CS107, Lecture 15 Introduction to Assembly

Reading: B&O 3.1-3.4

Ed Discussion: https://edstem.org/us/courses/46162/discussion/3715585

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Course Overview

- **1. Bits and Bytes -** *How can a computer represent integer numbers?*
- **2. Chars and C-Strings -** *How can a computer represent and manipulate more complex data like text?*
- **3.** Pointers, Stack and Heap How can we effectively manage all types of memory in our programs?
- **4. Generics** How can we use our knowledge of memory and data representation to write code that works with any data type?
- **5.** Assembly How does a computer interpret and execute C programs?
- **6. Heap Allocators -** *How do core memory-allocation operations like malloc and free work?*

<u>CS107 Topic 5</u>: How does a computer interpret and execute C programs?

CS107 Topic 5

How does a computer interpret and execute C programs?

Why is answering this question important?

- Learning how our code is really translated and executed helps us write better code
- We can learn how to reverse engineer programs at the assembly level

assign5: find and exploit vulnerabilities in an ATM program, reverse engineer a program without seeing its code, and de-anonymize users given a data leak.

Bits all the way down

Data representation so far

- Integer (unsigned int, 2's complement signed int)
- char (ASCII)
- Address (unsigned long)
- Aggregates (arrays, structs)

The code itself is binary too!

• Instructions (machine code)

gcc

- gcc is the compiler that converts your human-readable code into machinereadable instructions.
- C, and other languages, are high-level abstractions we use to write code efficiently. But computers don't really understand things like data structures, variable types, etc. Compilers are the translator!
- Pure machine code is 1s and 0s everything is bits, even your programs! But we can read it in a human-readable form called **assembly**. (Engineers used to write code in assembly before C).
- There may be multiple assembly instructions needed to encode a single C instruction.
- We're going to go behind the curtain to see what the assembly code for our programs looks like.

Central Processing Units (CPUs)

Intel 8086, 16-bit microprocessor (\$86.65, 1978)



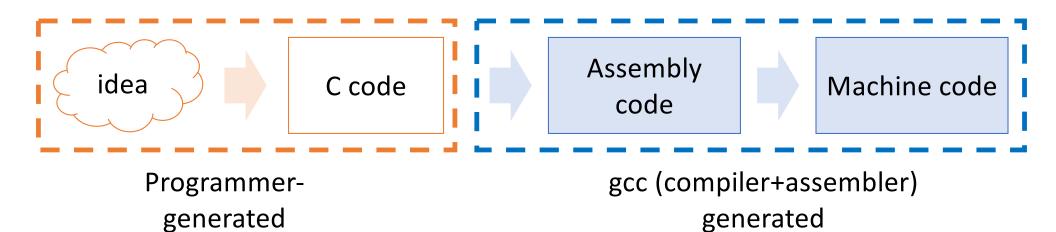


Raspberry Pi BCM2836 32-bit **ARM** microprocessor (\$35 for everything, 2015)



Intel Core i9-9900K 64-bit 8-core multi-core processor (\$449, 2018)

Why are we reading assembly?



Main goal: Information retrieval

- We will not be writing assembly! (that's the compiler's job)
- Rather, we want to translate the assembly *back* into our C code.
- Knowing how our C code is converted into machine instructions gives us insight into how to write cleaner, more efficient code.

Demo: Looking at an Executable (objdump -d)



```
int sum_array(int arr[], int nelems) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < nelems; i++) {
        sum += arr[i];
    }
    return sum;
}</pre>
```

What does this look like in assembly?

```
int sum_array(int arr[], int nelems) {
   int sum = 0;
   for (int i = 0; i < nelems; i++) {</pre>
      sum += arr[i];
   }
   return sum;
                                                            make
}
                                                            objdump -d sum
000000000401136 <sum_array>:
                                              $0x0,%eax
  401136:
            b8 00 00 00 00
                                       mov
  40113b: ba 00 00 00 00
                                              $0x0,%edx
                                       mov
  401140: 39 f0
                                              %esi,%eax
                                       cmp
  401142: 7d 0b
                                              40114f <sum array+0x19>
                                       jge
  401144: 48 63 c8
                                       movslq %eax,%rcx
 401147:03148f40114a:83c001
                                       add
                                              (%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
                                       add
                                              $0x1,%eax
           eb f1
  40114d:
                                              401140 <sum array+0xa>
                                       jmp
  40114f:
           89 d0
                                              %edx,%eax
                                       mov
  401151:
             с3
                                       retq
```

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000000000401136 <sum_array>:

 401136:
 b8 00 00 00 00 00

 40113b:
 ba 00 00 00 00

 401140:
 39 f0

 401142:
 7d 0b

 401144:
 48 63 c8

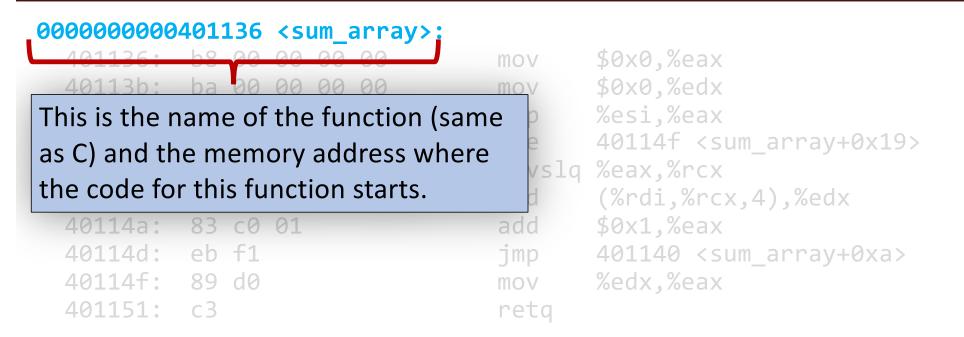
 401147:
 03 14 8f

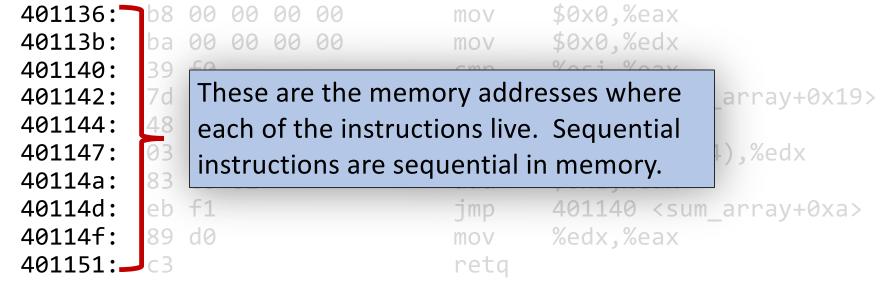
 40114a:
 83 c0 01

 40114f:
 89 d0

 401151:
 c3

mov	\$0x0,%eax
mov	\$0x0,%edx
cmp	%esi,%eax
jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>
movslq	%eax,%rcx
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
add	\$0x1,%eax
jmp	401140 <sum array+0xa=""></sum>
mov	%edx,%eax
retq	-





000000000401136 <sum_array>:

401136:b80000000040113b:ba00000000

This is the assembly code: human-readable versions of each machine code instruction.

40114d: eb f1 40114f: 89 d0 401151: c3

1	mov	\$0x0,%eax
	mov	\$0x0,%edx
	cmp	%esi,%eax
	jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>
	movslq	%eax,%rcx
	add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
	add	\$0x1,%eax
	jmp	401140 <sum_array+0xa></sum_array+0xa>
	mov	%edx,%eax
	retq	

000000000401136 <sum_array>:

<u>mov \$0x0,%eax</u>

This is the machine code: raw hexadecimal instructions, representing binary as read by the computer. Different instructions require a varying number of bytes.

mov %edx,%eax retq

000000000401136 <sum_array>:

 401136:
 b8 00 00 00 00 00

 40113b:
 ba 00 00 00 00

 401140:
 39 f0

 401142:
 7d 0b

 401144:
 48 63 c8

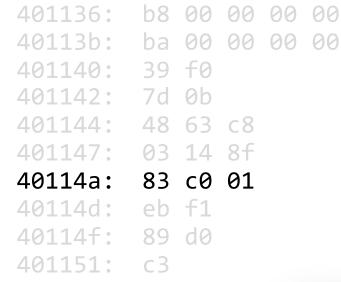
 401147:
 03 14 8f

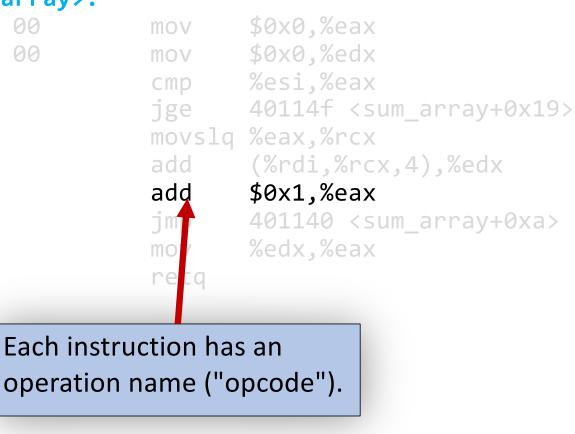
 40114a:
 83 c0 01

 40114f:
 89 d0

 401151:
 c3

mov	\$0x0,%eax
mov	\$0x0,%edx
cmp	%esi,%eax
jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>
movslq	%eax,%rcx
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
add	\$0x1,%eax
jmp	401140 <sum_array+0xa></sum_array+0xa>
mov	%edx,%eax
retq	





401136:	b8	00	00	00	00
40113b:	ba	00	00	00	00
401140:	39	fØ			
401142:	7d	Øb			
401144:	48	63	с8		
101117	00	14	പ		
401147:	63	14	ОT		
401147: 40114a:	0.0	14 CØ			
	83				
40114a:	83 eb	c0			
40114a: 40114d:	83 eb	c0 f1			

mov	\$0x0,%eax			
mov	\$0x0,%edx			
cmp	%esi,%eax			
jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>			
movslq	%eax,%rcx			
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx			
add	\$0x1,%eax			
jmp	4 01140 <s< del="">um_array+0xa></s<>			
mov	%edx %eax			
Each instruction can also have				
arguments ("operands").				

401136:	b8	00	00	00	00
40113b:	ba	00	00	00	00
401140:	39	f 0			
401142:	7d	0b			
401144:	48	63	с8		
401147:	03	14	8f		
40114a:	83	c0	01		
40114d:	eb	f1			
40114f:	89	dØ			
401151:	с3				

mov	\$0x0,%eax			
MOV				
mov	\$0x0,%edx			
cmp	%esi,%eax			
jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>			
movslq	%eax,%rcx			
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx			
add	\$0x1,%eax			
jmp	401140 <sum_array+0xa></sum_array+0xa>			
MOV	%edx,%eax			
retq				
ć				
\$[number] means a constant value,				
or "immediate" (e.g. 1 here).				

000000000401136 <sum_array>:

401136:	b8	00	00	00	00
40113b:	ba	00	00	00	00
401140:	39	fØ			
401142:	7d	0b			
401144:	48	63	с8		
401147:	03	14	8f		
40114a:	83	c0	01		
40114d:	eb	f1			
40114f:	89	dØ			
401151:	с3				

mov	\$0x0,%eax
mov	\$0x0,%edx
cmp	%esi,%eax
jge	40114f <sum_array+0x19></sum_array+0x19>
movslq	%eax,%rcx
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
add	\$0x1,%eax
jmp	401140 👍 um_array+0xa>
MOV	%edx,%ea.
retq	

%[name] identifies a register, a storage location on the CPU (e.g., eax here).

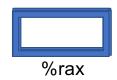
🛠 Keep a resource guide handy 🛠

- <u>https://web.stanford.edu/class/cs107/resources/x86-64-reference.pdf</u>
- B&O book:
 - Canvas -> Files

 Bryant_OHallaron_ch3.1-3.8.pdf
- It's like learning how to read—though not speak—a new language!

Assembly Abstraction

- C abstracts away the low-level details of machine code. It lets us work using variables, variable types, and other higher-level abstractions.
- C and other languages let us write code that works on most machines.
- Assembly code is just bytes! No variable types, no type checking, etc.
- Assembly/machine code is processor-specific.
- What is the level of abstraction for assembly code?



%rax	%rsi	%r8	%r12
%rbx	%rdi	%r9	%r13
%rcx	%rbp	%r10	%r14
%rdx	%rsp	%r11	%r15

What is a register?

A register is a fast read/write memory slot right on the CPU that can hold variable values.

Registers are **not** located in memory.

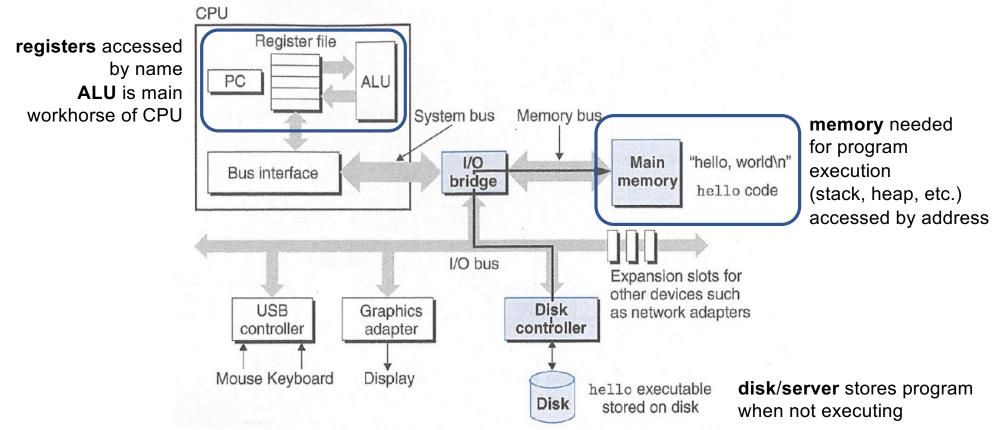
- A **register** is a 64-bit space inside the processor.
- There are 16 registers, each with a unique name.
- Registers are like "scratch paper" for the processor. Data being accessed or manipulated are first moved into registers. Most ALU operations—that is, arithmetic-logic unit operations—can only act on values stored in registers.
- Registers also hold parameters and return values for functions.
- Registers are extremely *fast* memory!
- Processor instructions consist mostly of moving data into/out of registers and performing arithmetic operations on them. This is the level of logic your program must be in to execute!

Machine-Level Code

Assembly instructions manipulate these registers. For example:

- One instruction adds two numbers in registers
- One instruction transfers data from a register to memory
- One instruction transfers data from memory to a register

Computer architecture



GCC And Assembly

- GCC compiles your program it lays out memory on the stack and heap and generates assembly instructions to access and do calculations on those memory locations.
- Here's what the "assembly-level abstraction" of C code might look like:

С	Assembly Abstraction
<pre>int sum = x + y;</pre>	 Copy x into register 1 Copy y into register 2 Add register 2 to register 1 Write register 1 to memory for sum

Assembly

- We are going to learn the **x86-64** instruction set architecture. This instruction set is used by Intel and AMD processors.
- There are many other instruction sets: ARM, MIPS, etc.



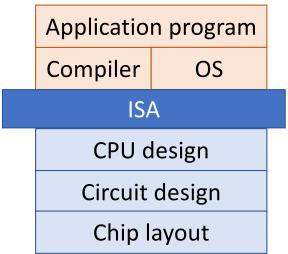
Instruction set architecture (ISA)

A contract between program/compiler and hardware:

- Defines operations that the processor (CPU) can execute
- Data read/write/transfer operations
- Control mechanisms

Intel originally designed their instruction set back in 1978.

- Legacy support is a huge issue for x86-64
- Originally 16-bit processor, then 32 bit, now 64 bit. These design choices dictated the register sizes (and even register/instruction names).





mov

The **mov** instruction <u>copies</u> bytes from one place to another; it is like the assignment operator (=) in C, though the arguments are reversed.

src,dst

mov

The **src** and **dst** can each be one of:

- Immediate (constant value, like a number) (only src)
- Register
- Memory Location (at most one of **src, dst**)

Direct address



0x6005c0

\$0x104

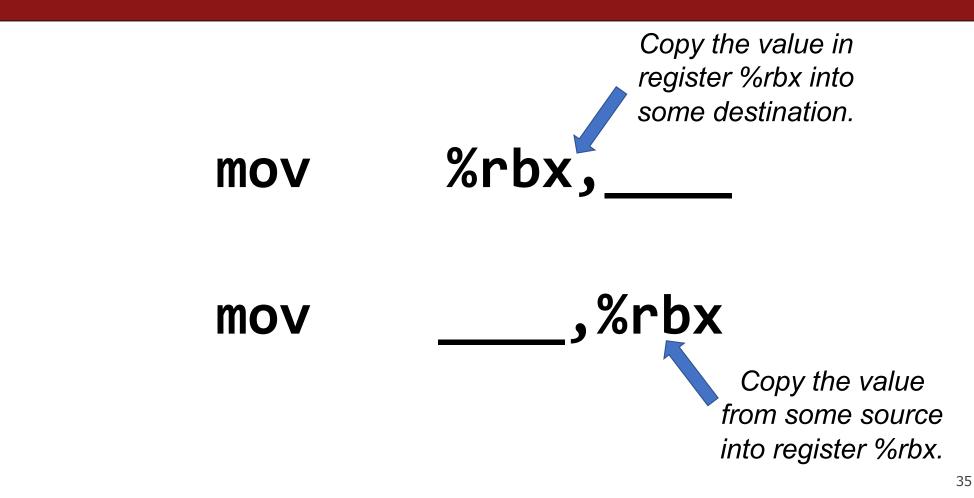
Operand Forms: Immediate

mov



Copy the value 0x104 into some destination.

Operand Forms: Registers



Operand Forms: Absolute Addresses

0x104

Copy the value at address 0x104 into some destination.

mov

mov

,0x104

Copy the value from some source into the memory at address 0x104. ³⁶

Practice: Operand Forms

What are the results of the following move instructions (executed separately)? For this problem, assume the value 5 is stored at address 0x42, and the value 8 is stored in %rbx.

- 1. mov \$0x42,%rax
- 2. mov 0x42,%rax
- 3. mov %rbx,0x55



Operand Forms: Indirect

(%rbx)

Copy the value at the address stored in register %rbx into some destination.

mov

mov

___,(%rbx)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address stored in register %rbx.

Operand Forms: Base + Displacement

Copy the value at the address (<u>0x10 plus</u> what is stored in register %rax) into some destination.

mov 0x10(%rax),

mov

,0x10(%rax)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address (<u>0x10</u> <u>plus</u> what is stored in register %rax).³⁹

Operand Forms: Indexed

Copy the value at the address which is (the sum of the values in registers %rax and %rdx) into some destination.

mov (%rax,[%]rdx),_

mov

,(%rax,%rdx)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (the sum of the values in registers %rax and %rdx). ⁴⁰

Operand Forms: Indexed

Copy the value at the address which is (the sum of <u>**0x10 plus**</u> the values in registers %rax and %rdx) into some destination.

mov 0x10(%rax,%rdx),_

mov

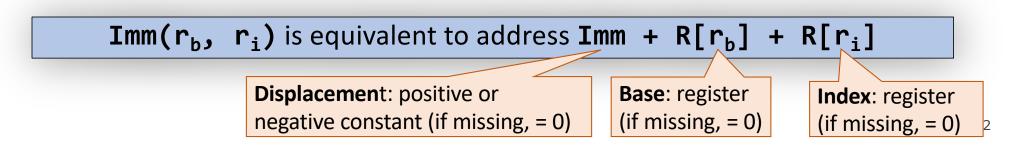
,0x10(%rax,%rdx)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (the sum of **0x10 <u>plus</u>** the values in registers %rax and %rdx). ⁴¹

Practice: Operand Forms

What are the results of the following move instructions (executed separately)? For this problem, assume the value *0x11* is stored at address *0x10C*, *0xAB* is stored at address *0x104*, *0x100* is stored in register %rax and *0x3* is stored in %rdx.

- 1. mov \$0x42,(%rax)
- 2. mov 4(%rax),%rcx
- 3. mov 9(%rax,%rdx),%rcx



 Copy the value at the address which is (<u>4 times</u> the value in register %rdx) into some destination.

 MOV
 (,%rdx,4),

 The scaling factor (e.g. 4 here) must be hardcoded to be either 1, 2, 4 or 8.

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (<u>4 times</u> the value in register %rdx). 43

Copy the value at the address which is (4 times the value in register %rdx, **plus** <u>**0x4**</u>), into some destination.

mov 0x4(,%rdx,4),___

mov

,0x4(,%rdx,4)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (4 times the value in register %rdx, **plus 0x4).** 44

Copy the value at the address which is (<u>the</u> value in register %rax plus 2 times the value in register %rdx) into some destination.

mov

mov

(%rax,%rdx,2),_

,(%rax,%rdx,2)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (<u>the value in register %rax</u> plus 2 times the value in register %rdx). 45

Copy the value at the address which is (**0x4 plus** the value in register %rax plus 2 times the value in register %rdx) into some destination.

mov

0x4(%rax,%rdx,2),____

mov

,0x4(%rax,%rdx,2)

Copy the value from some source into the memory at the address which is (**0x4 plus** the value in register %rax plus 2 times the value in register %rdx). ⁴⁶

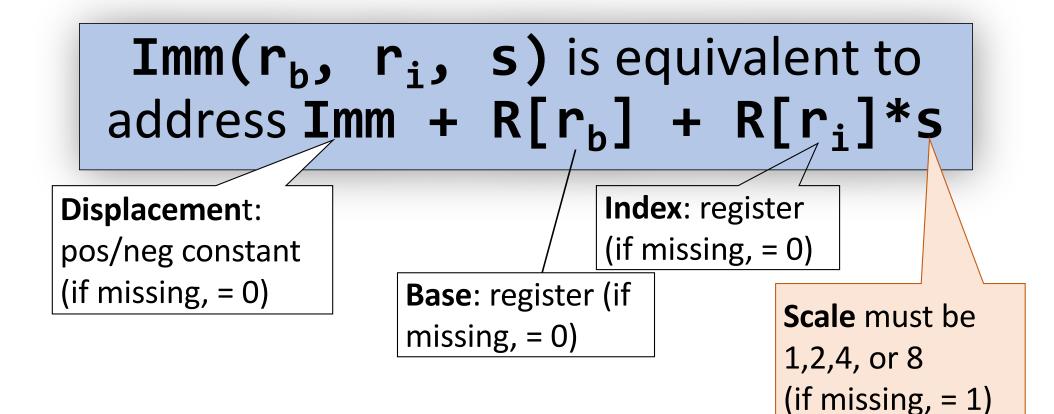
Most General Operand Form

 $Imm(r_b, r_i, s)$

is equivalent to ...

$Imm + R[r_b] + R[r_i]*s$

Most General Operand Form



Operand Forms

Туре	Form	Operand Value	Name
Immediate	\$Imm	Imm	Immediate
Register	r _a	$R[r_a]$	Register
Memory	Imm	M[<i>Imm</i>]	Absolute
Memory	(r_a)	$M[R[r_a]]$	Indirect
Memory	$Imm(r_b)$	$M[Imm + R[r_b]]$	Base + displacement
Memory	(r_b, r_i)	$M[R[r_b] + R[r_i]]$	Indexed
Memory	$Imm(r_b, r_i)$	$M[Imm + R[r_b] + R[r_i]]$	Indexed
Memory	$(, r_i, s)$	$M[R[r_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	$Imm(, r_i, s)$	$M[Imm + R[r_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	(r_b, r_i, s)	$M[R[r_b] + R[r_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	$Imm(r_b, r_i, s)$	$M[Imm + R[r_b] + R[r_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed

Figure 3.3 from the book: "Operand forms. Operands can denote immediate (constant) values, register values, or values from memory. The scaling factor *s* must be either. 1, 2, 4, or 8."

Practice: Operand Forms

What are the results of the following move instructions (executed separately)? For this problem, assume the value *0x1* is stored in register %rcx, the value *0x100* is stored in register %rax, the value *0x3* is stored in register %rdx, and value *0x11* is stored at address *0x10C*.

1. mov \$0x42,0xfc(,%rcx,4)

2. mov (%rax,%rdx,4),%rbx

Imm(r _b , r _i ,	s) is equi	ivalent to	C
address Imm +			
Displacement	Base	Index	Scale (1,2,4,8)

Goals of indirect addressing: C

Why are there so many forms of indirect addressing?

We see these indirect addressing paradigms in C as well!

Our First Assembly

<pre>int sum_array(int arr[], int nelems) { int sum = 0;</pre>	We're on our way to understanding assembly! What looks understandable right now?
<pre>for (int i = 0; i < nelems; i++) { sum += arr[i]; } return sum; }</pre>	<pre>Some notes: • Registers store addresses and values • mov src, dst copies value into dst • sizeof(int) is 4 • Instructions executed sequentially</pre>

0000000004005b6 <sum_array>:

4005b6:	ba	00	00	00	00	
4005bb:	b8	00	00	00	00	
4005c0:	eb	09				
4005c2:	48	63	са			
4005c5:	03	04	8f			
1005-00	00	~7	01			
We'll come k	back	to ⁻	this)		
example in f	utur	e le	ctu	res	!	
loobert		05				

mov	\$0x0,%edx
mov	\$0x0,%eax
jmp	4005cb <sum_array+0x15></sum_array+0x15>
movslq	%edx,%rcx
add	(%rdi,%rcx,4),%eax
add	\$0x1,%edx
cmp	%esi,%edx
jl	4005c2 <sum_array+0xc></sum_array+0xc>
repz r	etq



From Assembly to C

Spend a few minutes thinking about the main paradigms of the mov instruction.

- What might be the equivalent C-like operation?
- Examples (note %r___ registers are 64-bit):
- 1. mov \$0x0,%rdx
- 2. mov %rdx,%rcx
- 3. mov \$0x42,(%rdi)
- 4. mov (%rax,%rcx,8),%rax



From Assembly to C

Spend a few minutes thinking about the main paradigms of the mov instruction.

- What might be the equivalent C-like operation?
- Examples (note %r___ registers are 64-bit):
- 1. mov \$0x0, %rdx > maybe long x = 0
- 2. mov %rdx,%rcx -> maybe long x = y;
- 3. mov \$0x42,(%rdi) -> maybe *ptr = 0x42;
- 4. mov (%rax,%rcx,8),%rax -> maybe long x = arr[i];

Indirect addressing is like pointer arithmetic/deref!

