x86 Crash Course

With a focus on Linux and a glance to x86_64

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Credits — contributors as of March 19, 2019

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Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

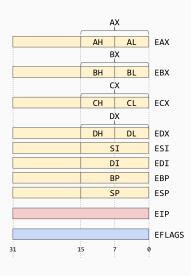
- "Logical" specification of a computer architecture
- Concerned with programming concepts
 - instructions, registers, interrupts, memory architecture, ...
- May differ (widely) from the actual microarchitecture
- Examples:
 - x86 (IA-32 and x86_64)
 - ARM (mobile devices)
 - MIPS (embedded devices, e.g., consumer routers)
 - AVR, SPARC, Power, RISC V, ...

The x86 ISA

- Born in 1978, 16-bit ISA (Intel 8086)
- Evolved to a 32-bit ISA (1985, Intel 80386)
- Evolved to a 64-bit ISA (2003, AMD Opteron)
- CISC design (e.g., string operations)
- Many legacy features (e.g, segmentation)
- We'll see the basics of the "core" ISA
 - There is also the floating point unit, processor-specific features, and extensions such as SIMD (MMX, SSE, SSE2) with their own instructions and registers¹

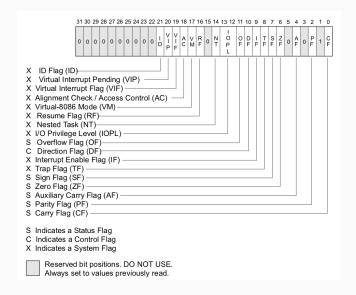
¹Complete reference: Intel Software Developer's Manual, about 5,000 pages (https://software.intel.com/en-us/articles/intel-sdm)

IA-32: Registers



- General-purpose registers
 - EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX
 - ESI, EDI (source and destination index for string operations)
 - EBP (base pointer)
 - ESP (stack pointer)
- Instruction pointer: EIP
 - No explicit access
 - Modified by jmp, call, ret
 - Read through the stack (saved IP)
- Program status and control: EFLAGS
- (segment registers)

IA-32: EFLAGS register



IA-32: EFLAGS register

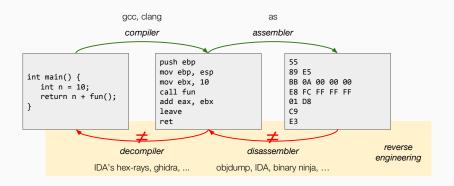
- 32-bits register, boolean flags
- Program status: overflow, sign, zero, auxiliary carry (BCD), parity, carry
 - Indicate the result of arithmetic instructions
 - Extremely important for control flow
- Program control: direction flag
 - controls string instructions (auto-increment or auto-decrement)
- System: control operating-system operations

Fundamental data types

```
byte 8 bitsword 2 bytesdword Doubleword, 4 bytes (32 bits)qword Quadword, 8 bytes (64 bits)
```

Assembly and Machine Code

Assembly language: specific to each ISA, mapped to binary code



For simplicitly, we don't deal with the linking process.

Assembly: Syntax

Two main syntaxes:

- Intel: default in most Windows programs (e.g., IDA)
- AT&T: default in most UNIX tools (e.g., gdb, objdump)

Beware: The order of the operands is different

We will use the Intel syntax

Assembly: Syntax

move the value 0 to EAX

Intel

AT&T

mov eax, Oh

movl \$0x0, %eax

move the value 0 to the address contained in EBX+4

Intel

AT&T

mov [ebx+4h], 0h movl \$0x0,0x4(%ebx)

x86: data movement

```
Examples
 Immediate to register:
                               FAX = 4
mov eax, 4h
 Register to register:
                               EAX = EBX
mov eax, ebx
 Memory to register (and register to memory):
mov eax, [ebx]
                               FAX = *FBX
                      EAX = *(EBC + 4)
mov eax, [ebx + 4h]
mov eax, [edx + ebx*4 + 8] EAX = *(EDX + EBX * 4 + 8)
```

Note: memory to memory is an **invalid** combination²

²Except in some instructions, such as movs (move from string to string).

x86 Assembly and Machine Code

Instruction = opcode + operand



Beware: in x86, instructions have variable length.

Basic instructions

- Data Transfer: mov, push, pop, xchg, lea
- Integer Arithmetic: add, sub, mul, imul, div, idiv, inc, dec
- Logical: and, or, not, xor
- Control Transfer: jmp, jne, call, ret
- and lots more...

Data Transfer: mov

- mov <u>destination</u>, <u>source</u>
 source: immediate, register, memory location
 destination: register or memory location
- Basic load/store operations
 - Register to register, register to memory, immediate to register, immediate to memory
 - Memory to memory is INVALID (in every instruction)

ExamplesMOV eax, ebxMOV eax, FFFFFFFFMOV ax, bxMOV [eax],ecxMOV [eax],[ecx] NO!!!MOV al, FFh

Integer Arithmetics: add and sub

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{add } \underline{\text{destination}}, \, \underline{\text{source}} & \text{sub } \underline{\text{destination}}, \, \underline{\text{source}} \\ \text{dest} \leftarrow \text{dest} + \text{source} & \text{dest} \leftarrow \text{dest} - \text{source} \end{array}$$

• Addressing:

source: immediate, register, memory locationdestination: register or memory location(the destination has to be at least as large as the source)

- Negate a value: neg [op]
- Bitwise operations: and, or, xor, not work similarly

Examples

```
add esp, 44h add edx, cx add al, dh sub esp, 33h sub eax, ebx sub [eax], 1h
```

Integer Arithmetics: unsigned multiply (mul)

• mul source

source: register or memory location

- dest ← implied_op × source
- Implied operands according to the size of source
 - First operand: AL, AX, or EAX
 - Destination: AX, DX:AX, EDX:EAX (double the size of **source**)
- Signed multiply: imul

Example

- mul ebx: EDX:EAX ← EAX * EBX
 - most significant bits of the result in EDX
 - least significant bits of the result in EAX
- mul cx: DX:AX ← AX * CX
- mul cl: AX \leftarrow AL * CL

Integer Arithmetics: unsigned divide (div)

- div source
 - source: register or a memory location
- Computes quotient and remainder
- Implied operand: EDX:EAX (according to the size of source)
- Signed divide: idiv

Examples

- div ebx (4 bytes)
 - EAX ← EDX:EAX / EBX
 - EDX ← EDX:EAX % EBX
- div bx (2 bytes)
 - AX \leftarrow DX:AX / BX DX = DX:AX % BX
- div bl (1 byte)
 - AL \leftarrow AX / BX AH = AX % BX

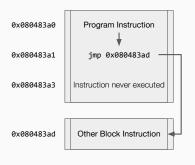
Integer Arithmetics: cmp and test

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \texttt{cmp} \ \underline{\mathsf{op1}}, \ \underline{\mathsf{op2}} \\ \mathsf{Computes} \ \mathsf{op1} - \mathsf{op2} \\ \end{array} \ \begin{array}{c|c} \mathsf{test} \ \underline{\mathsf{op1}}, \ \underline{\mathsf{op2}} \\ \mathsf{Computes} \ \mathsf{op1} \ \& \ \mathsf{op2} \\ \end{array}$$

- Sets the flags (ZF,CF, OF, ...)
- Discards the result

Examples cmp eax, ebx | cmp eax, 44BBCCDDh | cmp al, dh cmp al, 44h | cmp ax,FFFFh | cmp [eax],4h

Control-Flow Instructions: unconditional jump jmp

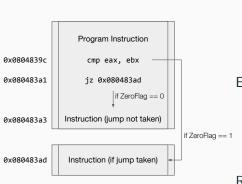


- jmp address or offset
- Unconditional jump: just set the EIP to address
- Can be also relative: increment or decrement EIP by an offset

Control-Flow Instructions: conditional jumps

j<cc> address or offset

Jump to address if and only if a certain condition is verified



<cc>: condition

- O,NO,S,NS,E,Z,NE, . . .
- based on one or more status flags of EFLAGS

Examples:

- jz = jump if zero
- jg = jump if greater than
- jlt = jump if less than

Reference: http://www.unixwiz. net/techtips/x86-jumps.html

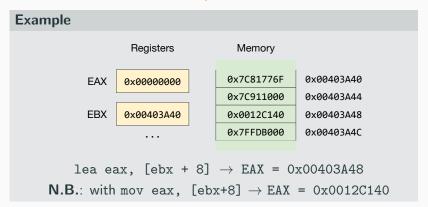
A very simple example (what does it do?)

Assume that the input is in registers: ECX and EDX; output: EAX

```
mov eax, ecx
       mov ebx, edx
       cmp ebx, 0
       jz label
loop:
       cmp ebx, 1
       jle ret
       xor edx, edx
       mul ecx
       sub ebx, 1
       jmp loop
label:
       mov eax, 1
ret:
        . . .
```

Load effective address (lea)

- lea <u>destination</u>, <u>source</u> source: memory location <u>destination</u>: register
- Like a mov, but it is storing the pointer, not the value
- It does NOT access memory



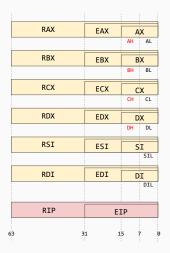
Basic Instructions: nop

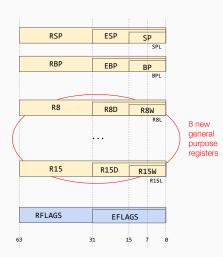
- nop = **No Operation**. Just move to next instruction.
- The opcode is pretty famous and is 0x90
- Really useful in exploitation (we will see!)

Interrupts and Syscalls

- int value
 - value: software interrupt number to generate (0-255)
 - Every OS has its set of interrupt numbers (e.g., 80h for Linux system calls)
- syscall used for Linux 64-bit
- sysenter used by Microsoft Windows

The x86_64 ISA



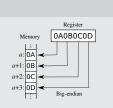


Endianness

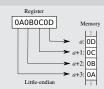
Endianness: convention that specifies in which order the bytes of a data word are lined up sequentially in memory.

Big-endian (left)

Systems in which the *most significant* byte of the word is stored in the smallest address given.



Little-endian



Systems in which the *least significant* byte is stored in the *smallest address*.

IA-32 is "little endian".

Program Layout and Functions

Binary File Formats

- PE (Portable Executable): used by Microsoft binary executables
- ELF: common binary format for Unix, Linux, FreeBSD and others
- In both cases, we are interested in how each executable is mapped into memory, rather than how it is organized on disk.

How an executable is mapped to memory in Linux (ELF)

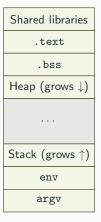
Executable	Description
.bss	This section holds uninitialized data that contributes to the program's memory image. By definition, the system initializes the data with zeros when the program begins to run.
.comment	This section holds version control information.
.data/.data1	These sections hold initialized 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 an executable is mapped to memory in Windows (PE)

Contains the executable code
Holds read-only data that is globally accessible within the program
Stores global data accessed throughout the program
stores the import function information;
stores the export function information;
Present only in 64-bit executables and stores execption-handling information
Stores resources needed by the executable
Contains information for relocation of library files

Simplified program memory layout

Low addresses (0x80000000)



High addresses (0xbfffffff)

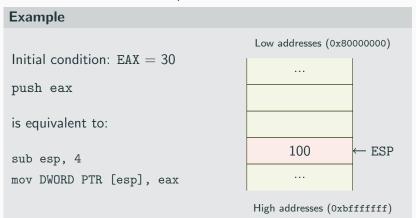
The stack

- LIFO (last in first out) data structure
- Used to manage functions
 - local variables
 - return addresses
 - ...
- Handled through the register ESP (stack pointer)
- Remember: the stack grows toward lower addresses (downward the address space)

Stack Management Instructions: push

push <u>immediate</u> or <u>register</u>

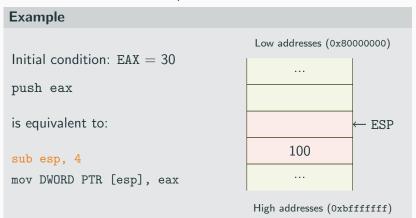
Stores the immediate or register value at the top of the stack and decrements the ESP of the operand size



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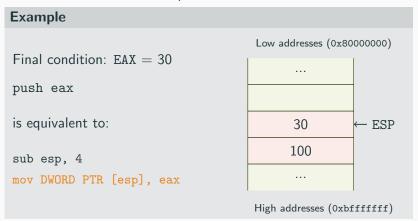
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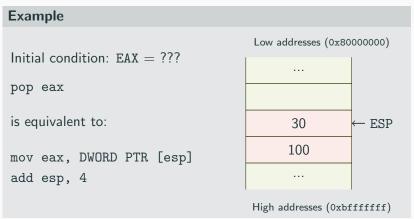
Stores the immediate or register value at the top of the stack and decrements the ESP of the operand size



Stack Management Instructions: pop

pop destination

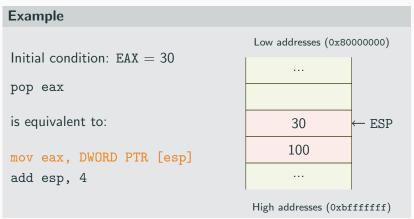
Loads to the destination a word off the top of the stack, then it increases ESP of the operand's size.



Stack Management Instructions: pop

pop destination

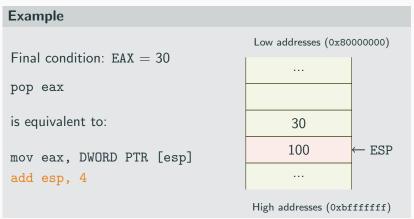
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Stack Management Instructions: pop

pop destination

Loads to the destination a word off the top of the stack, then it increases ESP of the operand's size.



Calling a function

Instruction call:

- Push to the stack the address of the next instruction
- Move the address of the first instruction of the callee into EIP

Example: Let's call func, located at 0x800bff00 Low addresses (0x80000000) Equivalent to: • push eip • jmp func Stack top - ESP (reminder: we can't read or set EIP directly!) High addresses (0xbfffffff) $EIP = 0 \times 8001020$

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Calling a function

Instruction call:

set EIP directly!)

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High addresses (0xbfffffff)

EIP = 0x800bff00

Returning from a function

Instruction ret:

 Restores the return address saved by call from the top of the stack

Example: let's return from func Low addresses (0x80000000) Equivalent to: • pop eip 0×8001020 \leftarrow ESP (reminde: we can't read or set Stack top EIP directly!) High addresses (0xbfffffff) $EIP = 0 \times 800 \text{ bff} = 0 \times$

Returning from a function

Instruction ret:

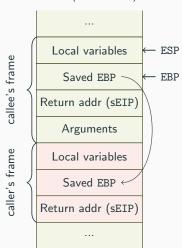
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Example: let's return from func Low addresses (0x80000000) Equivalent to: • pop eip (reminde: we can't read or set Stack top - ESP EIP directly!) High addresses (0xbfffffff) $EIP = 0 \times 8001020$

Functions and Stack Frames

- Stack frame = stack area allocated to a function
- EBP register: pointer to the beginning (base) of a function's frame
- At the beginning of a function:
 - Save EBP to stack
 - Set EBP to the address of the function's frame

Low addresses (0x80000000)



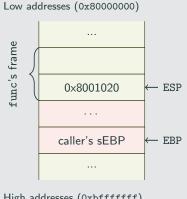
High addresses (0xbfffffff)

Entering a function

Example: We've just called func, located at 0x800bff00

Setup the stack frame

- push ebp
- mov ebp, esp

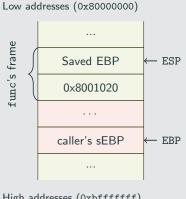


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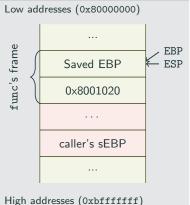


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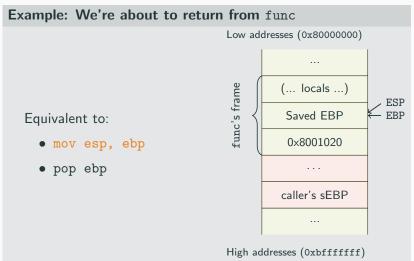
Leaving a function

Instruction leave: restores the caller's base pointer

Example: We're about to return from func Low addresses (0x80000000) func's frame (... locals ...) \leftarrow ESP Saved EBP \leftarrow EBP Equivalent to: 0×8001020 • mov esp, ebp • pop ebp caller's sEBP High addresses (0xbfffffff)

Leaving a function

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Example: We're about to return from func Low addresses (0x80000000) func's frame (... locals ...) Saved EBP Equivalent to: 0×8001020 \leftarrow ESP • mov esp, ebp • pop ebp caller's sEBP \leftarrow EBP High addresses (0xbfffffff)

Calling Conventions

Defines

- how to pass parameters (stack, registers or both, and who is responsible to clean them up)
- how to return values
- caller-saved or callee-saved registers
- The high-level language, the compiler, the OS, and the target architecture all together "implement" and "agree upon" a certain calling convention
 - it's part of the ABI, the Application Binary Interface

Calling Conventions: cdecl (C declaration)

- Default calling convention used by most x86 C compilers
 - Can be forced with the modifier _cdecl
- Arguments: passed through the stack, right to left order
- Cleanup: the caller removes the parameters from the stack after the called function completes
- Return: register RAX
- Caller-saved registers: EAX, ECX, EDX (other are callee-saved)

cdecl: Example

```
void demo_cdecl(int a, int b, int c, int z);
//...
demo_cdecl(1, 2, 3, 4); //calling
```

```
push 4 ; push last parameter value
push 3 ; push third parameter value
push 2 ; ...
push 1
call demo_cdecl ; call the subroutine
add esp, 16 ; clean up the stack
```

Calling Conventions: stdcall

- Microsoft's Win32 API standard calling convention (modifier: _stdcall
- Parameters: passed using the stack (as in _cdecl)
- Main difference: the callee is responsible for clearing the function parameters from the stack before returning
 - To do this, the function needs to know the right number of parameter passed → can be used only with functions having a fixed number of parameters (e.g., no printf).

```
void _stdcall demo_stdcall(int a, int b, int c);
demo_stdcall(1, 2, 3);
```

```
ret 12 ; return and clear 12 bytes from the stack
```

stdcall: Example

```
void function (int a, int b) {
  int array [5];
}
int main (int argc, char** argv) {
  function(1, 2);
  printf("This is where the ret
      address points");
}
```

Low addresses (0x80000000)

array[0]
array[4]
Saved EBP
Return address
1
2

High addresses (0xbfffffff)

Assembler-level View of the Same Example

```
public main
main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp ; create stack
and esp, OFFFFFFFOh
sub esp,10h; make room for vars
mov dword ptr[esp+4],2; push 2
mov dword ptr[esp],1 ; push 1
call function
mov dword ptr [esp], offset format: "This is..."
call _printf
leave
ret
main endp
public function
function proc near
push ebp
mov ebp,esp ; create stack
sub esp, 20h; make room for array
leave
retn 8 : remove 2 dwords
function endp
```

Low addresses (0x80000000)

array[0]
:
array[4]
Saved EBP
Return address
1
2

High addresses (0xbfffffff)

Calling Conventions: fastcall

- Modifier: _fastcall
- Up to 2 parameters passed via registers: ECX and EDX
- Other parameters pushed to the stack (right to left order, stack cleanup by callee as in stdcall)

```
; demo_fastcall(1, 2, 3, 4);
push 4; push 4th parameter
push 3; push 3rd parameter
mov edx, 2; move 2nd parameter in EDX
mov ecx, 1; move 1st parameter in ECX
call demo_fastcall
add esp, 8; clean up the stack
```

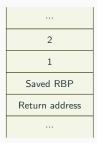
Calling Conventions: Linux x86-64 (System V ABI)

- Parameters passed in registers: rdi, rsi, rdx, rcx, r8, r9, subsequent ones on the stack (reverse order, caller cleanup)
- Callee-saved registers: rbx, rsp, rbp, r12, r13, r14, and r15
- Caller-saved registers (scratch): rax, rdi, rsi, rdx, rcx, r8, r9, r10, r11
- Return value: rax (if 128-bit: rax and rdx)

Linux x86-64 calling convention: Example

```
main:
 push rbp
 mov rbp, rsp
 sub rsp, 16
 mov DWORD PTR [rbp-4], edi
 mov QWORD PTR [rbp-16], rsi
 mov esi, 2 ; Second parameter
 mov edi, 1 ; First parameter
 call function
 mov esi, eax : Return value -> first param
 mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LCO : "The return ...
 mov eax, 0
 call printf
 leave
 ret
function:
 push rbp
 mov rbp, rsp
 mov DWORD PTR [rbp-4], edi
 mov DWORD PTR [rbp-8], esi
 mov edx, DWORD PTR [rbp-4]
 mov eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-8]
 add eax. edx
 pop rbp
 ret
```

Low addresses



High addresses

Tooling

objdump

- man objdump objdump displays information about one or more object files.
- -x all-headers
- -d disassemble
- -M intel intel syntax (default is att)

Debugging: GDB

What is GDB?

GDB is GNU Project's Debugger: allows to follow, step by step, at assembler-level granularity, a running program, or what a program was doing right before it crashed.³

³http://www.gnu.org/software/gdb/

Start, break and navigate the execution with gdb

- Suppose you have an executable binary and want run it
 - gdb /path/to/executable loads the binary in gdb
- Now you decide to start the program with two parameters
 - run 1 "abc" passes 1 via argv[1] and "abc" as argv[2]
 - run 'printf "AAAAAAAAAAAA" (with the back ticks)
 we're passing the output of the print (very useful when you
 need to pass non printable characters such as raw bytes)
- Suppose you want to stop the execution at the address of a certain instruction
 - break *0xDEADBEAF places a break point at that address
 - break *main+1 with 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 stops at our break point. Here we can do several things
- Examples:
 - ni allows to procede instruction per instruction
 - next 4 moves 4 lines ahead (if you have the line-numbers information in the binary)
 - si step into function
 - finish run until the end of current function
 - continue runs until the next break point (if any)
- To see info about the execution state:
 - **info registers** to inspect the content of the registers
 - info frame to see the values of the stack frame related to the function where we are in
 - info file print the information about the sections of the binary

Navigate the stack

- Suppose we're stopped somewhere in the code and want to inspect the stack
- Some useful view of the stack is achievable with:
 - x/100wx \$esp prints 100 words of memory from the address found in the ESP to ESP+100 (x = hexadecimal formatting)
 - x/10wo \$ebp-100 prints 10 words of memory from EBP-100 to EBP-100+10 (o = octal formatting)
 - x/s \$eax prints the elements pointed by EAX (s = string formatting)
- Do you have debug symbols? (i.e., gcc -ggdb)
 - print args prints info about the main parameters
 - print a prints the content of variable 'a'
 - 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 spawns children, 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
- Highly recommended to install pwndbg https://github.com/pwndbg/pwndbg

Layout in gdb

- Text-based interface for GDB
 - **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
- Use CTRL+X A to go back to standard interface.

strace

- Intercepts and records system calls and signals
- Dumps to standard error name, argument and return value of each system call

Useful options

- -p <pid> attach to existing process
- -f trace child process
- -o <filename> output to file
- -e <expr> modifies which events to trace (see manpage)

Itrace

- Intercepts and records dynamic library calls
- Similar to strace, but at a different layer

Thank you!
(time for more questions)