

Assembly & Disassembly Primer

Part 2

If Statement

From a reverse engineering perspective, it is important to understand how branching/conditional statements (like **if**, **if-else** and **if-else if-else**) are translated into assembly language:

```
if (x == 0) {  
    x = 5;  
}  
x = 2;
```

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

The following screenshot shows the **IF** statement and the corresponding assembly instructions.

```
if (x == 0)  → { cmp dword ptr [x], 0
               jne  end_if
{
  x = 5;     → { mov dword ptr [x], 5
}
x = 2;      → { end_if:
               mov dword ptr [x], 2
```

If-Else Statement

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

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

```
else:  
mov     dword ptr [x], 1  
  
end:
```

If-Elseif-Else Statement

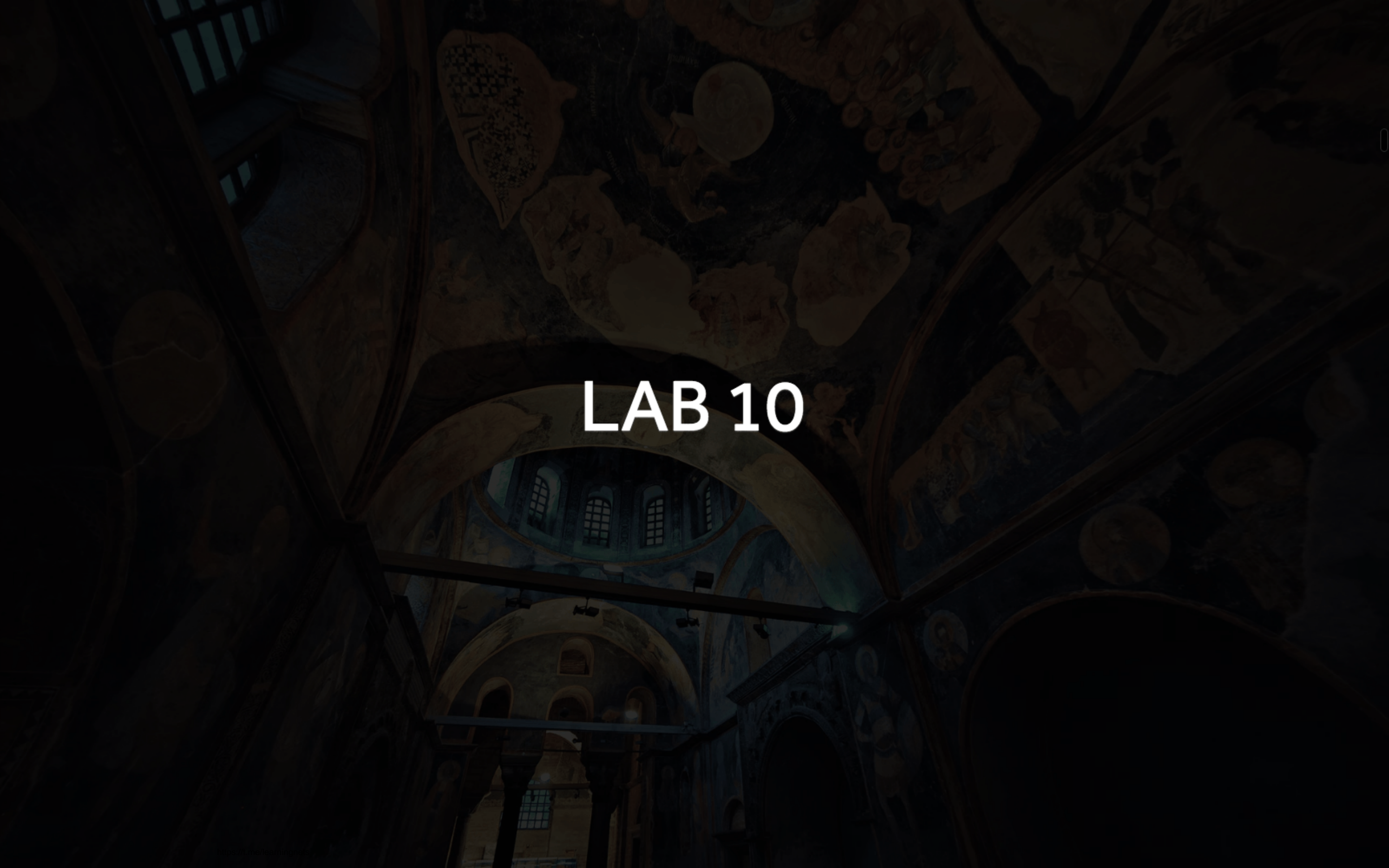
```
if (x == 0) {  
    x = 5;  
}  
else if (x == 1) {  
    x = 6;  
}  
else {  
    x = 7;  
}
```

```
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:
```



LAB 10

LAB 10 - Disassembly Challenge

The following is the disassembled output of a program; Can you translate the following code to its high-level equivalent?. Use the techniques and the concepts that you learned previously to solve this challenge

```
mov     dword ptr [ebp-4], 1
cmp     dword ptr [ebp-4], 0
jnz     loc_40101C
mov     eax, [ebp-4]
xor     eax, 2
mov     [ebp-4], eax
jmp     loc_401025
```

loc_40101C:

```
mov     ecx, [ebp-4]
xor     ecx, 3
mov     [ebp-4], ecx
```

loc_401025:

Loops

- Loops execute a block of code until some condition is met.
- The loops jump backward.
- The two most common types of loops are for and while.

```
for (initialization; condition; update_statement ) {  
    block of code  
}
```

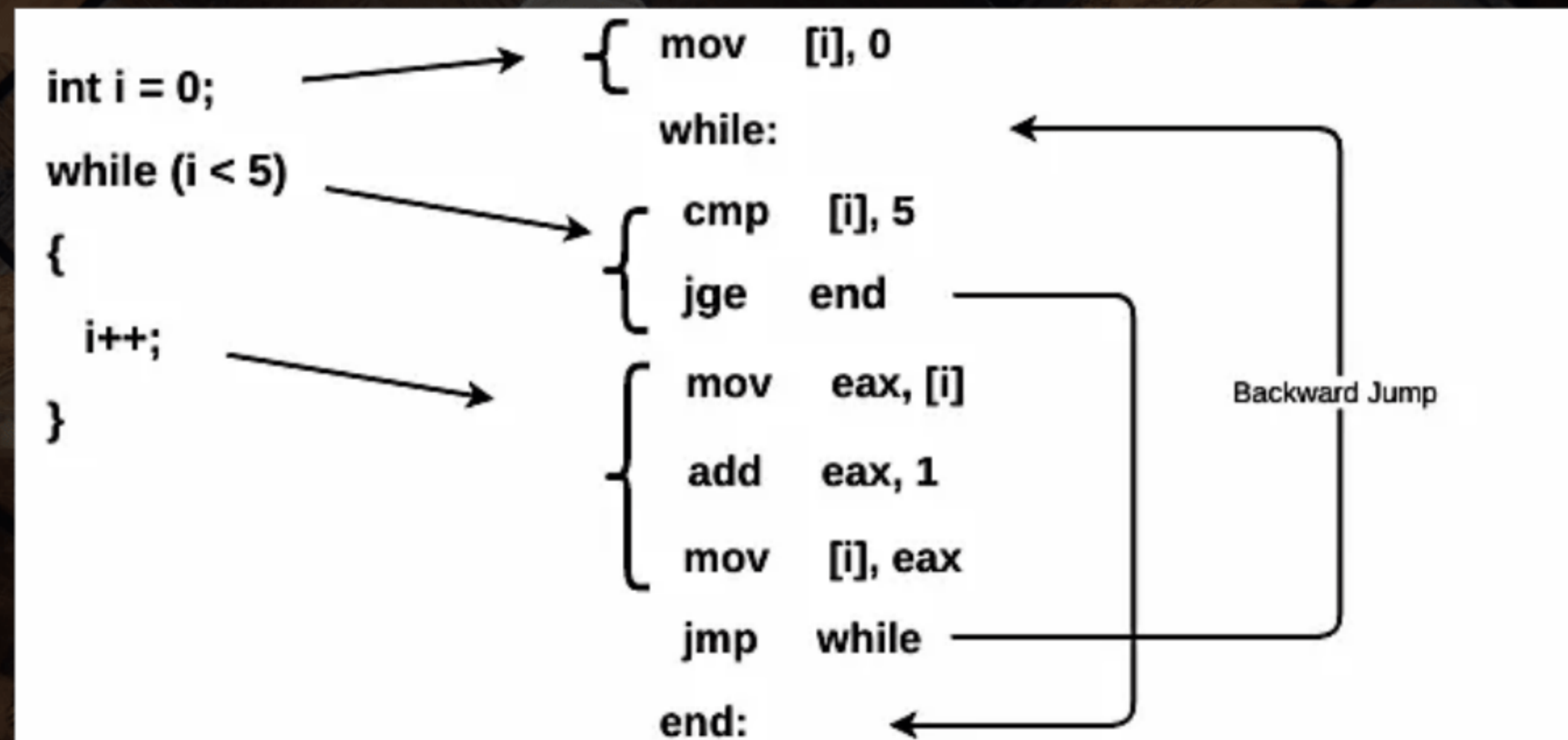
```
initialization  
while (condition)  
{  
    block of code  
    update_statement  
}
```

```
int i;  
for (i = 0; i < 5; i++)  
{  
}
```

The above code in for loop can be written using while loop as shown below.

```
int i = 0;  
while (i < 5) {  
    i++;  
}
```

The following screenshot shows the **While loop** and the corresponding assembly instructions.





LAB 11

LAB 11 - Disassembly Challenge

The following is the disassembled output of a program; Can you translate the following code to its high-level equivalent?. Use the techniques and the concepts that you learned previously to solve this challenge

```
mov  dword ptr [ebp-8], 1
mov  dword ptr [ebp-4], 0

loc_401014:
cmp   dword ptr [ebp-4], 4
jge   short loc_40102E
mov   eax, [ebp-8]
add   eax, [ebp-4]
mov   [ebp-8], eax
mov   ecx, [ebp-4]
add   ecx, 1
mov   [ebp-4], ecx
jmp   short loc_401014
```

```
loc_40102E:
```



Functions

- A function is a block of code that performs specific tasks; normally, a program contains many functions.
- When a function is called, the control is transferred to a different memory address. CPU then executes the code at that memory address, and it comes back (control is transferred back) after it finishes running the code.
- The function contains multiple components: a function can take data as input via **parameters**, it has a **body** that contains the code it executes, it contains **local variables** that are used to temporarily store values and it can output data.
- The parameters, local variables, and function flow controls are all stored in an important area of the memory called the **stack**.

Stack

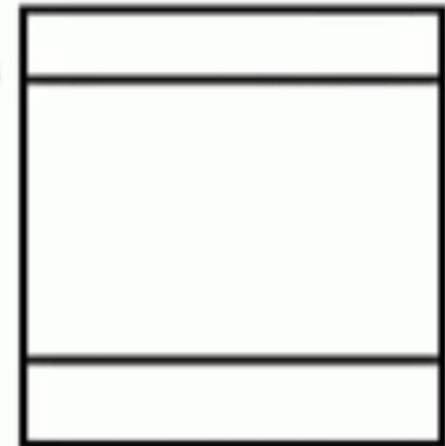
- Area of the memory that gets allocated by the operating system when the thread is created.
- The stack is organized in a Last-In-First-Out (LIFO) structure. The most recent data that you put in the stack will be the first one to be removed from the stack.
- You put data (called **pushing**) into the stack using **PUSH** instruction, and you remove data (called **popping**) from the stack using the **POP** instruction.
- The **PUSH** instruction pushes a 4-byte value onto the stack, and the **POP** instruction pops a 4-byte value from the top of the stack.
- The stack grows from higher addresses to lower addresses.
- when a stack is created, the **ESP** register (also called the **stack pointer**) points to the top of the stack (higher address), and as you push data into the stack, the **ESP** register decrements by 4 (**ESP-4**) to a lower address.
- When you pop a value, the **ESP** increments by 4 (**ESP+4**).

Stack Example

Before executing the following instructions, the ESP register points to the top of the stack (for example, at address 0xff8c), as shown here:

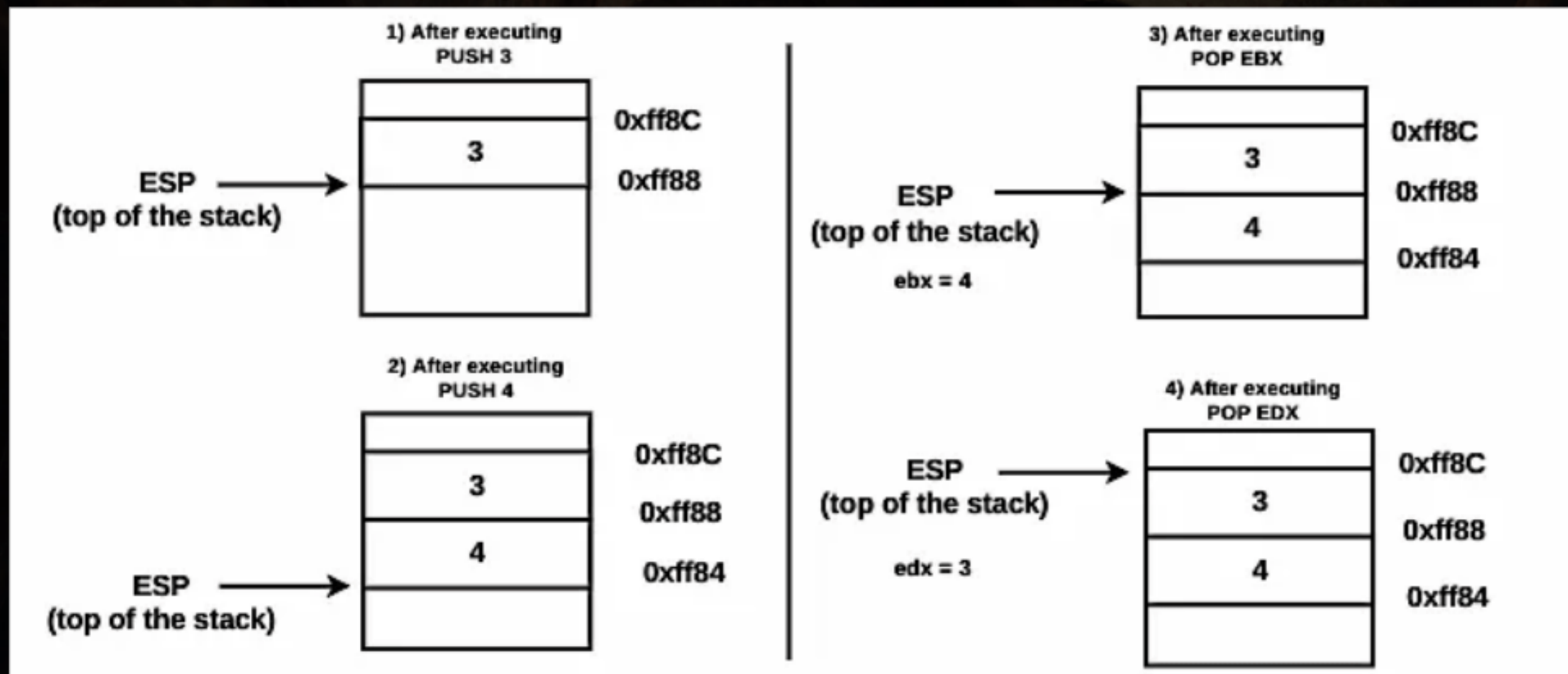
```
push 3  
push 4  
pop ebx  
pop edx
```

ESP
(top of the stack)



0xff8c

push 3
push 4
pop ebx
pop edx



Calling & Returning From a Function

The **CALL** instruction in the assembly language can be used to call a function. The general form of the **CALL** looks as follows:

```
call <some_function>
```

When the **CALL** instruction is executed, the control is transferred to **some_function**, before that, it stores the address of the next instruction by pushing it onto the stack.

The address following the **CALL** which is pushed onto the stack is called the **return address**.

To return from a function, **RET** instruction is used. **RET** pops the address from the top of the stack; the popped address is placed in the **EIP** register, and the control is transferred to the popped address.

In the x86 architecture, the parameters that a function accepts are pushed onto the stack, and the return value is placed in the **eax** register.

Function Example

In order to understand the function, let's take an example of a simple C program. When the following program is executed, the **main()** function calls **test** function and passes two integer arguments: **2** and **3**. Inside the **test** function, the value of arguments is copied to the local variables **x** and **y**, and the **test** returns a value of **0** (return value):

```
int test(int a, int b)
{
    int x, y;
    x = a;
    y = b;
    return 0;
}

int main()
{
    test(2, 3);
    return 0;
}
```

The statements inside the *main()* function are translated into assembly instructions as follows:

```
int main()
{
test(2, 3);
return 0;
}
```

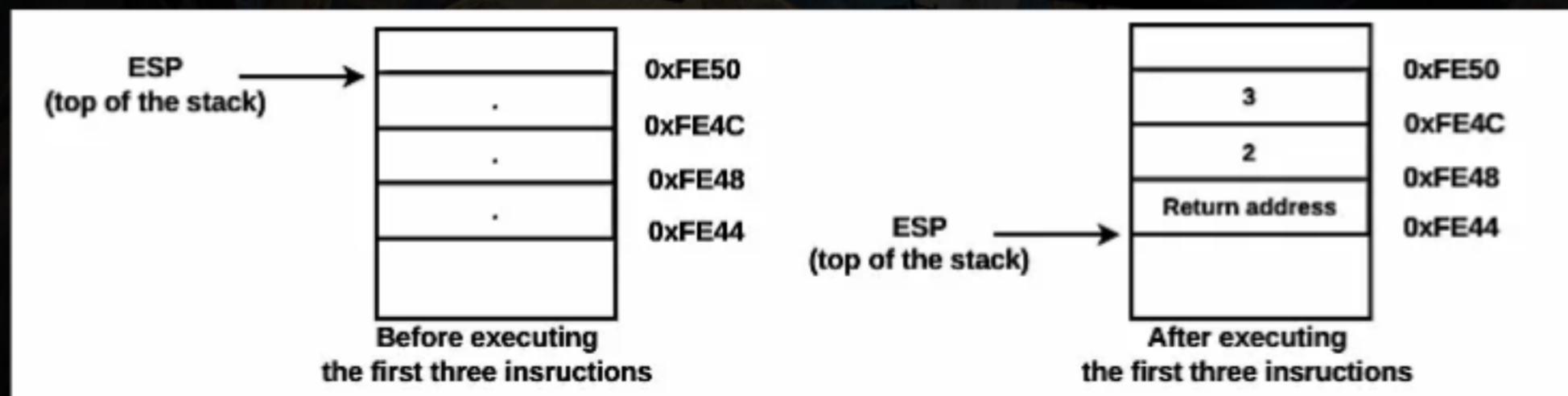
```
push 3 ①
push 2 ②
call test ③
add esp, 8
xor eax, eax
```

The first three instructions, ①, ②, and ③, represent the function call *test(2,3)*. The arguments (2 and 3) are pushed onto the stack before the function call in the reverse order (from right to left). The function, *test()*, is called at ③; as a result, the address of the next instruction, *add esp,8*, is pushed onto the stack (this is the return address), and then the control is transferred to the start address of the *test()* function

Let's assume that before executing the instructions ①, ②, ③, the esp (stack pointer) was pointing to the top of the stack at the address **0xFE50**. The following screenshot depicts what happens before and after executing ①, ②, ③

```
int main()  
{  
  test(2, 3);  
  return 0;  
}
```

```
push 3 ①  
push 2 ②  
call test ③  
add esp, 8  
xor eax, eax
```



Now let's focus on the `test()` function. The following is the assembly translation of the `test()` function.

```
int test(int a, int b)
{
    int x, y;
    x = a;
    y = b;
    return 0;
}
```

```
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret
```

```

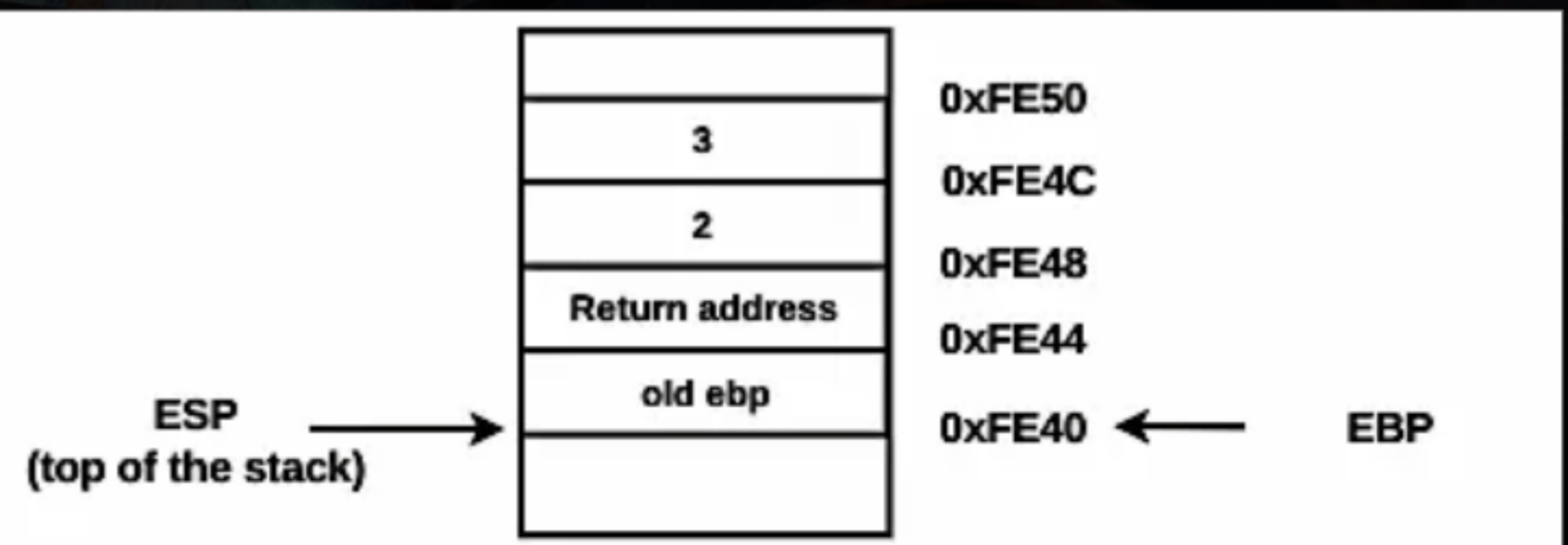
push ebp ④
mov ebp, esp ⑤
sub esp, 8
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp ⑥
pop ebp ⑦
ret

```

The first instruction ④ saves the **EBP** (also called the **frame pointer**) on the stack; this is done so that it can be restored when the function returns. In the next instruction, at ⑤, the value of **ESP** is copied into **EBP**; as a result, both **ESP** and **EBP** point at the top of the stack. The **EBP** from now on will be kept at a fixed position, & application uses **EBP** to reference function arguments & the local variables.

You will normally find **push ebp** and **mov ebp, esp** at the start of most of the functions; these two instructions are called **function prologue**.

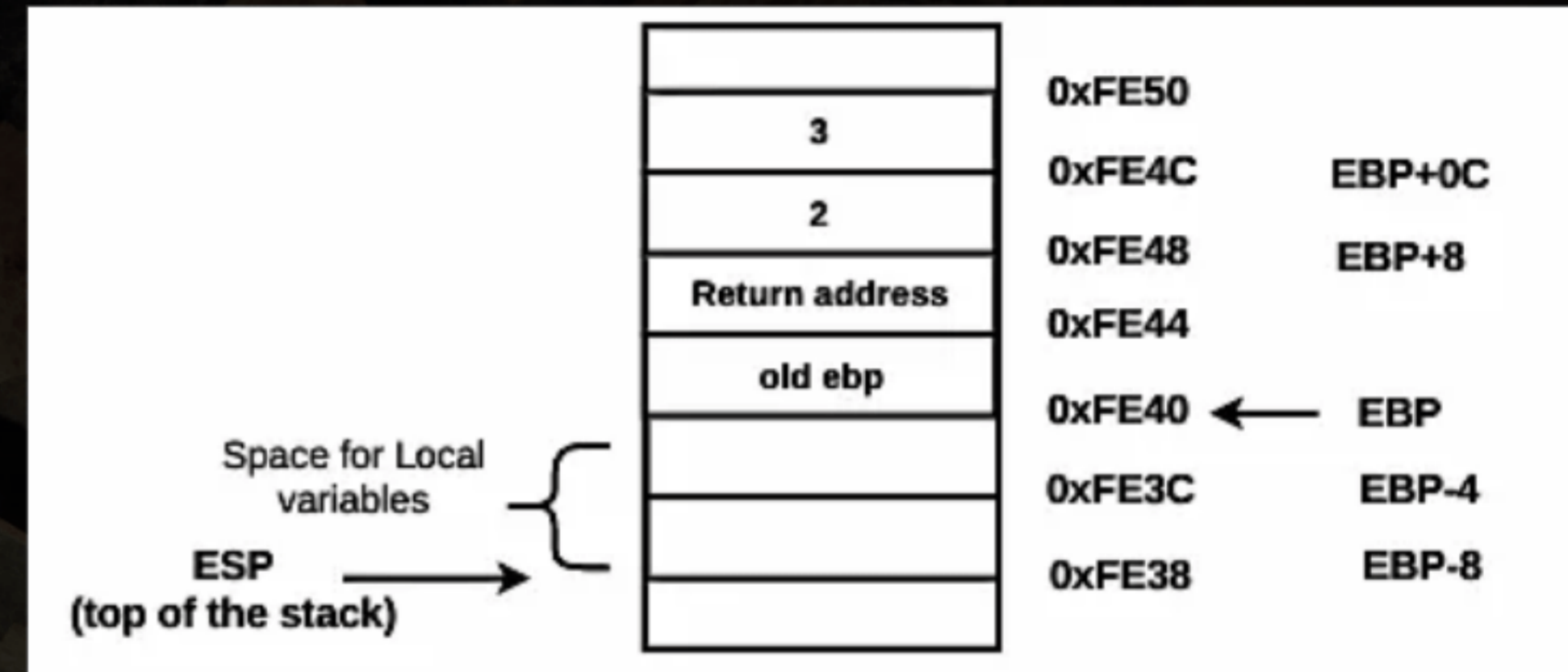
At ⑥ and ⑦, the two instructions (**mov esp, ebp** and **pop ebp**) perform the reverse operation of **function prologue**. These instructions are called **function epilogue**.



```

push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8 ⑧
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
xor eax, eax ⑨
mov esp, ebp ⑥
pop ebp
ret

```



At ⑧, **sub esp, 8** further decrements the **esp** register. This is done to allocate space for the local variables (**x** and **y**)

Notice that the **ebp** is still at a fixed position, and function arguments can be accessed at a positive offset from **ebp** (**ebp + some value**). The local variables can be accessed at a negative offset from **ebp** (**ebp - some value**)

The actual code of the **test()** function is between ⑧ and ⑥. At ⑨, **xor eax, eax** sets the value of **eax** to 0. This is the return value (**return 0**)

Now let us translate the code inside the test() function to high level equivalent. In the below code, *xor eax, eax* is replaced with *return 0*

```
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
return 0
```

```
mov eax, [a]
mov [x], eax
mov ecx, [b]
mov [y], ecx
return 0
```

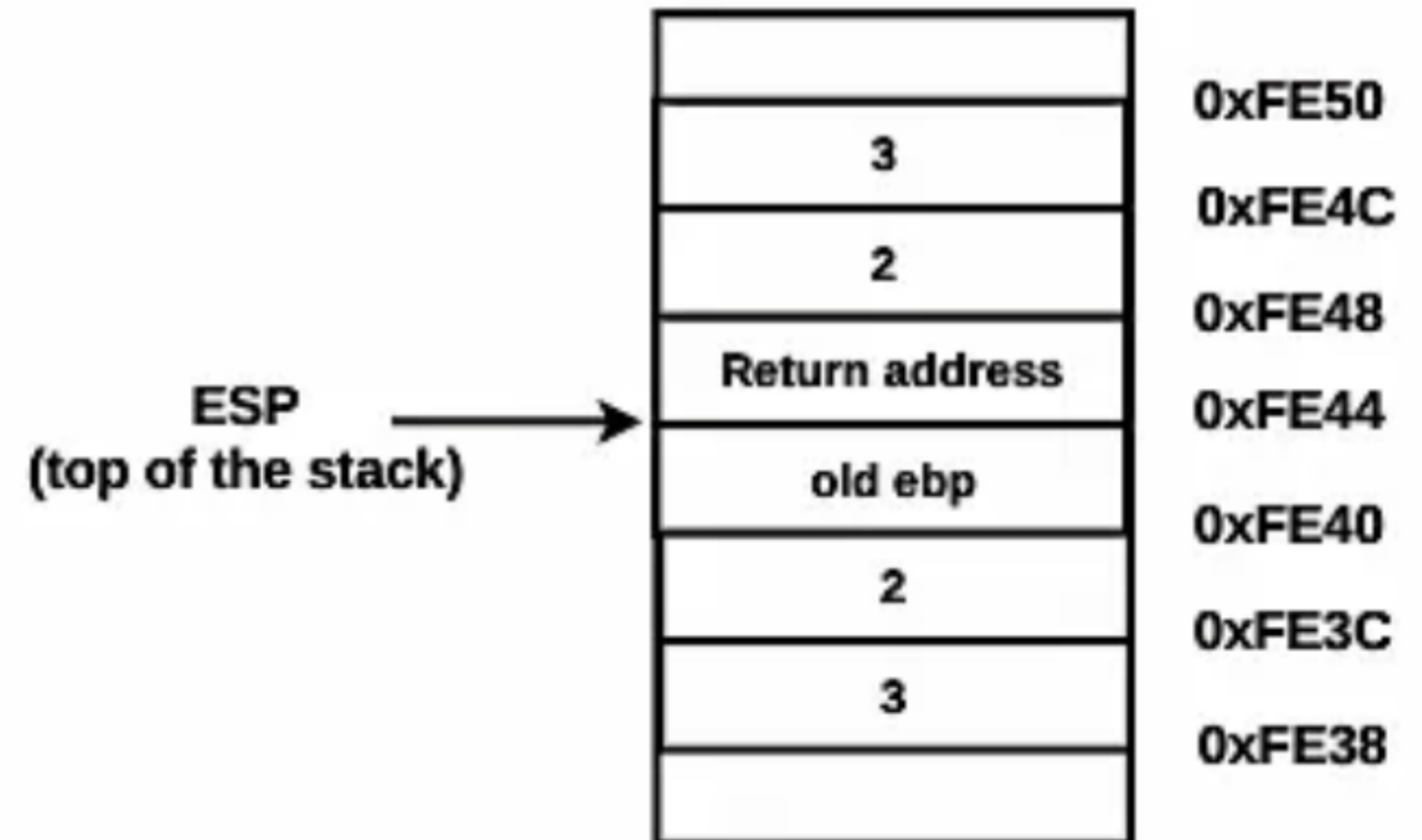
```
x = a
y = b
return 0
```

```

push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp ⑥
pop ebp ⑦
ret

```

The function epilogue instructions, **mov esp,ebp** at ⑥ copies the value of **ebp** into **esp**; as a result, **esp** will point to the address where **ebp** is pointing. The **pop ebp** at ⑦ restores the old **ebp** from the stack; after this operation, **esp** will be incremented by 4. The stack will now look like the one shown below:

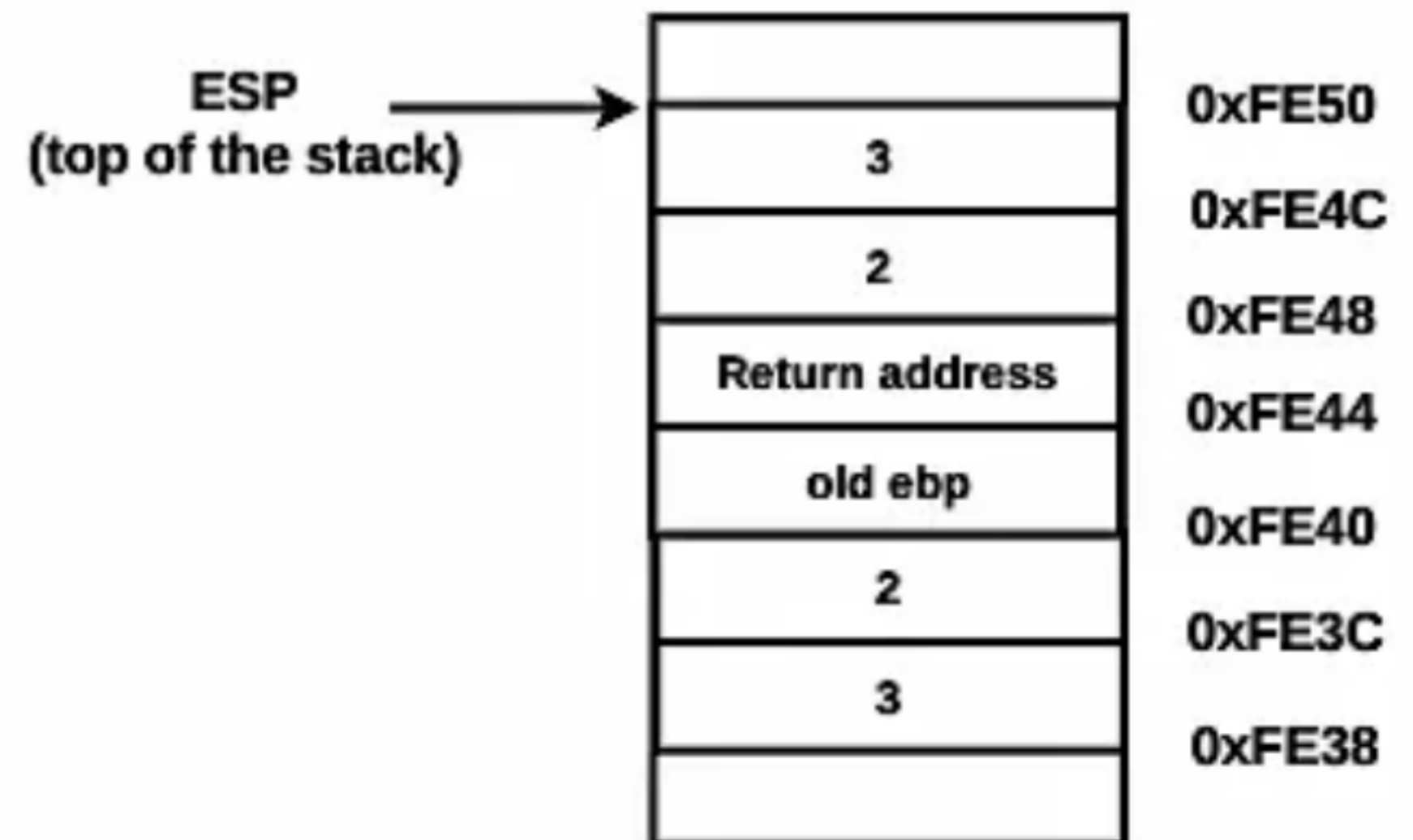


```

push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
mov eax, [ebp+8]
mov [ebp-4], eax
mov ecx, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-8], ecx
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret ⑩

```

At ⑩, when the *ret* instruction is executed, the return address on top of the stack is popped out and placed in the *eip* register. Also, the control is transferred to the return address (which is *add esp, 8* in the main function). As a result of popping the return address, *esp* is incremented by 4. At this point, the control is returned to the *main* function from the *test* function. The instruction *add esp, 8* inside of *main* cleans up the stack, and the *esp* is returned back to its original position (the address **0xFE50**, from where we started).



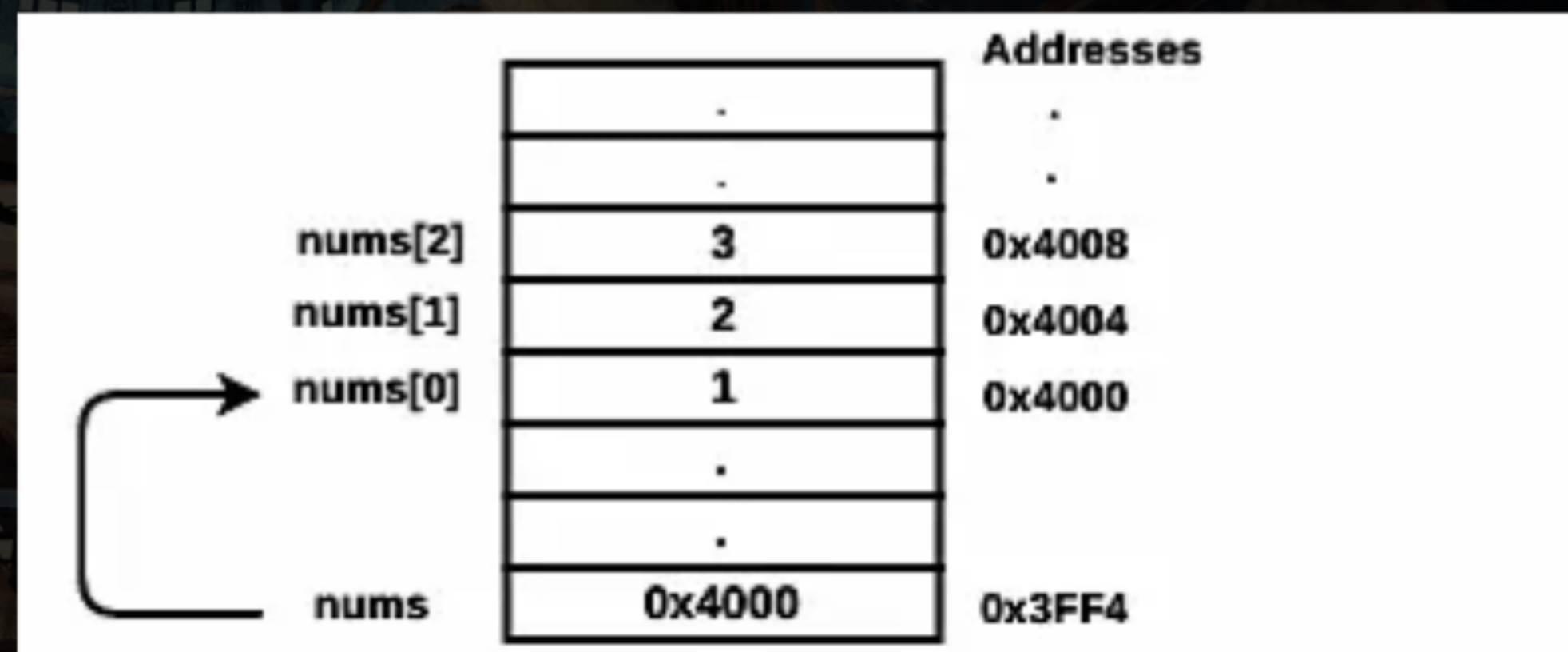


Arrays & Strings

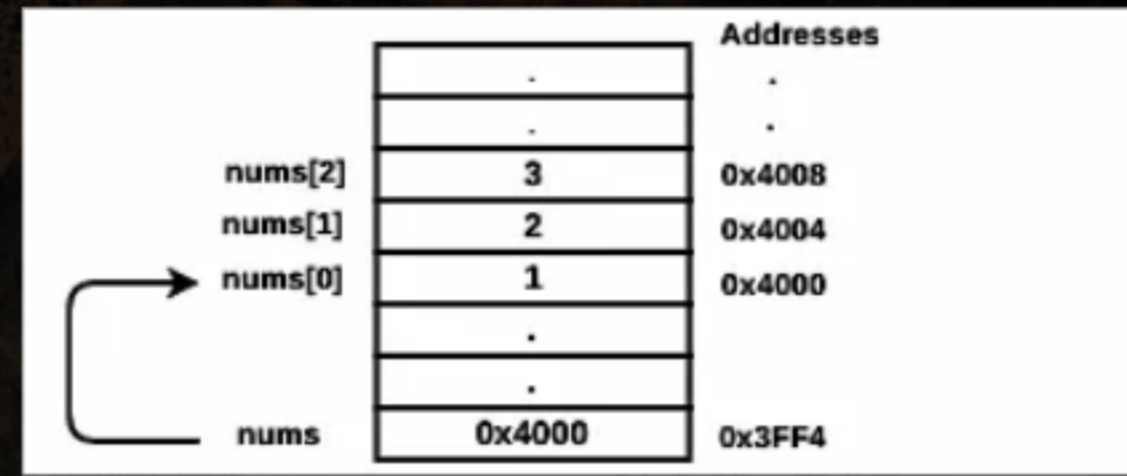
Arrays & Strings

An array is a list consisting of the same data types. The array elements are stored in contiguous locations in the memory, which makes it easy to access array elements

```
int nums[3] = {1, 2, 3}
```



You can access the elements of the integer array (the size of each element is 4 bytes) as shown here:



```
nums[0] = [nums+0*4] = [0x4000+0*4] = [0x4000] = 1
nums[1] = [nums+1*4] = [0x4000+1*4] = [0x4004] = 2
nums[2] = [nums+2*4] = [0x4000+2*4] = [0x4008] = 3
```

A general form is represented as follows:

```
nums[i] = nums+i*4
```

The general format for accessing the elements of an array:

```
[base_address + index * size of element]
```

Structures

A structure groups different types of data together; each element of the structure is called a *member*. The structure members are accessed using constant offsets.

In the following program, **simpleStruct** definition contains three member variables (**a**, **b**, and **c**) of different data types. The **main** function defines the structure variable (**test_stru**) at ❶, and the address of the structure variable (**&test_stru**) is passed as the first argument at ❷ to the **update** function. Inside of the update function, the member variables are assigned values:

```
struct simpleStruct
{
int a;
short int b;
char c;
};
void update(struct simpleStruct *test_stru_ptr) {
test_stru_ptr->a = 6;
test_stru_ptr->b = 7;
test_stru_ptr->c = 'A';
}
int main()
{
struct simpleStruct test_stru; ❶
update(&test_stru); ❷
return 0;
}
```

The translation of the **update** function is shown below

At ③, the base address of the structure is moved into `eax` register (remember, `ebp+8` represents the first argument; in our case, the first argument contains the base address of the structure). At this stage, `eax` contains the base address of the structure. At ④, the integer value `6` is assigned to the first member by adding the offset `0` to the base address (`[eax+0]` which is the same as `[eax]`). Because the integer occupies 4 bytes, notice at ⑤ the **short int value 7** (in `cx`) is assigned to the second member by adding the offset `4` to the base address. Similarly, the value `41h (A)` is assigned to the third member by adding `6` to the base address at ⑥

```
void update(struct simpleStruct *test_stru_ptr) {  
    test_stru_ptr->a = 6;  
    test_stru_ptr->b = 7;  
    test_stru_ptr->c = 'A';  
}
```

```
push ebp  
mov ebp, esp  
mov eax, [ebp+8] ③  
mov dword ptr [eax], 6 ④  
mov ecx, 7  
mov [eax+4], cx ⑤  
mov byte ptr [eax+6], 41h ⑥  
mov esp, ebp  
pop ebp  
ret
```

x64 Architecture

This section covers some of the differences in the x64 architecture:

- The first difference is that the 32-bit (4 bytes) general purpose registers **eax**, **ebx**, **ecx**, **edx**, **esi**, **edi**, **ebp**, and **esp** are extended to **64 bits (8 bytes)**; these registers are named **rax**, **rbx**, **rcx**, **rdx**, **rsi**, **rdi**, **rbp**, and **rsp**. The eight new registers are named **r8**, **r9**, **r10**, **r11**, **r12**, **r13**, **r14**, and **r15**
- **x64 architecture can handle 64-bit (8 bytes) data and all of the addresses and pointers are 64 bits (8 bytes) in size.**
- The x64 CPU has a **64-bit** instruction pointer (**rip**) that contains the address of the next instruction to execute, and it also has a 64-bit flags register (**rflags**), but currently, only the lower 32 bits are used (**eflags**)
- The x64 architecture supports **rip-relative** addressing. The rip register can now be used to reference memory locations; that is, you can access data at a location which is at some offset from the current instruction pointer.
- In the x64 architecture, the first four parameters are passed in the **rcx**, **rdx**, **r8**, and **r9** registers, and if the program contains additional parameters they are stored on the stack.

64-bit Example

```
printf("%d %d %d %d %d", 1, 2, 3, 4, 5);
```

```
sub rsp, 38h ①  
mov dword ptr [rsp+28h], 5 ⑦  
mov dword ptr [rsp+20h], 4 ⑥  
mov r9d, 3 ⑤  
mov r8d, 2 ④  
mov edx, 1 ③  
lea rcx, Format ; "%d %d %d %d %d" ②  
call cs:printf
```

At ①, **0x38 (56 bytes)** of space is allocated on the stack. The **1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th** parameters are stored in the rcx, rdx, r8 and r9 register (before the call to printf), at ②, ③, ④, ⑤. The **5th** and the **6th** parameters are stored on the stack (in the allocated space), using instructions at ⑥ and ⑦