# flat assembler 1.67

Programmer's Manual

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# Contents

# Chapter 1

# Introduction

This chapter contains all the most important information you need to begin using the flat assembler. If you are experienced assembly language programmer, you should read at least this chapter before using this compiler.

## 1.1 Compiler overview

Flat assembler is a fast assembly language compiler for the x86 architecture processors, which does multiple passes to optimize the size of generated machine code. It is self–compilable and versions for different operating systems are provided. They are designed to be used from the system command line and they should not differ in behavior.

This document describes also the IDE version designed for the Windows system, which uses the graphical interface instead of console and has the integrated editor. But from the view of compilation it has exactly the same functionality as all the console versions, and so later parts (beginning from 1.2) of this document are common with other releases. The executable of the IDE version is called `fasmw.exe`, while `fasm.exe` is the command line version.

### 1.1.1 System requirements

All versions require the x86 architecture 32–bit processor (at least 80386), although they can produce programs for the x86 architecture 16–bit processors, too. Windows console version requires any Win32 operating system, while Windows GUI version requires the Win32 GUI system version 4.0 or higher, so it should run on all systems compatible with Windows 95.

The example source provided with this version require you have environment variable `INCLUDE` set to the path of the `include` directory, which is the part of flat assembler package. If such variable already exists in your system and contains paths used by some other program, it's enough to add the new path to it (the different paths should be separated with semicolons). If you don't want to define such variable in the system, or don't know how to do it, you can set it for the flat assembler IDE only by editing the `fasmw.ini` file in its directory (this file is created by `fasmw.exe` when it's executed, but you can also create it by yourself). In this case you should add the `Include` value into the `Environment` section. For example, when you have unpacked the flat assembler files into the `c:\fasmw` directory, you should put the following two lines into your `c:\fasmw\fasmw.ini` file:

```
[Environment]
Include = c:\fasmw\include
```

If you don't define the `INCLUDE` environment variable properly, you will have to manually provide the full path to the Win32 includes in every program you want to compile.

## 1.1.2   Compiler usage

To start working with flat assembler, simply double click on the icon of `fasmw.exe` file, or drag the icon of your source file onto it. You can also later open new source files with the *Open* command from the *File* menu, or by dragging the files into the editor window. You can have multiple source files opened at one time, each one is represented by one tab button at the bottom of the editor window. To select file for editing, click on the corresponding tab with left mouse button. Compiler by default operates on the file you are currently editing, but you can force it to always operate on some particular file by clicking the appropriate tab with right mouse button and selecting the *Assign* command. Only single file can be assigned to compiler at one time.

When your source file is ready, you can execute the compiler with *Compile* command from the *Run* menu. When the compilation is successful, compiler will display the summary of compilation process; otherwise it will display the information about error that occurred. Compilation summary includes the information of how many passes was done, how much time it took, and how many bytes were written into destination file. It also contains a text field called *Display*, in which will appear any messages from the `display` directives in source (see 2.2.5). Error summary consists at least of the error message and a text field *Display*, which has the same purpose as above. If error is related to some specific line of source code, the summary contains also a text

field *Instruction*, which contains the preprocessed form of instruction that caused an error if the error occured after the preprocessor stage (otherwise it's empty) and the *Source* list, which shows location of all the source lines related to this error, when you select a line from this list, it will be at the same time selected in the editor window (if file which contains that line is not loaded, it will be automatically added).

The *Run* command also executes the compiler, and in case of successful compilation it runs the compiled program if only it is one of the formats that can be run in Windows environment, otherwise you'll get a message that such type of file cannot be executed. If an error occurs, compiler displays information about it in the same form as if the *Compile* command was used.

If the compiler runs out of memory, you can increase the memory allocation in the *Compiler setup* dialog, which you can start from the *Options* menu. You can specify there the amount of kilobytes that the compiler should use, and also the priority of the compiler's thread.

### 1.1.3 Editor options

In the *Options* menu resides also a list of editor options, which may be turned on or off and affect the behavior of editor. This section describes these options.

*Secure selection* – when you turn this option on, the selected block never gets deleted when you start typing. When you do any text–changing operation, the selection is cancelled, not affecting in any way the text that was selected, and then the command is performed. When this option is off and you start typing, the current selection is discarded, also Del key simply deletes the selected block (when secure selection is on you have to use Ctrl+Del).

*Automatic brackets* – when you type any of the opening brackets, the closing one is automatically put just after caret.

*Automatic indents* – when you press Enter to start a new line, the caret is moved into the new line at the same position, where in the previous line the first non-blank character is placed. If you are breaking the line, and there were some non-blank characters after the caret when you pressed Enter, they are moved into the new line at the position of indent, any blank characters that were between the caret and them are ignored.

*Smart tabulation* – when you press Tab, it moves you to the position just below the next sequence of non-blank characters in the line above starting from the position just above where you were. If no such sequence is found in line above, the standard tabulation size of 8 characters is used.

*Optimal fill on saving* – with this option enabled, when the file is saved, all blank areas are filled with the optimal combination of tabs and spaces to get the smaller file size. If this option is off, the blank areas are saved as filled with spaces (but the spaces at the ends of lines are not saved).

*Revive dead keys* – when this option is turned on, it disables inside the editor the so–called dead keys (keys that don't immediately generate the character, but wait for a next key to decide what character to put – usually you enter the character of a dead key by pressing a space key after it). It may be useful if key for entering some of the characters that you need to enter often into assembly source is a dead key and you don't need this functionality for writing programs.

### 1.1.4   Executing compiler from command line

To perform compilation from the command line you need to execute the `fasm.exe` executable, providing two parameters – first should be name of source file, second should be name of destination file. If no second parameter is given, the name for output file will be guessed automatically. After displaying short information about the program name and version, compiler will read the data from source file and compile it. When the compilation is successful, compiler will write the generated code to the destination file and display the summary of compilation process; otherwise it will display the information about error that occurred.

The source file should be a text file, and can be created in any text editor. Line breaks are accepted in both DOS and Unix standards, tabulators are treated as spaces.

In the command line you can also include `-m` option followed by a number, which specifies how many kilobytes of memory flat assembler should maximally use. In case of DOS version this options limits only the usage of extended memory. The `-p` option followed by a number can be used to specify the limit for number of passes the assembler performs. If code cannot be generated within specified amount of passes, the assembly will be terminated with an error message. The maximum value of this setting is 65536, while the default limit, used when no such option is included in command line, is 100. It is also possible to limit the number of passes the assembler performs, with the `-p` option followed by a number specifying the maximum number of passes.

There are no command line options that would affect the output of compiler, flat assembler requires only the source code to include the information it really needs. For example, to specify output format you specify it by using the `format` directive at the beginning of source.

## 1.1.5   Command line compiler messages

As it is stated above, after the successful compilation, the compiler displays the compilation summary. It includes the information of how many passes was done, how much time it took, and how many bytes were written into the destination file. The following is an example of the compilation summary:

```
flat assembler  version 1.66
38 passes, 5.3 seconds, 77824 bytes.
```

In case of error during the compilation process, the program will display an error message. For example, when compiler can't find the input file, it will display the following message:

```
flat assembler  version 1.66
error: source file not found.
```

If the error is connected with a specific part of source code, the source line that caused the error will be also displayed. Also placement of this line in the source is given to help you finding this error, for example:

```
flat assembler  version 1.66
example.asm [3]:
        mob     ax,1
error: illegal instruction.
```

It means that in the third line of the `example.asm` file compiler has encountered an unrecognized instruction. When the line that caused error contains a macroinstruction, also the line in macroinstruction definition that generated the erroneous instruction is displayed:

```
flat assembler  version 1.66
example.asm [6]:
        stoschar 7
example.asm [3] stoschar [1]:
        mob     al,char
error: illegal instruction.
```

It means that the macroinstruction in the sixth line of the `example.asm` file generated an unrecognized instruction with the first line of its definition.

### 1.1.6   Output formats

By default, when there is no `format` directive in source file, flat assembler simply puts generated instruction codes into output, creating this way flat binary file. By default it generates 16–bit code, but you can always turn it into the 16–bit or 32–bit mode by using `use16` or `use32` directive. Some of the output formats switch into 32–bit mode, when selected – more information about formats which you can choose can be found in 2.4.

The extension of destination file is chosen automatically by compiler, depending on the selected output format.

All output code is always in the order in which it was entered into the source file.

## 1.2   Assembly syntax

The information provided below is intended mainly for the assembler programmers that have been using some other assembly compilers before. If you are beginner, you should look for the assembly programming tutorials.

Flat assembler by default uses the Intel syntax for the assembly instructions, although you can customize it using the preprocessor capabilities (macroinstructions and symbolic constants). It also has its own set of the directives – the instructions for compiler.

All symbols defined inside the sources are case–sensitive.

| Operator | Bits | Bytes |
|:--------:|:----:|:-----:|
| byte     | 8    | 1     |
| word     | 16   | 2     |
| dword    | 32   | 4     |
| fword    | 48   | 6     |
| pword    | 48   | 6     |
| qword    | 64   | 8     |
| tbyte    | 80   | 10    |
| tword    | 80   | 10    |
| dqword   | 128  | 16    |

Table 1.1: Size operators.

| Type | Bits | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| General | 8 | al | cl | dl | bl | ah | ch | dh | bh |
| | 16 | ax | cx | dx | bx | sp | bp | si | di |
| | 32 | eax | ecx | edx | ebx | esp | ebp | esi | edi |
| Segment | 16 | es | cs | ss | ds | fs | gs | | |
| Control | 32 | cr0 | | cr2 | cr3 | cr4 | | | |
| Debug | 32 | dr0 | dr1 | dr2 | dr3 | | | dr6 | dr7 |
| FPU | 80 | st0 | st1 | st2 | st3 | st4 | st5 | st6 | st7 |
| MMX | 64 | mm0 | mm1 | mm2 | mm3 | mm4 | mm5 | mm6 | mm7 |
| SSE | 128 | xmm0 | xmm1 | xmm2 | xmm3 | xmm4 | xmm5 | xmm6 | xmm7 |

Table 1.2: Registers.

## 1.2.1 Instruction syntax

Instructions in assembly language are separated by line breaks, and one instruction is expected to fill the one line of text. If a line contains a semicolon, except for the semicolons inside the quoted strings, the rest of this line is the comment and compiler ignores it. If a line ends with \ character (eventually the semicolon and comment may follow it), the next line is attached at this point.

Each line in source is the sequence of items, which may be one of the three types. One type are the symbol characters, which are the special characters that are individual items even when are not spaced from the other ones. Any of the +-*/=<>()[]{}:,|&~#' is the symbol character. The sequence of other characters, separated from other items with either blank spaces or symbol characters, is a symbol. If the first character of symbol is either a single or double quote, it integrates the any sequence of characters following it, even the special ones, into a quoted string, which should end with the same character, with which it began (the single or double quote) – however if there are two such characters in a row (without any other character between them), they are integrated into quoted string as just one of them and the quoted string continues then. The symbols other than symbol characters and quoted strings can be used as names, so are also called the name symbols.

Every instruction consists of the mnemonic and the various number of operands, separated with commas. The operand can be register, immediate value or a data addressed in memory, it can also be preceded by size operator to define or override its size (table 1.1). Names of available registers you can find in table 1.2, their sizes cannot be overridden. Immediate value can be specified by any numerical expression.

When operand is a data in memory, the address of that data (also any nu-
merical expression, but it may contain registers) should be enclosed in square
brackets or preceded by `ptr` operator. For example instruction `mov eax,3`
will put the immediate value 3 into the `eax` register, instruction `mov eax,[7]`
will put the 32–bit value from the address 7 into `eax` and the instruction
`mov byte [7],3` will put the immediate value 3 into the byte at address 7,
it can also be written as `mov byte ptr 7,3`. To specify which segment reg-
ister should be used for addressing, segment register name followed with a
colon should be put just before the address value (inside the square brackets
or after the `ptr` operator).

## 1.2.2   Data definitions

To define data or reserve a space for it, use one of the directives listed in
table 1.3. The data definition directive should be followed by one or more of
numerical expressions, separated with commas. These expressions define the
values for data cells of size depending on which directive is used. For example
`db 1,2,3` will define the three bytes of values 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

The `db` and `du` directives also accept the quoted string values of any
length, which will be converted into chain of bytes when `db` is used and into
chain of words with zeroed high byte when `du` is used. For example `db 'abc'`
will define the three bytes of values 61, 62 and 63.

The `dp` directive and its synonym `df` accept the values consisting of two
numerical expressions separated with colon, the first value will become the
high word and the second value will become the low double word of the far
pointer value. Also `dd` accepts such pointers consisting of two word values
separated with colon, and `dt` accepts the word and quad word value sepa-
rated with colon, the quad word is stored first. The `dt` directive with single
expression as parameter accepts only floating point values and creates data
in FPU double extended precision format.

Any of the above directive allows the usage of special `dup` operator to
make multiple copies of given values. The count of duplicates should precede
this operator and the value to duplicate should follow – it can even be the
chain of values separated with commas, but such set of values needs to be
enclosed with parenthesis, like `db 5 dup (1,2)`, which defines five copies of
the given two byte sequence.

The `file` is a special directive and its syntax is different. This directive
includes a chain of bytes from file and it should be followed by the quoted
file name, then optionally numerical expression specifying offset in file pre-
ceded by the colon, then – also optionally – comma and numerical expression
specifying count of bytes to include (if no count is specified, all data up to

the end of file is included). For example `file 'data.bin'` will include the whole file as binary data and `file 'data.bin':10h,4` will include only four bytes starting at offset 10h.

| Size (bytes) | Define data | Reserve data |
|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| 1 | db<br>file | rb |
| 2 | dw<br>du | rw |
| 4 | dd | rd |
| 6 | dp<br>df | rp<br>rf |
| 8 | dq | rq |
| 10 | dt | rt |

Table 1.3: Data directives.

The data reservation directive should be followed by only one numerical expression, and this value defines how many cells of the specified size should be reserved. All data definition directives also accept the `?` value, which means that this cell should not be initialized to any value and the effect is the same as by using the data reservation directive. The uninitialized data may not be included in the output file, so its values should be always considered unknown.

## 1.2.3   Constants and labels

In the numerical expressions you can also use constants or labels instead of numbers. To define the constant or label you should use the specific directives. Each label can be defined only once and it is accessible from the any place of source (even before it was defined). Constant can be redefined many times, but in this case it is accessible only after it was defined, and is always equal to the value from last definition before the place where it's used. When a constant is defined only once in source, it is – like the label – accessible from anywhere.

The definition of constant consists of name of the constant followed by the `=` character and numerical expression, which after calculation will become the value of constant. This value is always calculated at the time the constant is defined. For example you can define `count` constant by using the directive

`count = 17`, and then use it in the assembly instructions, like `mov cx,count`
– which will become `mov cx,17` during the compilation process.

There are different ways to define labels. The simplest is to follow the
name of label by the colon, this directive can even be followed by the other
instruction in the same line. It defines the label whose value is equal to
offset of the point where it's defined. This method is usually used to label
the places in code. The other way is to follow the name of label (without a
colon) by some data directive. It defines the label with value equal to offset
of the beginning of defined data, and remembered as a label for data with
cell size as specified for that data directive in table 1.3.

The label can be treated as constant of value equal to offset of labeled
code or data. For example when you define data using the labeled directive
`char db 224`, to put the offset of this data into `bx` register you should use
`mov bx,char` instruction, and to put the value of byte addressed by `char`
label to `dl` register, you should use `mov dl,[char]` (or `mov dl,ptr char`).
But when you try to assemble `mov ax,[char]`, it will cause an error, because
fasm compares the sizes of operands, which should be equal. You can force
assembling that instruction by using size override: `mov ax,word [char]`,
but remember that this instruction will read the two bytes beginning at
`char` address, while it was defined as a one byte.

The last and the most flexible way to define labels is to use `label` direc-
tive. This directive should be followed by the name of label, then optionally
size operator and then – also optionally `at` operator and the numerical ex-
pression defining the address at which this label should be defined. For
example `label wchar word at char` will define a new label for the 16–bit
data at the address of `char`. Now the instruction `mov ax,[wchar]` will be af-
ter compilation the same as `mov ax,word [char]`. If no address is specified,
`label` directive defines the label at current offset. Thus `mov [wchar],57568`
will copy two bytes while `mov [char],224` will copy one byte to the same
address.

The label whose name begins with dot is treated as local label, and its
name is attached to the name of last global label (with name beginning with
anything but dot) to make the full name of this label. So you can use the
short name (beginning with dot) of this label anywhere before the next global
label is defined, and in the other places you have to use the full name. Label
beginning with two dots are the exception – they are like global, but they
don't become the new prefix for local labels.

The `@@` name means anonymous label, you can have defined many of them
in the source. Symbol `@b` (or equivalent `@r`) references the nearest preced-
ing anonymous label, symbol `@f` references the nearest following anonymous
label. These special symbol are case–insensitive.

## 1.2.4 Numerical expressions

In the above examples all the numerical expressions were the simple numbers, constants or labels. But they can be more complex, by using the arithmetical or logical operators for calculations at compile time. All these operators with their priority values are listed in table 1.4. The operations with higher priority value will be calculated first, you can of course change this behavior by putting some parts of expression into parenthesis. The `+`, `-`, `*` and `/` are standard arithmetical operations, `mod` calculates the remainder from division. The `and`, `or`, `xor`, `shl`, `shr` and `not` perform the same logical operations as assembly instructions of those names. The `rva` performs the conversion of an address into the relocatable offset and is specific to some of the output formats (see 2.4).

| Priority | Operators |
|:--------:|:---------:|
| 0 | + |
|   | - |
| 1 | * |
|   | / |
| 2 | mod |
| 3 | and |
|   | or |
|   | xor |
| 4 | shl |
|   | shr |
| 5 | not |
| 6 | rva |

Table 1.4: Arithmetical and logical operators by priority.

The numbers in the expression are by default treated as a decimal, binary numbers should have the `b` letter attached at the end, octal number end with `o` letter, hexadecimal numbers should begin with `0x` characters (like in C language) or with the `$` character (like in Pascal language) or they should end with `h` letter. Also quoted string, when encountered in expression, will be converted into number – the first character will become the least significant byte of number.

The numerical expression used as an address value can also contain any of general registers used for addressing, they can be added and multiplied by appropriate values, as it is allowed for x86 architecture instructions.

There are also some special symbols that can be used inside the numerical expression. First is `$`, which is always equal to the value of current offset, while `$$` is equal to base address of current addressing space. The other one is `%`, which is the number of current repeat in parts of code that are repeated using some special directives (see 2.2). There's also `%t` symbol, which is always equal to the current time stamp.

Any numerical expression can also consist of single floating point value (flat assembler does not allow any floating point operations at compilation time) in the scientific notation, they can end with the `f` letter to be recognized, otherwise they should contain at least one of the `.` or `E` characters. So `1.0`, `1E0` and `1f` define the same floating point value, while simple `1` defines an integer value.

### 1.2.5   Jumps and calls

The operand of any jump or call instruction can be preceded not only by the size operator, but also by one of the operators specifying type of the jump: `short`, `near` of `far`. For example, when assembler is in 16–bit mode, instruction `jmp dword [0]` will become the far jump and when assembler is in 32–bit mode, it will become the near jump. To force this instruction to be treated differently, use the `jmp near dword [0]` or `jmp far dword [0]` form.

When operand of near jump is the immediate value, assembler will generate the shortest variant of this jump instruction if possible (but won't create 32–bit instruction in 16–bit mode nor 16–bit instruction in 32–bit mode, unless there is a size operator stating it). By specifying the jump type you can force it to always generate long variant (for example `jmp near 0`) or to always generate short variant and terminate with an error when it's impossible (for example `jmp short 0`).

### 1.2.6   Size settings

When instruction uses some memory addressing, by default the smallest form of instruction is generated by using the short displacement if only address value fits in the range. This can be overridden using the `word` or `dword` operator before the address inside the square brackets (or after the `ptr` operator), which forces the long displacement of appropriate size to be made. In case when address is not relative to any registers, those operators allow also to choose the appropriate mode of absolute addressing.

Instructions `adc`, `add`, `and`, `cmp`, `or`, `sbb`, `sub` and `xor` with first operand being 16–bit or 32–bit are by default generated in shortened 8–bit form when

the second operand is immediate value fitting in the range for signed 8-bit values. It also can be overridden by putting the `word` or `dword` operator before the immediate value. The similar rules applies to the `imul` instruction with the last operand being immediate value.

Immediate value as an operand for `push` instruction without a size operator is by default treated as a word value if assembler is in 16–bit mode and as a double word value if assembler is in 32–bit mode, shorter 8–bit form of this instruction is used if possible, `word` or `dword` size operator forces the `push` instruction to be generated in longer form for specified size. `pushw` and `pushd` mnemonics force assembler to generate 16-bit or 32-bit code without forcing it to use the longer form of instruction.

# Chapter 2

# Instruction set

This chapter provides the detailed information about the instructions and directives supported by flat assembler. Directives for defining labels were already discussed in 1.2.3, all other directives will be described later in this chapter.

## 2.1 The x86 architecture instructions

In this section you can find both the information about the syntax and purpose the assembly language instructions. If you need more technical information, look for the Intel Architecture Software Developer's Manual.

Assembly instructions consist of the mnemonic (instruction's name) and from zero to three operands. If there are two or more operands, usually first is the destination operand and second is the source operand. Each operand can be register, memory or immediate value (see 1.2 for details about syntax of operands). After the description of each instruction there are examples of different combinations of operands, if the instruction has any.

Some instructions act as prefixes and can be followed by other instruction in the same line, and there can be more than one prefix in a line. Each name of the segment register is also a mnemonic of instruction prefix, altough it is recommended to use segment overrides inside the square brackets instead of these prefixes.

### 2.1.1 Data movement instructions

`mov` transfers a byte, word or double word from the source operand to the destination operand. It can transfer data between general registers, from the general register to memory, or from memory to general register, but it

cannot move from memory to memory. It can also transfer an immediate
value to general register or memory, segment register to general register or
memory, general register or memory to segment register, control or debug
register to general register and general register to control or debug register.
The `mov` can be assembled only if the size of source operand and size of
destination operand are the same. Below are the examples for each of the
allowed combinations:

```
    mov bx,ax        ; general register to general register
    mov [char],al    ; general register to memory
    mov bl,[char]    ; memory to general register
    mov dl,32        ; immediate value to general register
    mov [char],32    ; immediate value to memory
    mov ax,ds        ; segment register to general register
    mov [bx],ds      ; segment register to memory
    mov ds,ax        ; general register to segment register
    mov ds,[bx]      ; memory to segment register
    mov eax,cr0      ; control register to general register
    mov cr3,ebx      ; general register to control register
```

`xchg` swaps the contents of two operands. It can swap two byte operands,
two word operands or two double word operands. Order of operands is not
important. The operands may be two general registers, or general register
with memory. For example:

```
    xchg ax,bx       ; swap two general registers
    xchg al,[char]   ; swap register with memory
```

`push` decrements the stack frame pointer (`esp` register), then transfers the
operand to the top of stack indicated by `esp`. The operand can be memory,
general register, segment register or immediate value of word or double word
size. If operand is an immediate value and no size is specified, it is by
default treated as a word value if assembler is in 16–bit mode and as a double
word value if assembler is in 32–bit mode. `pushw` and `pushd` mnemonics are
variants of this instruction that store the values of word or double word size
respectively. If more operands follow in the same line (separated only with
spaces, not commas), compiler will assemble chain of the `push` instructions
with these operands. The examples are with single operands:

```
    push ax          ; store general register
    push es          ; store segment register
    pushw [bx]       ; store memory
    push 1000h       ; store immediate value
```

`pusha` saves the contents of the eight general register on the stack. This instruction has no operands. There are two version of this instruction, one 16–bit and one 32–bit, assembler automatically generates the right version for current mode, but it can be overridden by using `pushaw` or `pushad` mnemonic to always get the 16–bit or 32–bit version. The 16–bit version of this instruction pushes general registers on the stack in the following order: `ax`, `cx`, `dx`, `bx`, the initial value of `sp` before `ax` was pushed, `bp`, `si` and `di`. The 32–bit version pushes equivalent 32–bit general registers in the same order.

`pop` transfers the word or double word at the current top of stack to the destination operand, and then increments `esp` to point to the new top of stack. The operand can be memory, general register or segment register. `popw` and `popd` mnemonics are variants of this instruction for restoring the values of word or double word size respectively. If more operands separated with spaces follow in the same line, compiler will assemble chain of the `pop` instructions with these operands.

```
pop bx           ; restore general register
pop ds           ; restore segment register
popw [si]        ; restore memory
```

`popa` restores the registers saved on the stack by `pusha` instruction, except for the saved value of `sp` (or `esp`), which is ignored. This instruction has no operands. To force assembling 16–bit or 32–bit version of this instruction use `popaw` or `popad` mnemonic.

## 2.1.2   Type conversion instructions

The type conversion instructions convert bytes into words, words into double words, and double words into quad words. These conversions can be done using the sign extension or zero extension. The sign extension fills the extra bits of the larger item with the value of the sign bit of the smaller item, the zero extension simply fills them with zeros.

`cwd` and `cdq` double the size of value `ax` or `eax` register respectively and store the extra bits into the `dx` or `edx` register. The conversion is done using the sign extension. These instructions have no operands.

`cbw` extends the sign of the byte in `al` throughout `ax`, and `cwde` extends the sign of the word in `ax` throughout `eax`. These instructions also have no operands.

`movsx` converts a byte to word or double word and a word to double word using the sign extension. `movzx` does the same, but it uses the zero extension. The source operand can be general register or memory, while the destination operand must be a general register. For example:

```
movsx ax,al         ; byte register to word register
movsx edx,dl        ; byte register to double word register
movsx eax,ax        ; word register to double word register
movsx ax,byte [bx]  ; byte memory to word register
movsx edx,byte [bx] ; byte memory to double word register
movsx eax,word [bx] ; word memory to double word register
```

### 2.1.3   Binary arithmetic instructions

`add` replaces the destination operand with the sum of the source and destination operands and sets CF if overflow has occurred. The operands may be bytes, words or double words. The destination operand can be general register or memory, the source operand can be general register or immediate value, it can also be memory if the destination operand is register.

```
add ax,bx         ; add register to register
add ax,[si]       ; add memory to register
add [di],al       ; add register to memory
add al,48         ; add immediate value to register
add [char],48     ; add immediate value to memory
```

`adc` sums the operands, adds one if CF is set, and replaces the destination operand with the result. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `add` instruction. An `add` followed by multiple `adc` instructions can be used to add numbers longer than 32 bits.

`inc` adds one to the operand, it does not affect CF. The operand can be a general register or memory, and the size of the operand can be byte, word or double word.

```
inc ax            ; increment register by one
inc byte [bx]     ; increment memory by one
```

`sub` subtracts the source operand from the destination operand and replaces the destination operand with the result. If a borrow is required, the CF is set. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `add` instruction.

`sbb` subtracts the source operand from the destination operand, subtracts one if CF is set, and stores the result to the destination operand. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `add` instruction. A `sub` followed by multiple `sbb` instructions may be used to subtract numbers longer than 32 bits.

`dec` subtracts one from the operand, it does not affect CF. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `inc` instruction.

`cmp` subtracts the source operand from the destination operand. It updates the flags as the `sub` instruction, but does not alter the source and destination operands. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `sub` instruction.

`neg` subtracts a signed integer operand from zero. The effect of this instructon is to reverse the sign of the operand from positive to negative or from negative to positive. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `inc` instruction.

`xadd` exchanges the destination operand with the source operand, then loads the sum of the two values into the destination operand. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `add` instruction.

All the above binary arithmetic instructions update SF, ZF, PF and OF flags. SF is always set to the same value as the result's sign bit, ZF is set when all the bits of result are zero, PF is set when low order eight bits of result contain an even number of set bits, OF is set if result is too large for a positive number or too small for a negative number (excluding sign bit) to fit in destination operand.

`mul` performs an unsigned multiplication of the operand and the accumulator. If the operand is a byte, the processor multiplies it by the contents of `al` and returns the 16–bit result to `ah` and `al`. If the operand is a word, the processor multiplies it by the contents of `ax` and returns the 32–bit result to `dx` and `ax`. If the operand is a double word, the processor multiplies it by the contents of `eax` and returns the 64–bit result in `edx` and `eax`. `mul` sets CF and OF when the upper half of the result is nonzero, otherwise they are cleared. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `inc` instruction.

`imul` performs a signed multiplication operation. This instruction has three variations. First has one operand and behaves in the same way as the `mul` instruction. Second has two operands, in this case destination operand is multiplied by the source operand and the result replaces the destination operand. Destination operand must be a general register, it can be word or double word, source operand can be general register, memory or immediate value. Third form has three operands, the destination operand must be a general register, word or double word in size, source operand can be general register or memory, and third operand must be an immediate value. The source operand is multiplied by the immediate value and the result is stored in the destination register. All the three forms calculate the product to twice the size of operands and set CF and OF when the upper half of the result is nonzero, but second and third form truncate the product to the size of operands. So second and third forms can be also used for unsigned operands because, whether the operands are signed or unsigned, the lower half of the product is the same. Below are the examples for all three forms:

```
imul bl           ; accumulator by register
imul word [si]    ; accumulator by memory
imul bx,cx        ; register by register
imul bx,[si]      ; register by memory
imul bx,10        ; register by immediate value
imul ax,bx,10     ; register by immediate value to register
imul ax,[si],10 ; memory by immediate value to register
```

`div` performs an unsigned division of the accumulator by the operand. The dividend (the accumulator) is twice the size of the divisor (the operand), the quotient and remainder have the same size as the divisor. If divisor is byte, the dividend is taken from `ax` register, the quotient is stored in `al` and the remainder is stored in `ah`. If divisor is word, the upper half of dividend is taken from `dx`, the lower half of dividend is taken from `ax`, the quotient is stored in `ax` and the remainder is stored in `dx`. If divisor is double word, the upper half of dividend is taken from `edx`, the lower half of dividend is taken from `eax`, the quotient is stored in `eax` and the remainder is stored in `edx`. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `mul` instruction.

`idiv` performs a signed division of the accumulator by the operand. It uses the same registers as the `div` instruction, and the rules for the operand are the same.

## 2.1.4   Decimal arithmetic instructions

Decimal arithmetic is performed by combining the binary arithmetic instructions (already described in the prior section) with the decimal arithmetic instructions. The decimal arithmetic instructions are used to adjust the results of a previous binary arithmetic operation to produce a valid packed or unpacked decimal result, or to adjust the inputs to a subsequent binary arithmetic operation so the operation will produce a valid packed or unpacked decimal result.

`daa` adjusts the result of adding two valid packed decimal operands in `al`. `daa` must always follow the addition of two pairs of packed decimal numbers (one digit in each half–byte) to obtain a pair of valid packed decimal digits as results. The carry flag is set if carry was needed. This instruction has no operands.

`das` adjusts the result of subtracting two valid packed decimal operands in `al`. `das` must always follow the subtraction of one pair of packed decimal numbers (one digit in each half–byte) from another to obtain a pair of valid packed decimal digits as results. The carry flag is set if a borrow was needed. This instruction has no operands.

`aaa` changes the contents of register `al` to a valid unpacked decimal number, and zeroes the top four bits. `aaa` must always follow the addition of two unpacked decimal operands in `al`. The carry flag is set and `ah` is incremented if a carry is necessary. This instruction has no operands.

`aas` changes the contents of register `al` to a valid unpacked decimal number, and zeroes the top four bits. `aas` must always follow the subtraction of one unpacked decimal operand from another in `al`. The carry flag is set and `ah` decremented if a borrow is necessary. This instruction has no operands.

`aam` corrects the result of a multiplication of two valid unpacked decimal numbers. `aam` must always follow the multiplication of two decimal numbers to produce a valid decimal result. The high order digit is left in `ah`, the low order digit in `al`. The generalized version of this instruction allows adjustment of the contents of the `ax` to create two unpacked digits of any number base. The standard version of this instruction has no operands, the generalized version has one operand – an immediate value specifying the number base for the created digits.

`aad` modifies the numerator in `ah` and `ah` to prepare for the division of two valid unpacked decimal operands so that the quotient produced by the division will be a valid unpacked decimal number. `ah` should contain the high order digit and `al` the low order digit. This instruction adjusts the value and places the result in `al`, while `ah` will contain zero. The generalized version of this instruction allows adjustment of two unpacked digits of any number base. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `aam` instruction.

### 2.1.5 Logical instructions

`not` inverts the bits in the specified operand to form a one's complement of the operand. It has no effect on the flags. Rules for the operand are the same as for the `inc` instruction.

`and`, `or` and `xor` instructions perform the standard logical operations. They update the SF, ZF and PF flags. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `add` instruction.

`bt`, `bts`, `btr` and `btc` instructions operate on a single bit which can be in memory or in a general register. The location of the bit is specified as an offset from the low order end of the operand. The value of the offset is the taken from the second operand, it either may be an immediate byte or a general register. These instructions first assign the value of the selected bit to CF. `bt` instruction does nothing more, `bts` sets the selected bit to 1, `btr` resets the selected bit to 0, `btc` changes the bit to its complement. The first operand can be word or double word.

```
bt   ax,15       ; test bit in register
bts word [bx],15 ; test and set bit in memory
btr ax,cx        ; test and reset bit in register
btc word [bx],cx ; test and complement bit in memory
```

**bsf** and **bsr** instructions scan a word or double word for first set bit and store the index of this bit into destination operand, which must be general register. The bit string being scanned is specified by source operand, it may be either general register or memory. The ZF flag is set if the entire string is zero (no set bits are found); otherwise it is cleared. If no set bit is found, the value of the destination register is undefined. **bsf** from low order to high order (starting from bit index zero). **bsr** scans from high order to low order (starting from bit index 15 of a word or index 31 of a double word).

```
bsf ax,bx        ; scan register forward
bsr ax,[si]      ; scan memory reverse
```

**shl** shifts the destination operand left by the number of bits specified in the second operand. The destination operand can be byte, word, or double word general register or memory. The second operand can be an immediate value or the **cl** register. The processor shifts zeros in from the right (low order) side of the operand as bits exit from the left side. The last bit that exited is stored in CF. **sal** is a synonym for **shl**.

```
shl al,1         ; shift register left by one bit
shl byte [bx],1  ; shift memory left by one bit
shl ax,cl        ; shift register left by count from cl
shl word [bx],cl ; shift memory left by count from cl
```

**shr** and **sar** shift the destination operand right by the number of bits specified in the second operand. Rules for operands are the same as for the **shl** instruction. **shr** shifts zeros in from the left side of the operand as bits exit from the right side. The last bit that exited is stored in CF. **sar** preserves the sign of the operand by shifting in zeros on the left side if the value is positive or by shifting in ones if the value is negative.

**shld** shifts bits of the destination operand to the left by the number of bits specified in third operand, while shifting high order bits from the source operand into the destination operand on the right. The source operand remains unmodified. The destination operand can be a word or double word general register or memory, the source operand must be a general register, third operand can be an immediate value or the **cl** register.

```
shld ax,bx,1     ; shift register left by one bit
```

```
shld [di],bx,1   ; shift memory left by one bit
shld ax,bx,cl    ; shift register left by count from cl
shld [di],bx,cl  ; shift memory left by count from cl
```

`shrd` shifts bits of the destination operand to the right, while shifting low order bits from the source operand into the destination operand on the left. The source operand remains unmodified. Rules for operands are the same as for the `shld` instruction.

`rol` and `rcl` rotate the byte, word or double word destination operand left by the number of bits specified in the second operand. For each rotation specified, the high order bit that exits from the left of the operand returns at the right to become the new low order bit. `rcl` additionally puts in CF each high order bit that exits from the left side of the operand before it returns to the operand as the low order bit on the next rotation cycle. Rules for operands are the same as for the `shl` instruction.

`ror` and `rcr` rotate the byte, word or double word destination operand right by the number of bits specified in the second operand. For each rotation specified, the low order bit that exits from the right of the operand returns at the left to become the new high order bit. `rcr` additionally puts in CF each low order bit that exits from the right side of the operand before it returns to the operand as the high order bit on the next rotation cycle. Rules for operands are the same as for the `shl` instruction.

`test` performs the same action as the `and` instruction, but it does not alter the destination operand, only updates flags. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `and` instruction.

`bswap` reverses the byte order of a 32–bit general register: bits 0 through 7 are swapped with bits 24 through 31, and bits 8 through 15 are swapped with bits 16 through 23. This instruction is provided for converting little–endian values to big–endian format and vice versa.

```
bswap edx        ; swap bytes in register
```

## 2.1.6  Control transfer instructions

`jmp` unconditionally transfers control to the target location. The destination address can be specified directly within the instruction or indirectly through a register or memory, the acceptable size of this address depends on whether the jump is near or far (it can be specified by preceding the operand with `near` or `far` operator) and whether the instruction is 16–bit or 32–bit. Operand for near jump should be `word` size for 16–bit instruction or the `dword` size for 32–bit instruction. Operand for far jump should be `dword` size for 16–bit

instruction or `pword` size for 32-bit instruction. A direct `jmp` instruction includes the destination address as part of the instruction (and can be preceded by `short`, `near` or `far` operator), the operand specifying address should be the numerical expression for near or short jump, or two numerical expressions separated with colon for far jump, the first specifies selector of segment, the second is the offset within segment. The `pword` operator can be used to force the 32–bit far call, and `dword` to force the 16-bit far call. An indirect `jmp` instruction obtains the destination address indirectly through a register or a pointer variable, the operand should be general register or memory. See also 1.2.5 for some more details.

```
jmp 100h          ; direct near jump
jmp 0FFFFh:0      ; direct far jump
jmp ax            ; indirect near jump
jmp pword [ebx]   ; indirect far jump
```

`call` transfers control to the procedure, saving on the stack the address of the instruction following the `call` for later use by a `ret` (return) instruction. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `jmp` instruction, but the `call` has no short variant of direct instruction and thus it not optimized.

`ret`, `retn` and `retf` instructions terminate the execution of a procedure and transfers control back to the program that originally invoked the procedure using the address that was stored on the stack by the `call` instruction. `ret` is the equivalent for `retn`, which returns from the procedure that was executed using the near call, while `retf` returns from the procedure that was executed using the far call. These instructions default to the size of address appropriate for the current code setting, but the size of address can be forced to 16–bit by using the `retw`, `retnw` and `retfw` mnemonics, and to 32–bit by using the `retd`, `retnd` and `retfd` mnemonics. All these instructions may optionally specify an immediate operand, by adding this constant to the stack pointer, they effectively remove any arguments that the calling program pushed on the stack before the execution of the `call` instruction.

`iret` returns control to an interrupted procedure. It differs from `ret` in that it also pops the flags from the stack into the flags register. The flags are stored on the stack by the interrupt mechanism. It defaults to the size of return address appropriate for the current code setting, but it can be forced to use 16–bit or 32–bit address by using the `iretw` or `iretd` mnemonic.

The conditional transfer instructions are jumps that may or may not transfer control, depending on the state of the CPU flags when the instruction executes. The mnemonics for conditional jumps may be obtained by attaching the condition mnemonic (see table 2.1) to the `j` mnemonic, for example `jc` instruction will transfer the control when the CF flag is set.

The conditional jumps can be short or near, and direct only, and can be optimized (see 1.2.5), the operand should be an immediate value specifying target address.

The `loop` instructions are conditional jumps that use a value placed in `cx` (or `ecx`) to specify the number of repetitions of a software loop. All `loop` instructions automatically decrement `cx` (or `ecx`) and terminate the loop (don't transfer the control) when `cx` (or `ecx`) is zero. It uses `cx` or `ecx` whether the current code setting is 16–bit or 32–bit, but it can be forced to use `cx` with the `loopw` mnemonic or to use `ecx` with the `loopd` mnemonic. `loope` and `loopz` are the synonyms for the same instruction, which acts as the standard `loop`, but also terminates the loop when ZF flag is set. `loopew` and `loopzw` mnemonics force them to use `cx` register while `looped` and `loopzd` force them to use `ecx` register. `loopne` and `loopnz` are the synonyms for the same instructions, which acts as the standard `loop`, but also terminate the loop when ZF flag is not set. `loopnew` and `loopnzw` mnemonics force them to use `cx` register while `loopned` and `loopnzd` force them to use `ecx` register. Every `loop` instruction needs an operand being an immediate value specifying target address, it can be only short jump (in the range of 128 bytes back and 127 bytes forward from the address of instruction following the `loop` instruction).

`jcxz` branches to the label specified in the instruction if it finds a value of zero in `cx`, `jecxz` does the same, but checks the value of `ecx` instead of `cx`. Rules for the operands are the same as for the `loop` instruction.

`int` activates the interrupt service routine that corresponds to the number specified as an operand to the instruction, the number should be in range from 0 to 255. The interrupt service routine terminates with an `iret` instruction that returns control to the instruction that follows `int`. `int3` mnemonic codes the short (one byte) trap that invokes the interrupt 3. `into` instruction invokes the interrupt 4 if the OF flag is set.

`bound` verifies that the signed value contained in the specified register lies within specified limits. An interrupt 5 occurs if the value contained in the register is less than the lower bound or greater than the upper bound. It needs two operands, the first operand specifies the register being tested, the second operand should be memory address for the two signed limit values. The operands can be `word` or `dword` in size.

```
    bound ax,[bx]    ; check word for bounds
    bound eax,[esi]  ; check double word for bounds
```

| Mnemonic | Condition tested | Description |
|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| o | OF = 1 | overflow |
| no | OF = 0 | not overflow |
| c |  | carry |
| b | CF = 1 | below |
| nae |  | not above nor equal |
| nc |  | not carry |
| ae | CF = 0 | above or equal |
| nb |  | not below |
| e | ZF = 1 | equal |
| z |  | zero |
| ne | ZF = 0 | not equal |
| nz |  | not zero |
| be | CF or ZF = 1 | below or equal |
| na |  | not above |
| a | CF or ZF = 0 | above |
| nbe |  | not below nor equal |
| s | SF = 1 | sign |
| ns | SF = 0 | not sign |
| p | PF = 1 | parity |
| pe |  | parity even |
| np | PF = 0 | not parity |
| po |  | parity odd |
| l | SF xor OF = 1 | less |
| nge |  | not greater nor equal |
| ge | SF xor OF = 0 | greater or equal |
| nl |  | not less |
| le | (SF xor OF) or ZF = 1 | less or equal |
| ng |  | not greater |
| g | (SF xor OF) or ZF = 0 | greater |
| nle |  | not less nor equal |

Table 2.1: Conditions.

## 2.1.7   I/O instructions

`in` transfers a byte, word, or double word from an input port to `al`, `ax`, or `eax`. I/O ports can be addressed either directly, with the immediate byte value coded in instruction, or indirectly via the `dx` register. The destination operand should be `al`, `ax`, or `eax` register. The source operand should be an immediate value in range from 0 to 255, or `dx` register.

```
    in al,20h          ; input byte from port 20h
    in ax,dx           ; input word from port addressed by dx
```

   `out` transfers a byte, word, or double word to an output port from `al`, `ax`, or `eax`. The program can specify the number of the port using the same methods as the `in` instruction. The destination operand should be an immediate value in range from 0 to 255, or `dx` register. The source operand should be `al`, `ax`, or `eax` register.

```
    out 20h,ax         ; output word to port 20h
    out dx,al          ; output byte to port addressed by dx
```

## 2.1.8   Strings operations

The string operations operate on one element of a string. A string element may be a byte, a word, or a double word. The string elements are addressed by `si` and `di` (or `esi` and `edi`) registers. After every string operation `si` and/or `di` (or `esi` and/or `edi`) are automatically updated to point to the next element of the string. If DF (direction flag) is zero, the index registers are incremented, if DF is one, they are decremented. The amount of the increment or decrement is 1, 2, or 4 depending on the size of the string element. Every string operation instruction has short forms which have no operands and use `si` and/or `di` when the code type is 16–bit, and `esi` and/or `edi` when the code type is 32–bit. `si` and `esi` by default address data in the segment selected by `ds`, `di` and `edi` always address data in the segment selected by `es`. Short form is obtained by attaching to the mnemonic of string operation letter specifying the size of string element, it should be `b` for byte element, `w` for word element, and `d` for double word element. Full form of string operation needs operands providing the size operator and the memory addresses, which can be `si` or `esi` with any segment prefix, `di` or `edi` always with `es` segment prefix.

   `movs` transfers the string element pointed to by `si` (or `esi`) to the location pointed to by `di` (or `edi`). Size of operands can be `byte`, `word` or `dword`. The destination operand should be memory addressed by `di` or `edi`, the source operand should be memory addressed by `si` or `esi` with any segment prefix.

```
movs byte [di],[si]       ; transfer byte
movs word [es:di],[ss:si]  ; transfer word
movsd                      ; transfer double word
```

cmps subtracts the destination string element from the source string element and updates the flags AF, SF, PF, CF and OF, but it does not change any of the compared elements. If the string elements are equal, ZF is set, otherwise it is cleared. The first operand for this instruction should be the source string element addressed by si or esi with any segment prefix, the second operand should be the destination string element addressed by di or edi.

```
cmpsb                     ; compare bytes
cmps word [ds:si],[es:di]  ; compare words
cmps dword [fs:esi],[edi]  ; compare double words
```

scas subtracts the destination string element from al, ax, or eax (depending on the size of string element) and updates the flags AF, SF, ZF, PF, CF and OF. If the values are equal, ZF is set, otherwise it is cleared. The operand should be the destination string element addressed by di or edi.

```
scas byte [es:di]         ; scan byte
scasw                     ; scan word
scas dword [es:edi]       ; scan double word
```

lods places the source string element into al, ax, or eax. The operand should be the source string element addressed by si or esi with any segment prefix.

```
lods byte [ds:si]         ; load byte
lods word [cs:si]         ; load word
lodsd                     ; load double word
```

stos places the value of al, ax, or eax into the destination string element. Rules for the operand are the same as for the scas instruction.

ins transfers a byte, word, or double word from an input port addressed by dx register to the destination string element. The destination operand should be memory addressed by di or edi, the source operand should be the dx register.

```
insb                      ; input byte
ins word [es:di],dx       ; input word
ins dword [edi],dx        ; input double word
```

outs transfers the source string element to an output port addressed by dx register. The destination operand should be the dx register and the source operand should be memory addressed by si or esi with any segment prefix.

```
outs dx,byte [si]          ; output byte
outsw                      ; output word
outs dx,dword [gs:esi]     ; output double word
```

The repeat prefixes rep, repe/repz, and repne/repnz specify repeated string operation. When a string operation instruction has a repeat prefix, the operation is executed repeatedly, each time using a different element of the string. The repetition terminates when one of the conditions specified by the prefix is satisfied. All three prefixes automatically decrease cx or ecx register (depending whether string operation instruction uses the 16–bit or 32–bit addressing) after each operation and repeat the associated operation until cx or ecx is zero. repe/repz and repne/repnz are used exclusively with the scas and cmps instructions (described below). When these prefixes are used, repetition of the next instruction depends on the zero flag (ZF) also, repe and repz terminate the execution when the ZF is zero, repne and repnz terminate the execution when the ZF is set.

```
rep  movsd        ; transfer multiple double words
repe cmpsb        ; compare bytes until not equal
```

## 2.1.9   Flag control instructions

The flag control instructions provide a method for directly changing the state of bits in the flag register. All instructions described in this section have no operands.

stc sets the CF (carry flag) to 1, clc zeroes the CF, cmc changes the CF to its complement. std sets the DF (direction flag) to 1, cld zeroes the DF, sti sets the IF (interrupt flag) to 1 and therefore enables the interrupts, cli zeroes the IF and therefore disables the interrupts.

lahf copies SF, ZF, AF, PF, and CF to bits 7, 6, 4, 2, and 0 of the ah register. The contents of the remaining bits are undefined. The flags remain unaffected.

sahf transfers bits 7, 6, 4, 2, and 0 from the ah register into SF, ZF, AF, PF, and CF.

pushf decrements esp by two or four and stores the low word or double word of flags register at the top of stack, size of stored data depends on the current code setting. pushfw variant forces storing the word and pushfd forces storing the double word.

`popf` transfers specific bits from the word or double word at the top of stack, then increments `esp` by two or four, this value depends on the current code setting. `popfw` variant forces restoring from the word and `popfd` forces restoring from the double word.

## 2.1.10   Conditional operations

The instructions obtained by attaching the condition mnemonic (see table 2.1) to the `set` mnemonic set a byte to one if the condition is true and set the byte to zero otherwise. The operand should be an 8–bit be general register or the byte in memory.

```
setne al        ; set al if zero flag cleared
seto byte [bx]  ; set byte if overflow
```

`salc` instruction sets the all bits of `al` register when the carry flag is set and zeroes the `al` register otherwise. This instruction has no arguments.

The instructions obtained by attaching the condition mnemonic to the `cmov` mnemonic transfer the word or double word from the general register or memory to the general register only when the condition is true. The destination operand should be general register, the source operand can be general register or memory.

```
cmove ax,bx     ; move when zero flag set
cmovnc eax,[ebx] ; move when carry flag cleared
```

`cmpxchg` compares the value in the `al`, `ax`, or `eax` register with the destination operand. If the two values are equal, the source operand is loaded into the destination operand. Otherwise, the destination operand is loaded into the `al`, `ax`, or `eax` register. The destination operand may be a general register or memory, the source operand must be a general register.

```
cmpxchg dl,bl   ; compare and exchange with register
cmpxchg [bx],dx ; compare and exchange with memory
```

`cmpxchg8b` compares the 64–bit value in `edx` and `eax` registers with the destination operand. If the values are equal, the 64–bit value in `ecx` and `ebx` registers is stored in the destination operand. Otherwise, the value in the destination operand is loaded into `edx` and `eax` registers. The destination operand should be a quad word in memory.

```
cmpxchg8b [bx]  ; compare and exchange 8 bytes
```

## 2.1.11 Miscellaneous instructions

`nop` instruction occupies one byte but affects nothing but the instruction pointer. This instruction has no operands and doesn't perform any operation.

`ud2` instruction generates an invalid opcode exception. This instruction is provided for software testing to explicitly generate an invalid opcode. This is instruction has no operands.

`xlat` replaces a byte in the `al` register with a byte indexed by its value in a translation table addressed by `bx` or `ebx`. The operand should be a byte memory addressed by `bx` or `ebx` with any segment prefix. This instruction has also a short form `xlatb` which has no operands and uses the `bx` or `ebx` address in the segment selected by `ds` depending on the current code setting.

`lds` transfers a pointer variable from the source operand to `ds` and the destination register. The source operand must be a memory operand, and the destination operand must be a general register. The `ds` register receives the segment selector of the pointer while the destination register receives the offset part of the pointer. `les`, `lfs`, `lgs` and `lss` operate identically to `lds` except that rather than `ds` register the `es`, `fs`, `gs` and `ss` is used respectively.

```
    lds bx,[si]      ; load pointer to ds:bx
```

`lea` transfers the offset of the source operand (rather than its value) to the destination operand. The source operand must be a memory operand, and the destination operand must be a general register.

```
    lea dx,[bx+si+1] ; load effective address to dx
```

`cpuid` returns processor identification and feature information in the `eax`, `ebx`, `ecx`, and `edx` registers. The information returned is selected by entering a value in the `eax` register before the instruction is executed. This instruction has no operands.

`pause` instruction delays the execution of the next instruction an implementation specific amount of time. It can be used to improve the performance of spin wait loops. This instruction has no operands.

`enter` creates a stack frame that may be used to implement the scope rules of block–structured high–level languages. A `leave` instruction at the end of a procedure complements an `enter` at the beginning of the procedure to simplify stack management and to control access to variables for nested procedures. The `enter` instruction includes two parameters. The first parameter specifies the number of bytes of dynamic storage to be allocated on the stack for the routine being entered. The second parameter corresponds to the lexical nesting level of the routine, it can be in range from 0 to 31. The specified lexical level determines how many sets of stack frame pointers

the CPU copies into the new stack frame from the preceding frame. This list of stack frame pointers is sometimes called the display. The first word (or double word when code is 32–bit) of the display is a pointer to the last stack frame. This pointer enables a `leave` instruction to reverse the action of the previous `enter` instruction by effectively discarding the last stack frame. After `enter` creates the new display for a procedure, it allocates the dynamic storage space for that procedure by decrementing `esp` by the number of bytes specified in the first parameter. To enable a procedure to address its display, `enter` leaves `bp` (or `ebp`) pointing to the beginning of the new stack frame. If the lexical level is zero, `enter` pushes `bp` (or `ebp`), copies `sp` to `bp` (or `esp` to `ebp`) and then subtracts the first operand from `esp`. For nesting levels greater than zero, the processor pushes additional frame pointers on the stack before adjusting the stack pointer.

```
enter 2048,0      ; enter and allocate 2048 bytes on stack
```

## 2.1.12   System instructions

`lmsw` loads the operand into the machine status word (bits 0 through 15 of `cr0` register), while `smsw` stores the machine status word into the destination operand. The operand for both those instructions can be 16–bit general register or memory, for `smsw` it can also be 32–bit general register.

```
lmsw ax           ; load machine status from register
smsw [bx]         ; store machine status to memory
```

`lgdt` and `lidt` instructions load the values in operand into the global descriptor table register or the interrupt descriptor table register respectively. `sgdt` and `sidt` store the contents of the global descriptor table register or the interrupt descriptor table register in the destination operand. The operand should be a 6 bytes in memory.

```
lgdt [ebx]        ; load global descriptor table
```

`lldt` loads the operand into the segment selector field of the local descriptor table register and `sldt` stores the segment selector from the local descriptor table register in the operand. `ltr` loads the operand into the segment selector field of the task register and `str` stores the segment selector from the task register in the operand. Rules for operand are the same as for the `lmsw` and `smsw` instructions.

`lar` loads the access rights from the segment descriptor specified by the selector in source operand into the destination operand and sets the ZF flag. The destination operand can be a 16-bit or 32-bit general register. The source operand should be a 16-bit general register or memory.

```
lar ax,[bx]        ; load access rights into word
lar eax,dx         ; load access rights into double word
```

**lsl** loads the segment limit from the segment descriptor specified by the selector in source operand into the destination operand and sets the ZF flag. Rules for operand are the same as for the **lar** instruction.

**verr** and **verw** verify whether the code or data segment specified with the operand is readable or writable from the current privilege level. The operand should be a word, it can be general register or memory. If the segment is accessible and readable (for **verr**) or writable (for **verw**) the ZF flag is set, otherwise it's cleared. Rules for operand are the same as for the **lldt** instruction.

**arpl** compares the RPL (requestor's privilege level) fields of two segment selectors. The first operand contains one segment selector and the second operand contains the other. If the RPL field of the destination operand is less than the RPL field of the source operand, the ZF flag is set and the RPL field of the destination operand is increased to match that of the source operand. Otherwise, the ZF flag is cleared and no change is made to the destination operand. The destination operand can be a word general register or memory, the source operand must be a general register.

```
arpl bx,ax         ; adjust RPL of selector in register
arpl [bx],ax       ; adjust RPL of selector in memory
```

**clts** clears the TS (task switched) flag in the **cr0** register. This instruction has no operands.

**lock** prefix causes the processor's bus–lock signal to be asserted during execution of the accompanying instruction. In a multiprocessor environment, the bus–lock signal insures that the processor has exclusive use of any shared memory while the signal is asserted. The **lock** prefix can be prepended only to the following instructions and only to those forms of the instructions where the destination operand is a memory operand: **add**, **adc**, **and**, **btc**, **btr**, **bts**, **cmpxchg**, **cmpxchg8b**, **dec**, **inc**, **neg**, **not**, **or**, **sbb**, **sub**, **xor**, **xadd** and **xchg**. If the **lock** prefix is used with one of these instructions and the source operand is a memory operand, an undefined opcode exception may be generated. An undefined opcode exception will also be generated if the **lock** prefix is used with any instruction not in the above list. The **xchg** instruction always asserts the bus–lock signal regardless of the presence or absence of the **lock** prefix.

**hlt** stops instruction execution and places the processor in a halted state. An enabled interrupt, a debug exception, the BINIT, INIT or the RESET signal will resume execution. This instruction has no operands.

`invlpg` invalidates (flushes) the TLB (translation lookaside buffer) entry specified with the operand, which should be a memory. The processor determines the page that contains that address and flushes the TLB entry for that page.

`rdmsr` loads the contents of a 64–bit MSR (model specific register) of the address specified in the `ecx` register into registers `edx` and `eax`. `wrmsr` writes the contents of registers `edx` and `eax` into the 64–bit MSR of the address specified in the `ecx` register. `rdtsc` loads the current value of the processor's time stamp counter from the 64–bit MSR into the `edx` and `eax` registers. The processor increments the time stamp counter MSR every clock cycle and resets it to 0 whenever the processor is reset. `rdpmc` loads the contents of the 40–bit performance monitoring counter specified in the `ecx` register into registers `edx` and `eax`. These instructions have no operands.

`wbinvd` writes back all modified cache lines in the processor's internal cache to main memory and invalidates (flushes) the internal caches. The instruction then issues a special function bus cycle that directs external caches to also write back modified data and another bus cycle to indicate that the external caches should be invalidated. This instruction has no operands.

`rsm` return program control from the system management mode to the program that was interrupted when the processor received an SMM interrupt. This instruction has no operands.

`sysenter` executes a fast call to a level 0 system procedure, `sysexit` executes a fast return to level 3 user code. The addresses used by these instructions are stored in MSRs. These instructions have no operands.

### 2.1.13   FPU instructions

The FPU (Floating-Point Unit) instructions operate on the floating–point values in three formats: single precision (32–bit), double precision (64–bit) and double extended precision (80–bit). The FPU registers form the stack and each of them holds the double extended precision floating–point value. When some values are pushed onto the stack or are removed from the top, the FPU registers are shifted, so `st0` is always the value on the top of FPU stack, `st1` is the first value below the top, etc. The `st0` name has also the synonym `st`.

`fld` pushes the floating–point value onto the FPU register stack. The operand can be 32–bit, 64–bit or 80–bit memory location or the FPU register, its value is then loaded onto the top of FPU register stack (the `st0` register) and is automatically converted into the double extended precision format.

```
fld dword [bx]   ; load single prevision value from memory
```

```
fld st2           ; push value of st2 onto register stack
```

`fld1`, `fldz`, `fldl2t`, `fldl2e`, `fldpi`, `fldlg2` and `fldln2` load the commonly used contants onto the FPU register stack. The loaded constants are $+1.0$, $+0.0$, $\log_2 10$, $\log_2 e$, $\pi$, $\log_{10} 2$ and $\ln 2$ respectively. These instructions have no operands.

`fild` convert the singed integer source operand into double extended precision floating-point format and pushes the result onto the FPU register stack. The source operand can be a 16–bit, 32–bit or 64–bit memory location.

```
fild qword [bx]  ; load 64-bit integer from memory
```

`fst` copies the value of `st0` register to the destination operand, which can be 32–bit or 64–bit memory location or another FPU register. `fstp` performs the same operation as `fst` and then pops the register stack, getting rid of `st0`. `fstp` accepts the same operands as the `fst` instruction and can also store value in the 80–bit memory.

```
fst st3           ; copy value of st0 into st3 register
fstp tword [bx]   ; store value in memory and pop stack
```

`fist` converts the value in `st0` to a signed integer and stores the result in the destination operand. The operand can be 16–bit or 32–bit memory location. `fistp` performs the same operation and then pops the register stack, it accepts the same operands as the `fist` instruction and can also store integer value in the 64–bit memory, so it has the same rules for operands as `fild` instruction.

`fbld` converts the packed BCD integer into double extended precision floating–point format and pushes this value onto the FPU stack. `fbstp` converts the value in `st0` to an 18–digit packed BCD integer, stores the result in the destination operand, and pops the register stack. The operand should be an 80–bit memory location.

`fadd` adds the destination and source operand and stores the sum in the destination location. The destination operand is always an FPU register, if the source is a memory location, the destination is `st0` register and only source operand should be specified. If both operands are FPU registers, at least one of them should be `st0` register. An operand in memory can be a 32–bit or 64–bit value.

```
fadd qword [bx]  ; add double precision value to st0
fadd st2,st0     ; add st0 to st2
```

`faddp` adds the destination and source operand, stores the sum in the destination location and then pops the register stack. The destination operand must be an FPU register and the source operand must be the `st0`. When no operands are specified, `st1` is used as a destination operand.

```
faddp              ; add st0 to st1 and pop the stack
faddp st2,st0      ; add st0 to st2 and pop the stack
```

`fiadd` instruction converts an integer source operand into double extended precision floating–point value and adds it to the destination operand. The operand should be a 16–bit or 32–bit memory location.

```
fiadd word [bx]   ; add word integer to st0
```

`fsub`, `fsubr`, `fmul`, `fdiv`, `fdivr` instruction are similar to `fadd`, have the same rules for operands and differ only in the perfomed computation. `fsub` substracts the source operand from the destination operand, `fsubr` substract the destination operand from the source operand, `fmul` multiplies the destination and source operands, `fdiv` divides the destination operand by the source operand and `fdivr` divides the source operand by the destination operand. `fsubp`, `fsubrp`, `fmulp`, `fdivp`, `fdivrp` perform the same operations and pop the register stack, the rules for operand are the same as for the `faddp` instruction. `fisub`, `fisubr`, `fimul`, `fidiv`, `fidivr` perform these operations after converting the integer source operand into floating–point value, they have the same rules for operands as `fiadd` instruction.

`fsqrt` computes the square root of the value in `st0` register, `fsin` computes the sine of that value, `fcos` computes the cosine of that value, `fchs` complements its sign bit, `fabs` clears its sign to create the absolute value, `frndint` rounds it to the nearest integral value, depending on the current rounding mode. `f2xm1` computes the exponential value of 2 to the power of `st0` and substracts the 1.0 from it, the value of `st0` must lie in the range $-1.0$ to $+1.0$. All these instruction store the result in `st0` and have no operands.

`fsincos` computes both the sine and the cosine of the value in `st0` register, stores the sine in `st0` and pushes the cosine on the top of FPU register stack. `fptan` computes the tangent of the value in `st0`, stores the result in `st0` and pushes a 1.0 onto the FPU register stack. `fpatan` computes the arctangent of the value in `st1` divided by the value in `st0`, stores the result in `st1` and pops the FPU register stack. `fyl2x` computes the binary logarithm of `st0`, multiplies it by `st1`, stores the result in `st1` and pops the FPU register stack; `fyl2xp1` performs the same operation but it adds 1.0 to `st0` before computing the logarithm. `fprem` computes the remainder obtained from dividing the value in `st0` by the value in `st1`, and stores the result in

`st0`. `fprem1` performs the same operation as `fprem`, but it computes the remainder in the way specified by IEEE Standard 754. `fscale` truncates the value in `st1` and increases the exponent of `st0` by this value. `fxtract` separates the value in `st0` into its exponent and significand, stores the exponent in `st0` and pushes the significand onto the register stack. `fnop` performs no operation. These instruction have no operands.

`fxch` exchanges the contents of `st0` an another FPU register. The operand should be an FPU register, if no operand is specified, the contents of `st0` and `st1` are exchanged.

`fcom` and `fcomp` compare the contents of `st0` and the source operand and set flags in the FPU status word according to the results. `fcomp` additionally pops the register stack after performing the comparison. The operand can be a single or double precision value in memory or the FPU register. When no operand is specified, `st1` is used as a source operand.

```
fcom               ; compare st0 with st1
fcomp st2          ; compare st0 with st2 and pop stack
```

`fcompp` compares the contents of `st0` and `st1`, sets flags in the FPU status word according to the results and pops the register stack twice. This instruction has no operands.

`fucom`, `fucomp` and `fucompp` performs an unordered comparison of two FPU registers. Rules for operands are the same as for the `fcom`, `fcomp` and `fcompp`, but the source operand must be an FPU register.

`ficom` and `ficomp` compare the value in `st0` with an integer source operand and set the flags in the FPU status word according to the results. `ficomp` additionally pops the register stack after performing the comparison. The integer value is converted to double extended precision floating–point format before the comparison is made. The operand should be a 16–bit or 32–bit memory location.

```
ficom word [bx]  ; compare st0 with 16-bit integer
```

`fcomi`, `fcomip`, `fucomi`, `fucomip` perform the comparison of `st0` with another FPU register and set the ZF, PF and CF flags according to the results. `fcomip` and `fucomip` additionaly pop the register stack after performing the comparison. The instructions obtained by attaching the FPU condition mnemonic (see table 2.2) to the `fcmov` mnemonic transfer the specified FPU register into `st0` register if the fiven test condition is true. These instruction allow two different syntaxes, one with single operand specifying the source FPU register, and one with two operands, in that case destination operand should be `st0` register and the second operand specifies the source FPU register.

```
fcomi st2         ; compare st0 with st2 and set flags
fcmovb st0,st2    ; transfer st2 to st0 if below
```

| Mnemonic | Condition tested | Description |
|:--------:|:----------------:|:-----------:|
| b | CF = 1 | below |
| e | ZF = 1 | equal |
| be | CF or ZF = 1 | below or equal |
| u | PF = 1 | unordered |
| nb | CF = 0 | not below |
| ne | ZF = 0 | not equal |
| nbe | CF and ZF = 0 | not below nor equal |
| nu | PF = 0 | not unordered |

Table 2.2: FPU conditions.

ftst compares the value in st0 with 0.0 and sets the flags in the FPU status word according to the results. fxam examines the contents of the st0 and sets the flags in FPU status word to indicate the class of value in the register. These instructions have no operands.

fstsw and fnstsw store the current value of the FPU status word in the destination location. The destination operand can be either a 16–bit memory or the ax register. fstsw checks for pending umasked FPU exceptions before storing the status word, fnstsw does not.

fstcw and fnstcw store the current value of the FPU control word at the specified destination in memory. fstcw checks for pending umasked FPU exceptions before storing the control word, fnstcw does not. fldcw loads the operand into the FPU control word. The operand should be a 16–bit memory location.

fstenv and fnstenv store the current FPU operating environment at the memory location specified with the destination operand, and then mask all FPU exceptions. fstenv checks for pending umasked FPU exceptions before proceeding, fnstenv does not. fldenv loads the complete operating environment from memory into the FPU. fsave and fnsave store the current FPU state (operating environment and register stack) at the specified destination in memory and reinitializes the FPU. fsave check for pending unmasked FPU exceptions before proceeding, fnsave does not. frstor loads the FPU state from the specified memory location. All these instructions need an operand being a memory location.

finit and fninit set the FPU operating environment into its default state. finit checks for pending unmasked FPU exception before proceeding,

`fninit` does not. `fclex` and `fnclex` clear the FPU exception flags in the FPU status word. `fclex` checks for pending unmasked FPU exception before proceeding, `fnclex` does not. `wait` and `fwait` are synonyms for the same instruction, which causes the processor to check for pending unmasked FPU exceptions and handle them before proceeding. These instruction have no operands.

`ffree` sets the tag associated with specified FPU register to empty. The operand should be an FPU register.

`fincstp` and `fdecstp` rotate the FPU stack by one by adding or substracting one to the pointer of the top of stack. These instruction have no operands.

## 2.1.14  MMX instructions

The MMX instructions operate on the packed integer types and use the MMX registers, which are the low 64–bit parts of the 80–bit FPU registers. Because of this MMX instructions cannot be used at the same time as FPU instructions. They can operate on packed bytes (eight 8–bit integers), packed words (four 16–bit integers) or packed double words (two 32–bit integers), use of packed formats allows to perform operations on multiple data at one time.

`movq` copies a quad word from the source operand to the destination operand. At least one of the operands must be a MMX register, the second one can be also a MMX register or 64–bit memory location.

```
movq mm0,mm1     ; move quad word from register to register
movq mm2,[ebx]   ; move quad word from memory to register
```

`movd` copies a double word from the source operand to the destination operand. One of the operands must be a MMX register, the second one can be a general register or 32–bit memory location. Only low double word of MMX register is used.

All general MMX operations have two operands, the destination operand should be a MMX register, the source operand can be a MMX register or 64–bit memory location. Operation is performed on the corresponding data elements of the source and destination operand and stored in the data elements of the destination operand. `paddb`, `paddw` and `paddd` perform the addition of packed bytes, packed words, or packed double words. `psubb`, `psubw` and `psubd` perform the substraction of appropriate types. `paddsb`, `paddsw`, `psubsb` and `psubsw` perform the addition or substraction of packed bytes or packed words with the signed saturation. `paddusb`, `paddusw`, `psubusb`, `psubusw` are analoguous, but with unsigned saturation. `pmulhw` and `pmullw`

performs a signed multiply of the packed words and store the high or low words of the results in the destination operand. `pmaddwd` performs a multiply of the packed words and adds the four intermediate double word products in pairs to produce result as a packed double words. `pand`, `por` and `pxor` perform the logical operations on the quad words, `pandn` peforms also a logical negation of the destination operand before the operation. `pcmpeqb`, `pcmpeqw` and `pcmpeqd` compare for equality of packed bytes, packed words or packed double words. If a pair of data elements is equal, the corresponding data element in the destination operand is filled with bits of value 1, otherwise it's set to 0. `pcmpgtb`, `pcmpgtw` and `pcmpgtd` perform the similar operation, but they check whether the data elements in the destination operand are greater than the correspoding data elements in the source operand. `packsswb` converts packed signed words into packed signed bytes, `packssdw` converts packed signed double words into packed signed words, using saturation to handle overflow conditions. `packuswb` converts packed signed words into packed unsigned bytes. Converted data elements from the source operand are stored in the low part of the destination operand, while converted data elements from the destination operand are stored in the high part. `punpckhbw`, `punpckhwd` and `punpckhdq` interleaves the data elements from the high parts of the source and destination operands and stores the result into the destination operand. `punpcklbw`, `punpcklwd` and `punpckldq` perform the same operation, but the low parts of the source and destination operand are used.

```
    paddsb mm0,[esi] ; add packed bytes with signed saturation
    pcmpeqw mm3,mm7  ; compare packed words for equality
```

`psllw`, `pslld` and `psllq` perform logical shift left of the packed words, packed double words or a single quad word in the destination operand by the amount specified in the source operand. `psrlw`, `psrld` and `psrlq` perform logical shift right of the packed words, packed double words or a single quad word. `psraw` and `psrad` perform arithmetic shift of the packed words or double words. The destination operand should be a MMX register, while source operand can be a MMX register, 64–bit memory location, or 8–bit immediate value.

```
    psllw mm2,mm4   ; shift words left logically
    psrad mm4,[ebx] ; shift double words right arithmetically
```

`emms` makes the FPU registers usable for the FPU instructions, it must be used before using the FPU instructions if any MMX instructions were used.

## 2.1.15  SSE instructions

The SSE extension adds more MMX instructions and also introduces the operations on packed single precision floating point values. The 128–bit packed single precision format consists of four single precision floating point values. The 128–bit SSE registers are designed for the purpose of operations on this data type.

`movaps` and `movups` transfer a double quad word operand containing packed single precision values from source operand to destination operand. At least one of the operands have to be a SSE register, the second one can be also a SSE register or 128–bit memory location. Memory operands for `movaps` instruction must be aligned on boundary of 16 bytes, operands for `movups` instruction don't have to be aligned.

```
movups xmm0,[ebx]  ; move unaligned double quad word
```

`movlps` moves packed two single precision values between the memory and the low quad word of SSE register. `movhps` moved packed two single precision values between the memory and the high quad word of SSE register. One of the operands must be a SSE register, and the other operand must be a 64–bit memory location.

```
movlps xmm0,[ebx]  ; move memory to low quad word of xmm0
movhps [esi],xmm7  ; move high quad word of xmm7 to memory
```

`movlhps` moves packed two single precision values from the low quad word of source register to the high quad word of destination register. `movhlps` moves two packed single precision values from the high quad word of source register to the low quad word of destination register. Both operands have to be a SSE registers.

`movmskps` transfers the most significant bit of each of the four single precision values in the SSE register into low four bits of a general register. The source operand must be a SSE register, the destination operand must be a general register.

`movss` transfers a single precision value between source and destination operand (only the low double word is trasferred). At least one of the operands have to be a SSE register, the second one can be also a SSE register or 32–bit memory location.

```
movss [edi],xmm3   ; move low double word of xmm3 to memory
```

Each of the SSE arithmetic operations has two variants. When the mnemonic ends with `ps`, the source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or a SSE register, the destination operand must be a SSE register and

the operation is performed on packed four single precision values, for each
pair of the corresponding data elements separately, the result is stored in the
destination register. When the mnemonic ends with `ss`, the source operand
can be a 32–bit memory location or a SSE register, the destination operand
must be a SSE register and the operation is performed on single precision
values, only low double words of SSE registers are used in this case, the result
is stored in the low double word of destination register. `addps` and `addss`
add the values, `subps` and `subss` substract the source value from destination
value, `mulps` and `mulss` multiply the values, `divps` and `divss` divide the
destination value by the source value, `rcpps` and `rcpss` compute the approx-
imate reciprocal of the source value, `sqrtps` and `sqrtss` compute the square
root of the source value, `rsqrtps` and `rsqrtss` compute the approximate
reciprocal of square root of the source value, `maxps` and `maxss` compare the
source and destination values and return the greater one, `minps` and `minss`
compare the source and destination values and return the lesser one.

```
    mulss xmm0,[ebx]   ; multiply single precision values
    addps xmm3,xmm7    ; add packed single precision values
```

`andps`, `andnps`, `orps` and `xorps` perform the logical operations on packed
single precision values. The source operand can be a 128–bit memory location
or a SSE register, the destination operand must be a SSE register.

`cmpps` compares packed single precision values and returns a mask result
into the destination operand, which must be a SSE register. The source
operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register, the third operand
must be an immediate operand selecting code of one of the eight compare
conditions (table 2.3). `cmpss` performs the same operation on single precision
values, only low double word of destination register is affected, in this case
source operand can be a 32–bit memory location or SSE register. These
two instructions have also variants with only two operands and the condition
encoded within mnemonic. Their mnemonics are obtained by attaching the
mnemonic from table 2.3 to the `cmp` mnemonic and then attaching the `ps` or
`ss` at the end.

```
    cmpps xmm2,xmm4,0  ; compare packed single precision values
    cmpltss xmm0,[ebx] ; compare single precision values
```

`comiss` and `ucomiss` compare the single precision values and set the ZF,
PF and CF flags to show the result. The destination operand must be a
SSE register, the source operand can be a 32–bit memory location or SSE
register.

`shufps` moves any two of the four single precision values from the desti-
nation operand into the low quad word of the destination operand, and any

| Code | Mnemonic | Description |
|:----:|:--------:|:----------:|
| 0 | eq | equal |
| 1 | lt | less than |
| 2 | le | less than or equal |
| 3 | unord | unordered |
| 4 | neq | not equal |
| 5 | nlt | not less than |
| 6 | nle | not less than nor equal |
| 7 | ord | ordered |

Table 2.3: SSE conditions.

two of the four values from the source operand into the high quad word of the destination operand. The destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register, the third operand must be an 8–bit immediate value selecting which values will be moved into the destination operand. Bits 0 and 1 select the value to be moved from destination operand to the low double word of the result, bits 2 and 3 select the value to be moved from the destination operand to the second double word, bits 4 and 5 select the value to be moved from the source operand to the third double word, and bits 6 and 7 select the value to be moved from the source operand to the high double word of the result.

```
shufps xmm0,xmm0,10010011b ; shuffle double words
```

**unpckhps** performs an interleaved unpack of the values from the high parts of the source and destination operands and stores the result in the destination operand, which must be a SSE register. The source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or a SSE register. **unpcklps** performs an interleaved unpack of the values from the low parts of the source and destination operand and stores the result in the destination operand, the rules for operands are the same.

**cvtpi2ps** converts packed two double word integers into the the packed two single precision floating point values and stores the result in the low quad word of the destination operand, which should be a SSE register. The source operand can be a 64–bit memory location or MMX register.

```
cvtpi2ps xmm0,mm0  ; integers to single precision values
```

**cvtsi2ss** converts a double word integer into a single precision floating point value and stores the result in the low double word of the destination

operand, which should be a SSE register. The source operand can be a 32–bit
memory location or 32–bit general register.

```
cvtsi2ss xmm0,eax  ; integer to single precision value
```

`cvtps2pi` converts packed two single precision floating point values into
packed two double word integers and stores the result in the destination
operand, which should be a MMX register. The source operand can be a
64–bit memory location or SSE register, only low quad word of SSE register
is used. `cvttps2pi` performs the similar operation, except that truncation
is used to round a source values to integers, rules for the operands are the
same.

```
cvtps2pi mm0,xmm0  ; single precision values to integers
```

`cvtss2si` convert a single precision floating point value into a double word
integer and stores the result in the destination operand, which should be a
32–bit general register. The source operand can be a 32–bit memory location
or SSE register, only low double word of SSE register is used. `cvttss2si`
performs the similar operation, except that truncation is used to round a
source value to integer, rules for the operands are the same.

```
cvtss2si eax,xmm0  ; single precision value to integer
```

`pextrw` copies the word in the source operand specified by the third
operand to the destination operand. The source operand must be a MMX
register, the destination operand must be a 32–bit general register (but only
the low word of it is affected), the third operand must an 8–bit immediate
value.

```
pextrw eax,mm0,1   ; extract word into eax
```

`pinsrw` inserts a word from the source operand in the destination operand
at the location specified with the third operand, which must be an 8–bit
immediate value. The destination operand must be a MMX register, the
source operand can be a 16–bit memory location or 32–bit general register
(only low word of the register is used).

```
pinsrw mm1,ebx,2   ; insert word from ebx
```

`pavgb` and `pavgw` compute average of packed bytes or words. `pmaxub` re-
turn the maximum values of packed unsigned bytes, `pminub` returns the min-
imum values of packed unsigned bytes, `pmaxsw` returns the maximum values
of packed signed words, `pminsw` returns the minimum values of packed signed

words. `pmulhuw` performs a unsigned multiply of the packed words and stores the high words of the results in the destination operand. `psadbw` computes the absolute differences of packed unsigned bytes, sums the differences, and stores the sum in the low word of destination operand. All these instructions follow the same rules for operands as the general MMX operations described in previous section.

`pmovmskb` creates a mask made of the most significant bit of each byte in the source operand and stores the result in the low byte of destination operand. The source operand must be a MMX register, the destination operand must a 32–bit general register.

`pshufw` inserts words from the source operand in the destination operand from the locations specified with the third operand. The destination operand must be a MMX register, the source operand can be a 64–bit memory location or MMX register, third operand must an 8–bit immediate value selecting which values will be moved into destination operand, in the similar way as the third operand of the `shufps` instruction.

`movntq` moves the quad word from the source operand to memory using a non–temporal hint to minimize cache pollution. The source operand should be a MMX register, the destination operand should be a 64–bit memory location. `movntps` stores packed single precision values from the SSE register to memory using a non–temporal hint. The source operand should be a SSE register, the destination operand should be a 128–bit memory location. `maskmovq` stores selected bytes from the first operand into a 64–bit memory location using a non–temporal hint. Both operands should be a MMX registers, the second operand selects wich bytes from the source operand are written to memory. The memory location is pointed by DI (or EDI) register in the segment selected by DS.

`prefetcht0`, `prefetcht1`, `prefetcht2` and `prefetchnta` fetch the line of data from memory that contains byte specified with the operand to a specified location in hierarchy. The operand should be an 8–bit memory location.

`sfence` performs a serializing operation on all instruction storing to memory that were issued prior to it. This instruction has no operands.

`ldmxcsr` loads the 32–bit memory operand into the MXCSR register. `stmxcsr` stores the contents of MXCSR into a 32–bit memory operand.

`fxsave` saves the current state of the FPU, MXCSR register, and all the FPU and SSE registers to a 512–byte memory location specified in the destination operand. `fxrstor` reloads data previously stored with `fxsave` instruction from the specified 512–byte memory location. The memory operand for both those instructions must be aligned on 16 byte boundary, it should declare operand of no specified size.

## 2.1.16   SSE2 instructions

The SSE2 extension introduces the operations on packed double precision
floating point values, extends the syntax of MMX instructions, and adds
also some new instructions.

`movapd` and `movupd` transfer a double quad word operand containing
packed double precision values from source operand to destination operand.
These instructions are analogous to `movaps` and `movups` and have the same
rules for operands.

`movlpd` moves double precision value between the memory and the low
quad word of SSE register. `movhpd` moved double precision value between
the memory and the high quad word of SSE register. These instructions are
analogous to `movlps` and `movhps` and have the same rules for operands.

`movmskpd` transfers the most significant bit of each of the two double pre-
cision values in the SSE register into low two bits of a general register. This
instruction is analogous to `movmskps` and has the same rules for operands.

`movsd` transfers a double precision value between source and destination
operand (only the low quad word is trasferred). At least one of the operands
have to be a SSE register, the second one can be also a SSE register or 64–bit
memory location.

Arithmetic operations on double precision values are:  `addpd`, `addsd`,
`subpd`, `subsd`, `mulpd`, `mulsd`, `divpd`, `divsd`, `sqrtpd`, `sqrtsd`, `maxpd`, `maxsd`,
`minpd`, `minsd`, and they are analoguous to arithmetic operations on single
precision values described in previous section.  When the mnemonic ends
with `pd` instead of `ps`, the operation is performed on packed two double pre-
cision values, but rules for operands are the same. When the mnemonic ends
with `sd` instead of `ss`, the source operand can be a 64–bit memory location
or a SSE register, the destination operand must be a SSE register and the
operation is performed on double precision values, only low quad words of
SSE registers are used in this case.

`andpd`, `andnpd`, `orpd` and `xorpd` perform the logical operations on packed
double precision values.  They are analoguous to SSE logical operations on
single prevision values and have the same rules for operands.

`cmppd` compares packed double precision values and returns and returns
a mask result into the destination operand. This instruction is analoguous to
`cmpps` and has the same rules for operands. `cmpsd` performs the same oper-
ation on double precision values, only low quad word of destination register
is affected, in this case source operand can be a 64–bit memory or SSE regis-
ter. Variant with only two operands are obtained by attaching the condition
mnemonic from table 2.3 to the `cmp` mnemonic and then attaching the `pd` or
`sd` at the end.

`comisd` and `ucomisd` compare the double precision values and set the ZF, PF and CF flags to show the result. The destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register.

`shufpd` moves any of the two double precision values from the destination operand into the low quad word of the destination operand, and any of the two values from the source operand into the high quad word of the destination operand. This instruction is analoguous to `shufps` and has the same rules for operand. Bit 0 of the third operand selects the value to be moved from the destination operand, bit 1 selects the value to be moved from the source operand, the rest of bits are reserved and must be zeroed.

`unpckhpd` performs an unpack of the high quad words from the source and destination operands, `unpcklpd` performs an unpack of the low quad words from the source and destination operands. They are analoguous to `unpckhps` and `unpcklps`, and have the same rules for operands.

`cvtps2pd` converts the packed two single precision floating point values to two packed double precision floating point values, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 64–bit memory location or SSE register. `cvtpd2ps` converts the packed two double precision floating point values to packed two single precision floating point values, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register. `cvtss2sd` converts the single precision floating point value to double precision floating point value, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 32–bit memory location or SSE register. `cvtsd2ss` converts the double precision floating point value to single precision floating point value, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be 64–bit memory location or SSE register.

`cvtpi2pd` converts packed two double word integers into the the packed double precision floating point values, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 64–bit memory location or MMX register. `cvtsi2sd` converts a double word integer into a double precision floating point value, the destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand can be a 32–bit memory location or 32–bit general register. `cvtpd2pi` converts packed double precision floating point values into packed two double word integers, the destination operand should be a MMX register, the source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register. `cvttpd2pi` performs the similar operation, except that truncation is used to round a source values to integers, rules for operands are the same. `cvtsd2si` converts a double precision floating point value into a double word integer, the destination operand should be a 32–bit general register, the source operand

can be a 64–bit memory location or SSE register. `cvttsd2si` performs the
similar operation, except that truncation is used to round a source value to
integer, rules for operands are the same.

`cvtps2dq` and `cvttps2dq` convert packed single precision floating point
values to packed four double word integers, storing them in the destination
operand. `cvtpd2dq` and `cvttpd2dq` convert packed double precision floating
point values to packed two double word integers, storing the result in the low
quad word of the destination operand. `cvtdq2ps` converts packed four double
word integers to packed single precision floating point values. `cvtdq2pd`
converts packed two double word integers from the low quad word of the
source operand to packed double precision floating point values. For all these
instruction destination operand must be a SSE register, the source operand
can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register.

`movdqa` and `movdqu` transfer a double quad word operand containing
packed integers from source operand to destination operand. At least one of
the operands have to be a SSE register, the second one can be also a SSE reg-
ister or 128–bit memory location. Memory operands for `movdqa` instruction
must be aligned on boundary of 16 bytes, operands for `movdqu` instruction
don't have to be aligned.

`movq2dq` moves the contents of the MMX source register to the low quad
word of destination SSE register. `movdq2q` moves the low quad word from
the source SSE register to the destination MMX register.

```
    movq2dq xmm0,mm1   ; move from MMX register to SSE register
    movdq2q mm0,xmm1   ; move from SSE register to MMX register
```

All MMX instructions operating on the 64–bit packed integers (those
with mnemonics starting with `p`) are extended to operate on 128–bit packed
integers located in SSE registers. Additional syntax for these instructions
needs an SSE register where MMX register was needed, and the 128–bit
memory location or SSE register where 64–bit memory location of MMX
register were needed. The exception is `pshufw` instruction, which doesn't
allow extended syntax, but has two new variants: `pshufhw` and `pshuflw`,
which allow only the extended syntax, and perform the same operation as
`pshufw` on the high or low quad words of operands respectively. Also the
new instruction `pshufd` is introduced, which performs the same operation as
`pshufw`, but on the double words instead of words, it allows only the extended
syntax.

```
    psubb xmm0,[esi]   ; substract 16 packed bytes
    pextrw eax,xmm0,7  ; extract highest word into eax
```

`paddq` performs the addition of packed quad words, `psubq` performs the substraction of packed quad words, `pmuludq` performs an unsigned multiply of low double words from each corresponding quad words and returns the results in packed quad words. These instructions follow the same rules for operands as the general MMX operations described in 2.1.14.

`pslldq` and `psrldq` perform logical shift left or right of the double quad word in the destination operand by the amount of bits specified in the source operand. The destination operand should be a SSE register, source operand should be an 8–bit immediate value.

`punpckhqdq` interleaves the high quad word of the source operand and the high quad word of the destination operand and writes them to the destination SSE register. `punpcklqdq` interleaves the low quad word of the source operand and the low quad word of the destination operand and writes them to the destination SSE register. The source operand can be a 128–bit memory location or SSE register.

`movntdq` stores packed integer data from the SSE register to memory using non–temporal hint. The source operand should be a SSE register, the destination operand should be a 128–bit memory location. `movntpd` stores packed double precision values from the SSE register to memory using a non–temporal hint. Rules for operand are the same. `movnti` stores integer from a general register to memory using a non–temporal hint. The source operand should be a 32–bit general register, the destination operand should be a 32–bit memory location. `maskmovdqu` stores selected bytes from the first operand into a 128–bit memory location using a non–temporal hint. Both operands should be a SSE registers, the second operand selects wich bytes from the source operand are written to memory. The memory location is pointed by DI (or EDI) register in the segment selected by DS and does not need to be aligned.

`clflush` writes and invalidates the cache line associated with the address of byte specified with the operand, which should be a 8–bit memory location.

`lfence` performs a serializing operation on all instruction loading from memory that were issued prior to it. `mfence` performs a serializing operation on all instruction accesing memory that were issued prior to it, and so it combines the functions of `sfence` (described in previous section) and `lfence` instructions. These instructions have no operands.

## 2.1.17   SSE3 instructions

Prescott technology introduces some new instructions to improve the performance of SSE and SSE2 – this extension is called SSE3.

`fisttp` behaves like the `fistp` instruction and accepts the same operands,

the only difference is that it always used truncation, irrespective of the rounding mode.

`movshdup` loads into destination operand the 128–bit value obtained from the source value of the same size by filling the each quad word with the two duplicates of the value in its high double word. `movsldup` performs the same action, except it duplicates the values of low double words. The destination operand should be SSE register, the source operand can be SSE register or 128–bit memory location.

`movddup` loads the 64–bit source value and duplicates it into high and low quad word of the destination operand. The destination operand should be SSE register, the source operand can be SSE register or 64–bit memory location.

`lddqu` is functionally equivalent to `movdqu` instruction with memory as source operand, but it may improve performance when the source operand crosses a cacheline boundary. The destination operand has to be SSE register, the source operand must be 128–bit memory location.

`addsubps` performs single precision addition of second and fourth pairs and single precision substracion of the first and third pairs of floating point values in the operands. `addsubpd` performs double precision addition of the second pair and double precision substraction of the first pair of floating point values in the operand. `haddps` performs the addition of two single precision values within the each quad word of source and destination operands, and stores the results of such horizontal addition of values from destination operand into low quad word of destination operand, and the results from the source operand into high quad word of destination operand. `haddpd` performs the addition of two double precision values within each operand, and stores the result from destination operand into low quad word of destination operand, and the result from source operand into high quad word of destination operand. All these instruction need the destination operand to be SSE register, source operand can be SSE register or 128–bit memory location.

`monitor` sets up an address range for monitoring of write–back stores. It need its three operands to be EAX, ECX and EDX register in that order. `mwait` waits for a write–back store to the address range set up by the `monitor` instruction. It uses two operands with additional parameters, first being the EAX and second the ECX register.

## 2.1.18   AMD 3DNow! instructions

The 3DNow! extension adds a new MMX instructions to those described in 2.1.14, and introduces operation on the 64–bit packed floating point values, each consisting of two single precision floating point values.

These instructions follow the same rules as the general MMX operations, the destination operand should be a MMX register, the source operand can be a MMX register or 64–bit memory location. `pavgusb` computes the rounded averages of packed unsigned bytes. `pmulhrw` performs a signed multiply of the packed words, round the high word of each double word results and stores them in the destination operand. `pi2fd` converts packed double word integers into packed floating point values. `pf2id` converts packed floating point values into packed double word integers using truncation. `pi2fw` converts packed word integers into packed floating point values, only low words of each double word in source operand are used. `pf2iw` converts packed floating point values to packed word integers, results are extended to double words using the sign extension. `pfadd` adds packed floating point values. `pfsub` and `pfsubr` substracts packed floating point values, the first one substracts source values from destination values, the second one substracts destination values from the source values. `pfmul` multiplies packed floating point values. `pfacc` adds the low and high floating point values of the destination operand, storing the result in the low double word of destination, and adds the low and high floating point values of the source operand, storing the result in the high double word of destination. `pfnacc` substracts the high floating point value of the destination operand from the low, storing the result in the low double word of destination, and substracts the high floating point value of the source operand from the low, storing the result in the high double word of destination. `pfpnacc` substracts the high floating point value of the destination operand from the low, storing the result in the low double word of destination, and adds the low and high floating point values of the source operand, storing the result in the high double word of destination. `pfmax` and `pfmin` compute the maximum and minimum of floating point values. `pswapd` reverses the high and low double word of the source operand. `pfrcp` returns an estimates of the reciprocals of floating point values from the source operand, `pfrsqrt` returns an estimates of the reciprocal square roots of floating point values from the source operand, `pfrcpit1` performs the first step in the Newton–Raphson iteration to refine the reciprocal approximation produced by `pfrcp` instruction, `pfrsqit1` performs the first step in the Newton–Raphson iteration to refine the reciprocal square root approximation produced by `pfrsqrt` instruction, `pfrcpit2` performs the second final step in the Newton–Raphson iteration to refine the reciprocal approximation or the reciprocal square root approximation. `pfcmpeq`, `pfcmpge` and `pfcmpgt` compare the packed floating point values and sets all bits or zeroes all bits of the correspoding data element in the destination operand according to the result of comparison, first checks whether values are equal, second checks whether destination value is greater or equal to source value, third checks

whether destination value is greater than source value.

`prefetch` and `prefetchw` load the line of data from memory that contains byte specified with the operand into the data cache, `prefetchw` instruction should be used when the data in the cache line is expected to be modified, otherwise the `prefetch` instruction should be used. The operand should be an 8–bit memory location.

`femms` performs a fast clear of MMX state. It has no operands.

### 2.1.19   The x86-64 long mode instructions

The AMD64 and EM64T architectures (we will use the common name x86–64 for them both) extend the x86 instruction set for the 64–bit processing. While legacy and compatibility modes use the same set of registers and instructions, the new long mode extends the x86 operations to 64 bits and introduces several new registers. You can turn on generating the code for this mode with the `use64` directive.

Each of the general purpose registers is extended to 64 bits and the eight whole new general purpose registers and also eight new SSE registers are added. See table 2.4 for the summary of new registers (only the ones that was not listed in table 1.2). The general purpose registers of smallers sizes are the low order portions of the larger ones. You can still access the `ah`, `bh`, `ch` and `dh` registers in long mode, but you cannot use them in the same instruction with any of the new registers.

In general any instruction from x86 architecture, which allowed 16–bit or 32–bit operand sizes, in long mode allows also the 64–bit operands. The 64–bit registers should be used for addressing in long mode, the 32–bit addressing is also allowed, but it's not possible to use the addresses based on 16–bit registers. Below are the samples of new operations possible in long mode on the example of `mov` instruction:

```
mov rax,r8   ; transfer 64-bit general register
mov al,[rbx] ; transfer memory addressed by 64-bit register
```

The long mode uses also the instruction pointer based addresses, you can specify it manually with the special RIP register symbol, but such addressing is also automatically generated by flat assembler, since there is no 64–bit absolute addressing in long mode. You can still force the assembler to use the 32–bit absolute addressing by putting the `dword` size override for address inside the square brackets. There is also one exception, where the 64–bit absolute addressing is possible, it's the `mov` instruction with one of the operand being accumulator register, and second being the memory operand. To force the assembler to use the 64–bit absolute addressing there, use the `qword` size

| Type | General | | | | SSE |
|------|---------|------|------|------|------|
| Bits | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 128 |
| | | | | rax | |
| | | | | rcx | |
| | | | | rdx | |
| | | | | rbx | |
| | spl | | | rsp | |
| | bpl | | | rbp | |
| | sil | | | rsi | |
| | dil | | | rdi | |
| | r8b | r8w | r8d | r8 | xmm8 |
| | r9b | r9w | r9d | r9 | xmm9 |
| | r10b | r10w | r10d | r10 | xmm10 |
| | r11b | r11w | r11d | r11 | xmm11 |
| | r12b | r12w | r12d | r12 | xmm12 |
| | r13b | r13w | r13d | r13 | xmm13 |
| | r14b | r14w | r14d | r14 | xmm14 |
| | r15b | r15w | r15d | r15 | xmm15 |

Table 2.4: New registers in long mode.

operator for address inside the square brackets. When no size operator is applied to address, assembler generates the optimal form automatically.

```
mov [qword 0],rax  ; absolute 64-bit addressing
mov [dword 0],r15d ; absolute 32-bit addressing
mov [0],rsi        ; automatic RIP-relative addressing
mov [rip+3],sil    ; manual RIP-relative addressing
```

Also as the immediate operands for 64–bit operations only the signed 32–bit values are possible, with the only exception being the `mov` instruction with destination operand being 64–bit general purpose register. Trying to force the 64–bit immediate with any other instruction will cause an error.

If any operation is performed on the 32–bit general registers in long mode, the upper 32 bits of the 64–bit registers containing them are filled with zeros. This is unlike the operations on 16–bit or 8–bit portions of those registers, which preserve the upper bits.

Three new type conversion instructions are available. The `cdqe` sign extends the double word in EAX into quad word and stores the result in RAX register. `cqo` sign extends the quad word in RAX into double quad word and stores the extra bits in the RDX register. These instructions have

no operands. `movsxd` sign extends the double word source operand, being either the 32–bit register or memory, into 64–bit destination operand, which has to be register. No analogous instruction is needed for the zero extension, since it is done automatically by any operations on 32–bit registers, as noted in previous paragraph. And the `movzx` and `movsx` instructions, conforming to the general rule, can be used with 64–bit destination operand, allowing extension of byte or word values into quad words.

All the binary arithmetic and logical instruction are promoted to allow 64–bit operands in long mode. The use of decimal arithmetic instructions in long mode is prohibited.

The stack operations, like `push` and `pop` in long mode default to 64–bit operands and it's not possible to use 32–bit operands with them. The `pusha` and `popa` are disallowed in long mode.

The indirect near jumps and calls in long mode default to 64–bit operands and it's not possible to use the 32–bit operands with them. On the other hand, the indirect far jumps and calls allow any operands that were allowed by the x86 architecture and also 80–bit memory operand is allowed (though only EM64T seems to implement such variant), with the first eight bytes defining the offset and two last bytes specifying the selector. The direct far jumps and calls are not allowed in long mode.

The I/O instructions, `in`, `out`, `ins` and `outs` are the exceptional instructions that are not extended to accept quad word operands in long mode. But all other string operations are, and there are new short forms `movsq`, `cmpsq`, `scasq`, `lodsq` and `stosq` introduced for the variants of string operations for 64–bit string elements. The RSI and RDI registers are used by default to address the string elements.

The `lfs`, `lgs` and `lss` instructions are extended to accept 80–bit source memory operand with 64–bit destination register (though only EM64T seems to implement such variant). The `lds` and `les` are disallowed in long mode.

The system instructions like `lgdt` which required the 48–bit memory operand, in long mode require the 80–bit memory operand.

The `cmpxchg16b` is the 64–bit equivalent of `cmpxchg8b` instruction, it uses the double quad word memory operand and 64–bit registers to perform the analoguous operation.

`swapgs` is the new instruction, which swaps the contents of GS register and the KernelGSbase model–specific register (MSR address 0C0000102h).

`syscall` and `sysret` is the pair of new instructions that provide the functionality similar to `sysenter` and `sysexit` in long mode, where the latter pair is disallowed.

## 2.2 Control directives

This section describes the directives that control the assembly process, they are processed during the assembly and may cause some blocks of instructions to be assembled differently or not assembled at all.

### 2.2.1 Numerical constants

The = directive allows to define the numerical constant. It should be preceded by the name for the constant and followed by the numerical expression providing the value. The value of such constants can be a number or an address, but – unlike labels – the numerical constants are not allowed to hold the register–based addresses. Besides this difference, in their basic variant numerical constants behave very much like labels and you can even forward–reference them (access their values before they actually get defined).

There is, however, a second variant of numerical constants, which is recognized by assembler when you try to define the constant of name, under which there already was a numerical constant defined. In such case assembler treats that constant as an assembly–time variable and allows it to be assigned with new value, but forbids forward–referencing it (for obvious reasons). Let's see both the variant of numerical constants in one example:

```
dd sum
x = 1
x = x+2
sum = x
```

Here the x is an assembly–time variable, and every time it is accessed, the value that was assigned to it the most recently is used. Thus if we tried to access the x before it gets defined the first time, like if we wrote dd x in place of the dd sum instruction, it would cause an error. And when it is re–defined with the x = x+2 directive, the previous value of x is used to calculate the new one. So when the sum constant gets defined, the x has value of 3, and this value is assigned to the sum. Since this one is defined only once in source, it is the standard numerical constant, and can be forward–referenced. So the dd sum is assembled as dd 3. To read more about how the assembler is able to resolve this, see section 2.2.6.

The value of numerical constant can be preceded by size operator, which can ensure that the value will fit in the range for the specified size, and can affect also how some of the calculations inside the numerical expression are performed. This example:

```
    c8 = byte -1
    c32 = dword -1
```

defines two different constants, the first one fits in 8 bits, the second one fits in 32 bits.

When you need to define constant with the value of address, which may be register–based (and thus you cannot employ numerical constant for this purpose), you can use the extended syntax of `label` directive (already described in section 1.2.3), like:

```
    label myaddr at ebp+4
```

which declares label placed at `ebp+4` address. However remember that labels, unlike numerical constants, cannot become assembly–time variables.

## 2.2.2   Conditional assembly

`if` directive causes come block of instructions to be assembled only under certain condition. It should be followed by logical expression specifying the condition, instructions in next lines will be assembled only when this condition is met, otherwise they will be skipped. The optional `else if` directive followed with logical expression specifying additional condition begins the next block of instructions that will be assembled if previous conditions were not met, and the additional condition is met. The optional `else` directive begins the block of instructions that will be assembled if all the conditions were not met. The `end if` directive ends the last block of instructions.

You should note that `if` directive is processed at assembly stage and therefore it doesn't affect any preprocessor directives, like the definitions of symbolic constants and macroinstructions – when the assembler recognizes the `if` directive, all the preprocessing has been already finished.

The logical expression consist of logical values and logical operators. The logical operators are `~` for logical negation, `&` for logical and, `|` for logical or. The negation has the highest priority. Logical value can be a numerical expression, it will be false if it is equal to zero, otherwise it will be true. Two numerical expression can be compared using one of the following operators to make the logical value: `=` (equal), `<` (less), `>` (greater), `<=` (less or equal), `>=` (greater or equal), `<>` (not equal).

The `used` operator followed by a symbol name, is the logical value that checks whether the given symbol is used somewhere (it returns correct result even if symbol is used only after this check). The `defined` operator can be followed by any expression, usually just by a single symbol name; it checks

whether the given expression contains only symbols that are defined in the source and accessible from the current position.

The following simple example uses the `count` constant that should be defined somewhere in source:

```
if count>0
    mov cx,count
    rep movsb
end if
```

These two assembly instructions will be assembled only if the `count` constant is greater than 0. The next sample shows more complex conditional structure:

```
if count & ~ count mod 4
    mov cx,count/4
    rep movsd
else if count>4
    mov cx,count/4
    rep movsd
    mov cx,count mod 4
    rep movsb
else
    mov cx,count
    rep movsb
end if
```

The first block of instructions gets assembled when the `count` is non zero and divisible by four, if this condition is not met, the second logical expression, which follows the `else if`, is evaluated and if it's true, the second block of instructions get assembled, otherwise the last block of instructions, which follows the line containing only `else`, is assembled.

There are also operators that allow comparison of values being any chains of symbols. The `eq` compares two such values whether they are exactly the same. The `in` operator checks whether given value is a member of the list of values following this operator, the list should be enclosed between `<` and `>` characters, its members should be separated with commas. The symbols are considered the same when they have the same meaning for the assembler – for example `pword` and `fword` for assembler are the same and thus are not distinguished by the above operators. In the same way `16 eq 10h` is the true condition, however `16 eq 10+4` is not.

The `eqtype` operator checks whether the two compared values have the same structure, and whether the structural elements are of the same type.

The distinguished types include numerical expressions, individual quoted strings, floating point numbers, address expressions (the expressions enclosed in square brackets or preceded by `ptr` operator), instruction mnemonics, registers, size operators, jump type and code type operators. And each of the special characters that act as a separators, like comma or colon, is the separate type itself. For example, two values, each one consisting of register name followed by comma and numerical expression, will be regarded as of the same type, no matter what kind of register and how complicated numerical expression is used; with exception for the quoted strings and floating point values, which are the special kinds of numerical expressions and are treated as different types. Thus `eax,16 eqtype fs,3+7` condition is true, but `eax,16 eqtype eax,1.6` is false.

### 2.2.3 Repeating blocks of instructions

`times` directive repeats one instruction specified number of times. It should be followed by numerical expression specifying number of repeats and the instruction to repeat (optionally colon can be used to separate number and instruction). When special symbol `%` is used inside the instruction, it is equal to the number of current repeat. For example `times 5 db %` will define five bytes with values 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. Recursive use of `times` directive is also allowed, so `times 3 times % db %` will define six bytes with values 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 3.

   `repeat` directive repeats the whole block of instructions. It should be followed by numerical expression specifying number of repeats. Instructions to repeat are expected in next lines, ended with the `end repeat` directive, for example:

```
repeat 8
    mov byte [bx],%
    inc bx
end repeat
```

The generated code will store byte values from one to eight in the memory addressed by BX register.

   Number of repeats can be zero, in that case the instructions are not assembled at all.

   The `break` directive allows to stop repeating earlier and continue assembly from the first line after the `end repeat`. Combined with the `if` directive it allows to stop repeating under some special condition, like:

```
s = x/2
repeat 100
```

```
        if x/s = s
            break
        end if
        s = (s+x/s)/2
    end repeat
```

The `while` directive repeats the block of instructions as long as the condition specified by the logical expression following it is true. The block of instructions to be repeated should end with the `end while` directive. Before each repetition the logical expression is evaluated and when its value is false, the assembly is continued starting from the first line after the `end while`. Also in this case the `%` symbol holds the number of current repeat. The `break` directive can be used to stop this kind of loop in the same way as with `repeat` directive. The previous sample can be rewritten to use the `while` instead of `repeat` this way:

```
    s = x/2
    while x/s <> s
        s = (s+x/s)/2
        if % = 100
            break
        end if
    end while
```

The blocks defined with `if`, `repeat` and `while` can be nested in any order, however they should be closed in the same order in which they were started. The `break` directive always stops processing the block that was started last with either the `repeat` or `while` directive.

## 2.2.4   Addressing spaces

`org` directive sets address at which the following code is expected to appear in memory. It should be followed by numerical expression specifying the address. This directive begins the new addressing space, the following code itself is not moved in any way, but all the labels defined within it and the value of `$` symbol are affected as if it was put at the given address. However it's the responsibility of programmer to put the code at correct address at run–time.

The `load` directive allows to define constant with a binary value loaded from the already assembled code. This directive should be followed by the name of the constant, then optionally size operator, then `from` operator and a numerical expression specifying a valid address in current addressing space.

The size operator has unusual meaning in this case – it states how many bytes (up to 8) have to be loaded to form the binary value of constant. If no size operator is specified, one byte is loaded (thus value is in range from 0 to 255). The loaded data cannot exceed current offset.

The `store` directive can modify the already generated code by replacing some of the previously generated data with the value defined by given numerical expression, which follow. The expression can be preceded by the optional size operator to specify how large value the expression defines, and therefore how much bytes will be stored, if there is no size operator, the size of one byte is assumed. Then the `at` operator and the numerical expression defining the valid address in current addressing code space, at which the given value have to be stored should follow. This is a directive for advanced appliances and should be used carefully.

Both `load` and `store` directives are limited to operate on places in current addressing space. The `$$` symbol is always equal to the base address of current addressing space, and the `$` symbol is the address of current position in that addressing space, therefore these two values define limits of the area, where `load` and `store` can operate.

Combining the `load` and `store` directives allows to do things like encoding some of the already generated code. For example to encode the whole code generated in current addressing space you can use such block of directives:

```
repeat $-$$
    load a byte from $$+%-1
    store byte a xor c at $$+%-1
end repeat
```

and each byte of code will be xored with the value defined by `c` constant.

`virtual` defines virtual data at specified address. This data won't be included in the output file, but labels defined there can be used in other parts of source. This directive can be followed by `at` operator and the numerical expression specifying the address for virtual data, otherwise is uses current address, the same as `virtual at $`. Instructions defining data are expected in next lines, ended with `end virtual` directive. The block of virtual instructions itself is an independent addressing space, after it's ended, the context of previous addressing space is restored.

The `virtual` directive can be used to create union of some variables, for example:

```
GDTR dp ?
virtual at GDTR
    GDT_limit dw ?
```

```
        GDT_address dd ?
    end virtual
```

It defines two labels for parts of the 48–bit variable at `GDTR` address.

It can be also used to define labels for some structures addressed by a register, for example:

```
    virtual at bx
        LDT_limit dw ?
        LDT_address dd ?
    end virtual
```

With such definition instruction `mov ax,[LDT_limit]` will be assembled to `mov ax,[bx]`.

Declaring defined data values or instructions inside the virtual block would also be useful, because the `load` directive can be used to load the values from the virtually generated code into a constants. This directive should be used after the code it loads but before the virtual block ends, because it can only load the values from the same addressing space. For example:

```
    virtual at 0
        xor eax,eax
        and edx,eax
        load zeroq dword from 0
    end virtual
```

The above piece of code will define the `zeroq` constant containing four bytes of the machine code of the instructions defined inside the virtual block. This method can be also used to load some binary value from external file. For example this code:

```
    virtual at 0
        file 'a.txt':10h,1
        load char from 0
    end virtual
```

loads the single byte from offset 10h in file `a.txt` into the `char` constant.

Any of the `section` directives described in 2.4 also begins a new addressing space.

## 2.2.5   Other directives

`align` directive aligns code or data to the specified boundary. It should be followed by a numerical expression specifying the number of bytes, to the multiply of which the current address has to be aligned. The boundary value has to be the power of two.

The `align` directive fills the bytes that had to be skipped to perform the alignment with the `nop` instructions and at the same time marks this area as uninitialized data, so if it is placed among other uninitialized data that wouldn't take space in the output file, the alignment bytes will act the same way. If you need to fill the alignment area with some other values, you can combine `align` with `virtual` to get the size of alignment needed and then create the alignment yourself, like:

```
virtual
    align 16
    a = $ - $$
end virtual
db a dup 0
```

The `a` constant is defined to be the difference between address after alignment and address of the `virtual` block (see previous section), so it is equal to the size of needed alignment space.

`display` directive displays the message at the assembly time. It should be followed by the quoted strings or byte values, separated with commas. It can be used to display values of some constants, for example:

```
bits = 16
display 'Current offset is 0x'
repeat bits/4
    d = '0' + $ shr (bits-%*4) and 0Fh
    if d > '9'
        d = d + 'A'-'9'-1
    end if
    display d
end repeat
display 13,10
```

This block of directives calculates the four hexadecimal digits of 16–bit value and converts them into characters for displaying. Note that this won't work if the adresses in current addressing space are relocatable (as it might happen with PE or object output formats), since only absolute values can be used this way. The absolute value may be obtained by calculating the relative address, like `$-$$`, or `rva $` in case of PE format.

## 2.2.6  Multiple passes

Because the assembler allows to reference some of the labels or constants before they get actually defined, it has to predict the values of such labels and if there is even a suspicion that prediction failed in at least one case, it does one more pass, assembling the whole source, this time doing better prediction based on the values the labels got in the previous pass.

The changing values of labels can cause some instructions to have encodings of different length, and this can cause the change in values of labels again. And since the labels and constants can also be used inside the expressions that affect the behavior of control directives, the whole block of source can be processed completely differently during the new pass. Thus the assembler does more and more passes, each time trying to do better predictions to approach the final solution, when all the values get predicted correctly. It uses various method for predicting the values, which has been chosen to allow finding in a few passes the solution of possibly smallest length for the most of the programs.

Some of the errors, like the values not fitting in required boundaries, are not signaled during those intermediate passes, since it may happen that when some of the values are predicted better, these errors will disappear. However if assembler meets some illegal syntax construction or unknown instruction, it always stops immediately. Also defining some label more than once causes such error, because it makes the predictions groundless.

Only the messages created with the `display` directive during the last performed pass get actually displayed. In case when the assembly has been stopped due to an error, these messages may reflect the predicted values that are not yet resolved correctly.

The solution may sometimes not exist and in such cases the assembler will never manage to make correct predictions – for this reason there is a limit for a number of passes, and when assembler reaches this limit, it stops and displays the message that it is not able to generate the correct output. Consider the following example:

```
if ~ defined alpha
    alpha:
end if
```

The `defined` operator gives the true value when the expression following it could be calculated in this place, what in this case means that the `alpha` label is defined somewhere. But the above block causes this label to be defined only when the value given by `defined` operator is false, what leads to an antynomy and makes it impossible to resolve such code. When processing

the `if` directive assembler has to predict whether the `alpha` label will be
defined somewhere (it wouldn't have to predict only if the label was already
defined earlier in this pass), and whatever the prediction is, the opposite
always happens. Thus the assembly will fail, unless the `alpha` label is defined
somewhere in source preceding the above block of instructions – in such case,
as it was already noted, the prediction is not needed and the block will just
get skipped.

The above sample might have been written as a try to define the label
only when it was not yet defined. It fails, because the `defined` operator does
check whether the label is defined anywhere, and this includes the definition
inside this conditionally processed block. However adding some additional
condition may make it possible to get it resolved:

```
if ~ defined alpha | defined @f
    alpha:
    @@:
end if
```

The `@f` is always the same label as the nearest `@@` symbol in the source fol-
lowing it, so the above sample would mean the same if any unique name was
used instead of the anonymous label. When `alpha` is not defined in any other
place in source, the only possible solution is when this block gets defined,
and this time this doesn't lead to the antynomy, because of the anonymous
label which makes this block self–establishing. To better understand this,
look at the blocks that has nothing more than this self-establishing:

```
if defined @f
    @@:
end if
```

This is an example of source that may have more than one solution, as both
cases when this block gets processed or not are equally correct. Which one
of those two solutions we get depends on the algorithm on the assembler, in
case of flat assembler – on the algorithm of predictions. Back to the previous
sample, when `alpha` is not defined anywhere else, the condition for `if` block
cannot be false, so we are left with only one possible solution, and we can
hope the assembler will arrive at it. On the other hand, when `alpha` is
defined in some other place, we've got two possible solutions again, but one
of them causes `alpha` to be defined twice, and such an error causes assembler
to abort the assembly immediately, as this is the kind of error that deeply
disturbs the process of resolving. So we can get such source either correctly
resolved or causing an error, and what we get may depend on the internal
choices made by the assembler.

However there are some facts about such choices that are certain. When assembler has to check whether the given symbol is defined and it was already defined in the current pass, no prediction is needed – it was already noted above. And when the given symbol has been defined never before, including all the already finished passes, the assembler predicts it to be not defined. Knowing this, we can expect that the simple self–establishing block shown above will not be assembled at all and that the previous sample will resolve correctly when `alpha` is defined somewhere before our conditional block, while it will itself define `alpha` when it's not already defined earlier, thus potentially causing the error because of double definition if the `alpha` is also defined somewhere later.

The `used` operator may be expected to behave in a similar manner in analogous cases, however any other kinds of predictions my not be so simple and you should never rely on them this way.

## 2.3 Preprocessor directives

All preprocessor directives are processed before the main assembly process, and therefore are not affected by the control directives. At this time also all comments are stripped out.

### 2.3.1 Including source files

`include` directive includes the specified source file at the position where it is used. It should be followed by the quoted name of file that should be included, for example:

```
include 'macros.inc'
```

The whole included file is preprocessed before preprocessing the lines next to the line containing the `include` directive. There are no limits to the number of included files as long as they fit in memory.

The quoted path can contain environment variables enclosed within `%` characters, they will be replaced with their values inside the path, both the `\` and `/` characters are allowed as a path separators. If no absolute path is given, the file is first searched for in the directory containing file which included it and when it's not found there, in the directory containing the main source file (the one specified in command line). These rules concern also paths given with the `file` directive.

## 2.3.2   Symbolic constants

The symbolic constants are different from the numerical constants, before the assembly process they are replaced with their values everywhere in source lines after their definitions, and anything can become their values.

The definition of symbolic constant consists of name of the constant followed by the `equ` directive. Everything that follows this directive will become the value of constant. If the value of symbolic constant contains other symbolic constants, they are replaced with their values before assigning this value to the new constant. For example:

```
    d equ dword
    NULL equ d 0
    d equ edx
```

After these three definitions the value of `NULL` constant is `dword 0` and the value of `d` is `edx`. So, for example, `push NULL` will be assembled as `push dword 0` and `push d` will be assembled as `push edx`. And if then the following line was put:

```
    d equ d,eax
```

the `d` constant would get the new value of `edx,eax`. This way the growing lists of symbols can be defined.

`restore` directive allows to get back previous value of redefined symbolic constant. It should be followed by one more names of symbolic constants, separated with commas. So `restore d` after the above definitions will give `d` constant back the value `edx`, the second one will restore it to value `dword`, and one more will revert `d` to original meaning as if no such constant was defined. If there was no constant defined of given name, `restore` won't cause an error, it will be just ignored.

Symbolic constant can be used to adjust the syntax of assembler to personal preferences. For example the following set of definitions provides the handy shortcuts for all the size operators:

```
    b equ byte
    w equ word
    d equ dword
    p equ pword
    f equ fword
    q equ qword
    t equ tword
    x equ dqword
```

Because symbolic constant may also have an empty value, it can be used to allow the syntax with `offset` word before any address value:

```
offset equ
```

After this definition `mov ax,offset char` will be valid construction for copying the offset of `char` variable into `ax` register, because `offset` is replaced with an empty value, and therefore ignored.

The `define` directive followed by the name of constant and then the value, is the alternative way of defining symbolic constant. The only difference between `define` and `equ` is that `define` assigns the value as it is, it does not replace the symbolic constants with their values inside it.

Symbolic constants can also be defined with the `fix` directive, which has the same syntax as `equ`, but defines constants of high priority – they are replaced with their symbolic values even before processing the preprocessor directives and macroinstructions, the only exception is `fix` directive itself, which has the highest possible priority, so it allows redefinition of constants defined this way.

The `fix` directive can be used for syntax adjustments related to directives of preprocessor, what cannot be done with `equ` directive. For example:

```
incl fix include
```

defines a short name for `include` directive, while the similar definition done with `equ` directive wouldn't give such result, as standard symbolic constants are replaced with their values after searching the line for preprocessor directives.

### 2.3.3   Macroinstructions

`macro` directive allows you to define your own complex instructions, called macroinstructions, using which can greatly simplify the process of programming. In its simplest form it's similar to symbolic constant definition. For example the following definition defines a shortcut for the `test al,0xFF` instruction:

```
macro tst {test al,0xFF}
```

After the `macro` directive there is a name of macroinstruction and then its contents enclosed between the `{` and `}` characters. You can use `tst` instruction anywhere after this definition and it will be assembled as `test al,0xFF`. Defining symbolic constant `tst` of that value would give the similar result, but the difference is that the name of macroinstruction is recognized only

as an instruction mnemonic. Also, macroinstructions are replaced with corresponding code even before the symbolic constants are replaced with their values. So if you define macroinstruction and symbolic constant of the same name, and use this name as an instruction mnemonic, it will be replaced with the contents of macroinstruction, but it will be replaced with value if symbolic constant if used somewhere inside the operands.

The definition of macroinstruction can consist of many lines, because { and } characters don't have to be in the same line as `macro` directive. For example:

```
macro stos0
 {
    xor al,al
    stosb
 }
```

The macroinstruction `stos0` will be replaced with these two assembly instructions anywhere it's used.

Like instructions which needs some number of operands, the macroinstruction can be defined to need some number of arguments separated with commas. The names of needed argument should follow the name of macroinstruction in the line of `macro` directive and should be separated with commas if there is more than one. Anywhere one of these names occurs in the contents of macroinstruction, it will be replaced with corresponding value, provided when the macroinstruction is used. Here is an example of a macroinstruction that will do data alignment for binary output format:

```
macro align value { rb (value-1)-($+value-1) mod value }
```

When the `align 4` instruction is found after this macroinstruction is defined, it will be replaced with contents of this macroinstruction, and the `value` will there become 4, so the result will be `rb (4-1)-($+4-1) mod 4`.

If a macroinstruction is defined that uses an instruction with the same name inside its definition, the previous meaning of this name is used. Useful redefinition of macroinstructions can be done in that way, for example:

```
macro mov op1,op2
  {
   if op1 in <ds,es,fs,gs,ss> & op2 in <cs,ds,es,fs,gs,ss>
     push   op2
     pop    op1
   else
     mov    op1,op2
```

```
    end if
  }
```

This macroinstruction extends the syntax of `mov` instruction, allowing both operands to be segment registers. For example `mov ds,es` will be assembled as `push es` and `pop ds`. In all other cases the standard `mov` instruction will be used. The syntax of this `mov` can be extended further by defining next macroinstruction of that name, which will use the previous macroinstruction:

```
  macro mov op1,op2,op3
   {
    if op3 eq
       mov    op1,op2
    else
       mov    op1,op2
       mov    op2,op3
    end if
   }
```

It allows `mov` instruction to have three operands, but it can still have two operands only, because when macroinstruction is given less arguments than it needs, the rest of arguments will have empty values. When three operands are given, this macroinstruction will become two macroinstructions of the previous definition, so `mov es,ds,dx` will be assembled as `push ds`, `pop es` and `mov ds,dx`.

By placing the ∗ after the name of argument you can mark the argument as required – preprocessor won't allow it to have an empty value. For example the above macroinstruction could be declared as `macro mov op1*,op2*,op3` to make sure that first two arguments will always have to be given some non empty values.

When it's needed to provide macroinstruction with argument that contains some commas, such argument should be enclosed between `<` and `>` characters. If it contains more than one `<` character, the same number of `>` should be used to tell that the value of argument ends.

`purge` directive allows removing the last definition of specified macroinstruction. It should be followed by one or more names of macroinstructions, separated with commas. If such macroinstruction has not been defined, you won't get any error. For example after having the syntax of `mov` extended with the macroinstructions defined above, you can disable syntax with three operands back by using `purge mov` directive. Next `purge mov` will disable also syntax for two operands being segment registers, and all the next such directives will do nothing.

If after the `macro` directive you enclose some group of arguments' names in square brackets, it will allow giving more values for this group of arguments when using that macroinstruction. Any more argument given after the last argument of such group will begin the new group and will become the first argument of it. That's why after closing the square bracket no more argument names can follow. The contents of macroinstruction will be processed for each such group of arguments separately. The simplest example is to enclose one argument name in square brackets:

```
macro stoschar [char]
 {
    mov al,char
    stosb
 }
```

This macroinstruction accepts unlimited number of arguments, and each one will be processed into these two instructions separately. For example `stoschar 1,2,3` will be assembled as the following instructions:

```
mov al,1
stosb
mov al,2
stosb
mov al,3
stosb
```

There are some special directives available only inside the definitions of macroinstructions. `local` directive defines local names, which will be replaced with unique values each time the macroinstruction is used. It should be followed by names separated with commas. If the name given as parameter to `local` directive begins with a dot or two dots, the unique labels generated by each evaluation of macroinstruction will have the same properties. This directive is usually needed for the constants or labels that macroinstruction defines and uses internally. For example:

```
macro movstr
 {
    local move
  move:
    lodsb
    stosb
    test al,al
    jnz move
 }
```

Each time this macroinstruction is used, `move` will become other unique name in its instructions, so you won't get an error you normally get when some label is defined more than once.

`forward`, `reverse` and `common` directives divide macroinstruction into blocks, each one processed after the processing of previous is finished. They differ in behavior only if macroinstruction allows multiple groups of arguments. Block of instructions that follows `forward` directive is processed for each group of arguments, from first to last – exactly like the default block (not preceded by any of these directives). Block that follows `reverse` directive is processed for each group of argument in reverse order – from last to first. Block that follows `common` directive is processed only once, commonly for all groups of arguments. Local name defined in one of the blocks is available in all the following blocks when processing the same group of arguments as when it was defined, and when it is defined in common block it is available in all the following blocks not depending on which group of arguments is processed.

Here is an example of macroinstruction that will create the table of addresses to strings followed by these strings:

```
macro strtbl name,[string]
 {
  common
    label name dword
  forward
    local label
    dd label
  forward
    label db string,0
 }
```

First argument given to this macroinstruction will become the label for table of addresses, next arguments should be the strings. First block is processed only once and defines the label, second block for each string declares its local name and defines the table entry holding the address to that string. Third block defines the data of each string with the corresponding label.

The directive starting the block in macroinstruction can be followed by the first instruction of this block in the same line, like in the following example:

```
macro stdcall proc,[arg]
 {
  reverse push arg
```

```
   common call proc
 }
```

This macroinstruction can be used for calling the procedures using STD-CALL convention, arguments are pushed on stack in the reverse order. For example `stdcall foo,1,2,3` will be assembled as:

```
push 3
push 2
push 1
call foo
```

If some name inside macroinstruction has multiple values (it is either one of the arguments enclosed in square brackets or local name defined in the block following `forward` or `reverse` directive) and is used in block following the `common` directive, it will be replaced with all of its values, separated with commas. For example the following macroinstruction will pass all of the additional arguments to the previously defined `stdcall` macroinstruction:

```
macro invoke proc,[arg]
 { common stdcall [proc],arg }
```

It can be used to call indirectly (by the pointer stored in memory) the procedure using STDCALL convention.

Inside macroinstruction also special operator `#` can be used. This operator causes two names to be concatenated into one name. It can be useful, because it's done after the arguments and local names are replaced with their values. The following macroinstruction will generate the conditional jump according to the `cond` argument:

```
macro jif op1,cond,op2,label
 {
    cmp op1,op2
    j#cond label
 }
```

For example `jif ax,ae,10h,exit` will be assembled as `cmp ax,10h` and `jae exit` instructions.

The `#` operator can be also used to concatenate two quoted strings into one. Also conversion of name into a quoted string is possible, with the ' operator, which likewise can be used inside the macroinstruction. It converts the name that follows it into a quoted string – but note, that when it is followed by a macro argument which is being replaced with value containing

more than one symbol, only the first of them will be converted, as the '
operator converts only one symbol that immediately follows it. Here's an
example of utilizing those two features:

```
macro label name
 {
    label name
    if ~ used name
      display 'name # " is defined but not used.",13,10
    end if
 }
```

When label defined with such macro is not used in the source, macro will
warn you with the message, informing to which label it applies.

To make macroinstruction behaving differently when some of the argu-
ments are of some special type, for example a quoted strings, you can use
`eqtype` comparison operator. Here's an example of utilizing it to distinguish
a quoted string from an other argument.

```
macro message arg
 {
  if arg eqtype ""
    local str
    jmp   @f
    str   db arg,0Dh,0Ah,24h
    @@:
    mov   dx,str
  else
    mov   dx,arg
  end if
    mov   ah,9
    int   21h
 }
```

The above macro is designed for displaying messages in DOS programs.
When the argument of this macro is some number, label, or variable, the
string from that address is displayed, but when the argument is a quoted
string, the created code will display that string followed by the carriage re-
turn and line feed.

It is also possible to put a declaration of macroinstruction inside another
macroinstruction, so one macro can define another, but there is a problem
with such definitions caused by the fact, that } character cannot occur inside

the macroinstruction, as it always means the end of definition. To overcome this problem, the escaping of symbols inside macroinstruction can be used. This is done by placing one or more backslashes in front of any other symbol (even the special character). Preprocessor sees such sequence as a single symbol, but each time it meets such symbol during the macroinstruction processing, it cuts the backslash character from the front of it. For example \} is treated as single symbol, but during processing of the macroinstruction it becomes the } symbol. This allows to put one definition of macroinstruction inside another:

```
macro ext instr
 {
  macro instr op1,op2,op3
   \{
     if op3 eq
       instr op1,op2
     else
       instr op1,op2
       instr op2,op3
     end if
   \}
 }

ext add
ext sub
```

The macro `ext` is defined correctly, but when it is used, the \{ and \} become the { and } symbols. So when the `ext add` is processed, the contents of macro becomes valid definition of a macroinstruction and this way the `add` macro becomes defined. In the same way `ext sub` defines the `sub` macro. The use of \{ symbol wasn't really necessary here, but is done this way to make the definition more clear.

If some directives specific to macroinstructions, like `local` or `common` are needed inside some macro embedded this way, they can be escaped in the same way. Escaping the symbol with more than one backslash is also allowed, which allows multiple levels of nesting the macroinstruction definitions.

The another technique for defining one macroinstruction by another is to use the `fix` directive, which becomes useful when some macroinstruction only begins the definition of another one, without closing it. For example:

```
macro tmacro [params]
 {
```

```
  common macro params {
 }

 MACRO fix tmacro
 ENDM fix }
```

defines an alternative syntax for defining macroinstructions, which looks like:

```
 MACRO stoschar char
     mov al,char
     stosb
 ENDM
```

Note that symbol that has such customized definition must be defined with `fix` directive, because only the prioritized symbolic constants are processed before the preprocessor looks for the `}` character while defining the macro. This might be a problem if one needed to perform some additional tasks one the end of such definition, but there is one more feature which helps in such cases. Namely it is possible to put any directive, instruction or macroinstruction just after the `}` character that ends the macroinstruction and it will be processed in the same way as if it was put in the next line.

## 2.3.4 Structures

`struc` directive is a special variant of `macro` directive that is used to define data structures. Macroinstruction defined using the `struc` directive must be preceded by a label (like the data definition directive) when it's used. This label will be also attached at the beginning of every name starting with dot in the contents of macroinstruction. The macroinstruction defined using the `struc` directive can have the same name as some other macroinstruction defined using the `macro` directive, structure macroinstruction won't prevent the standard macroinstruction being processed when there is no label before it and vice versa. All the rules and features concerning standard macroinstructions apply to structure macroinstructions.

Here is the sample of structure macroinstruction:

```
 struc point x,y
  {
     .x dw x
     .y dw y
  }
```

For example `my point 7,11` will define structure labeled `my`, consisting of
two variables: `my.x` with value 7 and `my.y` with value 11.

If somewhere inside the definition of structure the name consisting of a
single dot it found, it is replaced by the name of the label for the given
instance of structure and this label will not be defined automatically in such
case, allowing to completely customize the definition. The following example
utilizes this feature to extend the data definition directive `db` with ability to
calculate the size of defined data:

```
struc db [data]
 {
   common
    . db data
    .size = $ - .
 }
```

With such definition `msg db 'Hello!',13,10` will define also `msg.size` con-
stant, equal to the size of defined data in bytes.

Defining data structures addressed by registers or absolute values should
be done using the `virtual` directive with structure macroinstruction (see
2.2.5).

`restruc` directive removes the last definition of the structure, just like
`purge` does with macroinstructions and `restore` with symbolic constants.
It also has the same syntax – should be followed by one or more names of
structure macroinstructions, separated with commas.

## 2.3.5   Repeating macroinstructions

The `rept` directive is a special kind of macroinstruction, which makes given
amount of duplicates of the block enclosed with braces. The basic syntax
is `rept` directive followed by number (it cannot be an expression, since pre-
processor doesn't do calculations, if you need repetitions based on values
calculated by assembler, use one of the code repeating directives that are
processed by assembler, see 2.2.3), and then block of source enclosed be-
tween the `{` and `}` characters. The simplest example:

```
rept 5 { in al,dx }
```

will make five duplicates of the `in al,dx` line. The block of instructions is
defined in the same way as for the standard macroinstruction and any special
operators and directives which can be used only inside macroinstructions
are also allowed here. When the given count is zero, the block is simply

skipped, as if you defined macroinstruction but never used it. The number of repetitions can be followed by the name of counter symbol, which will get replaced symbolically with the number of duplicate currently generated. So this:

```
rept 3 counter
 {
    byte#counter db counter
 }
```

will generate lines:

```
byte1 db 1
byte2 db 2
byte3 db 3
```

The repetition mechanism applied to `rept` blocks is the same as the one used to process multiple groups of arguments for macroinstructions, so directives like `forward`, `common` and `reverse` can be used in their usual meaning. Thus such macroinstruction:

```
rept 7 num { reverse display 'num }
```

will display digits from 7 to 1 as text. The `local` directive behaves in the same way as inside macroinstruction with multiple groups of arguments, so:

```
rept 21
 {
   local label
   label: loop label
 }
```

will generate unique label for each duplicate.

The counter symbol by default counts from 1, but you can declare different base value by placing the number preceded by colon immediately after the name of counter. For example:

```
rept 8 n:0 { pxor xmm#n,xmm#n }
```

will generate code which will clear the contents of eight SSE registers. You can define multiple counters separated with commas, and each one can have different base.

The `irp` directive iterates the single argument through the given list of parameters. The syntax is `irp` followed by the argument name, then the

comma and then the list of parameters. The parameters are specified in the same way like in the invocation of standard macroinstruction, so they have to be separated with commas and each one can be enclosed with the `<` and `>` characters. Also the name of argument may be followed by `*` to mark that it cannot get an empty value. Such block:

```
irp value, 2,3,5
 { db value }
```

will generate lines:

```
db 2
db 3
db 5
```

The `irps` directive iterates through the given list of symbols, it should be followed by the argument name, then the comma and then the sequence of any symbols. Each symbol in this sequence, no matter whether it is the name symbol, symbol character or quoted string, becomes an argument value for one iteration. If there are no symbols following the comma, no iteration is done at all. This example:

```
irps reg, al bx ecx
 { xor reg,reg }
```

will generate lines:

```
xor al,al
xor bx,bx
xor ecx,ecx
```

The blocks defined by the `irp` and `irps` directives are also processed in the same way as any macroinstructions, so operators and directives specific to macroinstructions may be freely used also in this case.

## 2.3.6   Conditional preprocessing

`match` directive causes some block of source to be preprocessed and passed to assembler only when the given sequence of symbols matches the specified pattern. The pattern comes first, ended with comma, then the symbols that have to be matched with the pattern, and finally the block of source, enclosed within braces as macroinstruction.

There are the few rules for building the expression for matching, first is that any of symbol characters and any quoted string should be matched exactly as is. In this example:

```
    match +,+ { include 'first.inc' }
    match +,- { include 'second.inc' }
```

the first file will get included, since + after comma matches the + in pattern, and the second file won't be included, since there is no match.

To match any other symbol literally, it has to be preceded by = character in the pattern. Also to match the = character itself, or the comma, the == and =, constructions have to be used. For example the =a== pattern will match the a= sequence.

If some name symbol is placed in the pattern, it matches any sequence consisting of at least one symbol and then this name is replaced with the matched sequence everywhere inside the following block, analogously to the parameters of macroinstruction. For instance:

```
    match a-b, 0-7
     { dw a,b-a }
```

will generate the dw 0,7-0 instruction. Each name is always matched with as few symbols as possible, leaving the rest for the following ones, so in this case:

```
    match a b, 1+2+3 { db a }
```

the a name will match the 1 symbol, leaving the +2+3 sequence to be matched with b. But in this case:

```
    match a b, 1 { db a }
```

there will be nothing left for b to match, so the block won't get processed at all.

The block of source defined by match is processed in the same way as any macroinstruction, so any operators specific to macroinstructions can be used also in this case.

What makes "match" directive more useful is the fact, that it replaces the symbolic constants with their values in the matched sequence of symbols (that is everywhere after comma up to the beginning of the source block) before performing the match. Thanks to this it can be used for example to process some block of source under the condition that some symbolic constant has the given value, like:

```
    match =TRUE, DEBUG { include 'debug.inc' }
```

which will include the file only when the symbolic constant DEBUG was defined with value TRUE.

## 2.3.7   Order of processing

When combining various features of the preprocessor, it's important to know the order in which they are processed. As it was already noted, the highest priority has the `fix` directive and the replacements defined with it. This is done completely before doing any other preprocessing, therefore this piece of source:

```
V fix {
  macro empty
    V
V fix }
    V
```

becomes a valid definition of an empty macroinstruction. It can be interpreted that the `fix` directive and prioritized symbolic constants are processed in a separate stage, and all other preprocessing is done after on the resulting source.

The standard preprocessing that comes after, on each line begins with recognition of the first symbol. It begins with checking for the preprocessor directives, and when none of them is detected, preprocessor checks whether the first symbol is macroinstruction. If no macroinstruction is found, it moves to the second symbol of line, and again begins with checking for directives, which in this case is only the `equ` directive, as this is the only one that occurs as the second symbol in line. If there's no directive, the second symbol is checked for the case of structure macroinstruction and when none of those checks gives the positive result, the symbolic constants are replaced with their values and such line is passed to the assembler.

To see it on the example, assume that there is defined the macroinstruction called `foo` and the structure macroinstruction called `bar`. Those lines:

```
foo equ
foo bar
```

would be then both interpreted as invocations of macroinstruction `foo`, since the meaning of the first symbol overrides the meaning of second one.

The macroinstructions generate the new lines from their definition blocks, replacing the parameters with their values and then processing the symbol escaping and `#` and ' operators. The conversion operator has the higher priority than concatenation and if any of them operates on the escaped symbol, the escaping is cancelled before finishing the operation. After this is completed, the newly generated line goes through the standard preprocessing, as described above.

Though the symbolic constants are usually only replaced in the lines, where no preprocessor directives nor macroinstructions has been found, there are some special cases where those replacements are performed in the parts of lines containing directives. First one is the definition of symbolic constant, where the replacements are done everywhere after the `equ` keyword and the resulting value is then assigned to the new constant (see 2.3.2). The second such case is the `match` directive, where the replacements are done in the symbols following comma before matching them with pattern. These features can be used for example to maintain the lists, like this set of definitions:

```
list equ

macro append item
 {
   match any, list \{ list equ list,item \}
   match , list \{ list equ item \}
 }
```

The `list` constant is here initialized with empty value, and the `append` macroinstruction can be used to add the new items into this list, separating them with commas. The first match in this macroinstruction occurs only when the value of list is not empty (see 2.3.6), in such case the new value for the list is the previous one with the comma and the new item appended at the end. The second match happens only when the list is still empty, and in such case the list is defined to contain just the new item. So starting with the empty list, the `append 1` would define `list equ 1` and the `append 2` following it would define `list equ 1,2`. One might then need to use this list as the parameters to some macroinstruction. But it cannot be done directly – if `foo` is the macroinstruction, then `foo list` would just pass the `list` symbol as a parameter to macro, since symbolic constants are not unrolled at this stage. For this purpose again `match` directive comes in handy:

```
match params, list { foo params }
```

The value of `list`, if it's not empty, matches the `params` keyword, which is then replaced with matched value when generating the new lines defined by the block enclosed with braces. So if the `list` had value `1,2`, the above line would generate the line containing `foo 1,2`, which would then go through the standard preprocessing.

There is one more special case – when preprocessor goes to checking the second symbol in the line and it happens to be the colon character (what is then interpreted by assembler as definition of a label), it stops in this place

and finishes the preprocessing of the first symbol (so if it's the symbolic constant it gets unrolled) and if it still appears to be the label, it performs the standard preprocessing starting from the place after the label. This allows to place preprocessor directives and macroinstructions after the labels, analogously to the instructions and directives processed by assembler, like:

```
start: include 'start.inc'
```

However if the label becomes broken during preprocessing (for example when it is the symbolic constant with empty value), only replacing of the symbolic constants is continued for the rest of line.

It should be remembered, that the jobs performed by preprocessor are the preliminary operations on the texts symbols, that are done in a simple single pass before the main process of assembly. The text that is the result of preprocessing is passed to assembler, and it then does its multiple passes on it. Thus the control directives, which are recognized and processed only by the assembler – as they are dependent on the numerical values that may even vary between passes – are not recognized in any way by the preprocessor and have no effect on the preprocessing. Consider this example source:

```
if 0
a = 1
b equ 2
end if
dd b
```

When it is preprocessed, they only directive that is recognized by the preprocessor is the `equ`, which defines symbolic constant `b`, so later in the source the `b` symbol is replaced with the value 2. Except for this replacement, the other lines are passes unchanged to the assembler. So after preprocessing the above source becomes:

```
if 0
a = 1
end if
dd 2
```

Now when assembler processes it, the condition for the `if` is false, and the `a` constant doesn't get defined. However symbolic constant `b` was processed normally, even though its definition was put just next to the one of `a`. So because of the possible confusion you should be very careful every times when mixing the features of preprocessor and assembler – always try to imagine what your source will become after the preprocessing, and thus what the assembler will see and do its multiple passes on.

# 2.4 Formatter directives

These directives are actually also a kind of control directives, with the purpose of controlling the format of generated code.

`format` directive followed by the format identifier allows to select the output format. This directive should be put at the beginning of the source. Default output format is a flat binary file, it can also be selected by using `format binary` directive.

`use16` and `use32` directives force the assembler to generate 16–bit or 32–bit code, omitting the default setting for selected output format. `use64` enables generating the code for the long mode of x86–64 processors.

Below are described different output formats with the directives specific to these formats.

## 2.4.1 MZ executable

To select the MZ output format, use `format MZ` directive. The default code setting for this format is 16–bit.

`segment` directive defines a new segment, it should be followed by label, which value will be the number of defined segment, optionally `use16` or `use32` word can follow to specify whether code in this segment should be 16–bit or 32–bit. The origin of segment is aligned to paragraph (16 bytes). All the labels defined then will have values relative to the beginning of this segment.

`entry` directive sets the entry point for MZ executable, it should be followed by the far address (name of segment, colon and the offset inside segment) of desired entry point.

`stack` directive sets up the stack for MZ executable. It can be followed by numerical expression specifying the size of stack to be created automatically or by the far address of initial stack frame when you want to set up the stack manually. When no stack is defined, the stack of default size 4096 bytes will be created.

`heap` directive should be followed by a 16–bit value defining maximum size of additional heap in paragraphs (this is heap in addition to stack and undefined data). Use `heap 0` to always allocate only memory program really needs. Default size of heap is 65535.

## 2.4.2 Portable Executable

To select the Portable Executable output format, use `format PE` directive, it can be followed by additional format settings: use `console`, `GUI` or `native`

operator selects the target subsystem (floating point value specifying subsystem version can follow), `DLL` marks the output file as a dynamic link library. Then can follow the `at` operator and the numerical expression specifying the base of PE image and then optionally `on` operator followed by the quoted string containing file name selects custom MZ stub for PE program (when specified file is not a MZ executable, it is treated as a flat binary executable file and converted into MZ format). The default code setting for this format is 32–bit. The example of fully featured PE format declaration:

```
format PE GUI 4.0 DLL at 7000000h on 'stub.exe'
```

To create PE file for the x86–64 architecture, use `PE64` keyword instead of `PE` in the format declaration, in such case the long mode code is generated by default.

`section` directive defines a new section, it should be followed by quoted string defining the name of section, then one or more section flags can follow. Available flags are: `code`, `data`, `readable`, `writeable`, `executable`, `shareable`, `discardable`, `notpageable`. The origin of section is aligned to page (4096 bytes). Example declaration of PE section:

```
section '.text' code readable executable
```

Among with flags also on of special PE data identifiers can be specified to mark the whole section as a special data, possible identifiers are `export`, `import`, `resource` and `fixups`. If the section is marked to contain fixups, they are generated automatically and no more data needs to be defined in this section. Also resource data can be generated automatically from the resource file, it can be achieved by writing the `from` operator and quoted file name after the `resource` identifier. Below are the examples of sections containing some special PE data:

```
section '.reloc' data discardable fixups
section '.rsrc' data readable resource from 'my.res'
```

`entry` directive sets the entry point for Portable Executable, the value of entry point should follow.

`stack` directive sets up the size of stack for Portable Executable, value of stack reserve size should follow, optionally value of stack commit separated with comma can follow. When stack is not defined, it's set by default to size of 4096 bytes.

`heap` directive chooses the size of heap for Portable Executable, value of heap reserve size should follow, optionally value of heap commit separated with comma can follow. When no heap is defined, it is set by default to size

of 65536 bytes, when size of heap commit is unspecified, it is by default set to zero.

`data` directive begins the definition of special PE data, it should be followed by one of the data identifiers (`export`, `import`, `resource` or `fixups`) or by the number of data entry in PE header. The data should be defined in next lines, ended with `end data` directive. When fixups data definition is chosen, they are generated automatically and no more data needs to be defined there. The same applies to the resource data when the `resource` identifier is followed by `from` operator and quoted file name – in such case data is taken from the given resource file.

The `rva` operator can be used inside the numerical expressions to obtain the RVA of the item addressed by the value it is applied to.

## 2.4.3   Common Object File Format

To select Common Object File Format, use `format COFF` or `format MS COFF` directive whether you want to create simple or Microsoft COFF file. The default code setting for this format is 32–bit. To create the file in Microsoft's COFF format for the x86–64 architecture, use `format MS64 COFF` setting, in such case long mode code is generated by default.

`section` directive defines a new section, it should be followed by quoted string defining the name of section, then one or more section flags can follow. Section flags available for both COFF variants are `code` and `data`, while `readable`, `writeable`, `executable`, `shareable`, `discardable`, `notpageable`, `linkremove` and `linkinfo` are flags available only with Microsoft COFF variant.

By default section is aligned to double word (four bytes), in case of Microsoft COFF variant other alignment can be specified by providing the `align` operator followed by alignment value (any power of two up to 8192) among the section flags.

`extrn` directive defines the external symbol, it should be followed by the name of symbol and optionally the size operator specifying the size of data labeled by this symbol. The name of symbol can be also preceded by quoted string containing name of the external symbol and the `as` operator. Some example declarations of external symbols:

```
extrn exit
extrn '__imp__MessageBoxA@16' as MessageBox:dword
```

`public` directive declares the existing symbol as public, it should be followed by the name of symbol, optionally it can be followed by the `as` operator

and the quoted string containing name under which symbol should be available as public. Some examples of public symbols declarations:

```
public main
public start as '_start'
```

## 2.4.4   Executable and Linkable Format

To select ELF output format, use `format ELF` directive. The default code setting for this format is 32–bit. To create ELF file for the x86–64 architecture, use `format ELF64` directive, in such case the long mode code is generated by default.

`section` directive defines a new section, it should be followed by quoted string defining the name of section, then can follow one or both of the `executable` and `writeable` flags, optionally also `align` operator followed by the number specifying the alignment of section (it has to be the power of two), if no alignment is specified, the default value is used, which is 4 or 8, depending on which format variant has been chosen.

`extrn` and `public` directives have the same meaning and syntax as when the COFF output format is selected (described in previous section).

The operator can be used also in the case of this format (however not when target architecture is x86–64), it converts the address into the offset relative to the GOT table, so it may be useful to create position-independent code. There's also a special `plt` operator, which allows to call the external functions through the Procedure Linkage Table. You can even create an alias for external function that will make it always be called through PLT, with the code like:

```
extrn 'printf' as _printf
printf = PLT _printf
```

To create executable file, follow the format choice directive with the `executable` keyword. It allows to use `entry` directive followed by the value to set as entry point of program. On the other hand it makes `extrn` and `public` directives unavailable, and instead of `section` there should be the `segment` directive used, followed only by one or more segment permission flags. The origin of segment is aligned to page (4096 bytes), and available flags for are: `readable`, `writeable` and `executable`.

# Chapter 3

# Windows programming

With the Windows version of flat assembler comes the package of standard includes designed to help in writing the programs for Windows environment.

The includes package contains the headers for 32–bit Windows programming in the root folder and the specialized includes in the subfolders. In general, the Win32 headers include the required specialized files for you, though sometimes you might prefer to include some of the macroinstruction packages yourself (since few of them are not included by some or even all of the headers).

There are six Win32 headers you can choose from, with names starting with `win32` followed by either a letter `a` for using the ASCII encoding, or a letter `w` for the WideChar encoding. The `win32a.inc` and `win32w.inc` are the basic headers, the `win32ax.inc` and `win32wx.inc` are the extended headers, they provide more advanced macroinstructions, those extensions will be discussed separately. Finally the `win32axp.inc` and `win32wxp.inc` are the same extended headers with enabled feature of checking the count of parameters in procedure calls.

You can include the headers any way you prefer, by providing the full path or using the custom environment variable, but the simplest method is to define the `INCLUDE` environment variable properly pointing to the directory containing headers and then include them just like:

```
include 'win32a.inc'
```

It's important to note that all macroinstructions, as opposed to internal directives of flat assembler, are case sensitive and the lower case is used for the most of them. If you'd prefer to use the other case than default, you should do the appropriate adjustments with `fix` directive.

# 3.1    Basic headers

The basic headers `win32a.inc` and `win32w.inc` include the declarations of
Win32 equates and structures and provide the standard set of macroinstructions.

## 3.1.1    Structures

All headers enable the `struct` macroinstruction, which allows to define structures in a way more similar to other assemblers than the `struc` directive. The definition of structure should be started with `struct` macroinstruction followed by the name, and ended with `ends` macroinstruction. In lines between only data definition directives are allowed, with labels being the pure names for the fields of structure:

```
struct POINT
  x dd ?
  y dd ?
ends
```

With such definition this line:

```
point1 POINT
```

will declare the `point1` structure with the `point1.x` and `point1.y` fields, giving them the default values – the same ones as provided in the definition of structure (in this case the defaults are both uninitialized values). But declaration of structure also accepts the parameters, in the same count as the number of fields in the structure, and those parameters, when specified, override the default values for fields. For example:

```
point2 POINT 10,20
```

initializes the `point2.x` field with value 10, and the `point2.y` with value 20.

The `struct` macro not only enables to declare the structures of given type, but also defines labels for offsets of fields inside the structure and constants for sized of every field and the whole structure. For example the above definition of `POINT` structure defines the `POINT.x` and `POINT.y` labels to be the offsets of fields inside the structure, and `sizeof.POINT.x`, `sizeof.POINT.y` and `sizeof.POINT` as sizes of the corresponding fields and of the whole structure. The offset labels may be used for accessing the structures addressed indirectly, like:

```
mov eax,[ebx+POINT.x]
```

when the `ebx` register contains the pointer to `POINT` structure. Note that field size checking will be performed with such accessing as well.

The structures itself are also allowed inside the structure definitions, so the structures may have some other structures as a fields:

```
struct LINE
  start POINT
  end   POINT
ends
```

When no default values for substructure fields are specified, as in this example, the defaults from the definition of the type of substructure apply.

Since value for each field is a single parameter in the declaration of the structure, to initialize the substructures with custom values the parameters for each substructure must be grouped into a single parameter for the structure:

```
line1 LINE <0,0>,<100,100>
```

This declaration initializes each of the `line1.start.x` and `line1.start.y` fields with 0, and each of the `line1.end.x` and `line1.end.y` with 100.

When the size of data defined by some value passed to the declaration structure is smaller than the size of corresponding field, it is padded to that size with undefined bytes (and when it is larger, the error happens). For example:

```
struct FOO
  data db 256 dup (?)
ends
```

```
some FOO <"ABC",0>
```

fills the first four bytes of `some.data` with defined values and reserves the rest.

Inside the structures also unions and unnamed substructures can be defined. The definition of union should start with `union` and end with `ends`, like in this example:

```
struct BAR
  field_1 dd ?
  union
    field_2  dd ?
    field_2b db ?
  ends
ends
```

Each of the fields defined inside union has the same offset and they share
the same memory.  Only the first field of union is initialized with given
value, the values for the rest of fields are ignored (however if one of the
other fields requires more memory than the first one, the union is padded
to the required size with undefined bytes). The whole union is initialized by
the single parameter given in structure declaration, and this parameter gives
value to the first field of union.

    The unnamed substructure is defined in a similar way to the union, only
starts with the `struct` line instead of `union`, like:

```
struct WBB
  word dw ?
  struct
    byte1 db ?
    byte2 db ?
  ends
ends
```

Such substructure only takes one parameter in the declaration of whole struc-
ture to define its values, and this parameter can itself be the group of param-
eters defining each field of the substructure. So the above type of structure
may get declared like:

```
my WBB 1,<2,3>
```

The fields inside unions and unnamed substructures are accessed just as if
the were directly the fields of the parent structure. For example with above
declaration `my.byte1` and `my.byte2` are correct labels for the substructure
fields.

    The substructures and unions can be nested with no limits for the nesting
depth:

```
struct LINE
  union
    start POINT
    struct
      x1  dd ?
      y1  dd ?
    ends
  ends
  union
    end   POINT
    struct
```

```
      x2  dd ?
      y2  dd ?
    ends
  ends
ends
```

The definition of structure may also be based on some of the already defined structure types and it inherits all the fields from that structure, for example:

```
struct CPOINT POINT
  color dd ?
ends
```

defines the same structure as:

```
struct CPOINT
  x     dd ?
  y     dd ?
  color dd ?
ends
```

All headers define the `CHAR` data type, which can be used to define character strings in the data structures.

## 3.1.2  Imports

The import macroinstructions help to build the import data for PE file (usually put in the separate section). There are two macroinstructions for this purpose. The first one is called `library`, must be placed directly in the beginning of the import data and it defines from what libraries the functions will be imported. It should be followed by any amount of the pairs of parameters, each pair being the label for the table of imports from the given library, and the quoted string defining the name of the library. For example:

```
library kernel32,'KERNEL32.DLL',\
        user32,'USER32.DLL'
```

declares to import from the two libraries. For each of libraries, the table of imports must be then declared somewhere inside the import data. This is done with `import` macroinstruction, which needs first parameter to define the label for the table (the same as declared earlier to the `library` macro), and then the pairs of parameters each containing the label for imported pointer

and the quoted string defining the name of function exactly as exported by
library. For example the above `library` declaration may be completed with
following `import` declarations:

```
import kernel32,\
       ExitProcess,'ExitProcess'

import user32,\
       MessageBeep,'MessageBeep',\
       MessageBox,'MessageBoxA'
```

The labels defined by first parameters in each pair passed to the `import`
macro address the double word pointers, which after loading the PE are
filled with the addresses to exported procedures.

Instead of quoted string for the name of procedure to import, the number
may be given to define import by ordinal, like:

```
import custom,\
       ByName,'FunctionName',\
       ByOrdinal,17
```

The import macros optimize the import data, so only imports for func-
tions that are used somewhere in program are placed in the import tables,
and if some import table would be empty this way, the whole library is not
referenced at all. For this reason it's handy to have the complete import table
for each library – the package contains such tables for some of the standard
libraries, they are stored in the `APIA` and `APIW` subdirectories and import
the ASCII and WideChar variants of the API functions. Each file contains
one import table, with lowercase label the same as the name of the file. So
the complete tables for importing from the `KERNEL32.DLL` and `USER32.DLL`
libraries can be defined this way (assuming your `INCLUDE` environment vari-
able points to the directory containing the includes package):

```
library kernel32,'KERNEL32.DLL',\
        user32,'USER32.DLL'

include 'apia\kernel32.inc'
include 'apiw\user32.inc'
```

### 3.1.3   Procedures

There are four macroinstructions for calling procedures with parameters
passed on stack. The `stdcall` calls directly the procedure specified by the

first argument using the STDCALL calling convention. The rest of arguments passed to macro define the parameters to procedure and are stored on the stack in reverse order. The `invoke` macro does the same, however it calls the procedure indirectly, through the pointer labelled by the first argument. Thus `invoke` can be used to call the procedures through pointers defined in the import tables. This line:

```
invoke MessageBox,0,szText,szCaption,MB_OK
```

is equivalent to:

```
stdcall [MessageBox],0,szText,szCaption,MB_OK
```

and they both generate this code:

```
push MB_OK
push szCaption
push szText
push 0
call [MessageBox]
```

The `ccall` and `cinvoke` are analogous to the `stdcall` and `invoke`, but they should be used to call the procedures that use the C calling convention, where the stack frame has to be restored by the caller.

To define the procedure that uses the stack for parameters and local variables, you should use the `proc` macroinstruction. In its simplest form it has to be followed by the name for the procedure and then names for the all the parameters it takes, like:

```
proc WindowProc,hwnd,wmsg,wparam,lparam
```

The comma between the name of procedure and the first parameter is optional. The procedure instructions should follow in the next lines, ended with the `endp` macroinstruction. The stack frame is set up automatically on the entry to procedure, the EBP register is used as a base to access the parameters, so you should avoid using this register for other purposes. The names specified for the parameters are used to define EBP-based labels, which you can use to access the parameters as regular variables. For example the `mov eax,[hwnd]` instruction inside the procedure defined as in above sample, is equivalent to `mov eax,[ebp+8]`. The scope of those labels is limited to the procedure, so you may use the same names for other purposes outside the given procedure.

Since any parameters are pushed on the stack as double words when calling such procedures, the labels for parameters are defined to mark the

double word data by default, however you can you specify the sizes for the
parameters if you want, by following the name of parameter with colon and
the size operator. The previous sample can be rewritten this way, which is
again equivalent:

```
proc WindowProc,hwnd:DWORD,wmsg:DWORD,\
                wparam:DWORD,lparam:DWORD
```

If you specify a size smaller than double word, the given label applies to the
smaller portion of the whole double word stored on stack. If you you specify
a larger size, like far pointer of quad word, the two double word parameters
are defined to hold this value, but are labelled as one variable.

The name of procedure can be also followed by either the `stdcall` or
`c` keyword to define the calling convention it uses. When no such type is
specified, the default is used, which is equivalent to STDCALL. Then also
the `uses` keyword may follow, and after it the list of registers (separated only
with spaces) that will be automatically stored on entry to procedure and
restored on exit. In this case the comma after the list of registers and before
the first parameter is required. So the fully featured procedure statement
might look like this:

```
proc WindowProc stdcall uses ebx esi edi,\
     hwnd:DWORD,wmsg:DWORD,wparam:DWORD,lparam:DWORD
```

To declare the local variable you can use the `local` macroinstruction,
followed by one or more declarations separated with commas, each one con-
sisting of the name for variable followed by colon and the type of variable –
either one of the standard types (must be upper case) or the name of data
structure. For example:

```
local hDC:DWORD,rc:RECT
```

To declare a local array, you can follow the name of variable by the size of
array enclosed in square brackets, like:

```
local str[256]:BYTE
```

The other way to define the local variables is to declare them inside the block
started with "locals" macroinstruction and ended with "endl", in this case
they can be defined just like regular data. This declaration is the equivalent
of the earlier sample:

```
locals
  hDC dd ?
  rc RECT
endl
```

The local variables can be declared anywhere inside the procedure, with the only limitation that they have to be declared before they are used. The scope of labels for the variables defined as local is limited to inside the procedure, you can use the same names for other purposes outside the procedure. If you give some initialized values to the variables declared as local, the macroinstruction generates the instructions that will initialize these variables with the given values and puts these instruction at the same position in procedure, where the declaration is placed.

The `ret` placed anywhere inside the procedure, generates the complete code needed to correctly exit the procedure, restoring the stack frame and the registers used by procedure. If you need to generate the raw return instruction, use the `retn` mnemonic, or follow the `ret` with the number parameter, what also causes it to be interpreted as single instruction.

To recapitulate, the complete definition of procedure may look like this:

```
proc WindowProc uses ebx esi edi,hwnd,wmsg,wparam,lparam
  local hDC:DWORD,rc:RECT
  ; the instructions
  ret
endp
```

### 3.1.4 Exports

The `export` macroinstruction constructs the export data for the PE file (it should be either placed in the section marked as export, or within the `data export` block. The first argument should be quoted string defining the name of library file, and the rest should be any number of pairs of arguments, first in each pair being the name of procedure defined somewhere inside the source, and the second being the quoted string containing the name under which this procedure should be exported by the library. This sample:

```
export 'MYLIB.DLL',\
       MyStart,'Start',\
       MyStop,'Stop'
```

defines the table exporting two functions, which are defined under the names `MyStart` and `MyStop` in the sources, but will be exported by library under the shorter names. The macroinstruction take care of the alphabetical sorting of the table, which is required by PE format.

### 3.1.5   Component Object Model

The `interface` macro allows to declare the interface of the COM object type, the first parameter is the name of interface, and then the consecutive names of the methods should follow, like in this example:

```
interface ITaskBarList,\
          QueryInterface,\
          AddRef,\
          Release,\
          HrInit,\
          AddTab,\
          DeleteTab,\
          ActivateTab,\
          SetActiveAlt
```

The `comcall` macro may be then used to call the method of the given object. The first parameter to this macro should be the handle to object, the second one should be name of COM interface implemented by this object, and then the name of method and parameter to this method. For example:

```
comcall ebx,ITaskBarList,ActivateTab,[hwnd]
```

uses the contents of EBX register as a handle to COM object with the `ITaskBarList` interface, and calls the `ActivateTab` method of this object with the `[hwnd]` parameter.

You can also use the name of COM interface in the same way as the name of data structure, to define the variable that will hold the handle to object of given type:

```
ShellTaskBar ITaskBarList
```

The above line defines the double word variable, in which the handle to COM object can be stored. After storing there the handle to an object, its methods can be called with the `cominvk`. This macro needs only the name of the variable with assigned interface and the name of method as first two parameters, and then parameters for the method. So the `ActivateTab` method of object whose handle is stored in the `ShellTaskBar` variable as defined above can be called this way:

```
cominvk ShellTaskBar,ActivateTab,[hwnd]
```

which does the same as:

```
comcall [ShellTaskBar],ITaskBarList,ActivateTab,[hwnd]
```

### 3.1.6 Resources

There are two ways to create resources, one is to include the external resource file created with some other program, and the other one is to create resource section manually. The latter method, though doesn't need any additional program to be involved, is more laborious, but the standard headers provide the assistance – the set of elementary macroinstructions that serve as bricks to compose the resource section.

The `directory` macroinstruction must be placed directly in the beginning of manually built resource data and it defines what types of resources it contains. It should be followed by the pairs of values, the first one in each pair being the identifier of the type of resource, and the second one the label of subdirectory of the resources of given type. It may look like this:

```
directory RT_MENU,menus,\
          RT_ICON,icons,\
          RT_GROUP_ICON,group_icons
```

The subdirectories can be placed anywhere in the resource area after the main directory, and they have to be defined with the `resource` macroinstruction, which requires first parameter to be the label of the subdirectory (corresponding to the entry in main directory) followed by the trios of parameters – in each such entry the first parameter defines the identifier of resource (this value is freely chosen by the programmer and is then used to access the given resource from the program), the second specifies the language and the third one is the label of resource. Standard equates should be used to create language identifiers. For example the subdirectory of menus may be defined this way:

```
resource menus,\
         1,LANG_ENGLISH+SUBLANG_DEFAULT,main_menu,\
         2,LANG_ENGLISH+SUBLANG_DEFAULT,other_menu
```

If the resource is of kind for which the language doesn't matter, the identifier `LANG_NEUTRAL` should be used. To define the resources of various types there are specialized macroinstructions, which should be placed inside the resource area.

The bitmaps are the resources with `RT_BITMAP` type identifier. To define the bitmap resource use the `bitmap` macroinstruction with the first parameter being the label of resource (corresponding to the entry in the subdirectory of bitmaps) and the second being the quoted string containing the path to the bitmap file, like:

```
bitmap program_logo,'logo.bmp'
```

The are two resource types related to icons, the `RT_GROUP_ICON` is the type for the resource, which has to be linked to one or more resources of `RT_ICON` type, each one containing single image. This allows to declare images of different sizes and color depths under the common resource identifier. This identifier, given to the resource of `RT_GROUP_ICON` type may be then passed to the `LoadIcon` function, and it will choose the image of suitable dimensions from the group. To define the icon, use the `icon` macroinstruction, with first parameter being the label of `RT_GROUP_ICON` resource, followed by the pairs of parameters declaring the images. First parameter in each pair should be the label of `RT_ICON` resource, and the second one the quoted string containing the path to the icon file. In the simplest variant, when group of icon contains just one image, it will look like:

```
icon main_icon,icon_data,'main.ico'
```

where the `main_icon` is the label for entry in resource subdirectory for `RT_GROUP_ICON` type, and the `icon_data` is the label for entry of `RT_ICON` type.

The cursors are defined in very similar way to icons, this time with the `RT_GROUP_CURSOR` and `RT_CURSOR` types and the `cursor` macro, which takes parameters analogous to those taken by `icon` macro. So the definition of cursor may look like this:

```
cursor my_cursor,cursor_data,'my.cur'
```

The menus have the `RT_MENU` type of resource and are defined with the `menu` macroinstruction followed by few others defining the items inside the menu. The `menu` itself takes only one parameter – the label of resource. The `menuitem` defines the item in the menu, it takes up to five parameters, but only two are required – the first one is the quoted string containing the text for the item, and the second one is the identifier value (which is the value that will be returned when user selects the given item from the menu). The `menuseparator` defines a separator in the menu and doesn't require any parameters.

The optional third parameter of `menuitem` specifies the menu resource flags. There are two such flags available – `MFR_END` is the flag for the last item in the given menu, and the `MFR_POPUP` marks that the given item is the submenu, and the following items will be items composing that submenu until the item with `MFR_END` flag is found. The `MFR_END` flag can be also given as the parameter to the `menuseparator` and is the only parameter this macroinstruction can take. For the menu definition to be complete, every

submenu must be closed by the item with `MFR_END` flag, and the whole menu must also be closed this way. Here is an example of complete definition of the menu:

```
menu main_menu
     menuitem '&File',100,MFR_POPUP
             menuitem '&New',101
             menuseparator
             menuitem 'E&xit',109,MFR_END
     menuitem '&Help',900,MFR_POPUP + MFR_END
             menuitem '&About...',901,MFR_END
```

The optional fourth parameter of `menuitem` specifies the state flags for the given item, these flags are the same as the ones used by API functions, like `MFS_CHECKED` or `MFS_DISABLED`. Similarly, the fifth parameter can specify the type flags. For example this will define item checked with a radio–button mark:

```
menuitem 'Selection',102, ,MFS_CHECKED,MFT_RADIOCHECK
```

The dialog boxes have the `RT_DIALOG` type of resource and are defined with the `dialog` macroinstruction followed by any number of items defined with `dialogitem` ended with the `enddialog`.

The `dialog` can take up to eleven parameters, first seven being required. First parameter, as usual, specifies the label of resource, second is the quoted string containing the title of the dialog box, the next four parameters specify the horizontal and vertical coordinates, the width and the height of the dialog box window respectively. The seventh parameter specifies the style flags for the dialog box window, the optional eighth one specifies the extended style flags. The ninth parameter can specify the menu for window – it should be the identifier of menu resource, the same as one specified in the subdirectory of resources with `RT_MENU` type. Finally the tenth and eleventh parameter can be used to define the font for the dialog box – first of them should be the quoted string containing the name of font, and the latter one the number defining the size of font. When these optional parameters are not specified, the default MS Sans Serif of size 8 is used.

This example shows the `dialog` macroinstruction with all the parameters except for the menu (which is left with blank value), the optional ones are in the second line:

```
dialog about,'About',50,50,200,100,WS_CAPTION+WS_SYSMENU,\
          WS_EX_TOPMOST, ,'Times New Roman',10
```

The `dialogitem` has eight required parameters and one optional. First parameter should be the quoted string containing the class name for the item. Second parameter can be either the quoted string containing text for the item, or resource identifier in case when the contents of item has to be defined by some additional resource (like the item of `STATIC` class with the `SS_BITMAP` style). The third parameter is the identifier for the item, used to identify the item by the API functions. Next four parameters specify the horizontal, vertical coordinates, the width and height of the item respectively. The eighth parameter specifies the style for the item, and the optional ninth specifies the extended style flags. An example dialog item definition:

```
dialogitem 'BUTTON','OK',IDOK,8,8,45,15,WS_VISIBLE+WS_TABSTOP
```

And an example of static item containing bitmap, assuming that there exists a bitmap resource of identifier 7:

```
dialogitem 'STATIC',7,0,10,50,50,20,WS_VISIBLE+SS_BITMAP
```

The definition of dialog resource can contain any amount of items or none at all, and it should be always ended with `enddialog` macroinstruction.

The resources of type `RT_ACCELERATOR` are created with `accelerator` macroinstruction. After first parameter traditionally being the label of resource, there should follow the trios of parameters – the accelerator flags followed by the virtual key code or ASCII character and the identifier value (which is like the identifier of the menu item). A simple accelerator definition may look like this:

```
accelerator main_keys,\
            FVIRTKEY+FNOINVERT,VK_F1,901,\
            FVIRTKEY+FNOINVERT,VK_F10,109
```

The version information is the resource of type `RT_VERSION` and is created with the `versioninfo` macroinstruction. After the label of the resource, the second parameter specifies the operating system of PE file (usually it should be `VOS__WINDOWS32`), third parameter the type of file (the most common are `VFT_APP` for program and `VFT_DLL` for library), fourth the subtype (usually `VFT2_UNKNOWN`), fifth the language identifier, sixth the code page and then the quoted string parameters, being the pairs of property name and corresponding value. The simplest version information can be defined like:

```
versioninfo vinfo,VOS__WINDOWS32,VFT_APP,VFT2_UNKNOWN,\
                LANG_ENGLISH+SUBLANG_DEFAULT,0,\
            'FileDescription','Description of program',\
```

```
          'LegalCopyright','Copyright et cetera',\
          'FileVersion','1.0',\
          'ProductVersion','1.0'
```

Other kinds of resources may be defined with `resdata` macroinstruction, which takes only one parameter – the label of resource, and can be followed by any instructions defining the data, ended with `endres` macroinstruction, like:

```
resdata manifest
  file 'manifest.xml'
endres
```

### 3.1.7  Text encoding

The resource macroinstructions use the `du` directive to define any Unicode strings inside resources – since this directive simply zero extends the characters to the 16–bit values, for the strings containing some non–ASCII characters, the `du` may need to be redefined. For some of the encodings the macroinstructions redefining the `du` to generate the Unicode texts properly are provided in the `ENCODING` subdirectory. For example if the source text is encoded with Windows 1250 code page, such line should be put somewhere in the beginning of the source:

```
include 'encoding\win1250.inc'
```

## 3.2  Extended headers

The extended headers `win32ax.inc` and `win32wx.inc` provide all the functionality of base headers and include a few more features involving more complex macroinstructions. Also if no PE format is declared before including the extended headers, the headers declare it automatically. The `win32axp.inc` and `win32wxp.inc` are the variants of extended headers, that additionally perform checking the count of parameters to procedure calls.

### 3.2.1  Procedure parameters

With the extended headers the macroinstructions for calling procedures allow more types of parameters than just the double word values as with basic headers. First of all, when the quoted string is passes as a parameter to procedure, it is used to define string data placed among the code, and passes

to procedure the double word pointer to this string. This allows to easily define the strings that don't have to be re-used, just in the line calling the procedure that requires pointers to those strings, like:

```
invoke MessageBox,HWND_DESKTOP,"Message","Caption",MB_OK
```

If the parameter is the group containing some values separated with commas, it is treated in the same way as simple quoted string parameter.

   If the parameter is preceded by the `addr` word, it means that this value is a double word address and this address should be passed to procedure, even if it cannot be done directly – like in the case of local variables, which have addresses relative to EBP register, in such case the EDX register is used temporarily to calculate the value of address and pass it to the procedure. For example:

```
invoke RegisterClass,addr wc
```

in case when the `wc` is the local variable with address `ebp-100h`, will generate this sequence of instructions:

```
lea edx,[ebp-100h]
push edx
call [RegisterClass]
```

However when the given address is not relative to any register, it is stored directly.

   If the parameter is preceded by the word `double`, it is treated as 64–bit value and passed to the procedure as two 32–bit parameters. For example:

```
invoke glColor3d,double 1.0,double 0.1,double 0.1
```

will pass the three 64–bit parameters as six double words to procedure. If the parameter following `double` is the memory operand, it should not have size operator, the `double` already works as the size override.

   Finally, the calls to procedures can be nested, that is call to one procedure may be used as the parameter to another. In such case the value returned in EAX by the nested procedure is passed as the parameter to the procedure which it is nested in. A sample of such nesting:

```
invoke MessageBox,<invoke GetTopWindow,[hwnd]>,\
                 "Message","Caption",MB_OK
```

There are no limits for the depth of nesting the procedure calls.

### 3.2.2 Structuring the source

The extended headers enable some macroinstructions that help with easy structuring the program. The `.data` and `.code` are just the shortcuts to the declarations of sections for data and for the code. The `.end` macroinstruction should be put at the end of program, with one parameter specifying the entry point of program, and it also automatically generates the import section using all the standard import tables.

The `.if` macroinstruction generates a piece of code that checks for some simple condition at the execution time, and depending on the result continues execution of following block or skips it. The block should be ended with `.endif`, but earlier also `.elseif` macroinstruction might be used to begin the code that will be executed under some additional condition, when the previous were not met, and the `.else` as the last before `.endif` to begin the block that will be executed when all the conditions were false.

The condition can be specified by using comparison operator – one of the `=`, `<`, `>`, `<=`, `>=`, and `<>` – between the two values, first of which must be either register or memory operand. The values are compared as unsigned ones. If you provide only single value as a condition, it will be tested to be zero, and the condition will be true only if it's not. For example:

```
.if eax
  ret
.endif
```

generates the instructions, which skip over the `ret` when the EAX is zero.

There are also some special symbols recognized as conditions: the `ZERO?` is true when the ZF flag is set, in the same way the `CARRY?`, `SIGN?`, `OVERFLOW?` and `PARITY?` correspond to the state of CF, SF, OF and PF flags.

The simple conditions like above can be composed into complex conditional expressions using the `&`, `|` operators for conjunction and alternative, the `~` operator for negation, and parenthesis. For example:

```
.if eax<=100 & ( ecx | edx )
  inc ebx
.endif
```

will generate the compare and jump instructions that will cause the given block to get executed only when EAX is below or equal 100 and at the same time at least one of the ECX and EDX is not zero.

The `.while` macroinstruction generates the instructions that will repeat executing the given block (ended with `.endw` macroinstruction) as long as the condition is true. The condition should follow the `.while` and can be

specified in the same way as for the `.if`. The pair of `.repeat` and `.until` macroinstructions define the block that will be repeatedly executed until the given condition will be met – this time the condition should follow the `.until` macroinstruction, placed at the end of block, like:

```
.repeat
  add ecx,2
.until ecx>100
```