

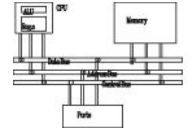
# Data Transfer, Addressing and Arithmetic

## ***Computer Organization and Assembly Languages***

*with slides by Kip Irvine*

# Chapter overview

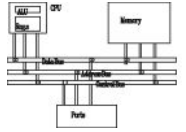
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- Data Transfer Instructions
- Addition and Subtraction
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- Indirect Addressing
- JMP and LOOP Instructions

# Data transfer instructions

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- Operand Types
- Instruction Operand Notation
- Direct Memory Operands
- MOV Instruction
- Zero & Sign Extension
- XCHG Instruction
- Direct-Offset Instructions

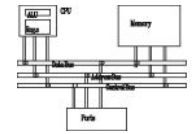
# Operand types

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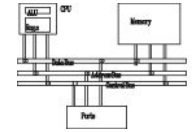
- Three basic types of operands:
  - Immediate – a constant integer (8, 16, or 32 bits)
    - value is encoded within the instruction
  - Register – the name of a register
    - register name is converted to a number and encoded within the instruction
  - Memory – reference to a location in memory
    - memory address is encoded within the instruction, or a register holds the address of a memory location

# Instruction operand notation



Operand	Description
<i>r8</i>	8-bit general-purpose register: AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, DL
<i>r16</i>	16-bit general-purpose register: AX, BX, CX, DX, SI, DI, SP, BP
<i>r32</i>	32-bit general-purpose register: EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, ESP, EBP
<i>reg</i>	any general-purpose register
<i>sreg</i>	16-bit segment register: CS, DS, SS, ES, FS, GS
<i>imm</i>	8-, 16-, or 32-bit immediate value
<i>imm8</i>	8-bit immediate byte value
<i>imm16</i>	16-bit immediate word value
<i>imm32</i>	32-bit immediate doubleword value
<i>r/m8</i>	8-bit operand which can be an 8-bit general register or memory byte
<i>r/m16</i>	16-bit operand which can be a 16-bit general register or memory word
<i>r/m32</i>	32-bit operand which can be a 32-bit general register or memory doubleword
<i>mem</i>	an 8-, 16-, or 32-bit memory operand

# Direct memory operands

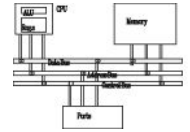


- A direct memory operand is a named reference to storage in memory
- The named reference (label) is automatically dereferenced by the assembler

```
.data
var1 BYTE 10h,
.code
mov al,var1    ; AL = 10h
mov al,[var1]  ; AL = 10h
```

alternate format

# MOV instruction

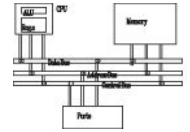


- Move from source to destination. Syntax:  
**MOV** *destination,source*
- Source and destination have the same size
- No more than one memory operand permitted
- CS, EIP, and IP cannot be the destination
- No immediate to segment moves

```
.data
count BYTE 100
wVal  WORD 2
.code
    mov bl,count
    mov ax,wVal
    mov count,al

    mov al,wVal      ; error
    mov ax,count     ; error
    mov eax,count    ; error
```

# Your turn . . .



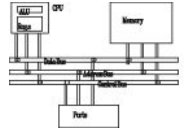
Explain why each of the following **MOV** statements are invalid:

```
.data
bVal  BYTE    100
bVal2 BYTE    ?
wVal  WORD     2
dVal  DWORD    5
.code
    mov ds,45 ; a.
    mov esi,wVal ; b.
    mov eip,dVal ; c.
    mov 25,bVal ; d.
    mov bVal2,bVal ; e.
```



# Memory to memory

---



```
.data
```

```
var1 WORD ?
```

```
var2 WORD ?
```

```
.code
```

```
mov ax, var1
```

```
mov var2, ax
```

# Copy smaller to larger

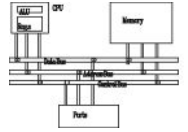
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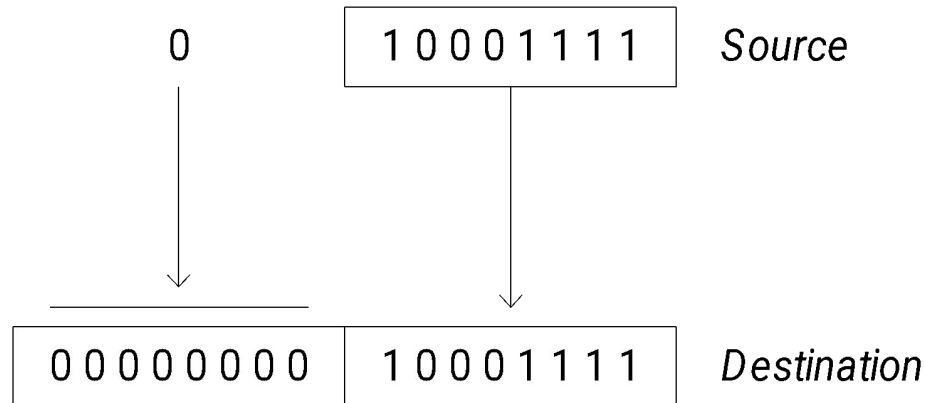
```
.data
count WORD 1
.code
mov ecx, 0
mov cx, count
```

```
.data
signedVal SWORD -16 ; FFF0h
.code
mov ecx, 0 ; mov ecx, 0FFFFFFFFh
mov cx, signedVal
```

# Zero extension



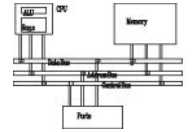
When you copy a smaller value into a larger destination, the **MOVZX** instruction fills (extends) the upper half of the destination with zeros.



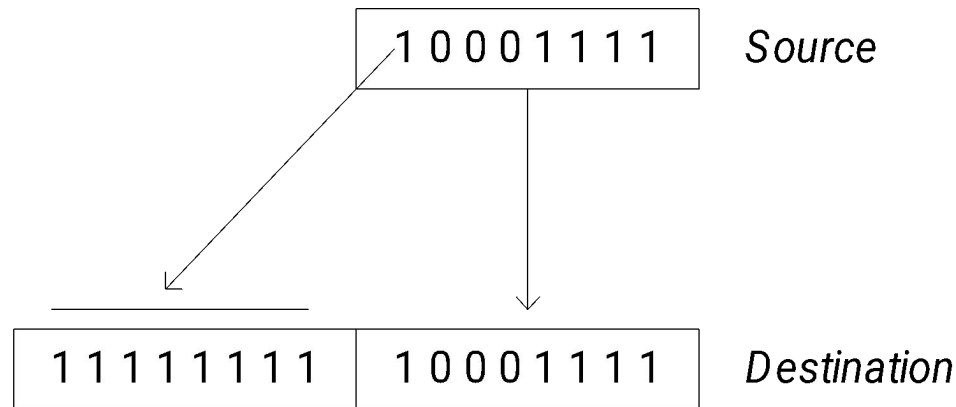
```
mov bl,10001111b
movzx ax,bl ; zero-extension
```

The destination must be a register.

# Sign extension



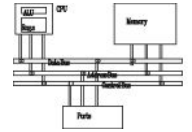
The **MOVSX** instruction fills the upper half of the destination with a copy of the source operand's sign bit.



```
mov bl,10001111b  
movsx ax,bl    ; sign extension
```

The destination must be a register.

# MOVZX MOVSX



From a smaller location to a larger one

```
mov bx, 0A69Bh
```

```
movzx eax, bx           ; EAX=0000A69Bh
```

```
movzx edx, bl           ; EDX=0000009Bh
```

```
movzx cx, bl            ; EAX=009Bh
```

```
mov bx, 0A69Bh
```

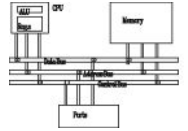
```
movsx eax, bx           ; EAX=FFFA69Bh
```

```
movsx edx, bl           ; EDX=FFFFFF9Bh
```

```
movsx cx, bl            ; EAX=FF9Bh
```

# LAHF SAHF

---



`.data`

`saveflags BYTE ?`

`.code`

`lahf`

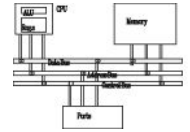
`mov saveflags, ah`

`...`

`mov ah, saveflags`

`sahf`

# XCHG Instruction

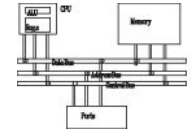


**XCHG** exchanges the values of two operands. At least one operand must be a register. No immediate operands are permitted.

```
.data
var1 WORD 1000h
var2 WORD 2000h
.code
xchg ax,bx      ; exchange 16-bit regs
xchg ah,al      ; exchange 8-bit regs
xchg var1,bx    ; exchange mem, reg
xchg eax,ebx    ; exchange 32-bit regs

xchg var1,var2  ; error: two memory operands
```

# Direct-offset operands



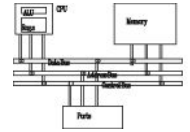
A constant offset is added to a data label to produce an effective address (EA). The address is dereferenced to get the value inside its memory location. (no range checking)

```
.data
arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h,40h
.code
mov al,arrayB+1      ; AL = 20h
mov al,[arrayB+1]    ; alternative notation
```

Q: Why doesn't arrayB+1 produce 11h?



# Direct-offset operands (cont)

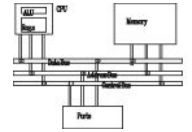


A constant offset is added to a data label to produce an effective address (EA). The address is dereferenced to get the value inside its memory location.

```
.data
arrayW  WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
arrayD  DWORD 1,2,3,4
.code
mov ax,[arrayW+2]      ; AX = 2000h
mov ax,[arrayW+4]      ; AX = 3000h
mov eax,[arrayD+4]     ; EAX = 00000002h
```

```
; Will the following statements assemble and run?
mov ax,[arrayW-2]      ; ??
mov eax,[arrayD+16]    ; ??
```

# Your turn. . .



Write a program that rearranges the values of three doubleword values in the following array as: 3, 1, 2.

```
.data  
arrayD DWORD 1,2,3
```

- Step1: copy the first value into EAX and exchange it with the value in the second position.

```
mov eax,arrayD  
xchg eax,[arrayD+4]
```

- Step 2: Exchange EAX with the third array value and copy the value in EAX to the first array position.

```
xchg eax,[arrayD+8]  
mov  arrayD,eax
```

# Evaluate this . . .



- We want to write a program that adds the following three bytes:

```
.data  
myBytes BYTE 80h,66h,0A5h
```

- What is your evaluation of the following code?

```
mov al,myBytes  
add al,[myBytes+1]  
add al,[myBytes+2]
```

- What is your evaluation of the following code?

```
mov ax,myBytes  
add ax,[myBytes+1]  
add ax,[myBytes+2]
```

- Any other possibilities?

# Evaluate this . . . (cont)



```
.data
myBytes BYTE 80h,66h,0A5h
```

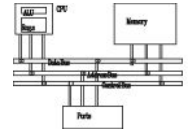
- How about the following code. Is anything missing?

```
movzx ax,myBytes
mov    bl,[myBytes+1]
add    ax,bx
mov    bl,[myBytes+2]
add    ax,bx           ; AX = sum
```

Yes: Move zero to BX before the MOVZX instruction.

# Addition and Subtraction

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- INC and DEC Instructions
- ADD and SUB Instructions
- NEG Instruction
- Implementing Arithmetic Expressions
- Flags Affected by Arithmetic
  - Zero
  - Sign
  - Carry
  - Overflow

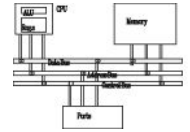
# INC and DEC Instructions

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- Add 1, subtract 1 from destination operand
  - operand may be register or memory
- INC *destination*
  - Logic:  $destination \leftarrow destination + 1$
- DEC *destination*
  - Logic:  $destination \leftarrow destination - 1$

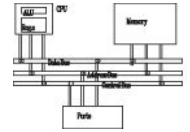
# INC and DEC Examples



```
.data
myWord  WORD 1000h
myDword DWORD 10000000h
.code
    inc myWord      ; 1001h
    dec myWord      ; 1000h
    inc myDword     ; 10000001h

    mov ax,00FFh
    inc ax ; AX = 0100h
    mov ax,00FFh
    inc al ; AX = 0000h
```

# Your turn...



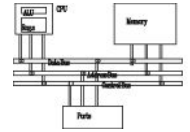
Show the value of the destination operand after each of the following instructions executes:

```
.data
myByte BYTE 0FFh, 0
.code
    mov al,myByte ; AL =      FFh
    mov ah,[myByte+1] ; AH =    00h
    dec ah ; AH =      FFh
    inc al ; AL =      00h
    dec ax ; AX =      FEFF
```



# ADD and SUB Instructions

---



- ADD destination, source
  - Logic:  $destination \leftarrow destination + source$
- SUB destination, source
  - Logic:  $destination \leftarrow destination - source$
- Same operand rules as for the MOV instruction

# ADD and SUB Examples

---



```
.data
var1 DWORD 10000h
var2 DWORD 20000h
.code ; ---EAX---
    mov eax,var1 ; 00010000h
    add eax,var2 ; 00030000h
    add ax,0FFFFh ; 0003FFFFh
    add eax,1 ; 00040000h
    sub ax,1 ; 0004FFFFh
```

# NEG (negate) Instruction

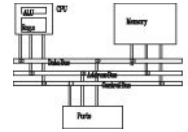


Reverses the sign of an operand. Operand can be a register or memory operand.

```
.data
valB BYTE -1
valW WORD +32767
.code
    mov al,valB    ; AL = -1
    neg al ; AL = +1
    neg valW    ; valW = -32767
```

Suppose AX contains  $-32,768$  and we apply NEG to it. Will the result be valid?

# Implementing Arithmetic Expressions

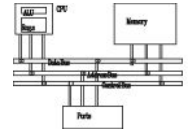


HLL compilers translate mathematical expressions into assembly language. You can do it also. For example:

$Rval = -Xval + (Yval - Zval)$

```
Rval DWORD ?
Xval  DWORD 26
Yval  DWORD 30
Zval  DWORD 40
.code
    mov  eax,Xval
    neg  eax      ; EAX = -26
    mov  ebx,Yval
    sub  ebx,Zval  ; EBX = -10
    add  eax,ebx
    mov  Rval,eax  ; -36
```

# Your turn...



Translate the following expression into assembly language. Do not permit Xval, Yval, or Zval to be modified:

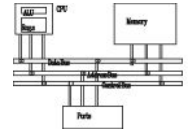
$$Rval = Xval - (-Yval + Zval)$$

Assume that all values are signed doublewords.

```
mov ebx,Yval
neg ebx
add ebx,Zval
mov eax,Xval
sub ebx
mov Rval,eax
```

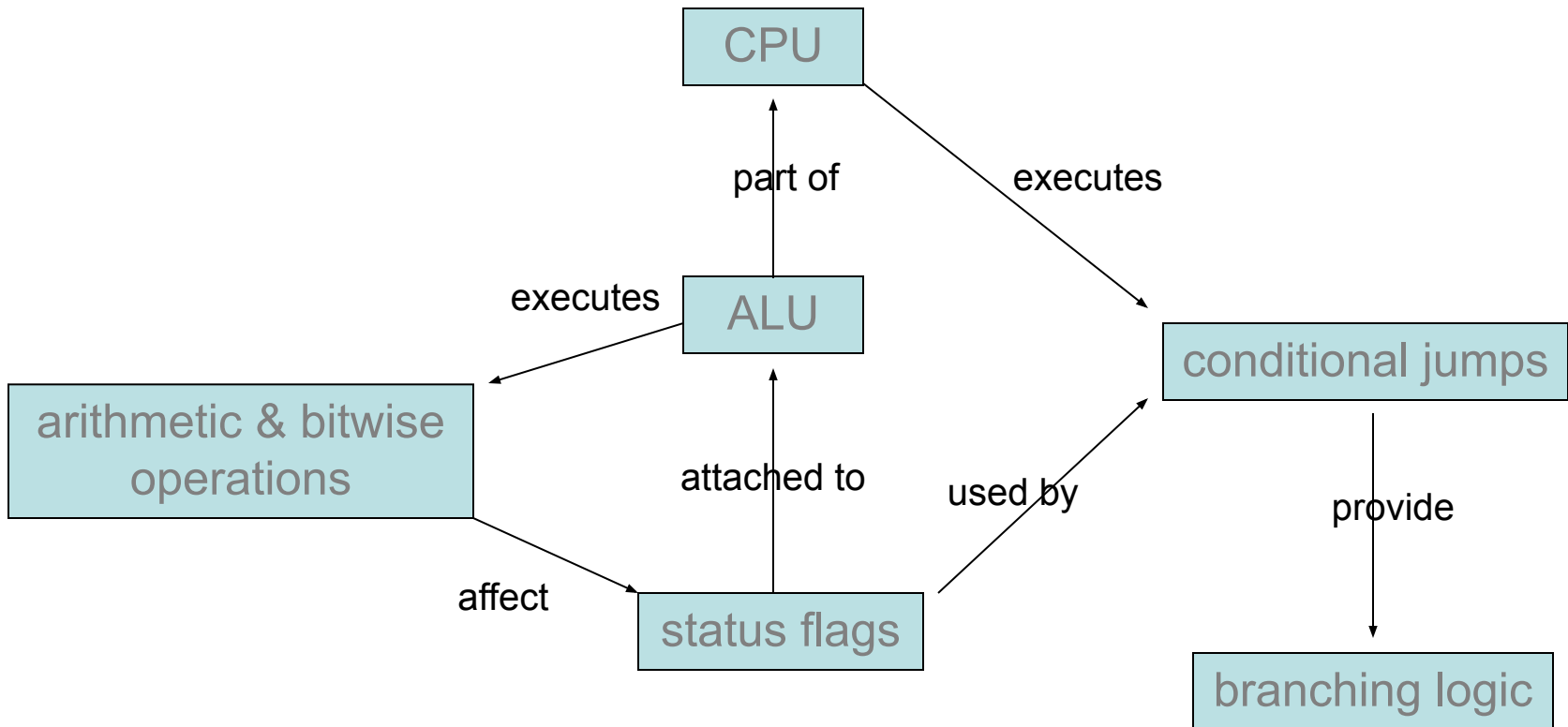
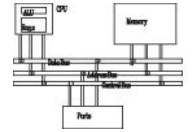
# Flags Affected by Arithmetic

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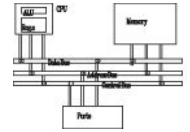
- The ALU has a number of status flags that reflect the outcome of arithmetic (and bitwise) operations
  - based on the contents of the destination operand
- Essential flags:
  - Zero flag – destination equals zero
  - Sign flag – destination is negative
  - Carry flag – unsigned value out of range
  - Overflow flag – signed value out of range
- The *MOV* instruction never affects the flags.

# Concept Map



You can use diagrams such as these to express the relationships between assembly language concepts.

# Zero Flag (ZF)



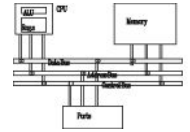
Whenever the destination operand equals Zero, the Zero flag is set.

```
mov cx,1
sub cx,1 ; CX = 0, ZF = 1
mov ax,0FFFFh
inc ax ; AX = 0, ZF = 1
inc ax ; AX = 1, ZF = 0
```

A flag is set when it equals 1.  
A flag is clear when it equals 0.



# Sign Flag (SF)



The Sign flag is set when the destination operand is negative.  
The flag is clear when the destination is positive.

```
mov cx,0
sub cx,1    ; CX = -1, SF = 1
add cx,2    ; CX = 1, SF = 0
```

The sign flag is a copy of the destination's highest bit:

```
mov al,0
sub al,1    ; AL = 11111111b, SF = 1
add al,2    ; AL = 00000001b, SF = 0
```

# Carry Flag (CF)



The Carry flag is set when the result of an operation generates an unsigned value that is out of range (too big or too small for the destination operand).

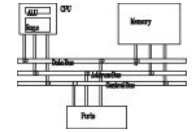
```
mov al,0FFh
add al,1    ; CF = 1, AL = 00

; Try to go below zero:

mov al,0
sub al,1    ; CF = 1, AL = FF
```

In the second example, we tried to generate a negative value. Unsigned values cannot be negative, so the Carry flag signaled an error condition.

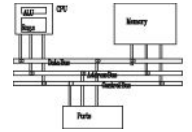
# Your turn . . .



For each of the following marked entries, show the values of the destination operand and the Sign, Zero, and Carry flags:

<code>mov ax,00FFh</code>					
<code>add ax,1</code>	<code>; AX=</code>	<code>SF= 0100h</code>	<code>CF= 0</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>0</code>
<code>sub ax,1</code>	<code>; AX=</code>	<code>SF= 00FFh</code>	<code>CF= 0</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>0</code>
<code>add al,1</code>	<code>; AL=</code>	<code>SF= 00FFh</code>	<code>CF= 0</code>	<code>1</code>	<code>1</code>
<code>mov bh,6Ch</code>					
<code>add bh,95h</code>	<code>; BH=</code>	<code>SF= 0100h</code>	<code>ZF= 0</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>1</code>
 <code>mov al,2</code>					
<code>sub al,3</code>	<code>; AL=</code>	<code>SF= FFh</code>	<code>CF= 1</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>1</code>

# Overflow Flag (OF)



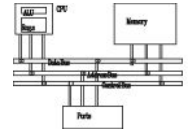
The Overflow flag is set when the signed result of an operation is invalid or out of range.

```
; Example 1
mov al,+127
add al,1    ; OF = 1,    AL = ??

; Example 2
mov al,7Fh    ; OF = 1,    AL = 80h
add al,1
```

The two examples are identical at the binary level because 7Fh equals +127. To determine the value of the destination operand, it is often easier to calculate in hexadecimal.

# A Rule of Thumb



- When adding two integers, remember that the Overflow flag is only set when . . .
  - Two positive operands are added and their sum is negative
  - Two negative operands are added and their sum is positive

What will be the values of the Overflow flag?

```
mov al,80h
add al,92h    ; OF =
```

```
mov al,-2
add al,+127   ; OF =
```

# Your turn . . .

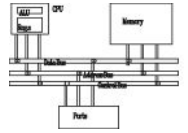


What will be the values of the Carry and Overflow flags after each operation?

<code>mov al,-128</code>		
<code>neg al ; CF = OF =</code>	0	1
<code>mov ax,8000h</code>		
<code>add ax,2 ; CF = OF =</code>	0	0
<code>mov ax,0</code>		
<code>sub ax,2 ; CF = OF =</code>	1	0
<code>mov al,-5</code>		
<code>sub al,+125 ; CF = OF =</code>	0	1

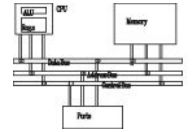
# Data-Related Operators and Directives

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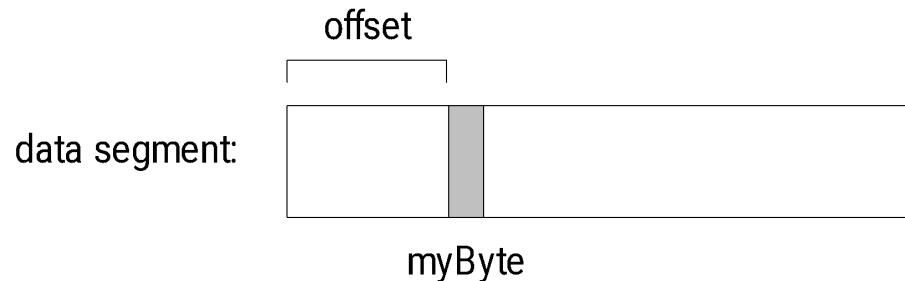


- OFFSET Operator
- PTR Operator
- TYPE Operator
- LENGTHOF Operator
- SIZEOF Operator
- LABEL Directive

# OFFSET Operator



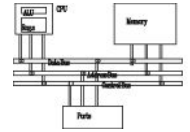
- OFFSET returns the distance in bytes, of a label from the beginning of its enclosing segment
  - Protected mode: 32 bits
  - Real mode: 16 bits



The Protected-mode programs we write only have a single segment (we use the flat memory model).



# OFFSET Examples



Let's assume that the data segment begins at 00404000h:

```
.data
bVal BYTE ?
wVal WORD ?
dVal DWORD ?
dVal2 DWORD ?

.code
mov esi,OFFSET bVal      ; ESI = 00404000
mov esi,OFFSET wVal      ; ESI = 00404001
mov esi,OFFSET dVal      ; ESI = 00404003
mov esi,OFFSET dVal2     ; ESI = 00404007
```

# Relating to C/C++



The value returned by OFFSET is a pointer. Compare the following code written for both C++ and assembly language:

```
; C++ version:  
char array[1000];  
char * p = &array;
```

```
.data  
array BYTE 1000 DUP(?)  
.code  
mov esi,OFFSET myArray      ; ESI is p
```

# PTR Operator



Overrides the default type of a label (variable). Provides the flexibility to access part of a variable.

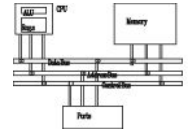
```
.data
myDouble DWORD 12345678h
.code
mov ax,myDouble          ; error - why?

mov ax,WORD PTR myDouble ; loads 5678h

mov WORD PTR myDouble,4321h ; saves 4321h
```

To understand how this works, we need to know about little endian ordering of data in memory.

# Little Endian Order

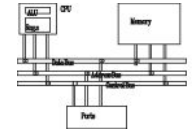


- Little endian order refers to the way Intel stores integers in memory.
- Multi-byte integers are stored in reverse order, with the least significant byte stored at the lowest address
- For example, the doubleword 12345678h would be stored as:

doubleword	word	byte	offset	
12345678	5678	78	0000	myDouble
		56	0001	myDouble + 1
	1234	34	0002	myDouble + 2
		12	0003	myDouble + 3

When integers are loaded from memory into registers, the bytes are automatically re-reversed into their correct positions.

# PTR Operator Examples

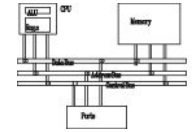


```
.data
myDouble DWORD 12345678h
```

doubleword	word	byte	offset	
12345678	5678	78	0000	myDouble
		56	0001	myDouble + 1
	1234	34	0002	myDouble + 2
		12	0003	myDouble + 3

```
mov al,BYTE PTR myDouble          ; AL = 78h
mov al,BYTE PTR [myDouble+1]      ; AL = 56h
mov al,BYTE PTR [myDouble+2]      ; AL = 34h
mov ax,WORD PTR [myDouble]         ; AX = 5678h
mov ax,WORD PTR [myDouble+2]      ; AX = 1234h
```

# PTR Operator (cont)

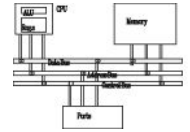


PTR can also be used to combine elements of a smaller data type and move them into a larger operand. The CPU will automatically reverse the bytes.

```
.data
myBytes BYTE 12h,34h,56h,78h

.code
mov ax,WORD PTR [myBytes]           ; AX = 3412h
mov ax,WORD PTR [myBytes+2]         ; AX = 5634h
mov eax,DWORD PTR myBytes           ; EAX = 78563412h
```

# Your turn . . .

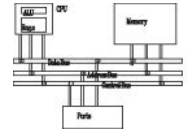


Write down the value of each destination operand:

```
.data
varB BYTE 65h,31h,02h,05h
varW WORD 6543h,1202h
varD DWORD 12345678h

.code
mov ax,WORD PTR [varB+2] ; a.      0502h
mov bl,BYTE PTR varD     ; b.      78h
mov bl,BYTE PTR [varW+2] ; c.      02h
mov ax,WORD PTR [varD+2] ; d.      1234h
mov eax,DWORD PTR varW   ; e.      12026543h
```

# TYPE Operator



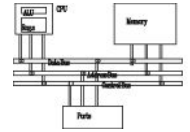
The TYPE operator returns the size, in bytes, of a single element of a data declaration.

```
.data
var1 BYTE ?
var2 WORD ?
var3 DWORD ?
var4 QWORD ?

.code
mov eax,TYPE var1    ; 1
mov eax,TYPE var2    ; 2
mov eax,TYPE var3    ; 4
mov eax,TYPE var4    ; 8
```



# LENGTHOF Operator

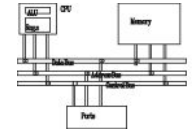


The LENGTHOF operator counts the number of elements in a single data declaration.

```
.data LENGTHOF
byte1  BYTE 10,20,30      ; 3
array1 WORD 30 DUP(?),0,0  ; 32
array2 WORD 5 DUP(3 DUP(?)) ; 15
array3 DWORD 1,2,3,4      ; 4
digitStr BYTE "12345678",0 ; 9

.code
mov ecx,LENGTHOF array1 ; 32
```

# SIZEOF Operator



The SIZEOF operator returns a value that is equivalent to multiplying LENGTHOF by TYPE.

```
.data  SIZEOF
byte1  BYTE 10,20,30      ; 3
array1 WORD 30 DUP(?),0,0  ; 64
array2 WORD 5 DUP(3 DUP(?)) ; 30
array3 DWORD 1,2,3,4      ; 16
digitStr BYTE "12345678",0 ; 9

.code
mov ecx,SIZEOF array1      ; 64
```

# Spanning Multiple Lines (1 of 2)



A data declaration spans multiple lines if each line (except the last) ends with a comma. The `LENGTHOF` and `SIZEOF` operators include all lines belonging to the declaration:

```
.data
array WORD 10,20,
        30,40,
        50,60

.code
mov eax,LENGTHOF array ; 6
mov ebx,SIZEOF array    ; 12
```

# Spanning Multiple Lines (2 of 2)

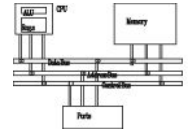


In the following example, `array` identifies only the first `WORD` declaration. Compare the values returned by `LENGTHOF` and `SIZEOF` here to those in the previous slide:

```
.data
array WORD 10,20
      WORD 30,40
      WORD 50,60

.code
mov eax,LENGTHOF array ; 2
mov ebx,SIZEOF array   ; 4
```

# LABEL Directive



- Assigns an alternate label name and type to an existing storage location
- LABEL does not allocate any storage of its own
- Removes the need for the PTR operator

```
.data
dwList    LABEL DWORD
wordList  LABEL WORD
intList   BYTE 00h,10h,00h,20h
.code
mov  eax,dwList    ; 20001000h
mov  cx,wordList   ; 1000h
mov  dl,intList    ; 00h
```

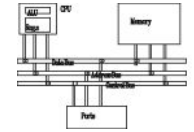
# Indirect Addressing

---



- Indirect Operands
- Array Sum Example
- Indexed Operands
- Pointers

# Indirect Operands (1 of 2)



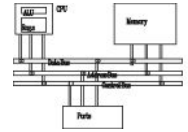
An indirect operand holds the address of a variable, usually an array or string. It can be dereferenced (just like a pointer).

```
.data
val1 BYTE 10h,20h,30h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET val1
mov al,[esi] ; dereference ESI (AL = 10h)

inc esi
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 20h

inc esi
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 30h
```

# Indirect Operands (2 of 2)



Use PTR when the size of a memory operand is ambiguous.

```
.data
myCount WORD 0

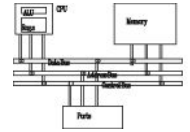
.code
mov esi,OFFSET myCount
inc [esi] ; error: ambiguous
inc WORD PTR [esi] ; ok
```

Should PTR be used here?

```
add [esi],20
```



# Array Sum Example



Indirect operands are ideal for traversing an array. Note that the register in brackets must be incremented by a value that matches the array type.

```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
.code
    mov esi,OFFSET arrayW
    mov ax,[esi]
    add esi,2 ; or: add esi,TYPE arrayW
    add ax,[esi]
    add esi,2 ; increment ESI by 2
    add ax,[esi] ; AX = sum of the array
```

ToDo: Modify this example for an array of doublewords.

# Indexed Operands



An indexed operand adds a constant to a register to generate an effective address. There are two notational forms:

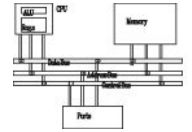
*[label + reg]*

*label[reg]*

```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
.code
    mov esi,0
    mov ax,[arrayW + esi]          ; AX = 1000h
    mov ax,arrayW[esi]             ; alternate format
    add esi,2
    add ax,[arrayW + esi]
    etc.
```

ToDo: Modify this example for an array of doublewords.

# Pointers



You can declare a pointer variable that contains the offset of another variable.

```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
ptrW DWORD arrayW
.code
    mov esi,ptrW
    mov ax,[esi] ; AX = 1000h
```

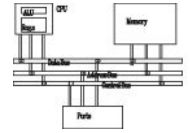
# JMP and LOOP Instructions

---



- JMP Instruction
- LOOP Instruction
- LOOP Example
- Summing an Integer Array
- Copying a String

# JMP Instruction



- JMP is an unconditional jump to a label that is usually within the same procedure.
- Syntax: `JMP target`
- Logic:  $EIP \leftarrow target$
- Example:

```
top:
    .
    .
    jmp top
```

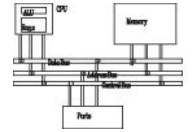
A jump outside the current procedure must be to a special type of label called a global label (see Section 5.5.2.3 for details).

# LOOP Instruction



- The LOOP instruction creates a counting loop
- Syntax: LOOP *target*
- Logic:
  - $ECX \leftarrow ECX - 1$
  - if  $ECX > 0$ , jump to *target*
- Implementation:
  - The assembler calculates the distance, in bytes, between the current location and the offset of the target label. It is called the relative offset.
  - The relative offset is added to EIP.

# LOOP Example



The following loop calculates the sum of the integers  
5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1:

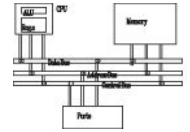
offset	machine code	source code
00000000	66 B8 0000	mov ax,0
00000004	B9 00000005	mov ecx,5
00000009	66 03 C1	L1: add ax,cx
0000000C	E2 FB	loop L1
0000000E		

When LOOP is assembled, the current location = 0000000E. Looking at the LOOP machine code, we see that -5 (FBh) is added to the current location, causing a jump to location 00000009:

$$00000009 \leftarrow 0000000E + FB$$

# Your turn . . .

---



If the relative offset is encoded in a single byte,

- (a) what is the largest possible backward jump?
- (b) what is the largest possible forward jump?

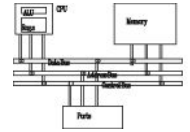
(a)     -128

(b)     +127



# Your turn . . .

---



What will be the final value of AX?

10

```
mov ax,6
mov ecx,4
L1:
inc ax
loop L1
```

How many times will the loop execute?

4,294,967,296

```
mov ecx,0
x2:
inc ax
loop x2
```

# Nested Loop



If you need to code a loop within a loop, you must save the outer loop counter's ECX value. In the following example, the outer loop executes 100 times, and the inner loop 20 times.

```
.data
count DWORD ?
.code
    mov ecx,100    ; set outer loop count
L1:
    mov count,ecx ; save outer loop count
    mov ecx,20     ; set inner loop count
L2: .
    .
    loop L2        ; repeat the inner loop
    mov ecx,count ; restore outer loop count
    loop L1        ; repeat the outer loop
```

# Summing an Integer Array

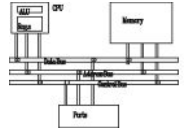


The following code calculates the sum of an array of 16-bit integers.

```
.data
intarray WORD 100h,200h,300h,400h
.code
    mov edi,OFFSET intarray    ; address of intarray
    mov ecx,LENGTHOF intarray ; loop counter
    mov ax,0                  ; zero the accumulator
L1:
    add ax,[edi]              ; add an integer
    add edi,TYPE intarray     ; point to next integer
    loop L1 ; repeat until ECX = 0
```

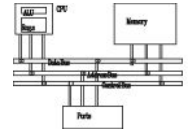
# Your turn . . .

---



What changes would you make to the program on the previous slide if you were summing a doubleword array?

# Copying a String



The following code copies a string from source to target.

```
.data
source  BYTE  "This is the source string",0
target  BYTE  SIZEOF source DUP(0),0

.code
    mov  esi,0      ; index register
    mov  ecx,SIZEOF source ; loop counter
L1:
    mov  al,source[esi] ; get char from source
    mov  target[esi],al ; store it in the target
    inc  esi          ; move to next character
    loop L1           ; repeat for entire string
```

good use of  
SIZEOF

# Your turn . . .

---



Rewrite the program shown in the previous slide, using indirect addressing rather than indexed addressing.