Exploiting Introduction

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April 18, 2013

Crash course on Assembly Language

Overview on the common 32-bit Intel Architecture (IA) Overview on different syntaxes
Basic Instructions
x86_64

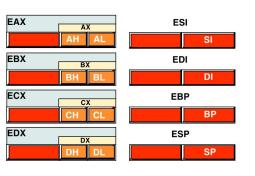
Something more

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(1) Does Al look like?

- The processor has 32-bits internal registers to manage and execute operations on data
 They are EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, EBP, EIP and ESP
- ▶ Among them EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX are for general purposes
- ► EBP (BP = base pointer) and ESP (SP = stack pointer) are the stack bounds (see slide 24)
- EDI and ESI are extra registers
- ► EIP (IP = instruction pointer) is the register that contains the address of the next instruction

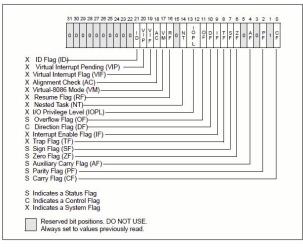
(2) Does Al look like?



The register name system is a porting from 16-bits IA where the registers were called AX, BX and so on.

"E" means extended. Without it we consider the corrisponding 16-bits register

(1) What about EFLAGS?



(2) What about EFLAGS?

- ▶ It's another 32-bits register
- Only 8 bits out of 32 are of interest for us. The others are either for the kernel mode function or are of little interest for programmers
- ► These 8 bits are called flags. We consider them singularly. They are boolean (true/false)
- ► They represent overflow, direction, interrupt disable, sign, zero, auxiliary carry, parity and carry flags
- Since they represent information about the instruction last executed, they change at every execution step. They are VERY important for the control flow of the program (see slide 18)

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Syntax

- ► In the assembly world we can find two main syntaxes: the AT&T and the Intel
- ► AT&T syntax is used by all UNIX program (e.g. gdb)
- Intel syntax is used by Microsoft programs (IDApro and others)

(1) Differences in the notation

▶ Consider the following operation:

"move the value 0 to EAX"

► AT&T:

mov \$0x0,%eax

Intel:

mov eax, 0h

- Comments:
 - As you can see in AT&T syntax the destination is the second operand instead as in the Intel syntax
 - ▶ In the AT&T syntax the register are denoted with % and the [immediate | costant] with \$. In the Intel syntax these tokens are not used.

(2) Differences in the notation

- Consider this new operation:
 - "move the value 0 to the address contained in EBX+4"
- ► AT&T:

$$mov $0x0,0x4(\%ebx)$$

Intel:

$$mov [ebx+4h],0h$$

- Comments:
 - This case shows how the deferentiation is done in assembly
 - In AT&T we use parenthesis. In the Intel syntax we have to use square brackets
 - ► The way to manage the offset is another syntax difference. In the first case we have to put it out of the parenthesis in the second one inside the square brackets

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(1) Basic instructions overview

- ► Every processor has a huge instruction set (see Intel Manual¹)
- A subset of the whole instruction set is usually processor dependent
- We will focus on the subset of instructions that is common among the processors
- We will use the Intel syntax as it is the same syntax used in IDApro by default

¹http://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/processors/
architectures-software-developer-manuals.html

(2) Basic Instruction MOV

- General: MOV <u>destination</u>, <u>source</u> source can be an immediate, a register, a memory location destination can be either a register or a memory location NB: Every combination is possible except memloc to memloc!!!It is invalid in every instruction!!!
- With this instruction, as said in the example above, we move a value from a source place to a destination. There are a ton of different versions. They change depending on the operands ex 32 bits operands, 16 bits operands, immediate to reg, immediate to memory
- Examples

| MOV eax, ebx | MOV eax, FFFFFFFh | MOV ax, bx |
|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| MOV [eax],ecx | MOV [eax],[ecx] NO!!! | MOV al, FFh |

(3) Basic Instruction ADD

- General: ADD <u>destination</u>, <u>source</u>
 source can be an immediate, a register, a memory location destination can be either a register or a memory location NB: The destination register has to be as big as the source or greater
- With this instruction we can add a value from source to the destination operand and put the new value inside the destination (dest = dest + src)
- Examples

| ADD esp, 44h | ADD eax, ebx | ADD al, dh |
|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| ADD edx, cx | ADD [eax],[ecx] NO!!! | ADD [eax],1h |



(4) Basic Instruction SUB

- General: SUB <u>destination</u>, <u>source</u>
 <u>source</u> can be an immediate, a register, a memory location
 <u>destination</u> can be either a register or a memory location
 NB: The destination register has to be as big as the source or greater
- With this instruction we can subtract the value source from the destination operand and put the new value inside the destination (dest = dest - src)
- Examples

| SUB esp, 33h | SUB eax, ebx | SUB al, dh | |
|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|--|
| SUB edx, cx | SUB [eax],[ecx] NO!!! | SUB [eax],1h | |



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(5) Basic Instruction MUL

- ► General: MUL <u>Operand</u>

 Operand can be an immediate, a register, a memory location
- With this instruction we can multiply **Operand** by the value of corresponding byte-length in the EAX,AX,AL register

| OperandSize: | 1 byte | 2 bytes | 4 bytes |
|------------------------|--------|---------|---------|
| Other Operand | AL | AX | EAX |
| Higher Part of result: | AH | DX | EDX |
| Lower Part of result: | AL | AX | EAX |

Examples

| OperandSize: | 1 byte | 2 bytes | 4 bytes |
|--------------|---------|-----------|---------------|
| Immediate | MUL 44h | MUL 4455h | MUL 44556677h |
| Register | MUL cl | MUL dx | MUL ebx |

(6) Basic Instruction DIV

- General: DIV <u>Operand</u>
 Operand can be an immediate, a register, a memory location
- With this instruction we can divide the value in the dividend register(s) by "Operand"

| OperandSize: | 1 byte | 2 bytes | 4 bytes |
|--------------|--------|---------|---------|
| Dividend | AX | DX:AX | EDX:EAX |
| Remainder | AH | DX | EDX |
| Quotient | AL | AX | EAX |

Examples

| OperandSize: | 1 byte | 2 bytes | 4 bytes |
|--------------|---------|-----------|---------------|
| Register | DIV bl | DIV bx | DIV ebx |
| Immediate | DIV 66h | DIV 6677h | DIV 66778899h |

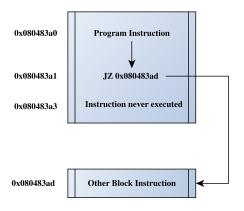
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(7) Basic Instruction CMP

- ► General: CMP **Operand_1**, **Operand_2**
- This instruction performs a subtraction between two operands and sets the flags (ZF,CF,OF etc.), it doesn't store the result
- Examples

| CMP eax, ebx | CMP eax, 44BBCCDDh | CMP al, dh |
|--------------|--------------------|--------------|
| CMP al, 44h | CMP ax,FFFFh | CMP [eax],4h |

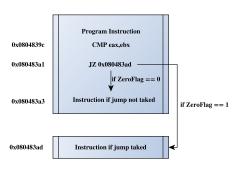
(8) Basic Instruction JMP



- ► General: JMP address
- This instruction is called "unconditional jump": when called, it sets the EIP to the address passed to the instruction. We say that the execution jumps to address and it's unconditional because always the execution jump.

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(9) Basic Instruction JZ, JNZ and so on



- ▶ General: JX <u>address</u> X ∈ {O, NO, S, NS, E, Z, NE...}
- ➤ This set of instructions are called conditional jump. It means that the execution will go to **address** if and only if the specific flag of the condition is verified.

For example: jz jumps only if zero flag is 1

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(10) Basic Instruction INT

- General: INT VALUE
- ► **VALUE** is the software interrupt that should be generated (0-255)
- ► Famous values are 21h for call service under windows and 80 for linux
- look the manual for the other

How much is x86_64 different from x86?

- ► The prefix of the registers is R instead of E so we have (rip, rax etc.)
- ► There are 8 new registers (r8 to r15)
- ▶ each of them can be consider at 8, 16, 32, 64 bits with $X \in \{8..15\}$ we have

| bits | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
|------|-----|-----|-----|----|
| reg | rXb | rXw | rXd | rX |

for better syntax information look at http://www.x86-64.org/documentation/assembly.html

Binary File Formats

- ► PE (Portable Executable): used by Microsoft binary executable.
- ► ELF: common binary format for Unix, Linux, FreeBSD and others

How a program is seen in memory in linux (ELF)

| Executable | Description |
|--------------|--|
| .bss | This section holds uninitialized data that contribute to the program's memory image. |
| | By definition, the system initializes the data with zeros when the program begins to run. |
| .comment | This section holds version control information. |
| .data/.data1 | These sections hold initialized data that contribute to |
| | the program's memory image |
| .debug | This section holds information symbolic debugging. |
| .text | This section holds the "text," or executable instructions, of a program. |
| .init | This section holds executable instructions that contribute to the process initialization code. |
| | That is, when a program starts to run, the system arranges to execute the code in this |
| | section before calling the main program entry point (called main for C programs). |
| .got | This section holds the global offset table. |

How a program is seen in memory in windows (PE)

| Executable | Description |
|------------|---|
| .text | Contains the executable code |
| .rdata | Holds read-only data that is globally accessible within |
| | the program |
| .data | Stores global data accessed throughout the program |
| .idata | Sometimes present and stores the import function information; |
| | if this section is not present, the import function information |
| | is stored in the .rdata section |
| .edata | Sometimes present and stores the export function information; |
| | if this section is not present, the export function information |
| | is stored in the .rdata section |
| .pdata | Present only in 64-bit executables and stores |
| | execption-handling information |
| .rsrc | Stores resources needed by the executable |
| .reloc | Contains information for relocation of library files |



A more realistic view of an elf in memory

```
\uparrow Lower addresses (0x08000000)
Shared libraries
.text
.bss
Heap (grows \downarrow)
Stack (grows 1)
env pointer
Argc

↓ Higher addresses (0xbfffffff)
```

The stack

- Is a data structure, more specifically a Last In First Out data structure, which means that the most recent data placed, or pushed, onto the stack is the next item to be removed, or popped, from the stack
- A LIFO data structure is ideal for storing transitory information, or information that does not need to be stored for a lengthy period of time.
- ► The stack stores local variables, information relating to function calls, and other information used to clean up the stack after a function or procedure is called.
- ► Another important feature of the stack is that it grows down the address space.



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Stack management: PUSH

- ▶ It is the instruction that stores information onto the stack
- It is used for example as PUSH immediate or PUSH register
- ► This instruction save the value at the top of the stack and then decreases the ESP of the dimension of data stored

Stack management: POP

- ▶ It is the instruction that removes information from the stack
- It is used for example as POP destination
- This instruction removes the value at the top of the stack and then increases the ESP of the dimension of data that was retrieved. The information retrieved is store in destination

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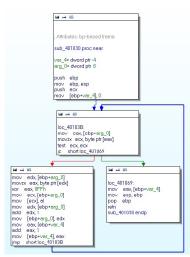
Function

- ► The concept of function in assembly is the same of the common function in almost all the programming languages
- ▶ A piece of code that receives data from the caller and returns some value after the elaboration
- ▶ Differently from all high level languages the way to pass parameters to a function can be done in more than one way
- Exist also several ways to call function in assembly

CALL and RET Instruction

- ► The CALL instruction used CALL func moves the exectuion to the func location. It stores ebp and return address of the instruction after the call onto the stack and put into EIP the address of the first instruction of func
- ► The RET instruction used RET **value** returns to the previous execution function. It restores the base pointer and puts the ret value saved by the CALL into the EIP.

Function, An example



Calling Convention

- ▶ It's the way how a program receives parameters, how a function returns its return value and who cleans the stack
- ► There are different implementation of the Call Convention that dictates exactly where a caller should place any parameters that a function requires
- ▶ Everything is dipendent by the compiler(gcc/g++, visual studio c++ etc.) and by the high-level language from which the assembly comes from (c, c++, visualbasic and so on)
- Let's look at some of those

The C Calling Convention

- ► It's the default calling convention used by most C compilers for the x86 arch
- When a compiler doesn't use this convention we can force it using the modifier <u>cdecl</u>
- It specifies that the caller places parameters to a function on a stack in the right to left order and that the caller removes the parameters from the stack after the called function completes

The C Calling Convention example

```
void demo cdecl(int w, int x, int y, int z);
  ; demo cdecl(1, 2, 3, 4); //programmer calls demo cdecl
  push
                      ; push parameter z
  push
                      ; push parameter y
  push
                      ; push parameter x
  push
                      ; push parameter w
  call
          demo cdecl ; call the function
  add
         esp, 16
                      ; adjust esp to its former value
  demo cdecl(1, 2, 3, 4); //programmer calls demo cdecl
        [esp+12], 4 ; move parameter z to fourth position on stack
   mov
        [esp+8], 3 ; move parameter y to third position on stack
   mov
        [esp+4], 2 ; move parameter x to second position on stack
   mov
                     ; move parameter w to top of stack
   mov
        [esp], 1
```

; call the function

demo cdecl

call

The Standard Calling Convention

- This is the Miscrosoft Calling Convention standard
- When a compiler doesn't use this convention we can force it using the modifier <u>stdcall</u>
- ▶ Also here the parameters are passed all using only the stack, the difference is that the called function is responsible for clearing the function parameters from the stack when the function has finished. To do this the function has to know the right number of parameter passed. It's valid only with function with fixed number of parameters so such as printf can't use it.

```
void _stdcall demo_stdcall(int w, int x, int y);
ret 12    ; return and clear 12 bytes from the stack
```

fastcall Convention for x86

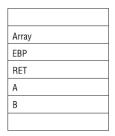
- It's a variation of the stdcall convention, the fastcall calling convention passes up to two parameters in CPU registers which are faster to access than stack.
- ► The Microsoft Visual C/ C++ and GNU gcc/g++ compilers recognize the fastcallmodifier in function declaration.
- ▶ In this case the first two parameters are passed in the register (ECX and EDX), the remaining parameters are place on the stack in right to left order similar to stdcall. The function is responsible for removing parameters from the stack when they return to their caller.

```
void fastcall demo_fastcall(int w, int x, int y, int z);

; demo_fastcall(1, 2, 3, 4); //programmer calls demo_fastcall
   push 4 ; move parameter z to second position on stack
   push 3 ; move parameter y to top position on stack
   mov edx, 2 ; move parameter x to edx
   mov ecx, 1 ; move parameter w to ecx
   call demo fastcall : call the function
```

What we need is the C standard convention

Low memory addresses and top of the stack



High memory addresses and Bottom of the stack

Asm view of the same example

```
public main
main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 10h
mov dword ptr [esp+4], 2
mov dword ptr [esp], 1
call function
mov dword ptr [esp], offset format; "This is call __printf
leave
reth
main endp
```

public function function proc near push ebp mov ebp, esp sub esp, 20h leave reth function endp

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Our friend gdb

What is GDB?

GDB is the GNU Project debugger, allows you to see what is going on 'inside' another program while it executes – or what another program was doing at the moment it crashed.'³

Start, break and navigate the execution with gdb

- Suppose to have the program 'first' and you want run it into gdb
 - gdb ./first load the binary information in gdb
- ▶ Now you decide to start the program with two parameters
 - run 1 "abc" pass an integer as arg[1] and "abc" as arg[2]
 - run 'printf "AAAAAAAAAA" in this case we're passing the output of the bash command
- Suppose you want, now, to stop the execution at the address of a certain instruction
 - break *0xDEADBEAF points a break at that address
 - break *main+1 if you have the debugging symbols this can be less painful
 - **catch syscall** block the execution when a syscall happens



Start, break and navigate the execution with gdb

- ▶ Now the execution has been stoped by our break point. Here we can do several things...
- ► To procede we can:
 - ni allows to procede instruction per instruction
 - next 4 move, if you have the lines number in the binary, 4 lines ahead
 - continue goes directly to the next breakpoint
- To see info about the execution state:
 - info registers to see the values assumed by the registers
 - info frame to see the values of the stack frame releted to the function where we are in
 - ▶ info file print the information about the sections of the binary



Navigate the stack

- We are always stopped somewhere in the code and we want to evaluate the stack
- Some useful view of the stack is achievable with:
 - x/100wx \$esp prints 100 elements of the stack from the esp to down in exadecimal word by word form
 - x/10wo \$ebp-100 prints 10 elements of the stack from the ebp-100 to down in octal word by word form
 - x/s \$eax prints the elements pointed by eax as string form in byte form
- Have you the debug symbols?
 - print args prints info about the main parameters
 - print a prints the variable a value
 - print *b prints the value pointed by b



Our friend gdb

▶ The ' \sim /.gdbinit' file

Gdb is a command line tool and it supports the configuration script as almost all the *nix software.

Some options that you may want to tune are:

- set history save on
 - To have the lastest commands always available also when we re-open gdb
- set follow-fork-mode child Allows you, if the process spones childs, to follow them and not only wait their end.
- set disassembly-flavor [intel | att]
 This option sets in which predefined syntax your disassembled will be showed up. The default one is at&t

Layout in gdb

- ► Aren't you a fun of the gdb command line?
- Give a simple text interface to it
 - layout asm turn the interface to the assembly view always visible during debugging
 - layout src if your binary has the dubugging symbols you will have your c source view visible
 - layout reg add to the interface the register status view. It could be used in combination with one of the view described above
 - ▶ gdb -tui ./mybin runs gdb directly in this Text User Interface

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Bibliography

- ▶ The Ida Pro Book 2 Edition
- The Shellcoder Handbook
- Reverse Engineering Code with IDA Pro
- Secrets of Reverse Engineering

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End

► Thanks Folk...Questions?