

Modern Assembly Language Programming
with the
ARM processor

Chapter 7: Integer Mathematics

Subtracting by Adding – Base 10

This is called 10's complement arithmetic.

Complement
Table

0	9
1	8
2	7
3	6
4	5
5	4
6	3
7	2
8	1
9	0

$$\begin{array}{r} 384 \\ - 56 \\ \hline 328 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 384 \\ 943 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 1328 \end{array}$$

The 9's complement of 56 (in three digits) is 943.

The 10's complement of 56 in three digits is 944.

Adding the 10's complement of x is the same as subtracting x .

Subtracting by Adding – Binary

This is called 2's complement arithmetic.*

Complement
Table

0	1
1	0

$$\begin{array}{r} 01011100 \\ - 00110001 \\ \hline 00101011 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 01011100 \\ 11001110 \\ + 00000001 \\ \hline 100101011 \end{array}$$

The 1's complement of 110001(in eight bits) is 11001110.

The 2's complement of 110001(in eight bits) is 11001111.

Adding the 2's complement of x is the same as subtracting x .

Therefore, the 2's complement of x is the same as $-x$, and that is one way to store negative numbers in the computer.

* $92_{10} = 1011100_2$, $49_{10} = 110001_2$, $43_{10} = 101011_2$,

Signed and Unsigned Integers

- Numbers can be interpreted by the programmer as signed or unsigned.
- The computer treats them both the same.
- Given an 8-bit integer, the programmer can consider it to hold:
 - an unsigned value between 0 and 255, or
 - a signed (two's complement) number between -128 and $+127$.

Binary	Unsigned	Signed
00000000	0	0
00000001	1	1
⋮	⋮	⋮
01111110	126	126
01111111	127	127
10000000	128	-128
10000001	129	-127
⋮	⋮	⋮
11111110	254	-2
11111111	255	-1

Base Conversion of Negative Numbers

Converting a signed 2's complement number from binary to decimal.

- 1 If the most significant bit is '1', then
 - 1 Find the 2's complement
 - 2 Convert the result to base 10
 - 3 Add a negative sign
- 2 else
 - 1 Convert the result to base 10

Number	1's Complement	2's Complement	Base 10	Negative
11010010	00101101	00101110	46	-46
1111111100010110	0000000011101001	0000000011101010	234	-234
01110100	Not negative		116	
1000001101010110	0111110010101001	0111110010101010	31914	-31914
0101001111011011	Not negative		21467	

Base Conversion of Negative Numbers

Converting a negative number from decimal to binary.

- 1 Remove the negative sign
- 2 Convert the number to binary
- 3 Take the 2's complement

Base 10	Positive Binary	1's Complement	2's Complement
-46	00101110	11010001	11010010
-234	0000000011101010	1111111100010101	1111111100010110
-116	01110100	10001011	10001100
-31914	0111110010101010	1000001101010110	1000001101010111
-21467	0101001111011011	1010110000100100	1010110000100101

Addition, Subtraction, and Negation – Examples

$$\begin{array}{r} 23 \\ + 15 \\ \hline 38 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 00010111 \\ + 00001111 \\ \hline 00100110 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 23 \\ - 15 \\ \hline 8 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 00010111 \\ + 11110001 \\ \hline 100001000 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} - 23 \\ + 15 \\ \hline - 8 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 11101001 \\ + 00001111 \\ \hline 11111000 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} - 23 \\ - 15 \\ \hline - 38 \end{array} = \begin{array}{r} 11101001 \\ + 11110001 \\ \hline 111011010 \end{array}$$

Algorithm for Unsigned Multiplication – Part 1

To multiply two n bit numbers, you must be able to add two $2n$ bit numbers.

Assume we have x in $r1:r0$ and y in $r3:r2$

(The high order words are in the high-order registers)

and we want to calculate $x = x + y$

ARM Assembly:

```
1  adds    r0, r0, r2    @ add the low-order words, and
2                               @ set flags in CPSR
3  adc     r1, r1, r3    @ add the high-order words plus
4                               @ the carry flag
```

Early ARM processors did not have a multiply instruction.

We will show how to multiply two 8-bit numbers to get a 16-bit result.

The same algorithm works for numbers of any size.

Algorithm for Unsigned Multiplication – Part 2

Given two 8-bit numbers, x and y ,
where x is the multiplicand and y is the multiplier:

- 1: Extend the multiplicand x to 16 bits.
- 2: Set a 16-bit register, a , to zero,
- 3: **while** $y \neq 0$ **do**
- 4: **if** y is an odd number **then**
- 5: $a \leftarrow a + x$
- 6: **end if**
- 7: *Logical* shift y right one bit
- 8: Shift x left one bit
- 9: **end while**

Algorithm for Unsigned Multiplication – Example

Binary multiplication is a sequence of shift and add operations.

$$x = 01101001 \text{ and } y = 01011010$$

<i>a</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	Next operation
0000000000000000	000000001101001	01011010	shift only
0000000000000000	0000000011010010	00101101	add, then shift
0000000011010010	0000000110100100	00010110	shift only
0000000011010010	0000001101001000	00001011	add, then shift
0000010000011010	0000011010010000	00000101	add, then shift
0000101010101010	0000110100100000	00000010	shift only
0000101010101010	0001101001000000	00000001	add, then shift
0010010011101010	0011010010000000	00000000	shift only

$$105 \times 90 = 9450$$

Multiplication on ARM

On the ARM processor, the algorithm to multiply two 32-bit unsigned integers is very efficient:

```
1      mov     r0, #0    @ r0 = low-order word of result
2      mov     r1, #0    @ r1 = high-order word of result
3      ldr     r2, =x    @ load pointer to multiplicand
4      ldr     r2, [r2]  @ r2<-low-order word of multiplicand
5      mov     r3, #0    @ r3<-high-order word of multiplicand
6      ldr     ip, =y    @ load pointer to multiplier
7      ldr     ip, [ip]  @ ip<-multiplier
8  loop: tst     ip, #1    @ is y odd?
9      addnes  r0,r0,r2  @ add and set flags if y is odd
10     tst     ip, #1    @ previous add may have changed flags
11     adcne   r1,r1,r3  @ add and use carry flag if y is odd
12     lsls   r2,r2,#1  @ shift lsw of x left into carry bit
13     lsl    r3,r3,#1  @ make room for the carry bit is msw
14     adc    r3,r3,#0  @ add carry bit to msw of x
15     lsr    ip,ip,#1  @ shift y right
16     bne    loop     @ if y==0, we are done
```

Short Multiplication on ARM

If we only want a 32-bit result, we can make it even more efficient:

```
1  mov    r0, #0    @ r0 is result
2  ldr    ip, =y    @ ip is multiplier
3  ldr    ip, [ip]
4  ldr    r2, =x    @ r2 is multiplicand
5  ldr    r2, [r2]
6  lsr    ip, ip, #1 @ shift y right carry<-lsb
7  loop:
8  addcs  r0, r0, r2 @ add if carry is set
9  lsl    r2, r2, #1 @ shift multiplicand left
10 lsr    ip, ip, #1 @ shift y right carry<-lsb
11 bne    loop      @ if y==0, we are done
```

If x or y is a constant, then we don't need the loop!

Multiplication by a Constant

Suppose we want to multiply a number x by 10_{10} .

$10_{10} = 1010_2$, so we will add x shifted left 1 bit plus x shifted left 3 bits

```
1  ldr    r0, =x
2  ldr    r0, [r0]           @ load x
3  lsl    r0, r0, #1         @ shift x left one bit
4  add    r0, r0, r0, lsl #2 @ shift two more bits and add
```

Now suppose we want to multiply a number x by 11_{10} .

$11_{10} = 1011_2$, so we will add x plus x shifted left 1 bit plus x shifted left 3 bits

```
1  ldr    r1, =x
2  ldr    r1, [r1]           @ load x
3  add    r0, r1, r1, lsl #1 @ shift one bit and add
4  add    r0, r0, r1, lsl #3 @ shift three bits and add
```

Multiplication by a Constant (continued)

Now suppose we want to multiply a number x by 1000_{10} .

$$1000_{10} = 1111101000_2$$

It looks like we need 1 shift plus 5 add/shift operations,
or 6 add/shift operations... but we can do better.

```
1  ldr    r1, =x
2  ldr    r1, [r1]           @ load x
3  add    r0, r1, r1, lsl #1 @ shift and add: r0<-x*3
4  add    r0, r0, r0, lsl #2 @ r0<-x*3 + x*3*4 (x*15)
5  add    r0, r1, r0, lsl #1 @ r0<-x + x*15*2 (x*31)
6  lsl    r0, r0, #5         @ r0<-x*31*32 (x*992)
7  add    r0, r0, r1, lsl #3 @ r0<-x*992 + x*8
```

If we inspect the constant multiplier, we can usually find a pattern
to exploit that will save a few instructions.

Multiplication by a Constant (continued)

Now suppose we want to multiply a number x by 255_{10} .

$$255_{10} = 11111111_2$$

It looks like we need 7 add/shift operations... but we can do it with 3.

```
1  ldr    r1, =x
2  ldr    r1, [r1]          @ load x
3  add   r0,r1,r1,lsl #1 @ shift and add: r0<-x*3
4  add   r0,r0,r0,lsl #2 @ r0<-x*3 + x*3*4 (x*15)
5  add   r0,r0,r0,lsl #4 @ r0<-x*15 + x*15*16 (x*255)
```

This may be faster than a hardware multiply.

But why not multiply x by 256 then subtract x ?

```
1  @ x is currently stored in r1
2  rsb   r0,r1,r1,lsl #8 @ r1 <- x*256-x
```

This *is* faster than a hardware multiply.

Multiplication of Large Numbers

$$\begin{array}{r} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline a_1 & a_0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \times \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline b_1 & b_0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a_0 \times b_0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a_0 \times b_1 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a_1 \times b_0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a_1 \times b_1 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{Product of } a \times b \\ \hline \end{array} \end{array}$$

Long Division

Binary division is a sequence of shift and subtract operations.

$$\begin{array}{r} 949 \\ 13 \overline{) 12345} \\ \underline{11700} \\ 645 \\ \underline{520} \\ 125 \\ \underline{117} \\ 8 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1110110101 \\ 1101 \overline{) 11000000111001} \\ \underline{110100000000} \\ 1011000111001 \\ \underline{110100000000} \\ 100100111001 \\ \underline{1101000000} \\ 1010111001 \\ \underline{11010000} \\ 100011001 \\ \underline{11010000} \\ 1001001 \\ \underline{110100} \\ 10101 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1000 \end{array}$$

Algorithm for Division: Step 1

Shift divisor Left until it is greater than dividend and count the number of shifts.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 94 \div 7 = \\
 \overline{)1011110} \\
 \underline{11000} \\
 100110 \\
 \underline{11100} \\
 1010 \\
 \underline{111} \\
 11
 \end{array}$$

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Algorithm for Division: Step 2

Subtract if possible, then shift to the right. Repeat while Counter ≥ 0 .

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Divisor $>$ Dividend: No subtract, shift 0 into Quotient, decrement Counter, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1

Divisor \leq Dividend: Subtract, shift 1 into Quotient, decrement Counter, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Dividend:	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Divisor \leq Dividend: Subtract, shift 1 into Quotient, decrement Counter, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Divisor $>$ Dividend: No subtract, shift 0 into Quotient, decrement Counter, shift Dividend right

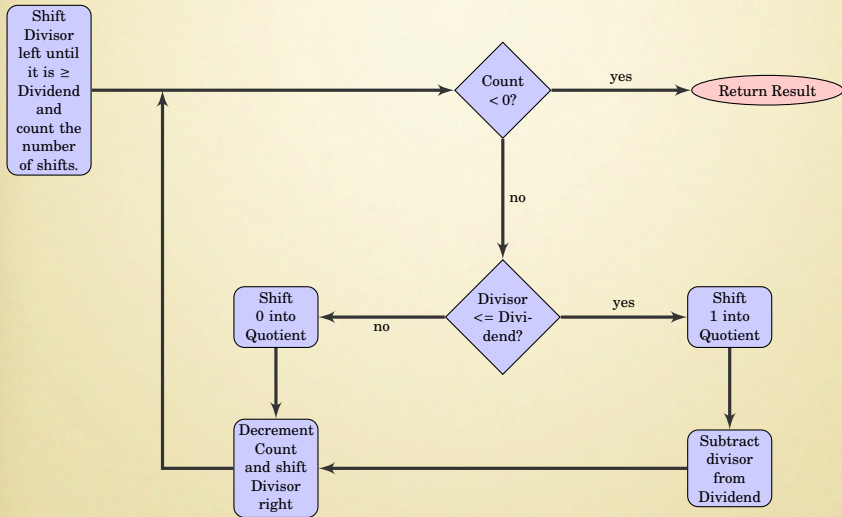
Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Counter:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Divisor \leq Dividend: Subtract, shift 1 into Quotient, decrement Counter, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Counter:	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Counter $<$ 0: We are finished. Bonus! The modulus (remainder) is in the Dividend register!

Flowchart for Division



Modified Algorithm for Division: Step 1

Instead of counting the shifts, shift a bit left in another register.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 94 \div 7 = \\
 \hline
 1101 \\
 111 \overline{)1011110} \\
 \underline{111000} \\
 100110 \\
 \underline{11100} \\
 1010 \\
 \underline{111} \\
 11
 \end{array}$$

Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Modified Algorithm for Division: Step 2

Subtract if possible, then shift to the right. Repeat while Power > 0.

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Divisor > Dividend:
shift Power right, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

Divisor ≤ Dividend:
Dividend -= Divisor,
Quotient += Power, shift Power right, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Dividend:	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Divisor ≤ Dividend:
Dividend -= Divisor,
Quotient += Power, shift Power right, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Divisor > Dividend:
shift Power right, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Divisor ≤ Dividend:
Dividend -= Divisor,
Quotient += Power, shift Power right, shift Dividend right

Quotient:	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
Dividend:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Divisor:	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Power:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Power = 0: We are finished. Bonus! The modulus (remainder) is in the Dividend register!

Division on ARM

```
1  udiv32:  cmp    r1,#0      @ if divisor == zero
2          beq    qudiv32   @  exit immediately
3          mov    r2,r1     @ move divisor to r2
4          mov    r1,r0     @ move dividend to r1
5          mov    r0,#0     @ clear r0 to accumulate result
6          mov    r3,#1     @ set "current" bit in r3
7  divstrt: cmp    r2,#0     @ WHILE (msb of r2 != 1)
8          blt    divloop   @
9          cmp    r2,r1     @ && (r2 < r1)
10         lslls  r2,r2,#1   @  shift dividend left
11         lslls  r3,r3,#1   @  shift "current" bit left
12         bls    divstrt   @ end WHILE
13  divloop: cmp    r1,r2     @ if dividend >= divisor
14         subhs  r1,r1,r2   @  subtract divisor from dividend
15         addhs  r0,r0,r3   @  set "current" bit in the result
16         lsr    r2,r2,#1   @ shift dividend right
17         lsrs   r3,r3,#1   @ Shift current bit right into carry
18         bcc    divloop   @ If carry not clear, we are done
19  qudiv32: mov    pc,lr
```

Division by a Constant

In general, division is slow, but division by a constant c can be simplified to a multiply by the reciprocal of c .

$$x \div c = x \times \frac{1}{c}$$

But we have to do it in binary using only integers.

$$x \div c = x \times \frac{2^n}{c} \times 2^{-n}$$

Multiplying by 2^n is the same as shifting left by n bits. Multiplying by 2^{-n} is done by shifting right by n bits. Let

$$m = \frac{2^n}{c}.$$

We want to choose n such that m is as large as possible with the number of bits we are given.

Division by a Constant - Example

Suppose we want efficient code to calculate $x \div 23$ using 8-bit signed integer multiplication.

Find $m = \frac{2^n}{c}$, such that $01111111_2 \geq m \geq 01000000_2$.

If we choose $n=11$, then

$$m = \frac{2^{11}}{23} \rightarrow$$

In 8 bits, m is 01011001_2 or 59_{16} .

After calculating $y = x \times m$, it will be necessary to shift y right by 11 bits.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1011001 \\ 10111 \overline{) 100000000000} \\ \underline{10111000000} \\ 1001000000 \\ \underline{101110000} \\ 11010000 \\ \underline{10111000} \\ 11000 \\ \underline{10111} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Division by a Constant - Example (continued)

The result for some values of x may be incorrect due to rounding error.

If the divisor is positive, increment the reciprocal value by one in order to alleviate these errors.

To calculate $101_{10} \div 23_{10}$:

$$\begin{array}{r} 01100101 \\ \times 01011010 \\ \hline 01100101 \\ 01100101 \\ 01100101 \\ 01100101 \\ \hline 10001110000010 \end{array}$$

10001110000010_2 shifted right 11_{10} bits is : $100_2 = 4_{10}$.

If the modulus is required, it can be calculated as: $101 - (4 \times 23) = 9$

Division by a Constant on ARM

On the Arm, we can divide by 23 very quickly:

```
1  @ The following code will calculate r2/23
2  @ It will leave the quotient in r0 and the remainder in r1
3  @ It will also use register r3 as a temporary variable
4  ldr    r3,=0x590B2165 @ load 1/23 shifted left by 35 bits
5  smull  r0,r1,r3,r2    @ multiply (3 to 7 clock cycles)
6  mov    r3,r2,asr #31  @ get sign of numerator (0 or -1)
7  rsb   r0,r3,r1,asr#3 @ shift right and adjust for sign
8                               @ now get the modulus, if needed
9  mov    r1,#23         @ move denominator to r1
10 mul   r1,r1,r0        @ multiply denominator by quotient
11 sub   r1,r2,r1        @ subtract that from numerator
```

Formula for Finding Reciprocal

The value of m can be directly computed by using the equation

$$m = \frac{2^{p + \lceil \log_2 c \rceil - 1}}{c} + 1, \quad (1)$$

where p is the desired number of bits of precision. For example, to divide by the constant 33, with 16 bits of precision, we compute m as

$$m = \frac{2^{16+5-1}}{33} + 1 = \frac{2^{20}}{33} + 1 = 31776.030303 \approx 31776 = 7C20_{16}.$$

Therefore, multiplying a 16 bit number by $7C20_{16}$ and then shifting right 20 bits is equivalent to dividing by 33.

Uses for These Techniques

98% of computing devices are embedded.

- In 2012, the global market for embedded systems was about \$1.47 trillion.
- The annual growth rate is about 14%
- Forecasts predict over 40 billion devices will be sold in 2020.

Most embedded systems are cost sensitive and use very small processors.

Some very common embedded processors are the:

- PicMicro PIC family
- Atmel AVR family,
- Intel 8051 family, and the
- Motorola 68HC11 family.

The 68HC11, 8051, AVR200+, and PIC18+ all have an 8-bit by 8-bit hardware multiply that produces a 16-bit result.

Smaller, cheaper versions of AVR and PIC have no hardware multiply at all.

Summary

- Understanding the basic mathematical operations can enable the assembly programmer to
 - work with integers of any arbitrary size
 - achieve efficiency that cannot be matched by any other language.

However!

- It is best to focus the assembly programming on areas where the greatest gains can be made.