ASSEMBLY NOTES

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Contents

1	Attribution	2
2	Three Sections	2
3	Comments	3
4	Statements	3
5	Tool Chain	3
6	Syntax of Statements	6
7	Assembly Hello World	6
8	Compiling and linking with nasm	7
9	Memory Segments	7
10	Registers	8
11	System Calls	12
12	Instructions	13
13	Related Topics Link to tutorial	23

1 Attribution

Nothing here is original, this is barely more than a rewording of x86-64 Assembly Language Programming with Ubuntu by Ed Jorgensen. Anything not from there is almost certainly from some other popular tutorial. These are just personal notes for my use which you are welcome to read, copy, etc.

2 Three Sections

An assembly program has the following three sections: Data, BSS, Text.

2.1 data

The following syntax denotes the beginning of the data section:

```
section .data
```

This section contains initialized data and constants. Does not change at runtime.

2.2 bss

This denotes the beginning of the variable section:

```
section .bss
```

The bss section contains variable declarations.

2.3 text

This section contains the actual code.

```
section .text
  global _start
_start:
```

Global start lets the kernel know where the program execution begins.

3 Comments

Comments are preceded with a semicolon. Comments can contain any printable character

```
; this is a full line comment
add eax, ebx ; this is an inline comment
```

4 Statements

There are three types of statements:

• instructions

These tell the processor what to do. Each instruction has an op-code.

• directives or pseudo-ops

These tell the assembler about the various aspects of the assembly process. These are non-executable.

• macros

Text substitution

5 Tool Chain

The software tools used in creating assembly programs are as follows:

- Assembler
- Linker
- Loader
- Debugger

5.1 Assembler

The assembler is a program converts assembly code into machine language (binary). The output file is known as an object file, hence the .o suffix. During this process the variable names get removed and converted into addresses.

5.1.1 Assembler commands for yasm

The following command will create a list file for a given program written in a .asm:

yasm -g dwarf2 -f elf64 example.asm -l example.lst

- -g dwarf2 instructs the assembler to include debugging information in the final object file.
- -f elf64 instructs the assembler to output a ELF64 object file, suitable for 64-bit Linux systems.
- -1 example.1st tells the assembler to create a list file.

1. List File

This file gives a line by line mapping of assembly to machine language. It can be useful for debugging.

2. Two Pass Assembler

Since assembly language can have control flow commands, such as jumps, if statements, etc. Assembly is not necessarily executed linearly. To create machine code from an assembly program the assembler takes two passed over the code.

(a) First Pass

Often this includes tasks such as creating a symbol table, expanding macros and evaluating constant expressions.

(b) Second Pass

This usually includes the final generation of the code, creation of the list file, if required, and creating the object file.

5.2 Linker

Also known as the linkage editor. This combines object files into a single executable. It also includes any libraries required for execution. The following is a command for the GNU Gold linker:

ld -g -o example example.o

The -g flag tells the linker to include debugging information. The -o flag specifies the output file, here example. Multiple object files can be linked together. When using a function from another file, the function must be flagged with extern.

5.2.1 Dynamic Linking

Linux supports dynamic linking. This allows resolution of some symbols be postponed until the execution of the program. Under Linux dynamically linked object files have the extension .so, shared object. The Windows equivalent is .dll.

5.2.2 Assemble/Link Script

The following is an example of a bash script to automate the calls to the assembler and linker into a single call.

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
if [ -z $1 ]; then
   echo "Usage: ./asm64 <asmMainFile> (no extension)"
   exit
fi

# verify no extent ions were entered
if [ ! -e "$1.asm" ]; then
   echo "Error, $1.asm not found."
   echo "Note, do not enter file extensions."
   exit
fi

# Compile, assemble, and link
yasm -Worphan-labels -g dwarf2 -f elf64 $1.asm -l $1.lst ld -g -o $1 $1.o
```

5.3 Loader

This is the part of the operating system that loads the program from secondary storage into memory. Under Linux this is done with the program name. For example, if the program is called hello_world, the command will be:

./hello_world

5.4 Debugger

This is a program that can control the execution of the assembly program in order to inspect how it is (or is not) working.

6 Syntax of Statements

Assembly language has one statement per line

```
[label] mnemonic [operands] [; comment]
```

Fields in the square brackets are optional. There are two basic parts to the instruction - the name (mnemonic) and the operands. For example:

```
INC COUNT; increment the variable COUNT
```

MOV TOTAL; Transfer the total value 48 into memory variable TOTAL

7 Assembly Hello World

```
section .text
  global _start ; must be declared for linker
_start:
  mov edx,len ; message length
  mov ecx,msg ; message to write
  mov ebx,1 ; file descriptor (stdout)
  mov eax,4 ; system call number (sys_write)
  int 0x80 ; call kernel

mov eax,1 ; system call number (sys_exit)
```

```
int 0x80   ; call kernel
section .data
msg db 'Hello, world!', 0xa ; string to be printed
en equ $ - msg ; length of the string
```

8 Compiling and linking with nasm

- save the above as a file with extension .asm, for example: hello.asm
- assemble program with:

```
nasm -f elf hello.asm
```

- if no errors, hello.o will have been created
- To link the object file and create the executable file named hello:

```
ld -m elf_i386 -s -o hello hello.o
```

• execute with:

./hello

9 Memory Segments

9.1 Segmented memory model:

In a segmented memory model the system memory is divided into independent segments. Segments are used to store specific types of data. One segment for instruction codes, one for data elements, etc.

9.2 Data segment

Represented by the .data section and the .bss section. The .data section is holds static data that remains unchanged during the course of the program. The .bss section is also for static data. Data here are declared during the course of the program. The .bss section is zero filled prior to execution.

9.3 Code segment

Represented by the .text section. Fixed data that stores instruction codes.

9.4 Stack

This contains data passed to functions and procedures during the course of a program.

10 Registers

In order to avoid the slow process of reading and storing data in memory, the processor has temporary storage locations called registers. These can store data elements for processing without having to access memory.

10.1 Processor Registers

The 32 bit processor has 10 registers. These are grouped into the following categories:

- General (Data, Pointer, Index)
- Control
- Segment

10.1.1 General Registers

1. Data

These are used for arithmetic, logic and other operations. They have three different modes of usage:

- As complete 32-bit registers: EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX
- \bullet The lower halves can be used as four 16 bit data registers: AX, BX, CX, DX
- The lower halves of the above 16 bit registers can be used as eight 8-bit registers: AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, DL

• AX - Primary Accumulator

I/O for most arithmetic instructions, for example multiplication. One operand is stored in other EAX, AX or AL depending on size.

• BX - Base

Sometimes used in index addressing.

• CX - Count

Stores loop counts in various iterative operations

• DX - Data:

Also used in I/O. Notably when large numbers are involved.

2. Pointer Registers

Stores addresses in memory. In 32-bit these are EIP, ESP and EBP. In 16-bit these correspond to IP, SP and BP.

• IP - Instruction Pointer

Stores the offset address of the next instruction to be executed. In combination with the CS register (CS:IP) gives the full address of the current instruction in code segment.

• SP - Stack Pointer

Provides the offset value in the program stack. In combination with the SS register (SS:SP) gives the current position of data or address in the program stack.

• BP - Base Pointer

Helps in referencing the parameter variables passed to a subroutine. The address in SS in combination with the offset BP gives the location of a parameter. Can also be combined with DI and SI as a base register for special addressing.

3. Index Registers

ESI and EDI in 32-bit, or SI and DI in 16-bit.

• SI - Source Index

Source index for string operations

• DI - Destination Index

Destination index for string operations.

10.1.2 Control

For comparisons and conditional instructions that control flags.

• OF - Overflow Flag

Indicates overflow of leftmost bit in a signed math operation

• DF - Direction Flag

In string comparison operations, indicates left or right direction of movement. 0 for left-to-right and 1 is right-to-left

• IF - Interrupt Flag

Flags if keyboard or other interrupts are to be ignored or processed. 0 for ignored or 1 for processed.

• TF - Trap Flag

Allows the processor to work in single step mode for debug purposes.

• SF - Sign Flag

Indicates the sign of a arithmetic result.

• ZF - Zero Flag

Indicates whether a result of an arithmetic expression is zero.

• AF - Auxiliary Carry Flag

Used for specialized arithmetic to carry from bit 3 to bit 4.

• PF - Parity Flag

Indicates the total number of 1 (on) bits in the result of an arithmetic expression. If even then 0, odd then 1.

• CF - Carry Flag

Contains the carry from the leftmost bit after an arithmetic operation. It also stores the contents of the last bit of a shift or rotate operation.

		1	Table	1: P	ositic	ons of	f flag	g in	the i	flags	regis	ster				
Flag					O	D	Ι	\mathbf{T}	\mathbf{S}	\mathbf{Z}		A		Ρ		\mathbf{C}
Bit	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

10.1.3 Segment Registers

These refer to specific areas defined for data, code and stack.

• CS - Code Segment

Contains the starting address of the code segment.

• DS - Data Segment

Contains the starting address of the data segment.

• SS - Stack Segment

Contains the starting address of the stack segment.

There are additional segment registers: ES, FS, GS.

All memory locations within a segment are relative to the starting address of the segment. Since all segments will start at an address that is evenly divisible by 16 (hex 10) there is always a zero in the rightmost hex digit. This zero is not stored in segment registers.

10.2 Example of using registers

```
section .text
  global _start
                  ; must be declared for linker (gcc)
_start:
                  ; tell linker entry point
 mov edx,len
                  ; message length
 mov ecx, msg
                  ; message to write
                  ; file descriptor (stout)
 mov ebx,1
                  ; system call number (sys_write)
 mov eax,4
                  ; call kernel
  int 0x80
 mov edx,9
                  ; message length
 mov ecx,s2
                  ; message to write
 mov ebx,1
                  ; file descriptor (stout)
                  ; system call number (sys_write)
 mov eax,4
  int 0x80
                  ; call kernel
                  ; system call number (sys_exit)
 mov eax,1
  int 0x80
                  ; call
section .data
msg db 'Displaying 9 stars', 0xa ; a message
len equ $ - msg ; length of message
s2 times 9 db '*'
```

11 System Calls

API between the the user space and the system space. System calls are used by putting the number associated with that call into EAX and the arguments to that system call into other specific registers.

For example, this is the call to exit the program. sys_exit:

```
mov eax,1; system call number moved into eax int 0x80; call kernel
```

Here is an example for a syscall that has arguments, sys_write:

```
mov edx,4; message length
```

```
mov ecx,msg ; some message that has been defined in the data section
mov ebx,1 ; file descriptor (1 is for standard out)
mov eax,4 ; system call number (sys_write)
int 0x08 ; call kernel
```

All syscalls are listed in /usr/include/asm/unistd.h which can be used to look up their numbers. The following is a table of commonly used system calls with their arguments:

EAX (number)	Name	EBX	ECX	EDX	ESX	EDI
1	${\rm sys}_{\rm exit}$	int'				
2	$\mathrm{sys}_{\mathrm{fork}}$	struct pt_{regs}				
3	$\mathrm{sys}_{\mathrm{read}}$	unsigned 'int	char	$\operatorname{size}_{\operatorname{t}}$		
4	$\mathrm{sys}_{\mathrm{write}}$	unsigned int'	const char	$\operatorname{size}_{\operatorname{t}}$		
5	$\mathrm{sys}_{\mathrm{open}}$	const char*	int	int		
6	SVSclose	unsigned int				

12 Instructions

12.1 Move

```
mov <dest>, <src>
; for example
```

mov ax, 42; the integer 42 is put into the 16 bit ax register mov cl, byte [bvar]; into the lower c register, a byte is copied from the address of bvar mov qword [qvar], rdx; a quad word from the address of qvar is copied into the 64 bit d reg

- Copies data
- Source and destination cannot both be in memory.
- when copying a double word into a 64 bit register, the upper portion of the register is set to zeros.

12.2 Address

The load effective address command lea is used to put the address of a variable into a register.

```
lea <reg64>, <mem>
; for example
lea rcx, byte [bvar] ; put the location of bvar into the rcx register
```

12.3 Convert

Conversion instructions change a variable from one size to another. Narrowing conversions require no specific instructions since the lower portions of registers are directly accessible.

```
mov rax, 50
mov byte [bval], al
```

Widening conversions vary depending on the data types involved.

12.3.1 widening - unsigned

Unsigned numbers only take positive values, therefore when dealing with unsigned numbers the upper part of the memory location or register must be set to zero.

```
mov al, 50 mov rbx, 0 mov bl, al
```

There is an instruction especially for performing this: movzx

```
movzx <dest>, <src>
```

NB: This does not work when converting a quadword destination with a double word source operand. However, simply using mov in this situation will achieve the desired result since it will set the upper portion of the register or memory location to zeros.

12.3.2 widening - signed

When the data is signed, the upper portion must be set to ether zeros or ones depending on the sign of the number.

movsx <dest>, <src> ;general form, used always except when converting between double and quamovsxd <dest>, <src> ; used then converting from double to quadword

Specific registers also have their own signed widening conversion instructions:

instruction	use
cbw	from byte in al to word in ax
cwd	from word in ax to double word in dx:ax
cwde	from word in ax to double word in eaxy
cdq	from double word in eax to quadword in edx:eax
cdqe	from double word in eax to quadword in rax
cqo	from quadword in rax to double quadword in rdx:rax

12.4 Arithmetic

12.4.1 Addition

```
add <dest>, <src> ; this results in: <dest> = <dest> + <src>
```

Operands must be of the same type. Memory to memory addition cannot use the above. One of the operands must be moved into a register.

```
; Num1 + Num2 (memory to memory) assuming that both are byte size.

mov al, byte [Num1]

add al, byte [Num2]

mov byte [Ans], al
```

There is also a command for incriminating a value by 1.

```
inc <operand>
; for example:
inc rax
; when incriminating an operand in memory, specify the size:
inc byte [bNum]
```

When the numbers being added will result in a sum greater than the register size of the machine, it is necessary to add with a carry. In this situation the Least Significant Quadword is added with an add instruction, then the Most Significant Quadword is added with an add (add with carry). The second addition must immediately follow the first so that the carry flag is not altered by anything else.

```
dqsum ddq 0
```

; using the declarations above:

```
mov rax, qword [dquad1] ; the first 64 bits of dquad1
mov rdx, qword [dquad1+8] ; the last 64 bits of dquad1

add rax, qword [dquad2] ; add the first 64 bits of dquad2
adc rdx, qword [dquad2+8] ; add with carry the last 64 bits of dquad2
mov qword [dqSum], rax ; result is put into dqSum
mov qword [dqSum+8], rdx
```

12.4.2 Subtraction

The subtraction commands are self-explanatory when taken with the above information on addition.

```
sub <dest>, <src>
dec <operand>
```

12.4.3 Multiplication

There are different commands for multiplying signed or unsigned integers. Both typically produce double sized results.

1. Unsigned Integer Multiplication The general form is as follows:

```
mul <src>
```

One of the operands must use an A register (al, ax, eax, rax) depending on size. The result is placed in the A (and possibly D) registers.

size	register	operand	output registers
byte	al	op8	ah, al
word	ax	op16	dx, ax
double word	eax	op32	edx, eax
quad word	rax	op64	rdx, rax

For example, if two double words are multiplied, the result will be a quad word in dx:ax

2. Signed Integer multiplication Signed integer multiplication is more flex able with its operands / sizes. The destination must always be a register.

```
imul <src>
imul <dest>, <src/imm>
imul <dest>, <src>, <imm>
```

- When one operand is used then imul works like mul, but the operands are interpreted as signed.
- If two operands are used then the source and destination values are multiplied and the destination value is overwritten. In this case, the source may be an immediate value, a register or a location in memory. A byte size destination operand is not supported.
- When three operands are used, the last two are multiplied and the
 product is placed in the destination. The src must not be an immediate value. The imm must be an immediate value. The result is
 truncated to the size of the destination operand. Byte size destination is not supported.
- 3. Integer Division Division requires that the dividend is larger in data type size than the divisor. It is critical that the dividend is set correctly for division to work. For word, double word and quad word divisions the dividend requires both the D (for upper) and A (for lower) registers. The

divisor can be a memory location or a register, not an intermediate. The result will be placed in the A register, the remainder will go into ether the ah, dx, edx or rdx registers.

Size	Dividend registers	Divisor	result register	remainder register
Byte	ah, al	op8	al	ah
Word	dx, ax	op16	ax	dx
Double Word	edx, eax	op32	eax	edx
Quad Word	rdx, rax	op64	rax	rdx

Signed and unsigned integer division instructions work in the same way but have different instructions.

```
div <src> ; unsigned
idiv <src> ; signed

; for example
mov ax, word [NumA]
mov dx, 0
mov bx, 5
div bx
mov word [Ans], ax
```

12.5 Logic

```
0101
                     0101
                                  0101
        0011
                     0011
                                  0011
                                               0011
; and => 0001 or => 0111 xor => 0110 not => 1100
and <dest>, <src> ; both cannot be memory
; ||
or <dest>, <src>
                   ; both cannot be memory
xor <dest>, <src>
                   ; both cannot be memory
not <op>
         ; op cannot be immediate
```

12.6 Shift

```
; logical shifts
shl <dest>, <imm> ; shift left, imm or cl must between 1 and 64
shl <dest>, cl

shr <dest>, <imm> ; shift right, imm or cl must be between 1 and 64
shr <dest>, cl

; arithmetic shift
sal <dest>, <imm> ; left shift. Zero fills the space made: 0010 -> 0100
sal <dest>, cl

sar <dest>, cl
```

12.7 Rotate

Rotations are essentially shifts that put the bits that would be shifted off the end onto the beginning, or vica verca.

```
rol <dest>, <imm> ; rotate left
rol <dest> cl

ror <dest>, <imm> ; rotate right
ror <dest> cl
; for example:

rol rcx, 32
ror qword [qNum], cl
```

the imm or the value in the cl register must be between 1 and 64. The destination operand cannot be immediate.

12.8 Control instructions

These include structures such as if statements and looping.

12.8.1 Labels

These are targets for jumps. These should start with a letter, and my include numbers, underscores, and should be followed by a colon. In YASM labels are case sensitive.

12.8.2 Unconditional control instructions.

jmp <label> ; moves execution in the program to the label.

12.8.3 Conditional Control Instructions

These are made up of two instructions that must happen one immediately after the other. First there has to be some sort of comparison, then the jump instruction. The comparison will compare two operands and store the result in the rFlag register.

```
cmp <op1>, <op2>; operands must be of the same size.; op1 must not be immediate, op2 may be immediate.
```

This should be followed by a jump instruction.

```
je <label> ; if op1 == op2
jne <label> ; if op1 != op2
jl <label> ; signed, if op1 < op2
jle <label> ; signed, if op1 <= op2
jg <label> ; signed, if op1 >= op2
jge <label> ; signed, if op1 >= op2
jbe <label> ; unsigned, if op1 <= op2
jbe <label> ; unsigned, if op1 <= op2
ja <label> ; unsigned, if op1 <= op2
ja <label> ; unsigned, if op1 >= op2
jae <label> ; unsigned, if op1 >= op2
```

For example, this is a possible implementation for an if else statement:

; using the following declerations:

```
TRUE equ 1
FALSE equ 0
x dd 0
y dd 0
```

```
0
  ans
          dd
  errFlag db
                 FALSE
         dword [x], 0
                           ; compare the contents of \boldsymbol{x} to 0
  cmp
         doElse
                           ; if eaual go to location deElse
  jе
         eax, dword [x]
                          ; ... the "not equal branch". Put x in eax
  mov
                           ; change dword into qword (prep for division)
  cdq
         dword [y]
  idiv
         dword [ans] eax
  mov
  mov
         byte [errFlag]
  jmp
         skpElse
doElse:
  mov
         dword [ans], 0
  mov
         byte [errflg], TRUE
skp:Else:
```

Notes for the above example:

- 1. since using signed division idiv, conversion was required: cdq.
- 2. ebx was overwritten.

12.8.4 Jump Range

For the above short jumps the target label must be no more than 128 bytes from the jump call. However, this limit does not apply for the unconditional jump jmp.

12.9 Iteration

Iteration commands can be used to make simple loops. For example, the following codeblock shows a loop for summing odd integers within a range:

```
lpCnt dq 15
sum dq 0

; using the above declerations:
mov rcx, qword [1pCnt] ; loop Counter
```

12.10 Example program using intructions

```
section .data
 SUCCESS
               equ 0
 SYS_exit
               equ 60
               10
 sumOfSquares dq
section .text
global start
_start:
              rbx, 1
 mov
              ecx, dword [n]
 mov
sumloop:
 mov
              rax, rbx
 mul
              rax
 add
              qword [sumOfSquares], rax
              rbx
 inc
              rbx, [n]
 cmp
  jе
              last
 loop
              sumLoop
last:
              rax, SYS_exit
 mov
              rdi, SUCCESS
 mov
 syscall
```

13 Related Topics

13.1 Addressing data in memory

The process through which execution is controlled is called the fetch-decode-execute cycle. The instruction is fetched from memory. The processor can access one or more bytes of memory at a given time. The processor stores data in reverse-byte sequence.

For example, for hex number 0725H:

```
In register:
|--07--|--25--|
In memory:
|--25--|--07--|
```

13.2 Memory Hierarchy

Table 2: Shows access speeds for different types of storage

Memory Unit	Example Size	Typical Speed
Processor Registers	16 to 64 bit registers	~ 1 nanosecond
Cache Memory	4 - 8 + Megabytes (L1 and L2)	\sim 5 to 60 nanoseconds
Primary Storage (RAM)	2 - 32 Gigabytes	\sim 100 to 150 nanoseconds
Secondary storage (HDD)	500 Gigabytes to 4+ Terabytes	\sim 3-15 milliseconds

13.3 Integer representation

size name	size	unsigned range	signed range
byte	2^{8}	0 - 255	-128 - 127
word	2^{16}	0 - 65535	-32,768 - 32767
double word	2^{32}	0 - 429497294	-2147483648 2147483647
quadword	2^{64}	$0 - 2^{64} - 1$	$-(2^{63})$ - 2^{63} -1
double quadword	2^{128}	$0 - 2^{128} - 1$	$-(2^{127})$ - 2^{127} -1

13.4 Two's Complement

Signed numbers are often represented in two complement form. A negative representation of a positive number can be made by flipping the bits and then adding 1. For example:

9 00001001 step 1 11110110 step 2 11110111