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4

# DATA TRANSFERS, ADDRESSING, AND ARITHMETIC

## 4.1 Data Transfer Instructions

- 4.1.1 Introduction
- 4.1.2 Operand Types
- 4.1.3 Direct Memory Operands
- 4.1.4 MOV Instruction
- 4.1.5 Zero/Sign Extension of Integers
- 4.1.6 LAHF and SAHF Instructions
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- 4.1.8 Direct-Offset Operands
- 4.1.9 Example Program (Moves)

## 4.4 Indirect Addressing

- 4.4.1 Indirect Operands
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- 4.4.3 Indexed Operands
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- 4.4.5 Section Review

## 4.5 JMP and LOOP Instructions

- 4.5.1 JMP Instruction
- 4.5.2 LOOP Instruction

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  - 4.10 Programming Exercise

If you take the time to thoroughly learn the material presented in this chapter, the rest of this book will read a lot more smoothly. As the example programs become more complicated, you will rely on mastery of fundamental tools presented in this chapter.

### 4.1.2 Operand Types

Chapter 3 introduced x86 **instruction formats**:

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

**Instructions can have zero, one, two, or three operands.** Here, we omit the label and comment fields for clarity:

```
mnemonic
mnemonic [destination]
mnemonic [destination], [source]
mnemonic [destination], [source-1], [source-2]
```

There are three basic types of operands:

- Immediate—uses a numeric literal expression
- Register—uses a named register in the CPU
- Memory—references a memory location

Table 4-1 describes the standard operand types. It uses a simple notation for operands (in 32-bit mode) freely adapted from the Intel manuals. We will use it from this point on to describe the syntax of individual instructions.

### 4.1.3 Direct Memory Operands

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## 4.1 DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS

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Table 4-1 Instruction Operand Notation, 32-Bit Mode.

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



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Instructions can have zero, one, two, or three operands. Here, we omit the label and comment fields for clarity:

```
mnemonic
mnemonic [destination]
mnemonic [destination], [source]
mnemonic [destination], [source-1], [source-2]
```

There are three basic types of operands:

- Immediate—uses a numeric literal expression
- Register—uses a named register in the CPU
- Memory—references a memory location

Table 4-1 describes the standard operand types. It uses a simple notation for operands (in 32-bit mode) freely adapted from the Intel manuals. We will use it from this point on to describe the syntax of individual instructions.

### 4.1.3 Direct Memory Operands

Variable names are references to offsets within the data segment. For example, the following declaration for a variable named **var1** says that its size attribute is **byte** and it contains the value 10 hexadecimal:

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mem

An 8-, 16-, or 32-bit memory operand

```
.data  
var1 BYTE 10h
```

We can write instructions that dereference (look up) memory operands using their addresses. Suppose **var1** were located at offset 10400h. The following instruction copies its value into the AL register:

```
mov al, var1
```

It would be assembled into the following **machine instruction**:

```
A0 00010400
```

The first byte in the machine instruction is the operation code (known as the *opcode*). The remaining part is the 32-bit hexadecimal address of **var1**. Although it might be possible to write programs using only numeric addresses, symbolic names such as **var1** make it easier to reference memory.

**Alternative Notation.** Some programmers prefer to use the following notation with direct operands because the **brackets imply a dereference operation**:

```
mov al, [var1]
```

MASM permits this notation, so you can use it in your own programs if you want. Because so many programs (including those from Microsoft) are printed without the brackets, we will only

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**Alternative Notation.** Some programmers prefer to use the following notation with direct operands because the **brackets imply a dereference operation**:

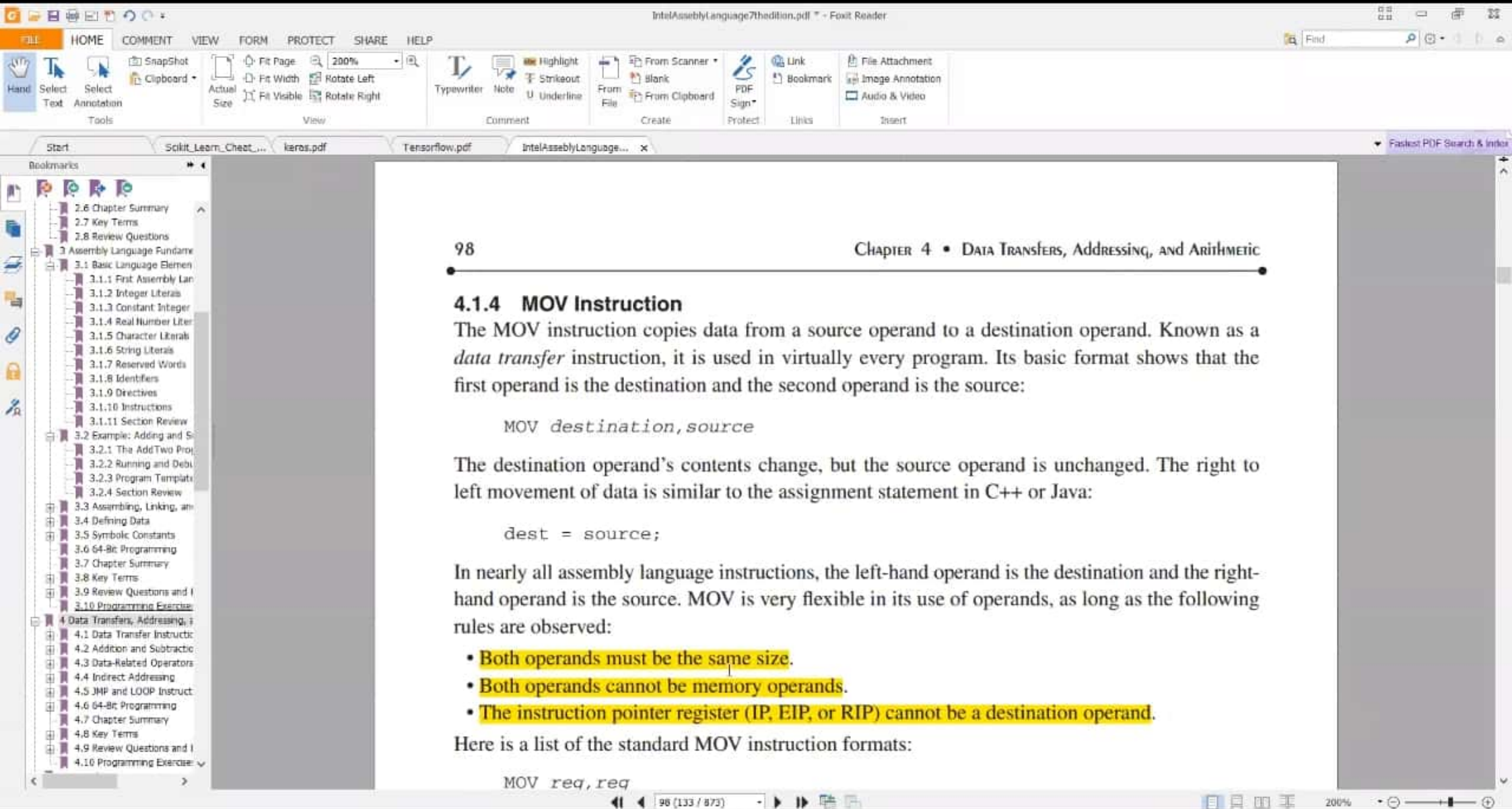
```
mov al, [var1]
```

MASM permits this notation, so you can use it in your own programs if you want. Because so many programs (including those from Microsoft) are printed without the brackets, we will only use them in this book when an arithmetic expression is involved:

```
mov al, [var1 + 5]
```

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Here is a list of the standard MOV instruction formats:

```
MOV reg, reg
MOV mem, reg
MOV reg, mem
MOV mem, imm
MOV reg, imm
```

**Memory to Memory** A single MOV instruction cannot be used to move data directly from one memory location to another. Instead, you must move the source operand's value to a register before assigning its value to a memory operand:

```
.data
var1 WORD ?
var2 WORD ?
.code
mov ax, var1
mov var2, ax
```

You must consider the minimum number of bytes required by an integer constant when copying it to a variable or register. For unsigned integer constant sizes, refer to Table 1-4 in Chapter 1. For signed integer constants, refer to Table 1-7.

**Overlapping Values**

The following code example shows how the same 32-bit register can be modified using differently sized data. When oneWord is moved to AX, it overwrites the existing value of AL. When oneDword is moved to EAX, it overwrites AX. Finally, when 0 is moved to AX, it overwrites the lower half of EAX.

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var2 WORD ?
.code
mov ax, var1
mov var2, ax
```

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```
.data
oneByte BYTE 78h
oneWord WORD 1234h
oneDword DWORD 12345678h
```

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## 4.1 DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS 99

```
.code
mov  eax,0           ; EAX = 00000000h
mov  al,oneByte      ; EAX = 00000078h
mov  ax,oneWord       ; EAX = 00001234h
mov  eax,oneDword     ; EAX = 12345678h
mov  ax,0             ; EAX = 12340000h
```

### 4.1.5 Zero/Sign Extension of Integers

**Copying Smaller Values to Larger Ones**

Although **MOV** cannot directly copy data from a smaller operand to a larger one, programmers can create workarounds. Suppose **count** (unsigned, 16 bits) must be moved to ECX (32 bits). We can set ECX to zero and move **count** to CX:

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

What happens if we try the same approach with a signed integer equal to -16?

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- 5 MOV with Zero Extension instruction (MOVZX)
- 6 MOV with Zero Extension instruction (MOVZX)



**STUDY POINT**

# Assembly Language

FOR  
X86 PROCESSORS

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**STUDY POINT**



- 1 Assembly Language
- 2 MOV instruction
- 3 List of standard MOV instructions
- 4 MOV instruction examples
- 5 MOV with Zero Extension instruction (MOVZX)
- 6 MOV with Zero Extension instruction (MOVZX)

# MOV Instruction

❖ MOV instruction is used to copy data from source operand to destination operand

❖ Syntax:

**MOV Destination\_Operand, Source\_Operand**

Example:

MOV EAX, 12345678H

**Rules:**

- Both operands must be of same sizes
- Both operands must not be memory variables
- EIP/IP/Immediate value can't be used as a destination operand



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# List of standard MOV Instructions

- MOV REG, REG (register to register)
- MOV REG, MEM (memory variable to register)
- MOV REG, IMM (immediate value to register)
- MOV MEM, REG (register to memory variable)
- MOV MEM, IMM (immediate value to memory variable)



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- 1 Assembly Language
- 2 MOV instruction
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- 4 MOV instruction Examples
- 5 MOV with Zero Extension instruction (MOVZX)
- 6 MOV with Sign Extension instruction (MOVSX)

# MOV Instruction Examples

Some Valid MOV Instructions	Some In-Valid MOV Instruction
MOV X, 75	MOV EBX, AL
MOV AL, 75	MOV AL, 256
MOV AL, -75	MOV X, Y
MOV AX, 1234H	MOV EIP, 12345678H
MOV EBX, ECX	MOV AL, 100H
MOV EAX, 12345678H	MOV 50, AL



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# MOV with Zero Extension Instruction (MOVZX)

- MOVZX instruction copies the source operand value (with zero extension) into destination operand if source operand size is smaller than destination operand size.
- MOVZX is only used with un-signed data

Syntax:

MOVZX Destination\_Operand, Source\_Operand

Like

MOVZX reg32, reg/mem8

MOVZX reg32, reg/mem16

MOVZX reg16, reg/mem8



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# MOV with Zero Extension Instruction (MOVZX)

## Examples:

.DATA

VAL Byte 55H

TEMP Byte 11011011B ;8 Bits Binary value

.CODE

MOVZX EAX, VAL ; EAX = 00000055H

MOVZX BX, TEMP ; BX = 0000000011011011



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# MOV with Sign Bit Extension Instruction (MOVSX)

- MOVSX instruction copies the source operand value (with sign bit extension) into destination operand if source operand size is smaller than destination operand size.
- MOVSX is only used with Signed data
- MSB is 0 if the value is +ve
- MSB is 1 if the value is -ve
- Negative number is represented in memory as two's complement of original positive number

Syntax:

MOVSX Destination\_Operand, Source\_Operand

Like

MOVSX reg32, reg/mem8

MOVSX reg32, reg/mem16

MOVSX reg16, reg/mem8



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# MOV with Sign Bit Extension Instruction (MOVSX)

Examples:

.CODE

MOV BX, 0A69BH

; BX = 0A69BH

MOVSX EAX, BX

; EAX = FFFFA69BH  
(1111 1111 1111 1111 1010 0110 1001 1011)

MOVSX EDX, BL

; EDX = FFFFFFFF9BH  
(1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1001 1011)

MOVSX CX, BL

; CX = FF9BH  
(1111 1111 1001 1011)



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# Data related Operators and Directives

- ❖ Operators and directives are not executable instructions but they are interpreted by Assembler
- ❖ Some Operators are :
  - ❖ OFFSET
  - ❖ PTR
  - ❖ TYPE
  - ❖ LENGTHOF
  - ❖ SIZEOF

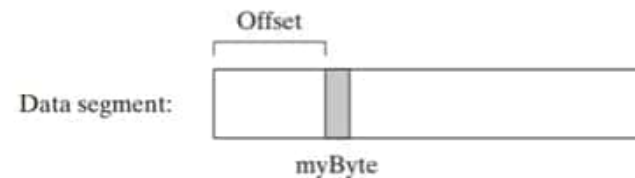




# OFFSET OPERATOR

- ❖ OFFSET operator returns the offset address of data label
- ❖ OFFSET presents the distance of data label from the beginning of data segment

A variable named myByte.





# OFFSET OPERATOR

## Examples:

.data

X BYTE ?

Y WORD ?

Z DWORD ?

MESSAGE BYTE "HELLO WORLD", 0

.CODE

MOV ESI, OFFSET X

MOV ESI, OFFSET Y

MOV ESI, OFFSET

MOV ESI, OFFSET MESSAGE

; ESI = 00404000

; ESI = 00404001

; ESI = 00404003

; ESI = 00404007

START OF SEGMENT i.e. Zero Distance

Y CONTAINS 2 BYTES

Z CONTAINS 4 BYTES

X	Y	Z	MESSAGE
?	?	?	"HELLO WORLD"
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
4	4	4	4
0	0	0	0
4	4	4	4
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	1	3	7

1  
byte

2  
byte

4  
byte

11  
byte



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# PTR OPERATOR

- ❖ The PTR operator is used to override the declared size of an operand
- ❖ Suppose, for example, that you would like to move the lower 16 bits of a **doubleword** variable named **myDouble** into **AX**. The assembler will not permit the following move because the operand sizes do not match

## Examples

.data

**myDouble** **dword** 12345678H

.code

```
mov AX, myDouble           ; Error due to sizes
mov AL, byte ptr myDouble  ; AL = 78H
mov AL, byte ptr myDouble + 1 ; AL = 56H
mov AX, word ptr myDouble   ; AX = 5678H
mov AX, word ptr myDouble + 2 ; AX = 1234H
```





# TYPE OPERATOR

❖ The TYPE operator returns the size in no. of bytes, of a single element of a variable.

.data

X BYTE ?

Y WORD ?

Z DWORD ?

ARR WORD 10, 20, 30, 40

.code

MOV AL, TYPE X ; AL = 1

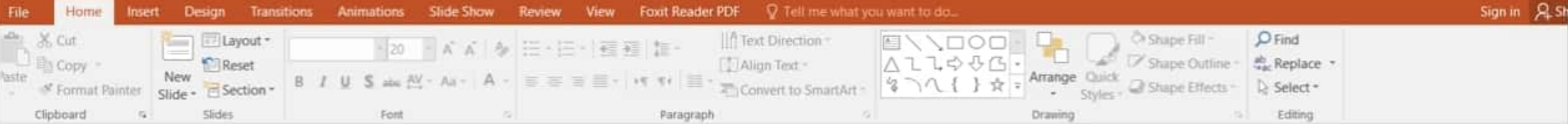
MOV AL, TYPE Y ; AL = 2

MOV AL, TYPE Z ; AL = 4

MOV AL, TYPE ARR ; AL = 2



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# LENGTHOF OPERATOR

❖ The LENGTHOF operator returns the no. of elements in an array

.data

```
byte1 BYTE 10,20,30
array1 WORD 30 DUP(?),0,0
array2 DWORD 1,2,3,4
digitStr BYTE "12345678",0
```

.code

```
MOV AL, LENGTHOF byte1           ; AL = 3
MOV AL, LENGTHOF array1         ; AL = 30 + 2 = 32
MOV AL, LENGTHOF array2         ; AL = 4
MOV AL, LENGTHOF digitStr       ; AL = 9
```



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# SIZEOF OPERATOR

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

❖ In other words, total size in bytes of an array

.data

ARRAY DWORD 10, 20, 30, 40, 50

.code

MOV AL, SIZEOF ARRAY

; AL = LENGTHOF \* TYPE

; AL = 5 \* 4 = 20



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4. (True/False): The LENGTHOF operator returns the number of bytes in an operand.

5. (True/False): The SIZEOF operator returns the number of bytes in an operand.

## 4.4 Indirect Addressing

Direct addressing is rarely used for array processing because it is impractical to use constant offsets to address more than a few array elements. Instead, we use a register as a pointer (called *indirect addressing*) and manipulate the register's value. When an operand uses indirect addressing, it is called an *indirect operand*.

### 4.4.1 Indirect Operands

**Protected Mode** An indirect operand can be any 32-bit general-purpose register (EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, EBP, and ESP) surrounded by brackets. The register is assumed to contain the address of some data. In the next example, ESI contains the offset of **byteVal**. The MOV instruction uses the indirect operand as the source, the offset in ESI is dereferenced, and a byte is moved to AL:

```
.data
byteVal BYTE 10h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET byteVal
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 10h
```

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CHAPTER 4 • DATA TRANSFERS, ADDRESSING, AND ARITHMETIC

If the destination operand uses indirect addressing, a new value is placed in memory at the location pointed to by the register. In the following example, the contents of the BL register are copied to the memory location addressed by ESI.

```
mov [esi],bl
```

*Using PTR with Indirect Operands* The size of an operand may not be evident from the context of an instruction. The following instruction causes the assembler to generate an “operand must have size” error message:

```
inc [esi] ; error: operand must have size
```

The assembler does not know whether ESI points to a byte, word, doubleword, or some other size. The PTR operator confirms the operand size:

```
inc BYTE PTR [esi]
```

### 4.4.2 Arrays

Indirect operands are ideal tools for stepping through arrays. In the next example, `arrayB` contains 3 bytes. As ESI is incremented, it points to each byte, in order:

```
.data
arrayB BYTE 10h, 20h, 30h
```

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inc [esi] ; error: operand must have size
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The assembler does not know whether ESI points to a byte, word, doubleword, or some other size. The PTR operator confirms the operand size:

```
inc BYTE PTR [esi]
```

#### 4.4.2 Arrays

Indirect operands are ideal tools for stepping through arrays. In the next example, **arrayB** contains 3 bytes. As ESI is incremented, it points to each byte, in order:

```
.data
arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET arrayB
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 10h
inc esi
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 20h
inc esi
mov al,[esi] ; AL = 30h
```

If we use an array of 16-bit integers, we add 2 to ESI to address each subsequent array element:

```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
```

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

If we use an array of 16-bit integers, we add 2 to ESI to address each subsequent array element:

```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET arrayW
mov ax,[esi] ; AX = 1000h
add esi,2
mov ax,[esi] ; AX = 2000h
add esi,2
mov ax,[esi] ; AX = 3000h
```

Suppose **arrayW** is located at offset 10200h. The following illustration shows the initial value of ESI in relation to the array data:

Offset	Value
10200	1000h
10202	2000h
10204	3000h

← [esi]

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#### 4.4 INDIRECT ADDRESSING 119

**Example: Adding 32-Bit Integers** The following code example adds three doublewords. A displacement of 4 must be added to ESI as it points to each subsequent array value because doublewords are 4 bytes long:

```
.data
arrayD DWORD 10000h, 20000h, 30000h
.code
mov esi, OFFSET arrayD
mov eax, [esi]           ; first number
add esi, 4
add eax, [esi]           ; second number
add esi, 4
add eax, [esi]           ; third number
```

Suppose **arrayD** is located at offset 10200h. Then the following illustration shows the initial value of ESI in relation to the array data:

Offset	Value	
10200	10000h	← [esi]
10204	20000h	← [esi] + 4
10208	30000h	← [esi] + 8

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Example: Adding 32-Bit Integers The following code example adds three doublewords. A displacement of 4 must be added to ESI as it points to each subsequent array value because doublewords are 4 bytes long:

```
.data
arrayD DWORD 10000h,20000h,30000h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET arrayD
mov eax,[esi]           ; first number
add esi,4
add eax,[esi]           ; second number
add esi,4
add eax,[esi]           ; third number
```

Suppose **arrayD** is located at offset 10200h. Then the following illustration shows the initial value of ESI in relation to the array data:

Offset	Value	
10200	10000h	← [esi]
10204	20000h	← [esi] + 4
10208	30000h	← [esi] + 8

4.4.3 Indexed Operands

An indexed operand adds a constant to a register to generate an effective address. Any of the

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Offset	Value	
10200	10000h	← [esi]
10204	20000h	← [esi] + 4
10208	30000h	← [esi] + 8

### 4.4.3 Indexed Operands

An *indexed operand* adds a constant to a register to generate an effective address. Any of the 32-bit general-purpose registers may be used as index registers. There are different notational forms permitted by MASM (the brackets are part of the notation):

`constant[reg]`  
`[constant + reg]`

The first notational form combines the name of a variable with a register. The variable name is translated by the assembler into a constant that represents the variable's offset. Here are examples that show both notational forms:

<code>arrayB[esi]</code>	<code>[arrayB + esi]</code>
<code>arrayD[ebx]</code>	<code>[arrayD + ebx]</code>

Indexed operands are ideally suited to array processing. The index register should be initialized to zero before accessing the first array element:

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forms permitted by MASM (the brackets are part of the notation):

```
constant[reg]
[constant + reg]
```

The first notational form combines the name of a variable with a register. The variable name is translated by the assembler into a constant that represents the variable's offset. Here are examples that show both notational forms:

arrayB[esi]	[arrayB + esi]
arrayD[ebx]	[arrayD + ebx]

Indexed operands are ideally suited to array processing. The index register should be initialized to zero before accessing the first array element:

```
.data
arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h
.code
mov esi,0
mov al,arrayB[esi]          ; AL = 10h
```

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CHAPTER 4 • DATA TRANSFERS, ADDRESSING, AND ARITHMETIC

The last statement adds ESI to the offset of **arrayB**. The address generated by the expression **[arrayB + ESI]** is dereferenced and the byte in memory is copied to AL.

*Adding Displacements* The second type of indexed addressing combines a register with a constant offset. The index register holds the base address of an array or structure, and the constant identifies offsets of various array elements. The following example shows how to do this with an array of 16-bit words:

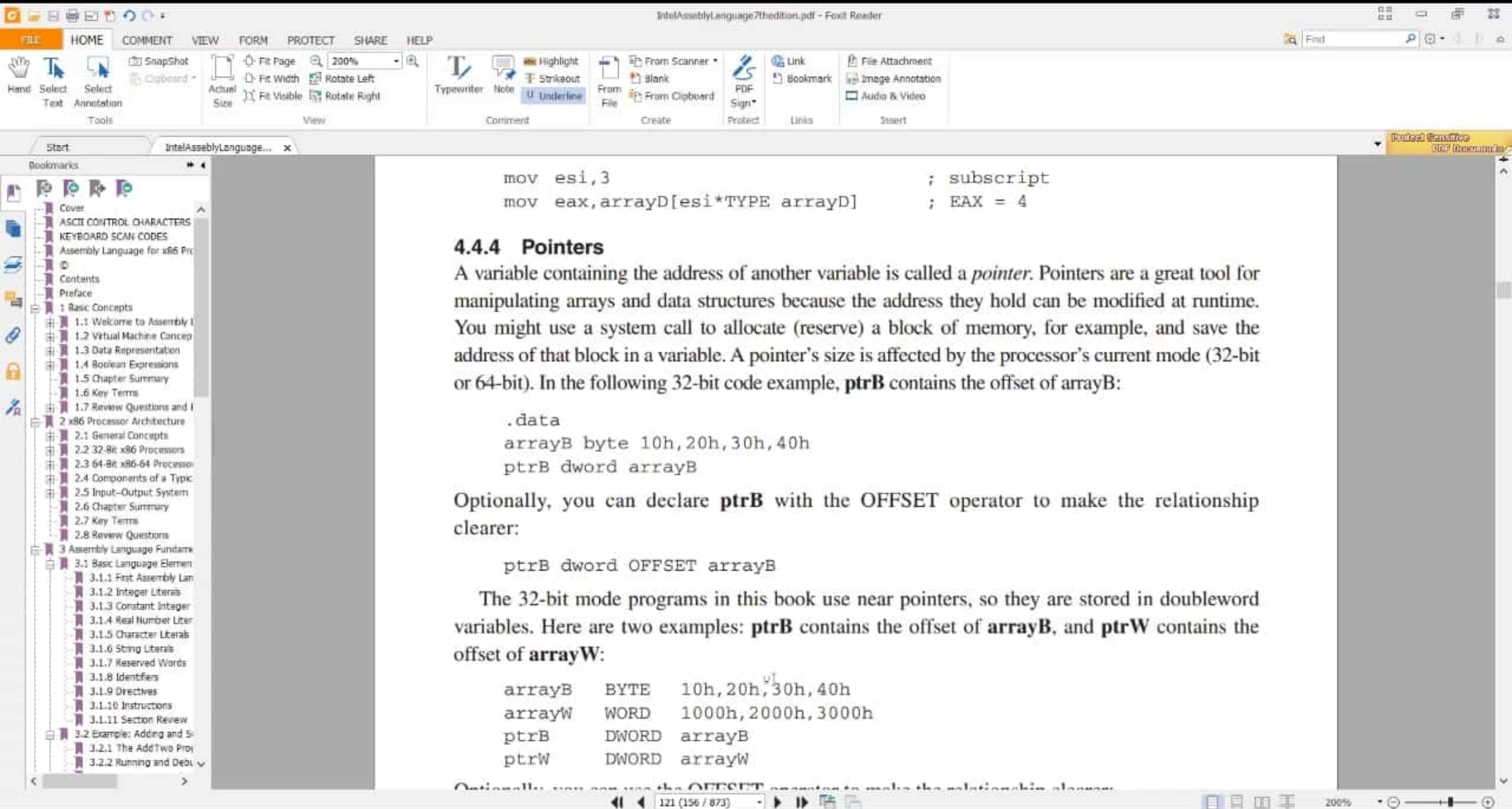
```
.data
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
.code
mov esi,OFFSET arrayW
mov ax,[esi]           ; AX = 1000h
mov ax,[esi+2]         ; AX = 2000h
mov ax,[esi+4]         ; AX = 3000h
```

*Using 16-Bit Registers* It is usual to use 16-bit registers as indexed operands in real-address mode. In that case, you are limited to using SI, DI, BX, or BP:

```
mov al,arrayB[si]
mov ax,arrayW[di]
mov eax,arrayD[bx]
```

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manipulating arrays and data structures because the address they hold can be modified at runtime. You might use a system call to allocate (reserve) a block of memory, for example, and save the address of that block in a variable. A pointer's size is affected by the processor's current mode (32-bit or 64-bit). In the following 32-bit code example, **ptrB** contains the offset of arrayB:

```
.data
arrayB byte 10h,20h,30h,40h
ptrB dword arrayB
```

Optionally, you can declare **ptrB** with the **OFFSET** operator to make the relationship clearer:

```
ptrB dword OFFSET arrayB
```

The 32-bit mode programs in this book use near pointers, so they are stored in doubleword variables. Here are two examples: **ptrB** contains the offset of **arrayB**, and **ptrW** contains the offset of **arrayW**:

```
arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h,40h
arrayW WORD 1000h,2000h,3000h
ptrB DWORD arrayB
ptrW DWORD arrayW
```

Optionally, you can use the **OFFSET** operator to make the relationship clearer:

```
ptrB DWORD OFFSET arrayB
ptrW DWORD OFFSET arrayW
```

High-level languages purposely hide physical details about pointers because their implementa-

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# JMP & LOOP Instructions

## JMP instruction

- ❖ The JMP instruction causes an unconditional transfer to a destination label, identified by a code label that is translated by the assembler into an offset.
- ❖ Address of destination label is placed in EIP register

Syntax:

**JMP LABEL\_NAME**

Example:

```
disp:
    mov eax, 100
    call writedec
    jmp disp
```



**STUDY POINT**



# JMP & LOOP Instructions

## LOOP instruction

- ❖ LOOP instruction is used to execute a statement or set of statements for a specific number of times (no. of iteration value is placed in ECX register before using LOOP instruction).
- ❖ ECX is automatically used as loop counter
- ❖ Syntax:  
**LOOP LABEL\_NAME**
- ❖ Working:
  - ❖ ECX is decremented by 1 automatically when control approaches to LOOP instruction
  - ❖ Compare the value of ECX with 0 (zero)
    - ❖ If the value of **ECX**  $\neq 0$  then control is transferred to destination label and iteration is performed again
    - ❖ Otherwise loop will be terminated and control is transferred to the next statement of LOOP instruction



# JMP & LOOP Instructions

## LOOP instruction

Example: To display the all odd numbers from 1 to 99

```
include irvine32.inc
```

```
.code
```

```
main proc
```

```
    mov ecx, 50
```

```
    mov eax, 1
```

```
    Disp:
```

```
        call writedec
```

```
        add eax, 2
```

```
    Loop Disp
```

```
    exit
```

```
main endp
```

```
end main
```



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### LOOP Instruction

Example: Assembly Program to calculate the factorial of a given number.

```
include irvine32.inc
.data
message1 byte "Enter any value to find factorial : ", 0
Message2 byte "The factorial of given number is : ", 0
.code
main proc
    mov edx, offset message1
    call writestring
    call readint      ; just like cin >> eax;

    ; n! = n * (n-1)!
    ; 5! = 5 * 4 * 3 * 2 * 1 = 120

    mov ecx, eax
    mov eax, 1
    factorial:
        mul ecx
    Loop factorial

    mov edx, offset message2
    call writestring
    call writedec
    Call crlf

    exit
main endp
end main
```

**STUDY POINT**