Chapter 10 -- Pentium Architecture

It is time to stop programming in SASM, and get to the real stuff: Pentium assembly language.

Notes ahead of time:

- -- The assembly language details presented are not specific to just the Pentium architecture. They are applicable to the 486 and to the Pentium II and the Pentium Pro. Many details also work for the earlier Intel architectures.
- -- I'm only presenting a subset of the Pentium instruction set. The real instruction set is REALLY large, and contains many instructions that no one really uses anymore. We don't cover those "obsolete" instructions. We also don't cover the instructions that only the operating system would use.

About the Pentium Architecture

- -- It is not a load/store architecture.
- -- The instruction set is huge! We go over only a fraction of the instruction set. The text only presents a fraction.
- -- There are lots of restrictions on how instructions/operands are put together, but there is also an amazing amount of flexibility.

Registers

The Intel architectures as a set just do not have enough registers to satisfy most assembly language programmers. Still, the processors have been around for a LONG time, and they have a sufficient number of registers to do whatever is necessary.

For our (mostly) general purpose use, we get

32-bit	16-bit	8-bit	8-bit	
		(high part o	of 16) (low part of	16)
EAX	AX	AH	AL	
EBX	BX	BH	BL	
ECX	СХ	СН	CL	
EDX	DX	DH	DL	
and				
EBP	BP			
ESI	SI			

EDT DI ESP SP There are a few more, but we won't use or discuss them. They are only used for memory accessability in the segmented memory model. Using the registers: As an operand, just use the name (upper case and lower case both work interchangeably). EBP is a frame pointer (see Chapter 11). ESP is a stack pointer (see Chapter 11). Oddities: This is the only architecture that I know of where the programmer can designate part of a register as an operand. On ALL other machines, the whole register is designated and used. ONE MORE REGISTER: Many bits used for controlling the action of the processor and setting state are in the register called EFLAGS. This register contains the condition codes: OF Overflow flag SF Sign flag Zero flag \mathbf{ZF} Parity flag \mathbf{PF} CF Carry flag The settings of these flags are checked in conditional control instructions. Many instructions set one or more of the flags. (Note that we only utilized SF and ZF in SASM.) There are many other bits in the EFLAGS register: TO BE DISCUSSED LATER. The use of the EFLAGS register is implied (rather than explicit) in instructions. Accessing Memory _____ There are 2 memory models supported in the Pentium architecture. (Actually it is the 486 and more recent models that support 2 models.) In both models, memory is accessed using an address. It is the way that addresses are formed (within the processor) that differs in the 2 models. FLAT MEMORY MODEL -- The memory model that we use. AND, the memory model that every

other manufactures' processors also use.

SEGMENTED MEMORY MODEL

- -- Different parts of a program are assumed to be in their own, set-aside portions of memory. These portions are called segments.
- -- An address is formed from 2 pieces: a segment location and an offset within a segment.

Note that each of these pieces can be shorter (contain fewer bits) than a whole address. This is much of the reason that Intel chose this form of memory model for its earliest single-chip processors.

- -- There are segments for:
 - code data stack other
- -- Which segment something is in can be implied by the memory access involved. An instruction fetch will always be looking in the code segment. A push instruction (we'll talk about this with chapter 11) always accesses the stack segment. Etc.

Addressing Modes

Some would say that the Intel architectures only support 1 addressing mode. It looks (something like) this:

effective address = base reg + (index reg x scaling factor) + displacement

where base reg is EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX or ESP or EBP index reg is EDI or ESI scaling factor is 1, 2, 4, or 8

The syntax of using this (very general) addressing mode will vary from system to system. It depends on the preprocessor and the syntax accepted by the assembler.

For our implementation, an operand within an instruction that uses this addressing mode could look like [EAX][EDI*2 + 80]

The effective address calculated with be the contents of register EDI multiplied times 2 added to the constant 80, added to the contents of register EAX.

There are extremely few times where a high-level language

compiler can utilize such a complex addressing mode. It is much more likely that simplified versions of this mode will be used. SOME ADDRESSING MODES -- register mode --The operand is in a register. The effective address is the register (wierd). Example instruction: mov eax, ecx Both operands use register mode. The contents of register ecx is copied to register eax. immediate mode --The operand is in the instruction. The effective address is within the instruction. Example instruction: mov eax, 26 The second operand uses immediate mode. Within the instruction is the operand. It is copied to register eax. -- register direct mode --The effective address is in a register. Example instruction: mov eax, [esp] The second operand uses register direct mode. The contents of register esp is the effective address. The contents of memory at the effective address are copied into register eax. direct mode --___ The effective address is in the instruction. Example instruction: mov eax, var name The second operand uses direct mode. The instruction contains the effective address. The contents of memory at the effective address are copied into register eax. base displacement mode --___ The effective address is the sum of a constant and the contents of a register. Example instruction:

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http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~smoler/x86text/lect.notes/Pentium.html
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mov eax, [esp + 4]

The second operand uses base displacement mode. The instruction contains a constant. That constant is added to the contents of register esp to form an effective address. The contents of memory at the effective address are copied into register eax.

-- base-indexed mode -- (Intel's name) The effective address is the sum of the contents of two registers.

Example instruction:

mov eax, [esp][esi]

The contents of registers esp and esi are added to form an effective address. The contents of memory at the effective address are copied into register eax.

Note that there are restrictions on the combinations of registers that can be used in this addressing mode.

-- PC relative mode --The effective address is the sum of the contents of the PC and a constant contained within the instruction.

Example instruction:

jmp a_label

The contents of the program counter is added to an offset that is within the machine code for the instruction. The resulting sum is placed back into the program counter. Note that from the assembly language it is not clear that a PC relative addressing mode is used. It is the assembler that generates the offset to place in the instruction.

Instruction Set

Generalities:

- -- Many (most?) of the instructions have exactly 2 operands. If there are 2 operands, then one of them will be required to use register mode, and the other will have no restrictions on its addressing mode.
- -- There are most often ways of specifying the same instruction for 8-, 16-, or 32-bit oeprands. I left out the 16-bit ones to reduce presentation of the instruction set. Note that on a 32-bit machine, with newly written code, the 16-bit form will never be used.

Meanings of the operand specifications: reg - register mode operand, 32-bit register reg8 - register mode operand, 8-bit register r/m - general addressing mode, 32-bit r/m8 - general addressing mode, 8-bit

immed - 32-bit immediate is in the instruction immed8 - 8-bit immediate is in the instruction m - symbol (label) in the instruction is the effective address Data Movement _____ mov reg, r/m ; copy data r/m, reg reg, immed r/m, immed ; sign extend and copy data movsx req, r/m8 movzx reg, r/m8 ; zero extend and copy data ; get effective address lea reg, m (A newer instruction, so its format is much restricted over the other ones.) EXAMPLES: mov EAX, 23 ; places 32-bit 2's complement immediate 23 ; into register EAX movsx ECX, AL ; sign extends the 8-bit quantity in register ; AL to 32 bits, and places it in ECX mov [esp], -1 ; places value -1 into memory, address given ; by contents of esp lea EBX, loop_top ; put the address assigned (by the assembler) ; to label loop_top into register EBX

Integer Arithmetic

add	reg, r/m, reg, r/m,	r/m reg immed immed	;	two's complement addition
inc	reg r/m		;	add 1 to operand
sub	reg, r/m, reg, r/m,	r/m reg immed immed	;	two's complement subtraction
dec	reg r/m		;	subtract 1 from operand
neg	r/m		;	get additive inverse of operand
mul	eax,	r/m	;;	unsigned multiplication edx eax <- eax * r/m
imul	r/m reg,	r/m	; ; ;	2's comp. multiplication edx eax <- eax * r/m reg <- reg * r/m

	reg, immed	;	reg <- reg * immed
div	r/m	;;;;	unsigned division does edx eax / r/m eax <- quotient edx <- remainder
idiv	r/m	;;;;	2's complement division does edx eax / r/m eax <- quotient edx <- remainder
cmp	reg, r/m r/m, immed r/m8, immed8 r/m immed8	;;	sets EFLAGS based on second operand - first operand
		Ì	sign excentes inmede belore subtract

EXAMPLES:

neg [eax + 4]	; takes doubleword at address eax+4
	; and finds its additive inverse, then places
	; the additive inverse back at that address
	; the instruction should probably be
	; neg dword ptr [eax + 4]
inc ecx	; adds one to contents of register ecx, and
	; result goes back to ecx

Logical

not	r/m	; logical not
and	reg, r/m reg8, r/m8 r/m, reg r/m8, reg8 r/m, immed r/m8, immed8	; logical and
or	reg, r/m reg8, r/m8 r/m, reg r/m8, reg8 r/m, immed r/m8, immed8	; logical or
xor	reg, r/m reg8, r/m8 r/m, reg r/m8, reg8 r/m, immed r/m8, immed8	; logical exclusive or
test	r/m, reg r/m8, reg8 r/m, immed	; logical and to set EFLAG

r/m8, immed8

EXAMPLES:

and edx, 00330000h	; logical and of contents of registe
	; edx (bitwise) with 0x00330000,
	; result goes back to edx

Floating Point Arithmetic

Since the newer architectures have room for floating point hardware on chip, Intel defined a simple-to-implement extension to the architecture to do floating point arithmetic. In their usual zeal, they have included MANY instructions to do floating point operations.

The mechanism is simple. A set of 8 registers are organized and maintained (by hardware) as a stack of floating point values. ST refers to the stack top. ST(1) refers to the register within the stack that is next to ST. ST and ST(0) are synonyms.

There are separate instructions to test and compare the values of floating point variables.

finit		;	initialize the FPU
fld	m32 m64 ST(i)	;	load floating point value
fldz		;	load floating point value 0.0
fst	m32 m64 ST(i)	;	store floating point value
fstp	m32 m64 ST(i)	; ;	store floating point value and pop ST
fadd	m32 m64 ST, ST(i) ST(i), ST	;	floating point addition
faddp	ST(i), ST	; ;	floating point addition and pop ST

ETC. (see p.201-202)

The only instructions which actually allow the reading and writing of I/O devices are priviledged. The OS must handle these things. But, in writing programs that do something useful, we need input and output. Therefore, there are some simple macros defined to help us do I/O.

These are used just like instructions.

put_ch	r/m	; ;	print character in the least significant byte of 32-bit operand
get_ch	r/m	;	character will be in AL
put_str	m	; ;	print null terminated string given by label m

Control Instructions

These are the same control instructions that all started with the character 'b' in SASM.

jmp	m	; unconditional jump	
jg	m	; jump if greater than 0	
jge	m	; jump if greater than or equal to ()
jl	m	; jump if less than 0	
jle	m	; jump if less than or equal to 0	

ETC. (see p. 205)