

## x86-64 Assembly

Computers execute machine code, which is encoded as bytes, to carry out tasks on a computer. Since different computers have different processors, the machine code executed on these computers is specific to the processor. In this case, we'll be looking at the Intel x86-64 instruction set architecture which is most commonly found today. Machine code is usually represented by a more readable form of the code called assembly code. This machine is code is usually produced by a compiler, which takes the source code of a file, and after going through some intermediate stages, produces machine code that can be executed by a computer. Without going into too much detail, Intel first started out by building 16-bit instruction set, followed by 32 bit, after which they finally created 64 bit. All these instruction sets have been created for backward compatibility, so code compiled for 32 bit architecture will run on 64 bit machines. As mentioned earlier, before an executable file is produced, the source code is first compiled into assembly(.s files), after which the assembler converts it into an object program(.o files), and operations with a linker finally make it an executable.

The best way to actually start explaining assembly is by diving in. We'll be using radare2 to do this - radare2 is a framework for reverse engineering and analysing binaries. It can be used to disassemble binaries(translate machine code to assembly, which is actually readable) and debug said binaries(by allowing a user to step through the execution and view the state of the program). Download r2 from here.

The first step is to execute the program intro by running ./file1

ashu@ashu-Inspiron-5379 ~/D/t/c/christmas-re> ./file1 the value of a is 4, the value of b is 5 and the value of c is 9≠

The above program shows that there are 3 variables(a, b, c) where c is the sum of a and b.

Time to see what's happening under the hood! Run the command r2 -d ./file1

This will open the binary in debugging mode. Once the binary is open, one of the first things to do is ask r2 to analyze the program, and this can be done by typing in: aa

Which is the most common analysis command. It analyses all symbols and entry points in the executable.

The analysis in this case involves extracting function names, flow control information and much more! r2 instructions are usually based on a single character, so it is easy to get more information about the commands.

```
For general help, run:
```

?

For more specific information, for example, about analysis, run *a*?

Once the analysis is complete, you would want to know where to start analysing from - most programs have an entry point defined as main. To find a list of the functions run:

afl

```
[0x00400a30]> afl | grep main
0x00400b4d
             1 68
                             sym.main
0x00400e10 114 1657
                             sym. libc start main
0x00403870  346 6038 -> 5941 sym. nl find domain
                            sym. IO switch to main get area
             1 43
0x00415fe0
0x0044cf00
             1 8
                            sym. dl get dl main map
0x00470520
             1 49
                            sym. IO switch to main wget area
                     -> 69
             7 73
                            sym. nl finddomain subfreeres
0x0048fae0
            16 247 -> 237 sym. nl unload domain
0x0048fb30
```

## Note that memory addresses may be different on your computer.

As seen here, there actually is a function at main. Let's examine the assembly code at main by running the command

pdf @main

Where pdf means print disassembly function. Doing so will give us the following view

```
| Oxford | O
```

The core of assembly language involves using registers to do the following:

- Transfer data between memory and register, and vice versa
- Perform arithmetic operations on registers and data
- Transfer control to other parts of the program

Since the architecture is x86-64, the registers are 64 bit and Intel has a list of 16 registers:

64 bit	32 bit
%rax	%eax
%rbx	%ebx
%rcx	%ecx

%rdx	%edx
%rsi	%esi
%rdi	%edi
%rsp	%esp
%rbp	%ebp
%r8	%r8d
%r9	%r9d
%r10	%r10d
%r11	%r11d
%r12	%r12d
%r13	%r13d
%r14	%r14d
%r15	%r15d

Even though the registers are 64 bit, meaning they can hold up to 64 bits of data, other parts of the registers can also be referenced. In this case, registers can also be referenced as 32 bit values as shown. What isn't shown is that registers can be referenced as 16 bit and 8 bit(higher 4 bit and lower 4 bit).

The first 6 registers are known as general purpose registers while %rsp and %rbp are special purpose and their meaning will be explained later on. To move data using registers, the following instruction is used:

movq source, destination

This involves:

- Transferring constants(which are prefixed using the \$ operator) e.g. *movq* \$3 rax would move the constant 3 to the register
- Transferring values from a register e.g. *movq %rax %rbx* which involves moving value from rax to rbx
- Transferring values from memory which is shown by putting registers inside brackets e.g. movq %rax (%rbx) which means move value stored in %rax to memory location represented by %rbx.

The last letter of the mov instruction represents the size of the data:

Intel Data Type	Suffix	Size(bytes)
Byte	b	1
Word	w	2
Double Word	I	4
Quad Word	q	8

Quad Word	q	8
Single Precision	s	4
Double Precision	I	8

When dealing with memory manipulation using registers, there are other cases to be considered:

- (Rb, Ri) = MemoryLocation[Rb + Ri]
- D(Rb, Ri) = MemoryLocation[Rb + Ri + D]
- (Rb, Ri, S) = MemoryLocation(Rb + S \* Ri)
- D(Rb, Ri, S) = MemoryLocation[Rb + S \* Ri + D]

## Some other important instructions are:

- *leaq source, destination:* this instruction sets destination to the address denoted by the expression in source
- addq source, destination: destination = destination + source
- *subg* source, destination: destination = destination source
- *imulg source*, *destination*: destination = destination \* source
- salq source, destination: destination = destination << source where << is the left bit shifting
  operator</li>
- sarq source, destination: destination = destination >> source where >> is the right bit shifting operator
- xorq source, destination: destination = destination XOR source
- andq source, destination: destination = destination & source
- orq source, destination: destination = destination | source

Now let's actually walk through the assembly code to see what the instructions mean when combined.

```
(int argc, char **argv, char **envp);
; var int local ch @ rbp-0xc
               8h @ rbp-0x8
; var
                                         %rbp
                4889e5
                                  movq %rsp, %rbp
                 4883ec10 subq $0x10, %rsp c745f4040000. movl $4, local_ch
                 4883ec10
                c745f8050000.
                                  movl $5, local 8h
                8b55f4
                                  movl local ch, %edx
                                  movl local 8h, %eax
                 8b45f8
                 01d0
                                  addl %edx, %eax
                 8945fc
                                  movl %eax, local 4h
                 8b4dfc
                                  movl local 4h, %ecx
                 8b55f8
                                  movl local_8h, %edx
movl local_ch, %eax
                 8b45f4
                 89c6
                                  movl %eax, %esi
                 488d3d881409. leaq str.the_value_of_a_is
b800000000 movl $0, %eax
                 e8f6ea0000
                 b800000000
                                  movl $0, %eax
                 c9
```

The line starting with *sym.main* indicates we're looking at the main function. The next 3 lines are used to represent the variables stored in the function. The second column indicates that they are integers(*int*), the 3<sup>rd</sup> column specifies the name that r2 uses to reference them and the 4<sup>th</sup> column shows the actual memory location.

The first 3 instructions are used to allocate space on that stack(ensure that there's enough room for variables to be allocated and more). We'll start looking at the program from the 4<sup>th</sup> instruction(*movl \$4*). We want to analyse the program while it runs and the best way to do this is using breakpoints. A breakpoint specifies where the program should stop executing. This is useful as it allows us to look at the state of the program at that particular point. So let's set a breakpoint using the command *db address* 

in this case, it would be db 0x00400b55

To ensure the breakpoint is set, we run the pdf @main command again and see a little b next to the instruction we want to stop at

Now that we've set a breakpoint, let's run the program using dc

```
0x00400a30]> dc
       hit breakpoint at: 400b55
        [0x00400b55]> pdf
                                                                               dc will
Running
execute
                                                                               the
                                                                               until we
program
                     (int argc, char **argv, char
hit the
                                          rbp-0xc
                                           rbp-0x8
                                                            %rbp
                                                      movq %rsp, %rbp
                                      4889e5
                                      4883ec10
                                                      subq $0x10, %rsp
                    ;-- rip:
                                     c745f4040000. movl $4, local ch
                    0x00400b55 b
```

breakpoint. Once we hit the breakpoint and print out the main function, the *rip* which is the current instruction shows where execution has stopped. From the notes above, we know that the *mov* instruction is used to transfer values. This statement is transferring the value 4 into the *local\_ch* variable. To view the contents of the *local\_ch* variable, we use the following instruction *px* @*memory-address* 

In this case, the corresponding memory address for *local\_ch* will be *rbp-0xc*(from the first few lines of @pdf main)

This instruction prints the values of memory in hex:

```
[0x00400b55]> px @ rbp-0xc
               0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
                                                      0123456789ABCDEF
 offset -
                                   8 9
                                        A B C D
                                           7018 4000
               0000 0000 1890 6b00 0000 0000
                                                      ....k...p.@.
              0000 0000 1911 4000 0000 0000
               fc7f 0000 4d0b 4000
                                                       . . . . M . @ . . . . . . . . .
                                  8e00 0000
                                            0004 4000
                                                       0000 0000 52db fe41 3933 915f 1019 4000
                                                       ....R...A93. ..@
                                            52db de86
                                                       2711 68a0 52db 8a50 3933 915f
                                                       '.h.R..P93. ....
```

This shows that the variable currently doesn't have anything stored in it(it's just 0000). Let's execute this instruction and go to the next one using the following command(which only goes to the next instruction)

ds

If we view the memory location after running this command, we get the following:

```
[0x00400b55] > px @ rbp-0xc
                     2 3
 offset .
                 0 1
                                                           0123456789ABCDEF
                           4 5
                0400 0000 1890 6b00 0000 0000 7018 4000
                                                           .....k....p.@.
                0000 0000 1911 4000 0000 0000
                                     0100 0000
                                               f87c 4f91
                          4d0b 40
                          0600 0000
                                               80
                                     8e00 0000
                                                 004 4000
                0000 0000 52db fe41 3933 915f 1019 4000
                                               1890 6b00
                                               52db de86
                2711 68a0 52db 8a50 3933 915f
                                                            .h.R..P93.
```

We can see that the first 2 bytes have the value 4! If we do the same process for the next instruction, we'll see that the variable *local* 8h has the value 5.

```
0x00400b55]> px @ rbp-0x8
                                                     0123456789ABCDEF
 offset ·
               0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D
                     ....p.@....
                                                     .......
                00 0000 0100 0000 f87c 4f91 fc7f 0000
                                                     . . . . . . . . . | 0 . . . . .
                                                     M.@....
                                          0a00 0000
              0600 0000 8e00 0000 8000 0000
              0000 0000 0000 0000 0004 4000 0000 0000
              52db fe41 3933 915f 1019 40
                                                     R...A93. ...@.....
              0000 0000 0000 0000 1890 6b0
              0000 0000 0000 0000 52db de86 2711 68a0
              52db 8a50 3933 915f 00
                                                     R..P93. .....
<7ffc914f7ca8</p>
```

If we go to the instruction  $movl\ local\_8h$ , %eax, we know from the notes that this moves the value from local\_8h to the %eax register. To see the value of the %eax register, we can use the command: dr

```
[0x00400b55]> dr
rax = 0x00400b4d
rbx = 0x00400400
rcx = 0x0044ba90
rdx = 0x000000004
r8 = 0x000000000
r9 = 0x000000007
r10 = 0x000000002
r11 = 0x000000001
r12 = 0x00401910
r13 = 0x000000000
r14 = 0x006b9018
r15 = 0x000000000
rsi = 0x7ffc914f7cf8
rdi = 0x000000001
rsp = 0x7ffc914f7bc0
rbp = 0x7ffc914f7bd0
rip = 0x00400b66
rflags = 0x00000206
orax = 0xffffffffffffffff
```

If we execute the instruction and run the dr command again, we get:

```
[0x00400b55]> dr

rax = 0x00000005

rbx = 0x00400400

rcx = 0x0044ba90

rdx = 0x00000004

r8 = 0x000000000

r9 = 0x000000007
```

This technically skips the previous instruction *movl local\_ch*, *%edx* but the same process can be applied with it.

Showing the value of rax(the 64 bit version) to be 5. We can do the same for similar instructions and view the values of the registers changing.

When we come to the *addl* %edx, %eax, we know that this will add the values in edx and eax and store them in eax. Running dr shows us the rax contains 5 and rdx contains 4, so we'd expect rax to contain 9 after the instruction is executed

```
[0x00400b55]> dr

rax = 0x00000005

rbx = 0x00400400

rcx = 0x0044ba90

rdx = 0x00000004
```

Executing ds to move to the next instruction then executing dr to view register variable shows us the we are correct

```
[0x00400b55]> dr
rax = 0x000000009
rbx = 0x00400400
```

The next few instructions involve moving the values in registers to the variables and vice versa

```
;-- rip:

0x00400b6b
0x00400b6e
0x00400b6e
0x00400b71
0x00400b74
0x00400b74
0x00400b74
0x00400b77
89c6
0x00400b77
89c6
0x00400b77
```

```
        0x00400b79
        488d3d881409.
        leaq str.the_value_of_a_is__d_the_value_of_b_is__d_and_the_value_of_c_is__d, %r

        0x00400b80
        b800000000
        movl $0, %eax

        0x00400b85
        e8f6ea0000
        callq sym.__printf

        0x00400b8a
        b800000000
        movl $0, %eax

        0x00400b8f
        c9
        leave All ___ Match Case

        0x00400b90
        c3
        retq
```

After that, a string(which is the output is loaded into a register and the *printf* function is called in the  $3^{rd}$  line. The second line clears the value of *eax* as *eax* is sometimes used to store results from functions. The  $4^{th}$  line clears the value of *eax*. The  $5^{th}$  and  $6^{th}$  line are used to exit the main function.

The general formula for working through something like this is:

- set appropriate break points
- use ds to move through instructions and check the values of register and memory
- if you make a mistake, you can always reload the program using the *ood* command