

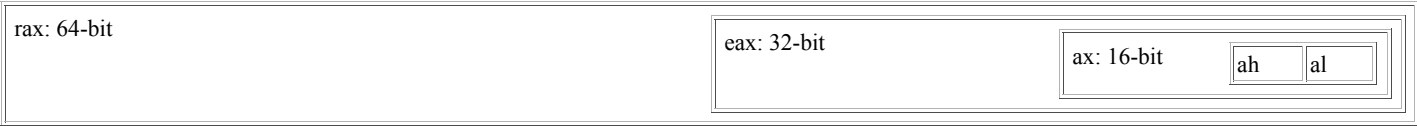
# Registers in x86 Assembly

CS 301: Assembly Language Programming Lecture, Dr. Lawlor

Like C++ variables, registers are actually available in several sizes:

- rax is the 64-bit, "long" size register. It was added in [2003](#) during the transition to 64-bit processors.
- eax is the 32-bit, "int" size register. It was added in [1985](#) during the transition to 32-bit processors with the 80386 CPU. I'm in the habit of using this register size, since they also work in 32 bit mode, although I'm trying to use the longer rax registers for everything.
- ax is the 16-bit, "short" size register. It was added in [1979](#) with the 8086 CPU, but is used in DOS or BIOS code to this day.
- al and ah are the 8-bit, "char" size registers. al is the low 8 bits, ah is the high 8 bits. They're pretty similar to the old 8-bit registers of the 8008 back in [1972](#).

Curiously, you can write a 64-bit value into rax, then read off the low 32 bits from eax, or the low 16 bitx from ax, or the low 8 bits from al--it's just one register, but they keep on extending it!



For example,

```
mov rcx,0xf00d00d2beefc03; load a big 64-bit constant
mov eax,ecx; pull out low 32 bits (0x2beefc03)
ret
```

[\(Try this in NetRun now!\)](#)

Here's the full list of x86 registers. The 64 bit registers are shown in red. "Scratch" registers any function is allowed to overwrite, and use for anything you want without asking anybody. "Preserved" registers have to be put back ("save" the register) if you use them.

Name	Notes	Type	64-bit long	32-bit int	16-bit short	8-bit char
rax	Values are returned from functions in this register.	scratch	rax	eax	ax	ah and al
rcx	Typical scratch register. Some instructions also use it as a counter.	scratch	rcx	ecx	cx	ch and cl
rdx	Scratch register.	scratch	rdx	edx	dx	dh and dl
rbx	Preserved register: don't use it without saving it!	preserved	rbx	ebx	bx	bh and bl
rsp	The stack pointer. Points to the top of the stack (details coming soon!)	preserved	rsp	esp	sp	spl
rbp	Preserved register. Sometimes used to store the old value of the stack pointer, or the "base".	preserved	rbp	ebp	bp	bpl
rsi	Scratch register. Also used to pass function argument #2 in 64-bit Linux	scratch	rsi	esi	si	sil
rdi	Scratch register. Function argument #1 in 64-bit Linux	scratch	rdi	edi	di	dil
r8	Scratch register. These were added in 64-bit mode, so they have numbers, not names.	scratch	r8	r8d	r8w	r8b
r9	Scratch register.	scratch	r9	r9d	r9w	r9b
r10	Scratch register.	scratch	r10	r10d	r10w	r10b
r11	Scratch register.	scratch	r11	r11d	r11w	r11b
r12	Preserved register. You can use it, but you need to save and restore it.	preserved	r12	r12d	r12w	r12b
r13	Preserved register.	preserved	r13	r13d	r13w	r13b
r14	Preserved register.	preserved	r14	r14d	r14w	r14b
r15	Preserved register.	preserved	r15	r15d	r15w	r15b

You can convert values between different register sizes using different instructions:

	Source Size				
	64 bit rcx	32 bit ecx	16 bit cx	8 bit cl	Notes
64 bit rax	mov rax,rcx	<a href="#">movsxd</a> rax,ecx	<a href="#">movsx</a> rax,cx	<a href="#">movsx</a> rax,cl	Writes to whole register
32 bit eax	mov eax,ecx	mov eax,ecx	<a href="#">movsx</a> eax,cx	<a href="#">movsx</a> eax,cl	Top half of destination gets zeroed

16 bit ax	mov ax,cx	mov ax,cx	mov ax,cx	<a href="#">movsx</a> ax,cl	Only affects low 16 bits, rest unchanged.
8 bit al	mov al,cl	mov al,cl	mov al,cl	mov al,cl	Only affects low 8 bits, rest unchanged.

## Overflow

The fact is, variables on a computer only have so many bits. If the value gets bigger than can fit in those bits, the extra bits first go negative and then "overflow". By default they're then ignored completely.

```
int big=1024*1024*1024;
return big*4;
```

[\(Try this in NetRun now!\)](#)

On my machine, "int" is 32 bits, which is +-2 billion in binary, so this actually returns 0?!

**Program complete. Return 0 (0x0)**

You can extract the value of each bit. For example:

```
int value=1; /* value to test, starts at first (lowest) bit */
for (int bit=0;bit<100;bit++) {
    std::cout<<"at bit "<<bit<<" the value is "<<value<<"\n";
    value=value+value; /* moves over by one bit */
    if (value==0) break;
}
return 0;
```

[\(Try this in NetRun now!\)](#)

Because "int" currently has 32 bits, if you start at one, and add a variable to itself 32 times, the one overflows and is lost completely.

In assembly, there's a handy instruction "jo" (jump if overflow) to check for overflow from the previous instruction. The C++ compiler doesn't bother to use jo, though!

```
mov edi,1 ; loop variable
mov eax,0 ; counter

start:
    add eax,1 ; increment bit counter

    add edi,edi ; add variable to itself
    jo noes ; check for overflow in the above add

    cmp edi,0
    jne start

ret

noes: ; called for overflow
    mov eax,999
    ret
```

[\(Try this in NetRun now!\)](#)

Notice the above program returns 999 on overflow, which somebody else will need to check for. (Responding correctly to overflow is actually quite difficult--see, e.g., [Ariane 5 explosion](#), caused by poor handling of a detected overflow. Ironically, ignoring the overflow would have caused no problems!)

## Signed versus Unsigned Numbers

If you watch closely right before overflow, you see something funny happen:

```

signed char value=1; /* value to test, starts at first (lowest) bit */
for (int bit=0;bit<100;bit++) {
    std::cout<<"at bit "<<bit<<" the value is "<<(long)value<<"\n";
    value=value+value; /* moves over by one bit (value=value<<1 would work too) */
    if (value==0) break;
}
return 0;

```

(Try this in NetRun now!)

This prints out:

```

at bit 0 the value is 1
at bit 1 the value is 2
at bit 2 the value is 4
at bit 3 the value is 8
at bit 4 the value is 16
at bit 5 the value is 32
at bit 6 the value is 64
at bit 7 the value is -128
Program complete. Return 0 (0x0)

```

Wait, the last bit's value is -128? Yes, it really is!

This negative high bit is called the "sign bit", and it has a negative value in [two's complement](#) signed numbers. This means to represent -1, for example, you set not only the high bit, but all the other bits as well: in unsigned, this is the largest possible value. The reason binary 11111111 represents -1 is the same reason you might choose 9999 to represent -1 on a 4-digit odometer: if you add one, you wrap around and hit zero.

A very cool thing about two's complement is addition is *the same operation* whether the numbers are signed or unsigned--we just interpret the result differently. Subtraction is also identical for signed and unsigned. Register names are identical in assembly for signed and unsigned. However, when you change register sizes using an instruction like "movsxd rax, eax", when you check for overflow, when you compare numbers, multiply or divide, or shift bits, you need to know if the number is signed (has a sign bit) or unsigned (no sign bit, no negative numbers).

Signed	Unsigned	Language
int	unsigned int	C++, int is signed by default.
signed char	unsigned char	C++, char may be signed or unsigned.
movsxd	movzxd	Assembly, sign extend or zero extend to change register sizes.
jo	jc	Assembly, <b>o</b> verflow is calculated for signed values, carry for unsigned values.
jg	ja	Assembly, jump <b>g</b> reater is signed, jump <b>a</b> bove is unsigned.
jil	jb	Assembly, jump <b>l</b> ess signed, jump <b>b</b> elow unsigned.
imul	mul	Assembly, imul is signed (and more modern), mul is for unsigned (and ancient and horrible!). idiv/div work similarly.