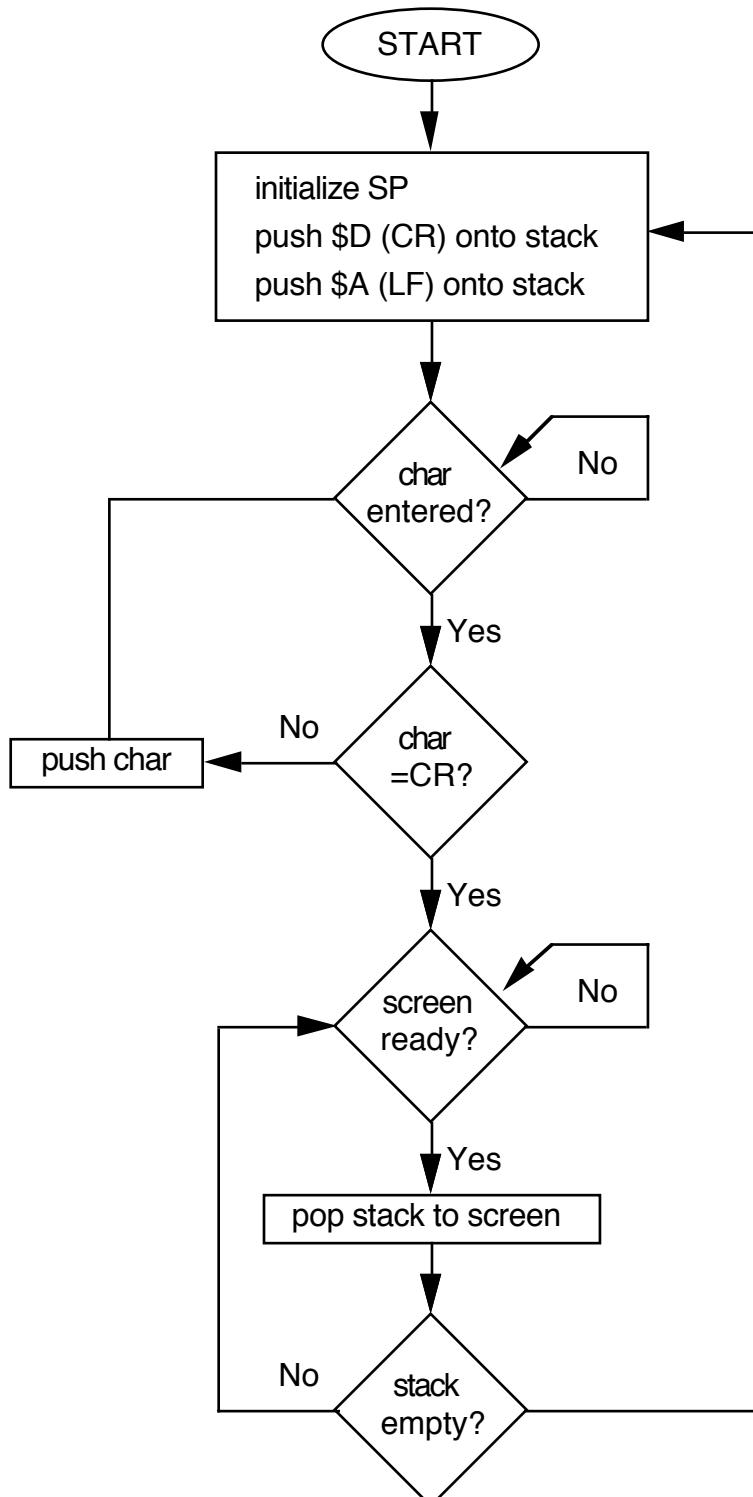
TRMSTAT	\$10040	 A horizontal rectangle divided into eight equal-width vertical segments. The fourth segment from the left contains a small vertical bar, and the eighth segment contains a small vertical bar.	1 if character has been input 1 if screen output busy
TRMDATA	\$10042	 A horizontal rectangle divided into eight equal-width vertical segments.	read: character from keyboard write: character output to display

This is a stack for my data so I will use A6
NOT A7 for the stack pointer.



Note that the stack builds down in memory.

Program accepts input:
 AB...YZ<cr>
 then outputs
 ZY...BA<lf><cr>



MC68000 CODE

	INCLUDE	io.s	;include io definitions
TRMSTAT	EQU	\$10040	;terminal status register
TRMDATA	EQU	\$10042	;terminal data register
	ORG	\$4000	;start program here
	DS.W	200	;save 200 words for a stack
START	EQU	*	;assign an address to START
	LEA	START,A6	;initialize SP to START address
	CLR.L	D0	
	MOVE	#\$D,-(A6)	;push CR onto stack
	MOVE	#\$A,-(A6)	;push LF onto stack
LOOP	EQU	*	
	BTST	#0,TRMSTAT	;character entered? ;bit[0]=1 when character waiting
	BEQ	LOOP	;no input, keep waiting
	MOVE.B	TRMDATA,D0	;have input, get char entered
	CMP	#\$D,D0	;is char entered a CR?
	BEQ	OUT	;YES, goto to output routine
	MOVE	D0,-(A6)	;NO, push char onto stack
	BRA	LOOP	;and repeat input loop
OUT	EQU	*	
	MOVE	(A6)+,D0	;pop char from stack
	JSR	CharOut	;output character
	CMPA	START,A6	;is stack empty?
	BNE	OUT	;NO, keep outputting chars
	BRA	START	;YES, get new line
	END	START	

NOTE: CMPA is a new instruction.

EXAMPLE: RPN CALCULATOR (problem 6.3)

This program implements a reverse Polish (RPN) calculator using a stack.

Examples of input:

11* equals 1 AND 1

10+ equals 1 OR 0

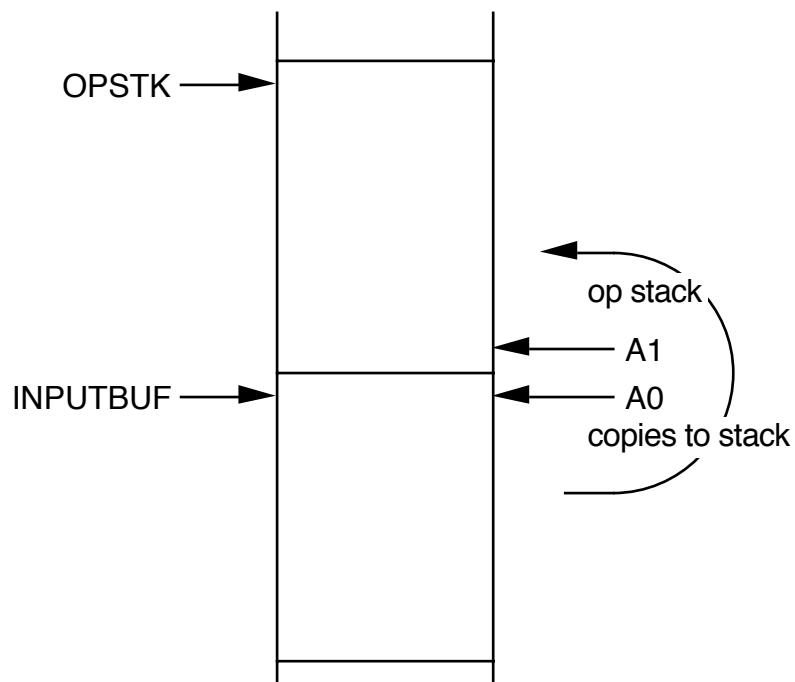
The operands ‘0’ and ‘1’ have ASCII values \$30 and \$31 respectively. Convert ASCII to binary by subtracting ‘0’, i.e. ASCII \$30 from the ASCII value. Reverse the process for input.

The program uses:

MULTICAND 8-bit number to be multiplied

Functional specification (pseudocode)

PRODUCT = 0; /*clear PRODUCT*/



MC68000 assembly code for RPN calculator program:

```
        ORG      $5000
BUFSIZ  EQU      80           ;input buffer size
OPSTK   DS.B     20           ;size of operations stack
INPUTBUF DS.B     BUFSIZ
START    LEA      INPUTBUF,A0  ;load address of input buffer into
                           ;A0
        MOVE.W   #BUFSIZ,D0    ;set D0 to size of input buffer
; (A0) = address of input, (D0.W) = max number of characters to read
; on input (D0.W) is # of characters to input
        JSR      STRIN     ;get input
        JSR      STROUT    ;echo input
        SUBQ    #2,D0    ;adjust character count for DB
                           ;instruction
        LEA      INPUTBUF,A1  ;set A1 to top of stack
SCANNEXT CMPI.B  #'0',(A0)  ;input='0'?
        BLT.S    EVALUATE  ;if input<0 then input is operator
        MOVE.B   (A0)+,-(A1) ;push input onto stack
        SUBI.B   #'0',(A1)  ;convert stack entry to binary
        BRA.S    CHKCNT    ;test for more input
EVALUATE MOVE.B   (A1)+,D2  ;pop the operand stack
        MOVE.B   (A1)+,D1  ;
        CMPI.B   #'*',(A0)+ ;is operand an '*'?
        BEQ     ANDOP     ;Yes it is - goto AND operand
        OR.B    D1,D2    ;otherwise OR arguements
        BRA.S    PUSHOP    ;push operand onto stack
ANDOP    AND.B    D1,D2    ;AND arguements
PUSHOP   MOVE.B   D2,-(A1)  ;push result onto stack
CHKCNT   DBF      D0,SCANNEXT
PUTANS   ADDI.B   #'0',(A1)  ;convert stack to ASCII
        MOVEA.L  A1,A0    ;set up pointer to output, i.e. A0
        MOVE.W   #1,D0    ;set up # of characters to output,
                           ;i.e. D0.W
        JSR      STROUT    ;echo output
```

JSR

NEWLINE

PC RELATIVE ADDRESSING MODES

Bcc Both of these branches use relative addressing allowing a program to work anywhere in memory independent of absolute addresses.

program counter with displacement

d(PC) d is a 16-bit 2's complement displacement (-32K to + 32K bytes) which is sign extended

program counter with index and displacement

d(PC, Ri.W) Ri can be either an address or data register. The register is sign extended if <size> is .W. Note that the displacement is -128 to +127 bytes.

Consider the instruction

MOVE.W \$500(PC),D4

This is a two word instruction. Assume that (PC) = \$1000 at start of instruction.

1. fetch first instruction word
2. increment PC, PC=PC+2
3. decode instruction
4. then add \$500 to \$1502
5. (PC)=\$1004 at end of instruction

PEA implements call by reference parameter passing

PEA <ea> pushes an address onto stack

Equivalent to the instruction

MOVE.L <ea>,-(SP)

CMPM compare memory

CMPM.<size> (Ay)+,(Ax)+

Both source and destination MUST be in post increment mode.

RTR return and restore instruction

Word is popped from the stack and the least significant byte (LSB) of this word is put into the CCR. Long word is popped from the stack and placed into the PC.

Should execute

MOVE.W CCR,-(SP)

at beginning of program

Problem: How to save registers (subroutine needs to use registers also)

Solution: Push all registers onto stack after JSR

Pop all registers off stack before RTS

MOVEM.<size> <register list>,<ea>

MOVEM.<size> <ea>,<register list>

Push registers onto stack.

MOVEM.<size> <register list>,-(SP)

Pop registers off stack.

MOVEM.<size> (SP)+,<register list>

Register list (no commas)

D0,D2,D3,D4,A0,A1,A6

is equivalent to

D0/D2-D4/A0-A1/A6

where you use the ‘/’ instead of a comma to separate registers and ‘-’ indicates a range of registers, i.e. D2-D4 indicates all data registers from D2 to D4.

<size> = .W or .L

When <size>=.W all registers are sign extended first.