

## UNIT II

### Addressing Modes, Instruction Set and Programming of 8086

#### Addressing Modes of 8086:

Addressing mode indicates a way of locating data or operands. Depending up on the data type used in the instruction and the memory addressing modes, any instruction may belong to one or more addressing modes or same instruction may not belong to any of the addressing modes.

The addressing mode describes the types of operands and the way they are accessed for executing an instruction. According to the flow of instruction execution, the instructions may be categorized as

1. Sequential control flow instructions and
2. Control transfer instructions.

Sequential control flow instructions are the instructions which after execution, transfer control to the next instruction appearing immediately after it (in the sequence) in the program. For example the arithmetic, logic, data transfer and processor control instructions are Sequential control flow instructions.

The control transfer instructions on the other hand transfer control to some predefined address or the address somehow specified in the instruction, after their execution. For example INT, CALL, RET & JUMP instructions fall under this category.

The addressing modes for Sequential and control flow instructions are explained as follows.

#### 1. Immediate addressing mode:

In this type of addressing, immediate data is a part of instruction, and appears in the form of successive byte or bytes.

**Example:** MOV AX, 0005H.

In the above example, 0005H is the immediate data. The immediate data may be 8-bit or 16-bit in size.

#### 2. Direct addressing mode:

In the direct addressing mode, a 16-bit memory address (offset) directly specified in the instruction as a part of it.

**Example:** MOV AX, [5000H].

#### 3. Register addressing mode:

In the register addressing mode, the data is stored in a register and it is referred using the particular register. All the registers, except IP, may be used in this mode.

**Example:** MOV BX, AX

#### 4. Register indirect addressing mode:

Sometimes, the address of the memory location which contains data or operands is determined in an indirect way, using the offset registers. The mode of addressing is known as register indirect mode.

In this addressing mode, the offset address of data is in either BX or SI or DI Register. The default segment is either DS or ES.

**Example:** MOV AX, [BX].

### 5. Indexed addressing mode:

In this addressing mode, offset of the operand is stored one of the index registers. DS & ES are the default segments for index registers SI & DI respectively.

**Example:** MOV AX, [SI]

Here, data is available at an offset address stored in SI in DS.

### 6. Register relative addressing mode:

In this addressing mode, the data is available at an effective address formed by adding an 8-bit or 16-bit displacement with the content of any one of the register BX, BP, SI & DI in the default (either in DS & ES) segment.

**Example:** MOV AX, 50H [BX]

### 7. Based indexed addressing mode:

The effective address of data is formed in this addressing mode, by adding content of a base register (any one of BX or BP) to the content of an index register (any one of SI or DI). The default segment register may be ES or DS.

**Example:** MOV AX, [BX][SI]

### 8. Relative based indexed:

The effective address is formed by adding an 8 or 16-bit displacement with the sum of contents of any of the base registers (BX or BP) and any one of the index registers, in a default segment.

**Example:** MOV AX, 50H [BX] [SI]

For the control transfer instructions, the addressing modes depend upon whether the destination location is within the same segment or in a different one. It also depends upon the method of passing the destination address to the processor. Basically, there are two addressing modes for the control transfer instructions, viz. Inter segment and intra segment addressing modes.

If the location to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment other than the current one, the mode is called intersegment mode. If the destination location lies in the same segment, the mode is called intrasegment mode.

#### Addressing Modes for control transfer instructions:

1. Intersegment
  - Intersegment direct
  - Intersegment indirect
2. Intrasegment
  - Intrasegment direct
  - Intrasegment indirect

#### 1. Intersegment direct:

In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred is in a different segment. This addressing mode provides a means of branching from one code segment to another code segment. Here, the CS and IP of the destination address are specified directly in the instruction.

**Example:** JMP 5000H, 2000H; jump to effective address 2000H in segment 5000H.

#### 2. Intersegment indirect:

In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment and it is passed to the instruction indirectly, i.e. contents of a memory block containing four bytes, i.e. IP(LSB), IP(MSB), CS(LSB) and CS(MSB) sequentially. The starting address of the memory block may be referred using any of the addressing modes, except immediate mode.

**Example: JMP [2000H].**

Jump to an address in the other segment specified at effective address 2000H in DS.

### **3. Intra-segment direct mode:**

In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in the same segment in which the control transfer instruction lies and appears directly in the instruction as an immediate displacement value. In this addressing mode, the displacement is computed relative to the content of the instruction pointer.

The effective address to which the control will be transferred is given by the sum of 8 or 16 bit displacement and current content of IP. In case of jump instruction, if the signed displacement (d) is of 8-bits (i.e.  $-128 < d < +127$ ), it is termed as short jump and if it is of 16 bits (i.e.  $-32768 < d < +32767$ ), it is termed as long jump.

**Example: JMP SHORT LABEL.**

### **4. Intra-segment indirect mode:**

In this mode, the displacement to which the control is to be transferred is in the same segment in which the control transfer instruction lies, but it is passed to the instruction directly. Here, the branch address is found as the content of a register or a memory location.

This addressing mode may be used in unconditional branch instructions.

**Example: JMP [BX];** Jump to effective address stored in BX.

## **Instruction set of 8086:**

The Instruction set of 8086 microprocessor is classified into 7, they are:-

- Data transfer instructions
- Arithmetic & logical instructions
- Program control transfer instructions
- Machine Control Instructions
- Shift / rotate instructions
- Flag manipulation instructions
- String instructions

## **Data Transfer instructions**

Data transfer instruction, as the name suggests is for the transfer of data from memory to internal register, from internal register to memory, from one register to another register, from input port to internal register, from internal register to output port etc

### **1. MOV instruction**

It is a general purpose instruction to transfer byte or word from register to register, memory to register, register to memory or with immediate addressing.

#### **General Form:**

MOV destination, source

Here the source and destination needs to be of the same size, that is both 8 bit or both 16 bit.

MOV instruction does not affect any flags.

**Example:-**

MOV BX, 00F2H ; load the immediate number 00F2H in BX register

MOV CL, [2000H] ; Copy the 8 bit content of the memory location, at a displacement of 2000H from data segment base to the CL register

MOV [589H], BX ; Copy the 16 bit content of BX register on to the memory location, which at a displacement of 589H from the data segment base.

MOV DS, CX ; Move the content of CX to DS

**2. PUSH instruction**

The PUSH instruction decrements the stack pointer by two and copies the word from source to the location where stack pointer now points. Here the source must be of word size data. Source can be a general purpose register, segment register or a memory location.

The PUSH instruction first pushes the most significant byte to sp-1, then the least significant to the sp-2.

Push instruction does not affect any flags.

Example:

PUSH CX ; Decrements SP by 2, copy content of CX to the stack  
 PUSH DS ; Decrement SP by 2 and copy DS to stack

**3. POP instruction**

The POP instruction copies a word from the stack location pointed by the stack pointer to the destination. The destination can be a General purpose register, a segment register or a memory location. Here after the content is copied the stack pointer is automatically incremented by two.

The execution pattern is similar to that of the PUSH instruction.

**Example:**

POP CX ; Copy a word from the top of the stack to CX and increment SP by 2.

**4. IN & OUT instructions**

The IN instruction will copy data from a port to the accumulator. If 8 bit is read the data will go to AL and if 16 bit then to AX. Similarly OUT instruction is used to copy data from accumulator to an output port.

Both IN and OUT instructions can be done using direct and indirect addressing modes.

**Example:**

IN AL, 0F8H	;	Copy a byte from the port 0F8H to AL
MOV DX, 30F8H	;	Copy port address in DX
IN AL, DX	;	Move 8 bit data from 30F8H port
IN AX, DX	;	Move 16 bit data from 30F8H port
OUT 047H, AL	;	Copy contents of AL to 8 bit port 047H
MOV DX, 30F8H	;	Copy port address in DX
OUT DX, AL	;	Move 8 bit data to the 30F8H port
OUT DX, AX	;	Move 16 bit data to the 30F8H port

## 5. XCHG instruction

The XCHG instruction exchanges contents of the destination and source. Here destination and source can be register and register or register and memory location, but XCHG cannot interchange the value of 2 memory locations.

### General Format

XCHG Destination, Source

#### Example:

XCHG BX, CX	;	exchange word in CX with the word in BX
XCHG AL, CL	;	exchange byte in CL with the byte in AL
XCHG AX, SUM[BX]	;	here physical address, which is DS+SUM+[BX]. The content at physical address and the content of AX are interchanged.

## Arithmetic and Logic instructions

The arithmetic and logic logical group of instruction include,

### 1. ADD instruction

Add instruction is used to add the current contents of destination with that of source and store the result in destination. Here we can use register and/or memory locations. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected

#### General Format:

ADD Destination, Source

#### Example:

· ADD AL, 0FH; Add the immediate content, 0FH to the content of AL and store the

result in AL

- ADD AX, BX;      AX <= AX+BX
- ADD AX, 0100H – IMMEDIATE
- ADD AX, BX – REGISTER
- ADD AX,[SI] – REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED
- ADD AX, [5000H] – DIRECT
- ADD [5000H], 0100H – IMMEDIATE
- ADD 0100H – DESTINATION AX (IMPLICIT)

## 2. **ADC: ADD WITH CARRY**

This instruction performs the same operation as ADD instruction, but adds the carry flag bit (which may be set as a result of the previous calculation) to the result. All the condition code flags are affected by this instruction. The examples of this instruction along with the modes are as follows:

### **Example:**

- ADC AX,BX – REGISTER
- ADC AX,[SI] – REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED
- ADC AX, [5000H] – DIRECT
- ADC [5000H], 0100H – IMMEDIATE
- ADC 0100H – IMMEDIATE (AX IMPLICIT)

## 3. **SUB instruction**

SUB instruction is used to subtract the current contents of destination with that of source and store the result in destination. Here we can use register and/or memory locations. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected

### **General Format:**

SUB Destination, Source

### **Example:**

- SUB AL, 0FH ; subtract the immediate content, 0FH from the content of AL and store the result in AL
- SUB AX, BX ; AX <= AX-BX
- SUB AX,0100H – IMMEDIATE (DESTINATION AX)
- SUB AX,BX – REGISTER
- SUB AX,[5000H] – DIRECT
- SUB [5000H], 0100H – IMMEDIATE

## 4. **SBB: SUBTRACT WITH BORROW**

The subtract with borrow instruction subtracts the source operand and the borrow flag (CF) which may reflect the result of the previous calculations, from the destination operand. Subtraction with borrow, here means subtracting 1 from the subtraction obtained by SUB, if carry (borrow) flag is set.

The result is stored in the destination operand. All the flags are affected (condition code) by this instruction. The examples of this instruction are as follows:

### **Example:**

- SBB AX, 0100H – IMMEDIATE (DESTINATION AX)
- SBB AX, BX – REGISTER
- SBB AX,[5000H] – DIRECT
- SBB [5000H], 0100H – IMMEDIATE

## 5. **CMP: COMPARE**

The instruction compares the source operand, which may be a register or an immediate data or a memory location, with a destination operand that may be a register or a memory location. For comparison, it subtracts the source operand from the destination operand but does not store the result anywhere. The flags are affected depending upon the result of the subtraction. If both of the operands are equal, zero flag is set. If the source operand is greater than the destination operand, carry flag is set or else, carry flag is reset. The examples of this instruction are as follows:

### **Example:**

- `CMP BX,0100H – IMMEDIATE`
- `CMP AX,0100H – IMMEDIATE`
- `CMP [5000H], 0100H – DIRECT`
- `CMP BX,[SI] – REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED`
- `CMP BX, CX – REGISTER`

## 6. **INC & DEC instructions**

INC and DEC instructions are used to increment and decrement the content of the specified destination by one. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected.

### **Example:**

- `INC AL ; AL<= AL + 1`
- `INC AX ; AX<=AX + 1`
- `DEC AL ; AL<= AL – 1`
- `DEC AX ; AX<=AX – 1`

## 7. **AND instruction**

This instruction logically ANDs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.

The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.

### **General Format:**

AND Destination, Source

### **Example:**

- `AND BL, AL ; suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100 1010 then after the operation BL would be BL= 1000 0010.`
- `AND CX, AX ; CX <= CX AND AX`
- `AND CL, 08 ; CL<= CL AND (0000 1000)`

## 8. **OR instruction**

This instruction logically ORs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source

can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.

The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.

### General Format:

OR Destination, Source

### Example:

- OR BL, AL ;        suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100 1010 then after the operation BL would be BL= 1100 1110.
- OR CX, AX    ;        CX <= CX AND AX
- OR CL, 08    ;        CL <= CL AND (0000 1000)

## 9. NOT instruction

The NOT instruction complements (inverts) the contents of an operand register or a memory location, bit by bit. The examples are as follows:

### Example:

- NOT AX (BEFORE AX= (1011)<sub>2</sub>= (B)<sub>16</sub> AFTER EXECUTION AX= (0100)<sub>2</sub>= (4)<sub>16</sub>).
- NOT [5000H]

## 10. XOR instruction

The XOR operation is again carried out in a similar way to the AND and OR operation. The constraints on the operands are also similar. The XOR operation gives a high output, when the 2 input bits are dissimilar. Otherwise, the output is zero. The example instructions are as follows:

### Example:

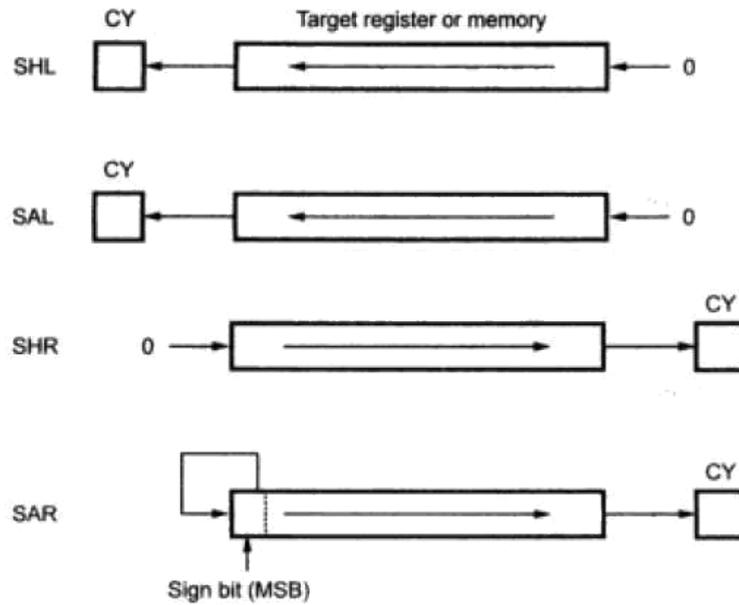
- XOR AX,0098H
- XOR AX,BX
- XOR AX,[5000H]

### Shift / Rotate Instructions

Shift instructions move the binary data to the left or right by shifting them within the register or memory location. They also can perform multiplication of powers of

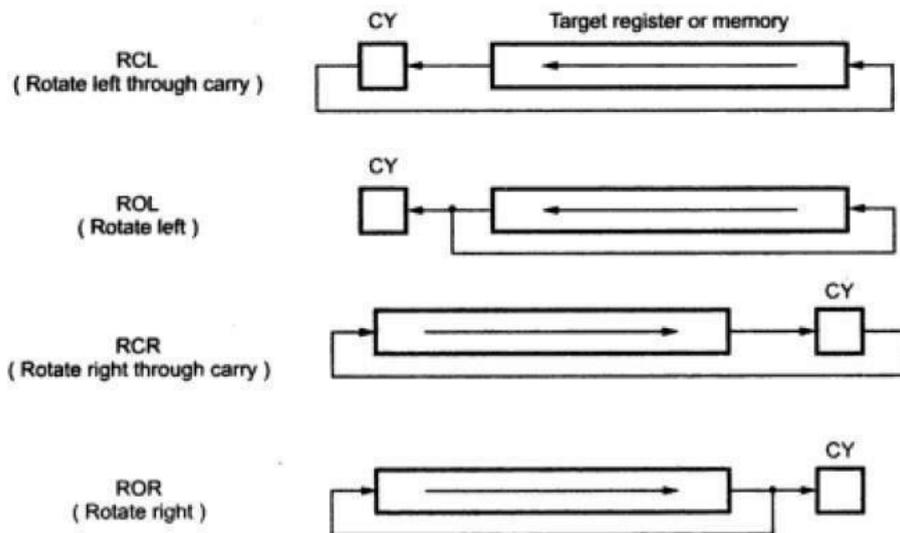
$2^{+n}$  and division of powers of  $2^{-n}$ .

There are two type of shifts logical shifting and arithmetic shifting, later is used with signed numbers while former with unsigned.



**Fig.1 Shift operations**

Rotate on the other hand rotates the information in a register or memory either from one end to another or through the carry flag.



**Fig.2 Rotate operations  
SHL/SAL instruction**

Both the instruction shifts each bit to left, and places the MSB in CF and LSB is made 0. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.

All flags are affected.

**General Format:**

SAL/SHL destination, count

**Example:**

MOV BL, B7H ; BL is made B7H

SAL BL, 1 ; shift the content of BL register one place to left. Before execution,

CY		B7	B6	B5	B4	B3	B2	B1	B0
0		1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1

BBBBBBBB

After the execution,

	CY		B7	B6	B5	B4	B3	B2	B1	B0
	1		0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0

**2. SHR instruction**

This instruction shifts each bit in the specified destination to the right and 0 is stored in the MSB position. The LSB is shifted into the carry flag. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.

All flags are affected

**General Format:**

SHR destination, count

**Example:**

MOV BL, B7H ; BL is made B7H

SHR BL, 1 ; shift the content of BL register one place to the right.

**3. ROL instruction**

This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified byte or word to the left some number of bit positions. MSB is placed as a new LSB and a new CF. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.

All flags are affected

**General Format:**

ROL destination, count

**Example:**



There are 2 types of such instructions. They are:

1. Unconditional transfer instructions – CALL, RET, JMP
2. Conditional transfer instructions – J condition

### 1. CALL instruction

The CALL instruction is used to transfer execution to a subprogram or procedure. There are two types of CALL instructions, near and far.

A **near CALL** is a call to a procedure which is in the same code segment as the CALL instruction. 8086 when encountered a near call, it decrements the SP by 2 and copies the offset of the next instruction after the CALL on the stack. It loads the IP with the offset of the procedure then to start the execution of the procedure.

A **far CALL** is the call to a procedure residing in a different segment. Here value of CS and offset of the next instruction both are backed up in the stack. And then branches to the procedure by changing the content of CS with the segment base containing procedure and IP with the offset of the first instruction of the procedure.

#### Example:

Near call

CALL PRO ; PRO is the name of the procedure

CALL CX ; Here CX contains the offset of the first instruction of the procedure, that is replaces the content of IP with the content of

CX Far call

CALL DWORD PTR[8X] ; New values for CS and IP are fetched from four memory locations in the DS. The new value for CS is fetched from [8X] and [8X+1], the new IP is fetched from [8X+2] and [8X+3].

### 2. RET instruction

RET instruction will return execution from a procedure to the next instruction after the CALL instruction in the calling program. If it was a near call, then IP is replaced with the value at the top of the stack, if it had been a far call, then another POP of the stack is required. This second popped data from the stack is put in the CS, thus resuming the execution of the calling program.

#### General format:

RET

#### Example:

p1 PROC ; procedure declaration.

MOV ; AX,  
RET ; return to caller. p1 ENDP

### 3. JMP instruction

This is also called as unconditional jump instruction, because the processor jumps to the specified location rather than the instruction after the JMP instruction. Jumps can be **short jumps** when the target address is in the same segment as the JMP instruction or **far jumps** when it is in a different segment.

#### General

**Format:** JMP

<target

address>

### 4. Conditional Jump (J cond)

Conditional jumps are always short jumps in 8086. Here jump is done only if the condition specified is true/false. If the condition is not satisfied, then the execution proceeds in the normal way.

#### Example:

There are many conditional jump instructions like

JC : Jump on carry  
(CF=set)

JNC : Jump on non carry

(CF=reset) JZ :

Jump on zero (ZF=set)

JNO : Jump on overflow  
(OF=set)

### Iteration control instructions

These instructions are used to execute a series of instructions some number of times. The number is specified in the CX register, which will be automatically decremented in course of iteration. But here the destination address for the jump must be in the range of -128 to 127 bytes.

#### Example:

Instructions here are:-

LOOP : loop through the set of instructions until CX is 0

LOOPE/LOOPZ : here the set of instructions are repeated until CX=0 or ZF=0

LOOPNE/LOOPNZ: here repeated until CX=0 or ZF=1

## Machine Control Instructions

### 1. HLT instruction

The HLT instruction will cause the 8086 microprocessor to stop fetching and executing instructions.

The 8086 will enter a halt state. The processor gets out of this Halt signal upon an interrupt signal in INTR pin/NMI pin or a reset signal on RESET input.

**General form:-**

HLT

### 2. WAIT instruction

When this instruction is executed, the 8086 enters into an idle state. This idle state is continued till a high is received on the TEST input pin or a valid interrupt signal is received. Wait affects no flags. It generally is used to synchronize the 8086 with a peripheral device(s).

### 3. ESC instruction

This instruction is used to pass instruction to a coprocessor like 8087. There is a 6 bit instruction for the coprocessor embedded in the ESC instruction. In most cases the 8086 treats ESC and a NOP, but in some cases the 8086 will access data items in memory for the coprocessor

### 4. LOCK instruction

In multiprocessor environments, the different microprocessors share a system bus, which is needed to access external devices like disks. LOCK Instruction is given as prefix in the case when a processor needs exclusive access of the system bus for a particular instruction. It affects no flags.

### 5. NOP instruction

At the end of NOP instruction, no operation is done other than the fetching and decoding of the instruction. It takes 3 clock cycles. NOP is used to fill in time delays or to provide space for instructions while trouble shooting. NOP affects no flags.

## Flag manipulation instructions

### 1. STC instruction

This instruction sets the carry flag. It does not affect any other flag.

### 2. CLC instruction

This instruction resets the carry flag to zero. CLC does not affect any other flag.

### 3. CMC instruction

This instruction complements the carry flag. CMC does not affect any other flag.

#### 4. STD instruction

This instruction is used to set the direction flag to one so that SI and/or DI can be decremented automatically after execution of string instruction. STD does not affect any other flag.

#### 5. CLD instruction

This instruction is used to reset the direction flag to zero so that SI and/or DI can be incremented automatically after execution of string instruction. CLD does not affect any other flag.

#### 6. STI instruction

This instruction sets the interrupt flag to 1. This enables INTR interrupt of the 8086. STI does not affect any other flag.

#### 7. CLI instruction

This instruction resets the interrupt flag to 0. Due to this the 8086 will not respond to an interrupt signal on its INTR input. CLI does not affect any other flag.

### String Instructions

#### 1. MOVS/MOVS/MOVSW

These instructions copy a word or byte from a location in the data segment to a location in the extra segment. The offset of the source is in SI and that of destination is in DI. For multiple word/byte transfers the count is stored in the CX register.

When direction flag is 0, SI and DI are incremented and when it is 1, SI and DI are decremented.

MOVS affect no flags. MOVS is used for byte sized movements while MOVSW is for word sized.

#### Example:

```
CLD          ; clear the direction flag to auto increment SI and DI

MOV AX, 0000H ;

MOV DS, AX   ; initialize data segment register to 0

MOV ES, AX   ; initialize extra segment register to 0

MOV SI, 2000H ; Load the offset of the string1 in SI
MOV DI, 2400H ; Load the offset of the string2 in DI
MOV CX, 0004H ; load length of the string in CX

REP MOVSB   ; decrement CX and MOVSB until CX will be 0
```

## 2. REP/REPE/REP2/REPNE/REPZ

REP is used with string instruction; it repeats an instruction until the specified condition becomes false.

### Example:

REP REPE/REPZ

=> CX=0

=> CX=0 OR ZF=0

REPNE/REPZ => CX=0 OR ZF=1

## 3. LODS/LODSB/LODSW

This instruction copies a byte from a string location pointed to by SI to AL or a word from a string location pointed to by SI to AX. LODS does not affect any flags. LODSB copies byte and LODSW copies word.

## 4. STOS/STOSB/STOSW

The STOS instruction is used to store a byte/word contained in AL/AX to the offset contained in the DI register. STOS does not affect any flags. After copying the content DI is automatically incremented or decremented, based on the value of direction flag.

### Example:

MOV DI, OFFSET D\_STRING ; assign DI with destination address.

STOS D\_STRING ; assembler uses string name to determine byte or word, if byte then AL is used and if of word size, AX is used.

## 5. CMPS/CMPSB/CMPSW

CMPS is used to compare the strings, byte wise or word wise. The comparison is affected by subtraction of content pointed by DI from that pointed by SI. The AF, CF, OF, PF, SF and ZF flags are affected by this instruction, but neither operand is affected.

### Example:

MOV SI, OFFSET F\_STRING ; point first string

MOV DI, OFFSET S\_STRING ; MOV point second string

CX, 0AH ; CLD set the counter as 0AH

; REPE CMPSB ; clear direction flag to auto increment repeatedly  
compare till unequal or counter =0

## Assembler Directives:

There are some instructions in the assembly language program which are not a part of processor instruction set. These instructions are instructions to the assembler, linker and loader. These are referred to as pseudo-operations or as assembler directives. The assembler directives enable us to control the way in which a program assembles and lists. They act during the assembly of a program and do not generate any executable machine code.

There are many specialized assembler directives. Let us see the commonly used assembler directive in 8086 assembly language programming.

### 1. ASSUME :

It is used to tell the name of the logical segment the assembler to use for a specified segment.

E.g.: ASSUME CS: CODE tells that the instructions for a program are in a logical segment named CODE.

### 2. DB -Define Byte:

The DB directive is used to reserve byte or bytes of memory locations in the available memory. While preparing the EXE file, this directive directs the assembler to allocate the specified number of memory bytes to the said data type that may be a constant, variable, string, etc. Another option of this directive also initializes the reserved memory bytes with the ASCII codes of the characters specified as a string. The following examples show how the DB directive is used for different purposes.

#### 1) RANKS DB 01H,02H,03H,04H

This statement directs the assembler to reserve four memory locations for a list named RANKS and initialize them with the above specified four values.

#### 2) MESSAGE DB „GOOD MORNING“

This makes the assembler reserve the number of bytes of memory equal to the number of characters in the string named MESSAGE and initializes those locations by the ASCII equivalent of these characters.

#### 3) VALUE DB 50H

This statement directs the assembler to reserve 50H memory bytes and leave them uninitialized for the variable named VALUE.

### 3. DD -Define Double word - used to declare a double word type variable or to reserve memory locations that can be accessed as double word.

E.g.:           ARRAY           \_POINTER           DD           25629261H declares  
                  a               double           word           named  
                  ARRAY\_POINTER.

### 4. DQ -Define Quad word

This directive is used to direct the assembler to reserve 4 words (8 bytes) of memory for the specified variable and may initialize it with the specified values.

### 5. DT -Define Ten Bytes:

The DT directive directs the assembler to define the specified variable requiring 10-bytes for its storage and initialize the 10-bytes with the specified values. The directive may be used in case of variables facing heavy numerical calculations, generally processed by numerical processors.

E.g.: `PACKED_BCD 11223344556677889900` declares an array that is 10 bytes in length.

## 6. DW -Define Word:

The DW directives serves the same purposes as the DB directive, but it now makes the assembler reserve the number of memory words (16-bit) instead of bytes. Some examples are given to explain this directive.

1) `WORDS DW 1234H, 4567H, 78ABH, 045CH`

This makes the assembler reserve four words in memory (8 bytes), and initialize the words with the specified values in the statements. During initialization, the lower bytes are stored at the lower memory addresses, while the upper bytes are stored at the higher addresses.

2) `NUMBER1 DW 1245H`

This makes the assembler reserve one word in memory.

## 7. END-End of Program:

The END directive marks the end of an assembly language program. When the assembler comes across this END directive, it ignores the source lines available later on. Hence, it should be ensured that the END statement should be the last statement in the file and should not appear in between. Also, no useful program statement should lie in the file, after the END statement.

**8. ENDP-End Procedure** - Used along with the name of the procedure to indicate the end of a procedure.

E.g.: `SQUARE_ROOT PROC: start of procedure`

`SQUARE_ROOT ENDP: End of procedure`

## 9. ENDS-End of Segment:

This directive marks the end of a logical segment. The logical segments are assigned with the names using the ASSUME directive. The names appear with the ENDS directive as prefixes to mark the end of those particular segments. Whatever are the contents of the segments, they should appear in the program before ENDS. Any statement appearing after ENDS will be neglected from the segment. The structure shown below explains the fact more clearly.

```

DATA SEGMENT
-----
-----
DATA ENDS

ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA CODE

SEGMENT
-----
-----

CODE ENDS

ENDS

```

**10. EQU**-Equate - Used to give a name to some value or symbol. Each time the assembler finds the given name in the program, it will replace the name with the value.

```

E.g.: CORRECTION_FACTOR EQU

03H MOV AL,

CORRECTION_FACTOR

```

**11. EVEN** - Tells the assembler to increment the location counter to the next even address if it is not already at an even address.

Used because the processor can read even addressed data in one clock cycle

**12. EXTRN** - Tells the assembler that the names or labels following the directive are in some other assembly module.

For example if a procedure in a program module assembled at a different time from that which contains the CALL instruction, this directive is used to tell the assembler that the procedure is external

**13. GLOBAL** - Can be used in place of a PUBLIC directive or in place of an EXTRN directive.

It is used to make a symbol defined in one module available to other modules.

E.g.: GLOBAL DIVISOR makes the variable DIVISOR public so that it can be accessed from other modules.

**14. GROUP**-Used to tell the assembler to group the logical statements named after the directive into one logical group segment, allowing the contents of all the segments to be accessed from the same group segment base.

```

E.g.: SMALL_SYSTEM GROUP CODE, DATA, STACK_SEG

```

**15. INCLUDE** - Used to tell the assembler to insert a block of source code from the named file into the current source module.

This will shorten the source code.

**16. LABEL-** Used to give a name to the current value in the location counter.

This directive is followed by a term that specifies the type you want associated with that name.

E.g: ENTRY\_POINT LABEL FAR NEXT:

```
MOV AL, BL
```

**17. NAME-** Used to give a specific name to each assembly module when programs consisting of several modules are written.

E.g.: NAME PC\_BOARD

**18. OFFSET-** Used to determine the offset or displacement of a named data item or procedure from the start of the segment which contains it.

E.g.: MOV BX, OFFSET PRICES

**19. ORG-** The location counter is set to 0000 when the assembler starts reading a segment. The ORG directive allows setting a desired value at any point in the program.

E.g.: ORG 2000H

**20. PROC-** Used to identify the start of a procedure.

E.g. SMART\_DIVIDE PROC FAR identifies the start of a procedure named SMART\_DIVIDE and tells the assembler that the procedure is far

**21. PTR-** Used to assign a specific type to a variable or to a label.

E.g.: INC BYTE PTR[BX] tells the assembler that we want to increment the byte pointed to by BX

**22. PUBLIC-** Used to tell the assembler that a specified name or label will be accessed from other modules.

E.g.: PUBLIC DIVISOR, DIVIDEND makes the two variables DIVISOR and DIVIDEND available to other assembly modules.

**23. SEGMENT-** Used to indicate the start of a logical segment.

E.g.: CODE SEGMENT indicates to the assembler the start of a logical segment called CODE

**24. SHORT-** Used to tell the assembler that only a 1 byte displacement is needed to code a jump instruction.

E.g.: JMP SHORT NEARBY\_LABEL

**25. TYPE -** Used to tell the assembler to determine the type of a specified variable.

E.g.: ADD BX, TYPE WORD\_ARRAY is used where we want to increment BX to point to the next word in an array of words.

### **Macros:**

Macro is a group of instruction. The macro assembler generates the code in the program each time where the macro is "called". Macros can be defined by

MACROP and ENDM assembler directives. Creating macro is very similar to creating a new opcode that can be used in the program, as shown below.

Example:

```
INIT MACRO  
  
MOV AX, @DATA  
  
MOV DS, AX  
  
MOV ES, AX  
  
ENDM
```

It is important to note that macro sequences execute faster than procedures because there is no CALL and RET instructions to execute. The assembler places the macro instructions in the program each time when it is invoked. This procedure is known as Macro expansion.

**WHILE:**

In Macro, the WHILE statement is used to repeat macro sequence until the expression specified with it is true. Like REPEAT, end of loop is specified by ENDM statement. The WHILE statement allows to use relational operators in its expressions.

The table-1 shows the relational operators used with WHILE statements.

PERATOR	FUNCTION
EQ	Equal
NE	Not equal
LE	Less than or equal
LT	Less than
GE	Greater than or equal
GT	Greater than
NOT	Logical inversion
AND	Logical AND
OR	Logical OR

Table-1: Relational operators used in WHILE statement.