04 Assembly Language and Dissasembly Primer

When analysing a malicious program, you only have it's executable, without it's source code. To gain the understanding of the malware's inner workings and to understand the critical aspects of a malicious binary, code analysis needs to be performed

We will cover the following topics from a code analysis (reverse engineering) perspective.

- Computer basics, memory and the CPU
- Data transfer, arithmetic, and bitwise operations
- Branching and Looping
- Functions and Stack
- Arrays, Strings and Structures
- Concepts of the x64 architecture

1. Computer Basics

All information is represented in *bits*. A bit, can be either a 0 or a 1. The collection of bits can represent a number, a character, or any other piece of information.

Fundamental Data Types

8 bits makes a *byte*. A single byte is represented in two hex digits. Each hexadecimal digit is made up of 4 bits, and is called a *nibble*. A *word* is two bytes in size. A *double word* (*dword*) is four bytes in size. A *quadword* (*qword*) is eight bytes in size.

1.1 Memory

- The RAM stores the mahcine code and data of the computer.
- RAM is an array of bytes with each byte labeled in a unique number, known as it's address.
- The first address starts at 0, and the last is defined by the computer's HW and SW.
- The address and values are represented in hexadecimal.

1.1.1 How Data Resides in Memory

- Data is stored in little-endian format
- Low-order byte is stored at the lowe address, and subsequent bytes are stored in successively higher addresses in the memory

1.2 CPU

• CPU executes instructions (Stored in memory, as a sequence of bytes)

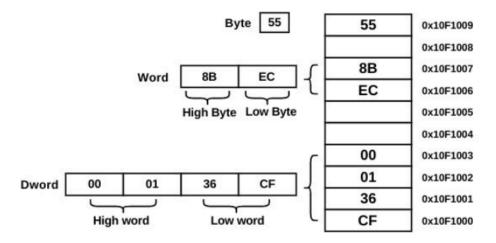


Figure 1: How Data Resides in Memory

- While executing the instructions, the required data is fetched from memory
- CPU contains a register set, wich stores values fetched from memory during execution

1.2.1 Machine Language

- Each CPU has a set of instructions that it can execute (These make up the CPU's Machine Language)
- A compiler translates a program (like C or C++) into machine language

1.3 Program Basics

Program Compilation

- 1. Source code is written in a high level language
 - 2. Source code is run through a compiler
 - 3. Object code is passed through a linker, wich links the object code with it's required libraries

1.3.2 Program On Disk

When a program is compiled, it generates a .exe file, wich, if viewed by *peinternals* displays the 5 sections generated by the compiler (.text, .rdata, .data, .rsrc, .reloc)

- In .data, we store the data, used by our program
- In .rdata, we store read-only data and sometimes, import-export information
- In .rsrc, we store resources used by the executable

• In .text, we store the machine code (Our program translated to machine code by the compiler)

1.3.3 Program in Memory

When the executable is double-clicked a process memory is allocated by the operating system, and the executable is loaded into the allocated memory by the operation system loader.

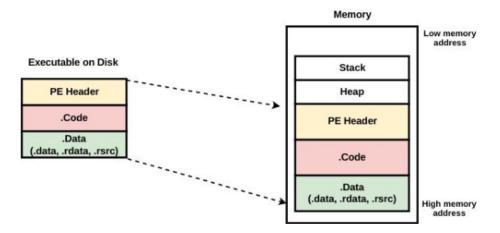


Figure 2: Loading executable from memory

Once the executable that contains the code is loaded into the memory, the CPU fetches the machine code from memory, interprets it, and executes it. While executing the machine instructions, the required data will also be fetched from memory.

1.3.4 Program Dissasembly (From Machine code To Assembly code)

A dissasembler/debugger is a program that translates machine code into a low-level code called assambly wich can be read and analysed to determine the workings of a program.

2. CPU Registers

CPU can access data in registers much faster than data in Memory, this is why the values stored in memory are stored in these registers to perform operations

2.1 General Purpose Registers

- The x86 CPU has 8 general purpose registers:
 - eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esp, ebp, esi, edi

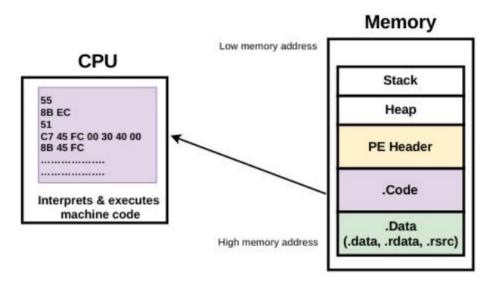


Figure 3: Interaction between the CPU and the memory-loaded program

- These registers are 32 bits (4 bytes) in size.
- A program can access registers as 32-bits, 16-bits or 8-bits
- The lower 16 bits of each of these registers can be accessed as ax, bx, cx, dx, sp, bp, si, di
- The lower 8 bits of eax, ebx, ecx, edx can be referenced as al, bl, cl, dl
- The higher 8 bits can be accessed as ah, bh, ch, dh

As an example:

The eax register contains the 4-byte value 0xC6A93174 A program can access the lower 2 bytes (0x3174) by accessing register ax It can access the lower byte (0x74) by accessing register al and the next byte (0x31) can be accessed using register ah

2.2 Instruction Pointer (EIP)

The CPU has a special register called the eip; it contains the address of the next instruction to execute. When the instruction is executed, the eip will point to the next instruction in the memory.

2.3 EFLAGS Register

The eflags register is a 32-bit register, each bit in this register is a flag. There are also additional registers called *segment registers* (cs, ss, ds, es, fs, gs) which keep track of sections in the memory.

3. Data Transfer Instructions

The mov instruction is one of the basic instructions in the assambly language. It moves data from one location to another.

mov dst,src

There are also different variations of the mov instruction

3.1 Moving a constant into register

A variation of the mov command. Moves a constant or a immediate value into a register.

mov eax,10; moves 10 into EAX register, same as eax=10

3.2 Moving Values From Register to Register

Done by placing the manes of the registers in the operands

mov eax, ebx; moves content of ebx into eax

3.3 Moving values from Memory to Registers

- 1. An integer is 4 bytes in length, so the integer 100 is stored as a sequence of 4 bytes (00 00 00 64) in the memory.
- 2. The sequence of 4 bytes is stored in *little-endian* format
- 3. The integer 100 is stored at some memory address.

To move a value from the memory into a register in the assambly language, you must use the address of the value. The dest (eax) will automatically determine how many bytes to move.

mov eax, [0x403000]; eax will now contain 00 00 00 64 (i.e 100)

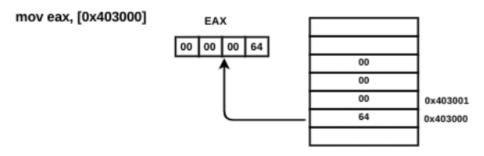


Figure 4: Moving value of register to register

The square brackets may contain a register, a constant added to a register, or a register added to a register.

Another common instruction is the $\verb"lea"$ instruction. This stands for Loat Effective Address. This instruction will load the address instead of the value

```
lea ebx, [0x403000]; loads the address 0x403000 into ebx lea eax, [ebx]; if ebx = 0x403000, then eax will also contain 0x403000
```

Moving Values From Registers To Memory

Swapping the operands, you can move a value from a register to memory

```
mov [0x403000], eax; moves 4 byte value in eax to memory location starting at 0x403000
```

mov [ebx],eax; moves 4 byte value in eax to the memory address specified by ebx

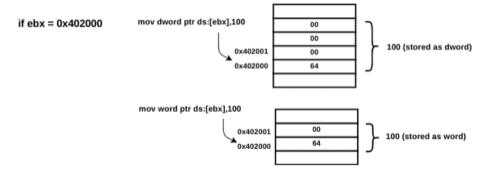
dword ptr just specifies that a dword value (4 bytes) is moved into the memory location.

```
mov dword ptr [402000], 13498h; moves dword value 0x13496 into the address 0x402000
```

mov dword ptr [ebx],100; moves dword value 100 into the address specified by ebx

mov word ptr [ebx],100; moves a word 100 into the address specified by ebx

In the preceding case, if ebx contained the memory address 0x402000, then the second instruction copies 100 as 00 00 00 64 (4 bytes) and the third instruction copies 100 as 00 64 (2 bytes) into the memory location starting at 0x402000, as shown below:



4. Arithmetic Operations

You can perform addition, subtraction, multiplication and division in assambly language. Addition adds $\operatorname{src} + \operatorname{dest}$ and stores it id dest. Same with Subtraction. These instructions set or clear flags in the eflags register. These flags can be

used in conditional statements. The **sub** instruction sets the zero flag (**zf**) if the result is zero, and the carrt flag (**cf**) if the destination value is less than the source.

```
add eax,42 ; same as eax = eax+42
add eax, ebx ; same as eax = eax+ebx
add [ebx],42 ; adds 42 to the value in the address
specified by ebx
sub eax, 64h ; subtracts hex value 0x64 from eax, same
as eax = eax-0x64
```

There are special increments (inc) and decrements (dec) instructions. These add 1 or subtract 1 from either a register or a memory location.

```
inc eax; same as eax = eax + 1 dec eax; same as eax = eax - 1
```

Multiplication is done with the (mul) instruction. This instruction takes only one operand; wich is multiplied by the content of the al, ax, eax register. The result of the multiplication is stored in either ax, dx, edx, eax registers. If the operand of the mul instruction is 8 bits (1 byte), then it is multiplied by the 8-bit al register, and the product is stored in the ax register. If the operand is 16 bits (2 bytes), then it is multiplied with the ax register, and the product is stored in the dx and ax register. If the operand is 32 bit (4 bytes), then it is multiplied with the eax register, and the product is stored in the edx and eax register.

```
mul ebx ; ebx is multiplied with eax and the result is stored in EDX and EAX \, mul bx ; bx is multiplied with ax and the result is stored in DX and AX \,
```

Division is performed using the div instruction. The div takes only one operand, wich is either a register or a memory reference. To perform division, you place the dividend (number to divide) in the edx and eax registers, with edx holding the most significant *dword*. After the div instruction is executed, the quotient is stored in eax, and the remainder is stored in the edx register:

```
div ebx; divides the vaule in EDX: EAX by EBX
```

5. Bitwise operations

Assembly instructions that operate on the bits The bits are numbered starting from the far right (rightmots (least significant bit) bit has a bit position of 0) The leftmost bit, is called the most significant bit

not instruction:

Takes only one operand, serves as src and dst and inverts all of the bits.

 ${\tt not}$ ${\tt eax}$ Converts 11100110 to 00011001 and stores it in the same register

and instruction:

and bl,cl

bl: 0000 0101 cl: 0000 0110

After the operation:

bl: 0000 0100

or instruction:

or bl,cl

bl: 0000 0101

cl: 0000 0110

After the operation:

bl: 0000 0111

xor instruction:

xor bl,cl

bl: 0000 0101

cl: 0000 0110

After the operation:

bl: 0000 0011

shr (Shift right)

Takes two operands, the destination and the count The destination can be either a register or a memory reference

shr bl,4

bl: 0000 0101

After the operation:

bl: 0000 0000

shl (Shift left)

Takes two operands, the destination and the count The destination can be either a register or a memory reference

shl bl,3

bl: 0000 0110

After the operation:

bl: 0011 0000

rol and ror (rotate left and rotate right)

Are similar to shift, but instead of removing the shifter bits, they are rotated to the other end.

rol al,2

al: 0100 0100

After the operation:

al: 0001 0001

6. Branching and conditionals

Branching instructions transfer the control of execution to a different memory address. To perform branching, jump instructions are typically used. There are two types: *conditional* and *unconditional*

6.1 Unconditional jumps

jmp <jump address>

The jump is always taken.

6.2 Conditional jumps

Control is transferred to a memory address based on some condition. To use conditional jumps, we need instructions that can alter the flags (set or clear). These instructions can be performing a arithmetic operation or a bitwise operation

cmp instruction

Subtracts the second operand from the first one without altering the dest (first operand)

```
cmp eax,5; if eax has a value of 5
```

Would set the zero flag (zf=1) because the result is 0. used with conditional jump instruction for decision-making

test instruction

Alters flags, without storing the result in dst Performs a bitwise and and alters zero flag (zf=1) because when you and 0 with 0, you get 0. used with conditional jump instruction for decision-making

Variations of conditional jumps

These conditions are evaluated based on the bits in the eflags register.

Instruction	Description	Aliases	Flags
jz	jump if zero	je	zf=1
jnz	jump if not zero	jne	zf=0
jl	jump if less	jnge	sf=1
jle	jump if less or equal	jng	zf=1 or sf=1
jg	jump if greater	jnle	zf=0 and sf=0
jge	jump if greater or equal	jnl	sf=0
jc	jump if carry	jb,jnae	cf=1
jnc	jump if not carry	jnb,jae	

Figure 5: Conditional jumps

6.3 If statements

In order to reverse-engineer a program, we have to understand how the if, if-else and if-else if-else statements are translated into assambly.

In the following example, translated to assambly, the jump will be taken when the condition **is not met**.

```
if (x == 0) {
    x = 5;
}
```

This code, will be translated in assambly into:

```
cmp dword ptr [x], 0
jne end_if
mov dword ptr [x], 5
end_if:
mov dword ptr [x], 2
```

6.4 If-else statement

There are two conditions in this case.

```
if (x == 0) {
  x = 5;
} else {
  x = 1;
```

If x == 0 the code inside the if statement will be executed and then, the program will jump the else statement. If x != 0 the code inside the if will be jumped and the code inside the else will be executed.

in assambly:

```
cmp dword ptr [x], 0
jne else
mov dword ptr [x], 5
jmp end
else:
mov dword ptr [x], 1
end:
```

6.5 If-Elseif-Else Statements

In the next example, there are two conditional statements, if $x \neq 0$ it will jump to the second conditional statement, if this one is not met, it will jump this one, and go to the else.

```
if (x == 0) {
  x = 5;
}
else if (x == 1) {
  x = 6;
else {
  x = 7;
}
wich translated into assambly:
     cmp dword ptr [ebp-4], 0
     jnz else_if
    mov dword ptr [ebp-4], 5
    jmp short end
    else_if:
    cmp dword ptr [ebp-4], 1
     jnz else
    mov dword ptr [ebp-4], 6
     jmp short end
     else:
    mov dword ptr [ebp-4], 7
     end:
```