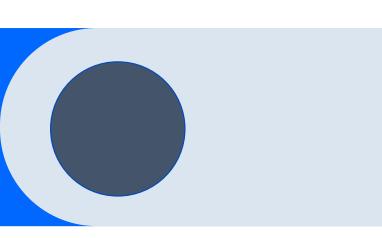
Computer Architecture

2nd Class, Computer Science Dept.

By Dr. Ahmed Al-Taie,





Chapter 3 Assembly Language Programming Outline

- A Simple Machine
- Instructions Mnemonics and Syntax
- Assembler Directives and Commands
- Assembly and Execution of Programs
- Example: The X86 Family



- As you know by now, a program written in
 assembly language needs to be translated into binary machine language before it can
 be executed.
- In this section, we will learn how to get from the point of writing an assembly program to
 the execution phase.
 - Figure 3.3 shows three steps in the assembly and execution process.
 - The assembler reads the source program in assembly language and generates the object program in binary form.
 - The object program is passed to the linker.

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- As you know by now, a program written in The linker will check the object file for calls to assembly language needs to be translated procedures in the link library.
 - The linker will combine the required procedures from the link library with the object program and produce the executable program.
 - **The loader** loads the executable program into memory and branches the CPU to the starting address. The program begins execution.

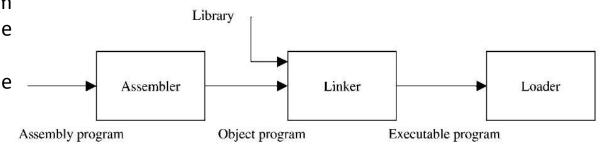


Figure 3.3 Assembly and execution process

Assemblers:

- Assemblers are programs that generate machine code instructions from a source code program written in assembly language.
- The assembler will replace symbolic addresses by numeric addresses, replace symbolic operation codes by machine operation codes, reserve storage for instructions and data, and translate constants into machine representation.



- The functions of the assembler can be performed by scanning the assembly program and mapping its instructions to their machine code equivalent.
- Since symbols can be used in instructions before they are defined in later ones, a single scanning of the program might not be enough to perform the mapping.
- A simple assembler scans the entire assembly program twice, where each scan is called a pass. During the first pass, it generates a table that includes all symbols and their binary values.
- This table is called the symbol table.
- During the second pass, the assembler will use the symbol table and other tables to generate the object program, and output some information that will be needed by the linker.

- Data Structures: The assembler uses at least three tables to perform its functions: symbol table, opcode table, and pseudo instruction table.
- The symbol table, which is generated in pass one, has an entry for every symbol in the program.
- Associated with each symbol are its binary value and other information.

TABLE 3.5Symbol Table for the MultiplicationSegment (Example 2)

Symbol	Value (hexadecimal)	Other information
Loop	004	
EXIT	01E	
X	020	
Y	022	
Z	024	
ONE	026	
N	028	

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- We assume that the instruction LD X is starting at location 0 in the memory.
- Since each instruction takes two bytes, the value of the symbol LOOP is 4 (004 in hexadecimal).
- Symbol N, for example, will be stored at decimal location 40 (028 in hexadecimal).
- The values of the other symbols can be obtained in a similar way.
- The **opcode table** provides information about the **operation codes**.

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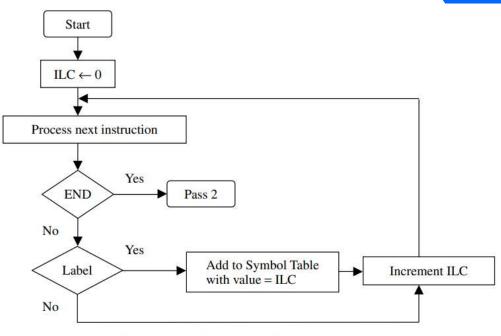
- Associated with each symbolic opcode in the table are its Numerical value and other information about its type, its instruction length, and its operands.
- **Table 3.6** shows the **opcode Table** for the simple processor described in Section 3.1.

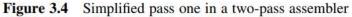
Opcode	Operand	Opcode value (binary)	Instruction length (bytes)	Instruction type
STOP		0000	2	Control
LD	Mem-adr	0001	2	Memory-reference
ST	Mem-adr	0010	2	Memory-reference
MOVAC	_	0011	2	Register-reference
MOV	·	0100	2	Register-reference
ADD		0101	2	Register-reference
SUB		0110	2	Register-reference
AND		0111	2	Register-reference
NOT		1000	2	Register-reference
BRA	Mem-adr	1001	2	Control
BZ	Mem-adr	1010	2	Control

TABLE 3.6 The Opcode Table for the Assembly of our Simple Processor

- As an example, we explain the information associated with the opcode LD.
- It has one operand, which is a memory address and its binary value is 0001.
- The **instruction length** of **LD** is **2 bytes** and its type is memory-reference.
- The entries of the pseudo instruction table are the pseudo instructions symbols.
- Each entry refers the assembler to a procedure that processes the pseudo instruction when encountered in the program.
- For example, if END is encountered, the translation process is terminated.

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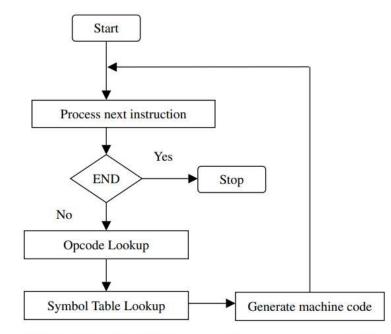


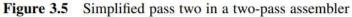
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- In order to keep track of the instruction locations,
 the assembler maintains a variable called instruction location counter (ILC).
- The ILC contains the value of memory location assigned to the instruction or operand being processed.
- The ILC is initialized to 0 and is incremented after processing each instruction.
- The ILC is incremented by the length of the instruction being processed, or the number of bytes allocated as a result of a data allocation pseudo instruction.
- Figures 3.4 and 3.5 show simplified flowcharts of pass one and pass two in a two-pass assembler.

Remember that the main function of pass one is to build the symbol table while pass two's main function is to generate the object code.

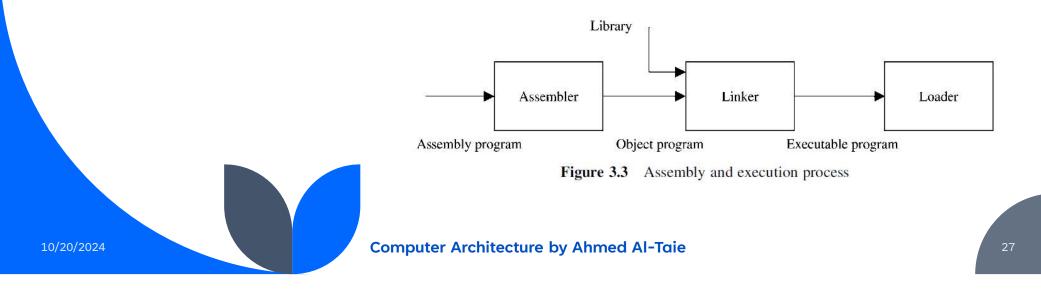




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Linker and Loader

- The linker is the entity that can combine object modules that may have resulted from assembling multiple assembly modules separately.
- The loader is the operating system utility that reads (loads) the executable into memory and start execution.
- In summary, after assembly modules are translated into object modules, the functions of the linker and loader prepare the program for execution.
- These functions include combining object modules together, resolving addresses unknown at assembly time, allocating storage, and finally executing the program.



- In this section, we discuss the assembly language features and use of the X86 family.
- We present the basic organizational features of the system, the basic programming model, the addressing modes, sample of the different instruction types used, and finally examples showing how to use the assembly language of the system in programming sample real-life problems.
- In the late 1970s, Intel introduced the 8086 as its first 16-bit microprocessor.
- This processor has a **16-bit external bus**.
- The **8086 evolved into a series of faster** and **more powerful processors starting with** the **80286** and **ending with** the **Pentium.**
- The latter was introduced in 1993.

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• This Intel family of processors is usually called the X86 family.

• Table 3.7 summarizes the main features of the main members of such a family.

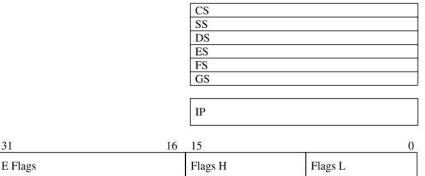
Feature	8086	286	386	486	Pentium
Date introduced	1978	1982	1985	1991	1993
Data bus	8 bits	16 bits	32 bits	32 bits	64 bits
Address bus	20 bits	24 bits	32 bits	32 bits	32 bits
Operating speed	5,8,10 MHz	6,8,10, 12.5,	16, 20, 25, 33,	25, 33,	50, 60, 66,
		16, 20 MHz	40, 50 MHz	50 MHz	100 MHz
Instruction cache size	NA	NA	16 bytes	32 bytes	8 Kbytes
Data cache size	NA	NA	256 bytes	8 Kbytes	8 Kbytes
Physical memory	1 Mbytes	16 Mbytes	4 Gbytes	4 Gbytes	4 Gbytes
Data word size	16 bits	16 bits	16 bits	32 bits	32 bits

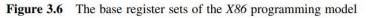
 TABLE 3.7
 Main Features of the Intel X86 Microprocessor Family

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- The Intel Pentium processor has about ٠ million transistors three and its computational power ranges between two and five times that of its predecessor processor, the 80486.
- A number of new features were introduced • in the Pentium processor, among which is the incorporation of a dual-pipelined architecture superscalar capable of processing more than one instruction per clock cycle.
- The basic programming model of the 386, ٠ 486, and the Pentium is shown in Figure 3.6.

31	16 15	8	7	0
EAX	AH		AL	
EBX	ВН		BL	
ECX	СН		CL	
EDX	DH		DL	
ESI	SI			
EDI	DI	DI		
ESP		SP		
EBP		BP		

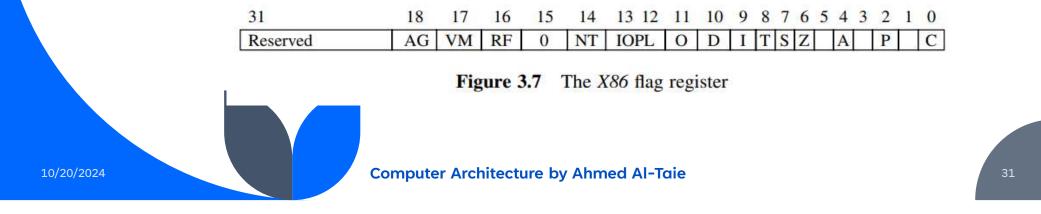




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- It consists of three register groups.
- These are the **general purpose registers**, the **segment registers**, and the **instruction pointer** (**program counter**) and **the flag register**.
- The first set consists of general purpose registers A, B, C, D, SI (source index), DI (destination index), SP (stack pointer), and BP (base pointer).
- It should be noted that in **naming these registers**, we used **X** to indicate **eXtended**.
- The second set of registers consists of CS (code segment), SS (stack segment), and four data segment registers DS, ES, FS, and GS.
- The third set of registers consists of the instruction pointer (program counter) and the flags (status) register. The latter is shown in Figure 3.7.



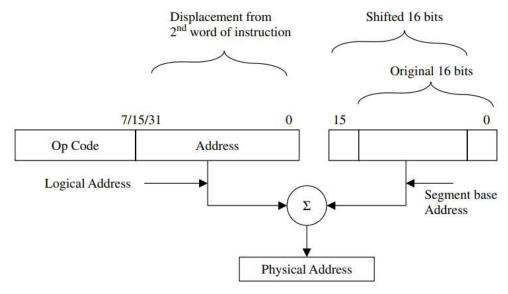
- Among the status bits shown in Figure 3.7, the first five are identical to those bits introduced as early as in the 8085 8-bit microprocessor. The next 6- 11 bits are identical to those introduced in the 8086.
- The flags in the bits 12– 14 were introduced in the 80286 while the 16 –17 bits were introduced in the 80386. The flag in bit 18 was introduced in the 80486. Table 3.8 shows the meaning of those flags.
- In the X86 family an instruction can perform an operation on one or two operands.
- In two-operand instructions, the second operand can be immediate data in 2's complement format. Data transfer, arithmetic and logical instructions can act on immediate data, registers, or memory locations.

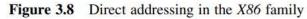
Flag	Meaning	Processor	Flag	Meaning	Processor
С	Carry	All	Р	Parity	All
A	Auxiliary	All	Z	Zero	All
S	Sign	All	Т	Trap	All
I	Interrupt	All	D	Direction	A11
0	Overflow	All	IOPL	I/O privilege level	286
NT	Nested task	286	RF	Resume	386
VM	Virtual mode	386	AC	Alignment check	486

TABLE 3.8	X86 Status Flags
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- In the X86 family, direct and indirect memory addressing can be used.
- In direct addressing, a displacement address consisting of a 8-, 16-, or 32-bit word is used as the logical address.
- This logical address is added to the shifted contents of the segment register (segment base address) to give a physical memory address.
- Figure 3.8 illustrates the direct addressing process.





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- Address indirection in the X86 family can be obtained using the content of a base pointer register (BPR), the content of an index register, or the sum of a base register and an index register.
- Figure 3.9 illustrates indirect addressing using the BPR. The X86 family of processors defines a number of instruction types.
- Using the naming convention introduced before, these instruction types are data movement, arithmetic and logic, and sequencing (control transfer).
- In addition, the X86 family defines other instruction types such as string manipulation, bit manipulation, and high-level language support.

Shifted 16 bits Displacement from 2nd word of instruction Original 16 bits 7/15/31 0 15 Op Code Address Segment base Address å BPR Physical Address



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Logical Address

0

- Data movement instructions in the X86 family include mainly four subtypes.
- These are the **general-purpose**, **accumulator-specific**, **address-object**, and **flag instructions**. A sample of these instructions is shown in **Table 3.9**.

Mnemonic	Operation	Subtype
MOV	Move source to destination	General purpose
POP	Pop source from stack	General purpose
POPA	Pop all	General purpose
PUSH	Push source onto stack	General purpose
PUSHA	Push all	General purpose
XCHG	Exchange source with destination	General purpose
IN	Input to accumulator	Accumulator
OUT	Output from accumulator	Accumulator
XLAT	Table lookup to translate byte	Accumulator
LEA	Load effective address in register	Address-object
LMSW	Load machine status word	Address-object
SMSW	Store machine status word	Address-object
POPF	Pop flags off stack	Flag
PUSHF	Push flags onto stack	Flag

TABLE 3.9 Sample of the X86 Data Movement Instructions

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- Arithmetic and logic instructions in the X86 family include mainly five subtypes.
- These are addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and logic instructions.
- A sample of the arithmetic instructions is shown in Table 3.10.

Mnemonic	Operation	Subtype
ADD	Add source to destination	Addition
ADC	Add source to destination with carry	Addition
INC	Increment operand by 1	Addition
SUB	Subtract source from destination	Subtraction
SBB	Subtract source from destination with borrow	Subtraction
DEC	Decrement operand by 1	Subtraction
MUL	Unsigned multiply source by destination	Multiply
IMUL	Signed multiply source by destination	Multiply
DIV	Unsigned division accumulator by source	Division
IDIV	Signed division accumulator by source	Division

TABLE 3.10 Sample of the X86 Arithmetic Instructions

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- Logic instructions include the typical AND, OR, NOT, XOR, and TEST.
- The latter **performs a logic compare** of **the source and the destination** and **sets the flags accordingly.**
- In addition, the X86 family has a set of shift and rotate instructions.
- A sample of these is shown in Table 3.11.

Mnemonic	Operation	
ROR	Rotate right	
ROL	Rotate left	
RCL	Rotate left through carry	
RCR	Rotate right through carry	
SAR	Arithmetic shift right	
SAL	Arithmetic shift left	
SHR	Logic shift right	
SHL	Logic shift left	

 TABLE 3.11
 Sample of the X86 Shift and Rotate

 Instructions
 Instructions

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- Control transfer instructions in the X86 family include mainly four subtypes.
- These are conditional, iteration, interrupt, and unconditional.
- A sample of these instructions is shown in Table 3.12.

Mnemonic	Operation	Subtype
SET	Set byte to true or false based on condition	Conditional
JS	Jump if sign	Conditional
LOOP	Loop if CX does not equal zero	Iteration
LOOPE	Loop if CX does not equal zero & $ZF = 1$	Iteration
INT	Interrupt	Interrupt
IRET	Interrupt return	Interrupt
JMP	Jump unconditional	Unconditional
RET	Return from procedure	Unconditional

TABLE 3.12 Sample of the X86 Control Transfer Instructions

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- Processor control instructions in the X86 family include mainly three subtypes.
- These are external synchronization, flag manipulation, and general control instructions.
- A sample of these instructions is shown in Table 3.13.
- Having introduced the basic features of the instruction set of the X86 processor family, we now move on to present a number of programming examples to show how the instruction set can be used.
- The examples presented are the same as those presented at the end of Chapter 2.

Mnemonic	Operation	Subtype
HLT	Halt	External sync
LOCK	Lock the bus	External sync
CLC	Clear carry flag	Flag
CLI	Clear interrupt flag	Flag
STI	Set interrupt flag	Flag
INVD	Invalidate data cache	General control

TABLE 3.13 Sample of the X86 Processor Control Instructions

- Example 3: Adding 100 numbers stored at consecutive memory locations starting at location 1000, the results should be stored in memory location 2000.
- LIST is defined as an array of N elements each of size byte.

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- FLAG is a memory variable used to indicate whether the list has been sorted or not.
- The register CX is used as a counter with the Loop instruction.
- The Loop instruction decrements the CX register and branch if the result is not zero.
- The addressing mode used to access the array List [BX + 1] is called based addressing mode.
- It should be noted that since we are using **BX** and **BX** + 1 the **CX counter** is **loaded** with the value 999 in order **not to exceed the list**.

MOV CX, 1000 - 1 ; Counter = CX (1000 - 1) MOV BX, Offset LIST ; BX pointer to LIST CALL SORT.....

SORT PROC NEAR

Again: MOV FLAG, 0; FLAG 0

Next: MOV AL, [BX]

CMP AL, [BX + 1] ;Compare current and next values JLE Skip ;Branch if current , next values XCHG AL, [BX + 1] ;If not, Swap the contents of the MOV [BX + 1], AL ;current location with the next one

MOV FLAG, 1 ;Indicate the swap

Skip: INC BX ; BX = BX + 1

LOOP Next ;Go to next value

CMP FLAG, 1 ;Was there any swap

JE Again **;If yes Repeat process**

RET

SORT ENDP



- Example 4: Here we implement the SEARCH algorithm in the 8086 instruction set.
- LIST is defined as an array of N elements each of size word.
- FLAG is a memory variable used to indicate whether the list has been sorted or not.
- The **register CX** is used as a **counter** with the **loop instruction**.
- The Loop instruction decrements the CX register and branch if the result is not zero.
- The addressing mode used to access the array List [BX + 1] is called based addressing mode

MOV CX, 1000 ; Counter = CX + 1000 MOV BX, Offset LIST ; BX pointer to LIST MOV SI, 0 ; SI used as an index MOV AX, VAL ; AX <- VAL CALL SEARCH

...... ; Test FLAG to check whether value found

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SEARCH PROC NEAR

MOV FLAG, 0 ; FLAG <-0 Next: CMP AX, [BX+SI] ;Compare current value to VAL JE Found ;Branch if equal ADD SI, 2 ; SI SI+2, next value LOOP Next ;Go to next value JMP Not_Found Found: MOV FLAG, 1 ;Indicate value found MOV POSITION, SI ;Return index of value in List Not Found: RET

SEARCH ENDP

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Example 5: This is the same as Example 4 but using the stack features of the X86.

PUSH DS ;See Table 3.9 MOV CX, 1000 ;Counter = CX =1000 MOV BX, OFFSET LIST ;Point to beginning of LIST PUSH BX PUSH VAL ;VAL is a word variable CALL SEARCH ;Test FLAG to check whether value found ;If found get index from SI register using POP SI



.

SEARCH PROC NEAR

POP TEMP ;Save IP POP AX ;AX VAL. Value to search for POP SI ;SI OFFSET LIST and let BX =SI POP ES ;Make ES = DS (See Table) CLD ;Set auto-increment mode REPNE SCASW ;Scan LIST for value in AX if not found; increment SI by 2, decrement CX and if; not zero scan next location in LIST. ;If occurrence found Zero flag is set JNZ Not_Found ;If value not branch to Not_Found? MOV FLAG, 1 ;Yes SUB SI, BX PUSH SI ;Save position Not_Found: PUSH TEMP ;Restore IP RET

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SEARCH ENDP

Thank you

