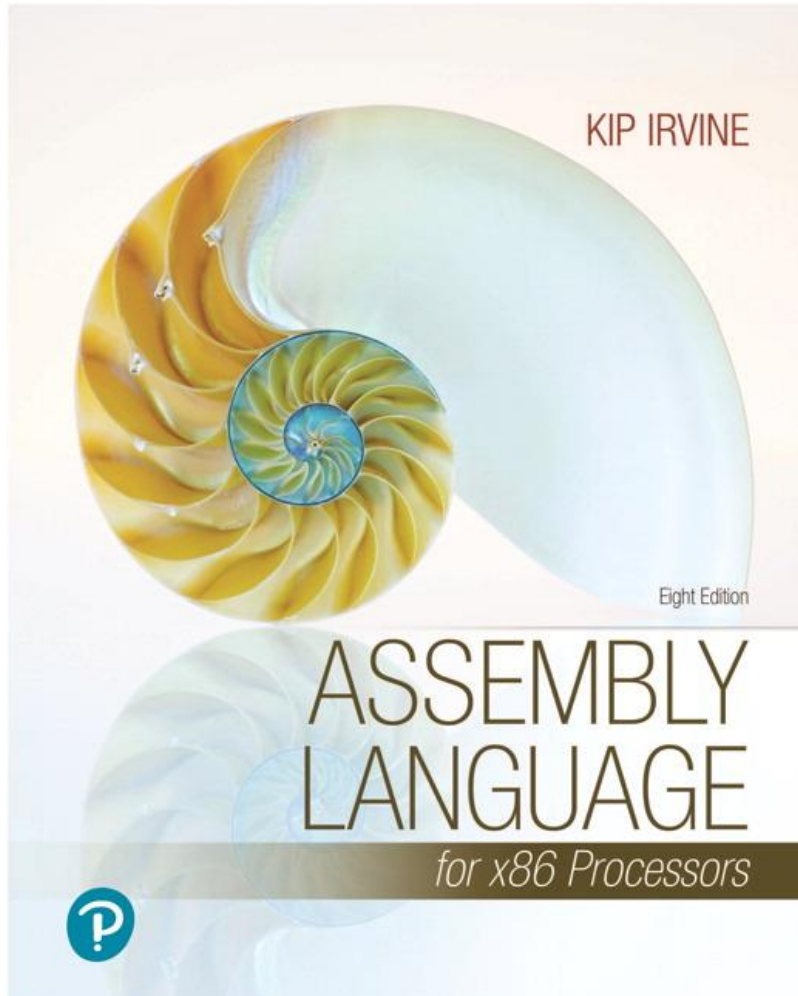


# Assembly Language for x86 Processors

Eighth Edition



## Chapter 4

Data Transfers, Addressing,  
and Arithmetic

# Chapter Overview

- **Data Transfer Instructions**
- Addition and Subtraction
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- Indirect Addressing
- JMP and LOOP Instructions
- 64-Bit Programming

# Data Transfer Instructions

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

# Operand Types

- 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>reg8</i>	8-bit general-purpose register: AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, DL
<i>reg16</i>	16-bit general-purpose register: AX, BX, CX, DX, SI, DI, SP, BP
<i>reg32</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>reg/mem8</i>	8-bit operand, which can be an 8-bit general register or memory byte
<i>reg/mem16</i>	16-bit operand, which can be a 16-bit general register or memory word
<i>reg/mem32</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*
- 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
    mov ax,count
    mov eax,count
```

```
; error
; error
; error
```

## Your turn . . . (1 of 12)

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

immediate move to DS not permitted

mov esi,wVal

size mismatch

mov eip,dVal

EIP cannot be the destination

mov 25,bVal

immediate value cannot be destination

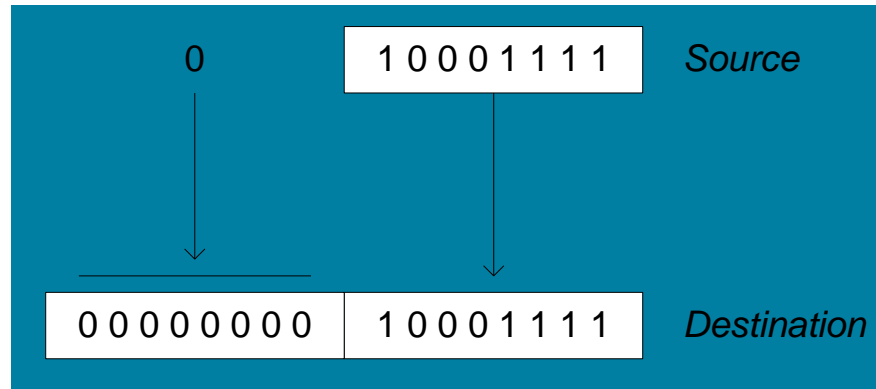
mo bVal2,bVal

memory-to-memory move not permitted



# 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.



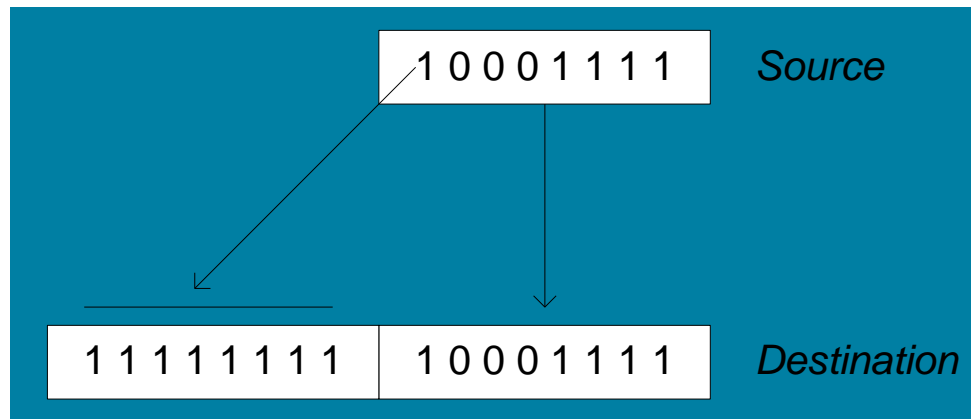
```
mov bl,10001111b
```

```
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.

# 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.

```
.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) (1 of 2)

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.

## Direct-Offset Operands (cont) (2 of 2)

.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?

mov ax,[arrayW-2] ; ??

mov eax,[arrayD+16] ; ??

What will happen when they run?

## Your turn. . . (2 of 12)

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]
```

## Your turn. . . (3 of 12)

- 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]
```

- Any other possibilities?

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

## Evaluate this . . . (cont)

- 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.

# What's Next (1 of 5)

- Data Transfer Instructions
- **Addition and Subtraction**
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- Indirect Addressing
- JMP and LOOP Instructions
- 64-Bit Programming

# Addition and Subtraction

- 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

- 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... (4 of 12)

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:  $\text{destination} \leftarrow \text{destination} + \text{source}$
- SUB *destination*, source
  - Logic:  $\text{destination} \leftarrow \text{destination} - \text{source}$
- 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?

# NEG Instruction and the Flags

The processor implements NEG using the following internal operation:

`SUB 0,operand`

Any nonzero operand causes the Carry flag to be set.

```
.data
valB BYTE 1,0
valC SBYTE -128
.code
    neg valB                ; CF = 1, OF = 0
    neg [valB + 1]          ; CF = 0, OF = 0
    neg valC                ; CF = 1, OF = 1
```

# Implementing Arithmetic Expressions

(1 of 2)

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

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

# Implementing Arithmetic Expressions

(2 of 2)

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... (5 of 12)

Translate the following expression into assembly language.

Do not permit Xval, Yval, or Zval to be modified:

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

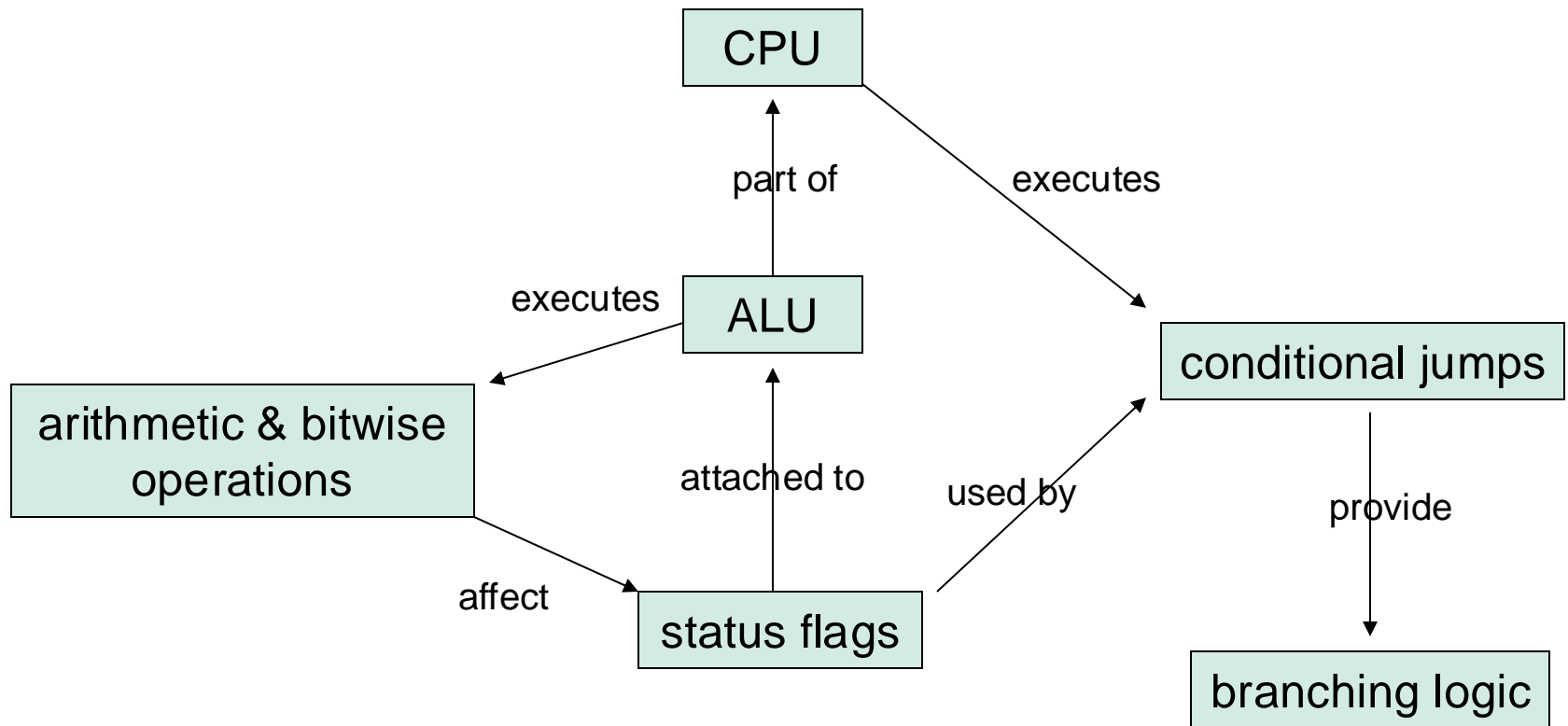
Assume that all values are signed doublewords.

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

# Flags Affected by Arithmetic

- 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 – set when destination equals zero
  - Sign flag – set when destination is negative
  - Carry flag – set when unsigned value is out of range
  - Overflow flag – set when signed value is 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)

The Zero flag is set when the result of an operation produces zero in the destination operand.

```
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
```

Remember...

- 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
```

# Signed and Unsigned Integers

## A Hardware Viewpoint

- All CPU instructions operate exactly the same on signed and unsigned integers
- The CPU cannot distinguish between signed and unsigned integers
- YOU, the programmer, are solely responsible for using the correct data type with each instruction

# Overflow and Carry Flags A Hardware Viewpoint

- How the **ADD** instruction affects OF and CF:
  - $CF = (\text{carry out of the MSB})$
  - $OF = CF \text{ XOR } MSB$
- How the **SUB** instruction affects OF and CF:
  - $CF = \text{INVERT}(\text{carry out of the MSB})$
  - negate the source and add it to the destination
  - $OF = CF \text{ XOR } MSB$

MSB = Most Significant Bit (high-order bit)  
XOR = eXclusive-OR operation  
NEG = Negate (same as SUB 0,operand )

# 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
```

## Your turn . . . (6 of 12)

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

```
mov ax,00FFh
```

```
add ax,1
```

```
; AX= 0100h   SF = 0  ZF= 0 CF= 0
```

```
sub ax,1
```

```
; AX= 00FFh   SF = 0  ZF= 0 CF= 0
```

```
add al,1
```

```
; AL= 00h     SF = 0  ZF= 1 CF= 1
```

```
mov bh,6Ch
```

```
add bh,95h
```

```
; BH= 01h     SF = 0  ZF= 0 CF= 1
```

```
mov al,2
```

```
sub al,3
```

```
; AL= FFh     SF = 1  ZF= 0 CF= 1
```

# 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 = 1
```

```
mov al,-2  
add al,+127               ; OF = 0
```



## Your turn . . . (7 of 12)

What will be the values of the given flags after each operation?

```
mov al,-128  
neg al                ; CF = 1    OF = 1
```

```
mov ax,8000h  
add ax,2              ; CF = 0    OF = 0
```

```
mov ax,0  
sub ax,2              ; CF = 1    OF = 0
```

```
mov al,-5  
sub al,+125           ; OF = 1
```

## What's Next (2 of 5)

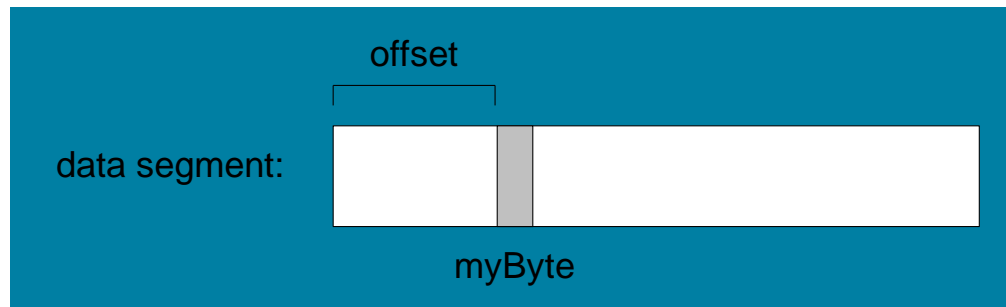
- Data Transfer Instructions
- Addition and Subtraction
- **Data-Related Operators and Directives**
- Indirect Addressing
- JMP and LOOP Instructions
- 64-Bit Programming

# Data-Related Operators and Directives

- 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 use only a single segment ([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;
```

```
; Assembly language:
```

```
.data  
array BYTE 1000 DUP(?)  
.code  
mov esi,OFFSET array
```

# 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
```

Little endian order is used when storing data in memory (see Section 3.4.9).

# 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:

byte	offset
78	0000
56	0001
34	0002
12	0003

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 = 7856h  
mov eax,DWORD PTR myBytes           ; EAX = 78563412h
```

## Your turn . . . (8 of 12)

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.

	LENGTHOF
.data	
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.

	SIZEOF
.data	
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
```

## What's Next (3 of 5)

- Data Transfer Instructions
- Addition and Subtraction
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- **Indirect Addressing**
- JMP and LOOP Instructions
- 64-Bit Programming

# 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 to clarify the size attribute of a memory operand.

```
.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
```

yes, because [esi] could point to a byte, word, or doubleword

# 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
    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.

# Index Scaling

You can scale an indirect or indexed operand to the offset of an array element. This is done by multiplying the index by the array's TYPE:

```
.data
arrayB BYTE  0,1,2,3,4,5
arrayW WORD  0,1,2,3,4,5
arrayD DWORD 0,1,2,3,4,5

.code
mov esi,4
mov al,arrayB[esi*TYPE arrayB]      ; 04
mov bx,arrayW[esi*TYPE arrayW]      ; 0004
mov edx,arrayD[esi*TYPE arrayD]     ; 00000004
```



# 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
```

Alternate format:

```
ptrW DWORD OFFSET arrayW
```

## What's Next (4 of 5)

- Data Transfer Instructions
- Addition and Subtraction
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- Indirect Addressing
- **JMP and LOOP Instructions**
- 64-Bit Programming

# 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  $ECX \neq 0$ , jump to target
- Implementation:
  - The assembler calculates the distance, in bytes, between the offset of the following instruction 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 (offset of the next instruction). -5 (FBh) is added to the the current location, causing a jump to location 00000009:

$$00000009 \leftarrow 0000000E + FB$$

## Your turn . . . (9 of 12)

If the relative offset is encoded in a single signed byte,

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

(a)  $-128$

(b)  $+127$

## Your turn . . . (10 of 12)

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 . . . (11 of 12)

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)
```

good use of  
**sizeof**

```
.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
```

## Your turn . . . (12 of 12)

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

## What's Next (5 of 5)

- Data Transfer Instructions
- Addition and Subtraction
- Data-Related Operators and Directives
- Indirect Addressing
- JMP and LOOP Instructions
- **64-Bit Programming**

# 64-Bit Programming

- MOV instruction in 64-bit mode accepts operands of 8, 16, 32, or 64 bits
- When you move a 8, 16, or 32-bit constant to a 64-bit register, the upper bits of the destination are cleared.
- When you move a memory operand into a 64-bit register, the results vary:
  - 32-bit move clears high bits in destination
  - 8-bit or 16-bit move does not affect high bits in destination

# More 64-Bit Programming

- MOVSXD sign extends a 32-bit value into a 64-bit destination register
- The OFFSET operator generates a 64-bit address
- LOOP uses the 64-bit RCX register as a counter
- RSI and RDI are the most common 64-bit index registers for accessing arrays.



## Other 64-Bit Notes

- ADD and SUB affect the flags in the same way as in 32-bit mode
- You can use scale factors with indexed operands.

# Summary

- Data Transfer
  - MOV – data transfer from source to destination
  - MOVSX, MOVZX, XCHG
- Operand types
  - direct, direct-offset, indirect, indexed
- Arithmetic
  - INC, DEC, ADD, SUB, NEG
  - Sign, Carry, Zero, Overflow flags
- Operators
  - OFFSET, PTR, TYPE, LENGTHOF, SIZEOF, TYPEDEF
- JMP and LOOP – branching instructions

**46 69 6E 61 6C**

# Copyright



**This work is protected by United States copyright laws and is provided solely for the use of instructors in teaching their courses and assessing student learning. Dissemination or sale of any part of this work (including on the World Wide Web) will destroy the integrity of the work and is not permitted. The work and materials from it should never be made available to students except by instructors using the accompanying text in their classes. All recipients of this work are expected to abide by these restrictions and to honor the intended pedagogical purposes and the needs of other instructors who rely on these materials.**