## Basic Instructions Addressing Modes

COE 205
Computer Organization and Assembly Language

Computer Engineering Department
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals

## Presentation Outline

* Operand Types
* Data Transfer Instructions
* Addition and Subtraction
* Addressing Modes
* Jump and Loop Instructions
* Copying a String
* Summing an Array of Integers


## Three Basic Types of Operands

* Immediate
$\triangleleft$ Constant integer (8, 16, or 32 bits)
$\triangleleft$ Constant value is stored within the instruction
* Register
$\triangleleft$ Name of a register is specified
$\diamond$ Register number is encoded within the instruction
* Memory
$\triangleleft$ Reference to a location in memory
$\triangleleft$ Memory address is encoded within the instruction, or
$\triangleleft$ Register holds the address of a memory location


## Instruction Operand Notation

| Operand | Description |
| :---: | :--- |
| $r 8$ | 8-bit general-purpose register: AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, DL |
| $r 16$ | 16-bit general-purpose register: AX, BX, CX, DX, SI, DI, SP, BP |
| $r 32$ | 32-bit general-purpose register: EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, ESP, EBP |
| $r e g$ | Any general-purpose register |
| $s r e g$ | 16-bit segment register: CS, DS, SS, ES, FS, GS |
| $i m m$ | 8-, 16-, or 32-bit immediate value |
| $i m m 8$ | 8-bit immediate byte value |
| $i m m 16$ | 16-bit immediate word value |
| $i m m 32$ | 32-bit immediate doubleword value |
| $r / m 8$ | 8-bit operand which can be an 8-bit general-purpose register or memory byte |
| $r / m 16$ | 16-bit operand which can be a 16-bit general-purpose register or memory word |
| $r / m 32$ | 32-bit operand which can be a 32-bit general register or memory doubleword |
| $m e m$ | 8-, 16-, or 32-bit memory operand |

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## Next...

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## MOV Instruction

* Move source operand to destination mov destination, source
* Source and destination operands can vary mov reg, reg mov mem, reg mov reg, mem mov mem, imm mov reg, imm mov r/m16, sreg


## Rules

- Both operands must be of same size
- No memory to memory moves
- Destination cannot be CS, EIP, or IP
- No immediate to segment moves mov sreg, r/m16
* Programs running in protected mode should not modify the segment registers


## MOV Examples

```
.DATA
    count BYTE }10
    bVal BYTE 20
    wVal WORD 2
    dVal DWORD 5
```

. CODE
mov bl, count ; bl = count = 100
mov ax, wVal ; ax = wVal = 2
mov count,al ; count = al = 2
mov eax, dval ; eax = dval = 5
; Assembler will not accept the following moves - why?
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
mov bVal,count ; memory-to-memory move not permitted

## Zero Extension

* MOVZX Instruction
$\triangleleft$ Fills (extends) the upper part of the destination with zeros
$\triangleleft$ Used to copy a small source into a larger destination
$\diamond$ Destination must be a register
movzx r32, r/m8
movzx r32, $r / m 16$
movzx r16, r/m8


```
mov bl, 8Fh
movzx ax, bl
```


## Sign Extension

MOVSX Instruction
$\diamond$ Fills (extends) the upper part of the destination register with a copy of the source operand's sign bit
$\diamond$ Used to copy a small source into a larger destination
movsx r32, r/m8
movsx $r 32, r / m 16$
movsx r16, r/m8


## XCHG Instruction

* XCHG exchanges the values of two operands



## Direct Memory Operands

* Variable names are references to locations in memory
* Direct Memory Operand:

Named reference to a memory location

* Assembler computes address (offset) of named variable
. DATA
var1 BYTE 10h
Direct Memory Operand
mov al, [var1]
; $A L=$ var1 = 10h
; AL = var1 = 10h

Alternate Format

## Direct-Offset Operands

* Direct-Offset Operand: Constant offset is added to a named memory location to produce an effective address

```
\diamond Assembler computes the effective address
```

Lets you access memory locations that have no name

```
.DATA
arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h,40h
.CODE
mov al, arrayB+1 ; AL = 20h
mov al,[arrayB+1] ; alternative notation
mov al, arrayB[1] ; yet another notation
```

Q: Why doesn't arrayB+1 produce 11h?
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## Direct-Offset Operands - Examples

```
.DATA
arrayW WORD 1020h, 3040h, 5060h
arrayD DWORD 1, 2, 3, 4
.CODE
mov ax, arrayW+2 ; AX = 3040h
mov ax, arrayW[4] ; AX = 5060h
mov eax,[arrayD+4] ; EAX = 00000002h
mov eax,[arrayD-3] ; EAX = 01506030h
mov ax, [arrayW+9] ; AX = 0200h
mov ax, [arrayD+3] ; Error: Operands are not same size
mov ax, [arrayW-2] ; AX = ? Out-of-range address
mov eax,[arrayD+16] ; EAX = ? MASM does not detect error
```



## Your Turn...

Given the following definition of arrayD
. DATA
arrayD DWORD 1,2,3
Rearrange the three values in the array as: 3, 1, 2

## Solution:

```
; Copy first array value into EAX
mov eax, arrayD ; EAX = 1
; Exchange EAX with second array element
xchg eax, arrayD[4] ; EAX = 2, arrayD = 1,1,3
; Exchange EAX with third array element
xchg eax, arrayD[8] ; EAX = 3, arrayD = 1,1,2
; Copy value in EAX to first array element
mov arrayD, eax ; arrayD = 3,1,2
```


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## ADD and SUB Instructions

* ADD destination, source
destination $=$ destination + source
* SUB destination, source
destination $=$ destination - source
* Destination can be a register or a memory location

Source can be a register, memory location, or a constant
Destination and source must be of the same size

* Memory-to-memory arithmetic is not allowed


## Evaluate this

Write a program that adds the following three words:
. DATA array WORD 890Fh, 1276h,0AF5Bh

Solution: Accumulate the sum in the AX register

```
mov ax, array
add ax,[array+2]
add ax,[array+4] ; what if sum cannot fit in AX?
```

Solution 2: Accumulate the sum in the EAX register

```
movzx eax, array ; error to say: mov eax,array
movzx ebx, array[2] ; use movsx for signed integers
add eax, ebx ; error to say: add eax,array[2]
movzx ebx, array[4]
add eax, ebx
```


## Flags Affected <br> FLAGS <br> 

EFLAGS
ADD and SUB affect all the six status flags:

1. Carry Flag: Set when unsigned arithmetic result is out of range
2. Overflow Flag: Set when signed arithmetic result is out of range
3. Sign Flag: Copy of sign bit, set when result is negative
4. Zero Flag: Set when result is zero
5. Auxiliary Carry Flag: Set when there is a carry from bit 3 to bit 4
6. Parity Flag: Set when parity in least-significant byte is even

## More on Carry and Overflow

Addition: A + B
$\diamond$ The Carry flag is the carry out of the most significant bit
« 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
- Overflow cannot occur when adding operands of opposite signs

Subtraction: A - B
$\diamond$ For Subtraction, the carry flag becomes the borrow flag
$\diamond$ Carry flag is set when $A$ has a smaller unsigned value than $B$
$\diamond$ The Overflow flag is only set when . . .

- A and B have different signs and sign of result $\neq$ sign of $A$
- Overflow cannot occur when subtracting operands of the same sign


## Hardware Viewpoint

* CPU cannot distinguish signed from unsigned integers
$\& \mathrm{YOU}$, the programmer, give a meaning to binary numbers
* How the ADD instruction modifies OF and CF:
$\triangleleft C F=$ (carry out of the MSB) $\longleftarrow M S B=$ Most Significant Bit
$\diamond \mathrm{OF}=$ (carry out of the MSB) XOR (carry into the MSB)
* Hardware does SUB by ..

XOR = eXclusive-OR operation
$\diamond$ ADDing destination to the 2's complement of the source operand

* How the SUB instruction modifies OF and CF:
$\diamond$ Negate (2's complement) the source and ADD it to destination
$\diamond$ OF = (carry out of the MSB) XOR (carry into the MSB)
$\triangleleft$ CF $=$ INVERT (carry out of the MSB)


## ADD and SUB Examples

For each of the following marked entries, show the values of the destination operand and the six status flags:

```
mov al,0FFh ; AL=-1
add al,1 ; AL=00h CF=1 0F=0 SF=0 ZF=1 AF=1 PF=1
sub al,1 ; AL=FFh CF=1 0F=0 SF=1 ZF=0 AF=1 PF=1
mov al,+127 ; AL=7Fh
add al,1 ; AL=-128 CF=0 0F=1 SF=1 ZF=0 AF=1 PF=0
mov al,26h
sub al,95h ; AL=91h CF=1 0F=1 \(S F=1 \quad Z F=0 \rightarrow A F=0 \quad P F=0\)
```

|  |  | 1 | (0) 0001 |  |  |  |  | 26h (38) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 95h (-107) |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 91h (-111) |



## INC, DEC, and NEG Instructions

* INC destination
$\triangleleft$ destination $=$ destination +1
४ More compact (uses less space) than: ADD destination, 1
DEC destination
$\checkmark$ destination $=$ destination -1
$\diamond$ More compact (uses less space) than: SUB destination, 1


## NEG destination

$\checkmark$ destination $=2$ 's complement of destination

* Destination can be 8-, 16 -, or 32 -bit operand
$\diamond$ In memory or a register
$\diamond$ NO immediate operand


## Affected Flags

INC and DEC affect five status flags
\& Overflow, Sign, Zero, Auxiliary Carry, and Parity
$\diamond$ Carry flag is NOT modified

* NEG affects all the six status flags
$\triangleleft$ Any nonzero operand causes the carry flag to be set

```
. DATA
    B SBYTE -1 ; 0FFh
    C SBYTE 127 ; 7Fh
. CODE
    inc B ; B=0 OF=0 SF=0 ZF=1 AF=1 PF=1
    dec B ; B=-1 OF=0 SF=1 ZF=0 AF=1 PF=1
    inc C ; C=-128=80h OF=1 SF=1 ZF=0 AF=1 PF=0
    neg C ; W=-128 CF=1 OF=1 SF=1 ZF=0 AF=0 PF=0
```


## ADC and SBB Instruction

* ADC Instruction: Addition with Carry
ADC destination, source
destination = destination + source + CF
* SBB Instruction: Subtract with Borrow
SBB destination, source
destination = destination - source - CF
* Destination can be a register or a memory location
* Source can be a register, memory location, or a constant
* Destination and source must be of the same size
* Memory-to-memory arithmetic is not allowed


## Extended Arithmetic

ADC and SBB are useful for extended arithmetic

* Example: 64-bit addition
$\triangleleft$ Assume first 64-bit integer operand is stored in EBX:EAX
$\diamond$ Second 64-bit integer operand is stored in EDX:ECX
* Solution:
add eax, ecx ;add lower 32 bits
adc ebx, edx ; add upper 32 bits + carry
64-bit result is in EBX:EAX
* STC and CLC Instructions
$\diamond$ Used to Set and Clear the Carry Flag


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## Addressing Modes

## * Two Basic Questions

$\triangleleft$ Where are the operands?
४ How memory addresses are computed?

* Intel IA-32 supports 3 fundamental addressing modes
$\triangleleft$ Register addressing: operand is in a register
$\diamond$ Immediate addressing: operand is stored in the instruction itself
$\triangleleft$ Memory addressing: operand is in memory
Memory Addressing
$\diamond$ Variety of addressing modes
$\triangleleft$ Direct and indirect addressing
s Support high-level language constructs and data structures


## Register and Immediate Addressing

* Register Addressing
$\triangleleft$ Most efficient way of specifying an operand: no memory access
$\triangleleft$ Shorter Instructions: fewer bits are needed to specify register
$\diamond$ Compilers use registers to optimize code
* Immediate Addressing
$\triangleleft$ Used to specify a constant
$\triangleleft$ Immediate constant is part of the instruction
$\diamond$ Efficient: no separate operand fetch is needed
* Examples
mov eax, ebx ; register-to-register move
add eax, 5 ; 5 is an immediate constant


## Direct Memory Addressing

## $\nLeftarrow$ Used to address simple variables in memory

$\diamond$ Variables are defined in the data section of the program
$\diamond$ We use the variable name (label) to address memory directly
$\diamond$ Assembler computes the offset of a variable
$\diamond$ The variable offset is specified directly as part of the instruction

```
* Example
```

    .data
        var1 DWORD 100
        var2 DWORD 200
        sum DWORD ?
    . code
        mov eax, var1
        add eax, var2
        mov sum, eax
    var1, var2, and sum are direct memory operands

## Register Indirect Addressing

* Problem with Direct Memory Addressing
$\triangleleft$ Causes problems in addressing arrays and data structures
- Does not facilitate using a loop to traverse an array
$\diamond$ Indirect memory addressing solves this problem
* Register Indirect Addressing
$\diamond$ The memory address is stored in a register
$\diamond$ Brackets [ ] used to surround the register holding the address
$\diamond$ For 32-bit addressing, any 32-bit register can be used
* Example
mov ebx, OFFSET array ; ebx contains the address mov eax, [ebx] ; [ebx] used to access memory

EBX contains the address of the operand, not the operand itself

## Array Sum Example

- Indirect addressing is ideal for traversing an array

```
.data
    array DWORD 10000h,20000h,30000h
.code
    mov esi, OFFSET array ; esi = array address
    mov eax,[esi] ; eax = [array] = 10000h
    add esi,4 ; why 4?
    add eax,[esi] ; eax = eax + [array+4]
    add esi,4 ; why 4?
    add eax,[esi] ; eax = eax + [array+8]
```

Note that ESI register is used as a pointer to array
$\diamond$ ESI must be incremented by 4 to access the next array element

- Because each array element is 4 bytes (DWORD) in memory


## Ambiguous Indirect Operands

* Consider the following instructions:
mov [EBX], 100
add [ESI], 20
inc [EDI]
$\triangleleft$ Where EBX, ESI, and EDI contain memory addresses
$\diamond$ The size of the memory operand is not clear to the assembler
- EBX, ESI, and EDI can be pointers to BYTE, WORD, or DWORD
* Solution: use PTR operator to clarify the operand size mov BYTE PTR [EBX], 100 ; BYTE operand in memory add WORD PTR [ESI], 20 ; WORD operand in memory inc DWORD PTR [EDI] ; DWORD operand in memory


## Indexed Addressing

Combines a variable's name with an index register
$\triangleleft$ Assembler converts variable's name into a constant offset
$\diamond$ Constant offset is added to register to form an effective address

* Syntax: [name + index] or name [index]

```
.data
    array DWORD 10000h,20000h,30000h
.code
    mov esi, 0 ; esi = array index
    mov eax,array[esi] ; eax = array[0] = 10000h
    add esi,4
    add eax,array[esi] ; eax = eax + array[4]
    add esi,4
    add eax,[array+esi] ; eax = eax + array[8]
```


## Index Scaling

* Useful to index array elements of size 2, 4, and 8 bytes $\triangleleft$ Syntax: [name + index * scale] or name [index * scale]
\& Effective address is computed as follows:
$\triangleleft$ Name's offset + Index register * Scale factor

```
.DATA
    arrayB BYTE 10h,20h,30h,40h
    arrayW WORD 100h,200h,300h,400h
    arrayD DWORD 10000h,20000h,30000h,40000h
.CODE
    mov esi, 2
    mov al, arrayB[esi] ; AL = 30h
    mov ax, arrayW[esi*2] ; AX = 300h
    mov eax, arrayD[esi*4] ; EAX = 30000h
```


## Based Addressing

* Syntax: [Base + Offset]
$\diamond$ Effective Address $=$ Base register + Constant Offset
* Useful to access fields of a structure or an object
$\diamond$ Base Register $\rightarrow$ points to the base address of the structure
$\diamond$ Constant Offset $\rightarrow$ relative offset within the structure

| . DATA mystruct | WORD 12 <br> DWORD 1985 <br> BYTE 'M' | mystruct is a structure consisting of 3 fields: a word, a double word, and a byte |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| .CODE |  |  |
| mov ebx, | OFFSET mystruct |  |
| mov eax, | [ebx+2] | EAX $=1985$ |
| mov al, | [ebx+6] | AL = 'M' |

## Based-Indexed Addressing

* Syntax: [Base + (Index * Scale) + Offset]
$\triangleleft$ Scale factor is optional and can be $1,2,4$, or 8
* Useful in accessing two-dimensional arrays
$\triangleleft$ Offset: array address => we can refer to the array by name
$\diamond$ Base register: holds row address => relative to start of array
$\diamond$ Index register: selects an element of the row => column index
$\diamond$ Scaling factor: when array element size is 2,4 , or 8 bytes
* Useful in accessing arrays of structures (or objects)
$\triangleleft$ Base register: holds the address of the array
$\triangleleft$ Index register: holds the element address relative to the base
$\diamond$ Offset: represents the offset of a field within a structure

```
Based-Indexed Examples
.data
    matrix DWORD 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 ; 4 rows, 5 cols
            DWORD 10,11,12,13,14
            DWORD 20,21,22,23,24
            DWORD 30, 31, 32, 33,34
    ROWSIZE EQU SIZEOF matrix ; 20 bytes per row
. code
    mov ebx, 2*ROWSIZE ; row index = 2
    mov esi, 3 ; col index = 3
    mov eax, matrix[ebx+esi*4] ; EAX = matrix[2][3]
    mov ebx, 3*ROWSIZE ; row index = 3
    mov esi, 1 ; col index = 1
    mov eax, matrix[ebx+esi*4] ; EAX = matrix[3][1]
```


## LEA Instruction

## LEA = Load Effective Address

LEA r32, mem (Flat-Memory)
LEA r16, mem (Real-Address Mode)
$\diamond$ Calculate and load the effective address of a memory operand
$\diamond$ Flat memory uses 32-bit effective addresses
$\diamond$ Real-address mode uses 16-bit effective addresses
LEA is similar to MOV ... OFFSET, except that:
> OFFSET operator is executed by the assembler

- Used with named variables: address is known to the assembler
$\diamond$ LEA instruction computes effective address at runtime
- Used with indirect operands: effective address is known at runtime


## LEA Examples

```
.data
    array WORD 1000 DUP(?)
.code ; Equivalent to . . .
    lea eax, array ; mov eax, OFFSET array
    lea eax, array[esi] ; mov eax, esi
                                    ; add eax, OFFSET array
    lea eax, array[esi*2] ; mov eax, esi
                                    ; add eax, eax
                                    ; add eax, OFFSET array
    lea eax, [ebx+esi*2] ; mov eax, esi
                    ; add eax, eax
                    ; add eax, ebx
```



## Registers Used in 32-Bit Addressing

32-bit addressing modes use the following 32-bit registers
Base + ( Index * Scale ) + displacement

| EAX | EAX | 1 | no displacement |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| EBX | EBX | 2 | 8-bit displacement |
| ECX | ECX | 4 | 32-bit displacement |
| EDX | EDX | 8 |  |
| ESI | ESI | Only the index register can <br> have a scale factor |  |
| EDI | EDI | ESP can be used as a base <br> register, but not as an index |  |
| EBP | EBP |  |  |

ESP


## Default Segments

* When 32-bit register indirect addressing is used.
$\triangleleft$ Address in EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, and EDI is relative to DS
$\triangleleft$ Address in EBP and ESP is relative to SS
$\diamond$ In flat-memory model, DS and SS are the same segment
- Therefore, no need to worry about the default segment
* When 16-bit register indirect addressing is used ...
$\triangleleft$ Address in $B X, S I$, or $D I$ is relative to the data segment $D S$
$\triangleleft$ Address in BP is relative to the stack segment SS
$\triangleleft$ In real-address mode, DS and SS can be different segments
* We can override the default segment using segment prefix
$\triangleleft$ mov $a x$, ss:[bx] ;address in bx is relative to stack segment
$\diamond$ mov ax, ds:[bp] ; address in bp is relative to data segment



## JMP Instruction

JMP is an unconditional jump to a destination instruction

* Syntax: JMP destination
* JMP causes the modification of the EIP register

EIP $\leftarrow$ destination address

* A label is used to identify the destination address
* Example:

```
top:
```

    jmp top
    JMP provides an easy way to create a loop
$\diamond$ Loop will continue endlessly unless we find a way to terminate it

## LOOP Instruction

* The LOOP instruction creates a counting loop
* Syntax: LOOP destination
* Logic: $\quad E C X \leftarrow E C X-1$
if ECX $!=0$, jump to destination label
* ECX register is used as a counter to count the iterations
* Example: calculate the sum of integers from 1 to 100

```
mov eax, 0 ; sum = eax
mov ecx, 100 ; count = ecx
L1:
    add eax, ecx ; accumulate sum in eax
    loop L1 ; decrement ecx until 0
```


## Your turn . . .

What will be the final value of EAX?
Solution: 10
mov eax, 6
mov ecx,4
L1:
inc eax
loop L1

How many times will the loop execute?
Solution: $2^{32}=4,294,967,296$
What will be the final value of EAX?
Solution: same value 1

```
mov eax,1
mov ecx,0
L2:
dec eax
loop L2
```


## Nested Loop

If you need to code a loop within a loop, you must save the outer loop counter's ECX value

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


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## 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)
. CODE G
    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 & ; increment index
    loop L1
    exit
main ENDP
                                ESI is used to
                                ; loop for entire string
    index source &
END main

\section*{Summing an Integer Array}

This program calculates the sum of an array of 16-bit integers
```

.DATA
intarray WORD 100h,200h,300h,400h,500h,600h
.CODE
main PROC
mov esi, OFFSET intarray ; address of intarray
mov ecx, LENGTHOF intarray ; loop counter
mov ax, 0 ; zero the accumulator
L1:
add ax, [esi] ; accumulate sum in ax
add esi, 2 ; point to next integer
loop L1 ; repeat until ecx = 0
exit
main ENDP
esi is used as a pointer
END main
contains the address of an array element

```

\section*{Summing an Integer Array - cont'd}

This program calculates the sum of an array of 32-bit integers
```

.DATA
intarray DWORD 10000h,20000h,30000h,40000h,50000h,60000h
.CODE
main PROC
mov esi, 0 ; index of intarray
mov ecx, LENGTHOF intarray ; loop counter
mov eax, 0 ; zero the accumulator
L1:
add eax, intarray[esi*4] ; accumulate sum in eax
inc esi { ; increment index
loop L1
exit
main ENDP
END main

```

\section*{PC-Relative Addressing}

The following loop calculates the sum: 1 to 1000
\begin{tabular}{|clc|}
\hline Offset & Machine Code & Source Code \\
00000000 & B8 00000000 & mov eax, 0 \\
00000005 & B9 000003E8 & mov ecx, 1000 \\
0000000A & & L1: \\
0000000A & 03 C1 & add eax, ecx \\
0000000C & E2 FC & loop L1 \\
0000000E & . . . & . . \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

When LOOP is assembled, the label L1 in LOOP is translated as FC which is equal to -4 (decimal). This causes the loop instruction to jump 4 bytes backwards from the offset of the next instruction. Since the offset of the next instruction \(=0000000 \mathrm{E}\), adding \(-4(\mathrm{FCh})\) causes a jump to location 0000000A. This jump is called PC-relative.

\section*{PC-Relative Addressing - cont'd}

\section*{Assembler:}

Calculates the difference (in bytes), called PC-relative offset, between the offset of the target label and the offset of the following instruction

Processor:
Adds the PC-relative offset to EIP when executing LOOP instruction

If the PC-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?

Answers: (a) -128 bytes and (b) +127 bytes

\section*{Summary}

\section*{* Data Transfer}

২ MOV, MOVSX, MOVZX, and XCHG instructions
* Arithmetic
\(\triangleleft\) ADD, SUB, INC, DEC, NEG, ADC, SBB, STC, and CLC
\(\triangleleft\) Carry, Overflow, Sign, Zero, Auxiliary and Parity flags
* Addressing Modes
\(\diamond\) Register, immediate, direct, indirect, indexed, based-indexed
২ Load Effective Address (LEA) instruction
\(\triangleleft\) 32-bit and 16-bit addressing
* JMP and LOOP Instructions
\(\diamond\) Traversing and summing arrays, copying strings
> PC-relative addressing```


[^0]:    Basic Instructions \& Addressing Modes

