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CS Basics
5) Programming in Assembly Language

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▸ Computer Science Division

Programming in Assembly Language

- Minimal Program
- Move
- Flags
  - Increment and decrement
  - Conditional jumps
- Signed Values
- Structure of a program
- The Stack
- Interrupts
  - Software Interrupts
  - Hardware Interrupt
- System call 64-bit
- Conclusion

Minimal Program

Minimal Program

- **For studying functionalities we need a “sandbox”**
  - To play with
  - That do not do anything important
  - That we can totaly destruct and rebuild
- **Solution**
  - A program with no instruction, where we will try new features
  - Only one thing is obligatory: a start point

Assembly Language Sandbox

- **sandbox.asm**

```
section .data
section .text
        global  _start
_start:
        nop ; Put your experiments between ↘
        →the two nops...

        nop ; Put your experiments between ↘
        →the two nops...
```

- **Attention:**
  This program does not terminate properly, it is just for testing purpose inside a debugger,
  Terminate the program manualy otherwise it will generate a core dump

Move

The MOV instruction

- **Moves data from one location to another**
  - Syntax
  - `mov destination, source`
- **Is the most used command**
  - Move information from register to memory
  - from memory to register
  - from register to register
  - But NOT form memory to memory
- **Examples**

```
mov RAX, 42
```

Immediate Data

- **Immediate addressing**
  - The data is built right into the machine instruction itself
  - It is neither in a register, nor in a data segment
  - Opcode (which implies instruction length) is also in the instruction

```
mov RAX, 42
mov RBX, 'Hello'
mov RCX, 0ABCDh
```

- **Hello is stored in reverse order**
  - Because of "little endian"
- **Size must be compatible**
  - cl is a 8-bit register 067EFh is 16 bits

```
mov cl, 067EFh  ; Instruction is not ↘
→accepted by NASM
```

Move Register Data

- **Register Addressing**
  - Name the register to work with

```
mov EBP, ESI      ; 32-bit
mov BL, CH           ; 8-bit
add DX, AX           ; 16-bit
add ECX, EDX       ; 32-bit
add RAX, RBX       ; 64-bit
```

- **ADD instruction**
  - Adds the source to the destination

Example

- **Test the following in a debugger**

```
mov ax,067FEh
mov bx, ax
mov cl,bh
mov ch,bl
```

- **Set the breakpoint on the first instruction**
  - Single-step through the instructions
  - watch carefully
  - Half registers (8-bit) are used for accessing CX

Memory Data

- **Is stored in the memory "owned" by the program**
  - Can be access using general purpose registers

```
;; Move to and from memory
mov rbx, Snippet          ;the address↘
→ of the string in memory
mov rcx, 3                ; the offset↘
→ in the string
mov ax, [rbx]             ; Move 16 ↘
→bits
mov rax, [rbx+3]          ; Move 64 ↘
→bits
mov eax, [rbx+rcx]        ; Move 32 ↘
→bits
```

- **The [] operator**
  - Accesses the memory at the address inside the brackets
  - [ebx] referes to memory whose address is stored in ebx
  - [ebx+3] the memory whose address is the value of ebx plus 3
  - [ebx+ecx] the memory whose address is the sum of the values of ebx and ecx

Memory Data (Cont.)

- **Size copied**
  - The size of data copied from the memory depends on the size of the register
  - ax is 16-bit
  - eax is 32-bit
  - rax is 64-bit

Confusing Data and its Address

- **Labels are addresses**
  - EatMsg is the address of the string
  - [EatMsg] is the content of the address
  - For a 32-bit register, we transfer 4 bytes
  - For a 64-bit register, we transfer 8 bytes

```
section .data
        EatMsg  db "Eat␣at␣Joe's"
section .text
        global  _start
_start:
        nop ; Put your experiments between ↘
        →the two nops
        mov rcx, EatMsg ; copy the address
        mov rdx, [EatMsg]       ; Copy 64 ↘
        →first bits of the message
        nop  ; Put your experiments between ↘
        →the two nops
```

Flags

Flags

- **The EFLAG register contains 32 bits:**
  - each one could be a flag
  - Contains 18 Flags
  - We present the most usefull ones
  - Most of the flags represent a “result” of some kind
- **OF: Overflow Flag**
  - When an arithmetic operation on a signed integer quantity becomes too large
  - Is generally used as a “carry” flag in signed arithmetic
- **DF: Direction Flag**
  - It tells the CPU something you want
  - Tells the direction you want for string instruction
  - If DF = 1 string instructions proceed from high memory toward low memory
  - if DF=0 string instructions proceed from low memory toward high memory.

Flags (Cont.)

- **IF: Interrupt enable flag**
  - The CPU can set it
  - You can set it using `STI` (set IF) and `CLI` (clear IF)
  - When IF is set, interrupts are enabled and may occur when requested
  - When IF is cleared interrupts are ignored
- **TF: Trap Flag**
  - allows debuggers to manage single-stepping
  - it forces the CPU to execute only a single instruction
- **SF: Sign Flag**
  - becomes set, when the result of an operation forces the operand to become negative
  - means: the first bit becomes 1 during the operation

Flags (Cont.)

- **ZF: Zero Flag**
  - is set when the result of an operation becomes zero.
- **PF: Parity Flag**
  - Familiar with serial data communication
  - Indicates if the number of ones in the low-order byte is even or odd
- **CF: Carry Flag**
  - is used in unsigned arithmetic operations
  - if the result "carries out" a bit from the operand

Increment and decrement

Increment and decrement

- **INC: Increment**
  - Adds one to its operand
- **DEC: decrement**
  - Substract one from its operand
- **Example**

```
mov eax, 0FFFFFFFFh
mov ebx, 02Dh
dec ebx
inc eax
```

  - ebx becomes 2Ch
  - eax becomes 0
  - Carry Flag is not affected by `INC`
- **The last instruction changes Flags**
  - PF (parity), AF (Auxillary), ZF (zero), IF (interrupt) are set

Conditional jumps

Conditional jumps

- **Most of the flags have a conditional jump**
  - JNZ : Jump if not zero
  - If ZF is clear, nothing is done
  - If ZF is set, execution travels to a new destination
- **Example: First loop**

```
        ;;  A first loop
        mov eax, 5
DoMore: dec eax
        jnz DoMore
```

- As long as eax is not zero, loops to `DoMore`

Kangaroo

- **Kangaroo.asm**

```
section .data
        Snippet db "KANGAROO"
section .text
        global  _start
_start:
        nop
; Put your experiments between the two ↘
→nops...
        mov ebx,Snippet
        mov eax,8
DoMore: add byte [ebx],32
        inc ebx
        dec eax
        jnz DoMore
; Put your experiments between the two ↘
→nops...
        nop
```

Kangaroo (Cont.)

- **The string "KANGAROO" is stored in memory**
  - It receives a label `Snippet`
- **eax is a counter that is decremented**
  - ebx is incremented from the Snippet label, to the end of the string
- **Letters are changed to lowercase**
  - Code adds 32 to all the letters
  - We can check in the memory with the debugger

Signed Values

Signed Values

- **x86 architecture uses two's complement for signed values**
  - -42 is denoted in a 8 bit register 256-42
  - on a 32-bit registers 100000000H-42
  - on a 64-bit register 10000000000000000H -42
- **Let us try the following code**

```
        mov eax, 5
DoMore: dec eax
        jmp DoMore
```

  Jump is unconditional (it is always done)

- **Eax becomes**

```
0FFFFFFFFh (-1)
0FFFFFFFEh (-2)
0FFFFFFFDh (-3)
0FFFFFFFCh (-3)
```

NEG instruction

- **NEG generates a negative number**
  - Transforms a positive number into a negative one.
- **Example**

```
;; We generate a negative number
mov eax, 42
neg eax
add eax, 42
```

- **We increment the last positive number and get a negative one**

```
;; we increment the last positive ↘
→number
;; changes SF (sign flag)
mov ebx, 07FFFFFFh
inc ebx                        ; sets the ↘
→CF PF AF SF OF
```

Move signed numbers

- **Moving signed numbers**
  - MOV does not work if the size changes
  - The number is copied as a number
  - The new number is not a valid negative number
- **Solution: MOVSX Move with Sign eXtension**

```
mov ax, -42
mov ebx, eax                ; value is ↘
→not -42
mov ax, -42
movsx ebx, ax               ; value ↘
→remains -42
```

Multiplication

- **MUL and DIV handle unsigned calculation**
  - MUL multiplies two operands
  - But the result is larger than the operand
  - if operands are 64-bit, result can be 128-bit
  - need two registers for the result
- **IMUL and IDIV handle signed calculation**
  - Pretty much the same functionality with signed numbers

MUL implicit operands

- **Explicit operand**
  - One factor
- **Implicit operand**
  - One factor (AL, AX, EAX, RAX depending on the size of the explicit operand)
  - Product (AX, DX and AX, EDX (high order bytes) and EAX (low order bytes), RDX and RAX respectively)
- **Example**

```
mov eax, 447
mov ebx, 1739
mul ebx                    ;values in ↘
→eax and edx are set
mov eax, 56
mov ebx, 67
neg ebx
imul ebx
```

Structure of a program

Structure

- **Initial comment block**
  - Author, date, version, description
- **Data section**
  - Contains all initialized data
  - Data must have a value
  - Similar to constants
- **BSS section**
  - Contains unitialized data
  - Just placeholders
  - Place will be reserved in the memory
- **Text session**
  - Contains the code
  - need a global label `_start` to be executed

Example

```
;   Executable name : EATSYSCALL
;   Version         : 1.0
;   Created date    : 1/7/2009
;   Last update     : 2/18/2009
;   Author          : Jeff Duntemann
;   Description     : A simple program in assembly for Linux, using NASM 2.05,
;     demonstrating the use of Linux INT 80H syscalls to display text.
;
;   Build using these commands:
;     nasm -f elf -g -F stabs eatsyscall.asm
;     ld -o eatsyscall eatsyscall.o
;
SECTION .data                   ; Section containing initialised data

        EatMsg: db "Eat at Joe's!",10
        EatLen: equ $-EatMsg

SECTION .bss                    ; Section containing uninitialized data

SECTION .text                   ; Section containing code
global  _start                  ; Linker needs this to find the entry point!↘
→
_start:
        nop                     ; This no-op keeps gdb happy...
        mov eax,4               ; Specify sys_write call
        mov ebx,1               ; Specify File Descriptor 1: Standard Output
        mov ecx,EatMsg          ; Pass offset of the message
        mov edx,EatLen          ; Pass the length of the message
        int 80H                 ; Make kernel call
        MOV eax,1               ; Code for Exit Syscall
        mov ebx,0               ; Return a code of zero
        int 80H                 ; Make kernel call
```

The .text Section

- **Labels**
  - must begin with a letter or an underscore
  - must be followed by a colon when they are defined
  - are case sensitive
  - Are used as targets for jumps
  - label `_start` must be present and declared `global` in any Linux program

Variables

- **For initialized Data**
  - In the Data section
  - data definition directive
- **Example**

```
MyByte db 07h    ; 8 bits in size
MyWord dw 0FFFFh ; 16 bits in size
MyDouble dd 0B8000000h ; 32 bits in size
MyQuad dq 0B800000011000000h ; 64 bits
```

String Variables

- **Example**

```
eatMsg: db "Eat at Joes's!",10
```

- **Is a label (address) of information in memory**
  - Contains bytes (db)
- **Strings can be concatenated**
  - "Eat at Joes's!",10
  - End of Line, EOL (0Ah / 10), is added at the end of the string

```
TwoLineMsg:   db  "Eat at Joe's ...",10,"... Ten million flies can't ALL be wrong!",10
```

When displayed, produces two lines

```
Eat at Joe's ...
... Ten million flies can't ALL be wrong!
```

Derive String Length

- **Interesting:**

```
EatLen: equ $-EatMsg
```

- **EQU stands for equate**
  - Associate a value with a label
  - Like a named constant

```
FieldWidth equ 10
```

- **The following two lines are equal**

```
mov eax,10
mov eax, FieldWidth
```

Derive String length (Cont.)

- **We need length of the string**
  - We could hard code it

```
EatMsg db "Eat␣at␣Joe's!",10
EatLen  equ 14
```

- **But what appens if we change the string**
  - We have to change the length: VERY error prone
- **Use the "here" token: the $ sign**
  - marks the spot where NASM is in the intermediate file
  - $ and EatMsg are both "locations" (addresses in memory)
  - One can compute the difference: where do the string start and finishes

```
EatMsg: db "Eat␣at␣Joe's!",10
EatLen: equ $-EatMsg
```

The Stack

The Stack

- **Is used to store information temporarily**
  - Store the status of a program while doing something else
- **LIFO**
  - Last In - First Out
- **Push: add on top of the stack**
- **Pop: remove from the top of the stack**
- **Pez Dispenser**
  - The new candy are eaten first
  - The old candies remain at the bottom

The Stack

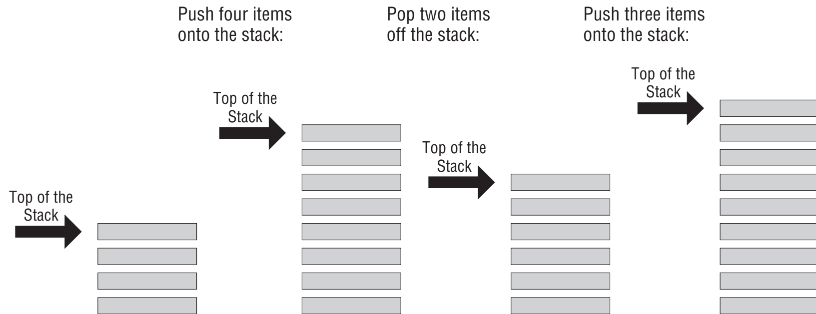

Figure 8-1: The stack

Stack in Memory

- **Stack starts at the top of memory**
  - Start at the higher memory
  - Go down in the free memory
- **Opposite to the rest**
  - text section
  - data section
  - bss section
  - are stored at the bottom of the memory
- **Programs can dynamically allocate the free memory**
  - On the fly while program works
  - Allocation typically grows up towards the stack

  $\Rightarrow$ Hopefully stack and heap shall never meet...

The Stack in Memory

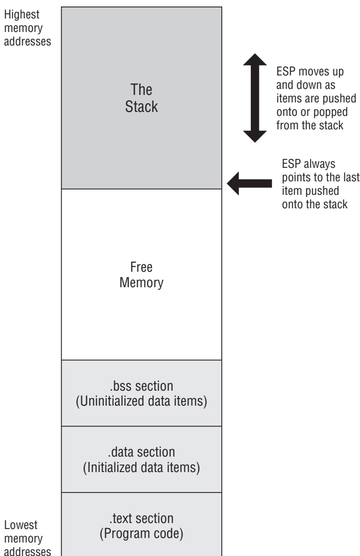

Figure 8-2: The stack in program memory

Push instructions

- **Add information on top of the stack**
  - PUSH a register or memory value
  - PUSHF push the Flags register
- **examples**

```
        push ax      ; Push the AX register
;       push ebx    ; push the EAX register ↘
→not supported in 64-bit mode
        push rax     ; Push the RAX register
        push word[rbx]    ; Push the word ↘
        →stored at bx
        push qword[rdx] ; Push the double ↘
        →word stored at edx
        push rdi     ; Push the RDI register
        pushf             ; Push the flags on ↘
        →the stack
```

Pop instructions

- **Retrieve information out of the stack**
  - Removes the information from the stack and transfers it
  - It is up to you to know what information is stored on the stack
- **Instructions**
  - POP, POPF (for flags)
- **Examples**

```
popf                           ;Pop the ↘
→flags out of the stack
pop CX       ; Pop the top 2 bytes ↘
→from the stack into CX
pop RSI      ; Pop the top 16 bytes ↘
→from the stack into RSI
pop qword[rbx] ; Pop the top 8 bytes↘
→ from the stack into the memory at↘
→ EBX
pop qword[vars1] ; Pop the top 8 ↘
→bytes from the stack into the ↘
→memory at var1
```

How the stack works

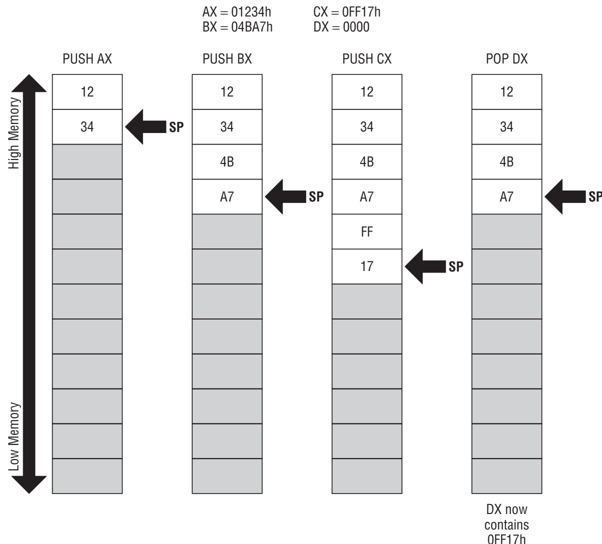

Figure 8-3: How the stack works

Interrupts

Software Interrupts

Interrupts

- **Used to communicate with the Linux kernel**
  - Not authorized to access memory where kernel instructions are
  - Protected mode
  - Need a way to execute kernel instructions
- **Interrupts**
  - Interrupt vector table
  - Placed at the first 1024 bytes of memory of any x86 computer
  - Each vector has a number from 0 to 255
  - Each vector contains the address (including offset and segment) of kernel functions
  - Addresses can be dynamically allocated (regarding where the kernel is executed)

The interrupt vector table

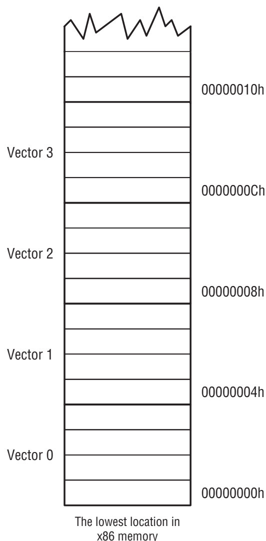

Figure 8-4: The interrupt vector table

Interrupt 80h = the dispatcher

- **An interrupt number corresponds to one function**
  - It remains the same, always
  - 80h corresponds to the dispatcher
- **The INT instruction**
  - Is used in the program
  - CPU goes to the interrupt vector table
  - Fetches the address from slot 80h
  - Jumps execution to that address
  - The dispacher picks up the execution and performs the service

Riding an interrupt vector into Linux

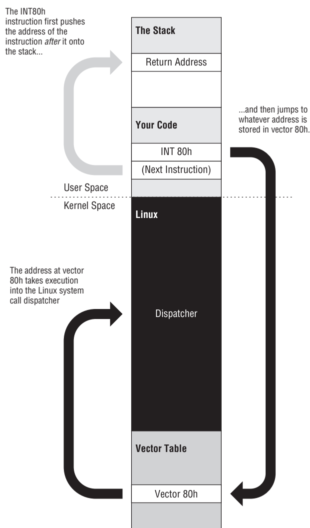

Figure 8-5: Riding an interrupt vector into Linux

The dispatcher

- **Controles access to 200 individual routines**
  - Tell the dispacher which service you need
  - Place service number in register RAX
  - The dispatcher may require other information as well
  - Most always in various registers
- **Example**

```
mov eax,4                ; Specify ↘
→sys_write call
mov ebx,1                ; Specify ↘
→File Descriptor 1: Standard Output
mov ecx,EatMsg           ; Pass ↘
→offset of the message
mov edx,EatLen           ; Pass the ↘
→length of the message
int 80H                  ; Make ↘
→kernel call
```

File descriptors

- **Standard Input**
  - `stdin`
  - File descriptor 0
- **Standard Output**
  - `stdout`
  - FIle descriptor 1
- **Standard Error**
  - `stderr`
  - File descriptor 2
- **Other files**
  - Generate a new file descriptor

Return to your program

- **When the routine is finished**
  - Linux goes back to your program
  - Has to know where to go back
- **Stack**
  - The instruction number is stored on the stack when the interrupt is called
  - When it is finished: the address is poped from the stack
  - And inserted back in the instruction pointer (RIP)
  - It is the address of the next instruction to be executed.

Returning home from an interrupt

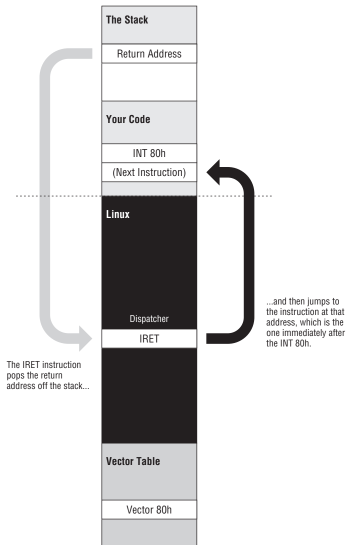

Figure 8-6: Returning home from an interrupt

Exiting the program

- **Call the dispatcher**
  - INT 80 instruction
- **Parameters**
  - Routine is number 1 in RAX
  - Value 0 is stored in RBX (everything went well)
  - Or something else
- **Example**

```
MOV eax,1                    ; Code for ↘
→Exit Syscall
mov ebx,0                    ; Return a ↘
→code of zero
int 80H                      ; Make ↘
→kernel call
```

Hardware Interrupt

Hardware Interrupt

- **CPU mechanism to pay attention to the world**
  - PC circuits can send signals to the CPU
  - Keyboard, network, disk, USB, ...
  - CPU can interrupt its work to treat the message
- **Harware interrupts are also addresses**
  - Each interrupt has a number
  - The table links together number and address of the instructions
  - Called Interrupt Service Routine (ISR)
- **Difference hardware vs software interrupt**
  - Hardware interrupt is trigered by something outside your code
  - Software interrupt is trigered by something inside your code

System call 64-bit

System Call

- **System Call replace software interrupt**
  - Call to system functions can be done using interrupt 80h
  - They can also be done using "syscall"
- **Call functions reserved to the system**
  - Exit the program
  - Print something on the standard output (or error output)
  - Print something in a file
  - Manipulate files
  - Read chars from the standard input
  - ...
- **Parameters**
  - RAX : the function number
    - 0 : sys_read (read input or file)
    - 1 : sys_wirte (write ouput or file)
    - 2 : sys_open (for a file)
    - 3 : sys_close (idem)
    - ...
    - 60 : sys_exit
  - Other parameters:
    - RDI, RSI, RDX, R10, R8, R9

System Call: Examples

- **Displaying a string**
  - RAX : 1 = sys_write
  - RDI : 1 = Standard output
  - RSI : address of the string to be written
  - RDX : length of the string (number of bytes)

```
mov rax,1                    ; Code for ↘
→Sys_write call
mov rdi, 1                   ; Specify File ↘
→Descriptor 1: Standard Output
mov rsi, EatMsg              ; Pass offset of ↘
→the message
mov rdx, EatLen              ; Pass the length ↘
→of the message
syscall                    ; Make kernel call
```

System Call: Examples

- **Exit program**
  - RAX : 60 = `sys_exit`
  - RDI : 0 = returned value (0 means OK)

```
mov rax, 60                    ; Code for exit
mov rdi, 0                     ; Return a code of ↘
→zero
syscall                        ; Make kernel call
```

Eat Message using 64-bit syscalls

```
SECTION .data                   ; Section containing initialised data
        EatMsg: db "Eat at Joe's!",10
        EatLen: equ $-EatMsg
SECTION .bss                    ; Section containing uninitialized data

SECTION .text                   ; Section containing code

global  _start                  ; Linker needs this to find the entry point!

_start:
        nop                     ; This no-op keeps gdb happy...
        mov rax,1                 ; Code for Sys_write call
        mov rdi, 1                ; Specify File Descriptor 1: Standard Output
        mov rsi, EatMsg           ; Pass offset of the message
        mov rdx, EatLen           ; Pass the length of the message
        syscall                 ; Make kernel call

        mov rax, 60             ; Code for exit
        mov rdi, 0              ; Return a code of zero
        syscall                 ; Make kernel call
```

Conclusion

Conclusion

- **Structure of a program**
  - Initialisation of the data in memory
  - Placeholders to reserve place in memory
  - Instructions
- **Stack**
  - Used to store temporary information
  - Useful for calling an interrupt, to restore the environment
  - Will be used to call functions in our code
- **Interrupt**
  - Possibility to access Kernel routines
  - Used also to react to external stimuli
  - Mainly based on a vector containing the addresses of default functions.

Bibliography

- This course corresponds to the chapters *7* and *8* of the course book:
  Assembly Language Step by Step (3rd Edition)