

## Chapter-4) The art of assembly language programming

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As compared to the high level programming, assembly language programming is slightly cumbersome. The programs written in assembly language are compact and efficient.

A program has to be converted to machine code for execution, so it is performed by translator called assembler.

Assembly language programming requires good knowledge of machine architecture, operating system and programming principles. Assembly language is case insensitive, so program can be loaded either in uppercase, lowercase and upper-case. The program development tools such as editor, assembler, linker and debugger are required for the programming.

- Program development steps:
1. Defining the problem
  2. Algorithm
  3. Flowchart
  4. Initialization checklist
  5. Choosing instructions
  6. Converting algorithms into assembly language program.

### 1. Defining the problem:-

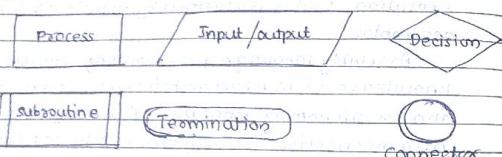
The first step in writing the program is to think very carefully about the problem that you want the program to solve. At this point, you need not to write down the program, but you must know what you would like to do.

### 2. Algorithm:-

The formula or sequence of tasks need to performed by your program can be specified as a step in general English often called as algorithm.

### 3] Flow chart:

The flowchart is a graphically representation of the program operation or task. The specific operation or task is represented by graphical symbol such as circle, rectangle, diamond, square and parallelogram etc.



### 4] Initialization checklist:

In the program there are many variables, constants and various parts of system such as segment registers, flags, stack, programmable ports etc. which must be initialized properly.

The best way to approach the initialization task is to make the check list of the entire variables, constants, all the registers, flags and programmable ports in the program.

At this point you will come to know which parts on the checklist will have to be initialized.

### 5] Choosing instructions:

Next step is to choose proper instructions that performs your problem operations or tasks. This is an important step, so you must know entire instruction set of microprocessor, the operation performed and flag affected after execution by the instructions.

6] Converting algorithms into assembly language programs: Once you have selected the instructions for the operation to be performed, then arrange these instructions in sequence as per algorithm, so the desired output must be obtained after the execution by instruction.

In assembly language program, a first step is to set up and declare the data structure that the algorithm will be working with, then write down the instruction required for initialization at the start of the code section.

Next determine the instructions required to implement the major actions in the algorithm and declare how data must be positioned for these instructions.

### Assembly language program development tools :

1] Editors : AT, Wordstar, Microsoft Word, etc.

2] Assemblers

3] Linker

4] Debuggers : Turbo Debugger, Microsoft Macro, etc.

5] Editors : An editor is a program which helps you to construct your assembly language program in right format so that the assembler will translate it correctly to machine language. So, we can type our program using editor. This form of our program is known as source program. The DOS based editor such as EDIT, Wordstar, and Norton Editor etc. can be used to type your program.

6] Assemblers : An assembler is a program that translates assembly language program to the correct binary code from each instruction i.e. machine code and generate file called as object file with extension .obj. Some examples of assemblers are TASM Borland's Turbo Assembler and MASM Microsoft Macro Assembler.

**3] Linker :-** A linker is a program, which combines, if required, more than one separately assembled module into one executable program, such as two or more programs, and also generates .exe module and initializes it with special instructions to facilitate its subsequent loading and execution.

Some examples of linker are TLINK Borland's Turbo Linker and LLINK Microsoft's linker etc.

**4] Debugger :-** Debugger is a program that allows the execution of program in single step mode under the control of the user. The process of locating and correcting the errors using a debugger is called debugging.

Some examples of debugger are DOS Debug command, Borland's Turbo Debugger TD, Microsoft's Debugger known as Code View CV, etc.

**Program Development Process (PDP) :-** The PDP is a process which consists of analysis, design, development, implementation, translation, testing, debugging and maintenance of program. It is an interactive and iterative process that involves the following steps:

**1] Source file creation :-** The file containing program statement is known as source file. The source file is created and edited using text editor and must have an extension - ASM.

**2] Object code generation :-** The language translator is used to translate source programs to re-locatable object file. The assembler is used to translate assembly language source code to relocatable object code.

**3] Executable file creation :-** Linker is used to create an executable file. It takes input from various modules and generates an executable file.

**4] Program running :-** The executable file can be run by entering the name of executable file on the TTY or DOS prompt and then by pressing ENTER key on keyboard.

**5] Program testing :-** The result of output generated by the program has to be tested for their validity. The result must satisfy the program specification. If any errors occur during the execution of result, then the program should be debugged.

**6] Program debugging :-** The errors in the program can be located using debugger. The executable file of the program to be debugged must be created with program debug options.

#### Assemblers directives and operators :-

**Directives :-** Assembly language program supports a number of reserved words i.e. keywords that enables you to control the way in which a program assembles and lists. These are called as assembly directives. They are divided into various categories:-

#### 1] Data definition and storage allocation directives:

**DB :-** Defines byte → The directive DB is used to define a byte type variable. It can be used to single or multiple byte variables. The range of values that can be stored in a byte is 0 to 255 for unsigned numbers and -128 to 127 for signed numbers.

#### General form :

Name\_of\_variable DB Initialization\_value

Ex :

NUM DB ? ; Allocates memory location

ARRAY DB 12, 22, 82, 42, 52 ; Allocates memory location

(b) DW: Define word ► The directive DW is used to define a word type i.e 2 bytes variable. It can be used to define single or multiple word variables. The range of values that can be stored in a word is 0 to 65535 for unsigned numbers and -32768 to 32767 for signed numbers.

General form:

Name\_of\_variable DW Initialization\_value

Ex:

NUM DW? ; Allocate two memory locations  
TABLE DW 1,2,3,5,6,4 ; Allocate 10 memory locations.

(c) DD: Define double word ► The directive DD is used to define a double word type i.e 4 byte type variable.

Range for unsigned : 0 to  $2^{32}-1$

Range for signed :  $-2^{32}-1$  to  $+2^{32}-1$

Range for floating point numbers :  $10^{-38}$  to  $10^{38}$

General form:

Name\_of\_variable DD Initialization\_values

Ex:

NUM DD? ; Allocate 4 memory locations  
TABLE DD 1,2,3,5,9 ; Allocate 20 memory locations.

(d) DQ: Define Quad Word ► The directive quadword DQ is used to define a quad i.e 8 byte type variable.

Range for unsigned : 0 to  $2^{64}-1$

Range for signed :  $-2^{64}-1$  to  $+2^{64}-1$

Range for floating point numbers :  $10^{-308}$  to  $10^{308}$

General form:

Name\_of\_variable DQ Initialization\_values

Ex:

NUM DQ? ; Allocate 8 memory locations  
LIST DQ 10 DUP(0) ; Allocate 80 memory locations

(e) DT : Define Ten Byte ► The directive DT is used to define a ten byte type variable.

Range for unsigned : 0 to  $2^{80}-1$

Range for signed :  $-2^{80}-1$  to  $+2^{80}-1$

Range for floating point numbers :  $10^{-4932}$  to  $10^{4932}$

General form:

Name\_of\_variable DT Initialization\_value

Examples:

NUM DT? ; Allocate 10 memory locations  
TABLE DT 1,2,3,5,9 ; Allocate 50 memory locations

(f) STRUCT: structure declaration ► The directive STRUCT is used to declare the data type which is a collection of a number of primary data types (DB, DW, DD). The structure definition declaration allows the user to define a variable, RECORD, which has more than one data type.

General form: *variable\_name* STRUCT *declaration*

STRUCTURE\_NAME ENDSTRUCT

Ex: *variable\_name* STRUCT *declaration*  
.....  
SEQUENCE OF DN, DW, DD

directives for declaring

long with 30 bits visibility, not; fieldname1 long with 10 bits;

: repeat 20 size=field1 .....

STRUCTURE\_NAME ENDSUB : 2,3,5,10

structure variable declaration : The structure declaration does not allocate memory space, but merely defines pattern. Storage space is allocated only when structure variable is defined. The general form of a structure definition is as follows:

1. *variable* STRUCTURE *Name* *Initialization*  
2. *variable* STRUCTURE *Name* *Initialization*  
3. *variable* STRUCTURE *Name* *Initialization*

Accessing structure variable field :- The structure variable field can be accessed by using a dot operator (.) known as structure access operator.

General form:  
Structure\_variable . Field\_Name [at offset]  
Example:  

```
EMPLOYEE STRUCT
    EMP_NUM DW ?
    EMP_NAME DB 25 DUP(0) ; 25 bytes
    EMP_DEPT DB 30 DUP(0) ; 30 bytes
    EMP_AGE DB ?
```

 EMPLOYEE ENDS

(g) RECORD ► The directive RECORD is used to define a bit pattern within a byte or a word. It's similar to the bit-wise access in C language. The RECORD definition helps in encoding and decoding of bit for which some meaning is assigned.

General form:  
Record\_Name RECORD Field\_Specification1 ..  
Field\_Specification2 ..

Ex: In serial communication, initializations of the port parameters are coded bit-wise as follows:

```
Bit 7,6,5 ; Baud rate
Bit 4,3 ; Parity
Bit 2 ; Stop bits
Bit 1,0 ; Word length
```

Using RECORD directive, the above byte can be coded as follows:

```
SERIAL-COM RECORD BAUD:3, PARITY:2, STOP:1,
WORDLENGTH:2
```

(h) EQU : Equate to ► The EQU directive is used to declare the symbols to which some constant value is assigned. Such symbols are called as macros. When macro is assigned to symbols, so macro assembler will replace every occurrence of the symbol in a program by its value. This entry of memory will be replaced with constant value.

General form:  $\text{Symbol\_Name} \text{ EQU Expression}$

Example:  $\text{PORT\_NAME} \text{ EQU } 1000H$  (constant value)

(i) ORG : Originate ► The directive ORG assigns the location counter with the value specified in it. It helps in placing the machine codes in the specified location while translating the instructions into machine codes by assembler.

General form:  $\text{ORG } [\$+]\text{ Numerical\_value}$

Example:  $\text{ORG } 100H$

$\text{BIT 0} \text{ ORG } \$100 \text{ ZEROFILL } \text{ BIT 1} \text{ ORG } \$101 \text{ ZEROFILL }$

(j) ALIGN : Alignment of memory addresses ► The directive ALIGN is used to force the assembler to align the next data item or instruction according to given value.

General form:  $\text{ALIGN } [\#]\text{ Numerical\_value}$

The number must be a power of 2 such as 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, etc.

#### Example:

ALIGN 4

In above statement, the assembler advances its location counter to next address that is evenly divisible by 4. If location counter is already at the required address, then it is not advanced. The assembler fills unused bytes with 0's for data and NOP for instructions.

(k) EVEN: Align as even memory location ► The directive EVEN is used to inform the assembler to increment the location counter to the next even memory address. If the location counter is already pointing to even memory address, it should not be incremented.

General form:

EVEN

Ex:- DATA SEGMENT

NAME DB 'VIJAY\$'

EVEN

AGE DB 30

DATA ENDS

(l) LABEL ► The directive LABEL enables you to define the attribute of data variable or instruction label.

General form:

Variable\_name LABEL typeSpecifier

Examples:

TEMP LABEL BYTE

NUM LABEL WORD

(m) DUP: Duplicate memory location ► The DUP directive can be used to generate multiple bytes or words with known as well as uninitialized values.

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#### Example:

TABLE DW 100 DUP (0)

STARS DB 50 DUP ('\*')

ARRAY3 DB 30 DUP (?)

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#### Program Organisation Directives:

(a) ASSUME ► The directive ASSUME informs the assembler the name of the logical segment that should be used for specified segment. When program is loaded, the processor segment register should point to the respective logical segment.

General form:

ASSUME

Seg\_Reg : Seg\_Name, ...., Seg\_Reg : Seg\_Name

Where, ASSUME is assembler directive

Example:

ASSUME CS:CODE, DS:DATA, SS:STACK, ES:EXTRA

(b) SEGMENT ► The directive SEGMENT is used to indicate the beginning of a logical segment. The directive SEGMENT follows the name of segment.

General form:  
segment\_name SEGMENT [WORD/PUBLIC]

The use of type specifier WORD indicates that the segment has to be located at the next available address, otherwise, the segment will be located at the next available paragraph (16-byte size) which might waste upto 15 bytes of memory. The type specifier PUBLIC indicates that the given segments, which have same name.

Ex:- DATA SEGMENT

... Program data definition

DATA ENDS

CODE SEGMENT

... Program code

CODE ENDS

(c) ENDS : End of the segment ► The directive ENDS informs the assembler the end of the segment. The directive ENDS and SEGMENT must enclose the segment data or code of the program.

General form:

Segment\_Name ENDS

Examples:

DATA SEGMENT

.....

Program data definition

.....

DATA ENDS

CODE SEGMENT

.....

Program code here

.....

CODE ENDS

(d) END : End of the program ► The directive END is used to inform assembler the end of the program.

General form:

END [start\_address]

.....

(e) CODE : simplified code segment directive ► This simplified segment directive defines the code segment. All executable code must be placed in this segment.

General form:

• CODE [name] [start\_address] [end\_address]

.....

.....

.....

.....

(f) • DATA : simplified DATA segment directive ► This simplified segment directive defines the data segment. It can be initialized near data. All data definition, both in your code and declaration must be placed in this segment.

General form:

• DATA [start\_address] [end\_address]

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**Value Returning Attribute Directives :** (a) LENGTH (c)

(a) LENGTH ► The directive LENGTH informs the assembler about the number of elements in a data items such as array. If the array is defined with DB, then it returns number of bytes allocated to the variable. If an array is defined with DW, then it returns the number of word allocated to the array variable.

General form: LENGTH Variable\_Name

Examples:

```
MOV CX, LENGTH NAME
MOV DX, LENGTH ARRAY
```

(b) SIZE ► The directive SIZE is same as LENGTH except that it returns the number of bytes allocated to the data item instead of the number of elements in it.

General form: SIZE Variable\_Name

SIZE variable\_name

Examples:

```
MOV AX, SIZE NAME
MOV DX, SIZE TOTAL
```

(c) OFFSET ► The directive OFFSET informs the assembler to determine the displacement of the specified variable with respect to the base of the segment. It is usually used to load an offset of a variable into the register. Using this offset value, variable can be referenced using indexed addressing modes.

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General form: OFFSET Variable\_Name

Examples:

```
MOV BX, OFFSET NAME
MOV SI, OFFSET ARRAY
MOV DX, OFFSET MSG
```

(d) SEG : Segment ► The directive SEG is used to determine the segment in which the specified data items is defined.

General form: SEG Variable\_Name

Example:

```
MOV DS, SEG MSG
MOV ES, SEG LIST
```

(e) TYPE ► The directive TYPE is used to determine the type of data item. It determines the number of byte allocated to the data TYPE. Assembler allocates one byte for DB, two byte for DW and four byte for DH. It also has DD type Variable\_Definition with it.

General form: TYPE Variable\_Name

Examples:

```
ADD BX, TYPE NUM
SUB DX, TYPE POINT
```

Procedure Definition directives:

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(a) PROC : Procedure ► The directive PROC indicates the beginning of a procedure and follows with the name of the procedure. The term FAR and NEAR follows the PROC directive indicating the type of procedure. If it is not specified, then by default assembler assumes NEAR procedure.

General form: `PROC [NEAR/FAR] Procedure_Name`

Example:  
`ADD PROC NEAR`

ADD FNJP NEAR ; without [NEAR/FAR]

(b) ENDP : End of procedure ► The directive ENDP informs the assembler the end of the procedure. The directive ENDP and PROC must enclose the procedure code.

General form:  
`Procedure_Name ENDP`

Examples:  
`FACTORIAL ENDP`  
`HXTOPASC ENDP`

Macro definition directives →

(a) MACRO : The directive MACRO informs the assembler the beginning of a macro. It consists of name of a macro followed by keyword MACRO and macro arguments if any.

General form:  
`Macro_Name MACRO [Argument1, ... ArgumentN]`

Example:  
`MACRO DTSP MACRO MSG`  
`PUSH AX`  
`PUSH DX`  
`MOV AH, 09H`  
`INT 21H`  
`POP AX`  
`ENDM`

(b) ENDM : End of MACRO ► The directive ENDM informs the assembler the end of macro.

General form:  
`ENDM`

Data Control directives:

(a) PUBLIC : The directive PUBLIC informs the assembler that the specified variable or segment can be accessed from other program modules.

General form:  
`PUBLIC variable1, variable2, ..., variableN`

Example:  
`PUBLIC MSG, NAME, NUMBER`  
`DEC WORD ARRAY`

(b) EXTERN ▶ The directive EXTERN informs the assembler that the data items or label following the directive will be used in a program module, which is defined in the other program modules.

General form:

For variable reference `EXTN variable_name`

`EXTN variable_name : reference_type, ..., variable_nameN :`

`XA/HWORD` reference\_type

`XA/WORD` reference\_type

For procedure reference

`EXTN procedure_name : [FAR/NEAR]`

Examples:

`EXTERN MSG : BYTE, NAME : WORD, NUM : BYTE`

`EXTERN DISPLAY : NEAR`

`EXTERN DISPLAY : FAR`

(c) PTR ▶ The directive PTR is used to indicate the type of the memory access i.e. BYTE / WORD / DWORD. For instance, if the assembler encounters the instruction like `INC [SI]`, it will not be able to decide whether to code for byte increment or word increment. Similarly, `INR` or `DTB`.

This problem can be solved using PTR directive with the instruction as `INC BYTE PTR [SI]` for byte increment or `TNC WORD PTR [SI]` for word increment.

Examples:

`INC BYTE PTR [DI]`

`ADD AL, BYTE PTR NUM`

`DEC WORD PTR [BX]`

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Branch displacement directives: → JUMP

(a) SHORT ▶ The directive SHORT informs the assembler that the one byte displacement is required to code the jump instruction. Normally, two bytes are reserved to store the target address in the jump instruction. The target must be in range of -128 to +127 bytes from the address of the jump instruction.

Examples: ~~`JMP L1`~~ → ~~`JMP SHORT L1`~~

(b) LABEL ▶ The directive LABEL assigns a name to the current value in the location counter. The LABEL directive must be followed by the definition of datatype to which label is associated.

General form: `label_name : label_type`

Examples: ~~`label_name : label_type`~~

~~`A : REF WORD`~~

~~`B : DW 1000`~~

The label A\_REF can be used as reference to the variable A

~~`NEXT NUM := LABEL1 FAR`~~

~~`NEXT NUM := ADDRESSE OF A`~~

~~`NEXT NUM := ADDRESSE OF B`~~

~~`NEXT NUM := ADDRESSE OF C`~~

~~`LOOP NEXT NUM`~~

File Inclusion Directive: → PTO

File inclusion is a mechanism of including one file in another file. It is done using #include directive. There are three types of file inclusion:

- 1. Direct inclusion: The file to be included is specified directly after the #include directive. For example, `#include "file1.c"`
- 2. Indirect inclusion: The file to be included is specified in a header file. For example, `#include <header.h>`
- 3. Relative inclusion: The file to be included is specified relative to the current file. For example, `#include "file2.c"`

**INCLUDE** ► The directive **INCLUDE** informs the assembler to include the statement defined in the file specified in the include file. The name of the include file follows the statement **INCLUDE**.

General form: **INCLUDE** <filepath specification with file name>

Example: **INCLUDE C:\TASM\MACRO.LIB**

**INCLUDE C:\TASM\BIN\MYPROC.LIB**

**Target Machine Code Generation Control Directive:**

The assembler will recognise only 8086 instructions by default. It is because the programs that conform themselves to the 8086 instruction set that can run on any IBM PC, irrespective of the microprocessor i.e. 8086, 80186, 80286, etc.

So special directive can be used at the beginning of the program to inform to the assembler to generate a code for the specific processor and these are listed below:

General form:

A processor

- 86 - Generate machine code for 80186 processor only
- 286 - Generate machine code for 80286 processor only
- 386 - Generate machine code for 80386 processor only
- 486 - Generate machine code for 80486 processor only
- 586 - Generate machine code for 80586 processor only i.e. pentium

Difference between Assembler directive & instruction

Assembler directive

- ① They give directions to assembler
- ② Assembler directives does not execute

Instructions

- ① They perform operation specified by it using processor
- ② Instructions are executed by processor