

Assembly Language Tutorial



ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE TUTORIAL

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ABOUT THE TUTORIAL

Assembly Programming Tutorial

Assembly language is a low-level programming language for a computer, or other programmable device specific to a particular computer architecture in contrast to most high-level programming languages, which are generally portable across multiple systems. Assembly language is converted into executable machine code by a utility program referred to as an assembler like NASM, MASM etc.

Audience

This tutorial has been designed for software programmers with a need to understand the Assembly programming language starting from scratch. This tutorial will give you enough understanding on Assembly programming language from where you can take yourself at higher level of expertise.

Prerequisites

Before proceeding with this tutorial you should have a basic understanding of Computer Programming terminologies. A basic understanding of any of the programming languages will help you in understanding the Assembly programming concepts and move fast on the learning track.

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Assembly Introduction

What is Assembly Language?

Each personal computer has a microprocessor that manages the computer's arithmetical, logical and control activities.

Each family of processors has its own set of instructions for handling various operations like getting input from keyboard, displaying information on screen and performing various other jobs. These set of instructions are called 'machine language instruction'.

Processor understands only machine language instructions which are strings of 1s and 0s. However machine language is too obscure and complex for using in software development. So the low level assembly language is designed for a specific family of processors that represents various instructions in symbolic code and a more understandable form.

Advantages of Assembly Language

An understanding of assembly language provides knowledge of:

- Interface of programs with OS, processor and BIOS;
- Representation of data in memory and other external devices;
- How processor accesses and executes instruction;
- How instructions accesses and process data;
- How a program access external devices.

Other advantages of using assembly language are:

- It requires less memory and execution time;
- It allows hardware-specific complex jobs in an easier way;
- It is suitable for time-critical jobs;

- It is most suitable for writing interrupt service routines and other memory resident programs.

Basic Features of PC Hardware

The main internal hardware of a PC consists of the processor, memory and the registers. The registers are processor components that hold data and address. To execute a program the system copies it from the external device into the internal memory. The processor executes the program instructions.

The fundamental unit of computer storage is a bit; it could be on (1) or off (0). A group of nine related bits makes a byte. Eight bits are used for data and the last one is used for parity. According to the rule of parity, number of bits that are on (1) in each byte should always be odd.

So the parity bit is used to make the number of bits in a byte odd. If the parity is even, the system assumes that there had been a parity error (though rare) which might have caused due to hardware fault or electrical disturbance.

The processor supports the following data sizes:

- Word: a 2-byte data item
- Doubleword: a 4-byte (32 bit) data item
- Quadword: an 8-byte (64 bit) data item
- Paragraph: a 16-byte (128 bit) area
- Kilobyte: 1024 bytes
- Megabyte: 1,048,576 bytes

The Binary Number System

Every number system uses positional notation i.e., each position in which a digit is written has a different positional value. Each position is power of the base, which is 2 for binary number system, and these powers begin at 0 and increase by 1.

The following table shows the positional values for an 8-bit binary number, where all bits are set on.

Bit value	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Position value as a power of base 2	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Bit number	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

The value of a binary number is based on the presence of 1 bits and their positional value. So the value of the given binary number is: $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + 32 + 64 + 128 = 255$, which is same as $2^8 - 1$.

The Hexadecimal Number System

Hexadecimal number system uses base 16. The digits range from 0 to 15. By convention, the letters A through F is used to represent the hexadecimal digits corresponding to decimal values 10 through 15.

Main use of hexadecimal numbers in computing is for abbreviating lengthy binary representations. Basically hexadecimal number system represents a binary data by dividing each byte in half and expressing the value of each half-byte. The following table provides the decimal, binary and hexadecimal equivalents:

Decimal number	Binary representation	Hexadecimal representation
0	0	0
1	1	1
2	10	2
3	11	3
4	100	4
5	101	5
6	110	6
7	111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

To convert a binary number to its hexadecimal equivalent, break it into groups of 4 consecutive groups each, starting from the right, and write those groups over the corresponding digits of the hexadecimal number.

Example: Binary number 1000 1100 1101 0001 is equivalent to hexadecimal - 8CD1

To convert a hexadecimal number to binary just write each hexadecimal digit into its 4-digit binary equivalent.

Example: Hexadecimal number FAD8 is equivalent to binary - 1111 1010 1101 1000

Binary Arithmetic

The following table illustrates four simple rules for binary addition:

(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
			1
0	1	1	1
+0	+0	+1	+1
=0	=1	=10	=11

Rules (iii) and (iv) shows a carry of a 1-bit into the next left position.

Example:

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Decimal	Binary
60	00111100
+42	00101010
102	01100110

A negative binary value is expressed in **two's complement notation**. According to this rule, to convert a binary number to its negative value is to *reverse its bit values and add 1*.

Example:

Number 53	00110101
Reverse the bits	11001010
Add 1	1
Number -53	11001011

To subtract one value from another, *convert the number being subtracted to two's complement format and add the numbers*.

Example: Subtract 42 from 53

Number 53	00110101
Number 42	00101010
Reverse the bits of 42	11010101
Add 1	1
Number -42	11010110
53 - 42 = 11	00001011

Overflow of the last 1 bit is lost.

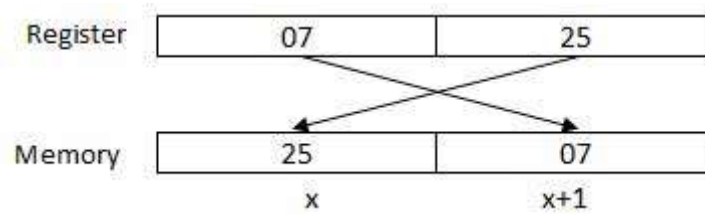
Addressing Data in Memory

The process through which the processor controls the execution of instructions is referred as the **fetch-decode-execute cycle**, or the execution cycle. It consists of three continuous steps:

- Fetching the instruction from memory
- Decoding or identifying the instruction
- Executing the instruction

The processor may access one or more bytes of memory at a time. Let us consider a hexadecimal number 0725H. This number will require two bytes of memory. The high-order byte or most significant byte is 07 and the low order byte is 25.

The processor stores data in **reverse-byte sequence** i.e., the low-order byte is stored in low memory address and high-order byte in high memory address. So if processor brings the value 0725H from register to memory, it will transfer 25 first to the lower memory address and 07 to the next memory address.



x : memory address

When the processor gets the numeric data from memory to register, it again reverses the bytes. There are two kinds of memory addresses:

- An absolute address - a direct reference of specific location.
- The segment address (or offset) - starting address of a memory segment with the offset value

Assembly Environment Setup

Assembly language is dependent upon the instruction set and the architecture of the processor. In this tutorial, we focus on Intel 32 processors like Pentium. To follow this tutorial, you will need:

- An IBM PC or any equivalent compatible computer
- A copy of Linux operating system
- A copy of NASM assembler program

There are many good assembler programs, like:

- Microsoft Assembler (MASM)
- Borland Turbo Assembler (TASM)
- The GNU assembler (GAS)

We will use the NASM assembler, as it is:

- Free. You can download it from various web sources.
- Well documented and you will get lots of information on net.
- Could be used on both Linux and Windows

Installing NASM

If you select "Development Tools" while installed Linux, you may NASM installed along with the Linux operating system and you do not need to download and install it separately. For checking whether you already have NASM installed, take the following steps:

- Open a Linux terminal.
- Type `whereis nasm` and press ENTER.
- If it is already installed then a line like, `nasm: /usr/bin/nasm` appears. Otherwise, you will see just `nasm:`, then you need to install NASM.

To install NASM take the following steps:

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- Check [The netwide assembler \(NASM\)](#) website for the latest version.
- Download the Linux source archive `nasm-X.XX.ta.gz`, where X.XX is the NASM version number in the archive.
- Unpack the archive into a directory, which creates a subdirectory `nasm-X.XX`.
- `cd` to `nasm-X.XX` and type `./configure`. This shell script will find the best C compiler to use and set up Makefiles accordingly.
- Type ***make*** to build the `nasm` and `ndisasm` binaries.
- Type ***make install*** to install `nasm` and `ndisasm` in `/usr/local/bin` and to install the man pages.

This should install NASM on your system. Alternatively, you can use an RPM distribution for the Fedora Linux. This version is simpler to install, just double-click the RPM file.

Assembly Basic Syntax

An assembly program can be divided into three sections:

- The **data** section
- The **bss** section
- The **text** section

The *data* Section

The **data** section is used for declaring initialized data or constants. This data does not change at runtime. You can declare various constant values, file names or buffer size etc. in this section.

The syntax for declaring data section is:

```
section .data
```

The *bss* Section

The **bss** section is used for declaring variables. The syntax for declaring bss section is:

```
section .bss
```

The *text* section

The **text** section is used for keeping the actual code. This section must begin with the declaration **global main**, which tells the kernel where the program execution begins.

The syntax for declaring text section is:

```
section .text  
    global main  
main:
```

→ tell the kernel where the code begins

→ tell the linker where the code begins

Comments

Assembly language comment begins with a semicolon (;). It may contain any printable character including blank. It can appear on a line by itself, like:

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```
; This program displays a message on screen
```

or, on the same line along with an instruction, like:

```
add eax ,ebx    ; adds ebx to eax
```

Assembly Language Statements

Assembly language programs consist of three types of statements:

- Executable instructions or instructions
- Assembler directives or pseudo-ops
- Macros

The **executable instructions** or simply **instructions** tell the processor what to do. Each instruction consists of an **operation code** (opcode). Each executable instruction generates one machine language instruction. The **assembler directives** or **pseudo-ops** tell the assembler about the various aspects of the assembly process. These are non-executable and do not generate machine language instructions.

Macros are basically a text substitution mechanism.

Syntax of Assembly Language Statements

Assembly language statements are entered one statement per line. Each statement follows the following format:

```
[label]    mnemonic    [operands]    [;comment]
```

The fields in the square brackets are optional. A basic instruction has two parts, the first one is the name of the instruction (or the mnemonic) which is to be executed, and the second are the operands or the parameters of the command.

Following are some examples of typical assembly language statements:

```
INC COUNT      ; Increment the memory variable COUNT
MOV TOTAL, 48   ; Transfer the value 48 in the
                ; memory variable TOTAL
ADD AH, BH     ; Add the content of the
                ; BH register into the AH register
AND MASK1, 128  ; Perform AND operation on the
                ; variable MASK1 and 128
ADD MARKS, 10   ; Add 10 to the variable MARKS
MOV AL, 10      ; Transfer the value 10 to the AL register
```

The Hello World Program in Assembly

The following assembly language code displays the string 'Hello World' on the screen:

```
section .text
    global main    ;must be declared for linker (ld)
main:              ;tells linker entry point
    mov edx,len    ;message length
    mov ecx,msg    ;message to write
    mov ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int 0x80       ;call kernel
```

```
    mov     eax,1           ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80           ;call kernel

section .data
msg db 'Hello, world!', 0xa ;our dear string
len equ $ - msg           ;length of our dear string
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Hello, world!
```

Compiling and Linking an Assembly Program in NASM

Make sure you have set the path of **nasm** and **ld** binaries in your PATH environment variable. Now take the following steps for compiling and linking the above program:

- Type the above code using a text editor and save it as **hello.asm**.
- Make sure that you are in the same directory as where you saved **hello.asm**.
- To **assemble the program**, type **nasm -f elf hello.asm**
- If there is any error, you will be prompted about that at this stage. **Otherwise an object file of your program named **hello.o** will be created.**
- To **link the object file and create an executable file named hello**, type **ld -m elf_i386 -s -o hello hello.o**
- Execute the program by typing **./hello**

If you have done everything correctly, it will display Hello, world! on the screen.

Assembly Memory Segments

We have already discussed three **sections** of an assembly program. These sections represent various memory **segments** as well.

Interestingly, if you replace the section keyword with segment, you will get the same result. Try the following code:

```
segment .text                ;code segment
    global main              ;must be declared for linker
main:                        ;tell linker entry point
    mov edx,len              ;message length
    mov ecx,msg              ;message to write
    mov ebx,1                ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov eax,4                ;system call number (sys_write)
    int 0x80                 ;call kernel

    mov eax,1                ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80                 ;call kernel

segment .data                ;data segment
msg     db Hello, world!,0xa ;our dear string
len     equ $ - msg          ;length of our dear string
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Hello, world!
```

Memory Segments

A segmented memory model divides the system memory into groups of independent segments, referenced by pointers located in the segment registers. Each segment is used to contain a specific type of data. One segment is used to contain instruction codes, another segment stores the data elements, and a third segment keeps the program stack.

In the light of the above discussion, we can specify various memory segments as:

- **Data segment** - it is represented by **.data** section and the **.bss**. The **.data** section is used to declare the memory region where data elements are stored for the program. This section cannot be expanded after the data elements are declared, and it remains static throughout the program.

The **.bss** section is also a static memory section that contains buffers for data to be declared later in the program. This buffer memory is zero-filled.

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in ram , not in file on disk

- **Code segment** - it is represented by **.text** section. This defines an area in memory that stores the instruction codes. This is also a fixed area.
- **Stack** - this segment contains data values passed to functions and procedures within the program.

Assembly Registers

Processor operations mostly involve processing data. This data can be stored in memory and accessed from thereon. However, reading data from and storing data into memory slows down the processor, as it involves complicated processes of sending the data request across the control bus, and into the memory storage unit and getting the data through the same channel.

To speed up the processor operations, the processor includes some internal memory storage locations, called **registers**.

The registers stores data elements for processing without having to access the memory. A limited number of registers are built into the processor chip.

Processor Registers

There are ten 32-bit and six 16-bit processor registers in IA-32 architecture. The registers are grouped into three categories:

- General registers
- Control registers
- Segment registers

The general registers are further divided into the following groups:

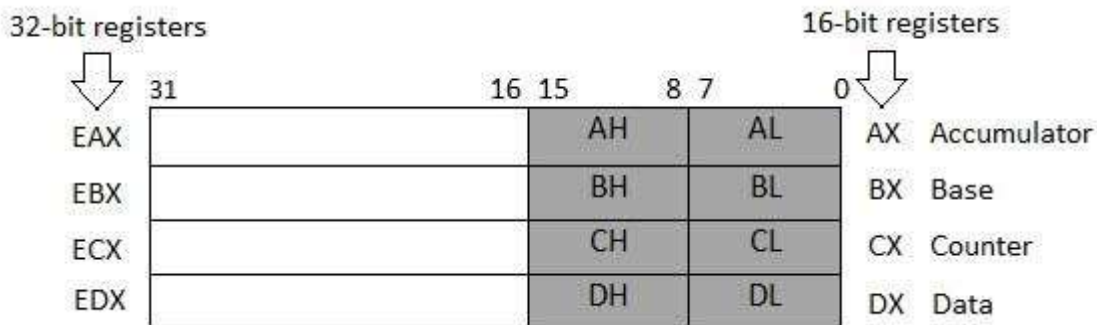
- Data registers
- Pointer registers
- Index registers

Data Registers

Four 32-bit data registers are used for arithmetic, logical and other operations. These 32-bit registers can be used in three ways:

1. As complete 32-bit data registers: EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX.

- Lower halves of the 32-bit registers can be used as four 16-bit data registers: AX, BX, CX and DX.
- Lower and higher halves of the above-mentioned four 16-bit registers can be used as eight 8-bit data registers: AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, and DL.



Some of these data registers has specific used in arithmetical operations.

AX is the primary accumulator; it is used in input/output and most arithmetic instructions. For example, in multiplication operation, one operand is stored in EAX, or AX or AL register according to the size of the operand.

BX is known as the base register as it could be used in indexed addressing.

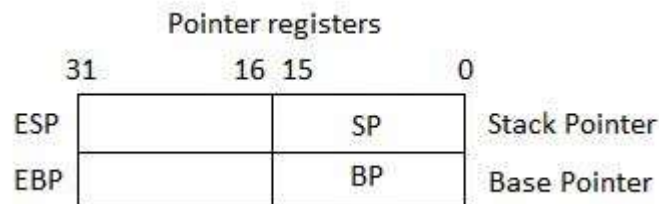
CX is known as the count register as the ECX, CX registers store the loop count in iterative operations.

DX is known as the data register. It is also used in input/output operations. It is also used with AX register along with DX for multiply and divide operations involving large values.

Pointer Registers

The pointer registers are 32-bit EIP, ESP and EBP registers and corresponding 16-bit right portions IP, SP and BP. There are three categories of pointer registers:

- Instruction Pointer (IP)** - the 16-bit IP register stores the offset address of the next instruction to be executed. IP in association with the CS register (as CS:IP) gives the complete address of the current instruction in the code segment.
- Stack Pointer (SP)** - the 16-bit SP register provides the offset value within the program stack. SP in association with the SS register (SS:SP) refers to be current position of data or address within the program stack.
- Base Pointer (BP)** - the 16-bit BP register mainly helps in referencing the parameter variables passed to a subroutine. The address in SS register is combined with the offset in BP to get the location of the parameter. BP can also be combined with DI and SI as base register for special addressing.



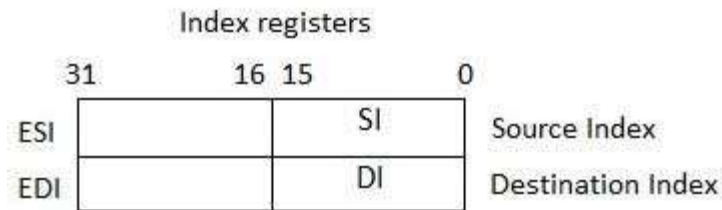
Index Registers

The 32-bit index registers ESI and EDI and their 16-bit rightmost portions SI and DI are used for indexed addressing and sometimes used in addition and subtraction. There are two sets of index pointers:

- Source Index (SI)** - it is used as source index for string operations
- Destination Index (DI)** - it is used as destination index for string operations.

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Control Registers

The 32-bit instruction pointer register and 32-bit flags register combined are considered as the control registers.

Many instructions involve comparisons and mathematical calculations and change the status of the flags and some other conditional instructions test the value of these status flags to take the control flow to other location.

The common flag bits are:

- **Overflow Flag (OF):** indicates the overflow of a high-order bit (leftmost bit) of data after a signed arithmetic operation.
- **Direction Flag (DF):** determines left or right direction for moving or comparing string data. When the DF value is 0, the string operation takes left-to-right direction and when the value is set to 1, the string operation takes right-to-left direction.
- **Interrupt Flag (IF):** determines whether the external interrupts like, keyboard entry etc. are to be ignored or processed. It disables the external interrupt when the value is 0 and enables interrupts when set to 1.
- **Trap Flag (TF):** allows setting the operation of the processor in single-step mode. The DEBUG program we used sets the trap flag, so we could step through the execution one instruction at a time.
- **Sign Flag (SF):** shows the sign of the result of an arithmetic operation. This flag is set according to the sign of a data item following the arithmetic operation. The sign is indicated by the high-order of leftmost bit. A positive result clears the value of SF to 0 and negative result sets it to 1.
- **Zero Flag (ZF):** indicates the result of an arithmetic or comparison operation. A nonzero result clears the zero flag to 0, and a zero result sets it to 1.
- **Auxiliary Carry Flag (AF):** contains the carry from bit 3 to bit 4 following an arithmetic operation; used for specialized arithmetic. The AF is set when a 1-byte arithmetic operation causes a carry from bit 3 into bit 4.
- **Parity Flag (PF):** indicates the total number of 1-bits in the result obtained from an arithmetic operation. An even number of 1-bits clears the parity flag to 0 and an odd number of 1-bits sets the parity flag to 1.
- **Carry Flag (CF):** contains the carry of 0 or 1 from a high-order bit (leftmost) after an arithmetic operation. It also stores the contents of last bit of a shift or rotate operation.

The following table indicates the position of flag bits in the 16-bit Flags register:

Flag:					O	D	I	T	S	Z		A		P		C
Bit no:	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Segment Registers

Segments are specific areas defined in a program for containing data, code and stack. There are three main segments:

- **Code Segment:** it contains all the instructions to be executed. A 16 - bit Code Segment register or CS register stores the starting address of the code segment.
- **Data Segment:** it contains data, constants and work areas. A 16 - bit Data Segment register or DS register stores the starting address of the data segment.
- **Stack Segment:** it contains data and return addresses of procedures or subroutines. It is implemented as a 'stack' data structure. The Stack Segment register or SS register stores the starting address of the stack.

Apart from the DS, CS and SS registers, there are other extra segment registers - ES (extra segment), FS and GS, which provides additional segments for storing data.

In assembly programming, a program needs to access the memory locations. All memory locations within a segment are relative to the starting address of the segment. A segment begins in an address evenly divisible by 16 or hexadecimal 10. So all the rightmost hex digit in all such memory addresses is 0, which is not generally stored in the segment registers.

The segment registers store the starting addresses of a segment. To get the exact location of data or instruction within a segment, an offset value (or displacement) is required. To reference any memory location in a segment, the processor combines the segment address in the segment register with the offset value of the location.

Example:

Look at the following simple program to understand the use of registers in assembly programming. This program displays 9 stars on the screen along with a simple message:

```
section .text
    global main ;must be declared for linker (gcc)
main:          ;tell linker entry point
    mov     edx,len          ;message length
    mov     ecx,msg          ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1            ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4            ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80             ;call kernel

    mov     edx,9            ;message length
    mov     ecx,s2           ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1            ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4            ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80             ;call kernel
    mov     eax,1            ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80             ;call kernel

section .data
msg db 'Displaying 9 stars',0xa ;a message
len equ $ - msg                ;length of message
s2 times 9 db '*'
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Displaying 9 stars
*****
```


Assembly System Calls

System calls are APIs for the interface between user space and kernel space. We have already used the system calls `sys_write` and `sys_exit` for writing into the screen and exiting from the program respectively.

Linux System Calls

You can make use of Linux system calls in your assembly programs. You need to take the following steps for using Linux system calls in your program:

- Put the system call number in the EAX register.
- Store the arguments to the system call in the registers EBX, ECX, etc.
- Call the relevant interrupt (80h)
- The result is usually returned in the EAX register

There are six registers that stores the arguments of the system call used. These are the EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, and EBP. These registers take the consecutive arguments, starting with the EBX register. If there are more than six arguments then the memory location of the first argument is stored in the EBX register.

The following code snippet shows the use of the system call `sys_exit`:

```
mov     eax,1           ; system call number (sys_exit)
int     0x80           ; call kernel
```

The following code snippet shows the use of the system call `sys_write`:

```
mov     edx,4           ; message length
mov     ecx,msg         ; message to write
mov     ebx,1           ; file descriptor (stdout)
mov     eax,4           ; system call number (sys_write)
int     0x80           ; call kernel
```

All the syscalls are listed in `/usr/include/asm/unistd.h`, together with their numbers (the value to put in EAX before you call `int 80h`).

The following table shows some of the system calls used in this tutorial:

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%eax	Name	%ebx	%ecx	%edx	%esx	%edi
1	sys_exit	int	-	-	-	-
2	sys_fork	struct pt_regs	-	-	-	-
3	sys_read	unsigned int	char *	size_t	-	-
4	sys_write	unsigned int	const char *	size_t	-	-
5	sys_open	const char *	int	int	-	-
6	sys_close	unsigned int	-	-	-	-

Example

The following example reads a number from the keyboard and displays it on the screen:

```

section .data ;Data segment
    userMsg db 'Please enter a number: ' ;Ask the user to enter a number
    lenUserMsg equ $-userMsg           ;The length of the message
    dispMsg db 'You have entered: '
    lenDispMsg equ $-dispMsg

section .bss           ;Uninitialized data
    num resb 5

section .text          ;Code Segment
    global main
    main:
        ;User prompt
        mov eax, 4
        mov ebx, 1
        mov ecx, userMsg
        mov edx, lenUserMsg
        int 80h

        ;Read and store the user input
        mov eax, 3
        mov ebx, 2
        mov ecx, num
        mov edx, 5      ;5 bytes (numeric, 1 for sign) of that information
        int 80h
        ;Output the message 'The entered number is: '
        mov eax, 4
        mov ebx, 1
        mov ecx, dispMsg
        mov edx, lenDispMsg
        int 80h

        ;Output the number entered
        mov eax, 4
        mov ebx, 1
        mov ecx, num
        mov edx, 5
        int 80h
; Exit code
    mov eax, 1
    mov ebx, 0
    int 80h

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

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```
Please enter a number:  
1234  
You have entered:1234
```

Addressing Modes

Most assembly language instructions require operands to be processed. An operand address provides the location where the data to be processed is stored. Some instructions do not require an operand, whereas some other instructions may require one, two or three operands.

When an instruction requires two operands, the first operand is generally the destination, which contains data in a register or memory location and the second operand is the source. Source contains either the data to be delivered (immediate addressing) or the address (in register or memory) of the data. Generally the source data remains unaltered after the operation.

The three basic modes of addressing are:

- Register addressing
- Immediate addressing
- Memory addressing

Register Addressing

In this addressing mode, a register contains the operand. Depending upon the instruction, the register may be the first operand, the second operand or both.

For example,

```
MOV DX, TAX_RATE      ; Register in first operand
MOV COUNT, CX          ; Register in second operand
MOV EAX, EBX           ; Both the operands are in registers
```

As processing data between registers does not involve memory, it provides fastest processing of data.

Immediate Addressing

An immediate operand has a constant value or an expression. When an instruction with two operands uses immediate addressing, the first operand may be a register or memory location, and the second operand is an immediate constant. The first operand defines the length of the data.

For example:

```
BYTE_VALUE DB 150      ; A byte value is defined
WORD_VALUE DW 300       ; A word value is defined
ADD BYTE_VALUE, 65      ; An immediate operand 65 is added
MOV AX, 45H             ; Immediate constant 45H is transferred to AX
```

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Direct Memory Addressing

When operands are specified in memory addressing mode, direct access to main memory, usually to the data segment, is required. This way of addressing results in slower processing of data. To locate the exact location of data in memory, we need the segment start address, which is typically found in the DS register and an offset value. This offset value is also called **effective address**.

In direct addressing mode, the offset value is specified directly as part of the instruction, usually indicated by the variable name. The assembler calculates the offset value and maintains a symbol table, which stores the offset values of all the variables used in the program.

In direct memory addressing, one of the operands refers to a memory location and the other operand references a register.

For example,

```
ADD    BYTE_VALUE, DL    ; Adds the register in the memory location
MOV    BX, WORD_VALUE    ; Operand from the memory is added to register
```

Direct-Offset Addressing

This addressing mode uses the arithmetic operators to modify an address. For example, look at the following definitions that define tables of data:

```
BYTE_TABLE DB 14, 15, 22, 45    ; Tables of bytes
WORD_TABLE DW 134, 345, 564, 123 ; Tables of words
```

The following operations access data from the tables in the memory into registers:

```
MOV CL, BYTE_TABLE[2]    ; Gets the 3rd element of the BYTE_TABLE
MOV CL, BYTE_TABLE + 2    ; Gets the 3rd element of the BYTE_TABLE
MOV CX, WORD_TABLE[3]     ; Gets the 4th element of the WORD_TABLE
MOV CX, WORD_TABLE + 3    ; Gets the 4th element of the WORD_TABLE
```

Indirect Memory Addressing

This addressing mode utilizes the computer's ability of *Segment:Offset* addressing. Generally the base registers EBX, EBP (or BX, BP) and the index registers (DI, SI), coded within square brackets for memory references, are used for this purpose.

Indirect addressing is generally used for variables containing several elements like, arrays. Starting address of the array is stored in, say, the EBX register.

The following code snippet shows how to access different elements of the variable.

```
MY_TABLE TIMES 10 DW 0    ; Allocates 10 words (2 bytes) each initialized to 0
MOV EBX, [MY_TABLE]       ; Effective Address of MY_TABLE in EBX
MOV [EBX], 110            ; MY_TABLE[0] = 110
ADD EBX, 2                ; EBX = EBX + 2
MOV [EBX], 123            ; MY_TABLE[1] = 123
```

The MOV Instruction

We have already used the MOV instruction that is used for moving data from one storage space to another. The MOV instruction takes two operands.

SYNTAX:

Syntax of the MOV instruction is:

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it is a wrong statement

lea ebx, [my_table]

it's trap :-), just ignore it

```
MOV destination, source
```

The MOV instruction may have one of the following five forms:

```
MOV register, register
MOV register, immediate
MOV memory, immediate
MOV register, memory
MOV memory, register
```

Please note that:

- Both the operands in MOV operation should be of same size
- The value of source operand remains unchanged

The MOV instruction causes ambiguity at times. For example, look at the statements:

```
MOV EBX, [MY_TABLE] ; Effective Address of MY_TABLE in EBX
MOV [EBX], 110      ; MY_TABLE[0] = 110
```

It is not clear whether you want to move a byte equivalent or word equivalent of the number 110. In such cases, it is wise to use a **type specifier**.

Following table shows some of the common type specifiers:

Type Specifier	Bytes addressed
BYTE	1
WORD	2
DWORD	4
QWORD	8
TBYTE	10

EXAMPLE:

The following program illustrates some of the concepts discussed above. It stores a name 'Zara Ali' in the data section of the memory. Then changes its value to another name 'Nuha Ali' programmatically and displays both the names.

```
section .text
    global main ;must be declared for linker (ld)
main: ;tell linker entry point

;writing the name 'Zara Ali'
    mov     edx,9      ;message length
    mov     ecx,name   ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

    mov     [name], dword 'Nuha' ; Changed the name to Nuha Ali
;writing the name 'Nuha Ali'
    mov     edx,8      ;message length
    mov     ecx,name   ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
```

specifying 4 bytes to be moved

```
int      0x80      ;call kernel
mov      eax,1     ;system call number (sys_exit)
int      0x80      ;call kernel

section .data
name db 'Zara Ali '
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Zara Ali Nuha Ali
```

Assembly Variables

NASM provides various **define directives** for reserving storage space for variables. The **define** assembler directive is used for allocation of storage space. It can be used to reserve as well as initialize one or more bytes.

Allocating Storage Space for Initialized Data

The syntax for storage allocation statement for initialized data is:

```
[variable-name]    define-directive    initial-value    [,initial-value]...
```

Where, *variable-name* is the identifier for each storage space. The assembler associates an offset value for each variable name defined in the data segment.

There are five basic forms of the define directive:

Directive	Purpose	Storage Space
DB	Define Byte	allocates 1 byte
DW	Define Word	allocates 2 bytes
DD	Define Doubleword	allocates 4 bytes
DQ	Define Quadword	allocates 8 bytes
DT	Define Ten Bytes	allocates 10 bytes

Following are some examples of using define directives:

```
choice      DB      'y'
number      DW      12345
neg_number  DW      -12345
big_number  DQ      123456789
real_number1 DD      1.234
real_number2 DQ      123.456
```

Please note that:

- Each byte of character is stored as its ASCII value in hexadecimal
- Each decimal value is automatically converted to its 16-bit binary equivalent and stored as a hexadecimal number

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- Processor uses the little-endian byte ordering
- Negative numbers are converted to its 2's complement representation
- Short and long floating-point numbers are represented using 32 or 64 bits, respectively

The following program shows use of the define directive:

```
section .text
    global main      ;must be declared for linker (gcc)
main:               ;tell linker entry point

    mov     edx,1      ;message length
    mov     ecx,choice ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80        ;call kernel

    mov     eax,1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80        ;call kernel

section .data
choice DB 'y'
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
y
```

Allocating Storage Space for Uninitialized Data

The reserve directives are used for reserving space for uninitialized data. The reserve directives take a single operand that specifies the number of units of space to be reserved. Each define directive has a related reserve directive.

There are five basic forms of the reserve directive:

Directive	Purpose
RESB	Reserve a Byte
RESW	Reserve a Word
RESB	Reserve a Doubleword
RESQ	Reserve a Quadword
REST	Reserve a Ten Bytes

Multiple Definitions

You can have multiple data definition statements in a program. For example:

```
choice    DB    'y'          ;ASCII of y = 79H
number1   DW    12345        ;12345D = 3039H
number2   DD    12345679     ;123456789D = 75BCD15H
```

The assembler allocates contiguous memory for multiple variable definitions.

Multiple Initializations

The `TIMES` directive allows multiple initializations to the same value. For example, an array named `marks` of size 9 can be defined and initialized to zero using the following statement:

```
marks    TIMES    9    DW    0
```

The `TIMES` directive is useful in defining arrays and tables. The following program displays 9 asterisks on the screen:

```
section .text
    global main        ;must be declared for linker (ld)
main:                ;tell linker entry point
    mov     edx,9      ;message length
    mov     ecx, stars  ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

    mov     eax,1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

section .data
stars    times 9 db '*'
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
*****
```

Assembly Constants

There are several directives provided by NASM that define constants. We have already used the EQU directive in previous chapters. We will particularly discuss three directives:

- EQU
- %assign
- %define

The EQU Directive

The EQU directive is used for defining constants. The syntax of the EQU directive is as follows:

```
CONSTANT_NAME EQU expression
```

For example,

```
TOTAL_STUDENTS equ 50
```

You can then use this constant value in your code, like:

```
mov ecx, TOTAL_STUDENTS  
cmp eax, TOTAL_STUDENTS
```

The operand of an EQU statement can be an expression:

```
LENGTH equ 20  
WIDTH equ 10  
AREA equ length * width
```

Above code segment would define AREA as 200.

Example:

The following example illustrates the use of the EQU directive:

```
SYS_EXIT equ 1  
SYS_WRITE equ 4
```

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```

STDIN      equ 0
STDOUT     equ 1
section    .text
    global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main:      ;tell linker entry point
    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg1
    mov edx, len1
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg2
    mov edx, len2
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg3
    mov edx, len3
    int 0x80
    mov eax, SYS_EXIT ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80          ;call kernel

section    .data
msg1 db 'Hello, programmers!',0xA,0xD
len1 equ $ - msg1
msg2 db 'Welcome to the world of,', 0xA,0xD
len2 equ $ - msg2
msg3 db 'Linux assembly programming! '
len3 equ $- msg3

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

Hello, programmers!
Welcome to the world of,
Linux assembly programming!

```

The %assign Directive

The **%assign** directive can be used to define numeric constants like the EQU directive. This directive allows redefinition. For example, you may define the constant TOTAL as:

```
%assign TOTAL 10
```

Later in the code you can redefine it as:

```
%assign TOTAL 20
```

This directive is case-sensitive.

The %define Directive

The **%define** directive allows defining both numeric and string constants. This directive is similar to the #define in C. For example, you may define the constant PTR as:

```
%define PTR [EBP+4]
```

The above code replaces *PTR* by `[EBP+4]`.

This directive also allows redefinition and it is case sensitive.

Arithmetic Instructions

The INC Instruction

The INC instruction is used for incrementing an operand by one. It works on a single operand that can be either in a register or in memory.

SYNTAX:

The INC instruction has the following syntax:

```
INC destination
```

The operand *destination* could be an 8-bit, 16-bit or 32-bit operand.

EXAMPLE:

```
INC EBX      ; Increments 32-bit register
INC DL       ; Increments 8-bit register
INC [count]  ; Increments the count variable
```

inc [num] - will show error
inc byte[num] - will increment the num by 1

The DEC Instruction

The DEC instruction is used for decrementing an operand by one. It works on a single operand that can be either in a register or in memory.

SYNTAX:

The DEC instruction has the following syntax:

```
DEC destination
```

The operand *destination* could be an 8-bit, 16-bit or 32-bit operand.

EXAMPLE:

```
segment .data
    count dw 0
    value db 15
segment .text
    inc [count]
```

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```
dec [value]
mov ebx, count
inc word [ebx]
mov esi, value
dec byte [esi]
```

it will show error!

The ADD and SUB Instructions

The ADD and SUB instructions are used for performing simple addition/subtraction of binary data in byte, word and doubleword size, i.e., for adding or subtracting 8-bit, 16-bit or 32-bit operands respectively.

SYNTAX:

The ADD and SUB instructions have the following syntax:

```
ADD/SUB destination, source → destination = destination - source
```

The ADD/SUB instruction can take place between:

- Register to register
- Memory to register
- Register to memory
- Register to constant data
- Memory to constant data

However, like other instructions, memory-to-memory operations are not possible using ADD/SUB instructions. An ADD or SUB operation sets or clears the overflow and carry flags.

EXAMPLE:

The following example asks two digits from the user, stores the digits in the EAX and EBX register respectively, adds the values, stores the result in a memory location 'res' and finally displays the result.

```
SYS_EXIT equ 1
SYS_READ equ 3
SYS_WRITE equ 4
STDIN equ 0
STDOUT equ 1

segment .data

    msg1 db "Enter a digit ", 0xA, 0xD
    len1 equ $- msg1

    msg2 db "Please enter a second digit", 0xA, 0xD
    len2 equ $- msg2

    msg3 db "The sum is: "
    len3 equ $- msg3

segment .bss
```

```

    num1 resb 2
    num2 resb 2
    res resb 1

section .text
    global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg1
    mov edx, len1
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_READ
    mov ebx, STDIN
    mov ecx, num1
    mov edx, 2
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg2
    mov edx, len2
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_READ
    mov ebx, STDIN
    mov ecx, num2
    mov edx, 2
    int 0x80

    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, msg3
    mov edx, len3
    int 0x80

    ; moving the first number to eax register and second number to ebx
    ; and subtracting ascii '0' to convert it into a decimal number
    mov eax, [number1]
    sub eax, '0'
    mov ebx, [number2]
    sub ebx, '0'

    ; add eax and ebx
    add eax, ebx
    ; add '0' to to convert the sum from decimal to ASCII
    add eax, '0'

    ; storing the sum in memory location res
    mov [res], eax

    ; print the sum
    mov eax, SYS_WRITE
    mov ebx, STDOUT
    mov ecx, res
    mov edx, 1
    int 0x80
exit:
    mov eax, SYS_EXIT
    xor ebx, ebx

```

1 = 0000 0001 integer 1
 '0' = 0011 0000 (+)

 0011 0001 ascii 1

we can convert 0 to 9
 binary numbers to
 corresponding ascii
 numbers by adding or
 subtracting zero '0'. adding
 or subtracting doesn't
 change the actual value


```
int 0x80
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Enter a digit:
3
Please enter a second digit:
4
The sum is:
7
```

The program with hardcoded variables:

```
section .text
    global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
    mov     eax,'3'
    sub     eax,'0'
    mov     ebx,'4'
    sub     ebx,'0'
    add     eax,ebx
    add     eax,'0'
    mov     [sum],eax
    mov     ecx,msg
    mov     edx,len
    mov     ebx,1 ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4 ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80 ;call kernel
    nwnln
    mov     ecx,sum
    mov     edx,1
    mov     ebx,1 ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4 ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80 ;call kernel
    mov     eax,1 ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80 ;call kernel

section .data
    msg db "The sum is:", 0xA,0xD
    len equ $ - msg
    segment .bss
    sum resb 1
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
The sum is:
7
```

The MUL/IMUL Instruction

There are two instructions for multiplying binary data. The **MUL** (Multiply) instruction handles unsigned data and the **IMUL** (Integer Multiply) handles signed data. Both instructions affect the Carry and Overflow flag.

SYNTAX:

The syntax for the MUL/IMUL instructions is as follows:

```
MUL/IMUL multiplier
```

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Multiplicand in both cases will be in an accumulator, depending upon the size of the multiplicand and the multiplier and the generated product is also stored in two registers depending upon the size of the operands. Following section explains MULL instructions with three different cases:

SN	Scenarios
1	<p>When two bytes are multiplied</p> <p>The multiplicand is in the AL register, and the multiplier is a byte in the memory or in another register. The product is in AX. High order 8 bits of the product is stored in AH and the low order 8 bits are stored in AL</p>
2	<p>When two one-word values are multiplied</p> <p>The multiplicand should be in the AX register, and the multiplier is a word in memory or another register. For example, for an instruction like MUL DX, you must store the multiplier in DX and the multiplicand in AX.</p> <p>The resultant product is a double word, which will need two registers. The High order (leftmost) portion gets stored in DX and the lower-order (rightmost) portion gets stored in AX.</p>
3	<p>When two doubleword values are multiplied</p> <p>When two doubleword values are multiplied, the multiplicand should be in EAX and the multiplier is a doubleword value stored in memory or in another register. The product generated is stored in the EDX:EAX registers, i.e., the high order 32 bits gets stored in the EDX register and the low order 32-bits are stored in the EAX register.</p>

EXAMPLE:

```
MOV AL, 10
MOV DL, 25
MUL DL
...
MOV DL, 0FFH ; DL = -1
MOV AL, 0BEH ; AL = -66
IMUL DL
```

EXAMPLE:

The following example multiplies 3 with 2, and displays the result:

```
section .text
```

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```

    global main      ;must be declared for using gcc
main:               ;tell linker entry point

    mov     al,'3'
    sub     al,'0'
    mov     bl,'2'
    sub     bl,'0'
    mul     bl
    add     al,'0'
    mov     [res], al
    mov     ecx,msg
    mov     edx,len
    mov     ebx,1    ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4    ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80     ;call kernel
    nwl n
    mov     ecx,res
    mov     edx,1
    mov     ebx,1    ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4    ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80     ;call kernel
    mov     eax,1    ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80     ;call kernel

section .data
msg db "The result is:", 0xA,0xD
len equ $- msg
segment .bss
res resb 1

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

The result is:
6

```

The DIV/IDIV Instructions

The division operation generates two elements - **a quotient and a remainder**. In case of multiplication, overflow does not occur because double-length registers are used to keep the product. However, in case of division, overflow may occur. The processor generates an interrupt if overflow occurs.

The DIV (Divide) instruction is used for unsigned data and the IDIV (Integer Divide) is used for signed data.

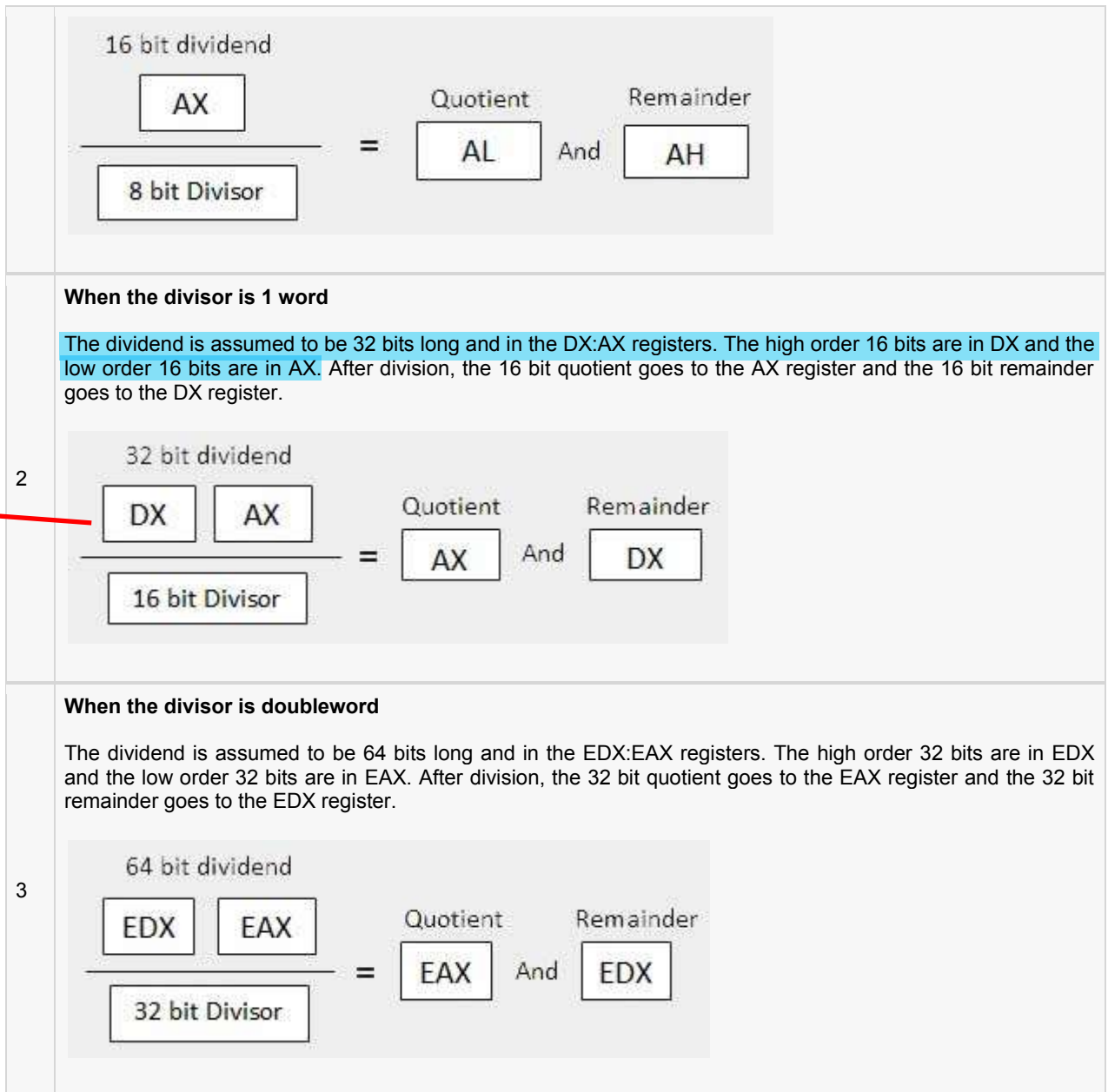
SYNTAX:

The format for the DIV/IDIV instruction:

```
DIV/IDIV divisor
```

The dividend is in an accumulator. Both the instructions can work with 8-bit, 16-bit or 32-bit operands. The operation affects all six status flags. Following section explains three cases of division with different operand size:

SN	Scenarios
	When the divisor is 1 byte
1	The dividend is assumed to be in the AX register (16 bits). After division, the quotient goes to the AL register and the remainder goes to the AH register.



64 bit dividend

EDX EAX

=

Quotient

EAX

And

Remainder

EDX

32 bit Divisor

EXAMPLE:

The following example divides 8 with 2. The **dividend 8** is stored in the **16 bit AX register** and the **divisor 2** is stored in the **8 bit BL register**.

```

section .text
global main      ;must be declared for using gcc
main:            ;tell linker entry point
    mov     ax, '8'
    sub     ax, '0'
    mov     bl, '2'
    sub     bl, '0'
    div     bl
    add     ax, '0'

```

convert ascii to decimal for calculation

convert decimal to ascii to print

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```

mov     [res], ax
mov     ecx,msg
mov     edx, len
mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
int     0x80       ;call kernel
nwln
mov     ecx,res
mov     edx, 1
mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
int     0x80       ;call kernel
mov     eax,1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
int     0x80       ;call kernel

section .data
msg db "The result is:", 0xA,0xD
len equ $- msg
segment .bss
res resb 1

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

The result is:
4

```

Logical Instructions

The processor instruction set provides the instructions AND, OR, XOR, TEST and NOT Boolean logic, which tests, sets and clears the bits according to the need of the program.

The format for these instructions:

SN	Instruction	Format
1	AND	AND operand1, operand2
2	OR	OR operand1, operand2
3	XOR	XOR operand1, operand2
4	TEST	TEST operand1, operand2
5	NOT	NOT operand1

The first operand in all the cases could be either in register or in memory. The second operand could be either in register/memory or an immediate (constant) value. However, memory to memory operations are not possible. These instructions compare or match bits of the operands and set the CF, OF, PF, SF and ZF flags.

The AND Instruction

The AND instruction is used for supporting logical expressions by performing bitwise AND operation. The bitwise AND operation returns 1, if the matching bits from both the operands are 1, otherwise it returns 0. For example:

```
Operand1: 0101
Operand2: 0011
-----
After AND -> Operand1: 0001
```

The AND operation can be used for clearing one or more bits. For example, say, the BL register contains 0011 1010. If you need to clear the high order bits to zero, you AND it with 0FH.

```
AND    BL,    0FH    ; This sets BL to 0000 1010
```

Let's take up another example. If you want to check whether a given number is odd or even, a simple test would be to check the least significant bit of the number. If this is 1, the number is odd, else the number is even.

Assuming the number is in AL register, we can write:

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```
AND     AL, 01H      ; ANDing with 0000 0001
JZ      EVEN_NUMBER
```

The following program illustrates this:

Example:

```
section      .text
global main          ;must be declared for using gcc
main:           ;tell linker entry point
    mov     ax, 8h    ;getting 8 in the ax
    and     ax, 1      ;and ax with 1
    jz      evnn
    mov     eax, 4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    mov     ebx, 1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     ecx, odd_msg ;message to write
    mov     edx, len2   ;length of message
    int     0x80        ;call kernel
    jmp     outprog
evnn:
    mov     ah, 09h
    mov     eax, 4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    mov     ebx, 1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     ecx, even_msg ;message to write
    mov     edx, len1   ;length of message
    int     0x80        ;call kernel
outprog:
    mov     eax, 1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80        ;call kernel
section      .data
even_msg db 'Even Number!' ;message showing even number
len1 equ $ - even_msg
odd_msg db 'Odd Number!'   ;message showing odd number
len2 equ $ - odd_msg
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Even Number!
```

Change the value in the ax register with an odd digit, like:

```
mov     ax, 9h          ; getting 9 in the ax
```

The program would display:

```
Odd Number!
```

Similarly to clear the entire register you can AND it with 00H.

The OR Instruction

The OR instruction is used for supporting logical expression by performing bitwise OR operation. The bitwise OR operator returns 1, if the matching bits from either or both operands are one. It returns 0, if both the bits are zero.

For example,

```
Operand1: 0101
Operand2: 0011
-----
```

After OR -> Operand1: 0111

The OR operation can be used for setting one or more bits. For example, let us assume the AL register contains 0011 1010, you need to set the four low order bits, you can OR it with a value 0000 1111, i.e., FH.

OR BL, 0FH ; This sets BL to 0011 1111

Example:

The following example demonstrates the OR instruction. Let us store the value 5 and 3 in the AL and the BL register respectively. Then the instruction,

OR AL, BL

should store 7 in the AL register:

```
section .text
    global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
    mov al, 5 ;getting 5 in the al
    mov bl, 3 ;getting 3 in the bl
    or al, bl ;or al and bl registers, result should be 7
    add al, byte '0' ;converting decimal to ascii
    mov [result], al
    mov eax, 4
    mov ebx, 1
    mov ecx, result
    mov edx, 1
    int 0x80

outprog:
    mov eax, 1 ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80 ;call kernel
section .bss
result resb 1
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

7

The XOR Instruction

The XOR instruction implements the bitwise XOR operation. The XOR operation sets the resultant bit to 1, if and only if the bits from the operands are different. If the bits from the operands are same (both 0 or both 1), the resultant bit is cleared to 0.

For example,

```
Operand1: 0101
Operand2: 0011
-----
After XOR -> Operand1: 0110
```

XORing an operand with itself changes the operand to 0. This is used to clear a register.

XOR EAX, EAX

The TEST Instruction

The TEST instruction works same as the AND operation, but unlike AND instruction, it does not change the first operand. So, if we need to check whether a number in a register is even or odd, we can also do this using the TEST instruction without changing the original number.

```
TEST    AL, 01H
JZ      EVEN_NUMBER
```

The NOT Instruction

The NOT instruction implements the bitwise NOT operation. NOT operation reverses the bits in an operand. The operand could be either in a register or in the memory.

For example,

```
Operand1: 0101 0011
After NOT -> Operand1: 1010 1100
```

Assembly Conditions

Conditional execution in assembly language is accomplished by several looping and branching instructions. These instructions can change the flow of control in a program. Conditional execution is observed in two scenarios:

SN	Conditional Instructions
1	Unconditional jump This is performed by the JMP instruction. Conditional execution often involves a transfer of control to the address of an instruction that does not follow the currently executing instruction. Transfer of control may be forward to execute a new set of instructions, or backward to re-execute the same steps.
2	Conditional jump This is performed by a set of jump instructions j<condition> depending upon the condition. The conditional instructions transfer the control by breaking the sequential flow and they do it by changing the offset value in IP.

Let us discuss the CMP instruction before discussing the conditional instructions.

The CMP Instruction

The CMP instruction compares two operands. It is generally used in conditional execution. This instruction basically subtracts one operand from the other for comparing whether the operands are equal or not. It does not disturb the destination or source operands. It is used along with the conditional jump instruction for decision making.

SYNTAX

```
CMP destination, source
```

CMP compares two numeric data fields. The destination operand could be either in register or in memory. The source operand could be a constant (immediate) data, register or memory.

EXAMPLE:

```
CMP DX, 00 ; Compare the DX value with zero
JE L7      ; If yes, then jump to label L7
.
.
```

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```
L7: ...
```

CMP is often used for comparing whether a counter value has reached the number of time a loop needs to be run. Consider the following typical condition:

```
INC     EDX
CMP     EDX, 10 ; Compares whether the counter has reached 10
JLE     LP1     ; If it is less than or equal to 10, then jump to LP1
```

Unconditional Jump

As mentioned earlier this is performed by the JMP instruction. Conditional execution often involves a transfer of control to the address of an instruction that does not follow the currently executing instruction. Transfer of control may be forward to execute a new set of instructions, or backward to re-execute the same steps.

SYNTAX:

The JMP instruction provides a label name where the flow of control is transferred immediately. The syntax of the JMP instruction is:

```
JMP     label
```

EXAMPLE:

The following code snippet illustrates the JMP instruction:

```
MOV  AX, 00    ; Initializing AX to 0
MOV  BX, 00    ; Initializing BX to 0
MOV  CX, 01    ; Initializing CX to 1
L20:
ADD  AX, 01    ; Increment AX
ADD  BX, AX    ; Add AX to BX
SHL  CX, 1     ; shift left CX, this in turn doubles the CX value
JMP  L20       ; repeats the statements
```

Conditional Jump

If some specified condition is satisfied in conditional jump, the control flow is transferred to a target instruction. There are numerous conditional jump instructions, depending upon the condition and data.

Following are the conditional jump instructions used on signed data used for arithmetic operations:

Instruction	Description	Flags tested
JE/JZ	Jump Equal or Jump Zero	ZF
JNE/JNZ	Jump not Equal or Jump Not Zero	ZF
JG/JNLE	Jump Greater or Jump Not Less/Equal	OF, SF, ZF
JGE/JNL	Jump Greater or Jump Not Less	OF, SF
JL/JNGE	Jump Less or Jump Not Greater/Equal	OF, SF
JLE/JNG	Jump Less/Equal or Jump Not Greater	OF, SF, ZF

Following are the conditional jump instructions used on unsigned data used for logical operations:

Instruction	Description	Flags tested
-------------	-------------	--------------

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JE/JZ	Jump Equal or Jump Zero	ZF
JNE/JNZ	Jump not Equal or Jump Not Zero	ZF
JA/JNBE	Jump Above or Jump Not Below/Equal	CF, ZF
JAE/JNB	Jump Above/Equal or Jump Not Below	CF
JB/JNAE	Jump Below or Jump Not Above/Equal	CF
JBE/JNA	Jump Below/Equal or Jump Not Above	AF, CF

The following conditional jump instructions have special uses and check the value of flags:

Instruction	Description	Flags tested
JXCZ	Jump if CX is Zero	none
JC	Jump If Carry	CF
JNC	Jump If No Carry	CF
JO	Jump If Overflow	OF
JNO	Jump If No Overflow	OF
JP/JPE	Jump Parity or Jump Parity Even	PF
JNP/JPO	Jump No Parity or Jump Parity Odd	PF
JS	Jump Sign (negative value)	SF
JNS	Jump No Sign (positive value)	SF

The syntax for the J<condition> set of instructions:

Example,

```

CMP     AL, BL
JE      EQUAL
CMP     AL, BH
JE      EQUAL
CMP     AL, CL
JE      EQUAL
NON_EQUAL: ...
EQUAL:  ...

```

Example:

The following program displays the largest of three variables. The variables are double-digit variables. The three variables num1, num2 and num3 have values 47, 72 and 31 respectively:

```

section .text
    global main           ;must be declared for using gcc

main:    ;tell linker entry point
    mov   ecx, [num1]
    cmp   ecx, [num2]
    jg    check_third_num
    mov   ecx, [num3]
check_third_num:
    cmp   ecx, [num3]

```

```

        jg     _exit
        mov    ecx, [num3]
_exit:
        mov    [largest], word ecx
        mov    ecx,msg
        mov    edx, len
        mov    ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
        mov    eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
        int    0x80      ;call kernel
        nwnl
        mov    ecx,largest
        mov    edx, 2
        mov    ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
        mov    eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
        int    0x80      ;call kernel

        mov    eax, 1
        int    80h

section .data
        msg db "The largest digit is: ", 0xA,0xD
        len equ $- msg
        num1 dd '47'
        num2 dd '22'
        num3 dd '31'

segment .bss
        largest resb 2

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

The largest digit is:
47

```

Assembly Loops

The JMP instruction can be used for implementing loops. For example, the following code snippet can be used for executing the loop-body 10 times.

```
MOV     CL, 10
L1:
<LOOP-BODY>
DEC     CL
JNZ     L1
```

when cl becomes 1 then dec instruction will make cl 0 so ZERO FLAG WILL be set. JNZ won't make a jump.

The processor instruction set however includes a group of loop instructions for implementing iteration. The basic LOOP instruction has the following syntax:

```
LOOP     label
```

Where, *label* is the target label that identifies the target instruction as in the jump instructions. The LOOP instruction assumes that the **ECX register contains the loop count**. When the loop instruction is executed, the ECX register is decremented and the control jumps to the target label, until the ECX register value, i.e., the counter reaches the value zero.

The above code snippet could be written as:

```
mov ECX,10
l1:
<loop body>
loop l1
```

Example:

The following program prints the number 1 to 9 on the screen:

```
section .text
    global main           ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                     ;tell linker entry point
    mov ecx,10
    mov eax,'1'

l1:
    mov [num], eax
    mov eax, 4
    mov ebx, 1
    push ecx
```

```

    mov ecx, num
    mov edx, 1
    int 0x80
    mov eax, [num]
    sub eax, '0'
    inc eax
    add eax, '0'
    pop ecx
    loop ll
    mov eax, 1          ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80           ;call kernel
section .bss
num resb 1

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
123456789
```

Assembly Numbers

Numerical data is generally represented in binary system. Arithmetic instructions operate on binary data.

When numbers are displayed on screen or entered from keyboard, they are in ASCII form.

So far, we have converted this input data in ASCII form to binary for arithmetic calculations and converted the result back to binary. The following code shows this:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:    ;tell linker entry point
    mov     eax, '3'           '3' - 51
    sub     eax, '0'           '0' - 48 . 51-48=3  eax value is 3
    mov     ebx, '4'
    sub     ebx, '0'
    add     eax, ebx
    add     eax, '0'
    mov     [sum], eax
    mov     ecx, msg
    mov     edx, len
    mov     ebx, 1             ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax, 4             ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80              ;call kernel
    nwnln
    mov     ecx, sum
    mov     edx, 1
    mov     ebx, 1             ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax, 4             ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80              ;call kernel
    mov     eax, 1             ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80              ;call kernel

section .data
msg db "The sum is:", 0xA, 0xD
len equ $ - msg
segment .bss
sum resb 1
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

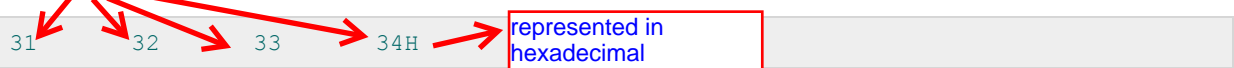
```
The sum is:
7
```


Such conversions are however, has an overhead and assembly language programming allows processing numbers in a more efficient way, **in the binary form. Decimal numbers can be represented in two forms:**

- ASCII form
- BCD or Binary Coded Decimal form

ASCII Representation

In ASCII representation, decimal numbers are stored as string of ASCII characters. For example, the decimal value 1234 is stored as:



Where, 31H is ASCII value for 1, 32H is ASCII value for 2, and so on. There are the following four instructions for processing numbers in ASCII representation:

- **AAA** - ASCII Adjust After Addition
- **AAS** - ASCII Adjust After Subtraction
- **AAM** - ASCII Adjust After Multiplication
- **AAD** - ASCII Adjust Before Division

These instructions do not take any operands and assumes the required operand to be in the AL register.

The following example uses the AAS instruction to demonstrate the concept:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:    ;tell linker entry point
    sub    ah, ah
    mov    al, '9'
    sub    al, '3'
    aas
    or     al, 30h
    mov    [res], ax

    mov    edx, len            ;message length
    mov    ecx, msg            ;message to write
    mov    ebx, 1              ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov    eax, 4              ;system call number (sys_write)
    int    0x80                ;call kernel

    mov    edx, 1              ;message length
    mov    ecx, res            ;message to write
    mov    ebx, 1              ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov    eax, 4              ;system call number (sys_write)
    int    0x80                ;call kernel
    mov    eax, 1              ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int    0x80                ;call kernel

section .data
msg db 'The Result is:', 0xa
len equ $ - msg
section .bss
res resb 1
```

30h - 48 decimal
48 - ascii '0'
we are adding 48 to the result

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
The Result is:
6
```

BCD Representation

There are two types of BCD representation:

- Unpacked BCD representation
- Packed BCD representation

In unpacked BCD representation, each byte stores the binary equivalent of a decimal digit. For example, the number 1234 is stored as:

01	02	03	04H
----	----	----	-----

There are two instructions for processing these numbers:

- AAM - ASCII Adjust After Multiplication
- AAD - ASCII Adjust Before Division

The four ASCII adjust instructions, AAA, AAS, AAM and AAD can also be used with unpacked BCD representation. In packed BCD representation, each digit is stored using four bits. Two decimal digits are packed into a byte. For example, the number 1234 is stored as:

12	34H
----	-----

There are two instructions for processing these numbers:

- DAA - Decimal Adjust After Addition
- DAS - decimal Adjust After Subtraction

There is no support for multiplication and division in packed BCD representation.

Example:

The following program adds up two 5-digit decimal numbers and displays the sum. It uses the above concepts:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc

main:                          ;tell linker entry point

    mov     esi, 4             ;pointing to the rightmost digit
    mov     ecx, 5             ;num of digits
    cld

add_loop:
    mov     al, [num1 + esi]
    adc     al, [num2 + esi]
    aaa
    pushf
    or      al, 30h
    popf
    mov     [sum + esi], al
    dec     esi
    loop    add_loop
    mov     edx, len           ;message length
```

```

    mov     ecx,msg    ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

    mov     edx,5      ;message length
    mov     ecx,sum    ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

    mov     eax,1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

section .data
msg db 'The Sum is:',0xa
len equ $ - msg
num1 db '12345'
num2 db '23456'
sum db '      '

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

The Sum is:
35801

```

Assembly Strings

W

e have already used variable lengths strings in our previous examples. You must have noticed that, the variable lengths strings can have as many characters as required. Generally, we specify the length of the string by either of the two ways:

- Explicitly storing string length
- Using a sentinel character

We can store the string length explicitly by using the \$ location counter symbol, that represents the current value of the location counter. In the following example:

```
msg db 'Hello, world!',0xa ;our dear string
len equ $ - msg           ;length of our dear string
```

\$ points to the byte after the last character of the string variable *msg*. Therefore, *\$-msg* gives the length of the string. We can also write

```
msg db 'Hello, world!',0xa ;our dear string
len equ 13                 ;length of our dear string
```

Alternatively, you can store strings with a trailing sentinel character to delimit a string instead of storing the string length explicitly. The sentinel character should be a special character that does not appear within a string.

For example:

```
message DB 'I am loving it!', 0
```

to identify the
end of the
string

String Instructions

Each string instruction may require a source operand, a destination operand, or both. For 32-bit segments, string instructions use ESI and EDI registers to point to the source and destination operands, respectively.

For 16-bit segments, however, the SI and the DI registers are used to point to the source and destination respectively.

There are five basic instructions for processing strings. They are:

- **MOVS** - This instruction moves 1 Byte, Word or Doubleword of data from memory location to another.

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- **LODS** - This instruction loads from memory. If the operand is of one byte, it is loaded into the AL register, if the operand is one word, it is loaded into the AX register and a doubleword is loaded into the EAX register.
- **STOS** - This instruction stores data from register (AL, AX, or EAX) to memory.
- **CMPS** - This instruction compares two data items in memory. Data could be of a byte size, word or doubleword.

• **SCAS** - This instruction compares the contents of a register (AL, AX or EAX) with the contents of an item in memory.

Each of the above instruction has a byte, word and doubleword version and string instructions can be repeated by using a repetition prefix.

These instructions use the ES:DI and DS:SI pair of registers, where DI and SI registers contain valid offset addresses that refers to bytes stored in memory. SI is normally associated with DS (data segment) and DI is always associated with ES (extra segment).

The DS:SI (or ESI) and ES:DI (or EDI) registers point to the source and destination operands respectively. The source operand is assumed to be at DS:SI (or ESI) and the destination operand at ES:DI (or EDI) in memory.

For 16-bit addresses the SI and DI registers are used and for 32-bit addresses the ESI and EDI registers are used.

The following table provides various versions of string instructions and the assumed space of the operands.

Basic Instruction	Operands at	Byte Operation	Word Operation	Double word Operation
MOVS	ES:DI, DS:EI	MOVSB	MOVSW	MOVSD
LODS	AX, DS:SI	LODSB	LODSW	LODSD
STOS	ES:DI, AX	STOSB	STOSW	STOSD
CMPS	DS:SI, ES: DI	CMPSB	CMPSW	CMPSD
SCAS	ES:DI, AX	SCASB	SCASW	SCASD

MOVS

The MOVS instruction is used to copy a data item (byte, word or doubleword) from the source string to the destination string. The source string is pointed by DS:SI and the destination string is pointed by ES:DI.

The following example explains the concept:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point
    mov     ecx, len           ;length of the string to be copied
    mov     esi, s1
    mov     edi, s2
    cld                       ;clear the direction flag
    rep     movsb              ;mov string byte
    mov     edx, 20            ;message length
    mov     ecx, s2            ;message to write
    mov     ebx, 1             ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax, 4             ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel
    mov     eax, 1             ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel

section .data
s1 db 'Hello, world!', 0 ;string 1
```

ecx is decremented by one for moving one byte data

Repeats execution of string instructions while CX != 0.

length of the string to be copied

clear the direction flag

mov string byte

ESI and EDI are incremented by one for byte of data movement

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```
len equ $-s1
section .bss
s2 resb 20 ;destination
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Hello, world!
```

LODS

In cryptography, a Caesar cipher is one of the simplest known encryption techniques. In this method, each letter in the data to be encrypted is replaced by a letter some fixed number of positions down the alphabet.

In this example, let us encrypt a data by simply replacing each alphabet in it with a shift of two alphabets, so a will be substituted by c, b with d and so on.

We use LODS to load the original string 'password' into the memory.

```
section .text
global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
    mov ecx, len
    mov esi, s1
    mov edi, s2
loop_here:
    lodsb
    add al, 02
    stosb
    loop loop_here
    cld
    rep movsb
    mov edx, 20 ;message length
    mov ecx, s2 ;message to write
    mov ebx, 1 ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov eax, 4 ;system call number (sys_write)
    int 0x80 ;call kernel
    mov eax, 1 ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80 ;call kernel
section .data
s1 db 'password', 0 ;source
len equ $-s1
section .bss
s2 resb 10 ;destination
```

loads the byte from ESI to AL register

stores the byte from AL to EDI memory location

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
rcuuyqtf
```

STOS

The STOS instruction copies the data item from AL (for bytes - STOSB), AX (for words - STOSW) or EAX (for doublewords - STOSD) to the destination string, pointed to by ES:DI in memory.

The following example demonstrates use of the LODS and STOS instruction to convert an upper case string to its lower case value:

```
section .text
global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
```

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```

        mov     ecx, len
        mov     esi, s1
        mov     edi, s2
loop_here:
        lodsb
        or      al, 20h
        stosb
        loop    loop_here
        cld
        rep     movsb
        mov     edx, 20 ;message length
        mov     ecx, s2 ;message to write
        mov     ebx, 1 ;file descriptor (stdout)
        mov     eax, 4 ;system call number (sys_write)
        int     0x80 ;call kernel
        mov     eax, 1 ;system call number (sys_exit)
        int     0x80 ;call kernel
section .data
s1 db 'HELLO, WORLD', 0 ;source
len equ $-s1
section .bss
s2 resb 20 ;destination

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
hello, world
```

CMPS

The CMPS instruction compares two strings. This instruction compares two data items of one byte, word or doubleword, pointed to by the DS:SI and ES:DI registers and sets the flags accordingly. You can also use the conditional jump instructions along with this instruction.

The following example demonstrates comparing two strings using the CMPS instruction:

```

section .text
global main ;must be declared for using gcc
main: ;tell linker entry point
    mov esi, s1
    mov edi, s2
    mov ecx, len2
    cld
    repe cmpsb
    jecxz equal ;jump when ecx is zero

    ;If not equal then the following code
    mov eax, 4
    mov ebx, 1
    mov ecx, msg_neq
    mov edx, len_neq
    int 80h
    jmp exit
equal:
    mov eax, 4
    mov ebx, 1
    mov ecx, msg_eq
    mov edx, len_eq
    int 80h
exit:
    mov eax, 1

```

Subtracts destination value from source without saving results. Updates flags based on the subtraction.

```

    mov ebx, 0
    int 80h
section .data
s1 db 'Hello, world!',0    ;our first string
lens1 equ $-s1
s2 db 'Hello, there!', 0   ;our second string
lens2 equ $-s2
msg_eq db 'Strings are equal!', 0xa
len_eq equ $-msg_eq
msg_neq db 'Strings are not equal!'
len_neq equ $-msg_neq

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Strings are not equal!
```

SCAS

The SCAS instruction is used for searching a particular character or set of characters in a string. The data item to be searched should be in AL (for SCASB), AX (for SCASW) or EAX (for SCASD) registers. The string to be searched should be in memory and pointed by the ES:DI (or EDI) register.

Look at the following program to understand the concept:

```

section .text
    global main          ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                   ;tell linker entry point

    mov ecx,len
    mov edi,my_string
    mov al, 'e'
    cld
    repne scasb
    je found ; when found
    ; If not not then the following code
    mov eax,4
    mov ebx,1
    mov ecx,msg_notfound
    mov edx,len_notfound
    int 80h
    jmp exit
found:
    mov eax,4
    mov ebx,1
    mov ecx,msg_found
    mov edx,len_found
    int 80h
exit:
    mov eax,1
    mov ebx,0
    int 80h
section .data
my_string db 'hello world', 0
len equ $-my_string
msg_found db 'found!', 0xa
len_found equ $-msg_found
msg_notfound db 'not found!'
len_notfound equ $-msg_notfound

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

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found!

Repetition Prefixes

The REP prefix, when set before a string instruction, for example - REP MOVSB, causes repetition of the instruction based on a counter placed at the CX register. REP executes the instruction, decreases CX by 1, and checks whether CX is zero. It repeats the instruction processing until CX is zero.

The Direction Flag (DF) determines the direction of the operation.

- Use CLD (Clear Direction Flag, DF = 0) to make the operation left to right.
- Use STD (Set Direction Flag, DF = 1) to make the operation right to left.

The REP prefix also has the following variations:

- **REP**: it is the unconditional repeat. It repeats the operation until CX is zero.
- **REPE** or **REPZ**: It is conditional repeat. It repeats the operation while the zero flag indicate equal/zero. It stops when the ZF indicates not equal/zero or when CX is zero.
- **REPNE** or **REPNZ**: It is also conditional repeat. It repeats the operation while the zero flag indicate not equal/zero. It stops when the ZF indicates equal/zero or when CX is decremented to zero.

Assembly Arrays

We have already discussed that the data definition directives to the assembler are used for allocating storage for variables. The variable could also be initialized with some specific value. The initialized value could be specified in hexadecimal, decimal or binary form.

For example, we can define a word variable months in either of the following way:

```
MONTHS    DW      12
MONTHS    DW      0CH
MONTHS    DW      0110B
```

The data definition directives can also be used for defining a one dimensional array. Let us define a one dimensional array of numbers.

```
NUMBERS   DW      34, 45, 56, 67, 75, 89
```

The above definition declares an array of six words each initialized with the numbers 34, 45, 56, 67, 75, 89. This allocates $2 \times 6 = 12$ bytes of consecutive memory space. The symbolic address of the first number will be NUMBERS and that of the second number will be NUMBERS + 2 and so on.

Let us take up another example. You can define an array named inventory of size 8, and initialize all the values with zero, as:

```
INVENTORY    DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
              DW      0
```

Which, can be abbreviated as:

```
INVENTORY    DW      0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0
```

The TIMES directive can also be used for multiple initializations to the same value. Using TIMES, the INVENTORY array can be defined as

```
INVENTORY    TIMES 8 DW 0
```

Example:

The following example demonstrates the above concepts by defining a 3 element array x, which stores three values: 2, 3 and 4. It adds the values in the array and displays the sum 9:

```
section .text
    global main ;must be declared for linker (ld)
main:

    mov     eax,3      ;number bytes to be summed
    mov     ebx,0      ;EBX will store the sum
    mov     ecx,x      ;ECX will point to the current element to be summed
top:   add     ebx,[ecx]
    add     ecx,1      ;move pointer to next element
    dec     eax        ;decrement counter
    jnz     top        ;if counter not 0, then loop again
done:
    add     ebx,'0'
    mov     [sum],byte ebx ;done, store result in "sum"
display:
    mov     edx,1      ;message length
    mov     ecx,sum    ;message to write
    mov     ebx,1      ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax,4      ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel
    mov     eax,1      ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80       ;call kernel

section .data
global x
x:
    db     2
    db     4
    db     3

sum:
    db     0
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

9

Assembly Procedures

Procedures or subroutines are very important in assembly language, as the assembly language programs tend to be large in size. **Procedures are identified by a name.** Following this name, the body of the procedure is described, which perform a well-defined job. **End of the procedure is indicated by a return statement.**

Syntax:

Following is the syntax to define a procedure:

```
proc_name:
    procedure body
    ...
    ret
```

The procedure is called from another function by using the CALL instruction. The CALL instruction should have the name of the called procedure as argument as shown below:

```
CALL proc_name
```

The called procedure returns the control to the calling procedure by using the RET instruction.

Example:

Let us write a very simple procedure named *sum* that adds the variables stored in the ECX and EDX register and returns the sum in the EAX register:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point
    mov     ecx, '4'
    sub     ecx, '0'
    mov     edx, '5'
    sub     edx, '0'
    call    sum                ;call sum procedure
    mov     [res], eax
    mov     ecx, msg
    mov     edx, len
    mov     ebx, 1              ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov     eax, 4              ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel
    nwnln
```

```

        mov     ecx, res
        mov     edx, 1
        mov     ebx, 1 ;file descriptor (stdout)
        mov     eax, 4 ;system call number (sys_write)
        int     0x80 ;call kernel
        mov     eax, 1 ;system call number (sys_exit)
        int     0x80 ;call kernel
sum:
        mov     eax, ecx
        add     eax, edx
        add     eax, '0'
        ret
section .data
msg db "The sum is:", 0xA, 0xD
len equ $- msg
segment .bss
res resb 1

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

The sum is:
9

```

Stacks Data Structure:

A stack is an array-like data structure in the memory in which data can be stored and removed from a location called the 'top' of the stack. The data need to be stored is 'pushed' into the stack and data to be retrieved is 'popped' out from the stack. **Stack is a LIFO data structure**, i.e., the data stored first is retrieved last.

Assembly language provides two instructions for stack operations: **PUSH and POP**. These instructions have syntaxes like:

```

PUSH    operand
POP     address/register

```

The memory space reserved in the stack segment is used for implementing stack. The registers SS and ESP (or SP) are used for implementing the stack. The top of the stack, which points to the last data item inserted into the stack is pointed to by the SS:ESP register, where the **SS register points to the beginning of the stack segment** and the **SP (or ESP) gives the offset into the stack segment**.

The stack implementation has the following characteristics:

- Only **words** or **doublewords** could be saved into the stack, not a byte.
- **The stack grows in the reverse direction i.e., toward the lower memory address**
- The top of the stack points to the last item inserted in the stack; it points to the lower byte of the last word inserted.

As we discussed about storing the values of the registers in the stack before using them for some use; it can be done in following way:

```

; Save the AX and BX registers in the stack
PUSH    AX
PUSH    BX
; Use the registers for other purpose
MOV     AX, VALUE1

```

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```

MOV     BX, VALUE2
...
MOV     VALUE1, AX
MOV     VALUE2, BX
; Restore the original values
POP     AX
POP     BX

```

EXAMPLE:

The following program displays the entire ASCII character set. The main program calls a procedure named *display*, which displays the ASCII character set.

```

section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:    ;tell linker entry point
    call    display
    mov     eax, 1             ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel
display:
    mov     ecx, 256
next:
    push    ecx
    mov     eax, 4
    mov     ebx, 1
    mov     ecx, achar
    mov     edx, 1
    int     80h
    pop     ecx
    mov     dx, [achar]
    cmp     byte [achar], 0dh
    inc     byte [achar]
    loop    next
    ret
section .data
achar db '0'

```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```

0123456789:;<=>?@ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ[\]^_`abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz{|}
...
...

```

Assembly Recursion

A recursion procedure is one that calls itself. There are two kinds of recursion: direct and indirect. In

direct recursion, the procedure calls itself and in indirect recursion, the first procedure calls a second procedure, which in turn, calls the first procedure.

Recursion could be observed in numerous mathematical algorithms. For example consider the case of calculating the factorial of a number. Factorial of a number is given by the equation:

```
Fact (n) = n * fact (n-1) for n > 0
```

For example: factorial of 5 is $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 = 5 \times \text{factorial of } 4$ and this can be a good example of showing a recursive procedure. Every recursive algorithm must have an ending condition i.e., the recursive calling of the program should be stopped when a condition is fulfilled. In the case of factorial algorithm the end condition is reached when n is 0.

The following program shows how factorial n is implemented in assembly language. To keep the program simple, we will calculate factorial 3.

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point

    mov bx, 3                  ;for calculating factorial 3
    call proc_fact
    add ax, 30h
    mov [fact], ax

    mov edx, len               ;message length
    mov ecx, msg               ;message to write
    mov ebx, 1                 ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov eax, 4                 ;system call number (sys_write)
    int 0x80                   ;call kernel

    mov edx, 1                 ;message length
    mov ecx, fact              ;message to write
    mov ebx, 1                 ;file descriptor (stdout)
    mov eax, 4                 ;system call number (sys_write)
    int 0x80                   ;call kernel

    mov eax, 1                 ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int 0x80                   ;call kernel
```

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```
proc_fact:
    cmp    bl, 1
    jg     do_calculation
    mov     ax, 1
    ret
do_calculation:
    dec     bl
    call    proc_fact
    inc     bl
    mul     bl          ;ax = al * bl
    ret

section .data
msg db 'Factorial 3 is:',0xa
len equ $ - msg

section .bss
fact resb 1
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Factorial 3 is:
6
```


Assembly Macros

Writing a macro is another way of ensuring modular programming in assembly language.

- A macro is a sequence of instructions, assigned by a name and could be used anywhere in the program.
- In NASM, macros are defined with **%macro** and **%endmacro** directives.
- The macro begins with the **%macro** directive and ends with the **%endmacro** directive.

The Syntax for macro definition:

```
%macro macro_name    number_of_params
<macro body>
%endmacro
```

Where, *number_of_params* specifies the number parameters , *macro_name* specifies the name of the macro.

The macro is invoked by using the macro name along with the necessary parameters. When you need to use some sequence of instructions many times in a program, you can put those instructions in a macro and use it instead of writing the instructions all the time.

For example, a very common need for programs is to write a string of characters in the screen. For displaying a string of characters, you need the following sequence of instructions:

```
mov     edx,len        ;message length
mov     ecx,msg        ;message to write
mov     ebx,1          ;file descriptor (stdout)
mov     eax,4          ;system call number (sys_write)
int     0x80           ;call kernel
```

We have observed that, some instructions like IMUL, IDIV, INT etc., need some of the information to be stored in some particular registers and even returns values in some specific register(s). If the program was already using those registers for keeping important data, then the existing data from these registers should be saved in the stack and restored after the instruction is executed.

In the above example of displaying a character string also, the registers EAX, EBX, ECX and EDX we will use by the INT 80H function call. So for each time you need to display on screen, you need to save these registers on the stack, invoke INT 80H and then restore the original value of the registers from the stack. So it could be useful to write two macros for saving and restoring data.

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Example:

Following example shows defining and using macros:

```
; A macro with two parameters
; Implements the write system call
%macro write_string 2
    mov     eax, 4
    mov     ebx, 1
    mov     ecx, %1
    mov     edx, %2
    int     80h
%endmacro

section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point
    write_string msg1, len1
    write_string msg2, len2
    write_string msg3, len3
    mov     eax, 1             ;system call number (sys_exit)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel

section .data
msg1 db 'Hello, programmers!', 0xA, 0xD
len1 equ $ - msg1
msg2 db 'Welcome to the world of,', 0xA, 0xD
len2 equ $ - msg2
msg3 db 'Linux assembly programming! '
len3 equ $ - msg3
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Hello, programmers!
Welcome to the world of,
Linux assembly programming!
```

Assembly File Management

The system considers any input or output data as stream of bytes. There are three standard file streams:

- Standard input (stdin)
- Standard output (stdout)
- Standard error (stderr)

File Descriptor

A **file descriptor** is a 16-bit integer assigned to a file as a file id. When a new file is created, or an existing file is opened, the file descriptor is used for accessing the file.

File descriptor of the standard file streams - **stdin**, **stdout** and **stderr** are 0, 1 and 2 respectively.

File Pointer

A **file pointer** specifies the location for a subsequent read/write operation in the file in terms of bytes. Each file is considered as a sequence of bytes. Each open file is associated with a file pointer that specifies an offset in bytes, relative to the beginning of the file. When a file is opened, the file pointer is set to zero.

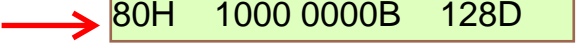
File Handling System Calls

The following table briefly describes the system calls related to file handling:

%eax	Name	%ebx	%ecx	%edx
2	sys_fork	struct pt_regs	-	-
3	sys_read	unsigned int	char *	size_t
4	sys_write	unsigned int	const char *	size_t
5	sys_open	const char *	int	int
6	sys_close	unsigned int	-	-
8	sys_creat	const char *	int	-

19	sys_lseek	unsigned int	off_t	unsigned int
----	-----------	--------------	-------	--------------

The steps required for using the system calls are same, as we discussed earlier:

- Put the system call number in the EAX register.
- Store the arguments to the system call in the registers EBX, ECX, etc.
- Call the relevant interrupt (80h) 
- The result is usually returned in the EAX register

Creating and Opening a File

For creating and opening a file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call sys_creat() number 8, in the EAX register
- Put the filename in the EBX register
- Put the file permissions in the ECX register

The system call returns the file descriptor of the created file in the EAX register, in case of error, the error code is in the EAX register.

Opening an Existing File

For opening an existing file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call sys_open() number 5, in the EAX register
- Put the filename in the EBX register
- Put the file access mode in the ECX register
- Put the file permissions in the EDX register

The system call returns the file descriptor of the created file in the EAX register, in case of error, the error code is in the EAX register.

Among the file access modes, most commonly used are: read-only (0), write-only (1), and read-write (2).

Reading from a File

For reading from a file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call sys_read() number 3, in the EAX register
- Put the file descriptor in the EBX register
- Put the pointer to the input buffer in the ECX register

- Put the buffer size, i.e., the number of bytes to read, in the EDX register

The system call returns the number of bytes read in the EAX register, in case of error, the error code is in the EAX register.

Writing to a File

For writing to a file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call `sys_write()` number 4, in the EAX register
- Put the file descriptor in the EBX register
- Put the pointer to the output buffer in the ECX register
- Put the buffer size, i.e., the number of bytes to write, in the EDX register

The system call returns the actual number of bytes written in the EAX register, in case of error, the error code is in the EAX register.

Closing a File

For closing a file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call `sys_close()` number 6, in the EAX register
- Put the file descriptor in the EBX register

The system call returns, in case of error, the error code in the EAX register.

Updating a File

For updating a file, perform the following tasks:

- Put the system call `sys_lseek ()` number 19, in the EAX register
- Put the file descriptor in the EBX register
- Put the offset value in the ECX register
- Put the reference position for the offset in the EDX register

The reference position could be:

- Beginning of file - value 0
- Current position - value 1
- End of file - value 2

The system call returns, in case of error, the error code in the EAX register.

Example:

The following program creates and open a file named *myfile.txt*, and writes a text 'Welcome to Tutorials Point' in this file. Next the program reads from the file and stores the data into a buffer named *info*. Lastly it displays the text as stored in *info*.

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point
;create the file
    mov     eax, 8
    mov     ebx, file_name
    mov     ecx, 0777          ;read, write and execute by all
    int     0x80               ;call kernel
    mov     [fd_out], byte eax

; write into the file
    mov     edx, len           ;number of bytes
    mov     ecx, msg           ;message to write
    mov     ebx, [fd_out]      ;file descriptor
    mov     eax, 4             ;system call number (sys_write)
    int     0x80               ;call kernel

    ; close the file
    mov     eax, 6
    mov     ebx, [fd_out]

; write the message indicating end of file write
    mov     eax, 4
    mov     ebx, 1
    mov     ecx, msg_done
    mov     edx, len_done
    int     0x80

;open the file for reading
    mov     eax, 5
    mov     ebx, file_name
    mov     ecx, 0             ;for read only access
    mov     edx, 0777          ;read, write and execute by all
    int     0x80
    mov     [fd_in], byte eax

;read from file
    mov     eax, 3
    mov     ebx, [fd_in]
    mov     ecx, info
    mov     edx, 26
    int     0x80

; close the file
    mov     eax, 6
    mov     ebx, [fd_in]

; print the info
    mov     eax, 4
    mov     ebx, 1
    mov     ecx, info
    mov     edx, 26
    int     0x80

    mov     eax, 1             ;system call number (sys_exit)
```

copying the value of fd_out to eax register

```
int 0x80          ;call kernel

section .data
file_name db 'myfile.txt'
msg db 'Welcome to Tutorials Point'
len equ $-msg
msg_done db 'Written to file', 0xa
len_done equ $-msg_done

section .bss
fd_out resb 1
fd_in  resb 1
info resb 26
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Written to file
Welcome to Tutorials Point
```

Memory Management

The **sys_brk()** system call is provided by the kernel, to allocate memory without the need of moving it

later. This call allocates memory right behind application image in memory. This system function allows you to set the highest available address in the data section.

This system call takes one parameter, which is the highest memory address need to be set. This value is stored in the EBX register.

In case of any error, **sys_brk()** returns -1 or returns the negative error code itself. The following example demonstrates dynamic memory allocation.

Example:

The following program allocates 16kb of memory using the **sys_brk()** system call:

```
section .text
    global main                ;must be declared for using gcc
main:                          ;tell linker entry point

    mov     eax, 45             ;sys_brk
    xor     ebx, ebx
    int     80h

    add     eax, 16384           ;number of bytes to be reserved
    mov     ebx, eax
    mov     eax, 45             ;sys_brk
    int     80h
    cmp     eax, 0
    jl      exit                ;exit, if error
    mov     edi, eax ;EDI = highest available address
    sub     edi, 4               ;pointing to the last DWORD
    mov     ecx, 4096            ;number of DWORDs allocated
    xor     eax, eax ;clear eax
    std     ;backward
    rep     stosd                ;repete for entire allocated area
    cld                          ;put DF flag to normal state

    mov     eax, 4
    mov     ebx, 1
    mov     ecx, msg
    mov     edx, len
    int     80h                 ;print a message
exit:
```

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```
        mov     eax, 1
        xor     ebx, ebx
        int     80h
section .data
msg      db      "Allocated 16 kb of memory!", 10
len      equ     $ - msg
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces following result:

```
Allocated 16 kb of memory!
```