Intel x86 Assembly Language Programming

CMST 385 – Systems and Database Administration

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The Intel x86 line of CPUs use the accumulator machine model.

Registers

Note that each register has 32 bit, 16 bit and 8 bit names. We will usually use just the 32 bit names for the registers. See the diagrams of the registers on the following pages.

- The primary accumulator register is called EAX. The return value from a function call is saved in the EAX register. Secondary accumulator registers are: EBX, ECX, EDX.
- EBX is often used to hold the starting address of an array.
- ECX is often used as a counter or index register for an array or a loop.
- EDX is a general purpose register.
- The EBP register is the stack frame pointer. It is used to facilitate calling and returning from functions.
- ESI and EDI are general purpose registers. If a variable is to have register storage class, it is often stored in either ESI or EDI. A few instructions use ESI and EDI as pointers to source and destination addresses when copying a block of data. Most compilers preserve the value of ESI and EDI across function calls — not generally true of the accumulator registers.
- The ESP register is the stack pointer. It is a pointer to the “top” of the stack.
- The EFLAGS register is sometimes also called the status register. Several instructions either set or check individual bits in this register. For example, the sign flag (bit 7) and the zero flag (bit 6) are set by the compare (cmp) instruction and checked by all the conditional branching instructions.
- The EIP register holds the instruction pointer or program counter (pc), which points to the next instruction in the text section of the currently running program.

Memory Segmentation and Protection

The earliest processors in the x86 family had 16 bit registers, thus memory addresses were limited to 16 bits (64 Kbytes). This amount of memory is not large enough for both the code and the data of many programs. The solution was to segment the memory into 64 K blocks. The code goes into one segment,
General Register Designations for x86 CPUs.
Carry Flag
Parity Flag
Auxiliary Flag
Zero Flag (zf)
Sign Flag (sf)
Trap Flag
Interrupt Enable
Direction Flag
Overflow Flag
I/O Privilege Level
Nested Task Flag
Resume Flag
Virtual 8086 Mode

Note: If not listed means CPU reserved, do not define.

EFLAGS Register.

Segment register
base address (4 MS bits)

address
offset (16 bits) +

Memory

Real Mode, Segmented Memory Model.
the data into another, and the stack is placed into a third segment. Each segment is given its own address space of up to 64 Kbytes in length. The 16–bit addresses used by the program are actually an offset from a segment base address. This is called real mode, segmented memory model and instructions and data are referenced relative to a base address held in the segment register (see diagram). The segment registers are CS (code segment), SS (stack segment), DS, ES, FS, GS (all data segments). The segmented model increases the addressable memory size to $2^{20} = 1Mbyte$. The segment and offset registers are combined in an unusual manner. The two registers are offset by four bits and added together to come up with a 20-bit address. This is the memory model used by DOS.

The only advantage to this mode was that it was very easy for developers to write their own device drivers. Once DOS loaded a program, it stayed out of the way and the program had full control of the CPU. The program can either let the BIOS handle the interrupts or handle them itself. This worked great for small programs which could fit into the available memory and did not require multi-tasking.

**BIOS:** Software in read–only–memory of the computer with basic device drivers and interrupt handlers for I/O devices (keyboard, drives, monitor, printer, mouse). BIOS is used when the computer is turned on to load the operating system. Modern operating systems (Unix, Linux, Windows) do not use the BIOS drivers once the operating system is running (booted).

For more demanding applications, the limitations of the real mode scheme were prohibitive. So beginning with the Intel 80286 processor, a protected mode was also available. In protected mode, these processors provide the following features:

**Protection:** Each program can be allocated a certain section of memory. Other programs cannot use
this memory, so each program is protected from interference from other programs.

**Extended memory:** Enables a single program to access more than 640K of memory.

**Virtual memory:** Expands the address space to 16 MB for 16–bit processors and 4 GB for 32–bit processors (80386 and later).

**Multitasking:** Enables the microprocessor to switch from one program to another so the computer can execute several programs at once.

In the **protected mode, segmented memory model**, the code segment contains an offset into the *global descriptor table*, where more details about the base address and memory protection / limits are stored. A special register called the *GDTR* points to the location of the GDT and the segment registers hold offsets pointing to the desired entry called a segment descriptor in the GDT (see diagram). The Minix OS uses a protected mode, segmented memory model. Minix boots into this mode and stays in protected mode. Very complicated articles can be found in literature and on the Internet describing how a DOS program can switch the processor to protected mode and then return to real mode when the program exits.

Modern x86 based operating systems (Windows and Linux) use a **protected mode, flat memory model** where the base memory addresses in the segment descriptors in the GDT are all set to the same value. This mode greatly simplifies things, making segmentation and memory protection a non-issue for programmers.

**Summary**

**4004** First Intel CPU - 4 bit.

**8088** 16 bit CPU with 8 bit external data bus. DOS ran in real mode with segments.

**8086** 16 bit CPU.

**80186** Used mainly with embedded systems. Added some new instructions.

**80286** Added protected mode. Some versions of Unix (SC0 Xenix, minix) used protected mode with segments.

**80386** 32 bit CPU. Windows 3.0, Linux used protected mode flat memory model.

**80486** Math co-processor now included on CPU.

**Pentium** Faster; later Pentiums have a RISC core processor.

**IA-64** aka Itanium - 64 bit processor.

**Addressing Modes**

The **addressing mode** refers to how operands are referenced in an assembly language instruction. We will use the mov instruction here to describe the available addressing modes of the x86 family of processors. The mov instruction copies data between two locations. It’s syntax is shown below — dest and source represent the operands. Data is copied from the source to the destination.
**Register Mode**  A register mode operand simply names a register. Both operands use register mode below. Here we copy the contents of register ECX to register EAX. Note that register names are not case sensitive in the assembly code.

```
mov EAX, ECX
```

**Immediate Mode**  An immediate mode operand is a constant listed directly in the code. Below, we use immediate mode with the second operand to store the value 10 in the EAX register. The immediate mode operand must be the source operand.

```
mov EAX, 10
```

**Register Indirect**  (On SPARC, this same mode is called *Register direct.*) Here we use a register to hold a pointer (address in main memory) of where data can be moved to or from. Both operands of an instruction can not be register indirect — one of the operands must be either register mode or immediate mode. Brackets are placed around the operand to indicate register indirect. In C language terminology, brackets may be viewed as the dereference operator. Some compilers use square brackets, others use parentheses.

```
mov [EAX], EDX ; contents of edx goes to address pointed to by eax.
mov ebx, [edx]  ; data at address pointed to by edx goes to ebx.

; the semicolon designates the beginning of a comment for some assemblers.
! other assemblers use the exclamation mark for comments.
```

**Base Displacement**  Constants or offsets of 8–, 16– or 32–bits may also be added to the contents of a register to come up with an effective address. As shown below, there are several forms of base displacement. The other operand combined with a base displacement operand must be either register mode or immediate mode.

```
mov EBX, 16[EBP] ; data at 16+EBP goes to EBX
mov ebx, [ebp+16] ; same as above
mov ebx, [ebp]16 ; same as above
mov [EDI][EBP], 10 ; 10 goes to EDI+EBP
mov [EDI][EBP+16], 18 ; 18 goes to EDI+EBP+16
```

The default operation with the `mov` instruction is to move 32– bits (double word) of data. Some compilers (MS Visual C++), specify the type of operation even if it is the default.

```
mov EAX, DWORD PTR [EBX]
```

There are actually several ways of specifying a smaller quantity of data to be copied. The following are all examples of instructions which copy 16–bits (word) of data.

```
mov EAX, WORD PTR [EBX]
mov AX, [EBX]
o16 mov -6(ebp), 3
```

The keyword `byte` or the 8–bit designation of a register may be used to copy 8 bits of data.
Basic Instructions

In the descriptions of the instructions, the following symbols are used to indicate the accepted addressing modes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator Type</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reg</td>
<td>register mode operand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immed</td>
<td>immediate mode operand (a constant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mem</td>
<td>operand is a memory address, either register indirect or base displacement operand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listed here are only the most commonly used instructions. Information on additional instructions can be found from the Intel manual (/pub/cis450/Pentium.pdf or /pub/cis450/x86Instructions.ps)

Data Movement Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mov</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>Copy data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>movb</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>movb copies one byte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>destination, source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mem, immed</td>
<td>destination is overwritten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>movsx</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>Copy data with sign extend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>movzx</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>Copy data with zero extend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>push</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>Copy data to the top of the stack (esp)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The stack pointer (ESP) is decremented by 4 bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pop</td>
<td>reg</td>
<td>Copy data from the top of the stack to a register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The stack pointer (ESP) is incremented by 4 bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lea</td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>Load a pointer (memory address) in a register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Integer Arithmetic Instructions

The destination register for all of these instructions must be one of the accumulator registers (EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>add</td>
<td>reg, reg; reg, immed; reg, mem</td>
<td>two's complement addition first operand is used as source and overwritten as destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
<td>reg, reg; reg, immed; reg, mem</td>
<td>two's complement subtraction first operand is used as source and overwritten as destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inc</td>
<td>reg</td>
<td>increment the value in register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dec</td>
<td>reg</td>
<td>decrement the value in register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg</td>
<td>reg</td>
<td>additive inverse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mul</td>
<td>EAX, reg; EAX, immed; EAX, mem</td>
<td>Unsigned multiply Some compilers tend to use imul instead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imul</td>
<td>reg, reg; reg, immed; reg, mem</td>
<td>Signed multiply, EAX*reg → EAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>div</td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>Unsigned divide EAX / reg,mem; EAX = quotient, EDX = remainder,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idiv</td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>Signed divide EAX / reg,mem; EAX = quotient, EDX = remainder,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Structure of an assembly language file**

In addition to the assembly instructions, there are a few other declarations in an assembly language program produced by a compiler.

Here we review the elements of an assembly language program. These notes are for the Minix assembler. There may be some variance with other assemblers.

**Segment declaration**

There are four different assembly segments: text, rom, data and bss. Segments are declared and selected by the `sect` pseudo-op. It is customary to declare all segments at the top of an assembly file like this:

```assembly
.sect .text; .sect .rom; .sect .data; .sect .bss
```

Then within the body of the code, segment declarations are used to begin the declarations for each segment. Note that the '.' symbol refers to the location in the current segment.

**Labels**

There are two types: name and numeric. Name labels consist of a name followed by a colon (:).

The numeric labels are single digits. The nearest 0: label may be referenced as 0f in the forward direction, or 0b backwards.
Statement Syntax

Each line consists of a single statement. Blank or comment lines are allowed.

The most general form of an instruction is

```
label: opcode operand1, operand2 ! comment
```

Local Variables and the Stack

The stack is used to store local variables. They may be put on the stack with either the `push` instruction or by first allocating space on the stack (subtract from `esp`) and then using the `mov` instruction to store data in the allocated space. Here we will show an example of how local variables are used from the stack.

Recall that the stack is upside down from how stacks are normally viewed in that the “top” of the stack has the lowest memory address of the stack data. The processor maintains a special register (ESP) which is a pointer to the memory address of the ‘top’ of the stack. Another important register associated with the stack is the frame pointer (EBP). The frame pointer is sort of a book-mark or reference point in the stack. Nearly all memory references are relative to the frame pointer. Management of the frame pointer is critical to how functions are called and more importantly, how the program returns to the calling function. Function calls will be covered in more detail later.

C compilers implement a restriction that each function may only access (i.e. scope) those elements on the stack which are within the function’s **Activation Record**. The Activation Record for each function includes the following:

- function parameters
- return address
- old frame pointer ← frame pointer (ebp)
- local variables ← stack pointer (esp)

To set up the frame pointer at the beginning of each function (including main), the following two lines of assembly code are used.

```
push ebp
mov ebp,esp
```

So first, the old frame pointer is pushed onto the stack for use when the function returns to the calling (parent) function. Then, since the old frame pointer is now at the top of the stack, we can use the pointer value in the `esp` register to copy a pointer to where the old frame pointer was stored to the `ebp` register, making this the new frame pointer.

Here is a simple example of how local variables in the stack are managed. Try to draw a memory map of the stack.

Function Calls and the Stack

The stack is also used to store data that is used for making calls to functions. Data is pushed onto the stack when a function is called and is removed from the stack when the function returns.
Recall that C compilers implement a restriction that each function may only access (i.e. scope) those elements on the stack which are within the function’s **Activation Record**. The Activation Record for each function includes the following:

- function parameters
- return address
- old frame pointer ← frame pointer (ebp)
- local variables ← stack pointer (esp)

The steps for a function are the same for every C function. It should be pointed out that this is the scheme used by compilers. Some assembly programmers follow this scheme for hand written assembly code. But many assembly programmers never worry about setting the frame pointer.

1. The calling function pushes the function parameters onto the stack prior to the function call.

2. The **call** instruction pushes the return address (EIP register) onto the stack which is used on function exit by the **ret** (return) instruction which loads the EIP register with this address.

3. The function (assembly code) pushes the old frame pointer onto the stack and sets the EBP register to point to this location on the stack.

   ```
   push ebp
   mov ebp,esp
   ```

4. During the execution of the function, the frame pointer is used as a reference point to the rest of the memory in the activation record. On function exit, the **leave** instruction loads the EBP register from this saved value so that when control returns to the calling function, the frame pointer is still correct.
5. Local variables are stored on the stack and are removed from the stack when the function exits.

6. If the function returns data to the calling function, the return value is placed in the EAX register.

7. The calling function removes and discards the function parameters when control is returned from the function.

8. The calling function looks to the EAX register for a return value.

```c
int main(void)
{
    ...
    f(a, b, c);
    ...
}

void f(int i, int j, int k)
{
    int x, y, z;
    ...
}
```

Some instructions related to function calls are:

- **call**
  1. push eip
  2. Jump to the new location (set eip to the location of the instructions for the called function).

- **leave**
  1. mov esp,ebp — throw away local variables
  2. pop ebp — set frame pointer back to old value

- **ret n**
  1. pop eip — set pc to return to calling function
  2. pop n words and discard — n is almost always 0.

Here is a more extensive example, again try to draw a memory map. Check your memory map with the memory map posted on the class web page for ar.c. This example includes examples of global and static data which are saved in the bss and data section of memory.
#include <stdio.h>

int gbss;
int gdata = 5;

int f( int, int, int );

int main(void)
{
    int lauto1, lauto2, lauto3;
    static int lbss;

    gbss = 10;
    lbss = 20;
    lauto1 = f( gdata, gbss, lbss );
    lauto2 = 5;
    lauto3 = 15;
    printf( "%d %d %d\n", lauto1, lauto2, lauto3 );
    printf( "%d\n", f( lauto3, lauto2, 5 ) );

    return 0;
}

int f( int a, int b, int c )
{
    static int d;
    int e;

    d += a + b + c;
    e = d*a;
    return e;
}

1 .sect .text; .sect .rom; .sect .data; .sect .bss
2 .extern _gdata
3 .sect .data
4 _gdata:
5 .extern _main
6 .data4 5 ! gdata = 5 in data section
7 .sect .text
8 _main:
9 push ebp ! save old frame pointer
10 mov ebp,esp ! new frame pointer goes to ebp
11 sub esp,4 ! lauto1 = -4(ebp)
12 push esi  ! lauto3 = esi -- note: register without asking
13 push edi  ! lauto2 = edi
14 .sect .bss
15 .comm I_1,4  ! 4 bytes in bss (I_1) for static int lbss
16 .sect .text
17 mov (_gbss),10  ! gbss = 10
18 mov edx,20
19 mov (I_1),edx  ! lbss (I_1) = edx = 20
20 push edx
21 push (_gbss)  ! push params in reverse order
22 push (_gdata)
23 call _f
24 add esp,12  ! remove params from stack
25 mov -4(ebp),eax  ! lauto1 = f(...) 
26 mov edi,5  ! lauto2 = 5
27 mov esi,15  ! lauto3 = 15
28 push esi
29 push edi  ! push params in reverse order
30 push -4(ebp)
31 push I_2  ! format ... "%d %d %d\n"
32 call _printf
33 add esp,16  ! remove params
34 push 5
35 push edi
36 push esi
37 call _f
38 add esp,12  ! remove params
39 push eax  ! push return value to stack
40 push I_3  ! format ... "%d\n"
41 call _printf
42 pop ecx  ! remove params, alternate to 'add esp,8'
43 pop ecx  ! return 0
44 xor eax,eax
45 pop edi  ! restore registers
46 pop esi
47 leave  ! restore old frame pointer from stack
48 ret  ! return address comes from stack
49 .sect .rom  ! rom is part of text
50 I_3:
51 .data4 680997  ! format ... "%d\n"
52 I_2:  ! format ... "%d %d %d\n"
53 .data4 622879781
54 .data4 1680154724
55 .extern _f
56 .data4 10
57 .sect .text
58 _f:
59 push ebp          ! save old frame pointer
60 mov ebp,esp       ! new frame pointer goes to ebp
61 sub esp,4         ! e = -4(ebp)
62 .sect .bss
63 .comm I_4,4       ! 4 bytes in bss (I_4) for static int d
64 .sect .text
65 mov edx,12(ebp)
66 add edx,8(ebp)    ! add parameters (a, b, c)
67 add edx,16(ebp)
68 add edx,(I_4)     ! d += a + b + c
69 mov (I_4),edx
70 imul edx,8(ebp)   ! edx = d*a
71 mov eax,edx       ! return e; note -- no need to save edx to -4(ebp)
72 leave             ! restore old frame pointer from stack
73 ret               ! return address comes from stack
74 .extern _gbss
75 .sect .bss
76 .comm _gbss,4     ! 4 bytes in bss for global int lbss
77 .sect .text

Additional Instructions

Logical Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
<td>reg</td>
<td>logical not (one's complement operation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>logical and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>logical or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xor</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>logical xor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cmp</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>Compare (dest - source)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>result in EFLAGS sf and zf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>see control instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mem, immed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test</td>
<td>reg, reg</td>
<td>logical and, EFLAGS set based on result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, mem</td>
<td>see control instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A logical shift moves the bits a set number of positions to the right or left. Positions which are not filled by the shift operation are filled with a zero bit. An arithmetic shift does the same, except the sign bit is always retained. This variation allows a shift operation to provide a quick mechanism to either multiply or divide 2’s–complement numbers by 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sal</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>arithmetic shift left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shl</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>logical shift left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sar</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>arithmetic shift right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shr</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>logical shift right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rol</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>rotate shift left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ror</td>
<td>reg, immed</td>
<td>rotate shift right</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example: Multiply and Divide by multiple of 2

Control Instructions

The following instructions are used to implement various control constructs (if, while, do while, for). Conditional branch instructions follow a cmp or test instruction and evaluate the sign and zero flag (SF, ZF) bit in the EFLAGS register. For each of these instructions, the operand is the name of a label found in the assembly code.

See the notes below on control flow for examples of how they are used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
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<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jmp</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>unconditional jump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jg</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if greater than zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jnle</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if greater than or equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jge</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if greater than or equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jl</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if less than zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jnge</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if less than or equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jle</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if less than or equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jng</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if not zero</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iterative Instructions

The above control instructions can be used to implement looping constructs, but there are also some special instructions just for the purpose of looping.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>loop</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>decrement ecx and if ecx is not equal to zero, jump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loope</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if ZF in EFLAGS is set and ecx is not equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ecx is decremented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loopne</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>jump if ZF in EFLAGS is not set and ecx is not equal to zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ecx is decremented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rep</td>
<td>instruction</td>
<td>execute the instruction and decrement ecx until ecx is zero.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

String Handling Instructions

These instructions are all used to copy data from one string to another. In each case the source location is the address in esi while destination is the address in edi. After the move, the esi and edi registers are either incremented and decremented by the appropriate amount depending on the direction flag (DF) in the EFLAGS register. If DF is 0 (CLD instruction was executed), the registers are incremented. If DF is 1 (STD instruction was executed), the registers are decremented.
### Instruction | Notes
--- | ---
movs | move one byte from [esi] to [edi]
movsb | move one word (2 bytes) from [esi] to [edi]
movsw | move one double word (4 bytes) from [esi] to [edi]
movsd | move one double word (4 bytes) from [esi] to [edi]

Here is a quick example:

```
lea edi, -20(ebp)  ! destination
lea esi, -40(ebp)  ! source
mov ecx,10         ! copy 10 bytes
cld                ! increment esi and edi
rep movsb          ! move 10 bytes, one at a time
```

### Miscellaneous Instructions

### Instruction | Notes
--- | ---
cld | Clear the direction flag; used with string movement instructions
std | Set the direction flag; used with string movement instructions
cli | Clear or disable interrupts; Reserved for the OS
sti | Set or enable interrupts; Reserved for the OS
nop | no operation, used to make a memory location addressable
Input/Output Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>acc,port</td>
<td>Read data in and save to eax, ax or al. The port is the base memory address for the hardware being read from (eg., a sound card).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
<td>acc,port</td>
<td>Write data in eax, ax or al to an I/O port.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insb</td>
<td>acc,port</td>
<td>Read string data in and save to memory. The I/O port is taken from the edx register (eg., a keyboard or serial port). The destination is taken from the edi register. If used in a loop or with rep, the destination address is incremented or decremented depending on the direction flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insw</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outsb</td>
<td></td>
<td>Write string data from memory to I/O port. The I/O port is taken from the edx register (eg., a keyboard or serial port). The source is taken from the esi register. If used in a loop or with rep, the source address is incremented or decremented depending on the direction flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outsw</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Control Flow

In assembly language, the instructions used to implement control constructs is the various forms of the jump instructions. This is usually accomplished with a comparison (cmp) instruction to evaluate a logical expression following a conditional jump instruction.

if block

```plaintext
if( expr ) {
    body
}
```
Note that in the assembly language code, the jump is made if we will *not* execute the body; therefore, the jump statement chosen tests if the expr evaluates to false.

```assembly
PUBLIC _main
.TEXT SEGMENT
_a$ = -4
_b$ = -8
_c$ = -12
_main PROC NEAR

; 3 : {
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    sub esp, 12
    push ebx
    push esi
    push edi

    ; 4 : int a, b, c;
    ; 5 :
    ; 6 : if (a <= 17) {
    cmp DWORD PTR _a$[ebp], 17
    jg $L28

    ; 7 : a = a - b;
    xor eax, eax ; 0 -> eax
    sub eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]

    ; 8 : c++;
    inc DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]

    ; 9 : }
    ; 10 : }
    pop edi
    pop esi
    pop ebx
    leave
    ret 0

_main ENDP
_TEXT ENDS
END
```

```
if else

if( expr ) {
    body1
} else {
    body2
}
```
main()
{
    int a, b, c;

    if (a <= 17) {
        a = a - b;
        c++;
    } else {
        b = a;
        c = b;
    }
}

PUBLIC _main
_TEXT SEGMENT
_a$ = -4
_b$ = -8
_c$ = -12
_main PROC NEAR

while loop

while( expr ) {
    body
}

main()
{
    int a, b, c;
    while (a <= 17) {
        a = a - b;
        c++;
    }
}

PUBLIC _main
_TEXT SEGMENT
_a$ = -4
_b$ = -8
_c$ = -12
_main PROC NEAR

; 2 : {
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 12
push ebx
push esi
push edi
$L29:

; 3 : int a, b, c;
; 4 :
; 5 : while (a <= 17) {
cmp DWORD PTR _a$[ebp], 17
jg $L30

; 6 : a = a - b;
xor eax, eax
sub eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
neg eax
sub DWORD PTR _a$[ebp], eax

; 7 : c++;
inc DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]

; 8 : }
jmp $L29
$L30:
$L24:

; 9 : }
}

pop edi
do loop

do {
  body
} while( expr );

main()
{
  int a, b, c;

do  {
    a = a - b;
  c++;
} while (a <= 17);
}
for loop

for( expr1; expr2; expr3 {
    body
}

main()
{
    int a, b, c;
    int i;

    for (i = 1; i <= 17; i++) {
        a = a - b;
        c++;
    }
}
Switch statements are implemented differently depending on the number of branches (case statements) in the switch structure.

In the following example, the number of branches is small and the compiler puts the test variable on the stack at `-12[ebp]` and uses a sequence of `cmp` and jump statements.

```c
main()
{
  int i;
  int j;

  switch(i) {
    case 1: j = 1; break;
    case 2: j = 2; break;
    case 3: j = 3; break;
    default: j = 4;
  }
}
```

```assembly
PUBLIC _main
_TEXT SEGMENT
_i$ = -4
_j$ = -8
_main PROC NEAR
; 2 : {
     push ebp
     mov ebp, esp
     sub esp, 12
     push ebx
     push esi
     push edi
     ; 3 : int i;
     ; 4 : int j;
     ; 5 :
     ; 6 : switch(i) {
     mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
     jmp $L27
     ; 7 : case 1: j = 1; break;
     mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 1
     jmp $L28
     ; 8 : case 2: j = 2; break;
     mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 2
     jmp $L28
     ; 9 : case 3: j = 3; break;
     mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 3
     jmp $L28
     ; 10 : default: j = 4;
     mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 4
     jmp $L28
     ; 11 : }
     cmp DWORD PTR -12+[ebp], 1
     ret 0
}
_TEXT ENDS
END
```

### switch

Switch statements are implemented differently depending on the number of branches (case statements) in the switch structure.

In the following example, the number of branches is small and the compiler puts the test variable on the stack at `-12[ebp]` and uses a sequence of `cmp` and jump statements.
The following example, which has a few more branches, uses a simple jump table to determine which branch to take. This code also fills an area of the stack from -76[ebp] to -13[ebp] with alternating ones and zeros (0xcccccccc). I do not know why this is done. It does not appear to accomplish anything.

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main()
{
    int i;
    int j;

    switch(i) {
    case 1: j = 1; break;
    case 3: j = 3; break;
    case 8: j = 8; break;
    case 6: j = 6; break;
    case 2: j = 2; break;
    case 7: j = 7; break;
    case 4: j = 4; break;
    default: j = 9; break;
    }
}
```
In the next example, the values in the case statements are not close together, so the compiler uses a two stage jump table. One table hold an index into the second table which lists the location to jump to.

```c
int main()
{
    int i;
    int j;

    switch(i) {
        case 10: j = 1; break;
        case 33: j = 3; break;
        case 85: j = 8; break;
        case 66: j = 6; break;
        case 20: j = 2; break;
        case 79: j = 7; break;
        case 41: j = 4; break;
        default: j = 9; break;
    }
}
```
`main PROC NEAR

push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 76
push ebx
push esi
push edi
lea edi, DWORD PTR [ebp-76]
mov ecx, 19
mov eax, -858993460
rep stosd

; 3 : int i;
; 4 : int j;
; 5 :
; 6 : switch(i) {
  mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
  mov DWORD PTR -12+[ebp], eax
  mov ecx, DWORD PTR -12+[ebp]
  sub ecx, 10
  cmp DWORD PTR -12+[ebp], 75
  ja SHORT $L44
  mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
  mov DWORD PTR -12+[ebp], eax
  xor edx, edx
  mov dl, BYTE PTR $L49[eax]
  jmp DWORD PTR $L50[edx*4]
}

; 7 : case 10: j = 1; break;

mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 1
jmp SHORT $L34

$L38:

pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
jmp SHORT $L34

$L39:
ret 0

$L40:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 8
jmp SHORT $L34

$L41:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 6
jmp SHORT $L34

$L42:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 2
jmp SHORT $L34

$L43:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 7
jmp SHORT $L34

$L44:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 4
jmp SHORT $L34

$L45:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 9
jmp SHORT $L34

$L46:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 1
jmp SHORT $L34

$L47:
mov DWORD PTR _j$[ebp], 3
jmp SHORT $L34

$L48:
ret 0

`
95  DD $L37 ; entry 0 - case 10
96  DD $L41 ; case 20
97  DD $L38 ; case 33
98  DD $L43 ; case 41
99  DD $L40 ; case 66
100 DD $L42 ; case 79
101 DD $L39 ; case 85
102 DD $L44 ; entry 7, default
103 $L49:
104  DB 0 ; 10
105  DB 7
106  DB 7
107  DB 7
108  DB 7
109  DB 7
110  DB 7
111  DB 7
112  DB 7
113  DB 7
114  DB 1 ; 20
115  DB 7
116  DB 7
117  DB 7
118  DB 7
119  DB 7
120  DB 7
121  DB 7
122  DB 7
123  DB 7
124  DB 7
125  DB 7
126  DB 7
127  DB 2 ; 33
128  DB 7
129  DB 7
130  DB 7
131  DB 7
132  DB 7
133  DB 7
134  DB 7
135  DB 3 ; 41
136  DB 7
137  DB 7
138  DB 7
139  DB 7
140  DB 7
141  DB 7
142  DB 7
143  DB 7
144  DB 7
145  DB 7
146  DB 7
147  DB 7
148  DB 7
149  DB 7
150  DB 7
151  DB 7
152  DB 7
153  DB 7
154  DB 7
155  DB 7
156  DB 7
157  DB 7
158  DB 7
159  DB 7
160  DB 4 ; 66
161  DB 7
162  DB 7
163  DB 7
164  DB 7
165  DB 7
166  DB 7
167  DB 7
168  DB 7
169  DB 7
170  DB 7
171  DB 7
172  DB 7
173  DB 5 ; 79
174  DB 7
175  DB 7
176  DB 7
177  DB 7
178  DB 7
179  DB 6 ; 85
180  _main ENDP
181  _TEXT ENDS
182  END
void main()
{
    int a, b;
    int i;

    for (i = 1; i <= 17; i++) {
        if (a == 0) continue;
        if (b == 0) break;
    }

    while (i <= 17) {
        if (a == 0) continue;
        if (b == 0) break;
    }

    do {
        if (a == 0) continue;
        if (b == 0) break;
    } while (i <= 17);
}
Floating Point Arithmetic

The floating point arithmetic unit, called the floating point unit (FPU), contains eight registers which function as a stack machine. The register which is currently at the top of the stack is referred to as ST. All floating point instructions specify operands relative to ST.
### Floating Point Arithmetic Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Operands</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>finit</td>
<td></td>
<td>initialize the FPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fld</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Push data onto the FPU stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fldz</td>
<td></td>
<td>Push 0.0 onto the FPU stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fst</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Store ST (top of stack) to memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fstp</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Store ST to memory and pop ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fadd</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Add data to ST and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fsub</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Subtract data from ST and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fsubr</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Subtract ST from data and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fmul</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Multiply data with ST and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fdiv</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Divide ST by data and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fdivr</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Divide data by ST and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frndint</td>
<td></td>
<td>Round ST to an integer and store result in ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fchs</td>
<td></td>
<td>Change the sign of ST (ST = -ST)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fcom</td>
<td>mem</td>
<td>Compare floating point values, setting FPU flags C0–C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ftst</td>
<td></td>
<td>Compare ST to 0.0, setting FPU flags C0–C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ftsw</td>
<td>AX</td>
<td>Copy FPU status word to AX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following example was generated using the Linux gcc compiler\(^1\); however, to avoid confusion, I changed the instruction names and the operand order to be consistent with Intel’s Manual and other x86 C compilers.

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    float pi=3.14159;
    float r = 0.25;
    printf("%f\n", pi*r*r);
    return 0;
}
```

\(^1\) “gcc -S foo.c” will generate assembly code in foo.s
jmp .L1
.p2align 4,,7
.L1:
leave
ret
size main,.Lfe1-main
.ident "GCC: (GNU) egcs-2.91.66 19990314/Linux"