This book is dedicated to
Robert Jourdain, John Socha, Ralf Brown and Peter Abel

## Assembly Language for Beginners



Dennis Yurichev

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So do not hesitate to contact me: dennis@yurichev.com.

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There are several popular meanings of the term "reverse engineering":

1) The reverse engineering of software; researching compiled programs
2) The scanning of 3D structures and the subsequent digital manipulation required in order to duplicate them
3) Recreating $\mathrm{DBMS}^{7}$ structure

This book is about the first meaning.

## Prerequisites

Basic knowledge of the C PL8. Recommended reading: 12.1.3 on page 1012.

## Exercises and tasks

...can be found at: http://challenges.re.

## About the author



Dennis Yurichev is an experienced reverse engineer and programmer. He can be contacted by email: dennis@yurichev.com.

## Praise forAssembly Language for Beginners

- "Now that Dennis Yurichev has made this book free (libre), it is a contribution to the world of free knowledge and free education." Richard M. Stallman, GNU founder, software freedom activist.
- "It's very well done .. and for free .. amazing." ${ }^{9}$ Daniel Bilar, Siege Technologies, LLC.
- "... excellent and free" ${ }^{10}$ Pete Finnigan, Oracle RDBMS security guru.
- "... [the] book is interesting, great job!" Michael Sikorski, author of Practical Malware Analysis: The Hands-On Guide to Dissecting Malicious Software.
- "... my compliments for the very nice tutorial!" Herbert Bos, full professor at the Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, co-author of Modern Operating Systems (4th Edition).
- "... It is amazing and unbelievable." Luis Rocha, CISSP / ISSAP, Technical Manager, Network \& Information Security at Verizon Business.
- "Thanks for the great work and your book." Joris van de Vis, SAP Netweaver \& Security specialist.

[^5]- "... [a] reasonable intro to some of the techniques." ${ }^{11}$ Mike Stay, teacher at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center, Georgia, US.
- "I love this book! I have several students reading it at the moment, [and] plan to use it in graduate course." ${ }^{12}$ Sergey Bratus, Research Assistant Professor at the Computer Science Department at Dartmouth College
- "Dennis @Yurichev has published an impressive (and free!) book on reverse engineering"13 Tanel Poder, Oracle RDBMS performance tuning expert .
- "This book is a kind of Wikipedia to beginners..." Archer, Chinese Translator, IT Security Researcher.
- "[A] first-class reference for people wanting to learn reverse engineering. And it's free for all." Mikko Hyppönen, F-Secure.


## Thanks

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## mini-FAQ

Q: What are the prerequisites for reading this book?
A: A basic understanding of $C / C++$ is desirable.
Q: Should I really learn x86/x64/ARM and MIPS at once? Isn't it too much?
A: Starters can read about just x86/x64, while skipping or skimming the ARM and MIPS parts.
Q: Can I buy a Russian or English hard copy/paper book?
A: Unfortunately, no. No publisher got interested in publishing a Russian or English version so far. Meanwhile, you can ask your favorite copy shop to print and bind it.
Q: Is there an epub or mobi version?
A: No. The book is highly dependent on TeX/LaTeX-specific hacks, so converting to HTML (epub/mobi are a set of HTMLs) would not be easy.
Q: Why should one learn assembly language these days?
A: Unless you are an OS $^{29}$ developer, you probably don't need to code in assembly-the latest compilers (2010s) are much better at performing optimizations than humans ${ }^{30}$.
Also, the latest $C P U^{31}$ s are very complex devices, and assembly knowledge doesn't really help towards understand their internals.
That being said, there are at least two areas where a good understanding of assembly can be helpful: First and foremost, for security/malware research. It is also a good way to gain a better understanding of your compiled code while debugging. This book is therefore intended for those who want to understand assembly language rather than to code in it, which is why there are many examples of compiler output contained within.
Q: I clicked on a hyperlink inside a PDF-document, how do I go back?
A: In Adobe Acrobat Reader click Alt+LeftArrow. In Evince click "<" button.
Q: May I print this book / use it for teaching?
A: Of course! That's why the book is licensed under the Creative Commons license (CC BY-SA 4.0).
Q: Why is this book free? You've done great job. This is suspicious, as with many other free things.

[^7]A: In my own experience, authors of technical literature write mostly for self-advertisement purposes. It's not possible to make any decent money from such work.
Q: How does one get a job in reverse engineering?
A: There are hiring threads that appear from time to time on reddit, devoted to RE $^{32}$ (2016). Try looking there.

A somewhat related hiring thread can be found in the "netsec" subreddit: 2016.
Q: How can I learn programming in general?
A: Mastering both C and LISP languages makes programmer's life much, much easier. I would recommend solving exercises from [Brian W. Kernighan, Dennis M. Ritchie, The C Programming Language, 2ed, (1988)] and SICP ${ }^{33}$.

Q: I have a question...
A: Send it to me by email (dennis@yurichev.com).

## How to learn programming

Many people keep asking about it.
There is no "royal road", but there are quite efficient ways.
From my own experience, this is just: solving exercises from:

- Brian W. Kernighan, Dennis M. Ritchie, The C Programming Language, 2ed, (1988)
- Harold Abelson, Gerald Jay Sussman, Julie Sussman - Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs
- Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming
- Niklaus Wirth's books
- Brian W. Kernighan, Rob Pike, Practice of Programming, (1999)
... in pure C and LISP. You may never use these programming languages in future at all. Almost all commercial programmers don't. But C and LISP coding experience will help enormously in long run.
Also, you can skip reading these books itselves, just skim them whenever you feel you need to understand something you missing for the exercise you currently solve.

This may take years at best, or a lifetime, but still this is way faster than to rush between fads.
The success of these books probably related to the fact that their authors are teachers and all this material has been honed on students first.

As of LISP, I personally would recommend Racket (Scheme dialect). But this is matter of taste, anyway.
Some people say assembly language understanding is also very helpful, even if you will never use it. This is true. But this is a way for the most dedicated geeks, and it can be postponed at start.
Also, self-taught people (including author of these lines) often has the problem of trying too hard on hard problems, skipping easy ones. This is a great mistake. Compare to sport or music - no one starts at 100 kg weights, or Paganini's Caprices. I would say - you can try to tackle a problem if you can outline its solution in your mind.

I think the art of doing research consists largely of asking questions, and sometimes answering them. Learn how to repeatedly pose miniquestions that represent special cases of the big questions you are hoping to solve.

When you begin to explore some area, you take baby steps at first, building intuition about that territory. Play with many small examples, trying to get a complete understanding of particular parts of the general situation.

In that way you learn many properties that are true and many properties that are false. That gives guidance about directions that are fruitful versus directions to avoid.

Eventually your brain will have learned how to take larger and larger steps. And shazam, you'll be ready to take some giant steps and solve the big problem.

[^8]But don't stop there! At this point you'll be one of very few people in the world who have ever understood your problem area so well. It will therefore be your responsibility to discover what else is true, in the neighborhood of that problem, using the same or similar methods to what your brain can now envision. Take your results to their "natural boundary" (in a sense analogous to the natural boundary where a function of a complex variable ceases to be analytic).

My little book Surreal Numbers provides an authentic example of research as it is happening. The characters in that story make false starts and useful discoveries in exactly the same order as I myself made those false starts and useful discoveries, when I first studied John Conway's fascinating axioms about number systems - his amazingly simple axioms that go significantly beyond real-valued numbers.
(One of the characters in that book tends to succeed or fail by brute force and patience; the other is more introspective, and able to see a bigger picture. Both of them represent aspects of my own activities while doing research. With that book I hoped to teach research skills "by osmosis", as readers observe a detailed case study.)

Surreal Numbers deals with a purely mathematical topic, not especially close to computer science; it features algebra and logic, not algorithms. When algorithms become part of the research, a beautiful new dimension also comes into play: Algorithms can be implemented on computers!

I strongly recommend that you look for every opportunity to write programs that carry out all or a part of whatever algorithms relate to your research. In my experience the very act of writing such a program never fails to deepen my understanding of the problem area.
( Donald E. Knuth - https://theorydish.blog/2018/02/01/donald-knuth-on-doing-research/ ) Good luck!

## About the Korean translation

In January 2015, the Acorn publishing company (www.acornpub.co.kr) in South Korea did a huge amount of work in translating and publishing this book (as it was in August 2014) into Korean.
It's available now at their website.
The translator is Byungho Min (twitter/tais9). The cover art was done by the artistic Andy Nechaevsky, a friend of the author: facebook/andydinka. Acorn also holds the copyright to the Korean translation.

So, if you want to have a real book on your shelf in Korean and want to support this work, it is now available for purchase.

## About the Persian/Farsi translation

In 2016 the book was translated by Mohsen Mostafa Jokar (who is also known to Iranian community for his translation of Radare manual ${ }^{34}$ ). It is available on the publisher's website ${ }^{35}$ (Pendare Pars).

Here is a link to a 40-page excerpt: https://beginners.re/farsi.pdf.
National Library of Iran registration information: http://opac.nlai.ir/opac-prod/bibliographic/4473995.

## About the Chinese translation

In April 2017, translation to Chinese was completed by Chinese PTPress. They are also the Chinese translation copyright holders.
The Chinese version is available for order here: http://www. epubit.com.cn/book/details/4174. A partial review and history behind the translation can be found here: http://www.cptoday.cn/news/detail/ 3155.

The principal translator is Archer, to whom the author owes very much. He was extremely meticulous (in a good sense) and reported most of the known mistakes and bugs, which is very important in literature such as this book. The author would recommend his services to any other author!

[^9]
## CONTENTS

The guys from Antiy Labs has also helped with translation. Here is preface written by them.

## Chapter 1

## Code Patterns

### 1.1 The method

When the author of this book first started learning C and, later, $C++$, he used to write small pieces of code, compile them, and then look at the assembly language output. This made it very easy for him to understand what was going on in the code that he had written. ${ }^{1}$. He did this so many times that the relationship between the $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ code and what the compiler produced was imprinted deeply in his mind. It's now easy for him to imagine instantly a rough outline of a C code's appearance and function. Perhaps this technique could be helpful for others.

By the way, there is a great website where you can do the same, with various compilers, instead of installing them on your box. You can use it as well: https://godbolt.org/.

## Exercises

When the author of this book studied assembly language, he also often compiled small C functions and then rewrote them gradually to assembly, trying to make their code as short as possible. This probably is not worth doing in real-world scenarios today, because it's hard to compete with the latest compilers in terms of efficiency. It is, however, a very good way to gain a better understanding of assembly. Feel free, therefore, to take any assembly code from this book and try to make it shorter. However, don't forget to test what you have written.

## Optimization levels and debug information

Source code can be compiled by different compilers with various optimization levels. A typical compiler has about three such levels, where level zero means that optimization is completely disabled. Optimization can also be targeted towards code size or code speed. A non-optimizing compiler is faster and produces more understandable (albeit verbose) code, whereas an optimizing compiler is slower and tries to produce code that runs faster (but is not necessarily more compact). In addition to optimization levels, a compiler can include some debug information in the resulting file, producing code that is easy to debug. One of the important features of the 'debug' code is that it might contain links between each line of the source code and its respective machine code address. Optimizing compilers, on the other hand, tend to produce output where entire lines of source code can be optimized away and thus not even be present in the resulting machine code. Reverse engineers can encounter either version, simply because some developers turn on the compiler's optimization flags and others do not. Because of this, we'll try to work on examples of both debug and release versions of the code featured in this book, wherever possible.

Sometimes some pretty ancient compilers are used in this book, in order to get the shortest (or simplest) possible code snippet.

[^10]
### 1.2.1 A short introduction to the CPU

The CPU is the device that executes the machine code a program consists of.

## A short glossary:

Instruction : A primitive CPU command. The simplest examples include: moving data between registers, working with memory, primitive arithmetic operations. As a rule, each CPU has its own instruction set architecture (ISA).

Machine code : Code that the CPU directly processes. Each instruction is usually encoded by several bytes.

Assembly language : Mnemonic code and some extensions, like macros, that are intended to make a programmer's life easier.

CPU register : Each CPU has a fixed set of general purpose registers (GPR ${ }^{2}$ ). $\approx 8$ in $\mathbf{x 8 6}$, $\approx 16$ in x8664 , and also $\approx 16$ in ARM. The easiest way to understand a register is to think of it as an untyped temporary variable. Imagine if you were working with a high-level PL and could only use eight 32-bit (or 64-bit) variables. Yet a lot can be done using just these!
One might wonder why there needs to be a difference between machine code and a PL. The answer lies in the fact that humans and CPUs are not alike-it is much easier for humans to use a high-level PL like C/C++, Java, or Python, but it is easier for a CPU to use a much lower level of abstraction. Perhaps it would be possible to invent a CPU that can execute high-level PL code, but it would be many times more complex than the CPUs we know of today. In a similar fashion, it is very inconvenient for humans to write in assembly language, due to it being so low-level and difficult to write in without making a huge number of annoying mistakes. The program that converts the high-level PL code into assembly is called a compiler. 3.

## A couple of words about different ISAs

The x86 ISA has always had variable-length instructions, so when the 64-bit era came, the x64 extensions did not impact the ISA very significantly. In fact, the x86 ISA still contains a lot of instructions that first appeared in 16-bit 8086 CPU, yet are still found in the CPUs of today. ARM is a RISC ${ }^{4}$ CPU designed with constant-length instructions in mind, which had some advantages in the past. In the very beginning, all ARM instructions were encoded in 4 bytes $^{5}$. This is now referred to as "ARM mode". Then they realized it wasn't as frugal as they first imagined. In fact, the most common CPU instructions ${ }^{6}$ in real world applications can be encoded using less information. They therefore added another ISA, called Thumb, in which each instruction was encoded in just 2 bytes. This is now referred to as "Thumb mode". However, not all ARM instructions can be encoded in just 2 bytes, so the Thumb instruction set is somewhat limited. It is worth noting that code compiled for ARM mode and Thumb mode can coexist within one single program. The ARM creators thought Thumb could be extended, giving rise to Thumb-2, which appeared in ARMv7. Thumb-2 still uses 2-byte instructions, but has some new instructions which have the size of 4 bytes. There is a common misconception that Thumb-2 is a mix of ARM and Thumb. This is incorrect. Rather, Thumb-2 was extended to fully support all processor features so it could compete with ARM mode-a goal that was clearly achieved, as the majority of applications for iPod/iPhone/iPad are compiled for the Thumb-2 instruction set. (Though, admittedly, this is largely due to the fact that Xcode does this by default). Later the 64-bit ARM came out. This ISA has 4-byte instructions, and lacked the need of any additional Thumb mode. However, the 64-bit requirements affected the ISA, resulting in us now having three ARM instruction sets: ARM mode, Thumb mode (including Thumb-2) and ARM64. These ISAs intersect partially, but it can be said that they are different ISAs, rather than variations of the same one. Therefore, we will try to add fragments of code in all three ARM ISAs in this book. There are, by the way, many other RISC ISAs with fixed length 32-bit instructions, such as MIPS, PowerPC and Alpha AXP.

[^11]
### 1.2.2 Numeral Systems

Humans have become accustomed to a decimal numeral system, probably because almost everyone has 10 fingers. Nevertheless, the number "10" has no significant meaning in science and mathematics. The natural numeral system in digital electronics is binary: 0 is for an absence of current in the wire, and 1 for presence. 10 in binary is 2 in decimal, 100 in binary is 4 in decimal, and so on.
If the numeral system has 10 digits, it has a radix (or base) of 10 . The binary numeral system has a radix of 2 .

Important things to recall:

1) A number is a number, while a digit is a term from writing systems, and is usually one character
2) The value of a number does not change when converted to another radix; only the writing notation for that value has changed (and therefore the way of representing it in RAM $^{7}$ ).

### 1.2.3 Converting From One Radix To Another

Positional notation is used almost every numerical system. This means that a digit has weight relative to where it is placed inside of the larger number. If 2 is placed at the rightmost place, it's 2 , but if it's placed one digit before rightmost, it's 20.

What does 1234 stand for?
$10^{3} \cdot 1+10^{2} \cdot 2+10^{1} \cdot 3+1 \cdot 4=1234$ or $1000 \cdot 1+100 \cdot 2+10 \cdot 3+4=1234$
It's the same story for binary numbers, but the base is 2 instead of 10 . What does $0 b 101011$ stand for?
$2^{5} \cdot 1+2^{4} \cdot 0+2^{3} \cdot 1+2^{2} \cdot 0+2^{1} \cdot 1+2^{0} \cdot 1=43$ or $32 \cdot 1+16 \cdot 0+8 \cdot 1+4 \cdot 0+2 \cdot 1+1=43$
There is such a thing as non-positional notation, such as the Roman numeral system. 8. Perhaps, humankind switched to positional notation because it's easier to do basic operations (addition, multiplication, etc.) on paper by hand.
Binary numbers can be added, subtracted and so on in the very same as taught in schools, but only 2 digits are available.

Binary numbers are bulky when represented in source code and dumps, so that is where the hexadecimal numeral system can be useful. A hexadecimal radix uses the digits 0..9, and also 6 Latin characters: A..F. Each hexadecimal digit takes 4 bits or 4 binary digits, so it's very easy to convert from binary number to hexadecimal and back, even manually, in one's mind.

| hexadecimal | binary | decimal |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0000 | 0 |
| 1 | 0001 | 1 |
| 2 | 0010 | 2 |
| 3 | 0011 | 3 |
| 4 | 0100 | 4 |
| 5 | 0101 | 5 |
| 6 | 0110 | 6 |
| 7 | 0111 | 7 |
| 8 | 1000 | 8 |
| 9 | 1001 | 9 |
| A | 1010 | 10 |
| B | 1011 | 11 |
| C | 1100 | 12 |
| D | 1101 | 13 |
| E | 1110 | 14 |
| F | 1111 | 15 |

How can one tell which radix is being used in a specific instance?
Decimal numbers are usually written as is, i.e., 1234. Some assemblers allow an identifier on decimal

[^12]radix numbers, in which the number would be written with a "d" suffix: 1234d.
Binary numbers are sometimes prepended with the "0b" prefix: 0b100110111 (GCC ${ }^{9}$ has a non-standard language extension for this ${ }^{10}$ ). There is also another way: using a "b" suffix, for example: $100110111 b$. This book tries to use the "0b" prefix consistently throughout the book for binary numbers.
Hexadecimal numbers are prepended with " $0 x$ " prefix in C/C++ and other PLs: $0 x 1234 \mathrm{ABCD}$. Alternatively, they are given a "h" suffix: 1234ABCDh. This is common way of representing them in assemblers and debuggers. In this convention, if the number is started with a Latin (A..F) digit, a 0 is added at the beginning: OABCDEFh. There was also convention that was popular in 8-bit home computers era, using $\$$ prefix, like $\$ A B C D$. The book will try to stick to " $0 x$ " prefix throughout the book for hexadecimal numbers.
Should one learn to convert numbers mentally? A table of 1-digit hexadecimal numbers can easily be memorized. As for larger numbers, it's probably not worth tormenting yourself.

Perhaps the most visible hexadecimal numbers are in URL ${ }^{11}$ s. This is the way that non-Latin characters are encoded. For example: https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/na\�\�vet\�\� is the URL of Wiktionary article about "naïveté" word.

## Octal Radix

Another numeral system heavily used in the past of computer programming is octal. In octal there are 8 digits (0..7), and each is mapped to 3 bits, so it's easy to convert numbers back and forth. It has been superseded by the hexadecimal system almost everywhere, but, surprisingly, there is a *NIX utility, used often by many people, which takes octal numbers as argument: chmod.

As many *NIX users know, chmod argument can be a number of 3 digits. The first digit represents the rights of the owner of the file (read, write and/or execute), the second is the rights for the group to which the file belongs, and the third is for everyone else. Each digit that chmod takes can be represented in binary form:

| decimal | binary | meaning |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 7 | 111 | rwx |
| 6 | 110 | rw- |
| 5 | 101 | $\mathbf{r - x}$ |
| 4 | 100 | r-- |
| 3 | 011 | $\mathbf{- w x}$ |
| 2 | 010 | $\mathbf{- w -}$ |
| 1 | 001 | $\mathbf{- - x}$ |
| 0 | 000 | $\mathbf{- - -}$ |

So each bit is mapped to a flag: read/write/execute.
The importance of chmod here is that the whole number in argument can be represented as octal number. Let's take, for example, 644. When you run chmod 644 file, you set read/write permissions for owner, read permissions for group and again, read permissions for everyone else. If we convert the octal number 644 to binary, it would be 110100100, or, in groups of 3 bits, 110100100.

Now we see that each triplet describe permissions for owner/group/others: first is rw- , second is r-- and third is $\mathrm{r}-$-.

The octal numeral system was also popular on old computers like PDP-8, because word there could be 12, 24 or 36 bits, and these numbers are all divisible by 3 , so the octal system was natural in that environment. Nowadays, all popular computers employ word/address sizes of 16,32 or 64 bits, and these numbers are all divisible by 4 , so the hexadecimal system is more natural there.

The octal numeral system is supported by all standard C/C++ compilers. This is a source of confusion sometimes, because octal numbers are encoded with a zero prepended, for example, 0377 is 255 . Sometimes, you might make a typo and write " 09 " instead of 9 , and the compiler would report an error. GCC might report something like this:
error: invalid digit "9" in octal constant.

[^13]Also, the octal system is somewhat popular in Java. When the IDA shows Java strings with non-printable characters, they are encoded in the octal system instead of hexadecimal. The JAD Java decompiler behaves the same way.

## Divisibility

When you see a decimal number like 120, you can quickly deduce that it's divisible by 10, because the last digit is zero. In the same way, 123400 is divisible by 100, because the two last digits are zeros.

Likewise, the hexadecimal number $0 x 1230$ is divisible by $0 x 10$ (or 16), $0 x 123000$ is divisible by $0 x 1000$ (or 4096), etc.

The binary number 0b1000101000 is divisible by Ob1000 (8), etc.
This property can often be used to quickly realize if an address or a size of some block in memory is padded to some boundary. For example, sections in PE ${ }^{12}$ files are almost always started at addresses ending with 3 hexadecimal zeros: 0x41000, 0x10001000, etc. The reason behind this is the fact that almost all PE sections are padded to a boundary of $0 \times 1000$ (4096) bytes.

## Multi-Precision Arithmetic and Radix

Multi-precision arithmetic can use huge numbers, and each one may be stored in several bytes. For example, RSA keys, both public and private, span up to 4096 bits, and maybe even more.
In [Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 2, 3rd ed., (1997), 265] we find the following idea: when you store a multi-precision number in several bytes, the whole number can be represented as having a radix of $2^{8}=256$, and each digit goes to the corresponding byte. Likewise, if you store a multi-precision number in several 32-bit integer values, each digit goes to each 32-bit slot, and you may think about this number as stored in radix of $2^{32}$.

## How to Pronounce Non-Decimal Numbers

Numbers in a non-decimal base are usually pronounced by digit by digit: "one-zero-zero-one-one-...". Words like "ten" and "thousand" are usually not pronounced, to prevent confusion with the decimal base system.

## Floating point numbers

To distinguish floating point numbers from integers, they are usually written with ". 0 " at the end, like 0.0 , 123.0, etc.

### 1.3 An Empty Function

The simplest possible function is arguably one that does nothing:
Listing 1.1: C/C++ Code

```
void f()
{
};
```

Let's compile it!

[^14]Here's what both the GCC and MSVC compilers produce on the $x 86$ platform:
Listing 1.2: Optimizing GCC/MSVC (assembly output)

```
f:
    ret
```

There is just one instruction: RET, which returns execution to the caller.

### 1.3.2 ARM

Listing 1.3: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode) assembly output

$f \quad$| PROC |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | BX |
|  | ENDP |

The return address is not saved on the local stack in the ARM ISA, but rather in the link register, so the BX LR instruction causes execution to jump to that address-effectively returning execution to the caller.

### 1.3.3 MIPS

There are two naming conventions used in the world of MIPS when naming registers: by number (from $\$ 0$ to \$31) or by pseudo name (\$V0, \$A0, etc.).
The GCC assembly output below lists registers by number:
Listing 1.4: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)

| $j$ | $\$ 31$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| nop |  |

...while IDA ${ }^{13}$ does it by pseudo name:
Listing 1.5: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

| j | \$ra |
| :--- | :--- |
| nop |  |

The first instruction is the jump instruction (J or JR) which returns the execution flow to the caller, jumping to the address in the $\$ 31$ (or $\$ \mathrm{RA}$ ) register.
This is the register analogous to $L R^{14}$ in ARM.
The second instruction is $\mathrm{NOP}^{15}$, which does nothing. We can ignore it for now.

## A Note About MIPS Instructions and Register Names

Register and instruction names in the world of MIPS are traditionally written in lowercase. However, for the sake of consistency, this book will stick to using uppercase letters, as it is the convention followed by all the other ISAs featured this book.

[^15]
### 1.3.4 Empty Functions in Practice

Despite the fact empty functions seem useless, they are quite frequent in low-level code.
First of all, they are quite popular in debugging functions, like this one:
Listing 1.6: C/C++ Code

```
void dbg_print (const char *fmt, ...)
{
#ifdef _DEBUG
    // open log file
    // write to log file
    // close log file
#endif
};
void some_function()
{
    dbg_print ("we did something\n");
};
```

In a non-debug build (as in a "release"), _DEBUG is not defined, so the dbg_print () function, despite still being called during execution, will be empty.

Similarly, a popular method of software protection is to make one build for legal customers, and another demo build. A demo build can lack some important functions, as with this example:

Listing 1.7: C/C++ Code

```
void save_file ()
{
#ifndef DEMO
    // actual saving code
#endif
};
```

The save_file() function can be called when the user clicks File->Save on the menu. The demo version may be delivered with this menu item disabled, but even if a software cracker will enable it, only an empty function with no useful code will be called.

IDA marks such functions with names like nullsub_00, nullsub_01, etc.

### 1.4 Returning Values

Another simple function is the one that simply returns a constant value:
Listing 1.8: C/C++ Code
int f()
\{

```
    return 123;
```

\};

Let's compile it.

### 1.4.1 $\times 86$

Here's what both the GCC and MSVC compilers produce (with optimization) on the x86 platform:
Listing 1.9: Optimizing GCC/MSVC (assembly output)

```
f:
            mov eax, 123
ret
```

There are just two instructions: the first places the value 123 into the EAX register, which is used by convention for storing the return value, and the second one is RET, which returns execution to the caller.

The caller will take the result from the EAX register.

### 1.4.2 ARM

There are a few differences on the ARM platform:
Listing 1.10: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode) ASM Output

| $f$ | PROC |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | MOV | r0, \#0x7b ; 123 |
|  | BX | $l r$ |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

ARM uses the register R0 for returning the results of functions, so 123 is copied into R0.
It is worth noting that MOV is a misleading name for the instruction in both the x86 and ARM ISAs.
The data is not in fact moved, but copied.

### 1.4.3 MIPS

The GCC assembly output below lists registers by number:
Listing 1.11: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (assembly output)

| $j$ | $\$ 31$ |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | $\# 0 \times 7 \mathrm{~b}$ |

...while IDA does it by their pseudo names:
Listing 1.12: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

| jr | \$ra |
| :--- | :--- |
| li | $\$ v 0,0 \times 7 \mathrm{~B}$ |

The $\$ 2$ (or $\$ \mathrm{~V} 0$ ) register is used to store the function's return value. LI stands for "Load Immediate" and is the MIPS equivalent to MOV.
The other instruction is the jump instruction (J or JR) which returns the execution flow to the caller.
You might be wondering why the positions of the load instruction (LI) and the jump instruction (J or JR) are swapped. This is due to a RISC feature called "branch delay slot".
The reason this happens is a quirk in the architecture of some RISC ISAs and isn't important for our purposes-we must simply keep in mind that in MIPS, the instruction following a jump or branch instruction is executed before the jump/branch instruction itself.

As a consequence, branch instructions always swap places with the instruction executed immediately beforehand.
In practice, functions which merely return 1 (true) or 0 (false) are very frequent.
The smallest ever of the standard UNIX utilities, /bin/true and /bin/false return 0 and 1 respectively, as an exit code. (Zero as an exit code usually means success, non-zero means error.)

### 1.5 Hello, world!

Let's use the famous example from the book [Brian W. Kernighan, Dennis M. Ritchie, The C Programming Language, 2ed, (1988)]:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("hello, world\n");
    return 0;
}
```


### 1.5.1 x86

## MSVC

Let's compile it in MSVC 2010:

```
cl 1.cpp /Fal.asm
```

(The /Fa option instructs the compiler to generate an assembly listing file)
Listing 1.14: MSVC 2010

```
CONST SEGMENT
$SG3830 DB 'hello, world', 0AH, 00H
CONST ENDS
PUBLIC main
EXTRN printf:PROC
; Function compile flags: /Odtp
_TEXT SEGMENT
main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push OFFSET $SG3830
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebp
    ret 0
main ENDP
TEXT ENDS
```

MSVC produces assembly listings in Intel-syntax. The differences between Intel-syntax and AT\&T-syntax will be discussed in 1.5.1 on page 11 .

The compiler generated the file, 1.obj, which is to be linked into 1.exe. In our case, the file contains two segments: CONST (for data constants) and _TEXT (for code).

The string hello, world in C/C++ has type const char[][Bjarne Stroustrup, The C++ Programming Language, 4th Edition, (2013)p176, 7.3.2], but it does not have its own name. The compiler needs to deal with the string somehow, so it defines the internal name \$SG3830 for it.

That is why the example may be rewritten as follows:

```
#include <stdio.h>
const char $SG3830[]="hello, world\n";
int main()
{
    printf($SG3830);
    return 0;
}
```

Let's go back to the assembly listing. As we can see, the string is terminated by a zero byte, which is standard for C/C++ strings. More about C/C++ strings: 5.4.1 on page 704.
In the code segment, _TEXT, there is only one function so far: main(). The function main() starts with prologue code and ends with epilogue code (like almost any function) ${ }^{16}$.

[^16]After the function prologue we see the call to the printf() function:
CALL _printf. Before the call, a string address (or a pointer to it) containing our greeting is placed on the stack with the help of the PUSH instruction.

When the printf() function returns the control to the main() function, the string address (or a pointer to it) is still on the stack. Since we do not need it anymore, the stack pointer (the ESP register) needs to be corrected.

ADD ESP, 4 means add 4 to the ESP register value.
Why 4? Since this is a 32-bit program, we need exactly 4 bytes for address passing through the stack. If it was x64 code we would need 8 bytes. ADD ESP, 4 is effectively equivalent to POP register but without using any register ${ }^{17}$.

For the same purpose, some compilers (like the Intel $\mathrm{C}++$ Compiler) may emit POP ECX instead of ADD (e.g., such a pattern can be observed in the Oracle RDBMS code as it is compiled with the Intel C++ compiler). This instruction has almost the same effect but the ECX register contents will be overwritten. The Intel C++ compiler supposedly uses POP ECX since this instruction's opcode is shorter than ADD ESP, x (1 byte for POP against 3 for ADD).

Here is an example of using POP instead of ADD from Oracle RDBMS:
Listing 1.15: Oracle RDBMS 10.2 Linux (app.o file)

| .text:0800029A | push | ebx |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text: $0800029 B$ | call | qksfroChild |
| .text:080002A0 | pop | ecx |

After calling printf(), the original $C / C++$ code contains the statement return 0 -return 0 as the result of the main() function.
In the generated code this is implemented by the instruction XOR EAX, EAX.
XOR is in fact just "eXclusive OR" ${ }^{18}$ but the compilers often use it instead of MOV EAX, 0—again because it is a slightly shorter opcode ( 2 bytes for XOR against 5 for MOV).

Some compilers emit SUB EAX, EAX, which means SUBtract the value in the EAX from the value in EAX. That in any case will results in zero.
The last instruction RET returns the control to the caller. Usually, this is $C / C++C R T^{19}$ code which in turn returns control to the OS.

## GCC

Now let's try to compile the same C/C++ code in the GCC 4.4.1 compiler in Linux: gcc 1.c -o 1. Next, with the assistance of the IDA disassembler, let's see how the main() function was created. IDA, like MSVC, uses Intel-syntax ${ }^{20}$.

Listing 1.16: code in IDA


[^17]1.5. HELLO, WORLD!

The result is almost the same. The address of the hello, world string (stored in the data segment) is loaded in the EAX register first, and then saved onto the stack.
In addition, the function prologue has AND ESP, 0FFFFFFF0h -this instruction aligns the ESP register value on a 16-byte boundary. This results in all values in the stack being aligned the same way (The CPU performs better if the values it is dealing with are located in memory at addresses aligned on a 4-byte or 16-byte boundary) ${ }^{21}$.

SUB ESP, 10h allocates 16 bytes on the stack. Although, as we can see hereafter, only 4 are necessary here.

This is because the size of the allocated stack is also aligned on a 16-byte boundary.
The string address (or a pointer to the string) is then stored directly onto the stack without using the PUSH instruction. var_10 -is a local variable and is also an argument for printf(). Read about it below.

Then the printf() function is called.
Unlike MSVC, when GCC is compiling without optimization turned on, it emits MOV EAX, 0 instead of a shorter opcode.

The last instruction, LEAVE -is the equivalent of the MOV ESP, EBP and POP EBP instruction pair -in other words, this instruction sets the stack pointer (ESP) back and restores the EBP register to its initial state. This is necessary since we modified these register values (ESP and EBP) at the beginning of the function (by executing MOV EBP, ESP / AND ESP, ...).

## GCC: AT\&T syntax

Let's see how this can be represented in assembly language AT\&T syntax. This syntax is much more popular in the UNIX-world.

Listing 1.17: let's compile in GCC 4.7.3

```
gcc -S 1 1.c
```

We get this:
Listing 1.18: GCC 4.7.3

```
        .file "1_1.c"
        .section .rodata
.LC0:
    .string "hello, world\n"
    .text
    .globl main
    .type main, @function
main:
.LFB0:
    .cfi_startproc
    pushl %ebp
    .cfi_def cfa offset 8
    .cfi_offset 5, -8
    movl %esp, %ebp
    .cfi_def_cfa_register 5
    andl $-16, %esp
    subl $16, %esp
    movl $.LC0, (%esp)
    call printf
    movl $0, %eax
    leave
    .cfi_restore 5
    .cfi_def_cfa 4, 4
    ret
    .cfi_endproc
.LFE0:
    .size main, .-main
    .ident "GCC: (Ubuntu/Linaro 4.7.3-1ubuntu1) 4.7.3"
    .section .note.GNU-stack,"",@progbits
```

[^18]The listing contains many macros (the parts that begin with a dot). These are not interesting for us at the moment.

For now, for the sake of simplicity, we can ignore them (except the .string macro which encodes a nullterminated character sequence just like a C-string). Then we'll see this ${ }^{22}$ :

Listing 1.19: GCC 4.7.3
. LC0:

```
.string "hello, world\n"
    pushl %ebp
    movl %esp, %ebp
    andl $-16, %esp
    subl $16, %esp
    movl $.LC0, (%esp)
    call printf
    movl $0, %eax
    leave
    ret
```

main:

Some of the major differences between Intel and AT\&T syntax are:

- Source and destination operands are written in opposite order.

In Intel-syntax: <instruction> <destination operand> <source operand>.
In AT\&T syntax: <instruction> <source operand> <destination operand>.
Here is an easy way to memorize the difference: when you deal with Intel-syntax, you can imagine that there is an equality sign ( $=$ ) between operands and when you deal with AT\&T-syntax imagine there is a right arrow $(\rightarrow)^{23}$.

- AT\&T: Before register names, a percent sign must be written (\%) and before numbers a dollar sign (\$). Parentheses are used instead of brackets.
- AT\&T: A suffix is added to instructions to define the operand size:
- q - quad (64 bits)
- I - long (32 bits)
- w - word (16 bits)
- b - byte (8 bits)

To go back to the compiled result: it is almost identical to what was displayed by IDA. There is one subtle difference: 0 FFFFFFF0h is presented as $\$-16$. It's the same thing: 16 in the decimal system is $0 \times 10$ in hexadecimal. $-0 \times 10$ is equal to $0 x F F F F F F F 0$ (for a 32-bit data type).
One more thing: the return value is set to 0 by using the usual MOV, not XOR. MOV just loads a value to a register. Its name is a misnomer (as the data is not moved but rather copied). In other architectures, this instruction is named "LOAD" or "STORE" or something similar.

## String patching (Win32)

We can easily find the "hello, world" string in the executable file using Hiew:

[^19]

Figure 1.1: Hiew

And we can try to translate our message into Spanish:


Figure 1.2: Hiew

The Spanish text is one byte shorter than English, so we also added the 0x0A byte at the end ( $\backslash \mathrm{n}$ ) with a zero byte.
It works.
What if we want to insert a longer message? There are some zero bytes after original English text. It's hard to say if they can be overwritten: they may be used somewhere in CRT code, or maybe not. Anyway, only overwrite them if you really know what you're doing.

## String patching (Linux $\mathbf{x 6 4}$ )

Let's try to patch a Linux x64 executable using rada.re:
Listing 1.20: rada.re session

```
dennis@bigbox ~/tmp % gcc hw.c
dennis@bigbox ~/tmp % radare2 a.out
    -- SHALL WE PLAY A GAME?
[0x00400430]> / hello
Searching 5 bytes from 0x00400000 to 0x00601040: 68 65 6c 6c 6f
Searching 5 bytes in [0x400000-0x601040]
hits: 1
0x004005c4 hit0_0 .HHhello, world;0.
[0x00400430]> s 0x004005c4
[0x004005c4]> px
- offset - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F 0123456789ABCDEF
0x004005c4 6865 6c6c 6f2c 2077 6f72 6c64 0000 0000 hello, world....
0x004005d4 011b 033b 3000 0000 0500 0000 1cfe ffff ...;0...........
0x004005e4 7c00 0000 5cfe ffff 4c00 0000 52ff ffff |...\...L...R...
0x004005f4 a400 0000 6cff ffff c400 0000 dcff ffff ....l...........
```

1.5. HELLO, WORLD!

```
0x00400604 0c01 0000 1400 0000 0000 0000 017a 5200 ....................
0x00400614 0178 1001 1b0c 0708 9001 0710 1400 0000 .x...............
0x00400624 1c00 0000 08fe ffff 2a00 0000 0000 0000 .................
0x00400634 0000 0000 1400 0000 0000 0000 017a 5200 ................zR.
0x00400644 0178 1001 1b0c 0708 9001 0000 2400 0000 .x..........$...
0x00400654 1c00 0000 98fd ffff 3000 0000 000e 1046 ........0......F
0x00400664 0e18 4a0f 0b77 0880 003f la3b 2a33 2422 ..J..w...?.;*3$"
0x00400674 0000 0000 1c00 0000 4400 0000 a6fe ffff ........D.......
0x00400684 1500 0000 0041 0e10 8602 430d 0650 0c07 ..........C..P..
0x00400694 0800 0000 4400 0000 6400 0000 a0fe ffff ....D...d.......
0x004006a4 6500 0000 0042 0e10 8f02 420e 188e 0345 e....В....В....E
0x004006b4 0e20 8d04 420e 288c 0548 0e30 8606 480e . ..B.(..H.0..H.
[0x004005c4]> 0o+
File a.out reopened in read-write mode
[0x004005c4]> w hola, mundo\x00
[0x004005c4]> q
dennis@bigbox ~/tmp % ./a.out
hola, mundo
```

Here's what's going on: I searched for the "hello" string using the / command, then I set the cursor (seek, in rada.re terms) to that address. Then I want to be sure that this is really that place: px dumps bytes there. $00+$ switches rada.re to read-write mode. w writes an ASCII string at the current seek. Note the $\backslash 00$ at the end-this is a zero byte. q quits.

## Software localization of MS-DOS era

This method was a common way to translate MS-DOS software to Russian language back to 1980's and 1990's. Russian words and sentences are usually slightly longer than its English counterparts, so that is why localized software has a lot of weird acronyms and hardly readable abbreviations.
Perhaps this also happened to other languages during that era, in other countries.

### 1.5.2 x86-64

## MSVC: x86-64

Let's also try 64-bit MSVC:
Listing 1.21: MSVC $2012 \times 64$

| \$SG2989 | DB | 'hello, world', 0AH, 00H |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| main | PROC |  |
|  | sub | rsp, 40 |
|  | lea | rcx, OFFSET FLAT:\$SG2989 |
|  | call | printf |
|  | xor | eax, eax |
|  | add | rsp, 40 |
|  | ret | 0 |
| main | ENDP |  |

In x86-64, all registers were extended to 64-bit, and now their names have an R-prefix. In order to use the stack less often (in other words, to access external memory/cache less often), there is a popular way to pass function arguments via registers (fastcall) 6.1.3 on page 735. I.e., a part of the function's arguments are passed in registers, and the rest-via the stack. In Win64, 4 function arguments are passed in the RCX, RDX, R8, and R9 registers. That is what we see here: a pointer to the string for printf() is now passed not in the stack, but rather in the RCX register. The pointers are 64-bit now, so they are passed in the 64-bit registers (which have the R- prefix). However, for backward compatibility, it is still possible to access the 32 -bit parts, using the E-prefix. This is how the RAX/EAX/AX/AL register looks like in $\times 86-64$ :

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RAX ${ }^{\text {64 }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EAX |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | AX |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | AH | AL |

The main() function returns an int-typed value, which in C/C++ is still 32-bit, for better backward compatibility and portability, so that is why the EAX register is cleared at the function end (i.e., the 32-bit part of the register) instead of with RAX. There are also 40 bytes allocated in the local stack. This is called the "shadow space", which we'll talk about later: 1.10.2 on page 100.

## GCC: x86-64

Let's also try GCC in 64-bit Linux:
Listing 1.22: GCC 4.4.6 x64

```
.string "hello, world\n"
main:
    sub rsp, 8
    mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "hello, world\n"
    xor eax, eax ; number of vector registers passed
    call printf
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 8
```

    ret
    Linux, *BSD and Mac OS X also use a method to pass function arguments in registers. [Michael Matz, Jan Hubicka, Andreas Jaeger, Mark Mitchell, System V Application Binary Interface. AMD64 Architecture Processor Supplement, (2013)] ${ }^{24}$.
The first 6 arguments are passed in the RDI, RSI, RDX, RCX, R8, and R9 registers, and the rest-via the stack.

So the pointer to the string is passed in EDI (the 32-bit part of the register). Why doesn't it use the 64-bit part, RDI?

It is important to keep in mind that all MOV instructions in 64-bit mode that write something into the lower 32-bit register part also clear the higher 32-bits (as stated in Intel manuals: 12.1.4 on page 1013).
I.e., the MOV EAX, 011223344h writes a value into RAX correctly, since the higher bits will be cleared.

If we open the compiled object file (.o), we can also see all the instructions' opcodes ${ }^{25}$ :
Listing 1.23: GCC 4.4.6 x64

```
.text:00000000004004D0
.text:00000000004004D0 48 83 EC 08
.text:00000000004004D4 BF E8 05 40 00
.text:00000000004004D9 31 C0
.text:00000000004004DB E8 D8 FE FF FF
.text:00000000004004E0 31 C0 xor eax, eax
.text:000000000004004E2 48 83 C4 08 add rsp, 8
.text:00000000004004E6 C3
.text:00000000004004E6
main proc near
sub rsp, 8
mov edi, offset format ; "hello, world\n"
xor eax, eax
call _printf
retn
main endp
```

As we can see, the instruction that writes into EDI at $0 \times 4004 D 4$ occupies 5 bytes. The same instruction writing a 64-bit value into RDI occupies 7 bytes. Apparently, GCC is trying to save some space. Besides, it can be sure that the data segment containing the string will not be allocated at the addresses higher than 4 GiB .

We also see that the EAX register has been cleared before the printf() function call. This is done because according to $A B I^{26}$ standard mentioned above, the number of used vector registers is to be passed in EAX in *NIX systems on x86-64.

[^20]
### 1.5. HELLO, WORLD!

## Address patching (Win64)

If our example was compiled in MSVC 2013 using \MD switch (meaning a smaller executable due to MSVCR*. DLL file linkage), the main() function comes first, and can be easily found:


Figure 1.3: Hiew

As an experiment, we can increment address by 1 :

### 1.5. HELLO, WORLD!



Figure 1.4: Hiew

Hiew shows "ello, world". And when we run the patched executable, this very string is printed.

## Pick another string from binary image (Linux x64)

The binary file I've got when I compile our example using GCC 5.4.0 on Linux x64 box has many other text strings. They are mostly imported function names and library names.

Run objdump to get the contents of all sections of the compiled file:

```
$ objdump -s a.out
a.out: file format elf64-x86-64
Contents of section .interp:
    400238 2f6c6962 36342f6c 642d6c69 6e75782d /lib64/ld-linux-
    400248 7838362d 36342e73 6f2e3200 x86-64.so.2.
Contents of section .note.ABI-tag:
    4 0 0 2 5 4 0 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 ~ 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ~ 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 ~ 4 7 4 e 5 5 0 0 ~
    400264 00000000 02000000 06000000 20000000
Contents of section .note.gnu.build-id:
    400274 04000000 14000000 03000000 474e5500 ............GNU.
    400284 fe461178 5bb710b4 bbf2aca8 5ec1ec10 .F.x[.......^...
    4 0 0 2 9 4 ~ c f 3 f 7 a e 4 ~
    .?z.
```

. .

It's not a problem to pass address of the text string "/lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2" to printf():

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main()
{
    printf(0x400238);
    return 0;
}
```

It's hard to believe, but this code prints the aforementioned string.
If you would change the address to $0 x 400260$, the "GNU" string would be printed. This address is true for my specific GCC version, GNU toolset, etc. On your system, the executable may be slightly different, and all addresses will also be different. Also, adding/removing code to/from this source code will probably shift all addresses back or forward.

### 1.5.3 GCC-one more thing

The fact that an anonymous C-string has const type ( 1.5 .1 on page 9 ), and that C-strings allocated in constants segment are guaranteed to be immutable, has an interesting consequence: the compiler may use a specific part of the string.

Let's try this example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int f1()
{
}
int f2()
{
}
int main()
{
    f1();
    f2();
}
```

Common C/C++-compilers (including MSVC) allocate two strings, but let's see what GCC 4.8.1 does:
Listing 1.24: GCC 4.8.1 + IDA listing

| f1 | proc near |
| :---: | :---: |
| S | = dword ptr -1Ch |
|  | sub esp, 1Ch |
|  | mov [esp+1Ch+s], offset s ; "world\n" |
|  | add esp, 1Ch |
|  | retn |
| f1 | endp |
| f2 | proc near |
| S | $=$ dword ptr -1Ch |
|  | sub esp, 1Ch |
|  | mov [esp+1Ch+s], offset aHello ; "hello " |
|  | call _puts |
|  | add esp, 1Ch |
|  | retn |
| f2 | endp |
| aHello | db 'hello ' |
| s | db 'world',0xa,0 |

Indeed: when we print the "hello world" string these two words are positioned in memory adjacently and puts() called from f2() function is not aware that this string is divided. In fact, it's not divided; it's divided only "virtually", in this listing.

When puts() is called from f1(), it uses the "world" string plus a zero byte. puts() is not aware that there is something before this string!

This clever trick is often used by at least GCC and can save some memory. This is close to string interning. Another related example is here: 3.2 on page 469.

### 1.5.4 ARM

For my experiments with ARM processors, several compilers were used:

- Popular in the embedded area: Keil Release 6/2013.
- Apple Xcode 4.6.3 IDE with the LLVM-GCC 4.2 compiler ${ }^{27}$.
- GCC 4.9 (Linaro) (for ARM64), available as win32-executables at http://go.yurichev.com/17325.

32-bit ARM code is used (including Thumb and Thumb-2 modes) in all cases in this book, if not mentioned otherwise. When we talk about 64-bit ARM here, we call it ARM64.

## Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

Let's start by compiling our example in Keil:

```
armcc.exe --arm --c90 -00 1.c
```

The armcc compiler produces assembly listings in Intel-syntax, but it has high-level ARM-processor related macros ${ }^{28}$, but it is more important for us to see the instructions "as is" so let's see the compiled result in IDA.

Listing 1.25: Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode) IDA

```
.text:00000000 main
.text:00000000 10 40 2D E9 STMFD SP!, {R4,LR}
.text:00000004 1E 0E 8F E2 ADR R0, aHelloWorld ; "hello, world"
.text:00000008 15 19 00 EB BL 2printf
.text:0000000C 00 00 A0 E3 MOV \overline{R0}, #0
.text:00000010 10 80 BD E8 LDMFD SP!, {R4,PC}
.text:000001EC 68 65 6C 6C+aHelloWorld DCB "hello, world",0 ; DATA XREF: main+4
```

In the example, we can easily see each instruction has a size of 4 bytes. Indeed, we compiled our code for ARM mode, not for Thumb.

The very first instruction, STMFD SP!, $\{R 4, L R\}^{29}$, works as an x86 PUSH instruction, writing the values of two registers ( $R 4$ and LR) into the stack.
Indeed, in the output listing from the armcc compiler, for the sake of simplification, actually shows the PUSH \{r4, lr\} instruction. But that is not quite precise. The PUSH instruction is only available in Thumb mode. So, to make things less confusing, we're doing this in IDA.

This instruction first decrements the $S P^{31}$ so it points to the place in the stack that is free for new entries, then it saves the values of the R4 and LR registers at the address stored in the modified SP.
This instruction (like the PUSH instruction in Thumb mode) is able to save several register values at once which can be very useful. By the way, this has no equivalent in x86. It can also be noted that the STMFD instruction is a generalization of the PUSH instruction (extending its features), since it can work with any register, not just with SP. In other words, STMFD may be used for storing a set of registers at the specified memory address.

[^21]The ADR R0, aHelloWorld instruction adds or subtracts the value in the PC ${ }^{32}$ register to the offset where the hello, world string is located. How is the PC register used here, one might ask? This is called "position-independent code" 33 .
Such code can be executed at a non-fixed address in memory. In other words, this is PC-relative addressing. The ADR instruction takes into account the difference between the address of this instruction and the address where the string is located. This difference (offset) is always to be the same, no matter at what address our code is loaded by the OS. That's why all we need is to add the address of the current instruction (from PC) in order to get the absolute memory address of our C-string.
BL __ $2 p r i n t f{ }^{34}$ instruction calls the printf() function. Here's how this instruction works:

- store the address following the BL instruction ( $0 \times C$ ) into the LR;
- then pass the control to printf() by writing its address into the PC register.

When printf() finishes its execution it must have information about where it needs to return the control to. That's why each function passes control to the address stored in the LR register.
That is a difference between "pure" RISC-processors like ARM and CISC ${ }^{35}$-processors like x86, where the return address is usually stored on the stack. Read more about this in next section ( 1.7 on page 30).

By the way, an absolute 32-bit address or offset cannot be encoded in the 32-bit BL instruction because it only has space for 24 bits. As we may recall, all ARM-mode instructions have a size of 4 bytes ( 32 bits). Hence, they can only be located on 4-byte boundary addresses. This implies that the last 2 bits of the instruction address (which are always zero bits) may be omitted. In summary, we have 26 bits for offset encoding. This is enough to encode current_PC $\pm \approx 32 M$.
Next, the MOV R0, \#0 ${ }^{36}$ instruction just writes 0 into the R0 register. That's because our C-function returns 0 and the return value is to be placed in the R0 register.
The last instruction LDMFD SP!, R4, PC ${ }^{37}$. It loads values from the stack (or any other memory place) in order to save them into R4 and PC, and increments the stack pointer SP. It works like POP here.
N.B. The very first instruction STMFD saved the R4 and LR registers pair on the stack, but R4 and PC are restored during the LDMFD execution.
As we already know, the address of the place where each function must return control to is usually saved in the LR register. The very first instruction saves its value in the stack because the same register will be used by our main() function when calling printf(). In the function's end, this value can be written directly to the PC register, thus passing control to where our function has been called.

Since main() is usually the primary function in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$, the control will be returned to the OS loader or to a point in a CRT, or something like that.
All that allows omitting the BX LR instruction at the end of the function.
DCB is an assembly language directive defining an array of bytes or ASCII strings, akin to the DB directive in the x86-assembly language.

## Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

Let's compile the same example using Keil in Thumb mode:

```
armcc.exe --thumb --c90 -00 1.c
```

We are getting (in IDA):
Listing 1.26: Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode) + IDA


[^22]```
.text:00000304 68 65 6C 6C+aHelloWorld DCB "hello, world",0 ; DATA XREF: main+2
```

We can easily spot the 2-byte (16-bit) opcodes. This is, as was already noted, Thumb. The BL instruction, however, consists of two 16-bit instructions. This is because it is impossible to load an offset for the printf() function while using the small space in one 16-bit opcode. Therefore, the first 16-bit instruction loads the higher 10 bits of the offset and the second instruction loads the lower 11 bits of the offset.

As was noted, all instructions in Thumb mode have a size of 2 bytes (or 16 bits). This implies it is impossible for a Thumb-instruction to be at an odd address whatsoever. Given the above, the last address bit may be omitted while encoding instructions.

In summary, the BL Thumb-instruction can encode an address in current_PC $\pm \approx 2 M$.
As for the other instructions in the function: PUSH and POP work here just like the described STMFD/LDMFD only the SP register is not mentioned explicitly here. ADR works just like in the previous example. MOVS writes 0 into the R0 register in order to return zero.

## Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

Xcode 4.6.3 without optimization turned on produces a lot of redundant code so we'll study optimized output, where the instruction count is as small as possible, setting the compiler switch -03.

Listing 1.27: Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

```
text:000028C4
text:000028C4 80 40 2D E9 - STMFD D SP!, {R7,LR}
text:000028C8 86 06 01 E3 MOV R0, #0x1686
text:000028CC 0D 70 A0 E1 MOV R7, SP
text:000028D0 00 00 40 E3 MOVT R0, #0
text:000028D4 00 00 8F E0 ADD R0, PC, R0
text:000028D8 C3 05 00 EB BL puts
text:000028DC 00 00 A0 E3 MOV \overline{R0, #0}
_text:000028E0 80 80 BD E8 LDMFD SP!, {R7,PC}
cstring:00003F62 48 65 6C 6C+aHelloWorld_0 DCB "Hello world!",0
```

The instructions STMFD and LDMFD are already familiar to us.
The MOV instruction just writes the number $0 \times 1686$ into the R 0 register. This is the offset pointing to the "Hello world!" string.
The R 7 register (as it is standardized in [iOS ABI Function Call Guide, (2010) ${ }^{39}$ ) is a frame pointer. More on that below.

The MOVT R0, \#0 (MOVe Top) instruction writes 0 into higher 16 bits of the register. The issue here is that the generic MOV instruction in ARM mode may write only the lower 16 bits of the register.

Keep in mind, all instruction opcodes in ARM mode are limited in size to 32 bits. Of course, this limitation is not related to moving data between registers. That's why an additional instruction MOVT exists for writing into the higher bits (from 16 to 31 inclusive). Its usage here, however, is redundant because the MOV R0, \#0x1686 instruction above cleared the higher part of the register. This is supposedly a shortcoming of the compiler.

The ADD R0, PC, R0 instruction adds the value in the PC to the value in the R0, to calculate the absolute address of the "Hello world!" string. As we already know, it is "position-independent code" so this correction is essential here.

The BL instruction calls the puts() function instead of printf().
GCC replaced the first printf() call with puts(). Indeed: printf() with a sole argument is almost analogous to puts().
Almost, because the two functions are producing the same result only in case the string does not contain printf format identifiers starting with $\%$. In case it does, the effect of these two functions would be different 40.

[^23]Why did the compiler replace the printf() with puts()? Presumably because puts() is faster ${ }^{41}$. Because it just passes characters to stdout without comparing every one of them with the \% symbol. Next, we see the familiar MOV R0, \#0 instruction intended to set the R0 register to 0 .

## Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)

By default Xcode 4.6.3 generates code for Thumb-2 in this manner:
Listing 1.28: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)

```
text:00002B6C
text:00002B6C 80 B5
text:00002B6E 41 F2 D8 30
text:00002B72 6F 46
text:00002B74 C0 F2 00 00
text:00002B78 78 44
text:00002B7A 01 F0 38 EA
_text:00002B7E 00 20
__text:00002B80 80 BD
...
__cstring:00003E70 48 65 6C 6C 6F 20+aHelloWorld DCB "Hello world!",0xA,0
```

The BL and BLX instructions in Thumb mode, as we recall, are encoded as a pair of 16-bit instructions. In Thumb-2 these surrogate opcodes are extended in such a way so that new instructions may be encoded here as 32-bit instructions.

That is obvious considering that the opcodes of the Thumb-2 instructions always begin with $0 x F x$ or $0 x E x$.
But in the IDA listing the opcode bytes are swapped because for ARM processor the instructions are encoded as follows: last byte comes first and after that comes the first one (for Thumb and Thumb-2 modes) or for instructions in ARM mode the fourth byte comes first, then the third, then the second and finally the first (due to different endianness).
So that is how bytes are located in IDA listings:

- for ARM and ARM64 modes: 4-3-2-1;
- for Thumb mode: 2-1;
- for 16-bit instructions pair in Thumb-2 mode: 2-1-4-3.

So as we can see, the MOVW, MOVT.W and BLX instructions begin with $0 x F x$.
One of the Thumb-2 instructions is MOVW R0, \#0x13D8 -it stores a 16-bit value into the lower part of the R0 register, clearing the higher bits.

Also, MOVT.W R0, \#0 works just like MOVT from the previous example only it works in Thumb-2.
Among the other differences, the BLX instruction is used in this case instead of the BL.
The difference is that, besides saving the RA ${ }^{42}$ in the LR register and passing control to the puts () function, the processor is also switching from Thumb/Thumb-2 mode to ARM mode (or back).

This instruction is placed here since the instruction to which control is passed looks like (it is encoded in ARM mode):

```
symbolstub1:00003FEC _puts ; CODE XREF: _hello_world+E
```

_symbolstub1:00003FEC 44 F0 9F E5 LDR PC, =__imp__puts

This is essentially a jump to the place where the address of puts () is written in the imports' section.
So, the observant reader may ask: why not call puts() right at the point in the code where it is needed? Because it is not very space-efficient.
Almost any program uses external dynamic libraries (like DLL in Windows, .so in *NIX or .dylib in Mac OS X). The dynamic libraries contain frequently used library functions, including the standard C-function puts ().

[^24]In an executable binary file (Windows PE .exe, ELF or Mach-O) an import section is present. This is a list of symbols (functions or global variables) imported from external modules along with the names of the modules themselves.

The OS loader loads all modules it needs and, while enumerating import symbols in the primary module, determines the correct addresses of each symbol.

In our case, __imp_puts is a 32 -bit variable used by the OS loader to store the correct address of the function in an external library. Then the LDR instruction just reads the 32-bit value from this variable and writes it into the PC register, passing control to it.
So, in order to reduce the time the OS loader needs for completing this procedure, it is good idea to write the address of each symbol only once, to a dedicated place.

Besides, as we have already figured out, it is impossible to load a 32-bit value into a register while using only one instruction without a memory access.

Therefore, the optimal solution is to allocate a separate function working in ARM mode with the sole goal of passing control to the dynamic library and then to jump to this short one-instruction function (the so-called thunk function) from the Thumb-code.

By the way, in the previous example (compiled for ARM mode) the control is passed by the BL to the same thunk function. The processor mode, however, is not being switched (hence the absence of an " $X$ " in the instruction mnemonic).

## More about thunk-functions

Thunk-functions are hard to understand, apparently, because of a misnomer. The simplest way to understand it as adaptors or convertors of one type of jack to another. For example, an adaptor allowing the insertion of a British power plug into an American wall socket, or vice-versa. Thunk functions are also sometimes called wrappers.

Here are a couple more descriptions of these functions:
"A piece of coding which provides an address:", according to P. Z. Ingerman, who invented thunks in 1961 as a way of binding actual parameters to their formal definitions in Algol-60 procedure calls. If a procedure is called with an expression in the place of a formal parameter, the compiler generates a thunk which computes the expression and leaves the address of the result in some standard location.

Microsoft and IBM have both defined, in their Intel-based systems, a "16-bit environment" (with bletcherous segment registers and 64 K address limits) and a "32-bit environment" (with flat addressing and semi-real memory management). The two environments can both be running on the same computer and OS (thanks to what is called, in the Microsoft world, WOW which stands for Windows On Windows). MS and IBM have both decided that the process of getting from 16- to 32-bit and vice versa is called a "thunk"; for Windows 95, there is even a tool, THUNK.EXE, called a "thunk compiler".
( The Jargon File )
Another example we can find in LAPACK library-a "Linear Algebra PACKage" written in FORTRAN. C/C++ developers also want to use LAPACK, but it's insane to rewrite it to $C / C++$ and then maintain several versions. So there are short $C$ functions callable from $C / C++$ environment, which are, in turn, call FORTRAN functions, and do almost anything else:

```
double Blas Dot Prod(const LaVectorDouble &dx, const LaVectorDouble &dy)
{
    assert(dx.size()==dy.size());
    integer n = dx.size();
    integer incx = dx.inc(), incy = dy.inc();
    return F77NAME(ddot)(&n, &dx(0), &incx, &dy(0), &incy);
}
```

Also, functions like that are called "wrappers".

## ARM64

## GCC

Let's compile the example using GCC 4.8.1 in ARM64:
Listing 1.29: Non-optimizing GCC 4.8 .1 + objdump

```
0000000000400590 <main>:
    400590: a9bf7bfd stp x29, x30, [sp,#-16]!
    400594: 910003fd mov x29, sp
    400598: 90000000 adrp x0, 400000 <_init-0x3b8>
    40059c: 91192000 add x0, x0, #0x64
    4005a0: 97ffffa0 bl 400420 <puts@plt>
    4005a4: 52800000 mov w0, #0x0 // #0
    4005a8: a8c17bfd ldp x29, x30, [sp],#16
    4005ac: d65f03c0
    ret
...
Contents of section .rodata:
    400640 01000200 00000000 48656c6c 6f210a00 ........Hello!..
```

There are no Thumb and Thumb-2 modes in ARM64, only ARM, so there are 32-bit instructions only. The Register count is doubled: . 2.4 on page 1041. 64-bit registers have $X$ - prefixes, while its 32 -bit parts-W-.
The STP instruction (Store Pair) saves two registers in the stack simultaneously: X29 and X30.
Of course, this instruction is able to save this pair at an arbitrary place in memory, but the SP register is specified here, so the pair is saved in the stack.

ARM64 registers are 64-bit ones, each has a size of 8 bytes, so one needs 16 bytes for saving two registers.
The exclamation mark ("!") after the operand means that 16 is to be subtracted from SP first, and only then are values from register pair to be written into the stack. This is also called pre-index. About the difference between post-index and pre-index read here: 1.32.2 on page 439.

Hence, in terms of the more familiar x86, the first instruction is just an analogue to a pair of PUSH X29 and PUSH X30. X29 is used as FP ${ }^{43}$ in ARM64, and X30 as LR, so that's why they are saved in the function prologue and restored in the function epilogue.
The second instruction copies SP in X29 (or FP). This is made so to set up the function stack frame.
ADRP and ADD instructions are used to fill the address of the string "Hello!" into the X0 register, because the first function argument is passed in this register. There are no instructions, whatsoever, in ARM that can store a large number into a register (because the instruction length is limited to 4 bytes, read more about it here: 1.32 .3 on page 440 ). So several instructions must be utilized. The first instruction (ADRP) writes the address of the 4 KiB page, where the string is located, into X 0 , and the second one (ADD) just adds the remainder to the address. More about that in: 1.32 .4 on page 442 .
$0 \times 400000+0 \times 648=0 \times 400648$, and we see our "Hello!" C-string in the .rodata data segment at this address.
puts () is called afterwards using the BL instruction. This was already discussed: 1.5.4 on page 21.
MOV writes 0 into W0. W0 is the lower 32 bits of the 64-bit X0 register:

| High 32-bit part | low 32-bit part |
| :---: | :---: |
| X0 |  |
|  | W0 |

The function result is returned via X0 and main() returns 0 , so that's how the return result is prepared. But why use the 32-bit part?

Because the int data type in ARM64, just like in x86-64, is still 32-bit, for better compatibility.
So if a function returns a 32-bit int, only the lower 32 bits of $X 0$ register have to be filled.
In order to verify this, let's change this example slightly and recompile it. Now main() returns a 64-bit value:

[^25]```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t main()
{
    printf ("Hello!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

The result is the same, but that's how MOV at that line looks like now:
Listing 1.31: Non-optimizing GCC 4.8 .1 + objdump
4005a4: $\mathrm{d} 2800000 \quad$ mov $\mathrm{x} 0, ~ \# 0 \mathrm{x} 0 \quad / /$ \#0

LDP (Load Pair) then restores the X29 and X30 registers.
There is no exclamation mark after the instruction: this implies that the values are first loaded from the stack, and only then is SP increased by 16. This is called post-index.

A new instruction appeared in ARM64: RET. It works just as BX LR, only a special hint bit is added, informing the CPU that this is a return from a function, not just another jump instruction, so it can execute it more optimally.
Due to the simplicity of the function, optimizing GCC generates the very same code.

### 1.5.5 MIPS

## A word about the "global pointer"

One important MIPS concept is the "global pointer". As we may already know, each MIPS instruction has a size of 32 bits, so it's impossible to embed a 32-bit address into one instruction: a pair has to be used for this (like GCC did in our example for the text string address loading). It's possible, however, to load data from the address in the range of register $-32768 \ldots$...egister +32767 using one single instruction (because 16 bits of signed offset could be encoded in a single instruction). So we can allocate some register for this purpose and also allocate a 64 KiB area of most used data. This allocated register is called a "global pointer" and it points to the middle of the 64 KiB area. This area usually contains global variables and addresses of imported functions like printf(), because the GCC developers decided that getting the address of some function must be as fast as a single instruction execution instead of two. In an ELF file
 data") for initialized data. This implies that the programmer may choose what data he/she wants to be accessed fast and place it into .sdata/.sbss. Some old-school programmers may recall the MS-DOS memory model 11.6 on page 1003 or the MS-DOS memory managers like XMS/EMS where all memory was divided in 64 KiB blocks.

This concept is not unique to MIPS. At least PowerPC uses this technique as well.

## Optimizing GCC

Let's consider the following example, which illustrates the "global pointer" concept.
Listing 1.32: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
; \000 is zero byte in octal base:
    .ascii "Hello, world!\012\000"
main:
; function prologue.
; set the GP:
        lui $28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
        addiu $sp,$sp,-32
        addiu $28,$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
; save the RA to the local stack:
            sw $31,28($sp)
```

${ }^{44}$ Block Started by Symbol

```
; load the address of the puts() function from the GP to $25:
    lw $25,%call16(puts)($28)
; load the address of the text string to $4 ($a0):
    lui $4,%hi($LC0)
; jump to puts(), saving the return address in the link register:
        jalr $25
        addiu $4,$4,%lo($LC0) ; branch delay slot
; restore the RA:
        lw $31,28($sp)
; copy 0 from $zero to $v0:
        move $2,$0
; return by jumping to the RA:
        j $31
; function epilogue:
        addiu $sp,$sp,32 ; branch delay slot + free local stack
```

As we see, the $\$ G P$ register is set in the function prologue to point to the middle of this area. The RA register is also saved in the local stack. puts() is also used here instead of printf(). The address of the puts () function is loaded into $\$ 25$ using LW the instruction ("Load Word"). Then the address of the text string is loaded to $\$ 4$ using LUI ("Load Upper Immediate") and ADDIU ("Add Immediate Unsigned Word") instruction pair. LUI sets the high 16 bits of the register (hence "upper" word in instruction name) and ADDIU adds the lower 16 bits of the address.

ADDIU follows JALR (haven't you forgot branch delay slots yet?). The register \$4 is also called \$A0, which is used for passing the first function argument ${ }^{45}$.

JALR ("Jump and Link Register") jumps to the address stored in the $\$ 25$ register (address of puts ()) while saving the address of the next instruction (LW) in RA. This is very similar to ARM. Oh, and one important thing is that the address saved in RA is not the address of the next instruction (because it's in a delay slot and is executed before the jump instruction), but the address of the instruction after the next one (after the delay slot). Hence, $P C+8$ is written to RA during the execution of JALR, in our case, this is the address of the LW instruction next to ADDIU.

LW ("Load Word") at line 20 restores RA from the local stack (this instruction is actually part of the function epilogue).
MOVE at line 22 copies the value from the $\$ 0$ ( $\$$ ZERO) register to $\$ 2$ ( $\$ \mathrm{~V} 0$ ).
MIPS has a constant register, which always holds zero. Apparently, the MIPS developers came up with the idea that zero is in fact the busiest constant in the computer programming, so let's just use the $\$ 0$ register every time zero is needed.
Another interesting fact is that MIPS lacks an instruction that transfers data between registers. In fact, MOVE DST, SRC is ADD DST, SRC, \$ZERO $(D S T=S R C+0)$, which does the same. Apparently, the MIPS developers wanted to have a compact opcode table. This does not mean an actual addition happens at each MOVE instruction. Most likely, the CPU optimizes these pseudo instructions and the ALU ${ }^{46}$ is never used.
$J$ at line 24 jumps to the address in RA, which is effectively performing a return from the function. ADDIU after J is in fact executed before J (remember branch delay slots?) and is part of the function epilogue. Here is also a listing generated by IDA. Each register here has its own pseudo name:

Listing 1.33: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var_10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var 4 = -4
.text:00000000
; function prologue.
; set the GP:
.text:00000000 lui $gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
.text:00000004 addiu $sp, -0x20
.text:00000008 la $gp, (__gnu_local_gp & 0xFFFF)
; save the RA to the local stack:
.text:0000000C sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
; save the GP to the local stack:
for some reason, this instruction is missing in the GCC assembly output:
```

[^26]1.5. HELLO, WORLD!

```
.text:00000010 sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
; load the address of the puts() function from the GP to $t9:
.text:00000014 lw $t9, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
; form the address of the text string in $a0:
.text:00000018 lui $a0, ($LC0 >> 16) # "Hello, world!"
; jump to puts(), saving the return address in the link register:
.text:0000001C jalr $t9
.text:00000020 la $a0, ($LC0 & 0xFFFF) # "Hello, world!"
; restore the RA:
.text:00000024 lw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
; copy 0 from $zero to $v0:
.text:00000028 move $v0, $zero
; return by jumping to the RA:
.text:0000002C jr $ra
; function epilogue:
text:00000030 addiu $sp, 0x20
```

The instruction at line 15 saves the GP value into the local stack, and this instruction is missing mysteriously from the GCC output listing, maybe by a GCC error ${ }^{47}$. The GP value has to be saved indeed, because each function can use its own 64 KiB data window. The register containing the puts () address is called \$T9, because registers prefixed with T- are called "temporaries" and their contents may not be preserved.

## Non-optimizing GCC

Non-optimizing GCC is more verbose.
Listing 1.34: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
            .ascii "Hello, world!\012\000"
main:
; function prologue.
; save the RA ($31) and FP in the stack:
    addiu $sp,$sp,-32
    sw $31,28($sp)
    sw $fp,24($sp)
; set the FP (stack frame pointer):
    move $fp,$sp
; set the GP:
        lui $28,%hi(_gnu_local_gp)
        addiu $28,$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
; load the address of the text string:
        lui $2,%hi($LC0)
        addiu $4,$2,%lo($LC0)
; load the address of puts() using the GP:
        lw $2,%call16(puts)($28)
        nop
; call puts():
            move $25,$2
            jalr $25
            nop ; branch delay slot
; restore the GP from the local stack:
        lw $28,16($fp)
; set register $2 ($V0) to zero:
            move $2,$0
; function epilogue.
; restore the SP:
            move $sp,$fp
; restore the RA:
            lw $31,28($sp)
    restore the FP:
        lw $fp,24($sp)
        addiu $sp,$sp,32
    jump to the RA:
        j $31
        nop ; branch delay slot
```

[^27]We see here that register FP is used as a pointer to the stack frame. We also see 3 NOPs. The second and third of which follow the branch instructions. Perhaps the GCC compiler always adds NOPs (because of branch delay slots) after branch instructions and then, if optimization is turned on, maybe eliminates them. So in this case they are left here.
Here is also IDA listing:
Listing 1.35: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var_10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var_8 = -8
.text:00000000 var_4 = -4
.text:00000000
; function prologue.
; save the RA and FP in the stack:
.text:00000000 addiu $sp, -0x20
.text:00000004 sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
.text:00000008 sw $fp, 0x20+var_8($sp)
; set the FP (stack frame pointer):
.text:0000000C move $fp, $sp
; set the GP:
.text:00000010 la $gp, __gnu_local_gp
.text:00000018 sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
; load the address of the text string:
.text:0000001C lui $v0, (aHelloWorld >> 16) # "Hello, world!"
.text:00000020 addiu $a0, $v0, (aHelloWorld & 0xFFFF) # "Hello, world!"
; load the address of puts() using the GP:
.text:00000024 lw $v0, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
.text:00000028 or $at, $zero ; NOP
; call puts():
.text:0000002C move $t9, $v0
.text:00000030 jalr $t9
.text:00000034 or $at, $zero ; NOP
; restore the GP from local stack:
.text:00000038 lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($fp)
; set register $2 ($V0) to zero:
.text:0000003C move $v0, $zero
; function epilogue.
; restore the SP:
.text:00000040 move $sp, $fp
; restore the RA:
.text:00000044 lw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
; restore the FP:
.text:00000048 lw $fp, 0x20+var_8($sp)
.text:0000004C addiu $sp, 0x20
; jump to the RA:
.text:00000050 jr $ra
.text:00000054 or $at, $zero ; NOP
```

Interestingly, IDA recognized the LUI/ADDIU instructions pair and coalesced them into one LA ("Load Address") pseudo instruction at line 15 . We may also see that this pseudo instruction has a size of 8 bytes! This is a pseudo instruction (or macro) because it's not a real MIPS instruction, but rather a handy name for an instruction pair.

Another thing is that IDA doesn't recognize NOP instructions, so here they are at lines 22, 26 and 41 . It is OR \$AT, \$ZERO. Essentially, this instruction applies the OR operation to the contents of the \$AT register with zero, which is, of course, an idle instruction. MIPS, like many other ISAs, doesn't have a separate NOP instruction.

## Role of the stack frame in this example

The address of the text string is passed in the register. Why setup a local stack anyway? The reason for this lies in the fact that the values of registers RA and GP have to be saved somewhere (because printf() is called), and the local stack is used for this purpose. If this was a leaf function, it would have been possible to get rid of the function prologue and epilogue, for example: 1.4.3 on page 8.

Listing 1.36: sample GDB session

```
root@debian-mips:~# gcc hw.c -03 -o hw
root@debian-mips:~# gdb hw
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.0.1-debian
Reading symbols from /root/hw...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) b main
Breakpoint 1 at 0x400654
(gdb) run
Starting program: /root/hw
Breakpoint 1, 0x00400654 in main ()
(gdb) set step-mode on
(gdb) disas
Dump of assembler code for function main:
0x00400640 <main+0>: lui gp,0x42
0x00400644 <main+4>: addiu sp,sp,-32
0x00400648 <main+8>: addiu gp,gp,-30624
0x0040064c <main+12>: sw ra,28(sp)
0x00400650 <main+16>: sw gp,16(sp)
0x00400654 <main+20>: lw t9,-32716(gp)
0x00400658 <main+24>: lui a0,0x40
0x0040065c <main+28>: jalr t9
0x00400660 <main+32>: addiu a0,a0,2080
0x00400664 <main+36>: lw ra,28(sp)
0x00400668 <main+40>: move v0,zero
0x0040066c <main+44>: jr ra
0x00400670 <main+48>: addiu sp,sp,32
End of assembler dump.
(gdb) s
0x00400658 in main ()
(gdb) s
0x0040065c in main ()
(gdb) s
0x2ab2de60 in printf () from /lib/libc.so.6
(gdb) x/s $a0
0x400820: "hello, world"
(gdb)
```


### 1.5.6 Conclusion

The main difference between x86/ARM and x64/ARM64 code is that the pointer to the string is now 64-bits in length. Indeed, modern CPUs are now 64-bit due to both the reduced cost of memory and the greater demand for it by modern applications. We can add much more memory to our computers than 32-bit pointers are able to address. As such, all pointers are now 64-bit.

### 1.5.7 Exercises

- http://challenges.re/48
- http://challenges.re/49


### 1.6 Function prologue and epilogue

A function prologue is a sequence of instructions at the start of a function. It often looks something like the following code fragment:

| push | ebp |
| :--- | :--- |
| mov | ebp, esp |
| sub | esp, $X$ |

What these instruction do: save the value in the EBP register, set the value of the EBP register to the value of the ESP and then allocate space on the stack for local variables.
The value in the EBP stays the same over the period of the function execution and is to be used for local variables and arguments access. For the same purpose one can use ESP, but since it changes over time this approach is not too convenient.

The function epilogue frees the allocated space in the stack, returns the value in the EBP register back to its initial state and returns the control flow to the caller:

```
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
```

Function prologues and epilogues are usually detected in disassemblers for function delimitation.

### 1.6.1 Recursion

Epilogues and prologues can negatively affect the recursion performance.
More about recursion in this book: 3.4.3 on page 481.

### 1.7 Stack

The stack is one of the most fundamental data structures in computer science ${ }^{48}$. AKA ${ }^{49}$ LIFO ${ }^{50}$. Technically, it is just a block of memory in process memory along with the ESP or RSP register in x 86 or x64, or the SP register in ARM, as a pointer within that block.
The most frequently used stack access instructions are PUSH and POP (in both x86 and ARM Thumb-mode). PUSH subtracts from ESP/RSP/SP 4 in 32 -bit mode (or 8 in 64 -bit mode) and then writes the contents of its sole operand to the memory address pointed by ESP/RSP/SP.
POP is the reverse operation: retrieve the data from the memory location that SP points to, load it into the instruction operand (often a register) and then add 4 (or 8) to the stack pointer.

After stack allocation, the stack pointer points at the bottom of the stack. PUSH decreases the stack pointer and POP increases it. The bottom of the stack is actually at the beginning of the memory allocated for the stack block. It seems strange, but that's the way it is.
ARM supports both descending and ascending stacks.
For example the STMFD/LDMFD, STMED ${ }^{51} /$ LDMED $^{52}$ instructions are intended to deal with a descending stack (grows downwards, starting with a high address and progressing to a lower one). The STMFA ${ }^{53} /$ LDDMFA $^{54}$, STMEA ${ }^{55} /$ LDMEA $^{56}$ instructions are intended to deal with an ascending stack (grows upwards, starting from a low address and progressing to a higher one).

### 1.7.1 Why does the stack grow backwards?

Intuitively, we might think that the stack grows upwards, i.e. towards higher addresses, like any other data structure.

The reason that the stack grows backward is probably historical. When the computers were big and occupied a whole room, it was easy to divide memory into two parts, one for the heap and one for the stack. Of course, it was unknown how big the heap and the stack would be during program execution, so this solution was the simplest possible.

[^28]

In [D. M. Ritchie and K. Thompson, The UNIX Time Sharing System, (1974)] ${ }^{57}$ we can read:

The user-core part of an image is divided into three logical segments. The program text segment begins at location 0 in the virtual address space. During execution, this segment is write-protected and a single copy of it is shared among all processes executing the same program. At the first 8 K byte boundary above the program text segment in the virtual address space begins a nonshared, writable data segment, the size of which may be extended by a system call. Starting at the highest address in the virtual address space is a stack segment, which automatically grows downward as the hardware's stack pointer fluctuates.

This reminds us how some students write two lecture notes using only one notebook: notes for the first lecture are written as usual, and notes for the second one are written from the end of notebook, by flipping it. Notes may meet each other somewhere in between, in case of lack of free space.

### 1.7.2 What is the stack used for?

## Save the function's return address

## $x 86$

When calling another function with a CALL instruction, the address of the point exactly after the CALL instruction is saved to the stack and then an unconditional jump to the address in the CALL operand is executed.

The CALL instruction is equivalent to a PUSH address_after_call / JMP operand instruction pair.

RET fetches a value from the stack and jumps to it —that is equivalent to a POP tmp / JMP tmp instruction pair.
Overflowing the stack is straightforward. Just run eternal recursion:

```
void f()
{
};
```

MSVC 2008 reports the problem:

```
c:\tmp6>cl ss.cpp /Fass.asm
Microsoft (R) 32-bit C/C++ Optimizing Compiler Version 15.00.21022.08 for 80x86
Copyright (C) Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.
ss.cpp
c:\tmp6\ss.cpp(4) : warning C4717: 'f' : recursive on all control paths, function will cause \swarrow
     runtime stack overflow
```

...but generates the right code anyway:

```
?f@@YAXXZ PROC ; f
; File c:\tmp6\ss.cpp
; Line 2
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
; Line 3
    call ?f@@YAXXZ ; f
```

[^29]pop ebp
...Also if we turn on the compiler optimization (/0x option) the optimized code will not overflow the stack and will work correctly ${ }^{58}$ instead:

```
?f@@YAXXZ PROC ; f
; File c:\tmp6\ss.cpp
; Line 2
$LL3@f:
; Line 3
    jmp SHORT $LL3@f
?f@@YAXXZ ENDP ; f
```

GCC 4.4.1 generates similar code in both cases without, however, issuing any warning about the problem.

## ARM

ARM programs also use the stack for saving return addresses, but differently. As mentioned in "Hello, world!" ( 1.5.4 on page 19), the RA is saved to the LR (link register). If one needs, however, to call another function and use the LR register one more time, its value has to be saved. Usually it is saved in the function prologue.

Often, we see instructions like PUSH R4-R7, LR along with this instruction in epilogue POP R4-R7, PC—thus register values to be used in the function are saved in the stack, including LR.

Nevertheless, if a function never calls any other function, in RISC terminology it is called a leaf function ${ }^{59}$. As a consequence, leaf functions do not save the LR register (because they don't modify it). If such function is small and uses a small number of registers, it may not use the stack at all. Thus, it is possible to call leaf functions without using the stack, which can be faster than on older $x 86$ machines because external RAM is not used for the stack ${ }^{60}$. This can be also useful for situations when memory for the stack is not yet allocated or not available.

Some examples of leaf functions: 1.10.3 on page 103, 1.10.3 on page 103, 1.278 on page 315, 1.294 on page $333,1.22 .5$ on page $333,1.186$ on page $210,1.184$ on page $208,1.203$ on page 226 .

## Passing function arguments

The most popular way to pass parameters in x 86 is called "cdecl":

```
push arg3
push arg2
push arg1
call f
add esp, 12 ; 4*3=12
```

Callee functions get their arguments via the stack pointer.
Therefore, this is how the argument values are located in the stack before the execution of the f() function's very first instruction:

| ESP | return address |
| :--- | :--- |
| ESP+4 | argument\#1, marked in IDA as arg_0 |
| ESP+8 | argument\#2, marked in IDA as arg_4 |
| ESP+0xC | argument\#3, marked in IDA as arg_8 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |

[^30]For more information on other calling conventions see also section ( 6.1 on page 734).
By the way, the callee function does not have any information about how many arguments were passed. C functions with a variable number of arguments (like printf()) determine their number using format string specifiers (which begin with the \% symbol).
If we write something like:

```
printf("%d %d %d", 1234);
```

printf() will print 1234, and then two random numbers ${ }^{61}$, which were lying next to it in the stack.
That's why it is not very important how we declare the main() function: as main(), main(int argc, char *argv[]) or main(int argc, char *argv[], char *envp[]).
In fact, the CRT-code is calling main() roughly as:

```
push envp
push argv
push argc
call main
...
```

If you declare main() as main() without arguments, they are, nevertheless, still present in the stack, but are not used. If you declare main() as main(int argc, char *argv[]), you will be able to use first two arguments, and the third will remain "invisible" for your function. Even more, it is possible to declare main(int argc), and it will work.

## Alternative ways of passing arguments

It is worth noting that nothing obliges programmers to pass arguments through the stack. It is not a requirement. One could implement any other method without using the stack at all.

A somewhat popular way among assembly language newbies is to pass arguments via global variables, like:

Listing 1.37: Assembly code


But this method has obvious drawback: do_something() function cannot call itself recursively (or via another function), because it has to zap its own arguments. The same story with local variables: if you hold them in global variables, the function couldn't call itself. And this is also not thread-safe ${ }^{62}$. A method to store such information in stack makes this easier-it can hold as many function arguments and/or values, as much space it has.
[Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 1, 3rd ed., (1997), 189] mentions even weirder schemes particularly convenient on IBM System/360.
MS-DOS had a way of passing all function arguments via registers, for example, this is piece of code for ancient 16-bit MS-DOS prints "Hello, world!":

[^31]```
mov dx, msg ; address of message
mov ah, 9 ; 9 means "print string" function
int 21h ; DOS "syscall"
mov ah, 4ch ; "terminate program" function
int 21h ; DOS "syscall"
msg db 'Hello, World!\$'
```

This is quite similar to 6.1 .3 on page 735 method. And also it's very similar to calling syscalls in Linux ( 6.3 .1 on page 747) and Windows.

If a MS-DOS function is going to return a boolean value (i.e., single bit, usually indicating error state), CF flag was often used.

For example:

```
mov ah, 3ch ; create file
lea dx, filename
mov cl, 1
int 21h
jc error
mov file_handle, ax
error:
...
```

In case of error, CF flag is raised. Otherwise, handle of newly created file is returned via AX.
This method is still used by assembly language programmers. In Windows Research Kernel source code (which is quite similar to Windows 2003) we can find something like this (file base/ntos/ke/i386/cpu.asm):

```
    public Get386Stepping
Get386Stepping proc
    call MultiplyTest ; Perform multiplication test
    jnc short G3s00 ; if nc, muttest is ok
    mov ax, 0
    ret
G3s00 :
    call Check386B0 ; Check for B0 stepping
    jnc short G3s05 ; if nc, it's Bl/later
    mov ax, 100h ; It is B0/earlier stepping
    ret
G3s05:
    call Check386D1 ; Check for D1 stepping
    jc short G3s10 ; if c, it is NOT D1
    mov ax, 301h ; It is D1/later stepping
    ret
G3s10:
    mov ax, 101h ; assume it is B1 stepping
    ret
MultiplyTest proc
xor cx,cx ; 64K times is a nice round number
    push cx
    call Multiply ; does this chip's multiply work?
    jc cx short mltx ; if c, No, exit
    loop mlt00 ; if nc, YEs, loop to try again
mltx:
    clc
    ret
MultiplyTest endp
```


## Local variable storage

A function could allocate space in the stack for its local variables just by decreasing the stack pointer towards the stack bottom.

Hence, it's very fast, no matter how many local variables are defined. It is also not a requirement to store local variables in the stack. You could store local variables wherever you like, but traditionally this is how it's done.

## x86: alloca() function

It is worth noting the alloca() function ${ }^{63}$. This function works like malloc(), but allocates memory directly on the stack. The allocated memory chunk does not have to be freed via a free() function call, since the function epilogue ( 1.6 on page 29) returns ESP back to its initial state and the allocated memory is just dropped. It is worth noting how alloca() is implemented. In simple terms, this function just shifts ESP downwards toward the stack bottom by the number of bytes you need and sets ESP as a pointer to the allocated block.

Let's try:

```
#ifdef GNUC
#include <alloca.h> // GCC
#else
#include <malloc.h> // MSVC
#endif
#include <stdio.h>
void f()
{
    char *buf=(char*)alloca (600);
#ifdef __GNUC
    snprintf (buf, 600, "hi! %d, %d, %d\n", 1, 2, 3); // GCC
#else
    snprintf (buf, 600, "hi! %d, %d, %d\n", 1, 2, 3); // MSVC
#endif
    puts (buf);
};
```

_snprintf() function works just like printf(), but instead of dumping the result into stdout (e.g., to terminal or console), it writes it to the buf buffer. Function puts() copies the contents of buf to stdout. Of course, these two function calls might be replaced by one printf() call, but we have to illustrate small buffer usage.

## MSVC

Let's compile (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.38: MSVC 2010

```
...
mov eax, 600 ; 00000258H
call __alloca_probe_16
mov esi, esp
push 3
    push 2
    push 1
    push OFFSET $SG2672
    push 600 ; 00000258H
    push esi
    call __snprintf
```

[^32]| push | esi |
| :--- | :--- |
| call | puts |
| add | esp, 28 |

The sole alloca() argument is passed via EAX (instead of pushing it into the stack) ${ }^{64}$.

## GCC + Intel syntax

GCC 4.4.1 does the same without calling external functions:
Listing 1.39: GCC 4.7.3

```
.LC0:
.string "hi! %d, %d, %d\n"
f:
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ebx
    sub esp, 660
    lea ebx, [esp+39]
    and ebx, -16 ; align pointer by 16-bit border
    mov DWORD PTR [esp], ebx ; s
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+20], 3
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+16], 2
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+12], 1
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "hi! %d, %d, %d\n"
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], 600 ; maxlen
    call snprintf
    mov \overline{DWORD PTR [esp], ebx ; s}
    call puts
    mov ebx, DWORD PTR [ebp-4]
    leave
    ret
```


## GCC + AT\&T syntax

Let's see the same code, but in AT\&T syntax:
Listing 1.40: GCC 4.7.3

```
.LC0:
.string "hi! %d, %d, %d\n"
f:
    pushl %ebp
    movl %esp, %ebp
    pushl %ebx
    subl $660, %esp
    leal 39(%esp), %ebx
    andl $-16, %ebx
    movl %ebx, (%esp)
    movl $3, 20(%esp)
    movl $2, 16(%esp)
    movl $1, 12(%esp)
    movl $.LC0, 8(%esp)
    movl $600, 4(%esp)
    call _snprintf
    movl %ebx, (%esp)
    call puts
    movl -4(%ebp), %ebx
    leave
```

[^33]The code is the same as in the previous listing.
By the way, movl $\$ 3$, 20 (\%esp) corresponds to mov DWORD PTR [esp+20], 3 in Intel-syntax. In the AT\&T syntax, the register+offset format of addressing memory looks like offset (\%register).
(Windows) SEH
SEH ${ }^{67}$ records are also stored on the stack (if they are present). Read more about it: ( 6.5.3 on page 764).

## Buffer overflow protection

More about it here ( 1.20.2 on page 275).

## Automatic deallocation of data in stack

Perhaps the reason for storing local variables and SEH records in the stack is that they are freed automatically upon function exit, using just one instruction to correct the stack pointer (it is often ADD). Function arguments, as we could say, are also deallocated automatically at the end of function. In contrast, everything stored in the heap must be deallocated explicitly.

### 1.7.3 A typical stack layout

A typical stack layout in a 32-bit environment at the start of a function, before the first instruction execution looks like this:

| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| ESP-0xC | local variable\#2, marked in IDA as var_8 |
| ESP-8 | local variable\#1, marked in IDA as var_4 |
| ESP-4 | saved value ofEBP |
| ESP | Return Address |
| ESP+4 | argument\#1, marked in IDA as arg_0 $^{2}$ |
| ESP+8 | argument\#2, marked in IDA as arg_4 |
| ESP+0xC | argument\#3, marked in IDA as arg_8 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |

### 1.7.4 Noise in stack

When one says that something seems random, what one usually means in practice is that one cannot see any regularities in it.

Stephen Wolfram, A New Kind of Science.
Often in this book "noise" or "garbage" values in the stack or memory are mentioned. Where do they come from? These are what has been left there after other functions' executions. Short example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f1()
{
    int a=1, b=2, c=3;
};
void f2()
{
    int a, b, c;
    printf ("%d, %d, %d\n", a, b, c);
```

[^34]```
};
int main()
{
    f1();
    f2();
};
```

Compiling ...
Listing 1.41: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010

| \$SG27 | DB | '\%d, \%d, \%d', 0aH, 00H |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| c\$ = |  | ; size = 4 |
| b\$ = |  | ; size $=4$ |
| a\$ = |  | ; size = 4 |
| -f1 | PROC |  |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | sub | esp, 12 |
|  | mov | DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp], 1 |
|  | mov | DWORD PTR _b\$[ebp], 2 |
|  | mov | DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp], 3 |
|  | mov | esp, ebp |
|  | pop | ebp |
|  | ret | 0 |
| - 1 | ENDP |  |
| _c\$ $=-12$ |  | ; size $=4$ |
| -b\$ $=-8$ |  | ; size $=4$ |
| $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -a \$ \\ & -\mathrm{f} 2 \end{aligned}\right.$ | 4 | ; size = 4 |
|  | PROC |  |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | sub | esp, 12 |
|  | mov | eax, DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp] |
|  | push | eax |
|  | mov | ecx, DWORD PTR _b\$[ebp] |
|  | push | ecx |
|  | mov | edx, DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp] |
|  | push | edx |
|  | push | OFFSET \$SG2752 ; '\%d, \%d, |
|  | call | DWORD PTR __imp__printf |
|  | add | esp, 16 |
|  | mov | esp, ebp |
|  | pop | ebp |
|  | ret | 0 |
| _f2 | ENDP |  |
| _main | PROC |  |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | call | _f1 |
|  | call | _f2 |
|  | xor | eax, eax |
|  | pop | ebp |
|  | ret | 0 |
| main | ENDP |  |

The compiler will grumble a little bit...

```
c:\Polygon\c>cl st.c /Fast.asm /MD
Microsoft (R) 32-bit C/C++ Optimizing Compiler Version 16.00.40219.01 for 80x86
Copyright (C) Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.
st.c
c:\polygon\c\st.c(11) : warning C4700: uninitialized local variable 'c' used
c:\polygon\c\st.c(11) : warning C4700: uninitialized local variable 'b' used
c:\polygon\c\st.c(11) : warning C4700: uninitialized local variable 'a' used
```

```
Microsoft (R) Incremental Linker Version 10.00.40219.01
Copyright (C) Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.
/out:st.exe
st.obj
```

But when we run the compiled program
c: \Polygon\c>st
1, 2, 3

Oh, what a weird thing! We did not set any variables in f2(). These are "ghosts" values, which are still in the stack.

Let's load the example into OllyDbg:


Figure 1.5: OllyDbg: f1()

When f 1() assigns the variables $a, b$ and $c$, their values are stored at the address $0 \times 1$ FF860 and so on.


Figure 1.6: OllyDbg: f2()
$\ldots a, b$ and $c$ of f 2 () are located at the same addresses! No one has overwritten the values yet, so at that point they are still untouched. So, for this weird situation to occur, several functions have to be called one after another and SP has to be the same at each function entry (i.e., they have the same number of arguments). Then the local variables will be located at the same positions in the stack. Summarizing, all values in the stack (and memory cells in general) have values left there from previous function executions. They are not random in the strict sense, but rather have unpredictable values. Is there another option? It would probably be possible to clear portions of the stack before each function execution, but that's too much extra (and unnecessary) work.

## MSVC 2013

The example was compiled by MSVC 2010. But the reader of this book made attempt to compile this example in MSVC 2013, ran it, and got all 3 numbers reversed:
c: \Polygon\c>st
3, 2, 1
Why? I also compiled this example in MSVC 2013 and saw this:
Listing 1.42: MSVC 2013

| a\$ $=-12$ | size = 4 |
| :---: | :---: |
| b \$ $=-8$ | ; size = 4 |
| c\$ $=-4$ | ; size = 4 |
| _f2 PROC |  |
|  |  |
| f2 ENDP |  |
| c\$ $=-12$ | ; size = 4 |
| b \$ $=-8$ | ; size = 4 |
| a\$ = -4 | ; size = 4 |
| f1 PROC |  |

Unlike MSVC 2010, MSVC 2013 allocated a/b/c variables in function f2() in reverse order.And this is completely correct, because C/C++ standards has no rule, in which order local variables must be allocated in the local stack, if at all. The reason of difference is because MSVC 2010 has one way to do it, and MSVC 2013 has supposedly something changed inside of compiler guts, so it behaves slightly different.

### 1.7.5 Exercises

- http://challenges.re/51
- http://challenges.re/52


## 1.8 printf() with several arguments

Now let's extend the Hello, world! ( 1.5 on page 8) example, replacing printf() in the main() function body with this:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d", 1, 2, 3);
    return 0;
};
```


### 1.8.1 x86

## x86: 3 arguments

## MSVC

When we compile it with MSVC 2010 Express we get:

```
$SG3830 DB 'a=%d; b=%d; c=%d', 00H
...
    push 3
    push 2
    push 1
    push OFFSET $SG3830
    call _printf
    add esp, 16
        ; 00000010H
```

Almost the same, but now we can see the printf() arguments are pushed onto the stack in reverse order. The first argument is pushed last.

By the way, variables of int type in 32-bit environment have 32-bit width, that is 4 bytes.
So, we have 4 arguments here. $4 * 4=16$-they occupy exactly 16 bytes in the stack: a 32 -bit pointer to a string and 3 numbers of type int.
When the stack pointer (ESP register) has changed back by the
ADD ESP, X instruction after a function call, often, the number of function arguments could be deduced by simply dividing X by 4 .
Of course, this is specific to the cdecl calling convention, and only for 32-bit environment.
See also the calling conventions section ( 6.1 on page 734 ).

### 1.8. PRINTF() WITH SEVERAL ARGUMENTS

In certain cases where several functions return right after one another, the compiler could merge multiple "ADD ESP, X " instructions into one, after the last call:

```
push al
push a2
call ...
. .
push al
call ...
...
push al
push a2
push a3
call ..
add esp, 24
```

Here is a real-world example:
Listing 1.43: x86

| . text:100113E7 | push | 3 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:100113E9 | call | sub_100018B0 ; takes one argument (3) |  |
| .text:100113EE | call | sub_100019D0 ; takes no arguments at all |  |
| .text:100113F3 | call | sub_10006A90 ; takes no arguments at all |  |
| .text:100113F8 | push | 1 |  |
| .text:100113FA | call | sub_100018B0 | ; takes one argument (1) |
| .text:100113FF | add | esp, 8 | ; drops two arguments from stack at once |

## MSVC and OllyDbg

Now let's try to load this example in OllyDbg. It is one of the most popular user-land win32 debuggers. We can compile our example in MSVC 2012 with /MD option, which means to link with MSVCR*. DLL, so we can see the imported functions clearly in the debugger.

Then load the executable in OllyDbg. The very first breakpoint is in ntdll.dll, press F9 (run). The second breakpoint is in CRT-code. Now we have to find the main() function.

Find this code by scrolling the code to the very top (MSVC allocates the main() function at the very beginning of the code section):


Figure 1.7: OllyDbg: the very start of the main() function

Click on the PUSH EBP instruction, press F2 (set breakpoint) and press F9 (run). We have to perform these actions in order to skip CRT-code, because we aren't really interested in it yet.


Figure 1.8: OllyDbg: before printf() execution

Now the PC points to the CALL printf instruction. OllyDbg, like other debuggers, highlights the value of the registers which were changed. So each time you press F8, EIP changes and its value is displayed in red. ESP changes as well, because the arguments values are pushed into the stack.

Where are the values in the stack? Take a look at the right bottom debugger window:


Figure 1.9: OllyDbg: stack after the argument values have been pushed (The red rectangular border was added by the author in a graphics editor)

We can see 3 columns there: address in the stack, value in the stack and some additional OllyDbg comments. OllyDbg understands printf()-like strings, so it reports the string here and the 3 values attached to it.

It is possible to right-click on the format string, click on "Follow in dump", and the format string will appear in the debugger left-bottom window, which always displays some part of the memory. These memory values can be edited. It is possible to change the format string, in which case the result of our example would be different. It is not very useful in this particular case, but it could be good as an exercise so you start building a feel of how everything works here.

Press F8 (step over).
We see the following output in the console:

```
a=1; b=2; c=3
```

Let's see how the registers and stack state have changed:


Figure 1.10: OllyDbg after printf() execution

Register EAX now contains $0 \times D$ (13). That is correct, since printf() returns the number of characters printed. The value of EIP has changed: indeed, now it contains the address of the instruction coming after CALL printf. ECX and EDX values have changed as well. Apparently, the printf() function's hidden machinery used them for its own needs.

A very important fact is that neither the ESP value, nor the stack state have been changed! We clearly see that the format string and corresponding 3 values are still there. This is indeed the cdecl calling convention behavior: callee does not return ESP back to its previous value. The caller is responsible to do so.


Figure 1.11: OllyDbg: after ADD ESP, 10 instruction execution

ESP has changed, but the values are still in the stack! Yes, of course; no one needs to set these values to zeros or something like that. Everything above the stack pointer (SP) is noise or garbage and has no meaning at all. It would be time consuming to clear the unused stack entries anyway, and no one really needs to.

## GCC

Now let's compile the same program in Linux using GCC 4.4.1 and take a look at what we have got in IDA:

| main | proc n | ar |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| var_10 | = dwor | d ptr -10h |
| var_C | = dwor | d ptr -0Ch |
| var_8 | = dwor | d ptr -8 |
| var_4 | = dwor | d ptr -4 |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | and | esp, 0FFFFFFF0h |
|  | sub | esp, 10h |
|  | mov | eax, offset aADBDCD ; |
|  | mov | [esp+10h+var_4], 3 |
|  | mov | [esp+10h+var_8], 2 |
|  | mov | [esp+10h+var_c], 1 |
|  | mov | [esp+10h+var_10], eax |
|  | call | _printf |
|  | mov | eax, 0 |
|  | leave |  |
|  | retn |  |
| main | endp |  |

Its noticeable that the difference between the MSVC code and the GCC code is only in the way the arguments are stored on the stack. Here the GCC is working directly with the stack without the use of PUSH/POP.

Let's try this example also in GDB ${ }^{68}$ in Linux.
-g option instructs the compiler to include debug information in the executable file.

```
$ gcc 1.c -g -o 1
```

```
$ gdb 1
```

GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/1...done.

Listing 1.44: let's set breakpoint on printf()

```
(gdb) b printf
Breakpoint 1 at 0x80482f0
```

Run. We don't have the printf() function source code here, so GDB can't show it, but may do so.

```
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/dennis/polygon/1
Breakpoint 1, __printf (format=0x80484f0 "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d") at printf.c:29
29 printf.c: No such file or directory.
```

Print 10 stack elements. The most left column contains addresses on the stack.

| (gdb) x/10w $\$$ Sp |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0 x b f f f f 11 c:$ | $0 x 0804844 a$ | $0 x 080484 f 0$ | $0 x 00000001$ | $0 x 00000002$ |
| $0 x b f f f f 12 c:$ | $0 x 00000003$ | $0 x 08048460$ | $0 x 00000000$ | $0 x 00000000$ |
| $0 x b f f f f 13 c:$ | $0 x b 7 e 29905$ | $0 x 00000001$ |  |  |

The very first element is the RA (0x0804844a). We can verify this by disassembling the memory at this address:

```
(gdb) x/5i 0x0804844a
    0x804844a <main+45>: mov $0x0,%eax
    0x804844f <main+50>: leave
    0x8048450 <main+51>: ret
    0x8048451: xchg %ax,%ax
    0x8048453: xchg %ax,%ax
```

The two XCHG instructions are idle instructions, analogous to NOPs.
The second element ( $0 \times 080484 \mathrm{f} 0$ ) is the format string address:

```
(gdb) x/s 0x080484f0
0x80484f0: "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d"
```

Next 3 elements ( $1,2,3$ ) are the printf() arguments. The rest of the elements could be just "garbage" on the stack, but could also be values from other functions, their local variables, etc. We can ignore them for now.

Run "finish". The command instructs GDB to "execute all instructions until the end of the function". In this case: execute till the end of printf().

```
(gdb) finish
Run till exit from #0 __printf (format=0x80484f0 "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d") at printf.c:29
main () at 1.c:6
6 return 0;
Value returned is $2 = 13
```

GDB shows what printf() returned in EAX (13). This is the number of characters printed out, just like in the OllyDbg example.
We also see "return 0 ;" and the information that this expression is in the $1 . c$ file at the line 6 . Indeed, the 1.c file is located in the current directory, and GDB finds the string there. How does GDB know which C-code line is being currently executed? This is due to the fact that the compiler, while generating

[^35]debugging information, also saves a table of relations between source code line numbers and instruction addresses. GDB is a source-level debugger, after all.

Let's examine the registers. 13 in EAX:

| (gdb) info | registers |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| eax | $0 \times d$ | 13 |  |
| ecx | $0 \times 0$ | 0 |  |
| edx | $0 x 0$ | 0 |  |
| ebx | $0 x b 7 f c 0000$ | -1208221696 |  |
| esp | $0 \times b f f f f 120$ | $0 \times b f f f 120$ |  |
| ebp | $0 x b f f f f 138$ | $0 x b f f f f 138$ |  |
| esi | $0 x 0$ | 0 |  |
| edi | $0 x 0$ | 0 |  |
| eip | $0 x 804844 a$ | $0 x 804844 a$ <main+45> |  |
| $\ldots$ |  |  |  |

Let's disassemble the current instructions. The arrow points to the instruction to be executed next.

```
(gdb) disas
Dump of assembler code for function main:
    0x0804841d <+0>: push %ebp
    0x0804841e <+1>: mov %esp,%ebp
    0x08048420 <+3>: and $0xfffffff0,%esp
    0x08048423 <+6>: sub $0x10,%esp
    0x08048426 <+9>: movl $0x3,0xc(%esp)
    0x0804842e <+17>: movl $0x2,0x8(%esp)
    0x08048436 <+25>: movl $0x1,0x4(%esp)
    0x0804843e <+33>: movl $0x80484f0,(%esp)
    0x08048445 <+40>: call 0x80482f0 <printf@plt>
=> 0x0804844a <+45>: mov $0x0,%eax
    0x0804844f <+50>: leave
    0x08048450 <+51>: ret
End of assembler dump.
```

GDB uses AT\&T syntax by default. But it is possible to switch to Intel syntax:

```
(gdb) set disassembly-flavor intel
(gdb) disas
Dump of assembler code for function main:
    0x0804841d <+0>: push ebp
    0x0804841e <+1>: mov ebp,esp
    0x08048420 <+3>: and esp,0xfffffff0
    0x08048423 <+6>: sub esp,0x10
    0x08048426 <+9>: mov DWORD PTR [esp+0xc],0x3
    0x0804842e <+17>: mov DWORD PTR [esp+0x8],0x2
    0x08048436 <+25>: mov DWORD PTR [esp+0x4],0x1
    0x0804843e <+33>: mov DWORD PTR [esp],0x80484f0
    0x08048445 <+40>: call 0x80482f0 <printf@plt>
=> 0x0804844a <+45>: mov eax,0x0
    0x0804844f <+50>: leave
    0x08048450 <+51>: ret
End of assembler dump.
```

Execute next instruction. GDB shows ending bracket, meaning, it ends the block.

```
(gdb) step
```

7 \};

Let's examine the registers after the MOV EAX, 0 instruction execution. Indeed EAX is zero at that point.

```
(gdb) info registers
eax 0x0 0
ecx 0x0 0
edx 0x0 0
ebx 0xb7fc00000 -1208221696
esp 0xbffff120 0xbffff120
ebp 0xbffff138 0xbffff138
esi 0x0 0
edi 0x0 0

\section*{x64: 8 arguments}

To see how other arguments are passed via the stack, let's change our example again by increasing the number of arguments to 9 (printf() format string +8 int variables):
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
printf("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n", 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8);
return 0;
};

```

\section*{MSVC}

As it was mentioned earlier, the first 4 arguments has to be passed through the RCX, RDX, R8, R9 registers in Win64, while all the rest-via the stack. That is exactly what we see here. However, the MOV instruction, instead of PUSH, is used for preparing the stack, so the values are stored to the stack in a straightforward manner.

Listing 1.45: MSVC 2012 x64
```

$SG2923 DB 'a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d', 0aH, 00H
main PROC
    sub rsp, 88
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+64], 8
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+56], 7
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+48], 6
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], 5
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], 4
    mov r9d, 3
    mov r8d, 2
    mov edx, 1
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2923
call printf
; return 0
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 88
ret 0
main ENDP
TEXT ENDS
END

```

The observant reader may ask why are 8 bytes allocated for int values, when 4 is enough? Yes, one has to recall: 8 bytes are allocated for any data type shorter than 64 bits. This is established for the convenience's sake: it makes it easy to calculate the address of arbitrary argument. Besides, they are all located at aligned memory addresses. It is the same in the 32-bit environments: 4 bytes are reserved for all data types.

\section*{GCC}

The picture is similar for x86-64 *NIX OS-es, except that the first 6 arguments are passed through the RDI, RSI, RDX, RCX, R8, R9 registers. All the rest-via the stack. GCC generates the code storing the string pointer into EDI instead of RDI—we noted that previously: 1.5.2 on page 15.

We also noted earlier that the EAX register has been cleared before a printf() call: 1.5.2 on page 15.
. LC0:
            .string " \(a=\% d ; b=\% d ; c=\% d ; d=\% d ; e=\% d ; f=\% d ; g=\% d ; h=\% d \backslash n "\)
main:
```

sub rsp, 40
mov r9d, 5
mov r8d, 4
mov ecx, 3
mov edx, 2
mov esi, 1
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
xor eax, eax ; number of vector registers passed
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+16], 8
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], 7
mov DWORD PTR [rsp], 6
call printf
; return 0
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 40
ret

```

\section*{GCC + GDB}

Let's try this example in GDB.
```

\$ gcc -g 2.c -o 2

```
```

\$ gdb 2
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/2...done.

```

Listing 1.47: let's set the breakpoint to printf(), and run
```

(gdb) b printf
Breakpoint 1 at 0x400410
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/dennis/polygon/2
Breakpoint 1, __printf (format=0x400628 "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n") at ح
brintf.c:29
29
printf.c: No such file or directory.

```

Registers RSI/RDX/RCX/R8/R9 have the expected values. RIP has the address of the very first instruction of the printf() function.
```

(gdb) info registers
rax 0x0 0
rbx 0x0 0
rcx 0x3 3
rdx 0x2 2
rsi 0x1 1
rdi 0x400628 4195880
rbp 0x7fffffffdf60 0x7fffffffdf60
rsp 0x7fffffffdf38 0x7fffffffdf38
r8 0x4 4
r9 0x5 5
r10 0x7fffffffdce0 140737488346336
r11 0x7ffff7a65f60 140737348263776
r12 0x400440 4195392
r13 0x7fffffffe040 140737488347200
r14 0x0 0
r15 0x0 0

```

Listing 1.48: let's inspect the format string
```

(gdb) x/s \$rdi
0x400628: "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n"

```

Let's dump the stack with the \(\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{g}\) command this time- \(g\) stands for giant words, i.e., 64-bit words.
```

(gdb) x/10g \$rsp
0x7fffffffdf38: 0x0000000000400576 0x0000000000000006
0x7fffffffdf48: 0x0000000000000007 0x00007fff00000008
0x7fffffffdf58: 0x0000000000000000 0x0000000000000000
0x7fffffffdf68: 0x00007ffff7a33de5 0x0000000000000000
0x7fffffffdf78: 0x00007fffffffe048 0x0000000100000000

```

The very first stack element, just like in the previous case, is the RA. 3 values are also passed through the stack: 6, 7, 8 . We also see that 8 is passed with the high 32 -bits not cleared: \(0 x 00007 f f f 00000008\). That's OK, because the values are of int type, which is 32-bit. So, the high register or stack element part may contain "random garbage".

If you take a look at where the control will return after the printf() execution, GDB will show the entire main() function:
```

(gdb) set disassembly-flavor intel
(gdb) disas 0x0000000000400576
Dump of assembler code for function main:
0x000000000040052d <+0>: push rbp
0x000000000040052e <+1>: mov rbp,rsp
0x0000000000400531 <+4>: sub rsp,0x20
0x0000000000400535 <+8>: mov DWORD PTR [rsp+0x10],0x8
0x000000000040053d <+16>: mov DWORD PTR [rsp+0x8],0x7
0x0000000000400545 <+24>: mov DWORD PTR [rsp],0x6
0x000000000040054c <+31>: mov r9d,0x5
0x0000000000400552 <+37>: mov r8d,0x4
0x0000000000400558 <+43>: mov ecx,0x3
0x000000000040055d <+48>: mov edx,0x2
0x0000000000400562 <+53>: mov esi,0x1
0x0000000000400567 <+58>: mov edi,0x400628
0x000000000040056c <+63>: mov eax,0x0
0x0000000000400571 <+68>: call 0x400410 [printf@plt](mailto:printf@plt)
0x0000000000400576 <+73>: mov eax,0x0
0x0000000000040057b <+78>: leave
0x000000000040057c <+79>: ret
End of assembler dump.

```

Let's finish executing printf(), execute the instruction zeroing EAX, and note that the EAX register has a value of exactly zero. RIP now points to the LEAVE instruction, i.e., the penultimate one in the main() function.
```

(gdb) finish
Run till exit from \#0 _ printf (format=0x400628 "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%人
b\n") at printf.c:29
a=1; b=2; c=3; d=4; e=5; f=6; g=7; h=8
main () at 2.c:6
6 return 0;
Value returned is \$1 = 39
(gdb) next
7 };
(gdb) info registers
rax 0x0 0
rbx 0x0 0
rcx 0x26 38
rdx 0x7ffff7dd59f0 140737351866864
rsi 0x7fffffd9 2147483609
rdi 0x0 0
rbp 0x7fffffffdf60 0x7fffffffdf60
rsp 0x7ffffffffdf40 0x7fffffffdf40
r8 0x7ffff7dd26a0 140737351853728

```
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline r9 & \(0 x 7 f f f f 7 a 60134\) & 140737348239668 \\
r10 & 0x7fffffffd5b0 & 140737488344496 \\
r11 & \(0 x 7 f f f f 7 a 95900\) & 140737348458752 \\
r12 & \(0 x 4004404195392\) & \\
r13 & \(0 x 7 f f f f f f f e 040\) & 140737488347200 \\
r14 & \(0 x 0\) & 0 \\
r15 & \(0 x 0\) & 0 \\
rip & \(0 x 40057 b\) & \(0 x 40057 b\) \\
\(\cdots\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{1.8.2 ARM}

\section*{ARM: 3 arguments}

ARM's traditional scheme for passing arguments (calling convention) behaves as follows: the first 4 arguments are passed through the R0-R3 registers; the remaining arguments via the stack. This resembles the arguments passing scheme in fastcall ( 6.1 .3 on page 735 ) or win64 ( 6.1 .5 on page 737 ).

\section*{32-bit ARM}

\section*{Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.49: Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:00000000 main & & & \\
\hline .text:00000000 1040 2D E9 & STMFD & SP!, \{R4,LR\} & \\
\hline .text:00000004 0330 A0 E3 & MOV & R3, \#3 & \\
\hline .text:00000008 0220 A0 E3 & MOV & R2, \#2 & \\
\hline .text:0000000C 0110 A0 E3 & MOV & R1, \#1 & \\
\hline .text:00000010 08008 F E2 & ADR & R0, aADBDCD & ; "a=\%d; b=\%d; c=\%d" \\
\hline .text:00000014 060000 EB & BL & 2printf & \\
\hline .text:00000018 0000 A0 E3 & MOV & R0, \#0 & ; return 0 \\
\hline .text:0000001C 1080 BD E8 & LDMFD & SP!, \{R4,PC\} & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So, the first 4 arguments are passed via the R0-R3 registers in this order: a pointer to the printf() format string in R0, then 1 in R1, 2 in R2 and 3 in R3. The instruction at \(0 \times 18\) writes 0 to R0-this is return 0 C -statement. There is nothing unusual so far.

Optimizing Keil 6/2013 generates the same code.

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Listing 1.50: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:00000000 main & & & \\
\hline .text:00000000 10 B5 & PUSH & \{R4, LR \} & \\
\hline .text:00000002 0323 & MOVS & R3, \#3 & \\
\hline .text:00000004 0222 & MOVS & R2, \#2 & \\
\hline .text:00000006 0121 & MOVS & R1, \#1 & \\
\hline .text:00000008 02 A0 & ADR & R0, aADBDCD & "a=\%d; b=\%d; c=\%d" \\
\hline .text:0000000A 00 F0 0D F8 & BL & 2printf & \\
\hline .text:0000000E 0020 & MOVS & R0, \#0 & \\
\hline .text:00000010 10 BD & POP & \{R4, PC \} & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There is no significant difference from the non-optimized code for ARM mode.

Let's rework example slightly by removing return 0:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
printf("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d", 1, 2, 3);
};

```

The result is somewhat unusual:
Listing 1.51: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{6}{|l|}{.text:00000014 main} \\
\hline .text:00000014 & 0330 & A0 E3 & MOV & R3, \#3 & \\
\hline .text:00000018 & 0220 & A0 E3 & MOV & R2, \#2 & \\
\hline .text:0000001C & 0110 & A0 E3 & MOV & R1, \#1 & \\
\hline .text:00000020 & 1E 0E & 8F E2 & ADR & R0, aADBDCD & ; "a=\%d; b=\%d; c=\%d\n" \\
\hline .text:00000024 & CB 18 & 00 EA & B & 2printf & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This is the optimized ( -03 ) version for ARM mode and this time we see B as the last instruction instead of the familiar BL. Another difference between this optimized version and the previous one (compiled without optimization) is the lack of function prologue and epilogue (instructions preserving the R0 and LR registers values). The B instruction just jumps to another address, without any manipulation of the LR register, similar to JMP in x86. Why does it work? Because this code is, in fact, effectively equivalent to the previous. There are two main reasons: 1) neither the stack nor SP (the stack pointer) is modified; 2) the call to printf() is the last instruction, so there is nothing going on afterwards. On completion, the printf() function simply returns the control to the address stored in LR. Since the LR currently stores the address of the point from where our function has been called then the control from printf() will be returned to that point. Therefore we do not have to save LR because we do not have necessity to modify LR. And we do not have necessity to modify LR because there are no other function calls except printf(). Furthermore, after this call we do not to do anything else! That is the reason such optimization is possible.

This optimization is often used in functions where the last statement is a call to another function. A similar example is presented here: 1.15.1 on page 154.

\section*{ARM64}

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

Listing 1.52: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

.LC1:
.string "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d"
f2:
; save FP and LR in stack frame:
stp x29, x30, [sp, -16]!
; set stack frame (FP=SP):
add x29, sp, 0
adrp x0, .LC1
add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC1
mov w1, 1
mov w2, 2
mov w3,3
bl printf
mov w0, 0
; restore FP and LR
ldp x29, x30, [sp], 16
ret

```

The first instruction STP (Store Pair) saves FP (X29) and LR (X30) in the stack. The second ADD X29, SP, 0 instruction forms the stack frame. It is just writing the value of SP into X29.

Next, we see the familiar ADRP/ADD instruction pair, which forms a pointer to the string. lo12 meaning low 12 bits, i.e., linker will write low 12 bits of LC1 address into the opcode of ADD instruction. \%d in printf() string format is a 32-bit int, so the 1, 2 and 3 are loaded into 32-bit register parts.

Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9 generates the same code.

\section*{ARM: 8 arguments}

Let's use again the example with 9 arguments from the previous section: 1.8.1 on page 50 .
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
printf("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n", 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8);
return 0;
};

```

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013: ARM mode}


This code can be divided into several parts:
- Function prologue:

The very first STR LR, [SP,\#var_4]! instruction saves LR on the stack, because we are going to use this register for the printf() call. Exclamation mark at the end indicates pre-index.

This implies that SP is to be decreased by 4 first, and then LR will be saved at the address stored in SP. This is similar to PUSH in \(x 86\). Read more about it at: 1.32 .2 on page 439.

The second SUB SP, SP, \#0x14 instruction decreases SP (the stack pointer) in order to allocate \(0 \times 14\) (20) bytes on the stack. Indeed, we have to pass 532 -bit values via the stack to the printf() function, and each one occupies 4 bytes, which is exactly \(5 * 4=20\). The other 432 -bit values are to be passed through registers.
- Passing 5, 6, 7 and 8 via the stack: they are stored in the R0, R1, R2 and R3 registers respectively. Then, the ADD R12, SP, \#0x18+var_14 instruction writes the stack address where these 4 variables are to be stored, into the R12 register. var_14 is an assembly macro, equal to \(-0 x 14\), created by IDA to conveniently display the code accessing the stack. The var_? macros generated by IDA reflect local variables in the stack.

So, SP+4 is to be stored into the R12 register.
The next STMIA R12, R0-R3 instruction writes registers R0-R3 contents to the memory pointed by R12. STMIA abbreviates Store Multiple Increment After. "Increment After" implies that R12 is to be increased by 4 after each register value is written.
- Passing 4 via the stack: 4 is stored in R0 and then this value, with the help of the STR R0, [SP,\#0x18+var_18] instruction is saved on the stack. var_18 is \(-0 \times 18\), so the offset is to be 0 , thus the value from the R0 register (4) is to be written to the address written in SP.
- Passing 1, 2 and 3 via registers: The values of the first 3 numbers ( \(a, b, c\) ) ( \(1,2,3\) respectively) are passed through the R1, R2 and R3 registers right before the printf( ) call, and the other 5 values are passed via the stack:
- printf() call.
- Function epilogue:

The ADD SP, SP, \#0x14 instruction restores the SP pointer back to its former value, thus annulling everything what has been stored on the stack. Of course, what has been stored on the stack will stay there, but it will all be rewritten during the execution of subsequent functions.

The LDR PC, [SP+4+var_4],\#4 instruction loads the saved LR value from the stack into the PC register, thus causing the function to exit. There is no exclamation mark-indeed, PC is loaded first from the address stored in SP \(\left(4+v a r \_4=4+(-4)=0\right.\), so this instruction is analogous to LDR PC, [SP] ,\#4), and then SP is increased by 4. This is referred as post-index \({ }^{69}\). Why does IDA display the instruction like that? Because it wants to illustrate the stack layout and the fact that var_4 is allocated for saving the LR value in the local stack. This instruction is somewhat similar to POP \(\overline{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{C}\) in \(\times 86^{70}\).

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013: Thumb mode}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:0000001C & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{printf_main2} \\
\hline .text:0000001C & & \\
\hline .text:0000001C & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{var_18 = -0x18} \\
\hline .text:0000001C & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{var_14 = - \(0 \times 14\)} \\
\hline .text:0000001C & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{var_8 = -8} \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.text:0000001C} \\
\hline .text:0000001C 00 B5 & PUSH & \{LR\} \\
\hline .text:0000001E 0823 & MOVS & R3, \#8 \\
\hline .text:00000020 85 B0 & SUB & SP, SP, \#0x14 \\
\hline .text:00000022 0493 & STR & R3, [SP,\#0x18+var_8] \\
\hline .text:00000024 0722 & MOVS & R2, \#7 \\
\hline .text:00000026 0621 & MOVS & R1, \#6 \\
\hline .text:00000028 0520 & MOVS & R0, \#5 \\
\hline .text:0000002A 01 AB & ADD & R3, SP, \#0x18+var_14 \\
\hline .text:0000002C 07 C3 & STMIA & R3!, \{R0-R2\} \\
\hline .text:0000002E 0420 & MOVS & R0, \#4 \\
\hline .text:00000030 0090 & STR & R0, [SP,\#0x18+var_18] \\
\hline .text:00000032 0323 & MOVS & R3, \#3 \\
\hline .text:00000034 0222 & MOVS & R2, \#2 \\
\hline .text:00000036 0121 & MOVS & R1, \#1 \\
\hline .text:00000038 A0 A0 ᄂ \(\mathrm{g}=\%\) ". . & ADR & R0, aADBDCDDDEDFDGD ; "a=\%d; \\
\hline .text:0000003A 06 F0 D9 F8 & BL & __2printf \\
\hline .text:0000003E & & \\
\hline .text:0000003E & loc_3E & ; CODE XREF: example13_f+16 \\
\hline .text:0000003E 05 B0 & ADD & SP, SP, \#0x14 \\
\hline .text:00000040 00 BD & POP & \{PC\} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The output is almost like in the previous example. However, this is Thumb code and the values are packed into stack differently: 8 goes first, then \(5,6,7\), and 4 goes third.

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM): ARM mode}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{69}\) Read more about it: 1.32 .2 on page 439.
\({ }^{70}\) It is impossible to set IP/EIP/RIP value using P0P in x86, but anyway, you got the analogy right.
}
```

text:0000290C
_printf_main2
text:0000290C
text:0000290C
var_1C = -0x1C
var_C = -0xC
text:0000290C
__text:0000290C
__text:0000290C 80 40 2D E9
text:00002910 0D 70 A0 E1
text:00002914 14 D0 4D E2
text:00002918 70 05 01 E3
text:0000291C 07 C0 A0 E3
text:00002920 00 00 40 E3
text:00002924 04 20 A0 E3
text:00002928 00 00 8F E0
text:0000292C 06 30 A0 E3
text:00002930 05 10 A0 E3
_text:00002934 00 20 8D E5
text:00002938 0A 10 8D E9
text:0000293C 08 90 A0 E3
text:00002940 01 10 A0 E3
text:00002944 02 20 A0 E3
text:00002948 03 30 A0 E3
_text:0000294C 10 90 8D E5
text:00002950 A4 05 00 EB
text:00002954 07 D0 A0 E1
text:00002958 80 80 BD E8 LDMFD SP!, {R7,PC}

```

Almost the same as what we have already seen, with the exception of STMFA (Store Multiple Full Ascending) instruction, which is a synonym of STMIB (Store Multiple Increment Before) instruction. This instruction increases the value in the SP register and only then writes the next register value into the memory, rather than performing those two actions in the opposite order.

Another thing that catches the eye is that the instructions are arranged seemingly random. For example, the value in the R0 register is manipulated in three places, at addresses \(0 \times 2918,0 \times 2920\) and \(0 \times 2928\), when it would be possible to do it in one point.
However, the optimizing compiler may have its own reasons on how to order the instructions so to achieve higher efficiency during the execution.
Usually, the processor attempts to simultaneously execute instructions located side-by-side.
For example, instructions like MOVT R0, \#0 and ADD R0, PC, R0 cannot be executed simultaneously since they both modify the R0 register. On the other hand, MOVT R0, \#0 and MOV R2, \#4 instructions can be executed simultaneously since the effects of their execution are not conflicting with each other. Presumably, the compiler tries to generate code in such a manner (wherever it is possible).

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM): Thumb-2 mode}
```

text:00002BA0
text:00002BA0
text:00002BA0
__text:00002BA0
_text:00002BA0
text:00002BA0
__text:00002BA0 80 B5
text:00002BA2 6F 46
text:00002BA4 85 B0
__text:00002BA6 41 F2 D8 20
__text:00002BAA 4F F0 07 0C
text:00002BAE C0 F2 00 00
__text:00002BB2 04 22
__text:00002BB4 78 44
_text:00002BB6 06 23
__text:00002BB8 05 21
text:00002BBA 0D F1 04 0E
text:00002BBE 00 92
__text:00002BC0 4F F0 08 09
_text:00002BC4 8E E8 0A 10
text:00002BC8 01 21

```
```

_printf_main2
var_1C = -0x1C
var_18 = -0x18
var_C = -0xC
PUSH {R7,LR}
MOV R7, SP
SUB SP, SP, \#0x14
MOVW R0, \#0x12D8
MOV.W R12, \#7
MOVT.W R0, \#0
MOVS R2, \#4
ADD R0, PC ; char *
MOVS R3, \#6
MOVS R1, \#5
ADD.W LR, SP, \#0x1C+var_18
STR R2, [SP,\#0x1C+var_1C]
MOV.W R9, \#8
STMIA.W LR, {R1,R3,R12}
MOVS R1, \#1

```
```

text:00002BCA 02 22 MOVS R2, \#2
text:00002BCC 03 23 MOVS R3, \#3
__text:00002BCE CD F8 10 90 STR.W R9, [SP,\#0x1C+var_C]
text:00002BD2 01 F0 0A EA BLX printf
text:00002BD6 05 B0 ADD SP, SP, \#0x14
text:00002BD8 80 BD POP {R7,PC}

```

The output is almost the same as in the previous example, with the exception that Thumb-instructions are used instead.

\section*{ARM64}

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

Listing 1.53: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

.LC2:
.string "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n"
f3:
; grab more space in stack:
sub sp, sp, \#32
; save FP and LR in stack frame:
stp x29, x30, [sp,16]
; set stack frame (FP=SP):
add x29, sp, 16
adrp x0, .LC2 ; "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n"
add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC2
mov wl, 8 ; 9th argument
str wl, [sp] ; store 9th argument in the stack
mov w1, 1
mov w2, 2
mov w3, 3
mov w4, 4
mov w5, 5
mov w6, 6
mov w7, 7
bl printf
sub sp, x29, \#16
; restore FP and LR
ldp x29, x30, [sp,16]
add sp, sp, 32
ret

```

The first 8 arguments are passed in X- or W-registers: [Procedure Call Standard for the ARM 64-bit Architecture (AArch64), (2013)] \({ }^{71}\). A string pointer requires a 64-bit register, so it's passed in X0. All other values have a int 32-bit type, so they are stored in the 32-bit part of the registers (W-). The 9th argument (8) is passed via the stack. Indeed: it's not possible to pass large number of arguments through registers, because the number of registers is limited.

Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9 generates the same code.

\subsection*{1.8.3 MIPS}

\section*{3 arguments}

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.4.5}

The main difference with the "Hello, world!" example is that in this case printf() is called instead of puts () and 3 more arguments are passed through the registers \(\$ 5 \ldots \$ 7\) (or \(\$ A 0 \ldots \$ A 2\) ). That is why these registers are prefixed with \(A-\), which implies they are used for function arguments passing.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{71}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17287
}
```

\$LC0:
.ascii "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d\000"
main:
; function prologue:
lui \$28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
addiu $sp,$sp,-32
addiu \$28,\$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
sw $31,28($sp)
; load address of printf():
lw \$25,%call16(printf)(\$28)
; load address of the text string and set lst argument of printf():
lui $4,%hi($LC0)
addiu \$4,$4,%lo($LC0)
; set 2nd argument of printf():
li \$5,1 \# 0x1
; set 3rd argument of printf():
li \$6,2 \# 0x2
; call printf():
jalr \$25
; set 4th argument of printf() (branch delay slot):
li \$7,3 \# 0x3
; function epilogue:
lw $31,28($sp)
; set return value to 0:
move \$2,\$0
; return
j \$31
addiu $sp,$sp,32 ; branch delay slot

```

Listing 1.55: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var 10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var_4 = -4
.text:00000000
; function prologue:
.text:00000000 lui \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
.text:00000004 addiu \$sp, -0x20
.text:00000008 la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
.text:0000000C
.text:00000010
sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
; load address of printf():
.text:00000014 lw $t9, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
; load address of the text string and set lst argument of printf():
.text:00000018 la \$a0, \$LC0 \# "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d"
; set 2nd argument of printf():
.text:00000020 li \$al, 1
; set 3rd argument of printf():
.text:00000024
; call printf():
.text:00000028
jalr \$t9
; set 4th argument of printf()
.text:0000002C
; function epilogue:
.text:00000030
; set return value to 0:
.text:00000034
; return
.text:00000038
.text:0000003C addiu \$sp, 0x20 ; branch delay slot

```

IDA has coalesced pair of LUI and ADDIU instructions into one LA pseudo instruction. That's why there are no instruction at address 0x1C: because LA occupies 8 bytes.

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5}

Non-optimizing GCC is more verbose:
Listing 1.56: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)
```

\$LC0:
.ascii "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d\000"
main:
; function prologue:
addiu $sp,$sp,-32
sw $31,28($sp)
sw $fp,24($sp)
move $fp,$sp
lui \$28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
addiu \$28,\$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
; load address of the text string:
lui $2,%hi($LC0)
addiu \$2,$2,%lo($LC0)
; set lst argument of printf():
move \$4,\$2
; set 2nd argument of printf():
li \$5,1 \# 0x1
; set 3rd argument of printf():
li \$6,2 \# 0x2
; set 4th argument of printf(): \#7,3
; get address of printf():
lw \$2,%call16(printf)(\$28)
nop
; call printf():
move \$25,\$2
jalr \$25
nop

```
; function epilogue:
    lw \(\$ 28,16(\$ f p)\)
; set return value to 0 :
    move \(\$ 2, \$ 0\)
    move \(\$ s p, \$ f p\)
    lw \(\$ 31,28(\$ s p)\)
    lw \(\$ f p, 24(\$ s p)\)
    addiu \(\$ \mathrm{sp}, \$ \mathrm{sp}, 32\)
; return
    \(\begin{array}{ll}\text { jop } & \$ 31\end{array}\)
    nop

Listing 1.57: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var_10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var_8 = -8
.text:00000000 var_4 = -4
.text:00000000
; function prologue:
.text:00000000 addiu \$sp, -0x20
.text:00000004 sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
.text:00000008
.text:0000000C
.text:00000010
.text:00000018
sw $fp, 0x20+var_8($sp)
move \$fp, \$sp
la \$gp, __gnu_local_gp
sw $gp, 哜20+var_10($sp)
; load address of the text string:
.text:0000001C la
; set lst argument of printf():
.text:00000024 move \$a0, \$v0
.text:000000024
.text:00000028 li
; set 3rd argument of printf():
.text:0000002C
li
li \$a1, 1

```
; set 4th argument of printf():
.text:00000030 li $a3, 3
; get address of printf():
.text:00000034 lw $v0, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
.text:00000038
; call printf():
.text:0000003C
.text:00000040
.text:00000044
; function epilogue:
.text:00000048
; set return value to 0:
.text:0000004C
.text:00000050
.text:00000054
.text:00000058
.text:0000005C
; return
.text:00000060
or $at, $zero ; NOP
```


## 8 arguments

Let's use again the example with 9 arguments from the previous section: 1.8.1 on page 50 .

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\n", 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8);
    return 0;
};
```


## Optimizing GCC 4.4.5

Only the first 4 arguments are passed in the \$A0 ...\$A3 registers, the rest are passed via the stack.
This is the O32 calling convention (which is the most common one in the MIPS world). Other calling conventions (like N32) may use the registers for different purposes.

SW abbreviates "Store Word" (from register to memory). MIPS lacks instructions for storing a value into memory, so an instruction pair has to be used instead (LI/SW).

Listing 1.58: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
    .ascii "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\012\000"
main:
; function prologue:
    lui $28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
    addiu $sp,$sp,-56
    addiu $28,$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
    sw $31,52($sp)
; pass 5th argument in stack:
            li $2,4 # 0x4
            sw $2,16($sp)
    pass 6th argument in stack:
            li $2,5 # 0x5
            sw $2,20($sp)
; pass 7th argument in stack:
            li $2,6 # 0x6
            sw $2,24($sp)
; pass 8th argument in stack:
            li $2,7 # 0x7
            lw $25,%call16(printf)($28)
            sw $2,28($sp)
```

```
; pass 1st argument in $a0:
    lui $4,%hi($LC0)
; pass 9th argument in stack:
    li $2,8 # 0x8
    sw $2,32($sp)
    addiu $4,$4,%lo($LC0)
; pass 2nd argument in $a1:
    li $5,1 # 0x1
; pass 3rd argument in $a2:
    li $6,2 # 0x2
; call printf():
    jalr $25
; pass 4th argument in $a3 (branch delay slot):
    li $7,3 # 0x3
; function epilogue:
    lw $31,52($sp)
; set return value to 0:
            move $2,$0
; return
    j addiu $31
    addiu $sp,$sp,56 ; branch delay slot
```

Listing 1.59: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)

```
.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var \(28=-0 \times 28\)
.text:00000000 var_24 = -0x24
.text:00000000 var \(20=-0 \times 20\)
.text:00000000 var_1C = -0x1C
.text:00000000 var_18 = -0x18
.text:00000000 var_10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var \(4=-4\)
.text:000000000
; function prologue:
.text:00000000 lui \$gp, (_gnu_local_gp >> 16)
.text:00000004
addiu \$sp, - \(0 \times 38\)
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw \$ra, 0x38+var 4(\$sp)
sw \(\quad \$ \mathrm{~g}, 0 \times 38+\mathrm{var}{ }^{-} 10(\$ \mathrm{sp})\)
.text:00000010 sw
; pass 5th argument in stack:
.text: 00000014
li \(\$ v 0,4\)
.text:00000018 sw
; pass 6th argument in stack:
.text:0000001C
.text:000000020
i \(\$ v 0,5\)
sw \(\quad\) v0, \(0 x 38+\) var_24(\$sp)
; pass 7th argument in stack:
.text:00000024
.text:00000028
li \(\$ v 0,6\)
sw \(\quad\) \$v0, \(0 x 38+\) var_20(\$sp)
; pass 8th argument in stack:
.text:0000002C
.text:000000330
.text:00000034
lw \(\quad \$ \mathrm{t} 9\), (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp)
sw \(\quad\) v0, \(0 x 38+v a r \_1 C(\$ s p)\)
; prepare 1st argument in \$a0:
.text:00000038
lui \(\$ a 0,(\$ L C 0 \gg 16) ~ \# ~ " a=\% d ; b=\% d ; c=\% d ; d=\% d ; e=\% d ; f=\% d \_\)
    \(\rightarrow\); \(\mathrm{g}=\%\) "...
; pass 9th argument in stack:
.text:0000003C
li \(\quad \$ v 0,8\)
sw \(\$ v 0,0 x 38+v a r \_18(\$ s p)\)
; pass lst argument in \$a0:
.text:00000044
la \(\$ a 0,(\$ L C 0 \& 0 x F F F F) \#\) "a=\%d; b=\%d; c=\%d; d=\%d; e=\%d; f \(\downarrow\)
    \(\zeta=\% d ; g=\% " .\).
; pass 2nd argument in \$a1:
.text:00000048
li \$a1, 1
; pass 3rd argument in \$a2:
.text:0000004C
; call printf():
.text:00000050
; pass 4th argument in \$a3 (branch delay slot):
```



## Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5

Non-optimizing GCC is more verbose:
Listing 1.60: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
    .ascii "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d; e=%d; f=%d; g=%d; h=%d\012\000"
main:
; function prologue:
    addiu $sp,$sp,-56
    sw $31,52($sp)
    sw $fp,48($sp)
    move $fp,$sp
    lui $28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
    addiu $28,$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
    lui $2,%hi($LC0)
    addiu $2,$2,%lo($LC0)
; pass 5th argument in stack:
    li $3,4 # 0x4
    sw $3,16($sp)
; pass 6th argument in stack:
    li $3,5 # 0x5
    sw $3,20($sp)
; pass 7th argument in stack:
    li $3,6 # 0x6
    sw $3,24($sp)
; pass 8th argument in stack:
    li $3,7 # 0x7
    sw $3,28($sp)
; pass 9th argument in stack:
    li $3,8 # 0x8
    sw $3,32($sp)
; pass lst argument in $a0:
    move $4,$2
; pass 2nd argument in $a1:
    li $5,1 # 0x1
; pass 3rd argument in $a2:
    li $6,2 # 0x2
; pass 4th argument in $a3:
    li $7,3 # 0x3
; call printf():
    lw $2,%call16(printf)($28)
    nop
    move $25,$2
    jalr $25
    nop
; function epilogue:
    lw $28,40($fp)
; set return value to 0:
            move $2,$0
            move $sp,$fp
            lw $31,52($sp)
            lw $fp,48($sp)
            addiu $sp,$sp,56
; return
            j $31
            nop
```



### 1.8.4 Conclusion

Here is a rough skeleton of the function call:
...
PUSH 3rd argument
PUSH 2nd argument
PUSH 1st argument
CALL function
; modify stack pointer (if needed)

Listing 1.63: x64 (MSVC)

```
MOV RCX, 1st argument
MOV RDX, 2nd argument
MOV R8, 3rd argument
MOV R9, 4th argument
PUSH 5th, 6th argument, etc. (if needed)
CALL function
; modify stack pointer (if needed)
```

Listing 1.64: x64 (GCC)

```
MOV RDI, 1st argument
MOV RSI, 2nd argument
MOV RDX, 3rd argument
MOV RCX, 4th argument
MOV R8, 5th argument
MOV R9, 6th argument
```

PUSH 7th, 8th argument, etc. (if needed)
CALL function
; modify stack pointer (if needed)

Listing 1.65: ARM

```
MOV R0, 1st argument
MOV R1, 2nd argument
MOV R2, 3rd argument
MOV R3, 4th argument
; pass 5th, 6th argument, etc., in stack (if needed)
BL function
; modify stack pointer (if needed)
```

Listing 1.66: ARM64
MOV X0, 1st argument
MOV X1, 2nd argument
MOV X2, 3rd argument
MOV X3, 4th argument
MOV X4, 5th argument
MOV X5, 6th argument
MOV X6, 7th argument
MOV X7, 8th argument
; pass 9th, 10th argument, etc., in stack (if needed)
BL function
; modify stack pointer (if needed)

Listing 1.67: MIPS (O32 calling convention)

```
LI $4, 1st argument ; AKA $A0
LI $5, 2nd argument ; AKA $A1
LI $6, 3rd argument ; AKA $A2
LI $7, 4th argument ; AKA $A3
; pass 5th, 6th argument, etc., in stack (if needed)
LW temp reg, address of function
JALR temp_reg
```


### 1.8.5 By the way

By the way, this difference between the arguments passing in x86, x64, fastcall, ARM and MIPS is a good illustration of the fact that the CPU is oblivious to how the arguments are passed to functions. It is also
possible to create a hypothetical compiler able to pass arguments via a special structure without using stack at all.

MIPS \$A0 ... $\$ \mathrm{~A} 3$ registers are labeled this way only for convenience (that is in the 032 calling convention). Programmers may use any other register (well, maybe except \$ZERO) to pass data or use any other calling convention.

The CPU is not aware of calling conventions whatsoever.
We may also recall how new coming assembly language programmers passing arguments into other functions: usually via registers, without any explicit order, or even via global variables. Of course, it works fine.

## 1.9 scanf()

Now let's use scanf().

### 1.9.1 Simple example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int x;
    printf ("Enter X:\n")
    scanf ("%d", &x);
    printf ("You entered %d...\n", x);
    return 0;
};
```

It's not clever to use scanf() for user interactions nowadays. But we can, however, illustrate passing a pointer to a variable of type int.


#### Abstract

About pointers Pointers are one of the fundamental concepts in computer science. Often, passing a large array, structure or object as an argument to another function is too expensive, while passing their address is much cheaper. For example, if you going to print a text string to console, it's much easier to pass its address into OS kernel.

In addition if the callee function needs to modify something in the large array or structure received as a parameter and return back the entire structure then the situation is close to absurd. So the simplest thing to do is to pass the address of the array or structure to the callee function, and let it change what needs to be changed.

A pointer in C/C++-is simply an address of some memory location. In x86, the address is represented as a 32 -bit number (i.e., it occupies 4 bytes), while in $\times 86-64$ it is a 64bit number (occupying 8 bytes). By the way, that is the reason behind some people's indignation related to switching to $\times 86-64$-all pointers in the $\times 64$-architecture require twice as much space, including cache memory, which is "expensive" memory.

It is possible to work with untyped pointers only, given some effort; e.g. the standard C function memcpy (), that copies a block from one memory location to another, takes 2 pointers of type void* as arguments, since it is impossible to predict the type of the data you would like to copy. Data types are not important, only the block size matters. Pointers are also widely used when a function needs to return more than one value (we are going to get back to this later ( 3.21 on page 611) ). scanf() function-is such a case.


1.9. SCANF()

Besides the fact that the function needs to indicate how many values were successfully read, it also needs to return all these values.

In C/C++ the pointer type is only needed for compile-time type checking.
Internally, in the compiled code there is no information about pointer types at all.

## x86

## MSVC

Here is what we get after compiling with MSVC 2010:

$x$ is a local variable.
According to the $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ standard it must be visible only in this function and not from any other external scope. Traditionally, local variables are stored on the stack. There are probably other ways to allocate them, but in x86 that is the way it is.

The goal of the instruction following the function prologue, PUSH ECX, is not to save the ECX state (notice the absence of corresponding POP ECX at the function's end).
In fact it allocates 4 bytes on the stack for storing the $x$ variable.
$x$ is to be accessed with the assistance of the _x\$ macro (it equals to -4 ) and the EBP register pointing to the current frame.

Over the span of the function's execution, EBP is pointing to the current stack frame making it possible to access local variables and function arguments via EBP+offset.

It is also possible to use ESP for the same purpose, although that is not very convenient since it changes frequently. The value of the EBP could be perceived as a frozen state of the value in ESP at the start of the function's execution.

Here is a typical stack frame layout in 32-bit environment:

| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| EBP-8 | local variable \#2, marked in IDA as var_8 |
| EBP-4 | local variable \#1, marked in IDA as var_4 |
| EBP | saved value of EBP |
| EBP+4 | return address |
| EBP+8 | argument\#1, marked in IDA as arg_0 |
| EBP+0xC | argument\#2, marked in IDA as arg_4 |
| EBP+0x10 | argument\#3, marked in IDA as arg_8 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |

The scanf() function in our example has two arguments.
The first one is a pointer to the string containing \%d and the second is the address of the x variable.
First, the $x$ variable's address is loaded into the EAX register by the
lea eax, DWORD PTR _x $\$$ [ebp] instruction.
LEA stands for load effective address, and is often used for forming an address (.1.6 on page 1028).
We could say that in this case LEA simply stores the sum of the EBP register value and the $\quad \mathrm{x} \$$ macro in the EAX register.
This is the same as lea eax, [ebp-4].
So, 4 is being subtracted from the EBP register value and the result is loaded in the EAX register. Next the EAX register value is pushed into the stack and $\operatorname{scanf}()$ is being called.
print $f()$ is being called after that with its first argument - a pointer to the string: You entered \%d...\n.
The second argument is prepared with: mov ecx, [ebp-4]. The instruction stores the $x$ variable value and not its address, in the ECX register.

Next the value in the ECX is stored on the stack and the last printf() is being called.

Let's try this example in OllyDbg. Let's load it and keep pressing F8 (step over) until we reach our executable file instead of ntdll.dll. Scroll up until main() appears.

Click on the first instruction (PUSH EBP), press F2 (set a breakpoint), then F9 (Run). The breakpoint will be triggered when main() begins.
Let's trace to the point where the address of the variable $x$ is calculated:


Figure 1.12: OllyDbg: The address of the local variable is calculated

Right-click the EAX in the registers window and then select "Follow in stack".
This address will appear in the stack window. The red arrow has been added, pointing to the variable in the local stack. At that moment this location contains some garbage ( $0 \times 6 \mathrm{E} 494714$ ). Now with the help of PUSH instruction the address of this stack element is going to be stored to the same stack on the next position. Let's trace with F8 until the scanf() execution completes. During the scanf() execution, we input, for example, 123, in the console window:

```
Enter X:
```

123


Figure 1.13: OllyDbg: scanf() executed
scanf() returns 1 in EAX, which implies that it has read successfully one value. If we look again at the stack element corresponding to the local variable it now contains $0 \times 7 \mathrm{~B}$ (123).

Later this value is copied from the stack to the ECX register and passed to printf():


Figure 1.14: OllyDbg: preparing the value for passing to printf()

## GCC

Let's try to compile this code in GCC 4.4.1 under Linux:


GCC replaced the printf() call with call to puts(). The reason for this was explained in (1.5.4 on page 21).

As in the MSVC example-the arguments are placed on the stack using the MOV instruction.
1.9. SCANF()

This simple example is a demonstration of the fact that compiler translates list of expressions in C/C++block into sequential list of instructions. There are nothing between expressions in C/C++, and so in resulting machine code, there are nothing between, control flow slips from one expression to the next one.

## x64

The picture here is similar with the difference that the registers, rather than the stack, are used for arguments passing.

## MSVC

Listing 1.68: MSVC 2012 x64

```
DATA SEGMENT
$SG1289 DB 'Enter X:', 0aH, 00H
$SG1291 DB '%d', 00H
$SG1292 DB 'You entered %d...', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
x$ = 32
main PROC
$LN3:
    sub rsp, 56
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1289 ; 'Enter X:'
    call printf
    lea rdx, QWORD PTR x$[rsp]
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1291 ; '%d'
    call scanf
    mov edx, DWORD PTR x$[rsp]
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1292 ; 'You entered %d...'
    call printf
    ; return 0
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 56
    ret 0
main ENDP
    TEXT ENDS
```

GCC

Listing 1.69: Optimizing GCC $4.4 .6 \times 64$

```
.LC0:
    .string "Enter X:"
.LC1:
    .string "%d"
.LC2:
    .string "You entered %d...\n"
main:
        sub rsp, 24
        mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "Enter X:"
        call puts
        lea rsi, [rsp+12]
        mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1 ; "%d"
        xor eax, eax
        call isoc99 scanf
        mov \overline{esi, DWORD PTR [rsp+12]}
        mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC2 ; "You entered %d...\n"
        xor eax, eax
        call printf
```

```
; return 0
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 24
ret
```


## ARM

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
.text:00000042 scanf_main
.text:00000042
.text:00000042
.text:00000042
.text:00000042 08 B5 PUSH {R3,LR}
.text:00000044 A9 A0 ADR R0, aEnterX ; "Enter X:\n"
.text:00000046 06 F0 D3 F8 BL __2printf
.text:0000004A 69 46 MOV R1, SP
text:0000004C AA A0 ADR R0, aD ; "%d"
.text:0000004E 06 F0 CD F8 BL 0scanf
.text:00000052 00 99 LDR R1, [SP,#8+var_8]
.text:00000054 A9 A0 ADR R0, aYouEnteredD ; "You entered %d...\n"
.text:00000056 06 F0 CB F8 BL __2printf
.text:0000005A 00 20 MOVS R0, #0
.text:0000005C 08 BD POP {R3,PC}
```

In order for scanf() to be able to read item it needs a parameter-pointer to an int. int is 32 -bit, so we need 4 bytes to store it somewhere in memory, and it fits exactly in a 32 -bit register. A place for the local variable x is allocated in the stack and IDA has named it var_8. It is not necessary, however, to allocate a such since SP (stack pointer) is already pointing to that space and it can be used directly.

So, SP's value is copied to the R1 register and, together with the format-string, passed to scanf(). Later, with the help of the LDR instruction, this value is moved from the stack to the R1 register in order to be passed to printf().

## ARM64

Listing 1.70: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
.LC0:
        .string "Enter X:"
.LC1:
    .string "%d"
.LC2:
    .string "You entered %d...\n"
scanf_main:
; subtract 32 from SP, then save FP and LR in stack frame:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
; set stack frame (FP=SP)
    add x29, sp, 0
; load pointer to the "Enter X:" string:
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
; X0=pointer to the "Enter X:" string
; print it:
    bl puts
; load pointer to the "%d" string:
    adrp x0, .LC1
    add x0, x0, :lol2:.LC1
; find a space in stack frame for "X" variable (X1=FP+28):
    add x1, x29, 28
; X1=address of "x" variable
; pass the address to scanf() and call it:
        bl isoc99_scanf
; load 32-bit value from the variable in stack frame:
```

1.9. SCANF()

```
ldr w1, [x29,28
; W1=x
; load pointer to the "You entered %d...\n" string
; printf() will take text string from X0 and "x" variable from X1 (or W1)
    adrp x0, .LC2
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC2
    bl printf
    ; return 0
    mov w0, 0
; restore FP and LR, then add 32 to SP:
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
    ret
```

There is 32 bytes are allocated for stack frame, which is bigger than it needed. Perhaps some memory aligning issue? The most interesting part is finding space for the $x$ variable in the stack frame (line 22). Why 28? Somehow, compiler decided to place this variable at the end of stack frame instead of beginning. The address is passed to scanf(), which just stores the user input value in the memory at that address. This is 32 -bit value of type int. The value is fetched at line 27 and then passed to printf().

## MIPS

A place in the local stack is allocated for the $x$ variable, and it is to be referred as $\$ s p+24$.
Its address is passed to scanf( ), and the user input values is loaded using the LW ("Load Word") instruction and then passed to printf().

Listing 1.71: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
            .ascii "Enter X:\000"
$LC1:
    .ascii "%d\000"
$LC2:
    .ascii "You entered %d...\012\000"
main:
; function prologue:
    lui $28,%hi(__gnu_local_gp)
    addiu $sp,$sp,-40
    addiu $28,$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
    sw $31,36($sp)
; call puts():
    lw $25,%call16(puts)($28)
    lui $4,%hi($LC0)
    jalr $25
    addiu $4,$4,%lo($LC0) ; branch delay slot
; call scanf():
    lw $28,16($sp)
    lui $4,%hi($LC1)
    lw $25,%call16( isoc99_scanf)($28)
; set 2nd argument of scanf(), $al=$sp+24:
    addiu $5,$sp,24
    jalr $25
    addiu $4,$4,%lo($LC1) ; branch delay slot
; call printf():
    lw $28,16($sp)
; set 2nd argument of printf(),
; load word at address $sp+24:
    lw $5,24($sp)
    lw $25,%call16(printf)($28)
    lui $4,%hi($LC2)
    jalr $25
    addiu $4,$4,%lo($LC2) ; branch delay slot
; function epilogue:
    lw $31,36($sp)
; set return value to 0:
    move $2,$0
; return:
```

| j | $\$ 31$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| addiu | $\$ s p, \$ s p, 40$ | ; branch delay slot |

IDA displays the stack layout as follows:
Listing 1.72: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:00000000 main:
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 var_18 = -0x18
.text:00000000 var 10 = -0x10
.text:00000000 var_4 = -4
.text:00000000
; function prologue:
.text:00000000 lui $gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
.text:00000004
    addiu $sp, -0x28
    la $gp, (__gnu_local_gp & 0xFFFF)
.text:00000008
    sw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
    sw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
.text:00000010
; call puts():
.text:00000014
.text:00000018
.text:0000001C
.text:00000020
; call scanf():
.text:00000024
.text:00000028
.text:0000002C lw $t9, (__isoc99_scanf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
lui $a0, ($LC1 >> 16) # "%d"
; set 2nd argument of scanf(), $al=$sp+24:
.text:00000030 addiu $a1, $sp, 0x28+var_10
.text:00000034 jalr $t9 ; branch delay slot
.text:00000038 la $a0, ($LC1 & 0xFFFF) # "%d"
; call printf():
.text:0000003C lw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
; set 2nd argument of printf(),
; load word at address $sp+24:
.text:00000040 lw $a1, 0x28+var_10($sp)
.text:00000044 lw $t9, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
.text:00000048 lui $a0, ($LC2 >> 16) # "You entered %d...\n"
.text:0000004C
jalr $tg
.text:00000050 la $a0, ($LC2 & 0xFFFF) # "You entered %d...\n" ; branch delay 々
slot
; function epilogue:
.text:00000054 lw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
; set return value to 0:
.text:00000058 move $v0, $zero
; return:
.text:0000005C jr $ra
.text:00000060 addiu $sp, 0x28 ; branch delay slot
```


### 1.9.2 Popular mistake

It's a very popular mistake (and/or typo) to pass value of $x$ instead of pointer to $x$ :

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int x;
    printf ("Enter X:\n");
    scanf ("%d", x); // BUG
    printf ("You entered %d...\n", x);
    return 0;
};
```

1.9. SCANF()

So what happens here? $x$ is not uninitialized and contains some random noise from local stack. When scanf() called, it takes string from user, parses it into number and tries to write it into $x$, treating it as an address in memory. But there is a random noise, so scanf() will try to write at random address. Most likely, the process will crash.
Interestingly enough, some CRT libraries in debug build, put visually distinctive patterns into memory just allocated, like $0 \times C C C C C C C C$ or $0 x 0 B A D F 00 D$ and so on. In this case, $x$ may contain $0 x C C C C C C C C$, and scanf() would try to write at address 0xCCCCCCCC. And if you'll notice that something in your process tries to write at address 0xCCCCCCCC, you'll know that uninitialized variable (or pointer) gets used without prior initialization. This is better than as if newly allocated memory is just cleared.

### 1.9.3 Global variables

What if the $x$ variable from the previous example isn't local but a global one? Then it would have been accessible from any point, not only from the function body. Global variables are considered anti-pattern, but for the sake of the experiment, we could do this.

```
#include <stdio.h>
// now x is global variable
int x;
int main()
{
    printf ("Enter X:\n");
    scanf ("%d", &x);
    printf ("You entered %d...\n", x);
    return 0;
};
```


## MSVC: $x 86$

```
DATA SEGMENT
COMM _x:DWORD
$SG2456 DB 'Enter X:', 0aH, 00H
$SG2457 DB '%d', 00H
$SG2458 DB 'You entered %d...', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
PUBLIC main
EXTRN scanf:PROC
EXTRN printf:PROC
; Function compile flags: /Odtp
_TEXT SEGMENT
main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push OFFSET $SG2456
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    push OFFSET x
    push OFFSET $SG2457
    call scanf
    add esp, 8
    mov eax, DWORD PTR x
    push eax
    push OFFSET $SG2458
    call _printf
    add esp, 8
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebp
    ret 0
main ENDP
TEXT ENDS
```

1.9. SCANF()

In this case the x variable is defined in the _DATA segment and no memory is allocated in the local stack. It is accessed directly, not through the stack. Uninitialized global variables take no space in the executable file (indeed, why one needs to allocate space for variables initially set to zero?), but when someone accesses their address, the OS will allocate a block of zeros there ${ }^{72}$.
Now let's explicitly assign a value to the variable:
int $x=10$; // default value

We got:

| DATA | SEGMENT |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $-x$ | DD | 0 aH |

Here we see a value $0 x A$ of DWORD type (DD stands for DWORD $=32$ bit) for this variable.
If you open the compiled .exe in IDA, you can see the $x$ variable placed at the beginning of the _DATA segment, and after it you can see text strings.
If you open the compiled .exe from the previous example in IDA, where the value of $x$ hasn't been set, you would see something like this:

Listing 1.73: IDA

| .data:0040FA80 _x | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: _main+10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| .data:0040FA80 |  |  |  | main+22 |
| .data:0040FA84 dword_40FA84 | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: _memset+1E |
| .data:0040FA84 |  |  |  | unknown_libname_1+28 |
| .data:0040FA88 dword_40FA88 | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: __sbh_find_block+5 |
| .data:0040FA88 |  |  |  | sbh_free_block+2BC |
| .data:0040FA8C ; LPVOID lpMem |  |  |  |  |
| .data:0040FA8C lpMem | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: __s sbh_find_block+B |
| .data:0040FA8C |  |  |  | _ sbh_free_block+2CA |
| .data:0040FA90 dword_40FA90 | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: _V6_HeapAlloc+13 |
| .data:0040FA90 |  |  |  | __calloc_impl+72 |
| .data:0040FA94 dword_40FA94 | dd | ? |  | DATA XREF: ___sbh_free_block+2F |

$x$ is marked with ? with the rest of the variables that do not need to be initialized. This implies that after loading the .exe to the memory, a space for all these variables is to be allocated and filled with zeros [ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007)6.7.8p10]. But in the .exe file these uninitialized variables do not occupy anything. This is convenient for large arrays, for example.

[^36]Things are even simpler here:


Figure 1.15: OllyDbg: after scanf() execution

The variable is located in the data segment. After the PUSH instruction (pushing the address of $x$ ) gets executed, the address appears in the stack window. Right-click on that row and select "Follow in dump". The variable will appear in the memory window on the left. After we have entered 123 in the console, $0 \times 7 \mathrm{~B}$ appears in the memory window (see the highlighted screenshot regions).

But why is the first byte 7B? Thinking logically, $0000007 B$ must be there. The cause for this is referred as endianness, and x86 uses little-endian. This implies that the lowest byte is written first, and the highest written last. Read more about it at: 2.8 on page 464 . Back to the example, the 32 -bit value is loaded from this memory address into EAX and passed to printf().

The memory address of $x$ is $0 x 00 C 53394$.

In OllyDbg we can review the process memory map (Alt-M) and we can see that this address is inside the .data PE-segment of our program:


Figure 1.16: OllyDbg: process memory map

## GCC: $x 86$

The picture in Linux is near the same, with the difference that the uninitialized variables are located in the _bss segment. In ELF ${ }^{73}$ file this segment has the following attributes:

```
; Segment type: Uninitialized
; Segment permissions: Read/Write
```

If you, however, initialize the variable with some value e.g. 10, it is to be placed in the _data segment, which has the following attributes:

```
; Segment type: Pure data
; Segment permissions: Read/Write
```

MSVC: x64

Listing 1.74: MSVC 2012 x64

| DATA | SEGMENT |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| COMM | x:DWORD |  |  |
| \$SG2924 | DB | 'Enter $\mathrm{x}: \mathrm{'}, 0 \mathrm{aH}, 00 \mathrm{H}$ |  |
| \$SG2925 | DB | '\%d', 00H |  |
| \$SG2926 | DB | 'You entered \%d...', 0aH, 00H |  |
| DATA | ENDS |  |  |

[^37]```
_TEXT SEGMENT
main PROC
$LN3:
    sub rsp, 40
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2924 ; 'Enter X:'
    call printf
    lea rdx, OFFSET FLAT:x
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2925 ; '%d'
    call scanf
    mov edx, DWORD PTR x
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2926 ; 'You entered %d...'
    call printf
    ; return 0
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 40
    ret 0
main ENDP
    TEXT ENDS
```

The code is almost the same as in x86. Please note that the address of the $x$ variable is passed to scanf() using a LEA instruction, while the variable's value is passed to the second printf() using a MOV instruction. DWORD PTR-is a part of the assembly language (no relation to the machine code), indicating that the variable data size is 32-bit and the MOV instruction has to be encoded accordingly.

## ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

Listing 1.75: IDA

```
.text:00000000 ; Segment type: Pure code
.text:00000000 AREA .text, CODE
.text:00000000 main
.text:00000000 PUSH {R4,LR}
.text:00000002 ADR R0, aEnterX ; "Enter X:\n"
.text:00000004 BL __2printf
.text:00000008 LDR R1, =x
.text:0000000A ADR R0, aD ; "%d"
.text:0000000C BL __0scanf
.text:00000010 LDR R0, =x
.text:00000012 LDR R1, [R0]
.text:00000014 ADR R0, aYouEnteredD___ ; "You entered %d...\n"
.text:00000016 BL 2printf
.text:0000001A MOVS \overline{R0}, #0
.text:0000001C POP {R4,PC}
.text:00000020 aEnterX DCB "Enter X:",0xA,0 ; DATA XREF: main+2
.text:0000002A DCB 0
.text:0000002B DCB 0
.text:0000002C off_2C DCD x ; DATA XREF: main+8
.text:0000002C ; main+10
.text:00000030 aD DCB "%d",0 ; DATA XREF: main+A
.text:00000033 DCB 0
.text:00000034 aYouEnteredD___ DCB "You entered %d...",0xA,0 ; DATA XREF: main+14
.text:00000047 DCB 0
.text:00000047 ; .text ends
.text:00000047
..
.data:00000048 ; Segment type: Pure data
.data:00000048 AREA .data, DATA
.data:00000048 ; ORG 0x48
.data:00000048 EXPORT x
.data:00000048 x DCD 0xA ; DATA XREF: main+8
.data:00000048 ; main+10
.data:00000048 ; .data ends
```

1.9. SCANF()

So, the x variable is now global and for this reason located in another segment, namely the data segment (.data). One could ask, why are the text strings located in the code segment (.text) and $x$ is located right here? Because it is a variable and by definition its value could change. Moreover it could possibly change often. While text strings has constant type, they will not be changed, so they are located in the .text segment.
The code segment might sometimes be located in a ROM ${ }^{74}$ chip (keep in mind, we now deal with embedded microelectronics, and memory scarcity is common here), and changeable variables -in RAM.

It is not very economical to store constant variables in RAM when you have ROM.
Furthermore, constant variables in RAM must be initialized, because after powering on, the RAM, obviously, contains random information.

Moving forward, we see a pointer to the x (off_2C) variable in the code segment, and that all operations with the variable occur via this pointer.

That is because the $x$ variable could be located somewhere far from this particular code fragment, so its address must be saved somewhere in close proximity to the code.

The LDR instruction in Thumb mode can only address variables in a range of 1020 bytes from its location, and in ARM-mode -variables in range of $\pm 4095$ bytes.

And so the address of the $x$ variable must be located somewhere in close proximity, because there is no guarantee that the linker would be able to accommodate the variable somewhere nearby the code, it may well be even in an external memory chip!

One more thing: if a variable is declared as const, the Keil compiler allocates it in the . constdata segment.
Perhaps thereafter, the linker could place this segment in ROM too, along with the code segment.

## ARM64

Listing 1.76: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
.comm x,4,4
.LC0:
    .string "Enter X:"
.LC1:
    .string "\%d"
.LC2:
    .string "You entered \%d...\n"
f5:
; save FP and LR in stack frame:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -16]!
; set stack frame (FP=SP)
    add \(\quad\) 29, \(\mathrm{sp}, 0\)
; load pointer to the "Enter X:" string:
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add \(x 0, x 0\), :lo12:.LC0
    bl puts
; load pointer to the "\%d" string:
    adrp x0, .LC1
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC1
; form address of \(x\) global variable:
    adrp \(x 1, x\)
    add \(x 1, x 1\), :lo12:x
    bl isoc99 scanf
; form address of \(x\) global variable again:
    adrp \(\quad x 0, x\)
    add \(x 0, x 0,: l o 12: x\)
; load value from memory at this address:
    ldr w1, [x0]
; load pointer to the "You entered \%d...\n" string:
    adrp x0, .LC2
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC2
    bl printf
; return 0
    mov w0, 0
```

[^38]```
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 16
```

    ret
    In this case the $x$ variable is declared as global and its address is calculated using the ADRP/ADD instruction pair (lines 21 and 25).

## MIPS

## Uninitialized global variable

So now the $x$ variable is global. Let's compile to executable file rather than object file and load it into IDA. IDA displays the $x$ variable in the . sbss ELF section (remember the "Global Pointer"? 1.5.5 on page 25), since the variable is not initialized at the start.

Listing 1.77: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:004006C0 main:
. text:004006C0
.text:004006C0 var_10 = -0x10
.text:004006C0 var 4 = -4
.text:004006C0
; function prologue:
.text:004006C0 lui $gp, 0x42
.text:004006C4 addiu $sp, -0x20
.text:004006C8 li $gp, 0x418940
text:004006CC sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
.text:004006D0 sw $gp, 0x20+var__10($sp)
; call puts():
.text:004006D4
.text:004006D8
.text:004006DC
.text:004006E0
; call scanf():
.text:004006E4 lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
.text:004006E8
lui $a0, 0x40
.text:004006EC la
; prepare address of x:
.text:004006F0
aal, x
jalr $t9 ; __isoc99_scanf
text:004006F8 la $a0, aD ; branch delay slot
; call printf():
.text:004006FC
lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
.text:00400700
lui $a0, 0x40
; get address of x:
.text:00400704
la $v0, x
. text:00400708
la $t9, printf
; load value from "x" variable and pass it to printf() in $al:
.text:0040070C lw $al, (x - 0x41099C)($v0)
.text:00400710
.text:00400714
jalr $t9 ; printf
la $a0, aYouEnteredD # "You entered %d...\n" ; branch \imath
 delay slot
; function epilogue:
.text:00400718 lw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
.text:0040071C move $v0, $zero
. text:00400720
jr $ra
.text:00400724 addiu $sp, 0x20 ; branch delay slot
.sbss:0041099C # Segment type: Uninitialized
.sbss:0041099C .sbss
.sbss:0041099C .globl x
.sbss:0041099C x: .space 4
.sbss:0041099C
```

IDA reduces the amount of information, so we'll also do a listing using objdump and comment it:

```
004006c0 <main>:
; function prologue:
    4006c0: 3c1c0042 lui gp,0x42
    4006c4: 27bdffe0 addiu sp,sp,-32
    4006c8: 279c8940 addiu gp,gp,-30400
    4006cc: afbf001c sw ra,28(sp)
    4006d0: afbc0010 sw gp,16(sp)
; call puts():
    4006d4: 8f998034 lw t9,-32716(gp)
    4006d8: 3c040040 lui a0,0x40
    4006dc: 0320f809 jalr t9
    4006e0: 248408f0 addiu a0,a0,2288 ; branch delay slot
; call scanf(): 8fbc0010 lw gp,16(sp)
    4006e8: 3c040040 lui a0,0x40
    4006ec: 8f998038 lw t9,-32712(gp)
; prepare address of x:
    4006f0: 8f858044 lw al,-32700(gp)
    4006f4: 0320f809 jalr t9
    4006f8: 248408fc addiu a0,a0,2300 ; branch delay slot
; call printf():
    4006fc: 8fbc0010 lw gp,16(sp)
    400700: 3c040040 lui a0,0x40
; get address of x:
    400704: 8f828044 lw v0,-32700(gp)
    400708: 8f99803c lw t9,-32708(gp)
; load value from "x" variable and pass it to printf() in $al:
    40070c: 8c450000 lw al,0(v0)
    400710: 0320f809 jalr t9
    400714: 24840900 addiu a0,a0,2304 ; branch delay slot
; function epilogue:
    400718: 8fbf001c lw ra,28(sp)
    40071c: 00001021 move v0,zero
    400720: 03e00008 jr ra
    400724: 27bd0020 addiu sp,sp,32 ; branch delay slot
; pack of NOPs used for aligning next function start on 16-byte boundary:
    400728: 00200825 move at,at
    40072c: 00200825 move at,at
```

Now we see the $x$ variable address is read from a 64 KiB data buffer using GP and adding negative offset to it (line 18). More than that, the addresses of the three external functions which are used in our example (puts(), scanf(), printf()), are also read from the 64 KiB global data buffer using GP (lines 9, 16 and 26). GP points to the middle of the buffer, and such offset suggests that all three function's addresses, and also the address of the $x$ variable, are all stored somewhere at the beginning of that buffer. That make sense, because our example is tiny.

Another thing worth mentioning is that the function ends with two NOPs (MOVE \$AT, \$AT - an idle instruction), in order to align next function's start on 16-byte boundary.

## Initialized global variable

Let's alter our example by giving the $x$ variable a default value:

```
int x=10; // default value
```

Now IDA shows that the $x$ variable is residing in the .data section:
Listing 1.79: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

| .text:004006A0 main: |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:004006A0 |  |  |
| .text:004006A0 var_10 | $=-0 \times 10$ |  |
| .text:004006A0 var_8 | $=-8$ |  |
| .text:004006A0 var_4 | $=-4$ |  |
| .text:004006A0 | lui | $\$ g p, 0 x 42$ |
| .text:004006A0 | addiu | $\$ s p,-0 x 20$ |

1.9. SCANF()


Why not .sdata? Perhaps that this depends on some GCC option?
Nevertheless, now $x$ is in .data, which is a general memory area, and we can take a look how to work with variables there.

The variable's address must be formed using a pair of instructions.
In our case those are LUI ("Load Upper Immediate") and ADDIU ("Add Immediate Unsigned Word").
Here is also the objdump listing for close inspection:
Listing 1.80: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (objdump)


```
; high part of x address is still in $s0.
; add low part to it and load a word from memory:
    4006e8: 8e050920 lw a1,2336(s0)
; value of x is now in $a1.
    4006ec: 8f99803c lw t9,-32708(gp)
    4006f0: 3c040040 lui a0,0x40
    4006f4: 0320f809 jalr t9
    4006f8: 248408e0 addiu a0,a0,2272
    4006fc: 8fbf001c lw ra,28(sp)
    400700: 00001021 move v0,zero
    400704: 8fb00018 lw s0,24(sp)
    400708: 03e00008 jr ra
    40070c: 27bd0020 addiu sp,sp,32
```

We see that the address is formed using LUI and ADDIU, but the high part of address is still in the \$S0 register, and it is possible to encode the offset in a LW ("Load Word") instruction, so one single LW is enough to load a value from the variable and pass it to printf().

Registers holding temporary data are prefixed with T-, but here we also see some prefixed with S-, the contents of which must be preserved before use in other functions (i.e., saved somewhere).

That is why the value of $\$$ S0 has been set at address $0 \times 4006 c c$ and has been used again at address $0 \times 4006 e 8$, after the scanf() call. The scanf() function does not change its value.

### 1.9.4 scanf()

As was noted before, it is slightly old-fashioned to use scanf() today. But if we have to, we have to check if scanf() finishes correctly without an error.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int x;
    printf ("Enter X:\n");
    if (scanf ("%d", &x)==1)
        printf ("You entered %d...\n", x);
    else
        printf ("What you entered? Huh?\n");
    return 0;
};
```

By standard, the scanf( ) ${ }^{75}$ function returns the number of fields it has successfully read.
In our case, if everything goes fine and the user enters a number scanf() returns 1 , or in case of error (or EOF ${ }^{76}$ ) - 0 .

Let's add some C code to check the scanf() return value and print error message in case of an error. This works as expected:

```
C:\...>ex3.exe
Enter X:
123
You entered 123...
C:\...>ex3.exe
Enter X:
ouch
What you entered? Huh?
```

[^39]Here is what we get in the assembly output (MSVC 2010):


The caller function (main()) needs the callee function (scanf()) result, so the callee returns it in the EAX register.

We check it with the help of the instruction CMP EAX, 1 (CoMPare). In other words, we compare the value in the EAX register with 1.

A JNE conditional jump follows the CMP instruction. JNE stands for Jump if Not Equal.
So, if the value in the EAX register is not equal to 1, the CPU will pass the execution to the address mentioned in the JNE operand, in our case \$LN2@main. Passing the control to this address results in the CPU executing printf() with the argument What you entered? Huh?. But if everything is fine, the conditional jump is not be taken, and another printf() call is to be executed, with two arguments:
'You entered \%d...' and the value of $x$.
Since in this case the second printf() has not to be executed, there is a JMP preceding it (unconditional jump). It passes the control to the point after the second printf() and just before the XOR EAX, EAX instruction, which implements return 0.

So, it could be said that comparing a value with another is usually implemented by CMP/Jcc instruction pair, where $c c$ is condition code. CMP compares two values and sets processor flags ${ }^{77}$. Jcc checks those flags and decides to either pass the control to the specified address or not.

This could sound paradoxical, but the CMP instruction is in fact SUB (subtract). All arithmetic instructions set processor flags, not just CMP. If we compare 1 and $1,1-1$ is 0 so the ZF flag would be set (meaning that the last result is 0 ). In no other circumstances $Z F$ can be set, except when the operands are equal. JNE checks only the ZF flag and jumps only if it is not set. JNE is in fact a synonym for JNZ (Jump if Not Zero). Assembler translates both JNE and JNZ instructions into the same opcode. So, the CMP instruction can be replaced with a SUB instruction and almost everything will be fine, with the difference that SUB alters the value of the first operand. CMP is SUB without saving the result, but affecting flags.

## MSVC: x86: IDA

It is time to run IDA and try to do something in it. By the way, for beginners it is good idea to use /MD option in MSVC, which means that all these standard functions are not be linked with the executable file, but are to be imported from the MSVCR*. DLL file instead. Thus it will be easier to see which standard function are used and where.

While analyzing code in IDA, it is very helpful to leave notes for oneself (and others). In instance, analyzing this example, we see that JNZ is to be triggered in case of an error. So it is possible to move the cursor to the label, press "n" and rename it to "error". Create another label-into "exit". Here is my result:

```
.text:00401000 main proc near
.text:00401000
```

[^40]1.9. $\operatorname{SCANF}()$

```
.text:00401000 var_4 = dword ptr -4
.text:00401000 argc \(=\) dword ptr 8
.text:00401000 argv = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:00401000 envp = dword ptr 10h
.text:00401000
.text:00401000
.text:00401001
.text:00401003
.text:00401004
.text:00401009
.text:0040100F
.text:00401012
.text:00401015
.text:00401016
.text:0040101B
.text:00401021
.text:00401024
.text:00401027
.text:00401029
.text:0040102C
.text:0040102D
.text:00401032
.text:00401038
.text:0040103B
.text:0040103D
.text:0040103D error: ; CODE XREF: _main+27
.text:0040103D push offset aWhat ; "What you entered? Huh?\n"
.text:00401042 call ds:printf
.text:00401048 add esp, 4
.text:0040104B
.text:0040104B exit: ; CODE XREF: _main+3B
.text:0040104B xor eax, eax
.text:0040104D mov esp, ebp
.text:0040104F pop ebp
.text:00401050 retn
.text:00401050 main endp
```

Now it is slightly easier to understand the code. However, it is not a good idea to comment on every instruction.

You could also hide(collapse) parts of a function in IDA. To do that mark the block, then press "-" on the numerical pad and enter the text to be displayed instead.

Let's hide two blocks and give them names:

```
.text:00401000 text segment para public 'CODE' use32
.text:00401000 assume cs:_text
.text:00401000 ;org 401000h
.text:00401000 ; ask for X
.text:00401012 ; get X
.text:00401024 cmp eax, 1
.text:00401027 jnz short error
.text:00401029 ; print result
.text:0040103B jmp short exit
.text:0040103D
.text:0040103D error: ; CODE XREF: _main+27
.text:0040103D push offset aWhat ; "What you entered? Huh?\n"
.text:00401042 call ds:printf
.text:00401048 add esp, 4
.text:0040104B
.text:0040104B exit: ; CODE XREF: main+3B
.text:0040104B xor eax, eax
.text:0040104D mov esp, ebp
.text:0040104F pop ebp
.text:00401050 retn
.text:00401050 _main endp
```

To expand previously collapsed parts of the code, use " + " on the numerical pad.
1.9. $\operatorname{SCANF}()$

By pressing "space", we can see how IDA represents a function as a graph:


Figure 1.17: Graph mode in IDA

There are two arrows after each conditional jump: green and red. The green arrow points to the block which executes if the jump is triggered, and red if otherwise.
1.9. SCANF()

It is possible to fold nodes in this mode and give them names as well ("group nodes"). Let's do it for 3 blocks:

```
; int __cdecl main()
    _main proc near
var_4= dword ptr -4
argc= dword ptr 8
argu= dword ptr @Ch
enup= dword ptr 16h
push ebp
mou ebp, esp
push ecx
push offset Format ; ''Enter X:\n"
call ds:printf
add esp,4
lea eax, [ebp+uar_4]
push eax
push offset aD ; "%d"
call ds:scanf
add esp, 8
cmp eax, 1
jnz short error
```



Figure 1.18: Graph mode in IDA with 3 nodes folded

That is very useful. It could be said that a very important part of the reverse engineers' job (and any other researcher as well) is to reduce the amount of information they deal with.

Let's try to hack our program in OllyDbg, forcing it to think scanf() always works without error. When an address of a local variable is passed into scanf(), the variable initially contains some random garbage, in this case 0x6E494714:


Figure 1.19: OllyDbg: passing variable address into scanf()

While scanf() executes, in the console we enter something that is definitely not a number, like "asdasd". scanf() finishes with 0 in EAX, which indicates that an error has occurred:


Figure 1.20: OllyDbg: scanf() returning error

We can also check the local variable in the stack and note that it has not changed. Indeed, what would $\operatorname{scanf()}$ write there? It simply did nothing except returning zero.

Let's try to "hack" our program. Right-click on EAX, Among the options there is "Set to 1". This is what we need.

We now have 1 in EAX, so the following check is to be executed as intended, and printf() will print the value of the variable in the stack.

When we run the program (F9) we can see the following in the console window:
Listing 1.81: console window
Enter X:
asdasd
You entered 1850296084...

Indeed, 1850296084 is a decimal representation of the number in the stack (0x6E494714)!

## MSVC: x86 + Hiew

This can also be used as a simple example of executable file patching. We may try to patch the executable so the program would always print the input, no matter what we enter.
Assuming that the executable is compiled against external MSVCR*. DLL (i.e., with /MD option) ${ }^{78}$, we see the main() function at the beginning of the . text section. Let's open the executable in Hiew and find the beginning of the .text section (Enter, F8, F6, Enter, Enter).
We can see this:


Figure 1.21: Hiew: main() function

Hiew finds $\mathrm{ASCIIZ}^{79}$ strings and displays them, as it does with the imported functions' names.

[^41]Move the cursor to address . 00401027 (where the JNZ instruction, we have to bypass, is located), press F3, and then type "9090" (meaning two NOPs):

| Hiew: ex3.exe |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C: \Polygon\ollydbg\ex3.exe | 目FWO EDITMODE a32 PE 0000 |  |  |
| 00000400: 55 | push | ebp |  |
| 00000401: 8BEC | mov | ebp, esp |  |
| 00000403: 51 | push | ecx |  |
| 00000404: 6800304000 | push | 000403000 ; @0 |  |
| 00000409: FF1594204000 | call | d, [000402094] |  |
| 0000040F: 83C404 | add | esp, 4 |  |
| 00000412: 8D45FC | lea | eax, [ebp][-4] |  |
| 00000415: 50 | push | eax |  |
| 00000416: 680C304000 | push | 00040300C ; ' @0® |  |
| 0000041B: FF158C204000 | call | d, [00040208C] |  |
| 00000421: 83C408 | add | esp, 8 |  |
| 00000424: 83F801 | cmp | eax,1 |  |
| 00000427: 90 | nop |  |  |
| 00000428: 90 | nop |  |  |
| 00000429: 8B4DFC | mov | ecx, [ebp][-4] |  |
| 0000042C: 51 | push | ecx |  |
| 0000042D: 6810304000 | push | 000403010 ; ' @0® |  |
| 00000432: FF1594204000 | call | d, [000402094] |  |
| 00000438: 83C408 | add | esp, 8 |  |
| 0000043B: EB0E | jmps | 00000044B |  |
| 0000043D: 6824304000 | push | 000403024 ; @ @ |  |
| 00000442: FF1594204000 | call | d, [000402094] |  |
| 00000448: 83C404 | add | esp, 4 |  |
| 0000044B: 33C0 | xor | eax, eax |  |
| 0000044D: 8BE5 | mov | esp,ebp |  |
| 0000044F: 5D | pop | ebp |  |
| 00000450: C3 | retn | -^_^_^_^_^_^ | - |
|  | 6 | 8Table 9 | 16 |

Figure 1.22: Hiew: replacing JNZ with two NOPs

Then press F9 (update). Now the executable is saved to the disk. It will behave as we wanted.
Two NOPs are probably not the most æsthetic approach. Another way to patch this instruction is to write just 0 to the second opcode byte (jump offset), so that JNZ will always jump to the next instruction.

We could also do the opposite: replace first byte with EB while not touching the second byte (jump offset). We would get an unconditional jump that is always triggered. In this case the error message would be printed every time, no matter the input.

## MSVC: $x 64$

## MSVC: $x 64$

Since we work here with int-typed variables, which are still 32 -bit in x86-64, we see how the 32 -bit part of the registers (prefixed with E -) are used here as well. While working with pointers, however, 64 -bit register parts are used, prefixed with R-.

```
DATA SEGMENT
$SG2924 DB 'Enter X:', 0aH, 00H
$SG2926 DB '%d', 00H
$SG2927 DB 'You entered %d...', 0aH, 00H
$SG2929 DB 'What you entered? Huh?', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
x$ = 32
main PROC
$LN5:
    sub rsp, 56
    Lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2924 ; 'Enter X:'
    call printf
    lea rdx, QWORD PTR x$[rsp]
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2926 ; '%d'
    call scanf
    cmp eax, 1
    jne SHORT $LN2@main
    mov edx, DWORD PTR x$[rsp]
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2927 ; 'You entered %d...'
    call printf
    jmp SHORT $LN1@main
$LN2@main:
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2929 ; 'What you entered? Huh?'
call printf
$LN1@main:
    ; return 0
        xor eax, eax
        add rsp,56
        ret 0
main ENDP
    TEXT ENDS
ENND
```


## ARM

ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

Listing 1.83: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
var 8 = -8
    PUSH {R3,LR}
    ADR R0, aEnterX ; "Enter X:\n"
    BL __ 2printf
    MOV R1, SP
    ADR R0, aD ; "%d"
    BL 0scanf
    CMP R0, #1
    BEQ loc 1E
    ADR R0, aWhatYouEntered ; "What you entered? Huh?\n"
    BL __ 2printf
```

loc_1A ; CODE XREF: main+26
MOVS R0, \#0
POP \{R3,PC\}
loc_1E ; CODE XREF: main+12
LDR R1, [SP,\#8+var 8]
ADR R0, aYouEnteredD__ ; "You entered \%d...\n"
BL 2printf
B loc 1A
1.9. $\operatorname{SCANF}()$

The new instructions here are CMP and $\mathrm{BEQ}^{80}$.
CMP is analogous to the x86 instruction with the same name, it subtracts one of the arguments from the other and updates the conditional flags if needed.
BEQ jumps to another address if the operands were equal to each other, or, if the result of the last computation has been 0 , or if the Z flag is 1 . It behaves as JZ in x 86 .

Everything else is simple: the execution flow forks in two branches, then the branches converge at the point where 0 is written into the R0 as a function return value, and then the function ends.

## ARM64

Listing 1.84: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
.LC0:
        .string "Enter X:"
.LC1:
        .string "%d"
.LC2:
    .string "You entered %d...\n"
.LC3:
    .string "What you entered? Huh?"
f6:
; save FP and LR in stack frame:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
; set stack frame (FP=SP)
    add x29, sp, 0
; load pointer to the "Enter X:" string:
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
    bl puts
; load pointer to the "%d" string:
    adrp x0, .LC1
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC1
; calculate address of x variable in the local stack
    add x1, x29, 28
    bl __isoc99_scanf
; scanf() returned result in W0.
; check it:
        cmp w0, 1
; BNE is Branch if Not Equal
; so if W0<>0, jump to L2 will be occurred
    bne .L2
; at this moment W0=1, meaning no error
; load x value from the local stack
        ldr w1, [x29,28]
; load pointer to the "You entered %d...\n" string:
        adrp x0, .LC2
        add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC2
        bl printf
; skip the code, which print the "What you entered? Huh?" string:
        b .L3
.L2:
; load pointer to the "What you entered? Huh?" string:
        adrp x0, .LC3
        add x0, x0, :lol2:.LC3
        bl puts
.L3:
; return 0
        mov w0, 0
; restore FP and LR:
        ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
        ret
```

Code flow in this case forks with the use of CMP/BNE (Branch if Not Equal) instructions pair.

[^42]Listing 1.85: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:004006A0 main:
.text:004006A0
.text:004006A0 var 18 = -0x18
.text:004006A0 var_10 = -0x10
.text:004006A0 var 4 = -4
.text:004006A0
.text:004006A0
.text:004006A4
.text:004006A8
.text:004006AC
.text:004006B0
.text:004006B4
.text:004006B8
.text:004006BC
.text:004006C0
.text:004006C4
.text:004006C8
.text:004006CC
.text:004006D0
.text:004006D4
.text:004006D8
.text:004006DC
.text:004006E0
.text:004006E4
.text:004006E8
.text:004006EC
.text:004006F0
.text:004006F4
.text:004006F8
.text:004006FC
.text:00400700
.text:00400704
.text:00400708
lui $gp, 0x42
addiu $sp, -0x28
li $gp, 0x418960
sw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
sw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
la $t9, puts
lui $a0, 0x40
jalr $t9 ; puts
la $a0, aEnterX # "Enter X:"
lw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
lui $a0, 0x40
la $t9, isoc99_scanf
la $a0, aD # "%d"
jalr $t9 ; __isoc99_scanf
addiu $a1, $\overline{sp}, 0x28+var_10 # branch delay slot
li $v1, 1
lw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
beq $v0, $v1, loc 40070C
or $at, $zero # branch delay slot, NOP
la $t9, puts
lui $a0, 0x40
jalr $t9 ; puts
la $a0, aWhatYouEntered # "What you entered? Huh?"
lw $ra, 0x28+var 4($sp)
move $v0, $zero
jr $ra
addiu $sp, 0x28
.text:0040070C loc_40070C:
.text:00400070C la $t9, printf
.text:00400710 lw $a1, 0x28+var_10($sp)
.text:00400714 lui $a0, 0x40
.text:00400718 jalr $t9 ; printf
.text:0040071C la $a0, aYouEnteredD___ # "You entered %d...\n"
.text:00400720 lw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
.text:00400724 move $v0, $zero
-text:00400724
jr $ra
addiu $sp, 0x28
.text:0040072C
```

scanf() returns the result of its work in register $\$$ V0. It is checked at address 0x004006E4 by comparing the values in \$V0 with \$V1 (1 has been stored in \$V1 earlier, at 0x004006DC). BEQ stands for "Branch Equal". If the two values are equal (i.e., success), the execution jumps to address $0 \times 0040070 \mathrm{C}$.

## Exercise

As we can see, the JNE/JNZ instruction can be easily replaced by the JE/JZ and vice versa (or BNE by BEQ and vice versa). But then the basic blocks must also be swapped. Try to do this in some of the examples.

### 1.9.5 Exercise

- http://challenges.re/53


### 1.10 Accessing passed arguments

Now we figured out that the caller function is passing arguments to the callee via the stack. But how does the callee access them?

Listing 1.86: simple example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int f (int a, int b, int c)
{
return a*b+c;
};
int main()
{
    printf ("%d\n", f(1, 2, 3));
    return 0;
};
```


## $1.10 .1 \times 86$

## MSVC

Here is what we get after compilation (MSVC 2010 Express):
Listing 1.87: MSVC 2010 Express

```
_TEXT SEGMENT
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
-b$ = 12 ; size = 4
c$ = 16 ; size = 4
-f PROC lob
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    imul eax, DWORD PTR -
    add eax, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f ENDP
_main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push 3 ; 3rd argument
    push 2 ; 2nd argument
    push 1 ; 1st argument
    call _f
    add esp, 12
    push eax
    push OFFSET $SG2463 ; '%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 8
    ; return 0
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebp
    ret 0
main ENDP
```

What we see is that the main() function pushes 3 numbers onto the stack and calls f(int,int,int).
Argument access inside $f()$ is organized with the help of macros like:
a\$ = 8, in the same way as local variables, but with positive offsets (addressed with plus). So, we are addressing the outer side of the stack frame by adding the _a\$ macro to the value in the EBP register.

Then the value of $a$ is stored into EAX. After IMUL instruction execution, the value in EAX is a product of the value in EAX and the content of _b.

After that, ADD adds the value in _c to EAX.
The value in EAX does not need to be moved: it is already where it must be. On returning to caller, it takes the EAX value and use it as an argument to printf().

## MSVC + OllyDbg

Let's illustrate this in OllyDbg. When we trace to the first instruction in f() that uses one of the arguments (first one), we see that EBP is pointing to the stack frame, which is marked with a red rectangle.

The first element of the stack frame is the saved value of EBP, the second one is RA, the third is the first function argument, then the second and third ones.
To access the first function argument, one needs to add exactly 8 (2 32-bit words) to EBP.
OllyDbg is aware about this, so it has added comments to the stack elements like
"RETURN from" and "Arg1 = ...", etc.
N.B.: Function arguments are not members of the function's stack frame, they are rather members of the stack frame of the caller function.

Hence, OllyDbg marked "Arg" elements as members of another stack frame.


Figure 1.23: OllyDbg: inside of $f()$ function

## GCC

Let's compile the same in GCC 4.4.1 and see the results in IDA:
Listing 1.88: GCC 4.4.1


```
retn
f endp
    public main
    proc near
var_10 = dword ptr -10h
var_C = dword ptr -0Ch
var_8 = dword ptr -8
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
    sub esp, 10h
    mov [esp+10h+var_8], 3 ; 3rd argument
    mov [esp+10h+var_C], 2 ; 2nd argument
    mov [esp+10h+var_10], 1 ; 1st argument
    call f
    mov edx, offset aD ; "%d\n"
    mov [esp+10h+var_C], eax
    mov [esp+10h+var_10], edx
    call printf
    mov eax, 0
    leave
    retn
main endp
```

The result is almost the same with some minor differences discussed earlier.
The stack pointer is not set back after the two function calls(f and printf), because the penultimate LEAVE ( .1.6 on page 1028) instruction takes care of this at the end.

### 1.10.2 $x 64$

The story is a bit different in x86-64. Function arguments (first 4 or first 6 of them) are passed in registers i.e. the callee reads them from registers instead of reading them from the stack.

## MSVC

Optimizing MSVC:
Listing 1.89: Optimizing MSVC $2012 \times 64$

```
$SG2997 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
main PROC
    sub rsp, 40
    mov edx, 2
    lea r8d, QWORD PTR [rdx+1] ; R8D=3
    lea ecx, QWORD PTR [rdx-1] ; ECX=1
    call f
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2997 ; '%d'
    mov edx, eax
    call printf
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 40
    ret 0
main ENDP
f PROC
    ; ECX - 1st argument
    ; EDX - 2nd argument
    ; R8D - 3rd argument
    imul ecx, edx
    lea eax, DWORD PTR [r8+rcx]
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

As we can see, the compact function $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{)}$ takes all its arguments from the registers.
The LEA instruction here is used for addition, apparently the compiler considered it faster than ADD.
LEA is also used in the main() function to prepare the first and third f() arguments. The compiler must have decided that this would work faster than the usual way of loading values into a register using MOV instruction.

Let's take a look at the non-optimizing MSVC output:
Listing 1.90: MSVC $2012 \times 64$

```
f proc near
; shadow space:
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
arg_8 = dword ptr 10h
arg_10 = dword ptr 18h
    ; ECX - 1st argument
    ; EDX - 2nd argument
    ; R8D - 3rd argument
    mov [rsp+arg_10], r8d
    mov [rsp+arg_8], edx
    mov [rsp+arg_0], ecx
    mov eax, [rsp+arg_0]
    imul eax, [rsp+arg_8]
    add eax, [rsp+arg_10]
    retn
    endp
proc near
sub rsp, 28h
mov r8d, 3 ; 3rd argument
mov edx, 2 ; 2nd argument
mov ecx, 1 ; 1st argument
call f
mov edx, eax
lea rcx, $SG2931 ; "%d\n"
call printf
; return 0
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 28h
retn
endp
```

It looks somewhat puzzling because all 3 arguments from the registers are saved to the stack for some reason. This is called "shadow space" ${ }^{81}$ : every Win64 may (but is not required to) save all 4 register values there. This is done for two reasons: 1) it is too lavish to allocate a whole register (or even 4 registers) for an input argument, so it will be accessed via stack; 2) the debugger is always aware where to find the function arguments at a break ${ }^{82}$.

So, some large functions can save their input arguments in the "shadows space" if they want to use them during execution, but some small functions (like ours) may not do this.

It is a caller responsibility to allocate "shadow space" in the stack.

## GCC

Optimizing GCC generates more or less understandable code:
Listing 1.91: Optimizing GCC $4.4 .6 \times 64$

```
f:
    ; EDI - 1st argument
    ; ESI - 2nd argument
    ; EDX - 3rd argument
```

[^43]```
imul esi, edi
    lea eax, [rdx+rsi]
    ret
```

main:
sub rsp, 8
mov edx, 3
mov esi, 2
mov edi, 1
call f
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "\%d\n"
mov esi, eax
xor eax, eax ; number of vector registers passed
call printf
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 8
ret

Non-optimizing GCC:
Listing 1.92: GCC 4.4.6 x64

```
f:
    ; EDI - 1st argument
    ; ESI - 2nd argument
; EDX - 3rd argument
    push rbp
    mov rbp, rsp
    mov DWORD PTR [rbp-4], edi
    mov DWORD PTR [rbp-8], esi
    mov DWORD PTR [rbp-12], edx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-4]
    imul eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-8]
    add eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-12]
    leave
    ret
main:
    push rbp
    mov rbp, rsp
    mov edx, 3
    mov esi, 2
    mov edi, 1
    call f
    mov edx, eax
    mov eax, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "%d\n"
    mov esi, edx
    mov rdi, rax
    mov eax, 0 ; number of vector registers passed
    call printf
    mov eax, 0
    leave
    ret
```

There are no "shadow space" requirements in System V *NIX ([Michael Matz, Jan Hubicka, Andreas Jaeger, Mark Mitchell, System V Application Binary Interface. AMD64 Architecture Processor Supplement, (2013)] ${ }^{83}$ ), but the callee may want to save its arguments somewhere in case of registers shortage.

## GCC: uint64_t instead of int

Our example works with 32-bit int, that is why 32-bit register parts are used (prefixed by E-).
It can be altered slightly in order to use 64-bit values:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f (uint64_t a, uint64_t b, uint64_t c)
```

[^44]```
{ return a*b+c;
};
int main()
{
    printf ("%lld\n", f(0x1122334455667788,
                                    0x111111111222222222,
                            0x3333333344444444));
    return 0;
};
```

Listing 1.93: Optimizing GCC 4.4.6 x64

```
f proc near
    imul rsi, rdi
    lea rax, [rdx+rsi]
    retn
f endp
main proc near
    sub rsp, 8
    mov rdx, 33333333444444444 ; 3rd argument
    mov rsi, 1111111122222222h ; 2nd argument
    mov rdi, 1122334455667788h ; 1st argument
    call f
    mov edi, offset format ; "%lld\n"
    mov rsi, rax
    xor eax, eax ; number of vector registers passed
    call _printf
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 8
    retn
main endp
```

The code is the same, but this time the full size registers (prefixed by R -) are used.

### 1.10.3 ARM

Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)


The main() function simply calls two other functions, with three values passed to the first one $-(f())$. As was noted before, in ARM the first 4 values are usually passed in the first 4 registers (R0-R3).

The f() function, as it seems, uses the first 3 registers (R0-R2) as arguments.
The MLA (Multiply Accumulate) instruction multiplies its first two operands (R3 and R1), adds the third operand (R2) to the product and stores the result into the zeroth register (R0), via which, by standard functions return values.

Multiplication and addition at once (Fused multiply-add) is a very useful operation. By the way, there was no such instruction in x86 before FMA-instructions appeared in SIMD ${ }^{84}$.

The very first MOV R3, R0, instruction is, apparently, redundant (a single MLA instruction could be used here instead). The compiler has not optimized it, since this is non-optimizing compilation.
The BX instruction returns the control to the address stored in the LR register and, if necessary, switches the processor mode from Thumb to ARM or vice versa. This can be necessary since, as we can see, function $f()$ is not aware from what kind of code it may be called, ARM or Thumb. Thus, if it gets called from Thumb code, BX is not only returns control to the calling function, but also switches the processor mode to Thumb. Or not switch, if the function has been called from ARM code $[A R M(R)$ Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R edition, (2012)A2.3.2].

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)



```
.text:0000009C 1E FF 2F E1 BX LR
```

And here is the $f()$ function compiled by the Keil compiler in full optimization mode ( -03 ).
The MOV instruction was optimized out (or reduced) and now MLA uses all input registers and also places the result right into R0, exactly where the calling function will read and use it.

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

| . text:00000005E 48 43 | MULS | R0, R1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:00000060 80 18 | ADDS | R0, R0, R2 |
| .text:00000062 70 47 | BX | LR |

The MLA instruction is not available in Thumb mode, so the compiler generates the code doing these two operations (multiplication and addition) separately.

First the MULS instruction multiplies R0 by R1, leaving the result in register R0. The second instruction (ADDS) adds the result and R2 leaving the result in register R0.

## ARM64

## Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

Everything here is simple. MADD is just an instruction doing fused multiply/add (similar to the MLA we already saw). All 3 arguments are passed in the 32-bit parts of X-registers. Indeed, the argument types are 32-bit int's. The result is returned in W0.

Listing 1.94: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
f:
    madd w0, w0, w1, w2
    ret
main:
; save FP and LR to stack frame:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -16]!
    mov w2, 3
    mov w1, 2
    add x29, sp, 0
    mov w0, 1
    bl f
    mov w1, w0
    adrp x0, .LC7
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC7
    bl printf
; return 0
```

[^45]mov wo, 0
; restore FP and LR
ldp x29, x30, [sp], 16
ret
.LC7:
.string "\%d\n"
Let's also extend all data types to 64-bit uint64 t and test:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f (uint64_t a, uint64_t b, uint64_t c)
{
};
int main()
{
    printf ("%lld\n", f(0x1122334455667788,
                                    0x1111111122222222,
                                    0x3333333344444444));
    return 0;
};
```

```
f: madd x0, x0, x1, x2
    ret
    mov x1, 13396
    adrp x0, .LC8
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -16]!
    movk x1, 0x27d0, lsl 16
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC8
    movk x1, 0x122, lsl 32
    add x29, sp, 0
    movk x1, 0x58be, lsl 48
    bl printf
    mov w0, 0
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 16
    ret
```

.LC8:
.string "\%lld\n"

The f() function is the same, only the whole 64-bit X-registers are now used. Long 64-bit values are loaded into the registers by parts, this is also described here: 1.32.3 on page 440.

## Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

The non-optimizing compiler is more redundant:


The code saves its input arguments in the local stack, in case someone (or something) in this function needs using the W0 . . . W2 registers. This prevents overwriting the original function arguments, which may be needed again in the future.

This is called Register Save Area. ([Procedure Call Standard for the ARM 64-bit Architecture (AArch64), $\left.(2013)]^{85}\right)$. The callee, however, is not obliged to save them. This is somewhat similar to "Shadow Space": 1.10.2 on page 100.

Why did the optimizing GCC 4.9 drop this argument saving code? Because it did some additional optimizing work and concluded that the function arguments will not be needed in the future and also that the registers W0 . . .W2 will not be used.

We also see a MUL/ADD instruction pair instead of single a MADD.

### 1.10.4 MIPS

Listing 1.95: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5

```
.text:000000000 f:
; \$a0=a
; \$a1=b
; \$a2=c
.text:00000000 mult \$a1, \$a0
.text:00000004 mflo \$v0
.text:00000008
text:0000000C
; result is in \$v0 upon return
.text:00000010 main:
.text:00000010
.text:00000010 var_10 = -0x10
.text:00000010 var_4 = -4
.text: 00000010
.text:000000010
.text:00000014
.text:00000018
.text:00000001C
.text:00000020
; set c:
.text:00000024
; set a:
.text:00000028
.text:0000002C
; set b:
.text:00000030 li \$a1, 2 ; branch delay slot
; result in \$v0 now
.text:00000034 lw \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$sp)
.text:00000038 lui \$a0, (\$LC0 >> 16)
.text:0000003C lw \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF)(\$gp)
.text:00000040 la \$a0, (\$LC0 \& 0xFFFF)
.text:00000044 jalr \$t9
; take result of \(f()\) function and pass it as a second argument to printf():
.text:00000048 move \$a1, \$v0 ; branch delay slot
.text:0000004C lw \$ra, 0x20+var_4(\$sp)
.text:00000050 move \$v0, \$zero
.text:00000054 jr \$ra
.text:00000058 addiu \$sp, 0x20 ; branch delay slot
```

The first four function arguments are passed in four registers prefixed by A-.
There are two special registers in MIPS: HI and LO which are filled with the 64-bit result of the multiplication during the execution of the MULT instruction.

These registers are accessible only by using the MFLO and MFHI instructions. MFLO here takes the low-part of the multiplication result and stores it into $\$ \mathrm{~V} 0$. So the high 32 -bit part of the multiplication result is dropped (the HI register content is not used). Indeed: we work with 32-bit int data types here.

Finally, ADDU ("Add Unsigned") adds the value of the third argument to the result.

[^46]There are two different addition instructions in MIPS: ADD and ADDU. The difference between them is not related to signedness, but to exceptions. ADD can raise an exception on overflow, which is sometimes useful ${ }^{86}$ and supported in Ada PL, for instance. ADDU does not raise exceptions on overflow.

Since C/C++ does not support this, in our example we see ADDU instead of ADD.
The 32-bit result is left in \$V0.
There is a new instruction for us in main (): JAL ("Jump and Link").
The difference between JAL and JALR is that a relative offset is encoded in the first instruction, while JALR jumps to the absolute address stored in a register ("Jump and Link Register").
Both $f()$ and main() functions are located in the same object file, so the relative address of $f()$ is known and fixed.

### 1.11 More about results returning

In x86, the result of function execution is usually returned ${ }^{87}$ in the EAX register. If it is byte type or a character (char), then the lowest part of register EAX (AL) is used. If a function returns a float number, the FPU register $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ is used instead. In ARM, the result is usually returned in the R0 register.

### 1.11.1 Attempt to use the result of a function returning void

So, what if the main ( ) function return value was declared of type void and not int? The so-called startupcode is calling main() roughly as follows:

```
push envp
push argv
push argc
call main
push eax
call exit
```

In other words:

```
exit(main(argc,argv,envp));
```

If you declare main() as void, nothing is to be returned explicitly (using the return statement), then something random, that has been stored in the EAX register at the end of main() becomes the sole argument of the exit() function. Most likely, there will be a random value, left from your function execution, so the exit code of program is pseudorandom.

We can illustrate this fact. Please note that here the main( ) function has a void return type:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
    printf ("Hello, world!\n");
};
```

Let's compile it in Linux.
GCC 4.8.1 replaced printf() with puts() (we have seen this before: 1.5.4 on page 21), but that's OK, since puts() returns the number of characters printed out, just like printf(). Please notice that EAX is not zeroed before main()'s end.

This implies that the value of EAX at the end of main() contains what puts() has left there.
Listing 1.96: GCC 4.8.1

```
.LC0:
    .string "Hello, world!"
main:
```

[^47]```
push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    and esp, -16
    sub esp, 16
    mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
    call puts
    leave
    ret
```

Let' s write a bash script that shows the exit status:
Listing 1.97: tst.sh

```
#!/bin/sh
./hello_world
echo $?
```

And run it:

```
$ tst.sh
Hello, world!
14
```

14 is the number of characters printed. The number of characters printed is slips from printf() through EAX/RAX into "exit code".

By the way, when we decompile C++ in Hex-Rays, we can often encounter a function which terminated with destructor of some class:

```
...
call ??1CString@@QAE@XZ ; CString::~CString(void)
mov ecx, [esp+30h+var C]
pop edi
pop ebx
mov large fs:0, ecx
add esp, 28h
retn
```

By C++ standard, destructor doesn't return anything, but when Hex-Rays don't know about it, and thinks that both destructor and this function returns int, we can see something like that in output:

```
return CString::~CString(&Str);
```

\}

### 1.11.2 What if we do not use the function result?

printf() returns the count of characters successfully output, but the result of this function is rarely used in practice.

It is also possible to call a function whose essence is in returning a value, and not use it:

```
int f()
{
    // skip first 3 random values:
    rand();
    rand();
    rand();
    // and use 4th:
    return rand();
};
```

The result of the rand() function is left in EAX, in all four cases.
But in the first 3 cases, the value in EAX is just not used.

### 1.11.3 Returning a structure

Let's go back to the fact that the return value is left in the EAX register.
That is why old C compilers cannot create functions capable of returning something that does not fit in one register (usually int), but if one needs it, one have to return information via pointers passed as function's arguments.
So, usually, if a function needs to return several values, it returns only one, and all the rest-via pointers.
Now it has become possible to return, let's say, an entire structure, but that is still not very popular. If a function has to return a large structure, the caller must allocate it and pass a pointer to it via the first argument, transparently for the programmer. That is almost the same as to pass a pointer in the first argument manually, but the compiler hides it.

Small example:

```
struct s
{
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
};
struct s get_some_values (int a)
{
    struct s rt;
    rt.a=a+1;
    rt.b=a+2;
    rt.c=a+3;
    return rt;
};
```

...what we got (MSVC 2010 /0x):

```
$T3853 = 8 ; size = 4
a$ = 12 ; size = 4
?get_some_values@@YA?AUs@@H@Z PROC ; get_some_values
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR a$[esp-4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR $T3853[esp-4]
    lea edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+1]
    mov DWORD PTR [eax], edx
    lea edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+2]
    add ecx, 3
    mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], edx
    mov DWORD PTR [eax+8], ecx
    ret 0
?get some values@@YA?AUs@@H@Z ENDP ; get some_values
```

The macro name for internal passing of pointer to a structure here is \$T3853.
This example can be rewritten using the C99 language extensions:

```
struct s
{
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
};
struct s get_some_values (int a)
{
    return (struct s){.a=a+1, .b=a+2, .c=a+3};
};
```

Listing 1.98: GCC 4.8.1

```
get_some_values proc near
```

```
ptr_to_struct = dword ptr 4
a = dword ptr 8
    mov edx, [esp+a]
    mov eax, [esp+ptr_to_struct]
    lea ecx, [edx+1]
    mov [eax], ecx
    lea ecx, [edx+2]
    add edx, 3
    mov [eax+4], ecx
    mov [eax+8], edx
    retn
get_some_values endp
```

As we see, the function is just filling the structure's fields allocated by the caller function, as if a pointer to the structure has been passed. So there are no performance drawbacks.

### 1.12 Pointers

### 1.12.1 Swap input values

This will do the job:

```
#include <memory.h>
#include <stdio.h>
void swap_bytes (unsigned char* first, unsigned char* second)
{
    unsigned char tmpl;
    unsigned char tmp2;
    tmpl=*first;
    tmp2=*second;
    *first=tmp2;
    *second=tmp1;
};
int main()
{
    // copy string into heap, so we will be able to modify it
    char *s=strdup("string");
    // swap 2nd and 3rd characters
    swap_bytes (s+1, s+2);
    printf ("%s\n", s);
};
```

As we can see, bytes are loaded into lower 8-bit parts of ECX and EBX using MOVZX (so higher parts of these registers will be cleared) and then bytes are written back swapped.

Listing 1.99: Optimizing GCC 5.4
swap_bytes:

| push | ebx |
| :--- | :--- |
| mov | edx, DWORD PTR [esp+8] |
| mov | eax, DWORD PTR [esp+12] |
| movzx | ecx, BYTE PTR [edx] |
| movzx | ebx, BYTE PTR [eax] |
| mov | BYTE PTR [edx], bl |
| mov | BYTE PTR [eax], cl |
| pop | ebx |

    pop
    ebx
    ret
    Addresses of both bytes are taken from arguments and through execution of the function are located in EDX and EAX.

So we use pointers: probably, there is no better way to solve this task without them.

### 1.12.2 Returning values

Pointers are often used to return values from functions (recall scanf() case ( 1.9 on page 66)).
For example, when a function needs to return two values

Global variables example

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f1 (int x, int y, int *sum, int *product)
{
    *sum=x+y;
    *product=x*y;
};
int sum, product;
void main()
{
    f1(123, 456, &sum, &product);
    printf ("sum=%d, product=%d\n", sum, product);
};
```

This compiles to:
Listing 1.100: Optimizing MSVC 2010 (/Ob0)

```
COMM _product:DWORD
COMM sum:DWORD
$SG2803 DB 'sum=%d, product=%d', 0aH, 00H
x$ = 8
y$ = 12 ; size = 4
sum$ = 16 ; size = 4
product$ = 20 ; size = 4
f1 PROC
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _y$[esp-4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR x$[esp-4]
    lea edx, DWORD PTR [eax+ecx]
    imul eax, ecx
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR product$[esp-4]
    push esi
    mov esi, DWORD PTR _sum$[esp]
    mov DWORD PTR [esi], edx
    mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
    pop esi
    ret 0
f1 ENDP
main PROC
    push OFFSET product
    push OFFSET _sum
    push 456 ; 000001c8H
    push 123 ; 00000007bH
    call _f1
    mov eax, DWORD PTR product
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR sum
    push eax
    push ecx
    push OFFSET $SG2803
    call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
    add esp, 28
    xor eax, eax
    ret 0
```

Let's see this in OllyDbg:


Figure 1.24: OllyDbg: global variables addresses are passed to f1()

First, global variables' addresses are passed to f1(). We can click "Follow in dump" on the stack element, and we can see the place in the data segment allocated for the two variables.
1.12. POINTERS

These variables are zeroed, because non-initialized data (from BSS) is cleared before the execution begins, [see ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007) 6.7.8p10].
They reside in the data segment, we can verify this by pressing Alt-M and reviewing the memory map:


Figure 1.25: OllyDbg: memory map

Let's trace (F7) to the start of f1():


Figure 1.26: OllyDbg: f1() starts

Two values are visible in the stack: 456 ( $0 \times 1 \mathrm{C} 8$ ) and 123 ( $0 \times 7 \mathrm{~B}$ ), and also the addresses of the two global variables.

Let's trace until the end of f1(). In the left bottom window we see how the results of the calculation appear in the global variables:


Figure 1.27: OllyDbg: f1() execution completed

Now the global variables' values are loaded into registers ready for passing to printf() (via the stack):


Figure 1.28: OllyDbg: global variables' values are passed into printf()

## Local variables example

Let's rework our example slightly:
Listing 1.101: now the sum and product variables are local

```
void main()
{
    int sum, product; // now variables are local in this function
    f1(123, 456, &sum, &product);
    printf ("sum=%d, product=%d\n", sum, product);
};
```

f1() code will not change. Only the code of main() will do:
Listing 1.102: Optimizing MSVC 2010 (/Ob0)

```
_product$ = -8
; size = 4
_sum$ = -4 ; size = 4
main PROC
; Line 10
            sub esp, 8
; Line 13
        lea eax, DWORD PTR _product$[esp+8]
        push eax
        lea ecx, DWORD PTR _sum$[esp+12]
        push ecx
        push 456 ; 000001c8H
        push 123 ; 00000007bH
        call _f1
; Line 14
        mov edx, DWORD PTR _product$[esp+24]
        mov eax, DWORD PTR _sum$[esp+24]
        push edx
        push eax
        push OFFSET $SG2803
        call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
; Line 15
        xor eax, eax
        add esp, 36
```

1.12. POINTERS

### 1.12. POINTERS

Let's look again with OllyDbg. The addresses of the local variables in the stack are 0x2EF854 and 0x2EF858.
We see how these are pushed into the stack:


Figure 1.29: OllyDbg: local variables' addresses are pushed into the stack
1.12. POINTERS
f1() starts. So far there is only random garbage in the stack at 0x2EF854 and 0x2EF858:


Figure 1.30: OllyDbg: f1() starting


Figure 1.31: OllyDbg: f1() completes execution

We now find $0 \times$ DB18 and $0 \times 243$ at addresses $0 \times 2$ EF854 and $0 \times 2$ EF858. These values are the f1() results.

## Conclusion

f1() could return pointers to any place in memory, located anywhere.
This is in essence the usefulness of the pointers.
By the way, C++ references work exactly the same way. Read more about them: ( 3.18 .3 on page 558 ).

### 1.13 GOTO operator

The GOTO operator is generally considered as anti-pattern, see [Edgar Dijkstra, Go To Statement Considered Harmful (1968) ${ }^{88}$ ]. Nevertheless, it can be used reasonably, see [Donald E. Knuth, Structured Programming with go to Statements (1974) $\left.{ }^{89}\right]^{90}$.

Here is a very simple example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf ("begin\n");
    goto exit;
    printf ("skip me!\n");
exit:
    printf ("end\n");
};
```

Here is what we have got in MSVC 2012:
Listing 1.103: MSVC 2012
\$SG2934 DB 'begin', 0aH, 00H

[^48]1.13. GOTO OPERATOR

```
$SG2936 DB 'skip me!', 0aH, 00H
$SG2937 DB 'end', 0aH, 00H
main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push OFFSET $SG2934 ; 'begin'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $exit$3
    push OFFSET $SG2936 ; 'skip me!'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
$exit$3:
    push OFFSET $SG2937 ; 'end'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebp
    ret 0
main
    ENDP
```

The goto statement has been simply replaced by a JMP instruction, which has the same effect: unconditional jump to another place. The second printf() could be executed only with human intervention, by using a debugger or by patching the code.

This could also be useful as a simple patching exercise. Let's open the resulting executable in Hiew:


Figure 1.32: Hiew

Place the cursor to address JMP ( $0 \times 410$ ), press F3 (edit), press zero twice, so the opcode becomes EB 00 :

| Hiew: goto.exe |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C: \Polygon\goto.exe | 3FWO EDITMODE | a32 PE 00000413 |
| 00000400: 55 | push e | ebp |
| 00000401: 8BEC | mov | ebp, esp |
| 00000403: 6800304000 | push | 000403000 ; @0 ' |
| 00000408: FF1590204000 | call d, | d, [000402090] |
| 0000040E: 83C404 | add es | esp, 4 |
| 00000411: EB00 | jmps | 000000413 |
| 00000413: 6808304000 | push | 000403008 ; ' @0回 |
| 00000418: FF1590204000 | call d, | d, [000402090] |
| 0000041E: 83C404 | add es | esp, 4 |
| 00000421: 6814304000 | push | 000403014 ; ' @0回' |
| 00000426: FF1590204000 | call d, | d, [000402090] |
| 0000042C: 83C404 | add | esp, 4 |
| 0000042F: 33C0 | xor ea | eax, eax |
| 00000431: 5D | pop | ebp |
| 00000432: C3 | retn ; -^_^_^ |  |

Figure 1.33: Hiew

The second byte of the JMP opcode denotes the relative offset for the jump, 0 means the point right after the current instruction.

So now JMP not skipping the second printf() call.
Press F9 (save) and exit. Now if we run the executable we will see this:
Listing 1.104: Patched executable output

```
C:\...>goto.exe
begin
skip me!
end
```

The same result could be achieved by replacing the JMP instruction with 2 NOP instructions.
NOP has an opcode of $0 \times 90$ and length of 1 byte, so we need 2 instructions as JMP replacement (which is 2 bytes in size).

### 1.13.1 Dead code

The second printf() call is also called "dead code" in compiler terms.
This means that the code will never be executed. So when you compile this example with optimizations, the compiler removes "dead code", leaving no trace of it:

Listing 1.105: Optimizing MSVC 2012

| \$SG2981 DB | 'begin', 0aH, 00H |
| :--- | :--- |
| \$SG2983 DB |  |
| \$SG2984 DB | 'skip me!', 0aH, 00H |
| 'end', 0aH, 00H |  |

$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { xor } & \text { eax, eax } \\ \text { ret } & 0\end{array}\right]$

However, the compiler forgot to remove the "skip me!" string.

### 1.13.2 Exercise

Try to achieve the same result using your favorite compiler and debugger.

### 1.14 Conditional jumps

### 1.14.1 Simple example

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f_signed (int a, int b)
{
    if (a>b)
        printf ("a>b\n");
    if (a==b)
        printf ("a==b\n");
    if (a<b)
        printf ("a<b\n");
};
void f_unsigned (unsigned int a, unsigned int b)
{
    if (a>b)
        printf ("a>b\n");
    if (a==b)
        printf ("a==b\n");
    if (a<b)
        printf ("a<b\n");
};
int main()
{
    f_signed(1, 2);
    f_unsigned(1, 2);
    rèturn 0;
};
```


## $\mathbf{x 8 6}$

x86 + MSVC

Here is how the f_signed() function looks like:
Listing 1.106: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010

```
a$ = 8
b$ = 12
_f_signed PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    cmp eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    jle SHORT $LN3@f_sig
    push OFFSET $SG737 ; 'a>b'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
```

```
$LN3@f_signed:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    cmp ecx, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
    jne SHORT $LN2@f_siḡned
    push OFFSET $SG739
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
$LN2@f_signed:
    mov edx, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    cmp edx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    jge SHORT $LN4@f_signed
    push OFFSET $SG741 ; 'a<b'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
$LN4@f_signed:
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f signed ENDP
```

The first instruction, JLE, stands for Jump if Less or Equal. In other words, if the second operand is larger or equal to the first one, the control flow will be passed to the address or label specified in the instruction. If this condition does not trigger because the second operand is smaller than the first one, the control flow would not be altered and the first printf( ) would be executed. The second check is JNE: Jump if Not Equal. The control flow will not change if the operands are equal.

The third check is JGE: Jump if Greater or Equal—jump if the first operand is larger than the second or if they are equal. So, if all three conditional jumps are triggered, none of the printf() calls would be executed whatsoever. This is impossible without special intervention. Now let's take a look at the f_unsigned() function. The f_unsigned() function is the same as f_signed(), with the exception that the JBE and JAE instructions are used instead of JLE and JGE, as follows:

Listing 1.107: GCC

```
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
b$ = 12 ; size = 4
f unsigned PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    cmp eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
    jbe SHORT $LN3@f_unsigned
    push OFFSET $SG2761 ; 'a>b'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
$LN3@f unsigned:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    cmp ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    jne SHORT $LN2@f_unsigned
    push OFFSET $SG2763 ; 'a==b'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
$LN2@f_unsigned:
    mov edx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    cmp edx, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
    jae SHORT $LN4@f_unsigned
    push OFFSET $SG2765 ; 'a<b'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
$LN4@f_unsigned:
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f_unsigned ENDP
```

As already mentioned, the branch instructions are different: JBE-Jump if Below or Equal and JAE-Jump if Above or Equal. These instructions (JA/JAE/JB/JBE) differ from JG/JGE/JL/JLE in the fact that they work with unsigned numbers.

See also the section about signed number representations ( 2.2 on page 452 ). That is why if we see JG/JL in use instead of JA/JB or vice-versa, we can be almost sure that the variables are signed or unsigned, respectively. Here is also the main( ) function, where there is nothing much new to us:

| main | PROC |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | push | 2 |
|  | push | 1 |
|  | call | f_signed |
|  | add | esp, 8 |
|  | push | 2 |
|  | push | 1 |
|  | call | f_unsigned |
|  | add | esp, 8 |
|  | xor | eax, eax |
|  | pop | ebp |
|  | ret | 0 |
| main | ENDP |  |
|  |  |  |

We can see how flags are set by running this example in OllyDbg. Let's begin with f_unsigned (), which works with unsigned numbers.
CMP is executed thrice here, but for the same arguments, so the flags are the same each time.
Result of the first comparison:


Figure 1.34: OllyDbg: f_unsigned(): first conditional jump
So, the flags are: $C=1, P=1, A=1, Z=0, S=1, T=0, D=0, O=0$.
They are named with one character for brevity in OllyDbg.
OllyDbg gives a hint that the (JBE) jump is to be triggered now. Indeed, if we take a look into Intel manuals ( 12.1.4 on page 1013), we can read there that JBE is triggering if $\mathrm{CF}=1$ or $\mathrm{ZF}=1$. The condition is true here, so the jump is triggered.


Figure 1.35: OllyDbg: f_unsigned(): second conditional jump

OllyDbg gives a hint that JNZ is to be triggered now. Indeed, JNZ triggering if $Z F=0$ (zero flag).


Figure 1.36: OllyDbg: f_unsigned ( ) : third conditional jump

In Intel manuals ( 12.1 .4 on page 1013) we can see that JNB triggers if CF=0 (carry flag). That is not true in our case, so the third printf() will execute.

Now let's review the f_signed () function, which works with signed values, in OllyDbg. Flags are set in the same way: $C=1, P=1, A=1, Z=0, S=1, T=0, D=0, O=0$. The first conditional jump JLE is to be triggered:


Figure 1.37: OllyDbg: f_signed(): first conditional jump

In Intel manuals ( 12.1 .4 on page 1013) we find that this instruction is triggered if $\mathrm{ZF}=1$ or $\mathrm{SF} \neq \mathrm{OF}$. $\mathrm{SF} \neq \mathrm{OF}$ in our case, so the jump triggers.

The second JNZ conditional jump triggering: if $\mathrm{ZF}=0$ (zero flag):


Figure 1.38: OllyDbg: f_signed() : second conditional jump

### 1.14. CONDITIONAL JUMPS

The third conditional jump JGE will not trigger because it would only do so if $\mathrm{SF}=\mathrm{OF}$, and that is not true in our case:


Figure 1.39: OllyDbg: f_signed (): third conditional jump

We can try to patch the executable file in a way that the $f$ _unsigned ( ) function would always print " $a==b$ ", no matter the input values. Here is how it looks in Hiew:


Figure 1.40: Hiew: f_unsigned() function

Essentially, we have to accomplish three tasks:

- force the first jump to always trigger;
- force the second jump to never trigger;
- force the third jump to always trigger.

Thus we can direct the code flow to always pass through the second printf(), and output "a==b".
Three instructions (or bytes) has to be patched:

- The first jump becomes JMP, but the jump offset would remain the same.
- The second jump might be triggered sometimes, but in any case it will jump to the next instruction, because, we set the jump offset to 0 .

In these instructions the jump offset is added to the address for the next instruction. So if the offset is 0 , the jump will transfer the control to the next instruction.

- The third jump we replace with JMP just as we do with the first one, so it will always trigger.

Here is the modified code:


Figure 1.41: Hiew: let's modify the f_unsigned() function

If we miss to change any of these jumps, then several printf() calls may execute, while we want to execute only one.

## Non-optimizing GCC

Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.1 produces almost the same code, but with puts() (1.5.4 on page 21 ) instead of printf().

## Optimizing GCC

An observant reader may ask, why execute CMP several times, if the flags has the same values after each execution?

Perhaps optimizing MSVC cannot do this, but optimizing GCC 4.8.1 can go deeper:
Listing 1.109: GCC 4.8.1 f_signed()
f_signed:

| mov | eax, DWORD PTR [esp+8] |
| :--- | :--- |
| cmp | DWORD PTR [esp+4], eax |
| jg | .L6 |
| je | .L7 |
| jge | .L1 |
| mov | DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC2 ; "a<b" |
| jmp | puts |
| mov | DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "a>b" |

    mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC1 ; "a==b"
    jmp puts
    We also see JMP puts here instead of CALL puts / RETN.
This kind of trick will have explained later: 1.15 .1 on page 154.
This type of $x 86$ code is somewhat rare. MSVC 2012 as it seems, can't generate such code. On the other hand, assembly language programmers are fully aware of the fact that Jcc instructions can be stacked.

So if you see such stacking somewhere, it is highly probable that the code was hand-written.
The f_unsigned() function is not that æsthetically short:
Listing 1.110: GCC 4.8.1 f_unsigned()

```
f_unsigned:
    push esi
    push ebx
    sub esp, 20
    mov esi, DWORD PTR [esp+32]
    mov ebx, DWORD PTR [esp+36]
    cmp esi, ebx
    ja .L13
    cmp esi, ebx ; this instruction could be removed
    je .L14
.L10:
    jb .L15
    add esp, 20
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    ret
.L15:
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+32], OFFSET FLAT:.LC2 ; "a<b"
    add esp, 20
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    jmp puts
.L13:
    mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "a>b"
    call puts
    cmp esi, ebx
    jne .L10
.L14:
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+32], OFFSET FLAT:.LC1 ; "a==b"
    add esp, 20
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    jmp puts
```

Nevertheless, there are two CMP instructions instead of three.
So optimization algorithms of GCC 4.8.1 are probably not perfect yet.

## ARM

## 32-bit ARM

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

Listing 1.111: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)


Many instructions in ARM mode could be executed only when specific flags are set. E.g. this is often used when comparing numbers.

For instance, the ADD instruction is in fact named ADDAL internally, where AL stands for Always, i.e., execute always. The predicates are encoded in 4 high bits of the 32-bit ARM instructions (condition field). The $B$ instruction for unconditional jumping is in fact conditional and encoded just like any other conditional jump, but has AL in the condition field, and it implies execute ALways, ignoring flags.

The ADRGT instruction works just like ADR but executes only in case the previous CMP instruction founds one of the numbers greater than the another, while comparing the two (Greater Than).

The next BLGT instruction behaves exactly as BL and is triggered only if the result of the comparison has been (Greater Than). ADRGT writes a pointer to the string a>b\n into R0 and BLGT calls printf(). Therefore, instructions suffixed with -GT are to execute only in case the value in R0 (which is a) is bigger than the value in R4 (which is $b$ ).

Moving forward we see the ADREQ and BLEQ instructions. They behave just like ADR and BL, but are to be executed only if operands were equal to each other during the last comparison. Another CMP is located before them (because the printf() execution may have tampered the flags).
Then we see LDMGEFD, this instruction works just like LDMFD ${ }^{91}$, but is triggered only when one of the values is greater or equal than the other (Greater or Equal). The LDMGEFD SP!, \{R4-R6,PC\} instruction acts like a function epilogue, but it will be triggered only if $a>=b$, and only then the function execution will finish.
But if that condition is not satisfied, i.e., $a<b$, then the control flow will continue to the next
"LDMFD SP!, $\{R 4-R 6, L R\}$ " instruction, which is one more function epilogue. This instruction restores not only the R4-R6 registers state, but also LR instead of PC, thus, it does not return from the function. The last two instructions call printf() with the string «a<b\n» as a sole argument. We already examined an unconditional jump to the printf() function instead of function return in «printf() with several arguments» section ( 1.8 .2 on page 54).
f_unsigned is similar, only the ADRHI, BLHI, and LDMCSFD instructions are used there, these predicates ( $H$ I = Unsigned higher, CS = Carry Set (greater than or equal)) are analogous to those examined before, but for unsigned values.

There is not much new in the main() function for us:
Listing 1.112: main()


[^49]1.14. CONDITIONAL JUMPS

That is how you can get rid of conditional jumps in ARM mode.
Why is this so good? Read here: 2.10.1 on page 466.
There is no such feature in x86, except the CMOVcc instruction, it is the same as M0V, but triggered only when specific flags are set, usually set by CMP.

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

Listing 1.113: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

| .text:00000072 | f_signed ; CODE XREF: main+6 |
| :---: | :---: |
| .text:00000072 70 B5 | PUSH \{R4-R6,LR\} |
| .text:00000074 0C 00 | MOVS R4, R1 |
| .text:00000076 0500 | MOVS R5, R0 |
| .text:00000078 A0 42 | CMP R0, R4 |
| .text:0000007A 02 DD | BLE loc_82 |
| .text:0000007C A4 A0 | ADR R0, $a$ AB ; "a>b\n" |
| .text:0000007E 06 F0 B7 F8 | BL __2printf |
| .text:00000082 |  |
| .text:00000082 | loc_82 ; CODE XREF: f_signed+8 |
| .text:00000082 A5 42 | CMP R5, R4 |
| .text:00000084 02 D1 | BNE loc_8C |
| .text:00000086 A4 A0 | ADR R0, aAB_0 ; "a==b\n" |
| .text:00000088 06 F0 B2 F8 | BL __2printf |
| .text:0000008C |  |
| .text:0000008C | loc_8C ; CODE XREF: f_signed+12 |
| .text:0000008C A5 42 | CMP R5, R4 |
| .text:0000008E 02 DA | BGE locret_96 |
| .text:00000090 A3 A0 | ADR R0, aAB_1 ; "a<b\n" |
| .text:00000092 06 F0 AD F8 | BL __2printf |
| .text:00000096 |  |
| .text:00000096 | locret_96 ; CODE XREF: f_signed+1C |
| .text:00000096 70 BD | POP \{R4-R6, PC \} |
| .text:00000096 | ; End of function f_signed |

Only B instructions in Thumb mode may be supplemented by condition codes, so the Thumb code looks more ordinary.

BLE is a normal conditional jump Less than or Equal, BNE—Not Equal, BGE—Greater than or Equal.
f_unsigned is similar, only other instructions are used while dealing with unsigned values: BLS (Unsigned lower or same) and BCS (Carry Set (Greater than or equal)).

## ARM64: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

Listing 1.114: f_signed()

```
f_signed:
; W0=a, W1=b
    cmp w0, w1 ; Branch if Greater Than (a>b)
    bgt .L19 ; Branch if Greater Than (a>b)
    beq .L20 ; Branch if Equal (a==b)
    bge .L15 ; Branch if Greater than or Equal (a>=b) (impossible here)
    ; a<b
    adrp x0,.LC11 ; "a<b"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC11
    b puts
.L19:
    adrp x0, .LC9 ; "a>b"
    add x0, x0, :lol2:.LC9
    b puts
.L15: ; impossible to get here
    ret
.L20:
    adrp x0, .LC10 ; "a==b"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC10
    b puts
```

```
f_unsigned:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -48]!
; W0=a, W1=b
    cmp w0, w1
    add x29, sp, 0
    str x19, [sp,16]
    mov w19, w0
    bhi .L25 ; Branch if HIgher (a>b)
    cmp w19, w1
    beq .L26 ; Branch if Equal (a==b)
.L23:
    bcc .L27 ; Branch if Carry Clear (if less than) (a<b)
; function epilogue, impossible to be here
    ldr x19, [sp,16]
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 48
    ret
.L27:
    ldr x19, [sp,16]
    adrp x0, .LC11 ; "a<b"
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 48
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC11
    b puts
.L25:
    adrp x0,.LC9 ; "a>b"
    str x1, [x29,40]
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC9
    bl puts
    ldr x1, [x29,40]
    cmp w19, w1
    bne .L23 ; Branch if Not Equal
.L26:
    ldr x19, [sp,16]
    adrp x0, .LC10 ; "a==b"
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 48
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC10
    b puts
```

The comments were added by the author of this book. What is striking is that the compiler is not aware that some conditions are not possible at all, so there is dead code at some places, which can never be executed.

## Exercise

Try to optimize these functions manually for size, removing redundant instructions, without adding new ones.

## MIPS

One distinctive MIPS feature is the absence of flags. Apparently, it was done to simplify the analysis of data dependencies.

There are instructions similar to SETcc in x86: SLT ("Set on Less Than": signed version) and SLTU (unsigned version). These instructions sets destination register value to 1 if the condition is true or to 0 if otherwise.

The destination register is then checked using BEQ ("Branch on Equal") or BNE ("Branch on Not Equal") and a jump may occur. So, this instruction pair has to be used in MIPS for comparison and branch. Let's first start with the signed version of our function:

Listing 1.116: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)

| .text:00000000 f_signed: |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:00000000 |  |  |
| .text:00000000 var_10 |  | $=-0 \times 10$ |
| .text:00000000 var_8 | $=-8$ |  |
| .text:00000000 var_4 | $=-4$ |  |

.text:00000000 arg_0 $=0$
.text:00000000 arg_4 = 4
.text:00000000
.text:00000000 addiu \$sp, -0x20
.text:00000004 sw \$ra, 0x20+var_4(\$sp)
.text:00000008 sw \$fp, 0x20+var_8(\$sp)
.text:0000000C
move $\quad \$ f p, \$ s p$
.text:00000010
.text:00000018
la \$gp, _gnu_local_gp
sw \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$sp)
; store input values into local stack:
.text:0000001C sw \$a0, 0x20+arg_0(\$fp)
.text:00000020 sw \$a1, 0x20+arg_4(\$fp)
; reload them.
.text:00000024 lw \$v1, 0x20+arg_0(\$fp)
.text:00000028 lw \$v0, 0x20+arg_4(\$fp)
; \$v0=b
; \$v1=a
.text:0000002C or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
; this is pseudoinstruction. in fact, "slt \$v0,\$v0,\$v1" is there.
; so $\$ v 0$ will be set to 1 if $\$ v 0<\$ v 1(b<a)$ or to 0 if otherwise:
.text:00000030 slt \$v0, \$v1
; jump to loc_5c, if condition is not true.
; this is pseudoinstruction. in fact, "beq \$v0,\$zero,loc_5c" is there:
.text:00000034 beqz \$v0, loc_5C
; print "a>b" and finish
.text:00000038 or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
.text:0000003C lui \$v0, (unk_230 >> 16) \# "a>b"
.text:00000040 addiu \$a0, \$v0, (unk 230 \& 0xFFFF) \# "a>b"
.text:00000044 lw \$v0, (puts \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp)
.text:00000048 or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
.text:0000004C
.text:00000050
.text:00000054
move \$t9, \$v0
jalr \$t9
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
.text: 00000058
lw \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$fp)
.text:0000005C
.text:0000005C loc_5C:
\# CODE XREF: f_signed+34
.text:0000005C lw \$v1, 0x20+arg_0(\$fp)
.text:00000060 lw \$v0, 0x20+arg_4(\$fp)
.text:00000064 or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
; check if $\mathrm{a}==\mathrm{b}$, jump to loc_90 if its not true':
.text:00000068 bne \$v1, \$v0, loc_90
.text:0000006C or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
; condition is true, so print "a==b" and finish:
.text:00000070 lui \$v0, (aAB >> 16) \# "a==b"
.text:00000074 addiu \$a0, \$v0, (aAB \& 0xFFFF) \# "a==b"
.text:00000078 lw \$v0, (puts \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp)
.text:0000007C or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
.text:00000080
.text:00000084
.text:00000088
move \$t9, \$v0
jalr \$t9
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
lw \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$fp)
.text:00000090
.text:00000090 loc_90:
\# CODE XREF: f_signed+68
.text:000000090
lw \$v1, 0x20+arg_0(\$fp)
.text:00000094 lw \$v0, 0x20+arg_4(\$fp)
.text:00000098 or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
; check if $\$ v 1<\$ v 0$ ( $\mathrm{a}<\mathrm{b}$ ), set $\$ \mathrm{v} 0$ to 1 if condition is true:
.text:0000009C slt \$v0, \$v1, \$v0
; if condition is not true (i.e., $\$ v 0==0$ ), jump to loc_c8:
.text:000000A0
.text:000000A4
; condition is true, print "a<b" and finish
.text:000000A8
.text: 0000000AC
.text:000000B0
.text:000000B4
.text:000000B8
.text:000000BC
.text: 000000C0
.text:000000C4

| lui | \$v0, (aAB 0 >> 16) \# "a<b" |
| :---: | :---: |
| addiu | \$a0, \$v0, (aAB_0 \& 0xFFFF) \# "a<b" |
| lw | \$v0, (puts \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) |
| or | \$at, \$zero ; NOP |
| move | \$t9, \$v0 |
| jalr | \$t9 |
| or | \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP |
| lw | \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$fp) |

```
.text:000000C8
; all 3 conditions were false, so just finish:
.text:000000C8 loc_C8: \# CODE XREF: f_signed+A0
.text:0000000C8
    move \(\$ \mathrm{sp}, \mathrm{\$ fp}\)
    lw \(\quad\) sra, \(0 \times 20+v a r \_4(\$ s p)\)
    lw \$fp, 0x20+var_8(\$sp)
    addiu \$sp, 0x20
    jr \$ra
    or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
.text:000000DC \# End of function f_signed
```

SLT REG0, REG0, REG1 is reduced by IDA to its shorter form:
SLT REG0, REG1.
We also see there BEQZ pseudo instruction ("Branch if Equal to Zero"),
which are in fact BEQ REG, \$ZERO, LABEL.
The unsigned version is just the same, but SLTU (unsigned version, hence " $U$ " in name) is used instead of SLT:

Listing 1.117: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
.text:0000000E0 f_unsigned:
\# CODE XREF: main+28
.text:000000E0
.text:000000E0
var_10 = -0x10
.text:000000E0 var \(8=-8\)
.text:000000E0 var_4 \(=-4\)
.text:000000E0 arg_0 \(=0\)
.text:000000E0 arg_4 = 4
.text:000000E0
.text:000000E0
.text:000000E4
.text:000000E8
.text:0000000EC
.text:000000F0
.text:000000F8
.text:0000000FC
.text:00000100
.text:000000104
.text:00000108
.text:0000010C
.text:00000110
.text:00000114
.text:00000118
.text:0000011C
.text:00000120
.text:00000124
.text:00000128
.text:0000012C
.text:000000130
.text:00000134
.text:00000138
.text:0000013C
.text:0000013C loc_13C:
.text:00000013C
.text:000000140
.text:00000144
.text:00000148
.text:0000014C
.text:00000150
.text:00000154
.text:000000158
.text:0000015C
.text:00000160
.text:00000164
.text:00000168
.text:00000016C
.text:000000170
.text:00000170 loc_170:
.text:00000170
.text:00000174
```

```
addiu $sp, -0x20
```

addiu \$sp, -0x20
sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
sw
sw
move \$fp, \$sp
move \$fp, \$sp
la \$gp, _gnu_local_gp
la \$gp, _gnu_local_gp
la \$gp, gnu_local_gp
la \$gp, gnu_local_gp
sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
sw $a0, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
sw $a0, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
sw $a1, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
sw $a1, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
sltu \$v0, \$v1
sltu \$v0, \$v1
beqz \$v0, loc_13C
beqz \$v0, loc_13C
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
lui \$v0, (unk_230 >> 16)
lui \$v0, (unk_230 >> 16)
addiu \$a0, \$v0, (unk_230 \& 0xFFFF)
addiu \$a0, \$v0, (unk_230 \& 0xFFFF)
lw $v0, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
lw $v0, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
move \$t9, \$v0
move \$t9, \$v0
jalr \$t9
jalr \$t9
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($fp)
lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($fp)

```
sw $fp, 0x20+var-8($sp)
```

sw $fp, 0x20+var-8($sp)
\# CODE XREF: f unsigned+34
\# CODE XREF: f unsigned+34
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
bne \$v1, \$v0, loc_170
bne \$v1, \$v0, loc_170
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
lui \$v0, (aAB >> 16) \# "a==b"
lui \$v0, (aAB >> 16) \# "a==b"
addiu \$a0, \$v0, (aAB \& 0xFFFF) \# "a==b"
addiu \$a0, \$v0, (aAB \& 0xFFFF) \# "a==b"
lw $v0, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
lw $v0, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
move \$t9, \$v0
move \$t9, \$v0
jalr \$t9
jalr \$t9
or \$at, \$zero
or \$at, \$zero
lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($fp)
lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($fp)
\# CODE XREF: f unsigned+68
\# CODE XREF: f unsigned+68
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v1, 0x20+arg_0($fp)
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)

```
lw $v0, 0x20+arg_4($fp)
```

| .text:00000178 | or | \$at, | \$zero |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| .text:0000017C | sltu | \$v0, | \$v1, \$v0 |  |
| .text:00000180 | beqz | \$v0, | loc_1A8 |  |
| . text:00000184 | or | \$at, | \$zero |  |
| . text:00000188 | lui | \$v0, | (aAB_0 >> 16) \# "a<b" |  |
| .text:0000018C | addiu | \$a0, | \$v0, (aAB_0 \& 0xFFFF) | "a<b" |
| . text:00000190 | lw | \$v0, | (puts \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) |  |
| . text:00000194 | or | \$at, | \$zero |  |
| .text:00000198 | move | \$t9, | \$v0 |  |
| . text:0000019C | jalr | \$t9 |  |  |
| . text:000001A0 | or | \$at, | \$zero |  |
| . text:000001A4 | lw | \$gp, | 0x20+var_10(\$fp) |  |
| .text:000001A8 |  |  |  |  |
| .text:000001A8 loc_1A8: |  |  | \# CODE XREF: | f_uns |
| . text:000001A8 | move | \$sp, |  |  |
| . text:000001AC | lw | \$ra, | 0x20+var_4(\$sp) |  |
| . text:000001B0 | lw | \$fp, | $0 \times 20+v a r \_8(\$ s p)$ |  |
| . text:000001B4 | addiu | \$sp, | $0 \times 20$ |  |
| . text:000001B8 | jr | \$ra |  |  |
| . text:000001BC | or | \$at, | \$zero |  |
| .text:000001BC \# End of | on f_u | igne |  |  |

### 1.14.2 Calculating absolute value

A simple function:

```
int my_abs (int i)
{
    if (i<0)
        return -i;
    else
        return i;
};
```


## Optimizing MSVC

This is how the code is usually generated:
Listing 1.118: Optimizing MSVC $2012 \times 64$

```
i$ = 8
my abs PROC
; ECX = input
    test ecx, ecx
; check for sign of input value
; skip NEG instruction if sign is positive
    jns SHORT $LN2@my_abs
; negate value
    neg ecx
$LN2@my abs:
; prepare result in EAX:
    mov eax, ecx
    ret 0
my abs ENDP
```

GCC 4.9 does mostly the same.

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013: Thumb mode

Listing 1.119: Optimizing Keil 6/2013: Thumb mode

```
my abs PROC
    CMP r0,#0
; is input value equal to zero or greater than zero?
```

```
; skip RSBS instruction then
    BGE |L0.6|
; subtract input value from 0:
    RSBS r0,r0,#0
|L0.6|
    BX lr
    ENDP
```

ARM lacks a negate instruction, so the Keil compiler uses the "Reverse Subtract" instruction, which just subtracts with reversed operands.

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013: ARM mode

It is possible to add condition codes to some instructions in ARM mode, so that is what the Keil compiler does:

Listing 1.120: Optimizing Keil 6/2013: ARM mode

```
my_abs PROC
    CMP r0,#0
; execute "Reverse Subtract" instruction only if input value is less than 0:
    RSBLT r0,r0,#0
    BX lr
    ENDP
```

Now there are no conditional jumps and this is good: 2.10.1 on page 466.

## Non-optimizing GCC 4.9 (ARM64)

ARM64 has instruction NEG for negating:
Listing 1.121: Optimizing GCC 4.9 (ARM64)
my_abs:

| sub | sp, $s p, \# 16$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| str | $w 0,[s p, 12]$ |
| ldr | $w 0,[s p, 12]$ |

; compare input value with contents of WZR register
; (which always holds zero)
cmp w0, wzr
bge .L2
ldr $\quad w 0,[s p, 12]$
neg w0, w0
b .L3
.L2:
ldr w0, [sp,12]
.L3:
add $\mathrm{sp}, \mathrm{sp}, 16$
ret

## MIPS

Listing 1.122: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
my_abs:
; jump if $a0<0:
    bltz $a0, locret 10
; just return input value ($a0) in $v0:
    move $v0, $a0
    jr $ra
    or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
locret 10:
; negate input value and store it in $v0:
    jr $ra
; this is pseudoinstruction. in fact, this is "subu $v0,$zero,$a0" ($v0=0-$a0)
    negu $v0, $a0
```

1.14. CONDITIONAL JUMPS

Here we see a new instruction: BLTZ ("Branch if Less Than Zero").
There is also the NEGU pseudo instruction, which just does subtraction from zero. The "U" suffix in both SUBU and NEGU implies that no exception to be raised in case of integer overflow.

## Branchless version?

You could have also a branchless version of this code. This we will review later: 3.13 on page 518.

### 1.14.3 Ternary conditional operator

The ternary conditional operator in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ has the following syntax:

```
expression ? expression : expression
```

Here is an example:

```
const char* f (int a)
{
    return a==10 ? "it is ten" : "it is not ten";
};
```

x86

Old and non-optimizing compilers generate assembly code just as if an if/else statement was used:
Listing 1.123: Non-optimizing MSVC 2008

```
$SG746 DB 'it is ten', 00H
$SG747 DB 'it is not ten', 00H
tv65 = -4 ; this will be used as a temporary variable
a$ = 8
f PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ecx
; compare input value with 10
    cmp DWORD PTR a$[ebp], 10
; jump to $LN3@f if not equal
    jne SHORT $LN3@f
; store pointer to the string into temporary variable:
    mov DWORD PTR tv65[ebp], OFFSET $SG746 ; 'it is ten'
; jump to exit
    jmp SHORT $LN4@f
$LN3@f:
; store pointer to the string into temporary variable:
    mov DWORD PTR tv65[ebp], OFFSET $SG747 ; 'it is not ten'
$LN4@f:
; this is exit. copy pointer to the string from temporary variable to EAX.
    mov eax, DWORD PTR tv65[ebp]
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

Listing 1.124: Optimizing MSVC 2008

```
$SG792 DB 'it is ten', 00H
$SG793 DB 'it is not ten', 00H
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
; compare input value with 10
    cmp DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], 10
```

```
    mov eax, OFFSET $SG792 ; 'it is ten'
jump to $LN4@f if equal
    je SHORT $LN4@f
    mov eax, OFFSET $SG793 ; 'it is not ten'
$LN4@f
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

Newer compilers are more concise:
Listing 1.125: Optimizing MSVC $2012 \times 64$

```
$SG1355 DB 'it is ten', 00H
$SG1356 DB 'it is not ten', 00H
a$ = 8
f PROC
; load pointers to the both strings
    lea rdx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1355 ; 'it is ten'
    lea rax, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1356 ; 'it is not ten'
; compare input value with 10
    cmp ecx, 10
; if equal, copy value from RDX ("it is ten")
; if not, do nothing. pointer to the string "it is not ten" is still in RAX as for now.
    cmove rax, rdx
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

Optimizing GCC 4.8 for x86 also uses the CMOVcc instruction, while the non-optimizing GCC 4.8 uses conditional jumps.

## ARM

Optimizing Keil for ARM mode also uses the conditional instructions ADRcc:
Listing 1.126: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
f PROC
; compare input value with 10
    CMP r0,#0xa
; if comparison result is EQual, copy pointer to the "it is ten" string into R0
    ADREQ r0,|L0.16| ; "it is ten"
; if comparison result is Not Equal, copy pointer to the "it is not ten" string into R0
    ADRNE r0,|L0.28| ; "it is not ten"
    BX lr
    ENDP
```

|L0.16|
DCB "it is ten",0
|L0.28|
DCB "it is not ten",0

Without manual intervention, the two instructions ADREQ and ADRNE cannot be executed in the same run. Optimizing Keil for Thumb mode needs to use conditional jump instructions, since there are no load instructions that support conditional flags:

Listing 1.127: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
f PROC
; compare input value with 10
    CMP r0,#0xa
jump to |L0.8| if EQual
    BEQ |L0.8|
    ADR r0,|L0.12| ; "it is not ten"
    BX lr
|L0.8|
    ADR r0,|L0.28| ; "it is ten"
    BX
    ENDP
```

```
|L0.12|
DCB "it is not ten",0
|L0.28|
    DCB "it is ten",0
```


## ARM64

Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9 for ARM64 also uses conditional jumps:
Listing 1.128: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9


That is because ARM64 does not have a simple load instruction with conditional flags, like ADRcc in 32-bit ARM mode or CMOVcc in x86.

It has, however, "Conditional SELect" instruction (CSEL)[ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv8, for ARMv8-A architecture profile, (2013)p390, C5.5], but GCC 4.9 does not seem to be smart enough to use it in such piece of code.

## MIPS

Unfortunately, GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS is not very smart, either:
Listing 1.129: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (assembly output)

```
$LC0:
    .ascii "it is not ten\000"
$LC1:
    .ascii "it is ten\000"
f:
; compare $a0 and 10, jump if equal:
    beq $4,$2,$L2
    nop ; branch delay slot
; leave address of "it is not ten" string in $v0 and return:
    lui $2,%hi($LC0)
    j $31
    addiu $2,$2,%lo($LC0)
$L2:
; leave address of "it is ten" string in $v0 and return:
    lui $2,%hi($LC1)
    j $31
    addiu $2,$2,%lo($LC1)
```


## Let's rewrite it in an if/else way

```
const char* f (int a)
{
    if (a==10)
        return "it is ten";
    else
        return "it is not ten";
};
```

Interestingly, optimizing GCC 4.8 for $x 86$ was also able to use CMOVcc in this case:
Listing 1.130: Optimizing GCC 4.8

```
.LC0:
    .string "it is ten"
.LC1:
    .string "it is not ten"
f:
.LFB0
; compare input value with 10
    cmp DWORD PTR [esp+4], 10
    mov edx, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1 ; "it is not ten"
    mov eax, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "it is ten"
; if comparison result is Not Equal, copy EDX value to EAX
; if not, do nothing
    cmovne eax, edx
    ret
```

Optimizing Keil in ARM mode generates code identical to listing.1.126.
But the optimizing MSVC 2012 is not that good (yet).

## Conclusion

Why optimizing compilers try to get rid of conditional jumps? Read here about it: 2.10.1 on page 466.

### 1.14.4 Getting minimal and maximal values

## 32-bit

```
int my max(int a, int b)
{
    if (a>b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
};
int my min(int a, int b)
{
    if (a<b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
};
```

Listing 1.131: Non-optimizing MSVC 2013

```
a$ = 8
b$ = 12
my_min PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov
    eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
; compare A and B:
    cmp eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
jump, if A is greater or equal to B:
```

```
    jge SHORT $LN2@my min
; reload A to EAX if otherwise and jump to exit
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    jmp SHORT $LN3@my_min
    jmp SHORT $LN3@my_min ; this is redundant JMP
$LN2@my min:
; return B
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
$LN3@my min:
    pop ebp
    ret 0
my min ENDP
a$ = 8
b$ = 12
my_max PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
; compare A and B:
    cmp eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
; jump if A is less or equal to B:
    jle SHORT $LN2@my_max
; reload A to EAX if otherwise and jump to exit
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    jmp SHORT $LN3@my_max
    jmp SHORT $LN3@my_max ; this is redundant JMP
$LN2@my max:
; return B
    mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
$LN3@my max:
    pop ebp
    ret 0
    my max ENDP
```

These two functions differ only in the conditional jump instruction: JGE ("Jump if Greater or Equal") is used in the first one and JLE ("Jump if Less or Equal") in the second.

There is one unneeded JMP instruction in each function, which MSVC presumably left by mistake.

## Branchless

ARM for Thumb mode reminds us of $\times 86$ code:
Listing 1.132: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
my_max PROC
; R0=A
; R1=B
; compare A and B:
    CMP r0,r1
; branch if A is greater then B:
    BGT |L0.6|
; otherwise (A<=B) return R1 (B):
    MOVS r0,r1
|L0.6|
; return
    BX lr
    ENDP
my min PROC
; R0=A
    R1=B
; compare A and B:
    CMP r0,r1
; branch if A is less then B:
    BLT |L0.14|
; otherwise (A>=B) return R1 (B):
    MOVS r0,r1
```

|L0.14|
; return

```
BX ENDP
```

The functions differ in the branching instruction: BGT and BLT. It's possible to use conditional suffixes in ARM mode, so the code is shorter.

MOVcc is to be executed only if the condition is met:
Listing 1.133: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
my max PROC
; R0=A
; R1=B
; compare A and B:
    CMP r0,r1
; return B instead of A by placing B in R0
; this instruction will trigger only if A<=B (hence, LE - Less or Equal)
; if instruction is not triggered (in case of A>B), A is still in R0 register
MOVLE r0,r1
BX lr
ENDP
my min PROC
; R0=A
; R1=B
; compare A and B:
CMP r0,r1
; return B instead of A by placing B in R0
; this instruction will trigger only if A>=B (hence, GE - Greater or Equal)
; if instruction is not triggered (in case of A<B), A value is still in R0 register
MOVGE r0,r1
BX lr
ENDP
```

Optimizing GCC 4.8.1 and optimizing MSVC 2013 can use CMOVcc instruction, which is analogous to MOVcc in ARM:

Listing 1.134: Optimizing MSVC 2013

```
my_max:
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
; EDX=A
; EAX=B
; compare A and B:
    cmp edx, eax
; if A>=B, load A value into EAX
; the instruction idle if otherwise (if A<B)
    cmovge eax, edx
    ret
my_min:
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
; EDX=A
; EAX=B
; compare A and B:
    cmp edx, eax
; if A<=B, load A value into EAX
; the instruction idle if otherwise (if A>B)
    cmovle eax, edx
    ret
```


## 64-bit

```
#include <stdint.h>
```

```
int64_t my_max(int64_t a, int64_t b)
{
    if (a>b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
};
int64_t my_min(int64_t a, int64_t b)
{
    if (a<b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
};
```

There is some unneeded value shuffling, but the code is comprehensible:

## Listing 1.135: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

my_max:

| sub | sp, $s p, \# 16$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| str | x0, $[s p, 8]$ |
| str | $x 1,[s p]$ |
| ldr | $x 1,[s p, 8]$ |
| ldr | $x 0,[s p]$ |
| cmp | $x 1, x 0$ |
| ble | .L2 |
| ldr | $x 0,[s p, 8]$ |
| b | .L3 |
| ldr | $x 0,[s p]$ |
| add | $s p, s p, 16$ |
| ret |  |

my min:
sub sp, sp, \#16
str x0, [sp,8]
str x1, [sp]
ldr $x 1,[s p, 8]$
ldr $x 0,[s p]$
cmp $x 1, x 0$
bge .L5
ldr $x 0,[s p, 8]$
b .L6
.L5:
ldr x0, [sp]
.L6:
add $s p, s p, 16$

## Branchless

No need to load function arguments from the stack, as they are already in the registers:
Listing 1.136: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64

```
my_max:
; \overline{RDI=A}
; RSI=B
; compare A and B:
    cmp rdi, rsi
; prepare B in RAX for return:
    mov rax, rsi
; if A>=B, put A (RDI) in RAX for return.
; this instruction is idle if otherwise (if A<B)
```

```
cmovge rax, rdi
    ret
my min:
; RDI=A
; RSI=B
; compare \(A\) and \(B\) :
    cmp rdi, rsi
; prepare B in RAX for return:
    mov rax, rsi
; if \(A<=B\), put \(A(R D I)\) in RAX for return.
; this instruction is idle if otherwise (if A>B)
    cmovle rax, rdi
    ret
```

MSVC 2013 does almost the same.
ARM64 has the CSEL instruction, which works just as MOVcc in ARM or CMOVcc in x86, just the name is different: "Conditional SELect".

Listing 1.137: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
my max:
; X0=A
; X1=B
; compare A and B:
cmp x0, x1
; select X0 (A) to X0 if X0>=X1 or A>=B (Greater or Equal)
; select X1 (B) to X0 if A<B
csel x0, x0, x1, ge
    ret
my_min:
; 的0=A
; X1=B
; compare A and B:
cmp x0, x1
; select X0 (A) to X0 if X0<=X1 or A<=B (Less or Equal)
; select X1 (B) to X0 if A>B
    csel x0, x0, x1, le
    ret
```


## MIPS

Unfortunately, GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS is not that good:
Listing 1.138: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
my_max:
; set $v1 to 1 if $al<$a0, or clear otherwise (if $al>$a0):
    slt $v1, $a1, $a0
; jump, if $v1 is 0 (or $al>$a0):
    beqz $v1, locret_10
; this is branch delay slot
; prepare $al in $v0 in case of branch triggered:
    move $v0, $a1
; no branch triggered, prepare $a0 in $v0:
    move $v0, $a0
locret_10:
        jr $ra
my_min:
```

```
slt $v1, $a0, $a1
```

slt \$v1, \$a0, \$a1
beqz \$v1, locret 28
beqz \$v1, locret 28
move \$v0, \$a1
move \$v0, \$a1
move \$v0, \$a0

```
move $v0, $a0
```

        or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
    ; the min() function is same, but input operands in SLT instruction are swapped:
locret_28:

```
jr $ra 
```

Do not forget about the branch delay slots: the first MOVE is executed before BEQZ, the second MOVE is executed only if the branch hasn't been taken.

### 1.14.5 Conclusion

## $\times 86$

Here's the rough skeleton of a conditional jump:
Listing 1.139: x86

```
CMP register, register/value
Jcc true ; cc=condition code
false:
... some code to be executed if comparison result is false ...
JMP exit
true:
... some code to be executed if comparison result is true ...
exit:
```


## ARM

Listing 1.140: ARM

```
CMP register, register/value
Bcc true ; cc=condition code
false:
... some code to be executed if comparison result is false ...
JMP exit
true:
... some code to be executed if comparison result is true ...
exit:
```


## MIPS

Listing 1.141: Check for zero
BEQZ REG, label
..

Listing 1.142: Check for less than zero using pseudoinstruction
BLTZ REG, label
...

Listing 1.143: Check for equal values
BEQ REG1, REG2, label
. .

Listing 1.144: Check for non-equal values
BNE REG1, REG2, label
. .

Listing 1.145: Check for less than (signed)

```
SLT REG1, REG2, REG3
```

BEQ REG1, label

SLTU REG1, REG2, REG3
BEQ REG1, label
...

## Branchless

If the body of a condition statement is very short, the conditional move instruction can be used: MOVcc in ARM (in ARM mode), CSEL in ARM64, CMOVcc in x86.

## ARM

It's possible to use conditional suffixes in ARM mode for some instructions:
Listing 1.147: ARM (ARM mode)

```
CMP register, register/value
instrl_cc ; some instruction will be executed if condition code is true
instr2_cc ; some other instruction will be executed if other condition code is true
... etc...
```

Of course, there is no limit for the number of instructions with conditional code suffixes, as long as the CPU flags are not modified by any of them.

Thumb mode has the IT instruction, allowing to add conditional suffixes to the next four instructions. Read more about it: 1.19.7 on page 263 .

Listing 1.148: ARM (Thumb mode)

```
CMP register, register/value
ITEEE EQ ; set these suffixes: if-then-else-else-else
instr1 ; instruction will be executed if condition is true
instr2 ; instruction will be executed if condition is false
instr3 ; instruction will be executed if condition is false
instr4 ; instruction will be executed if condition is false
```


### 1.14.6 Exercise

(ARM64) Try rewriting the code in listing.1.128 by removing all conditional jump instructions and using the CSEL instruction.

### 1.15 switch()/case/default

### 1.15.1 Small number of cases

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f (int a)
{
    switch (a)
    {
    case 0: printf ("zero\n"); break;
    case 1: printf ("one\n"); break;
    case 2: printf ("two\n"); break;
    default: printf ("something unknown\n"); break;
    };
};
int main()
{
```


## Non-optimizing MSVC

Result (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.149: MSVC 2010

```
tv64 = -4 ; size = 4
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], eax
    cmp DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], 0
    je SHORT $LN4@f
    cmp DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], 1
    je SHORT $LN3@f
    cmp DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], 2
    je SHORT $LN2@f
    jmp SHORT $LN1@f
$LN4@f:
    push OFFSET $SG739 ; 'zero', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN7@f
$LN3@f:
    push OFFSET $SG741 ; 'one', 0aH, 00H
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN7@f
$LN2@f:
    push OFFSET $SG743 ; 'two', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN7@f
$LN1@f:
    push OFFSET $SG745 ; 'something unknown', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
$LN7@f:
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

Our function with a few cases in switch() is in fact analogous to this construction:

```
void f (int a)
{
    if (a==0)
        printf ("zero\n");
    else if (a==1)
        printf ("one\n");
    else if (a==2)
        printf ("two\n");
    else
        printf ("something unknown\n");
};
```

If we work with switch() with a few cases it is impossible to be sure if it was a real switch() in the source code, or just a pack of if() statements.

This implies that switch() is like syntactic sugar for a large number of nested if()s.
There is nothing especially new to us in the generated code, with the exception of the compiler moving input variable $a$ to a temporary local variable tv64 ${ }^{92}$.
If we compile this in GCC 4.4.1, we'll get almost the same result, even with maximal optimization turned on (-03 option).

## Optimizing MSVC

Now let's turn on optimization in MSVC (/0x): cl 1.c /Fa1.asm /0x
Listing 1.150: MSVC

```
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    sub eax, 0
    je SHORT $LN4@f
    sub eax, 1
    je SHORT $LN3@f
    sub eax, 1
    je SHORT $LN2@f
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG791 ; 'something unknown', 0aH, 00H
    jmp _printf
$LN2@f:
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG789 ; 'two', 0aH, 00H
    jmp _printf
$LN3@f:
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG787 ; 'one', 0aH, 00H
    jmp _printf
$LN4@f:
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG785 ; 'zero', 0aH, 00H
    jmp _printf
f ENDP
```

Here we can see some dirty hacks.
First: the value of $a$ is placed in EAX and 0 is subtracted from it. Sounds absurd, but it is done to check if the value in EAX is 0 . If yes, the $Z F$ flag is to be set (e.g. subtracting from 0 is 0 ) and the first conditional jump JE (Jump if Equal or synonym JZ -Jump if Zero) is to be triggered and control flow is to be passed to the \$LN4@f label, where the 'zero' message is being printed. If the first jump doesn't get triggered, 1 is subtracted from the input value and if at some stage the result is 0 , the corresponding jump is to be triggered.

And if no jump gets triggered at all, the control flow passes to printf() with string argument
'something unknown'.
Second: we see something unusual for us: a string pointer is placed into the $a$ variable, and then printf() is called not via CALL, but via JMP. There is a simple explanation for that: the caller pushes a value to the stack and calls our function via CALL. CALL itself pushes the return address (RA) to the stack and does an unconditional jump to our function address. Our function at any point of execution (since it do not contain any instruction that moves the stack pointer) has the following stack layout:

- ESP—points to RA
- ESP+4—points to the $a$ variable

On the other side, when we have to call printf() here we need exactly the same stack layout, except for the first printf() argument, which needs to point to the string. And that is what our code does.
It replaces the function's first argument with the address of the string and jumps to printf(), as if we didn't call our function $f()$, but directly printf(). printf() prints a string to stdout and then executes the RET instruction, which POPs RA from the stack and control flow is returned not to f() but rather to f() 's caller, bypassing the end of the f() function.
All this is possible because printf() is called right at the end of the f() function in all cases. In some way, it is similar to the longjmp ( ) ${ }^{93}$ function. And of course, it is all done for the sake of speed.

[^50]1.15. SWITCH()/CASE/DEFAULT

A similar case with the ARM compiler is described in "printf() with several arguments" section, here ( 1.8.2 on page 54).

## OllyDbg

Since this example is tricky, let's trace it in OllyDbg.
OllyDbg can detect such switch() constructs, and it can add some useful comments. EAX is 2 at the beginning, that's the function's input value:


Figure 1.42: OllyDbg: EAX now contain the first (and only) function argument

0 is subtracted from 2 in EAX. Of course, EAX still contains 2. But the ZF flag is now 0 , indicating that the resulting value is non-zero:


Figure 1.43: OllyDbg: SUB executed

DEC is executed and EAX now contains 1. But 1 is non-zero, so the ZF flag is still 0:


Figure 1.44: OllyDbg: first DEC executed

Next DEC is executed. EAX is finally 0 and the ZF flag gets set, because the result is zero:


Figure 1.45: OllyDbg: second DEC executed

OllyDbg shows that this jump is to be taken now.

A pointer to the string "two" is to be written into the stack now:


Figure 1.46: OllyDbg: pointer to the string is to be written at the place of the first argument

Please note: the current argument of the function is 2 and 2 is now in the stack at the address $0 \times 001 \mathrm{EF} 850$.

MOV writes the pointer to the string at address $0 x 001 E F 850$ (see the stack window). Then, jump happens. This is the first instruction of the printf() function in MSVCR100.DLL (This example was compiled with /MD switch):


Figure 1.47: OllyDbg: first instruction of printf() in MSVCR100.DLL

Now printf() treats the string at $0 x 00 F F 3010$ as its only argument and prints the string.

This is the last instruction of printf():


Figure 1.48: OllyDbg: last instruction of printf() in MSVCR100.DLL

The string "two" has just been printed to the console window.

Now let's press F7 or F8 (step over) and return...not to f(), but rather to main():


Figure 1.49: OllyDbg: return to main()

Yes, the jump has been direct, from the guts of printf() to main(). Because RA in the stack points not to some place in $f()$, but rather to main(). And CALL $0 x 00 F F 1000$ has been the actual instruction which called f().

## ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)



Again, by investigating this code we cannot say if it was a switch() in the original source code, or just a pack of if() statements.

Anyway, we see here predicated instructions again (like ADREQ (Equal)) which is triggered only in case $R 0=0$, and then loads the address of the string «zeroln» into R0. The next instruction BEQ redirects control flow to loc_170, if $R 0=0$.

An astute reader may ask, will BEQ trigger correctly since ADREQ it has already filled the R0 register before with another value?
Yes, it will since BEQ checks the flags set by the CMP instruction, and ADREQ does not modify any flags at all.

The rest of the instructions are already familiar to us. There is only one call to printf(), at the end, and we have already examined this trick here ( 1.8 .2 on page 54). At the end, there are three paths to printf().

The last instruction, CMP R0, \#2, is needed to check if $a=2$.
If it is not true, then ADRNE loads a pointer to the string «something unknown In» into R0, since $a$ has already been checked to be equal to 0 or 1 , and we can sure that the $a$ variable is not equal to these numbers at this point. And if $R 0=2$, a pointer to the string «twoln» will be loaded by ADREQ into R0.

## ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

| .text:000000D4 | f1: |
| :---: | :---: |
| .text:000000D4 10 B5 | PUSH \{R4, LR \} |
| .text:000000D6 0028 | CMP R0, \#0 |
| .text:000000D8 05 D0 | BEQ zero_case |
| .text:000000DA 0128 | CMP R0, \#1 |
| .text:000000DC 05 D0 | BEQ one_case |
| .text:000000DE 0228 | CMP R0, \#2 |
| .text:000000E0 05 D0 | BEQ two_case |
| .text:000000E2 91 A0 | ADR R0, aSomethingUnkno ; "something unknown\n" |
| .text:000000E4 04 E0 | B default_case |
| .text:000000E6 | zero_case: ; CODE XREF: f1+4 |
| .text:000000E6 95 A0 | ADR R0, aZero ; "zero\n" |
| .text:000000E8 02 E0 | B default_case |
| .text:000000EA | one_case: ; CODE XREF: f1+8 |
| .text:000000EA 96 A0 | ADR R0, a0ne ; "one\n" |
| .text:000000EC 00 E0 | B default_case |
| .text:000000EE | two_case: ; CODE XREF: f1+C |
| .text:000000EE 97 A0 | ADR R0, aTwo ; "two \n" |
| .text:000000F0 | default_case ; CODE XREF: f1+10 |
| .text:000000F0 | ; f1+14 |
| .text:000000F0 06 F0 7E F8 | BL _ 2printf |
| .text:000000F4 10 BD | POP $\quad$ R4, PC $\}$ |

As was already mentioned, it is not possible to add conditional predicates to most instructions in Thumb mode, so the Thumb-code here is somewhat similar to the easily understandable x86 CISC-style code.

## ARM64: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
.LC12:
    .string "zero"
.LC13:
    .string "one"
.LC14:
    .string "two"
.LC15:
    .string "something unknown"
f12:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
    add x29, sp, 0
    str w0, [x29,28]
    ldr w0, [x29,28]
    cmp w0, 1
    beq .L34
    cmp w0, 2
    beq .L35
    cmp w0, wzr
    bne .L38 ; jump to default label
    adrp x0, .LC12 ; "zero"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC12
    bl puts
    b .L32
.L34:
    adrp x0, .LC13 ; "one"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC13
    bl puts
```

```
.L35:
    adrp x0, .LC14 ; "two"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC14
    bl puts
    b .L32
.L38:
    adrp x0, .LC15 ; "something unknown"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC15
    bl puts
    nop
L32:
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
    ret
```

The type of the input value is int, hence register W 0 is used to hold it instead of the whole X0 register.
The string pointers are passed to puts () using an ADRP/ADD instructions pair just like it was demonstrated in the "Hello, world!" example: 1.5.4 on page 24.

## ARM64: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
f12:
    cmp w0, 1
    beq .L31
    cmp w0, 2
    beq .L32
    cbz w0, .L35
; default case
    adrp x0, .LC15 ; "something unknown"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC15
    b puts
.L35:
    adrp x0, .LC12 ; "zero"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC12
    b puts
L32:
    adrp x0,.LC14 ; "two"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC14
    b puts
.L31:
    adrp x0, .LC13 ; "one"
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC13
    b puts
```

Better optimized piece of code. CBZ (Compare and Branch on Zero) instruction does jump if W0 is zero. There is also a direct jump to puts ( ) instead of calling it, like it was explained before: 1.15.1 on page 154.

## MIPS

Listing 1.151: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)



The function always ends with calling puts(), so here we see a jump to puts() (JR: "Jump Register") instead of "jump and link". We talked about this earlier: 1.15.1 on page 154.
We also often see NOP instructions after LW ones. This is "load delay slot": another delay slot in MIPS.
An instruction next to LW may execute at the moment while LW loads value from memory.
However, the next instruction must not use the result of LW.
Modern MIPS CPUs have a feature to wait if the next instruction uses result of LW, so this is somewhat outdated, but GCC still adds NOPs for older MIPS CPUs. In general, it can be ignored.

## Conclusion

A switch() with few cases is indistinguishable from an if/else construction, for example:
listing.1.15.1.

### 1.15.2 A lot of cases

If a switch() statement contains a lot of cases, it is not very convenient for the compiler to emit too large code with a lot JE/JNE instructions.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f (int a)
{
    switch (a)
    {
    case 0: printf ("zero\n"); break;
    case 1: printf ("one\n"); break;
    case 2: printf ("two\n"); break;
    case 3: printf ("three\n"); break;
    case 4: printf ("four\n"); break;
    default: printf ("something unknown\n"); break;
    };
};
int main()
{
    f (2); // test
};
```


## Non-optimizing MSVC

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.152: MSVC 2010

```
tv64 = -4 ; size = 4
_a$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], eax
    cmp DWORD PTR tv64[ebp], 4
    ja SHORT $LN1@f
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR tv64[ebp]
    jmp DWORD PTR $LN11@f[ecx*4]
$LN6@f:
    push OFFSET $SG739 ; 'zero', 0aH, 00H
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN9@f
$LN5@f:
    push OFFSET $SG741 ; 'one', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN9@f
$LN4@f:
    push OFFSET $SG743 ; 'two', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN9@f
$LN3@f:
    push OFFSET $SG745 ; 'three', 0aH, 00H
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN9@f
$LN2@f:
    push OFFSET $SG747 ; 'four', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN9@f
$LN1@f:
    push OFFSET $SG749 ; 'something unknown', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
$LN9@f:
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
    npad 2 ; align next label
$LN11@f:
    DD $LN6@f ; 0
    DD $LN5@f ; 1
    DD $LN4@f ; 2
    DD $LN3@f ; 3
    DD $LN2@f ; 4
f ENDP
```

What we see here is a set of printf() calls with various arguments. All they have not only addresses in the memory of the process, but also internal symbolic labels assigned by the compiler. All these labels are also mentioned in the \$LN11@f internal table.

At the function start, if $a$ is greater than 4, control flow is passed to label \$LN1@f, where printf() with argument 'something unknown' is called.

But if the value of $a$ is less or equals to 4, then it gets multiplied by 4 and added with the \$LN11@f table address. That is how an address inside the table is constructed, pointing exactly to the element we need. For example, let's say $a$ is equal to $2.2 * 4=8$ (all table elements are addresses in a 32 -bit process and that is why all elements are 4 bytes wide). The address of the \$LN11@f table +8 is the table element where the \$LN4@f label is stored. JMP fetches the \$LN4@f address from the table and jumps to it.
This table is sometimes called jumptable or branch table ${ }^{94}$.
Then the corresponding printf() is called with argument 'two'.
Literally, the jmp DWORD PTR \$LN11@f[ecx*4] instruction implies jump to the DWORD that is stored at address \$LN11@f + ecx * 4.
npad ( .1.7 on page 1038) is an assembly language macro that align the next label so that it will be stored at an address aligned on a 4 bytes (or 16 bytes) boundary. This is very suitable for the processor since it is able to fetch 32-bit values from memory through the memory bus, cache memory, etc., in a more effective way if it is aligned.

[^51]
## OllyDbg

Let's try this example in OllyDbg. The input value of the function (2) is loaded into EAX:


Figure 1.50: OllyDbg: function's input value is loaded in EAX

The input value is checked, is it bigger than 4? If not, the "default" jump is not taken:


Figure 1.51: OllyDbg: 2 is no bigger than 4: no jump is taken

Here we see a jumptable:


Figure 1.52: OllyDbg: calculating destination address using jumptable

Here we've clicked "Follow in Dump" $\rightarrow$ "Address constant", so now we see the jumptable in the data window. These are 532 -bit values ${ }^{95}$. ECX is now 2 , so the third element (can be indexed as $2^{96}$ ) of the table is to be used. It's also possible to click "Follow in Dump" $\rightarrow$ "Memory address" and OllyDbg will show the element addressed by the JMP instruction. That's 0x010B103A.

[^52]After the jump we are at 0x010B103A: the code printing "two" will now be executed:


Figure 1.53: OllyDbg: now we at the case: label

## Non-optimizing GCC

Let's see what GCC 4.4.1 generates:
Listing 1.153: GCC 4.4.1

```
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline mov & [esp+18h+var_18], offset aThree ; "three" \\
call & puts \\
jmp & short locret_8048450
\end{tabular}
loc_8048436: ; DATA XREF: .rodata:0804856C
    mov [esp+18h+var_18], offset aFour ; "four"
    call _puts
    jmp short locret_8048450
loc_8048444: ; CODE XREF: f+A
    mov [esp+18h+var_18], offset aSomethingUnkno ; "something unknown"
    call _puts
locret_8048450: ; CODE XREF: f+26
    ; f+34...
    leave
    retn
\(f \quad\) endp
off_804855C dd offset loc_80483FE ; DATA XREF: f+12
    dd offset loc_804840C
    dd offset loc_804841A
    dd offset loc_8048428
    dd offset loc_8048436
```

It is almost the same, with a little nuance: argument arg_0 is multiplied by 4 by shifting it to left by 2 bits (it is almost the same as multiplication by 4) ( 1.18 .2 on page 217). Then the address of the label is taken from the off_804855C array, stored in EAX, and then JMP EAX does the actual jump.

## ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

Listing 1.154: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)



This code makes use of the ARM mode feature in which all instructions have a fixed size of 4 bytes.
Let's keep in mind that the maximum value for $a$ is 4 and any greater value will cause «something unknownln» string to be printed.
The first CMP R0, \#5 instruction compares the input value of $a$ with 5 .
${ }^{97}$ The next ADDCC PC, PC, R0,LSL\#2 instruction is being executed only if $R 0<5$ (CC=Carry clear / Less than). Consequently, if ADDCC does not trigger (it is a $R 0 \geq 5$ case), a jump to default_case label will occur.

But if $R 0<5$ and ADDCC triggers, the following is to be happen:
The value in R0 is multiplied by 4. In fact, LSL\#2 at the instruction's suffix stands for "shift left by 2 bits". But as we will see later ( 1.18 .2 on page 217) in section "Shifts", shift left by 2 bits is equivalent to multiplying by 4 .

Then we add $R 0 * 4$ to the current value in PC, thus jumping to one of the B (Branch) instructions located below.

At the moment of the execution of ADDCC, the value in PC is 8 bytes ahead ( $0 \times 180$ ) than the address at which the ADDCC instruction is located ( $0 \times 178$ ), or, in other words, 2 instructions ahead.

This is how the pipeline in ARM processors works: when ADDCC is executed, the processor at the moment is beginning to process the instruction after the next one, so that is why PC points there. This has to be memorized.

If $a=0$, then is to be added to the value in PC , and the actual value of the PC will be written into PC (which is 8 bytes ahead) and a jump to the label loc_180 will happen, which is 8 bytes ahead of the point where the ADDCC instruction is.

If $a=1$, then $P C+8+a * 4=P C+8+1 * 4=P C+12=0 x 184$ will be written to PC, which is the address of the loc_184 label.
With every 1 added to $a$, the resulting PC is increased by 4 .
4 is the instruction length in ARM mode and also, the length of each B instruction, of which there are 5 in row.
Each of these five B instructions passes control further, to what was programmed in the switch().
Pointer loading of the corresponding string occurs there, etc.

[^53]Listing 1.155: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

| 000000 F6 | EXPORT f2 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 000000F6 | $f 2$ |
| 000000F6 10 B5 | PUSH \{R4, LR $\}$ |
| 000000F8 0300 | MOVS R3, R0 |
| 000000FA 06 F0 69 F8 | BL __ARM_common_switch8_thumb ; switch 6 cases |
| 0000000FE 05 | DCB 5 |
| 000000FF 040608 0A 0C 10 | DCB 4, 6, 8, 0xA, 0xC, 0x10 ; jump table for switch statement |
| 0000010500 | ALIGN 2 |
| 00000106 |  |
| 00000106 | zero_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 00000106 8D A0 | ADD R0, aZero ; jumptable 000000FA case 0 |
| 00000108 06 E0 | B loc_118 |
| 0000010A |  |
| 0000010A | one_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 0000010A 8E A0 | ADR R0, aOne ; jumptable 000000FA case 1 |
| 0000010C 04 E0 | B loc_118 |
| 00000010E |  |
| 00000010E | two_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 0000010E 8F A0 | ADR R0, aTwo ; jumptable 000000FA case 2 |
| 00000110 22 E0 | B loc_118 |
| 00000112 |  |
| 00000112 | three_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 0000011290 A0 | ADR R0, aThree ; jumptable 000000FA case 3 |
| 0000011400 E0 | B loc_118 |
| 00000116 |  |
| 00000116 | four_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 0000011691 A0 | ADR R0, aFour ; jumptable 000000FA case 4 |
| 00000118 |  |
| 00000118 | loc_118 ; CODE XREF: f2+12 |
| 00000118 | ; f2+16 |
| 0000011806 F0 6A F8 | BL _ 2printf |
| 0000011C 10 BD | POP $\quad\{\mathrm{R} 4, \mathrm{PC}\}$ |
| 0000011E |  |
| 0000011E | default_case ; CODE XREF: f2+4 |
| 0000011E 82 A0 | ADR R0, aSomethingUnkno ; jumptable 000000FA default case |
| 00000120 FA E7 | B loc_118 |
| 000061D0 | EXPORT __ARM_common_switch8_thumb |
| 000061D0 | ARM_common_switch8_thumb ; CODE XREF: example6_f2+4 |
| 000061D0 7847 | $B \bar{X} \quad \overline{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{C}$ |
| 000061D2 0000 | ALIGN 4 |
| 000061D2 | ; End of function __ARM_common_switch8_thumb |
| 000061D2 - - - - |  |
| 000061D4 | 32_ARM_common_switch8_thumb ; CODE XREF: $\downarrow$ |
| $\checkmark$ ARM_common_switch8_thumb |  |
| 000061的 $01-\mathrm{C} 05 \mathrm{E}$ E5 | LDRB R12, [LR,\#-1] |
| 000061D8 0C 0053 E1 | CMP R3, R12 |
| 000061DC 0C 30 DE 27 | LDRCSB R3, [LR,R12] |
| 000061E0 0330 DE 37 | LDRCCB R3, [LR,R3] |
| $000061 \mathrm{E} 483 \mathrm{C} 08 \mathrm{8E}$ E0 | ADD R12, LR, R3, LSL\#1 |
| 000061E8 1C FF 2F E1 | BX R12 |
| 000061E8 | ; End of function __32_ARM_common_switch8_thumb |

One cannot be sure that all instructions in Thumb and Thumb-2 modes has the same size. It can even be said that in these modes the instructions have variable lengths, just like in x86.

So there is a special table added that contains information about how much cases are there (not including default-case), and an offset for each with a label to which control must be passed in the corresponding
case.
A special function is present here in order to deal with the table and pass control,
named __ARM_common_switch8_thumb. It starts with BX PC, whose function is to switch the processor to ARM-mode. Then you see the function for table processing.
It is too advanced to describe it here now, so let's omit it.
It is interesting to note that the function uses the LR register as a pointer to the table.
Indeed, after calling of this function, LR contains the address after
BL __ARM_common_switch8_thumb instruction, where the table starts.
It is also worth noting that the code is generated as a separate function in order to reuse it, so the compiler doesn't generate the same code for every switch() statement.

IDA successfully perceived it as a service function and a table, and added comments to the labels like jumptable 000000FA case 0.

## MIPS

Listing 1.156: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
f: lui $gp, ( gnu local gp >> 16)
; jump to loc_24 if input value is lesser than 5:
    sltiu $v0, $a0, 5
    bnez $v0, loc_24
    la $gp, (__gnu_local_gp & 0xFFFF) ; branch delay slot
; input value is greater or equal to 5.
; print "something unknown" and finish:
    lui $a0, ($LC5 >> 16) # "something unknown"
    lw $t9, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
    jr $t9
    la $a0, ($LC5 & 0xFFFF) # "something unknown" ; branch delay slot
loc 24:
                                    # CODE XREF: f+8
; load address of jumptable
; LA is pseudoinstruction, LUI and ADDIU pair are there in fact:
    la $v0, off_120
; multiply input value by 4:
    sll $a0, 2
; sum up multiplied value and jumptable address:
    addu $a0, $v0, $a0
; load element from jumptable:
    lw $v0, 0($a0)
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
; jump to the address we got in jumptable:
    jr $v0
    or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
sub_44:
; print "three" and finish
    lui $a0, ($LC3 >> 16) # "three"
    lw $t9, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
    jr $t9
    la $a0, ($LC3 & 0xFFFF) # "three" ; branch delay slot
sub 58:
                            # DATA XREF: .rodata:00000130
; print "four" and finish
    lui $a0, ($LC4 >> 16) # "four"
    lw $t9, (puts & 0xFFFF)($gp)
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
    jr $t9
    la $a0, ($LC4 & 0xFFFF) # "four" ; branch delay slot
sub_6C: # DATA XREF: .rodata:off_120
; print "zero" and finish
```


; may be placed in .rodata section:
off_120: .word sub_6C
. word sub 80
.word sub_94
.word sub 44
.word sub 58

The new instruction for us is SLTIU ("Set on Less Than Immediate Unsigned").
This is the same as SLTU ("Set on Less Than Unsigned"), but "I" stands for "immediate", i.e., a number has to be specified in the instruction itself.

BNEZ is "Branch if Not Equal to Zero".
Code is very close to the other ISAs. SLL ("Shift Word Left Logical") does multiplication by 4.
MIPS is a 32-bit CPU after all, so all addresses in the jumptable are 32-bit ones.

## Conclusion

Rough skeleton of switch():
Listing 1.157: x86

```
MOV REG, input
CMP REG, 4 ; maximal number of cases
JA default
SHL REG, 2 ; find element in table. shift for 3 bits in x64.
MOV REG, jump_table[REG]
JMP REG
case1:
    ; do something
    JMP exit
case2:
    ; do something
    JMP exit
case3:
        ; do something
        JMP exit
case4:
        ; do something
        JMP exit
case5:
    ; do something
    JMP exit
default:
```

```
exit:
jump_table dd casel
    dd case2
    dd case3
    dd case4
    dd case5
```

The jump to the address in the jump table may also be implemented using this instruction:
JMP jump_table[REG*4]. Or JMP jump_table[REG*8] in x64.
A jumptable is just array of pointers, like the one described later: 1.20 .5 on page 287.

### 1.15.3 When there are several case statements in one block

Here is a very widespread construction: several case statements for a single block:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f(int a)
{
    switch (a)
    {
    case 1:
    case 2:
    case 7:
    case 10:
        printf ("1, 2, 7, 10\n");
        break;
    case 3:
    case 4:
    case 5:
    case 6:
        printf ("3, 4, 5\n");
        break;
    case 8:
    case 9:
    case 20:
    case 21:
        printf ("8, 9, 21\n");
        break;
    case 22:
        printf ("22\n");
        break;
    default:
        printf ("default\n");
        break;
    };
};
int main()
{
f(4);
};
```

It's too wasteful to generate a block for each possible case, so what is usually done is to generate each block plus some kind of dispatcher.

## MSVC

```
$SG2798 DB '1, 2, 7, 10', 0aH, 00H
$SG2800 DB '3, 4, 5', 0aH, 00H
$SG2802 DB '8, 9, 21', 0aH, 00H
$SG2804 DB '22', 0aH, 00H
$SG2806 DB 'default', 0aH, 00H
a$ = 8
-f PROC
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    dec eax
    cmp eax, 21
    ja SHORT $LN1@f
    movzx eax, BYTE PTR $LN10@f[eax]
    jmp DWORD PTR $LN11@f[eax*4]
$LN5@f:
    mov DWORD PTR a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG2798 ; '1, 2, 7, 10'
    jmp DWORD PTR __imp__printf
$LN4@f:
    mov DWORD PTR a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG2800 ; '3, 4, 5'
    jmp DWORD PTR __imp__printf
$LN3@f:
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG2802 ; '8, 9, 21'
    jmp DWORD PTR __imp__printf
$LN2@f:
    mov DWORD PTR a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG2804 ; '22'
    jmp DWORD PTR __imp__printf
$LN1@f:
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4], OFFSET $SG2806 ; 'default'
    jmp DWORD PTR __imp__printf
    npad 2 ; align $LN11@f table on 16-byte boundary
$LN11@f:
    DD $LN5@f ; print '1, 2, 7, 10'
    DD $LN4@f ; print '3, 4, 5'
    DD $LN3@f ; print '8, 9, 21'
    DD $LN2@f ; print '22'
    DD $LN1@f ; print 'default'
$LN10@f:
    DB 0 ; a=1
    DB 0 ; a=2
    DB 1 ; a=3
    DB 1 ; a=4
    DB 1 ; a=5
    DB 1 ; a=6
    DB 0 ; a=7
    DB 2 ; a=8
    DB 2 ; a=9
    DB 0 ; a=10
    DB 4 ; a=11
    DB 4 ; a=12
    DB 4 ; a=13
    DB 4 ; a=14
    DB 4 ; a=15
    DB 4 ; a=16
    DB 4 ; a=17
    DB 4 ; a=18
    DB 4 ; a=19
    DB 2 ; a=20
    DB 2 ; a=21
    DB 3; a=22
f ENDP
```

We see two tables here: the first table (\$LN10@f) is an index table, and the second one (\$LN11@f) is an array of pointers to blocks.
First, the input value is used as an index in the index table (line 13).
Here is a short legend for the values in the table: 0 is the first case block (for values $1,2,7,10$ ), 1 is the second one (for values $3,4,5$ ), 2 is the third one (for values $8,9,21$ ), 3 is the fourth one (for value 22 ), 4 is for the default block.

There we get an index for the second table of code pointers and we jump to it (line 14).
What is also worth noting is that there is no case for input value 0 .
That's why we see the DEC instruction at line 10, and the table starts at $a=1$, because there is no need to allocate a table element for $a=0$.
This is a very widespread pattern.
So why is this economical? Why isn't it possible to make it as before ( 1.15 .2 on page 172), just with one table consisting of block pointers? The reason is that the elements in index table are 8 -bit, hence it's all more compact.

GCC
GCC does the job in the way we already discussed ( 1.15 .2 on page 172), using just one table of pointers.

## ARM64: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1

There is no code to be triggered if the input value is 0 , so GCC tries to make the jump table more compact and so it starts at 1 as an input value.
GCC 4.9.1 for ARM64 uses an even cleverer trick. It's able to encode all offsets as 8-bit bytes.
Let's recall that all ARM64 instructions have a size of 4 bytes.
GCC is uses the fact that all offsets in my tiny example are in close proximity to each other. So the jump table consisting of single bytes.

Listing 1.159: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
f14:
; input value in W0
    sub w0, w0, #1
    cmp w0, 21
; branch if less or equal (unsigned):
    bls .L9
.L2:
; print "default":
    adrp x0, .LC4
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC4
    b puts
.L9:
; load jumptable address to X1:
        adrp x1, .L4
        add x1, x1, :lol2:.L4
; W0=input_value-1
; load byte from the table:
    ldrb w0, [x1,w0,uxtw]
; load address of the Lrtx label:
    adr x1, .Lrtx4
; multiply table element by 4 (by shifting 2 bits left) and add (or subtract) to the address of 
    Lrtx:
        add x0, x1, w0, sxtb #2
; jump to the calculated address:
; this label is pointing in code (text) segment:
.Lrtx4:
    .section .rodata
; everything after ".section" statement is allocated in the read-only data (rodata) segment:
.L4:
```



```
    .byte (.L3 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 10
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 11
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 12
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 13
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 14
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 15
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 16
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 17
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 18
    .byte (.L2 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 19
    .byte (.L6 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 20
    .byte (.L6 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 21
    .byte (.L7 - .Lrtx4) / 4 ; case 22
    .text
; everything after ".text" statement is allocated in the code (text) segment:
.L7:
; print "22"
    adrp x0, .LC3
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC3
    b puts
.L6:
; print "8, 9, 21"
    adrp x0, .LC2
    add x0, x0, :lol2:.LC2
    b puts
.L5:
; print "3, 4, 5"
    adrp x0, .LC1
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC1
    b puts
.L3:
; print "1, 2, 7, 10"
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add x0, x0, :lol2:.LC0
    b puts
.LC0:
    .string "1, 2, 7, 10"
.LC1:
    .string "3, 4, 5"
.LC2:
    .string "8, 9, 21"
.LC3:
    .string "22"
.LC4:
    .string "default"
```

Let's compile this example to object file and open it in IDA. Here is the jump table:
Listing 1.160: jumptable in IDA

| . rodata:0000000000000064 | AREA . rod | DATA, READONLY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| . rodata:0000000000000064 | ; ORG 0x6 |  |
| .rodata:0000000000000064 \$d | DCB 9 | case 1 |
| . rodata:0000000000000065 | DCB 9 | case 2 |
| . rodata:0000000000000066 | DCB 6 | case 3 |
| . rodata:0000000000000067 | DCB 6 | case 4 |
| . rodata:0000000000000068 | DCB 6 | case 5 |
| . rodata:0000000000000069 | DCB 6 | ; case 6 |
| . rodata:000000000000006A | DCB 9 | case 7 |
| . rodata:000000000000006B | DCB 3 | ; case 8 |
| . rodata:000000000000006C | DCB 3 | ; case 9 |
| . rodata:000000000000006D | DCB 9 | ; case 10 |
| . rodata:0000000000000006E | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 11 |
| . rodata:000000000000006F | DCB 0xF7 | case 12 |
| . rodata:0000000000000070 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 13 |
| . rodata:0000000000000071 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 14 |
| . rodata:0000000000000072 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 15 |
| . rodata:0000000000000073 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 16 |
| . rodata:0000000000000074 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 17 |
| . rodata:0000000000000075 | DCB 0xF7 | ; case 18 |
| . rodata: 00000000000000076 | DCB 0xF7 | case 19 |


| .rodata:00000000000000077 | DCB | 3 | ; case 20 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .rodata:0000000000000078 | DCB | 3 | ; case 21 |
| .rodata:0000000000000079 | DCB | 0 | ; case 22 |
| .rodata:000000000000007B | . rodata |  |  |

So in case of 1,9 is to be multiplied by 4 and added to the address of $L r t x 4$ label.
In case of 22,0 is to be multiplied by 4 , resulting in 0 .
Right after the Lrtx4 label is the L7 label, where you can find the code that prints " 22 ".
There is no jump table in the code segment, it's allocated in a separate .rodata section (there is no special necessity to place it in the code section).

There are also negative bytes (0xF7), they are used for jumping back to the code that prints the "default" string (at .L2).

### 1.15.4 Fall-through

Another popular usage of switch() operator is so-called "fallthrough". Here is simple example ${ }^{98}$ :

```
bool is whitespace(char c) {
    switch (c) {
                case ' ': // fallthrough
        case '\t': // fallthrough
        case '\r': // fallthrough
        case '\n':
                return true;
        default: // not whitespace
        return false;
    }
}
```

Slightly harder, from Linux kernel ${ }^{99}$ :

```
char ncol, nco2;
void f(int if freq_khz)
{
    switch (if_freq_khz) {
        default:
                            printf("IF=%d KHz is not supportted, 3250 assumed\n", if_freq_khz);
                    /* fallthrough */
        case 3250: /* 3.25Mhz */
            ncol = 0x34;
            nco2 = 0x00;
            break;
            case 3500: /* 3.50Mhz */
                    ncol = 0x38;
                    nco2 = 0x00;
                    break;
        case 4000: /* 4.00Mhz */
            ncol = 0x40;
            nco2 = 0x00;
                    break;
        case 5000: /* 5.00Mhz */
            ncol = 0x50;
            nco2 = 0x00;
            break;
        case 5380: /* 5.38Mhz */
            ncol = 0x56;
            nco2 = 0x14;
            break;
    }
};
```

[^54]```
.LC0:
    .string "IF=%d KHz is not supportted, 3250 assumed\n"
f:
    sub esp, 12
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+16]
    cmp eax, 4000
    je .L3
    jg .L4
    cmp eax, 3250
    je .L5
    cmp eax, 3500
    jne .L2
    mov BYTE PTR ncol, 56
    mov BYTE PTR nco2, 0
    add esp, 12
    ret
    cmp eax, 5000
    je .L7
    cmp eax, 5380
    jne .L2
    mov BYTE PTR ncol, }8
    mov BYTE PTR nco2, 20
    add esp, 12
    ret
    sub esp, 8
    push eax
    push OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
    call printf
    add esp, 16
    mov BYTE PTR ncol, 52
    mov BYTE PTR nco2, 0
    add esp, 12
    ret
    mov BYTE PTR ncol, 64
    mov BYTE PTR nco2, 0
    add esp, 12
    ret
    mov BYTE PTR ncol, 80
    mov BYTE PTR nco2, 0
    add esp, 12
    ret
```

We can get to .L5 label if there is number 3250 at function's input. But we can get to this label from the other side: we see that there are no jumps between printf() call and .L5 label.
Now we can understand why switch() statement is sometimes a source of bugs: one forgotten break will transform your switch() statement into fallthrough one, and several blocks will be executed instead of single one.

### 1.15.5 Exercises

## Exercise \#1

It's possible to rework the $C$ example in 1.15 .2 on page 166 in such way that the compiler can produce even smaller code, but will work just the same. Try to achieve it.

### 1.16 Loops

### 1.16.1 Simple example

x86

There is a special LOOP instruction in x86 instruction set for checking the value in register ECX and if it is not 0 , to decrement ECX and pass control flow to the label in the LOOP operand. Probably this instruction is not very convenient, and there are no any modern compilers which emit it automatically. So, if you see this instruction somewhere in code, it is most likely that this is a manually written piece of assembly code.
In C/C++ loops are usually constructed using for(), while() or do/while() statements.
Let's start with for().
This statement defines loop initialization (set loop counter to initial value), loop condition (is the counter bigger than a limit?), what is performed at each iteration (increment/decrement) and of course loop body.

```
for (initialization; condition; at each iteration)
{
    loop_body;
}
```

The generated code is consisting of four parts as well.
Let's start with a simple example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void printing_function(int i)
{
printf ("f(%d)\n", i)
};
int main()
{
    int i;
    for (i=2; i<10; i++)
        printing_function(i);
    return 0;
};
```

Result (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.162: MSVC 2010

```
i$ = -4
_main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ecx
    mov DWORD PTR _i$[ebp], 2 ; loop initialization
    jmp SHORT $LN3@main
$LN2@main:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp] ; here is what we do after each iteration:
    add eax, 1 ; add 1 to (i) value
    mov DWORD PTR _i$[ebp], eax
$LN3@main:
    cmp DWORD PTR i$[ebp], 10 ; this condition is checked before each iteration
    jge SHORT $LN1@main ; if (i) is biggest or equals to 10, lets finish loop
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp] ; loop body: call printing_function(i)
    push ecx
    call _printing_function
    add esp, 4
    jmp SHORT $LN2@main ; jump to loop begin
$LNl@main: ; loop end
    xor eax, eax
    mov esp, ebp
```

1.16. LOOPS

| pop | ebp |
| ---: | :---: |
| ret | 0 |
| main | ENDP |

As we see, nothing special.
GCC 4.4.1 emits almost the same code, with one subtle difference:
Listing 1.163: GCC 4.4.1


Now let's see what we get with optimization turned on (/0x):
Listing 1.164: Optimizing MSVC

```
main PROC
    push esi
    mov esi, 2
$LL3@main:
    push esi
    call _printing_function
    inc esi
    add esp, 4
    cmp esi, 10 ; 0000000aH
    jl SHORT $LL3@main
    xor eax, eax
    pop esi
    ret 0
main ENDP
```

What happens here is that space for the $i$ variable is not allocated in the local stack anymore, but uses an individual register for it, ESI. This is possible in such small functions where there aren't many local variables.

One very important thing is that the $f()$ function must not change the value in ESI. Our compiler is sure here. And if the compiler decides to use the ESI register in f() too, its value would have to be saved at the function's prologue and restored at the function's epilogue, almost like in our listing: please note PUSH ESI/POP ESI at the function start and end.

Let's try GCC 4.4.1 with maximal optimization turned on (-03 option):
Listing 1.165: Optimizing GCC 4.4.1

| main | proc near |
| :--- | :--- |
| var_10 | $=$ dword ptr -10h |



Huh, GCC just unwound our loop.
Loop unwinding has an advantage in the cases when there aren't much iterations and we could cut some execution time by removing all loop support instructions. On the other side, the resulting code is obviously larger

Big unrolled loops are not recommended in modern times, because bigger functions may require bigger cache footprint ${ }^{100}$.

OK, let's increase the maximum value of the $i$ variable to 100 and try again. GCC does:
Listing 1.166: GCC


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It is quite similar to what MSVC 2010 with optimization (/0x) produce, with the exception that the EBX register is allocated for the $i$ variable.

GCC is sure this register will not be modified inside of the $f()$ function, and if it will, it will be saved at the function prologue and restored at epilogue, just like here in the main() function.

Let's compile our example in MSVC 2010 with /0x and /Ob0 options and load it into OllyDbg.
It seems that OllyDbg is able to detect simple loops and show them in square brackets, for convenience:


Figure 1.54: OllyDbg: main() begin

By tracing (F8 - step over) we see ESI incrementing. Here, for instance, $E S I=i=6$ :

## C CPU - main thread, module loops_2

| 0.033101 C <br> 0033101 C <br> 0033101 E <br> 0033101 F <br> 00331020 <br> 0.331021 <br> 0.0331026 <br> 0.0331027 <br> 0.033102 C |  | INT3INT3INT3INT3PUSH ESIMOU ESI, 2PUSH ESICALL LOODS_2.00331000INC ESIADD ESP,4 | - | Registers (FPU) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\triangle$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6033102] |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 00331030 |  | CMP ESI, 0 O |  | EIP | 0033102D | loops_ |
| 00331033 |  | Ll SHORT Loops_2.00331026 |  |  | ES 002B | 32bi |
| 00331035 |  | XOR EAX, EAX |  | $\stackrel{\mathrm{P}}{ } 1$ | CS 0023 | 32 bit |
| 00331037 |  | POP ESI |  | A 0 | 5 S 002 B | 32bit |
| $\begin{aligned} & 00331038 \\ & 00331039 \end{aligned}$ |  | RUSH loops_2.00331406 |  | 20 | DS 002B | 32bit |
| -0, |  | PUSH loops_2.00331406 | $\checkmark$ | 50 | FS 0053 | 32bit |
| $\mathrm{ESP}=0024 \mathrm{~F}$ |  |  |  | T ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | GS 002B | 32bit |

Figure 1.55: OllyDbg: loop body just executed with $i=6$

9 is the last loop value. That's why JL is not triggering after the increment, and the function will finish:

C CPU - main thread, module loops_2


Figure 1.56: OllyDbg: $E S I=10$, loop end

## x86: tracer

As we might see, it is not very convenient to trace manually in the debugger. That's a reason we will try tracer.

We open compiled example in IDA, find the address of the instruction PUSH ESI (passing the sole argument to $f())$, which is $0 \times 401026$ for this case and we run the tracer:

```
tracer.exe -l:loops_2.exe bpx=loops_2.exe!0x00401026
```

BPX just sets a breakpoint at the address and tracer will then print the state of the registers.
In the tracer.log, this is what we see:

```
PID=12884|New process loops_2.exe
(0) loops 2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x00a328c8 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0f4714 EDX=0x00000000
ESI=0x00000002 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=PF ZF IF
(0) loops 2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x000000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000003 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=CF PF AF SF IF
(0) loops_2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x00000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000004 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=CF PF AF SF IF
(0) loops 2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x00000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000005 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=CF AF SF IF
(0) loops 2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x000000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000006 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=CF PF AF SF IF
(0) loops_2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x00000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000007 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
EIP=0x00331026
FLAGS=CF AF SF IF
(0) loops 2.exe!0x401026
EAX=0x00000005 EBX=0x00000000 ECX=0x6f0a5617 EDX=0x000ee188
ESI=0x00000008 EDI=0x00333378 EBP=0x0024fbfc ESP=0x0024fbb8
```

We see how the value of ESI register changes from 2 to 9 .
Even more than that, the tracer can collect register values for all addresses within the function. This is called trace there. Every instruction gets traced, all interesting register values are recorded.
Then, an IDA.idc-script is generated, that adds comments. So, in the IDA we've learned that the main() function address is $0 \times 00401020$ and we run:

```
tracer.exe -l:loops_2.exe bpf=loops_2.exe!0x00401020,trace:cc
```

BPF stands for set breakpoint on function.
As a result, we get the loops_2.exe.idc and loops_2.exe_clear.idc scripts.

We load loops_2.exe.idc into IDA and see:

```
.text:09401020
-text:0540162G ; ================= S U B R O U T I N E ============================================
.text:00401020
.text:00401020
```




```
.text:00401020
.text:00401020 argc = dword ptr 4
.text:00401020 argu = dword ptr 8
```



```
.text:00401020
```



```
.text:09401021
.text:00401026
```



```
text:09401826
```



```
.text:00401027
.text:0040102C
.text:0040102D
.text:00401030
.text:00401033
.text:00401035
.text:00401037
.text:00401038
.text:00401038
```

Figure 1.57: IDA with .idc-script loaded

We see that ESI can be from 2 to 9 at the start of the loop body, but from 3 to $0 x A(10)$ after the increment. We can also see that main() is finishing with 0 in EAX.
tracer also generates loops 2.exe.txt, that contains information about how many times each instruction has been executed and register values:

Listing 1.167: loops_2.exe.txt

```
0x401020 (.text+0x20), e= 1 [PUSH ESI] ESI=1
0x401021 (.text+0x21), e= 1 [MOV ESI, 2]
0x401026 (.text+0x26), e= 8 [PUSH ESI] ESI=2..9
0x401027 (.text+0x27), e= 8 [CALL 8D1000h] tracing nested maximum level (1) reached, \swarrow
    skipping this CALL 8D1000h=0x8d1000
0x40102c (.text+0x2c), e= 8 [INC ESI] ESI=2..9
0x40102d (.text+0x2d), e= 8 [ADD ESP, 4] ESP=0x38fcbc
0x401030 (.text+0x30), e= 8 [CMP ESI, 0Ah] ESI=3..0xa
0x401033 (.text+0x33), e= 8 [JL 8D1026h] SF=false,true 0F=false
0x401035 (.text+0x35), e= 1 [XOR EAX, EAX]
0x401037 (.text+0x37), e= 1 [POP ESI]
0x401038 (.text+0x38), e= 1 [RETN] EAX=0
```

We can use grep here.

## ARM

## Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
main
    STMFD SP!, {R4,LR}
    MOV R4, #2
    B loc_368
loc 35C ; CODE XREF
    MOV R0, R4
    BL printing_function
    ADD R4, R4, #1
```

loc_368 ; CODE XREF: main+8

| CMP | R4, \#0xA |
| :--- | :--- |
| BLT | loc_35C |
| MOV | R0, \#0 |
| LDMFD | SP!, $\{R 4$, PC $\}$ |

Iteration counter $i$ is to be stored in the R4 register. The MOV R4, \#2 instruction just initializes $i$. The MOV R0, R4 and BL printing_function instructions compose the body of the loop, the first instruction preparing the argument for $f()$ function and the second calling the function. The ADD R4, R4, \#1 instruction just adds 1 to the $i$ variable at each iteration. CMP R4, \#0xA compares $i$ with $0 x A$ (10). The next instruction BLT (Branch Less Than) jumps if $i$ is less than 10. Otherwise, 0 is to be written into R0 (since our function returns 0 ) and function execution finishes.

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

| main |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | PUSH | \{R4, LR \} |  |
|  | MOVS | R4, \#2 |  |
| loc_132 |  |  | CODE XREF: _main+E |
|  | MOVS | R0, R4 |  |
|  | BL | printing_function |  |
|  | ADDS | R4, R4, \#1 |  |
|  | CMP | R4, \#0xA |  |
|  | BLT | loc_132 |  |
|  | MOVS | R0, \#0 |  |
|  | POP | \{R4, PC \} |  |

Practically the same.

## Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)

| main |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | PUSH | \{R4,R7, LR \} |
|  | MOVW | R4, \#0x1124 ; "\%d\n" |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#2 |
|  | MOVT.W | R4, \#0 |
|  | ADD | R7, SP, \#4 |
|  | ADD | R4, PC |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | BLX | printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#3 |
|  | BLX | printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#4 |
|  | BLX | _printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#5 |
|  | BLX | printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#6 |
|  | BLX | printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#7 |
|  | BLX | _printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#8 |
|  | BLX | _printf |
|  | MOV | R0, R4 |
|  | MOVS | R1, \#9 |
|  | BLX | _printf |
|  | MOVS | R0, \#0 |
|  | POP | $\{\mathrm{R} 4, \mathrm{R} 7, \mathrm{PC}\}$ |

In fact, this was in my f() function:

```
void printing_function(int i)
{
    printf ("%d\n", i);
};
```

So, LLVM not just unrolled the loop, but also inlined my very simple function $f()$, and inserted its body 8 times instead of calling it.

This is possible when the function is so simple (like mine) and when it is not called too much (like here).

## ARM64: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1

Listing 1.168: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1

```
printing_function:
; prepare second argument of printf():
    mov w1, w0
; load address of the "f(%d)\n" string
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
; just branch here instead of branch with link and return:
    b printf
main:
; save FP and LR in the local stack:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
; set up stack frame:
    add x29, sp, 0
; save contents of X19 register in the local stack:
    str x19, [sp,16]
; we will use W19 register as counter.
; set initial value of 2 to it:
    mov w19, 2
.L3:
; prepare first argument of printing_function():
    mov w0, w19
; increment counter register.
    add w19, w19, 1
; W0 here still holds value of counter value before increment.
    bl printing_function
; is it end?
    cmp w19, 10
; no, jump to the loop body begin:
    bne .L3
; return 0
    mov w0, 0
; restore contents of X19 register:
    ldr x19, [sp,16]
; restore FP and LR values:
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
    ret
. LC0:
        .string "f(%d)\n"
```


## ARM64: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1

Listing 1.169: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 -fno-inline

```
printing_function:
; prepare second argument of printf():
    mov w1, w0
; load address of the "f(%d)\n" string
    adrp x0, .LC0
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
just branch here instead of branch with link and return:
    printf
```

```
main:
; save FP and LR in the local stack:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
; set up stack frame:
    add x29, sp, 0
; save contents of X19 register in the local stack:
    str x19, [sp,16]
; we will use W19 register as counter.
; set initial value of 2 to it:
    mov w19, 2
.L3:
; prepare first argument of printing_function():
    mov w0, w19
; increment counter register.
    add w19, w19, 1
; W0 here still holds value of counter value before increment.
    bl printing_function
; is it end?
    cmp w19, 10
; no, jump to the loop body begin:
    bne .L3
; return 0
    mov w0, 0
; restore contents of X19 register:
    ldr x19, [sp,16]
; restore FP and LR values:
        ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
        ret
. LC0:
        .string "f(%d)\n"
```


## MIPS

Listing 1.170: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)

```
main:
; IDA is not aware of variable names in local stack
; We gave them names manually:
i = -0x10
saved FP = -8
saved_RA = -4
; function prologue:
    addiu $sp, -0x28
    sw $ra, 0x28+saved_RA($sp)
    sw $fp, 0x28+saved FP($sp)
    move $fp, $sp
; initialize counter at 2 and store this value in local stack
    li $v0, 2
    sw $v0, 0x28+i($fp)
; pseudoinstruction. "BEQ $ZERO, $ZERO, loc_9C" there in fact:
    b loc_9C
    or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
loc 80:
                                    # CODE XREF: main+48
; load counter value from local stack and call printing_function():
                            lw $a0, 0x28+i($fp)
    jal printing_function
    or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
; load counter, increment it, store it back:
    lw $v0, 0x28+i($fp)
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
    addiu $v0, 1
    sw $v0, 0x28+i($fp)
loc_9C: # CODE XREF: main+18
; check counter, is it 10?
```

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The instruction that's new to us is B. It is actually the pseudo instruction (BEQ).

## One more thing

In the generated code we can see: after initializing $i$, the body of the loop is not to be executed, as the condition for $i$ is checked first, and only after that loop body can be executed. And that is correct.

Because, if the loop condition is not met at the beginning, the body of the loop must not be executed. This is possible in the following case:

```
for (i=0; i<total_entries_to_process; i++)
    loop_body;
```

If total_entries_to_process is 0, the body of the loop must not be executed at all.
This is why the condition checked before the execution.
However, an optimizing compiler may swap the condition check and loop body, if it sure that the situation described here is not possible (like in the case of our very simple example and using compilers like Keil, Xcode (LLVM), MSVC in optimization mode).

### 1.16.2 Memory blocks copying routine

Real-world memory copy routines may copy 4 or 8 bytes at each iteration, use SIMD ${ }^{102}$, vectorization, etc. But for the sake of simplicity, this example is the simplest possible.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void my_memcpy (unsigned char* dst, unsigned char* src, size_t cnt)
{
    size_t i;
    for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
        dst[i]=src[i];
};
```


## Straight-forward implementation

Listing 1.171: GCC $4.9 \times 64$ optimized for size (-Os)

```
my_memcpy:
; RDI = destination address
; RSI = source address
; RDX = size of block
; initialize counter (i) at 0
    xor eax, eax
.L2:
```

[^56]1.16. LOOPS

```
; all bytes copied? exit then:
    cmp rax, rdx
    je .L5
; load byte at RSI+i:
    mov cl, BYTE PTR [rsi+rax]
store byte at RDI+i:
    mov BYTE PTR [rdi+rax], cl
    inc rax ; i++
    jmp .L2
.L5:
    ret
```

Listing 1.172: GCC 4.9 ARM64 optimized for size (-Os)

```
my_memcpy:
; X0 = destination address
; X1 = source address
; X2 = size of block
; initialize counter (i) at 0
    mov x3, 0
.L2:
; all bytes copied? exit then:
    cmp x3, x2
    beq .L5
; load byte at X1+i:
    ldrb w4, [x1,x3]
; store byte at X0+i:
    strb w4, [x0,x3]
    add x3, x3, 1 ; i++
    b .L2
.L5:
    ret
```

Listing 1.173: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
my memcpy PROC
; \overline{R}0 = destination address
; R1 = source address
; R2 = size of block
    PUSH {r4,lr}
; initialize counter (i) at 0
    MOVS r3,#0
; condition checked at the end of function, so jump there:
    B |L0.12|
|L0.6|
; load byte at R1+i:
    LDRB r4,[r1,r3]
; store byte at R0+i:
    STRB r4,[r0,r3]
; i++
    ADDS r3,r3,#1
|L0.12
; i<size?
    CMP r3,r2
; jump to the loop begin if its so:
    BCC |L0.6|
    POP {r4,pc}
    ENDP
```


## ARM in ARM mode

Keil in ARM mode takes full advantage of conditional suffixes:
Listing 1.174: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
my_memcpy PROC
```

```
; R0 = destination address
; R1 = source address
; R2 = size of block
; initialize counter (i) at 0
    MOV r3,#0
|L0.4|
; all bytes copied?
    CMP r3,r2
; the following block is executed only if less than condition,
; i.e., if R2<R3 or i<size.
; load byte at R1+i:
    LDRBCC r12,[r1,r3]
; store byte at R0+i:
    STRBCC r12,[r0,r3]
; i++
    ADDCC r3,r3,#1
; the last instruction of the conditional block.
; jump to loop begin if i<size
; do nothing otherwise (i.e., if i>=size)
            BCC |L0.4|
; return
    BX lr
    ENDP
```

That's why there is only one branch instruction instead of 2.

## MIPS

Listing 1.175: GCC 4.4.5 optimized for size (-Os) (IDA)

```
my_memcpy:
; jump to loop check part:
    b loc 14
; initialize counter (i) at 0
; it will always reside in $v0:
    move $v0, $zero ; branch delay slot
loc 8: # CODE XREF: my memcpy+1C
; load byte as unsigned at address in $t0 to $v1:
    lbu $v1, 0($t0)
; increment counter (i):
    addiu $v0, 1
; store byte at $a3
    sb $v1, 0($a3)
loc_14: # CODE XREF: my_memcpy
; check if counter (i) in $v0 is still less then 3rd function argument ("cnt" in $a2):
    sltu $v1, $v0, $a2
; form address of byte in source block:
    addu $t0, $a1, $v0
; $t0 = $al+$v0 = src+i
; jump to loop body if counter sill less then "cnt":
    bnez $v1, loc 8
; form address of byte in destination block ($a3 = $a0+$v0 = dst+i):
    addu $a3, $a0, $v0 ; branch delay slot
; finish if BNEZ wasnt triggered:
    jr $ra
    or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
```

Here we have two new instructions: LBU ("Load Byte Unsigned") and SB ("Store Byte").
Just like in ARM, all MIPS registers are 32-bit wide, there are no byte-wide parts like in $x 86$.
So when dealing with single bytes, we have to allocate whole 32-bit registers for them.
LBU loads a byte and clears all other bits ("Unsigned").
On the other hand, LB ("Load Byte") instruction sign-extends the loaded byte to a 32-bit value.
1.16. LOOPS

SB just writes a byte from lowest 8 bits of register to memory.

## Vectorization

Optimizing GCC can do much more on this example: 1.29.1 on page 412.

### 1.16.3 Condition check

It's important to keep in mind that in for() construct, condition is checked not at the end, but at the beginning, before execution of loop body. But often, it's more convenient for compiler to check it at the end, after body. Sometimes, additional check can be appended at the beginning.

For example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f(int start, int finish)
{
    for (; start<finish; start++)
        printf ("%d\n", start);
};
```

Optimizing GCC 5.4.0 x64:

```
f:
; check condition (1):
    cmp edi, esi
    jge .L9
    push rbp
    push rbx
    mov ebp, esi
    mov ebx, edi
    sub rsp, 8
.L5:
    mov edx, ebx
    xor eax, eax
    mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; '%d\n"
    mov edi, 1
    add ebx, 1
    call __printf_chk
check condition (2):
    cmp ebp, ebx
    jne .L5
    add rsp, 8
    pop rbx
    pop rbp
.L9:
    rep ret
```

We see two checks.
Hex-Rays (at least version 2.2.0) decompiles this as:

```
void __cdecl f(unsigned int start, unsigned int finish)
{
    unsigned int v2; // ebx@2
    _int64 v3; // rdx@3
    if ( (signed int)start < (signed int)finish )
    {
        v2 = start;
        do
        {
            v3 = v2++;
            _printf_chk(1LL, "%d\n", v3);
        }
        while ( finish != v2 );
```

```
}
```

\}

In this case, do/while() can be replaced by for() without any doubt, and the first check can be removed.

### 1.16.4 Conclusion

Rough skeleton of loop from 2 to 9 inclusive:
Listing 1.176: x86
mov [counter], 2 ; initialization
jmp check
body:
loop body
; do something here
; use counter variable in local stack
add [counter], 1 ; increment
check:
cmp [counter], 9
jle body

The increment operation may be represented as 3 instructions in non-optimized code:
Listing 1.177: x86
MOV [counter], 2 ; initialization
JMP check
body:
; loop body
; do something here
; use counter variable in local stack
MOV REG, [counter] ; increment
INC REG
MOV [counter], REG
check:
CMP [counter], 9
JLE body

If the body of the loop is short, a whole register can be dedicated to the counter variable:
Listing 1.178: x86
MOV EBX, 2 ; initialization
JMP check
body:
; loop body
; do something here
; use counter in EBX, but do not modify it!
INC EBX ; increment
check:
CMP EBX, 9
JLE body

Some parts of the loop may be generated by compiler in different order:
Listing 1.179: x86
MOV [counter], 2 ; initialization
JMP label_check
label increment:
ADD [counter], 1 ; increment
label check:
CMP [counter], 10
JGE exit
; loop body
; do something here
; use counter variable in local stack
JMP label_increment
exit:

Usually the condition is checked before loop body, but the compiler may rearrange it in a way that the condition is checked after loop body.

This is done when the compiler is sure that the condition is always true on the first iteration, so the body of the loop is to be executed at least once:

Listing 1.180: x86
MOV REG, 2 ; initialization body:
; loop body
; do something here
; use counter in REG, but do not modify it!
INC REG ; increment
CMP REG, 10
JL body

Using the LOOP instruction. This is rare, compilers are not using it. When you see it, it's a sign that this piece of code is hand-written:

Listing 1.181: x86

```
    ; count from 10 to 1
    MOV ECX, 10
body:
    ; loop body
    ; do something here
    ; use counter in ECX, but do not modify it!
    LOOP body
```

ARM.
The R4 register is dedicated to counter variable in this example:
Listing 1.182: ARM

```
MOV R4, 2 ; initialization
B check
    ; loop body
    do something here
    ; use counter in R4, but do not modify it!
    ADD R4,R4, #1 ; increment
    CMP R4, #10
    BLT body
```

body:
check:

### 1.16.5 Exercises

- http://challenges.re/54
- http://challenges.re/55
- http://challenges.re/56
- http://challenges.re/57


### 1.17 More about strings

### 1.17.1 strlen()

Let's talk about loops one more time. Often, the strlen() function ${ }^{103}$ is implemented using a while() statement. Here is how it is done in the MSVC standard libraries:

[^57]```
int my_strlen (const char * str)
{
    const char *eos = str;
    while( *eos++ ) ;
    return( eos - str - 1 );
}
int main()
{
    // test
    return my_strlen("hello!");
};
```


## x86

## Non-optimizing MSVC

Let's compile:

```
eoos$ = -4 ; size = 4
str$ = 8 ; size = 4
strlen PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _str$[ebp] ; place pointer to string from "str"
    mov DWORD PTR _eos$[ebp], eax ; place it to local variable "eos"
$LN2@strlen :
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _eos$[ebp] ; ECX=eos
    ; take 8-bit byte from address in ECX and place it as 32-bit value to EDX with sign \swarrow
    < extension
    movsx edx, BYTE PTR [ecx]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _eos$[ebp] ; EAX=eos
    add eax, 1 ; increment EAX
    mov DWORD PTR eos$[ebp], eax ; place EAX back to "eos"
    test edx, edx - EDX is zero?
    je SHORT $LN1@strlen_ ; yes, then finish loop
    jmp SHORT $LN2@strlen_ ; continue loop
$LN1@strlen_:
    ; here we calculate the difference between two pointers
    mov eax, DWORD PTR eos$[ebp]
    sub eax, DWORD PTR __str$[ebp]
    sub eax, 1 ; subtract 1 and return result
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
strlen ENDP
```

We get two new instructions here: MOVSX and TEST.
The first one-MOVSX—takes a byte from an address in memory and stores the value in a 32-bit register. MOVSX stands for MOV with Sign-Extend. MOVSX sets the rest of the bits, from the 8 th to the 31th, to 1 if the source byte is negative or to 0 if is positive.

And here is why.
By default, the char type is signed in MSVC and GCC. If we have two values of which one is char and the other is int, (int is signed too), and if the first value contain -2 (coded as $0 x F E$ ) and we just copy this byte into the int container, it makes $0 \times 000000 \mathrm{FE}$, and this from the point of signed int view is 254 , but not -2 . In signed int, -2 is coded as $0 x F F F F F F F E$. So if we have to transfer $0 x F E$ from a variable of char type to int, we have to identify its sign and extend it. That is what MOVSX does.

You can also read about it in "Signed number representations" section ( 2.2 on page 452).
It's hard to say if the compiler needs to store a char variable in EDX, it could just take a 8-bit register part (for example DL). Apparently, the compiler's register allocator works like that.
Then we see TEST EDX, EDX. You can read more about the TEST instruction in the section about bit fields ( 1.22 on page 304). Here this instruction just checks if the value in EDX equals to 0 .

## Non-optimizing GCC

Let's try GCC 4.4.1:


The result is almost the same as in MSVC, but here we see MOVZX instead of MOVSX. MOVZX stands for MOV with Zero-Extend. This instruction copies a 8 -bit or 16 -bit value into a 32 -bit register and sets the rest of the bits to 0 . In fact, this instruction is convenient only because it enable us to replace this instruction pair:
xor eax, eax / mov al, [...].
On the other hand, it is obvious that the compiler could produce this code:
mov al, byte ptr [eax] / test al, al-it is almost the same, however, the highest bits of the EAX register will contain random noise. But let's think it is compiler's drawback-it cannot produce more understandable code. Strictly speaking, the compiler is not obliged to emit understandable (to humans) code at all.

The next new instruction for us is SETNZ. Here, if AL doesn't contain zero, test al, al sets the ZF flag to 0 , but SETNZ, if $Z F==0$ ( $N Z$ stands for not zero) sets AL to 1 . Speaking in natural language, if $A L$ is not zero, let's jump to loc_80483FO. The compiler emits some redundant code, but let's not forget that the optimizations are turned off.

## Optimizing MSVC

Now let's compile all this in MSVC 2012, with optimizations turned on (/0x):
Listing 1.183: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /ObO

```
str$ = 8
strlen PROC
```

| mov | edx, DWORD PTR _str\$[esp-4] | $;$ EDX -> pointer to the string |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| mov | eax, edx | move to EAX |
| \$LL2@strlen: |  |  |
| mov | cl, BYTE PTR [eax] | CL = *EAX |
| inc | eax | $;$ EAX++ |
| test | cl, cl | CL==0? |
| jne | SHORT \$LL2@strlen | no, continue loop |
| sub | eax, edx | calculate pointers difference |
| dec | eax | decrement EAX |
| ret | 0 |  |

Now it is all simpler. Needless to say, the compiler could use registers with such efficiency only in small functions with a few local variables.

INC/DEC—are increment/decrement instructions, in other words: add or subtract 1 to/from a variable.

We can try this (optimized) example in OllyDbg. Here is the first iteration:


Figure 1.58: OllyDbg: first iteration start

We see that OllyDbg found a loop and, for convenience, wrapped its instructions in brackets. By clicking the right button on EAX, we can choose "Follow in Dump" and the memory window scrolls to the right place. Here we can see the string "hello!" in memory. There is at least one zero byte after it and then random garbage.

If OllyDbg sees a register with a valid address in it, that points to some string, it is shown as a string.

Let's press F8 (step over) a few times, to get to the start of the body of the loop:


Figure 1.59: OllyDbg: second iteration start

We see that EAX contains the address of the second character in the string.

We have to press F8 enough number of times in order to escape from the loop:


Figure 1.60: OllyDbg: pointers difference to be calculated now

We see that EAX now contains the address of zero byte that's right after the string. Meanwhile, EDX hasn't changed, so it still pointing to the start of the string.
The difference between these two addresses is being calculated now.

The SUB instruction just got executed:


Figure 1.61: OllyDbg: EAX to be decremented now

The difference of pointers is in the EAX register now-7. Indeed, the length of the "hello!" string is 6, but with the zero byte included-7. But strlen () must return the number of non-zero characters in the string. So the decrement executes and then the function returns.

## Optimizing GCC

Let's check GCC 4.4.1 with optimizations turned on (-03 key):

| strlen | public strlen proc near |
| :---: | :---: |
| arg_0 | $=$ dword ptr 8 |
|  | push ebp |
|  | mov ebp, esp |
|  | mov ecx, [ebp+arg_0] |
|  | mov eax, ecx |
| loc_8048418: |  |
|  | movzx edx, byte ptr [eax] |
|  | add eax, 1 |
|  | test dl, dl |
|  | jnz short loc_8048418 |
|  | not ecx |
|  | add eax, ecx |
|  | pop ebp |
| strlen | retn endp |

Here GCC is almost the same as MSVC, except for the presence of MOVZX. However, here MOVZX could be replaced with
mov dl, byte ptr [eax].

Perhaps it is simpler for GCC's code generator to remember the whole 32-bit EDX register is allocated for a char variable and it then can be sure that the highest bits has no any noise at any point.

After that we also see a new instruction-NOT. This instruction inverts all bits in the operand.
You can say that it is a synonym to the XOR ECX, 0ffffffffh instruction. NOT and the following ADD calculate the pointer difference and subtract 1, just in a different way. At the start ECX, where the pointer to str is stored, gets inverted and 1 is subtracted from it.

See also: "Signed number representations" ( 2.2 on page 452).
In other words, at the end of the function just after loop body, these operations are executed:

```
ecx=str;
eax=eos;
ecx=(-ecx)-1;
eax=eax+ecx
return eax
```

... and this is effectively equivalent to:

```
ecx=str;
eax=eos;
eax=eax-ecx
eax=eax-1;
return eax
```

Why did GCC decide it would be better? Hard to guess. But perhaps the both variants are equivalent in efficiency.

## ARM

## 32-bit ARM

## Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

Listing 1.184: Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

```
_strlen
eos = -8
str = -4
    SUB SP, SP, #8 ; allocate 8 bytes for local variables
    STR R0, [SP,#8+str]
    LDR R0, [SP,#8+str]
    STR R0, [SP,#8+eos]
loc_2CB8 ; CODE XREF: _strlen+28
    LDR R0, [SP,#8+eos]
    ADD R1, R0, #1
    STR R1, [SP,#8+eos]
    LDRSB R0, [R0]
    CMP R0, #0
    BEQ loc_2CD4
    B loc-2CB8
loc_2CD4 ; CODE XREF: _strlen+24
    LDR R0, [SP,#8+eos]
    LDR R1, [SP,#8+str]
    SUB R0, R0, R1 ; R0=eos-str
    SUB R0, R0, #1 ; R0=R0-1
    ADD SP, SP, #8 ; free allocated 8 bytes
    BX LR
```

Non-optimizing LLVM generates too much code, however, here we can see how the function works with local variables in the stack. There are only two local variables in our function: eos and str. In this listing, generated by IDA, we have manually renamed var_8 and var_4 to eos and str.

The first instructions just saves the input values into both str and eos.
The body of the loop starts at label loc_2CB8.
The first three instruction in the loop body (LDR, ADD, STR) load the value of eos into R0. Then the value is incremented and saved back into eos, which is located in the stack.

The next instruction, LDRSB R0, [R0] ("Load Register Signed Byte"), loads a byte from memory at the address stored in R0 and sign-extends it to 32-bit ${ }^{104}$. This is similar to the MOVSX instruction in x86.

The compiler treats this byte as signed since the char type is signed according to the C standard. It was already written about it ( 1.17 .1 on page 201) in this section, in relation to $x 86$.
It has to be noted that it is impossible to use 8 - or 16 -bit part of a 32 -bit register in ARM separately of the whole register, as it is in $x 86$.

Apparently, it is because x86 has a huge history of backwards compatibility with its ancestors up to the 16-bit 8086 and even 8-bit 8080, but ARM was developed from scratch as a 32-bit RISC-processor.
Consequently, in order to process separate bytes in ARM, one has to use 32-bit registers anyway.
So, LDRSB loads bytes from the string into R0, one by one. The following CMP and BEQ instructions check if the loaded byte is 0 . If it's not 0 , control passes to the start of the body of the loop. And if it's 0 , the loop ends.
At the end of the function, the difference between eos and str is calculated, 1 is subtracted from it, and resulting value is returned via R 0 .
N.B. Registers were not saved in this function.

That's because in the ARM calling convention registers R0-R3 are "scratch registers", intended for arguments passing, and we're not required to restore their value when the function exits, since the calling function will not use them anymore. Consequently, they may be used for anything we want.

No other registers are used here, so that is why we have nothing to save on the stack.
Thus, control may be returned back to calling function by a simple jump (BX), to the address in the LR register.

## Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (Thumb mode)

Listing 1.185: Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (Thumb mode)

| _strlen |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | MOV | R1, R0 |
| loc_2DF6 |  |  |
|  | LDRB.W | R2, [R1] ,\#1 |
|  | CMP | R2, \#0 |
|  | BNE | loc_2DF6 |
|  | MVNS | R0, R0 |
|  | ADD | R0, R1 |
|  | BX | LR |

As optimizing LLVM concludes, eos and str do not need space on the stack, and can always be stored in registers.

Before the start of the loop body, str is always in R0, and eos-in R1.
The LDRB.W R2, [R1],\#1 instruction loads a byte from the memory at the address stored in R1, to R2, sign-extending it to a 32-bit value, but not just that. \#1 at the instruction's end is implies "Post-indexed addressing", which means that 1 is to be added to R1 after the byte is loaded. Read more about it: 1.32.2 on page 439.

Then you can see CMP and BNE ${ }^{105}$ in the body of the loop, these instructions continue looping until 0 is found in the string.

[^58]MVNS $^{106}$ (inverts all bits, like NOT in x86) and ADD instructions compute eos $-s t r-1$. In fact, these two instructions compute $R 0=s t r+e o s$, which is effectively equivalent to what was in the source code, and why it is so, was already explained here ( 1.17 .1 on page 208).

Apparently, LLVM, just like GCC, concludes that this code can be shorter (or faster).

## Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

Listing 1.186: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

| strlen |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | MOV | R1, R0 |
| loc_2C8 |  |  |
|  | LDRB | R2, [R1] ,\#1 |
|  | CMP | R2, \#0 |
|  | SUBEQ | R0, R1, R0 |
|  | SUBEQ | R0, R0, \#1 |
|  | BNE | loc_2C8 |
|  | BX | LR |
|  |  |  |

Almost the same as what we saw before, with the exception that the $\operatorname{str}-e o s-1$ expression can be computed not at the function's end, but right in the body of the loop. The -EQ suffix, as we may recall, implies that the instruction executes only if the operands in the CMP that has been executed before were equal to each other. Thus, if R0 contains 0, both SUBEQ instructions executes and result is left in the R0 register.

## ARM64

## Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
my_strlen:
    mov x1, x0
    ; X1 is now temporary pointer (eos), acting like cursor
.L58:
    ; load byte from X1 to W2, increment X1 (post-index)
    ldrb w2, [x1],1
    ; Compare and Branch if NonZero: compare W2 with 0, jump to .L58 if it is not
    cbnz w2, .L58
    ; calculate difference between initial pointer in X0 and current address in X1
    sub x0, x1, x0
    ; decrement lowest 32-bit of result
    sub w0, w0, #1
    ret
```

The algorithm is the same as in 1.17 .1 on page 202: find a zero byte, calculate the difference between the pointers and decrement the result by 1 . Some comments were added by the author of this book.

The only thing worth noting is that our example is somewhat wrong: my_strlen() returns 32-bit int, while it has to return size_t or another 64-bit type.
The reason is that, theoretically, strlen() can be called for a huge blocks in memory that exceeds 4GB, so it must able to return a 64-bit value on 64-bit platforms.

Because of my mistake, the last SUB instruction operates on a 32-bit part of register, while the penultimate SUB instruction works on full the 64-bit register (it calculates the difference between the pointers).

It's my mistake, it is better to leave it as is, as an example of how the code could look like in such case.

[^59]```
my_strlen:
; function prologue
    sub sp, sp, #32
; first argument (str) will be stored in [sp,8]
    str x0, [sp,8]
    ldr x0, [sp,8]
; copy "str" to "eos" variable
    str x0, [sp,24]
    nop
.L62:
; eos++
    ldr x0, [sp,24] ; load "eos" to X0
    add x1, x0, 1 ; increment X0
    str x1, [sp,24] ; save X0 to "eos"
; load byte from memory at address in X0 to W0
    ldrb w0, [x0]
; is it zero? (WZR is the 32-bit register always contain zero)
    cmp w0, wzr
; jump if not zero (Branch Not Equal)
    bne .L62
; zero byte found. now calculate difference.
; load "eos" to X1
    ldr x1, [sp,24]
; load "str" to X0
    ldr x0, [sp,8]
; calculate difference
    sub x0, x1, x0
; decrement result
    sub w0, w0, #1
; function epilogue
    add sp, sp, 32
    ret
```

It's more verbose. The variables are often tossed here to and from memory (local stack). The same mistake here: the decrement operation happens on a 32-bit register part.

## MIPS

Listing 1.187: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
my_strlen:
; "eos" variable will always reside in $v1:
    move $v1, $a0
loc_4:
; load byte at address in "eos" into $al:
    lb $a1, 0($v1)
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; if loaded byte is not zero, jump to loc_4:
    bnez $al, loc_4
; increment "eos" anyway:
    addiu $v1, 1 ; branch delay slot
; loop finished. invert "str" variable:
nor $v0, $zero, $a0
; $v0=-str-1
; return value = $v1 + $v0 = eos + ( -str-1 ) = eos - str - 1
    addu $v0, $v1, $v0 ; branch delay slot
```

MIPS lacks a NOT instruction, but has NOR which is OR + NOT operation.
This operation is widely used in digital electronics ${ }^{107}$. For example, the Apollo Guidance Computer used in the Apollo program, was built by only using 5600 NOR gates: [Jens Eickhoff, Onboard Computers,

[^60]Onboard Software and Satellite Operations: An Introduction, (2011)]. But NOR element isn't very popular in computer programming.

So, the NOT operation is implemented here as NOR DST, \$ZERO, SRC.
From fundamentals 2.2 on page 452 we know that bitwise inverting a signed number is the same as changing its sign and subtracting 1 from the result.

So what NOT does here is to take the value of $s t r$ and transform it into $-s t r-1$. The addition operation that follows prepares result.

### 1.17.2 Boundaries of strings

It's interesting to note, how parameters are passed into win32 GetOpenFileName() function. In order to call it, one must set list of allowed file extensions:


What happens here is that list of strings are passed into GetOpenFileName(). It is not a problem to parse it: whenever you encounter single zero byte, this is an item. Whenever you encounter two zero bytes, this is end of the list. If you will pass this string into printf(), it will treat first item as a single string.

So this is string, or...? It's better say this is buffer containing several zero-terminated C-strings, which can be stored and processed as a whole.
Another exmaple is strtok() function. It takes a string and write zero bytes in the middle of it. It thus transforms input string into some kind of buffer, which has several zero-terminated C -strings.

### 1.18 Replacing arithmetic instructions to other ones

In the pursuit of optimization, one instruction may be replaced by another, or even with a group of instructions. For example, ADD and SUB can replace each other: line 18 in listing.3.119.

For example, the LEA instruction is often used for simple arithmetic calculations: .1.6 on page 1028.

### 1.18.1 Multiplication

## Multiplication using addition

Here is a simple example:

```
unsigned int f(unsigned int a)
{
    return a*8;
};
```

Multiplication by 8 is replaced by 3 addition instructions, which do the same. Apparently, MSVC's optimizer decided that this code can be faster.

Listing 1.188: Optimizing MSVC 2010

[^61]```
; File c:\polygon\c\2.c
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    add eax, eax
    add eax, eax
    add eax, eax
    ret 0
    f ENDP
TEXT ENDS
END
```


## Multiplication using shifting

Multiplication and division instructions by a numbers that's a power of 2 are often replaced by shift instructions.

```
unsigned int f(unsigned int a)
{
    return a*4;
};
```

Listing 1.189: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010


Multiplication by 4 is just shifting the number to the left by 2 bits and inserting 2 zero bits at the right (as the last two bits). It is just like multiplying 3 by 100 -we just have to add two zeros at the right.

That's how the shift left instruction works:


The added bits at right are always zeros.
Multiplication by 4 in ARM:
Listing 1.190: Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
f PROC
```

```
LSL r0,r0,#2
```

LSL r0,r0,\#2
BX lr
BX lr
ENDP

```
    ENDP
```

Multiplication by 4 in MIPS:
Listing 1.191: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
$\square$
$\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{jr} & \$ r a \\ \mathrm{sll} & \$ \mathrm{O} 0, \$ \mathrm{O} 0,2\end{array}$; branch delay slot

SLL is "Shift Left Logical".

## Multiplication using shifting, subtracting, and adding

It's still possible to get rid of the multiplication operation when you multiply by numbers like 7 or 17 again by using shifting. The mathematics used here is relatively easy.

## 32-bit

```
#include <stdint.h>
int f1(int a)
{
};
int f2(int a)
{
return a*28;
};
int f3(int a)
{
        return a*17;
};
```


## x86

Listing 1.192: Optimizing MSVC 2012

```
; a*7
a$ = 8
-f1 PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
ECX=a
    lea eax, DWORD PTR [ecx*8]
; EAX=ECX*8
    sub eax, ecx
; EAX=EAX-ECX=ECX*8-ECX=ECX*7=a*7
    ret 0
    f1 ENDP
; a*28
a$ = 8
-f2 PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
ECX=a
    lea eax, DWORD PTR [ecx*8]
    EAX=ECX*8
    sub eax, ecx
; EAX=EAX-ECX=ECX*8-ECX=ECX*7=a*7
    shl eax, 2
EAX=EAX<<2=(a*7)*4=a*28
    ret 0
    f2 ENDP
; a*17
a$ = 8
f3 PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
EAX=a
    shl eax, 4
; EAX=EAX<<4=EAX*16=a*16
    add eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
; EAX=EAX+a=a*16+a=a*17
    ret 0
    f3 ENDP
```


## ARM

Keil for ARM mode takes advantage of the second operand's shift modifiers:

```
; a*7
||f1|| PROC
    RSB r0,r0,r0,LSL #3
; R0=R0<<3-R0=R0*8-R0=a*8-a=a*7
    BX lr
    ENDP
; a*28
||f2|| PROC
    RSB r0,r0,r0,LSL #3
; R0=R0<<3-R0=R0*8-R0=a*8-a=a*7
    LSL r0,r0,#2
; R0=R0<<2=R0*4=a*7*4=a*28
    BX lr
    ENDP
; a*17
||f3|| PROC
    ADD r0,r0,r0,LSL #4
; R0=R0+R0<<4=R0+R0*16=R0*17=a*17
    BX lr
    ENDP
```

But there are no such modifiers in Thumb mode. It also can't optimize f2():
Listing 1.194: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

```
; a*7
||f1|| PROC
    LSLS r1,r0,#3
; R1=R0<<3=a<<3=a*8
    SUBS r0,r1,r0
; R0=R1-R0=a*8-a=a*7
    BX lr
    ENDP
; a*28
||f2|| PROC
    MOVS r1,#0x1c ; 28
; R1=28
MULS r0,r1,r0
; R0=R1*R0=28*a
    BX lr
    ENDP
; a*17
||f3|| PROC
    LSLS r1,r0,#4
; R1=R0<<4=R0*16=a*16
    ADDS r0,r0,r1
; R0=R0+R1=a+a*16=a*17
    BX lr
    ENDP
```


## MIPS

Listing 1.195: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
f1:
- sll $v0, $a0, 3
; $v0 = $a0<<3 = $a0*8
    jr $ra
    subu $v0, $a0 ; branch delay slot
; $v0 = $v0-$a0 = $a0*8-$a0 = $a0*7
f2:
    sll $v0, $a0, 5
```

```
; \$v0 = \$a0<<5 = \$a0*32
sll \$a0, 2
\(\$ a 0=\$ a 0 \ll 2=\$ a 0 * 4\)
    jr \(\quad\) \$ra
    subu \$v0, \$a0 ; branch delay slot
; \$v0 = \$a0*32-\$a0*4 = \$a0*28
_f3:
\$v0, \$a0, 4
\(\$ \mathrm{v} 0=\$ \mathrm{a} 0 \ll 4=\$ \mathrm{a} 0 * 16\)
    jr \$ra
    addu \$v0, \$a0 ; branch delay slot
; \$v0 = \$a0*16+\$a0 = \$a0*17
```


## 64-bit

```
#include <stdint.h>
int64_t f1(int64_t a)
{
};
int64_t f2(int64_t a)
{
};
int64_t f3(int64_t a)
{
}:
```

x64

Listing 1.196: Optimizing MSVC 2012

```
; a*7
f1:
; RAX=RDI*8=a*8
    sub rax, rdi
; RAX=RAX-RDI=a*8-a=a*7
    ret
; a*28
f2:
    lea rax, [0+rdi*4]
; RAX=RDI*4=a*4
    sal rdi, 5
; RDI=RDI<<5=RDI*32=a*32
    sub rdi, rax
; RDI=RDI-RAX=a*32-a*4=a*28
    mov rax, rdi
    ret
; a*17
f3:
    mov rax, rdi
    sal rax, 4
; RAX=RAX<<4=a*16
    add rax, rdi
RAX=a*16+a=a*17
    ret
```


## ARM64

GCC 4.9 for ARM64 is also terse, thanks to the shift modifiers:
Listing 1.197: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9 ARM64

```
; a*7
f1:
; X1=X0<<3=X0*8=a*8
    sub x0, x1, x0
; X0=X1-X0=a*8-a=a*7
    ret
; a*28
f2:
lsl x1, x0, 5
; X1=X0<<5=a*32
sub x0, x1, x0, lsl 2
; X0=X1-X0<<2=a*32-a<<2=a*32-a*4=a*28
    ret
; a*17
f3:
    add x0, x0, x0, lsl 4
; X0=X0+X0<<4=a+a*16=a*17
    ret
```


## Booth's multiplication algorithm

There was a time when computers were big and that expensive, that some of them lacked hardware support of multiplication operation in CPU, like Data General Nova. And when one need multiplication operation, it can be provided at software level, for example, using Booth's multiplication algorithm. This is a multiplication algorithm which uses only addition operation and shifts.

What modern optimizing compilers do, isn't the same, but the goal (multiplication) and resources (faster operations) are the same.

### 1.18.2 Division

## Division using shifts

Example of division by 4:

```
unsigned int f(unsigned int a)
{
    return a/4;
};
```

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.198: MSVC 2010

```
_a$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[esp-4]
    shr eax, 2
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

The SHR (SHift Right) instruction in this example is shifting a number by 2 bits to the right. The two freed bits at left (e.g., two most significant bits) are set to zero. The two least significant bits are dropped. In fact, these two dropped bits are the division operation remainder.

The SHR instruction works just like SHL, but in the other direction.


It is easy to understand if you imagine the number 23 in the decimal numeral system. 23 can be easily divided by 10 just by dropping last digit (3—division remainder). 2 is left after the operation as a quotient.

So the remainder is dropped, but that's OK, we work on integer values anyway, these are not a real numbers!

Division by 4 in ARM:
Listing 1.199: Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
f PROC

```
LSR r0,r0,#2
BX lr
ENDP
```

Division by 4 in MIPS:
Listing 1.200: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

| jr | $\$ r a$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| srl | $\$ v 0, \$ a 0,2$; branch delay slot |

The SRL instruction is "Shift Right Logical".

### 1.18.3 Exercise

- http://challenges.re/59


### 1.19 Floating-point unit

The FPU is a device within the main CPU, specially designed to deal with floating point numbers. It was called "coprocessor" in the past and it stays somewhat aside of the main CPU.

### 1.19.1 IEEE 754

A number in the IEEE 754 format consists of a sign, a significand (also called fraction) and an exponent.

## $1.19 .2 \times 86$

It is worth looking into stack machines ${ }^{108}$ or learning the basics of the Forth language ${ }^{109}$, before studying the FPU in $\times 86$.

It is interesting to know that in the past (before the 80486 CPU) the coprocessor was a separate chip and it was not always pre-installed on the motherboard. It was possible to buy it separately and install it ${ }^{110}$.

Starting with the 80486 DX CPU, the FPU is integrated in the CPU.
The FWAIT instruction reminds us of that fact-it switches the CPU to a waiting state, so it can wait until the FPU has finished with its work.

Another rudiment is the fact that the FPU instruction opcodes start with the so called "escape"-opcodes (D8. .DF), i.e., opcodes passed to a separate coprocessor.

[^62]The FPU has a stack capable to holding 8 80-bit registers, and each register can hold a number in the IEEE $754^{111}$ format.

They are ST(0)..ST(7). For brevity, IDA and OllyDbg show ST(0) as ST, which is represented in some textbooks and manuals as "Stack Top".

### 1.19.3 ARM, MIPS, x86/x64 SIMD

In ARM and MIPS the FPU is not a stack, but a set of registers, which can be accessed randomly, like GPR. The same ideology is used in the SIMD extensions of $x 86 / x 64$ CPUs.

### 1.19.4 C/C++

The standard C/C++ languages offer at least two floating number types, float (single-precision ${ }^{112}, 32$ bits) 113 and double (double-precision ${ }^{114}, 64$ bits).

In [Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 2, 3rd ed., (1997)246] we can find the single-precision means that the floating point value can be placed into a single [32-bit] machine word, double-precision means it can be stored in two words ( 64 bits).
GCC also supports the long double type (extended precision ${ }^{115}, 80$ bit), which MSVC doesn't.
The float type requires the same number of bits as the int type in 32-bit environments, but the number representation is completely different.

### 1.19.5 Simple example

Let's consider this simple example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
double f (double a, double b)
{
    return a/3.14 + b*4.1;
};
int main()
{
    printf ("%f\n", f(1.2, 3.4));
};
```

x86

## MSVC

Compile it in MSVC 2010:
Listing 1.201: MSVC 2010: f()

```
CONST SEGMENT
    real@4010666666666666 DQ 04010666666666666r ; 4.1
\overline{CONST ENDS}
CONST SEGMENT
    real@40091eb851eb851f DQ 040091eb851eb851fr ; 3.14
CONST ENDS
    TEXT SEGMENT
```

[^63]```
a$ = 8 ; size = 8
b$ = 16 ; size = 8
f PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    fld QWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
; current stack state: ST(0) = _a
    fdiv QWORD PTR __real@40091eb851eb851f
; current stack state: ST(0) = result of _a divided by 3.14
    fld QWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
; current stack state: ST(0) = _b;
; ST(1) = result of _a divided by 3.14
    fmul QWORD PTR __real@4010666666666666
; current stack state:
; ST(0) = result of _b * 4.1;
; ST(1) = result of _a divided by 3.14
    faddp ST(1), ST(0)
; current stack state: ST(0) = result of addition
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

FLD takes 8 bytes from stack and loads the number into the ST(0) register, automatically converting it into the internal 80-bit format (extended precision).

FDIV divides the value in ST(0) by the number stored at address
real@40091eb851eb851f -the value 3.14 is encoded there. The assembly syntax doesn't support floating point numbers, so what we see here is the hexadecimal representation of 3.14 in 64-bit IEEE 754 format.

After the execution of FDIV ST (0) holds the quotient.
By the way, there is also the FDIVP instruction, which divides $\mathrm{ST}(1)$ by $\mathrm{ST}(0)$, popping both these values from stack and then pushing the result. If you know the Forth language ${ }^{116}$, you can quickly understand that this is a stack machine ${ }^{117}$.

The subsequent FLD instruction pushes the value of $b$ into the stack.
After that, the quotient is placed in $\mathrm{ST}(1)$, and $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ has the value of $b$.
The next FMUL instruction does multiplication: $b$ from $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ is multiplied by value at __real@4010666666666666 (the number 4.1 is there) and leaves the result in the ST(0) register.

The last FADDP instruction adds the two values at top of stack, storing the result in ST (1) and then popping the value of $\mathrm{ST}(0)$, thereby leaving the result at the top of the stack, in ST(0).

The function must return its result in the ST(0) register, so there are no any other instructions except the function epilogue after FADDP.

[^64]2 pairs of 32 -bit words are marked by red in the stack. Each pair is a double-number in IEEE 754 format and is passed from main().
We see how the first FLD loads a value (1.2) from the stack and puts it into ST(0):


Figure 1.62: OllyDbg: the first FLD has been executed

Because of unavoidable conversion errors from 64-bit IEEE 754 floating point to 80-bit (used internally in the FPU), here we see $1.1999 . .$. , which is close to 1.2 .

EIP now points to the next instruction (FDIV), which loads a double-number (a constant) from memory. For convenience, OllyDbg shows its value: 3.14

Let's trace further. FDIV has been executed, now ST(0) contains $0.382 \ldots$ (quotient):


Figure 1.63: OllyDbg: FDIV has been executed

Third step: the next FLD has been executed, loading 3.4 into ST(0) (here we see the approximate value 3.39999...):


Figure 1.64: OllyDbg: the second FLD has been executed

At the same time, quotient is pushed into ST(1). Right now, EIP points to the next instruction: FMUL. It loads the constant 4.1 from memory, which OllyDbg shows.

Next: FMUL has been executed, so now the product is in ST(0):


Figure 1.65: OllyDbg: the FMUL has been executed

Next: the FADDP has been executed, now the result of the addition is in ST(0), and ST(1) is cleared:


Figure 1.66: OllyDbg: FADDP has been executed

The result is left in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$, because the function returns its value in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$.
main() takes this value from the register later.
We also see something unusual: the 13.93...value is now located in $\mathrm{ST}(7)$. Why?
As we have read some time before in this book, the FPU registers are a stack: 1.19.2 on page 218. But this is a simplification.

Imagine if it was implemented in hardware as it's described, then all 7 register's contents must be moved (or copied) to adjacent registers during pushing and popping, and that's a lot of work.
In reality, the FPU has just 8 registers and a pointer (called TOP) which contains a register number, which is the current "top of stack".

When a value is pushed to the stack, TOP is pointed to the next available register, and then a value is written to that register.
The procedure is reversed if a value is popped, however, the register which has been freed is not cleared (it could possibly be cleared, but this is more work which can degrade performance). So that's what we see here.
It can be said that FADDP saved the sum in the stack, and then popped one element.
But in fact, this instruction saved the sum and then shifted TOP.
More precisely, the registers of the FPU are a circular buffer.

GCC 4.4.1 (with -03 option) emits the same code, just slightly different:
Listing 1.202: Optimizing GCC 4.4.1


The difference is that, first of all, 3.14 is pushed to the stack (into ST(0)), and then the value in arg_0 is divided by the value in ST(0).
FDIVR stands for Reverse Divide -to divide with divisor and dividend swapped with each other. There is no likewise instruction for multiplication since it is a commutative operation, so we just have FMUL without its -R counterpart.

FADDP adds the two values but also pops one value from the stack. After that operation, ST(0) holds the sum.

## ARM: Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

Until ARM got standardized floating point support, several processor manufacturers added their own instructions extensions. Then, VFP (Vector Floating Point) was standardized.
One important difference from $x 86$ is that in ARM, there is no stack, you work just with registers.
Listing 1.203: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)

| f |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | VLDR | D16, =3.14 |
|  | VMOV | D17, R0, R1 ; load "a" |
|  | VMOV | D18, R2, R3 ; load "b" |
|  | VDIV.F64 | D16, D17, D16 ; a/3.14 |
|  | VLDR | D17, =4.1 |
|  | VMUL. F64 | D17, D18, D17 ; b*4.1 |
|  | VADD.F64 | D16, D17, D16 ; + |
|  | VMOV | R0, R1, D16 |
|  | BX | LR |
| dbl_2C98 | DCFD 3.14 | ; DATA XREF: f |
| dbl_2CA0 | DCFD 4.1 | ; DATA XREF: f+10 |

So, we see here new some registers used, with D prefix.
These are 64-bit registers, there are 32 of them, and they can be used both for floating-point numbers (double) but also for SIMD (it is called NEON here in ARM).
There are also 32 32-bit S-registers, intended to be used for single precision floating pointer numbers (float).

It is easy to memorize: D-registers are for double precision numbers, while S-registers—for single precision numbers. More about it: .2.3 on page 1040.

Both constants (3.14 and 4.1) are stored in memory in IEEE 754 format.
VLDR and VMOV, as it can be easily deduced, are analogous to the LDR and MOV instructions, but they work with D-registers.

It has to be noted that these instructions, just like the D-registers, are intended not only for floating point numbers, but can be also used for SIMD (NEON) operations and this will also be shown soon.
The arguments are passed to the function in a common way, via the R-registers, however each number that has double precision has a size of 64 bits, so two R-registers are needed to pass each one.

VMOV D17, R0, R1 at the start, composes two 32-bit values from R0 and R1 into one 64-bit value and saves it to D17.

VMOV R0, R1, D16 is the inverse operation: what has been in D16 is split in two registers, R0 and R1, because a double-precision number that needs 64 bits for storage, is returned in R0 and R1.

VDIV, VMUL and VADD, are instruction for processing floating point numbers that compute quotient, product and sum, respectively.
The code for Thumb- 2 is same.

ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)


Keil generated code for a processor without FPU or NEON support.
The double-precision floating-point numbers are passed via generic R-registers, and instead of FPU-instructions, service library functions are called
(like __aeabi_dmul, __aeabi_ddiv, __aeabi_dadd) which emulate multiplication, division and addition for floating-point numbers.

Of course, that is slower than FPU-coprocessor, but it's still better than nothing.
By the way, similar FPU-emulating libraries were very popular in the x86 world when coprocessors were rare and expensive, and were installed only on expensive computers.
The FPU-coprocessor emulation is called soft float or armel (emulation) in the ARM world, while using the coprocessor's FPU-instructions is called hard float or armhf.

## ARM64: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

Very compact code:
Listing 1.204: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
f:
; D0 = a, D1 = b dr d2, .LC25 ; 3.14
; D2 = 3.14
    fdiv d0, d0, d2
; D0 = D0/D2 = a/3.14
ldr d2, .LC26 ; 4.1
; D2 = 4.1
    fmadd d0, d1, d2, d0
; D0 = D1*D2+D0 = b*4.1+a/3.14
    ret
; constants in IEEE 754 format:
.LC25:
    .word 1374389535 ; 3.14
    .word 1074339512
.LC26:
    .word 1717986918 ; 4.1
    .word 1074816614
```


## ARM64: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

Listing 1.205: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
f:
    sub sp, sp, #16
    str d0, [sp,8] ; save "a" in Register Save Area
    str d1, [sp] ; save "b" in Register Save Area
    ldr x1, [sp,8]
; X1 = a
; X0 = 3.14
    fmov d0, x1
    fmov d1, x0
; D0 = a, D1 = 3.14
    fdiv d0, d0, d1
; D0 = D0/D1 = a/3.14
    fmov x1, d0
; X1 = a/3.14
    ldr x2, [sp]
; X2 = b
ldr x0, .LC26
; X0 = 4.1
    fmov d0, x2
; D0 = b
            fmov d1, x0
; D1 = 4.1
    fmul d0, d0, d1
; D0 = D0*D1 = b*4.1
    fmov x0, d0
; X0 = D0 = b*4.1
    fmov d0, x1
```

```
; D0 = a/3.14 fmov d1, x0
; D1 = X0 = b*4.1
    fadd d0, d0, d1
; D0 = D0+D1 = a/3.14 + b*4.1
    fmov x0, d0 ; \ redundant code
    fmov d0, x0 ; /
    add sp, sp, 16
    ret
.LC25:
    .word 1374389535 ; 3.14
    .word 1074339512
.LC26:
    .word 1717986918 ; 4.1
    .word 1074816614
```

Non-optimizing GCC is more verbose.
There is a lot of unnecessary value shuffling, including some clearly redundant code (the last two FMOV instructions). Probably, GCC 4.9 is not yet good in generating ARM64 code.
What is worth noting is that ARM64 has 64-bit registers, and the D-registers are 64-bit ones as well.
So the compiler is free to save values of type double in GPRs instead of the local stack. This isn't possible on 32-bit CPUs.

And again, as an exercise, you can try to optimize this function manually, without introducing new instructions like FMADD.

## MIPS

MIPS can support several coprocessors (up to 4), the zeroth of which ${ }^{118}$ is a special control coprocessor, and first coprocessor is the FPU.

As in ARM, the MIPS coprocessor is not a stack machine, it has 32 32-bit registers (\$F0-\$F31): . 3.1 on page 1042.

When one needs to work with 64-bit double values, a pair of 32-bit F-registers is used.
Listing 1.206: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
f:
; $f12-$f13=A
; $f14-$f15=B
    lui $v0, (dword C4 >> 16) ; ?
; load low 32-bit part of 3.14 cons\overline{tant to $f0:}
    lwc1 $f0, dword_BC
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; load high 32-bit part of 3.14 constant to $f1:
    lwc1 $f1, $LC0
    lui $v0, ($LC1 >> 16) ; ?
; A in $f12-$f13, 3.14 constant in $f0-$f1, do division:
    div.d $f0, $f12, $f0
; $f0-$f1=A/3.14
; load low 32-bit part of 4.1 to $f2:
    lwc1 $f2, dword_C4
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; load high 32-bit part of 4.1 to $f3:
    lwc1 $f3, $LC1
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; B in $f14-$f15, 4.1 constant in $f2-$f3, do multiplication:
    mul.d $f2, $f14, $f2
; $f2-$f3=B*4.1
    jr $ra
; sum 64-bit parts and leave result in $f0-$f1:
    add.d $f0, $f2 ; branch delay slot, NOP
```

[^65]| .rodata.cst8:000000B8 \$LC0: | .word $0 \times 40091 E B 8$ | \# DATA XREF: f+C |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .rodata.cst8:000000BC dword_BC: | .word $0 \times 51 E B 851 F$ | \# DATA XREF: f+4 |
| .rodata.cst8:000000C0 \$LC1: | .word $0 \times 40106666$ | \# DATA XREF: f+10 |
| .rodata.cst8:000000C4 dword_C4: | .word $0 \times 66666666$ | \# DATA XREF: f |

The new instructions here are:

- LWC1 loads a 32-bit word into a register of the first coprocessor (hence " 1 " in instruction name). A pair of LWC1 instructions may be combined into a L.D pseudo instruction.
- DIV.D, MUL.D, ADD.D do division, multiplication, and addition respectively (".D" in the suffix stands for double precision, ".S" stands for single precision)

There is also a weird compiler anomaly: the LUI instructions that we've marked with a question mark. It's hard for me to understand why load a part of a 64-bit constant of double type into the \$V0 register. These instructions has no effect. If someone knows more about it, please drop an email to author ${ }^{119}$.

### 1.19.6 Passing floating point numbers via arguments

```
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main ()
{
    printf ("32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf\n", pow (32.01,1.54));
    return 0;
}
```


## x86

Let's see what we get in (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.207: MSVC 2010

```
CONST SEGMENT
    real@40400147ae147ae1 DQ 040400147ae147ae1r ; 32.01
    real@3ff8a3d70a3d70a4 DQ 03ff8a3d70a3d70a4r ; 1.54
CONST ENDS
main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    sub esp, 8 ; allocate space for the first variable
    fld QWORD PTR __real@3ff8a3d70a3d70a4
    fstp QWORD PTR [esp]
        sub esp, 8 ; allocate space for the second variable
        fld QWORD PTR __real@40400147ae147ae1
        fstp QWORD PTR [esp]
        call _pow
        add esp, 8 ; return back place of one variable.
; in local stack here 8 bytes still reserved for us.
; result now in ST(0)
        fstp QWORD PTR [esp] ; move result from ST(0) to local stack for printf()
        push OFFSET $SG2651
        call _printf
        add esp, 12
        xor eax, eax
        pop ebp
        ret 0
    main ENDP
```

[^66]FLD and FSTP move variables between the data segment and the FPU stack. pow ( ${ }^{120}$ takes both values from the stack and returns its result in the $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ register. printf() takes 8 bytes from the local stack and interprets them as double type variable.

By the way, a pair of MOV instructions could be used here for moving values from the memory into the stack, because the values in memory are stored in IEEE 754 format, and pow() also takes them in this format, so no conversion is necessary. That's how it's done in the next example, for ARM: 1.19.6.

## ARM + Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)

| -main |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| var_C | $=-0 x C$ |  |  |  |
|  | PUSH |  |  |  |
|  | MOV |  |  |  |
|  | SUB |  |  |  |
|  | VLDR |  | . 01 |  |
|  | VMOV |  | D16 |  |
|  | VLDR |  |  |  |
|  | VMOV |  | D16 |  |
|  | BLX |  |  |  |
|  | VMOV |  | R1 |  |
|  | MOV |  | ; "32.01 | 1.54 = \%lf ${ }^{\text {n" }}$ |
|  | ADD |  |  |  |
|  | VMOV |  | D16 |  |
|  | BLX |  |  |  |
|  | MOVS |  |  |  |
|  | STR |  | \#0xC+var_C] |  |
|  | MOV |  |  |  |
|  | ADD |  |  |  |
|  | POP |  |  |  |
| dbl_2F90 | DCFD |  | DATA XREF: | _main+6 |
| dbl_2F98 | DCFD |  | DATA XREF: | _main+E |

As it was mentioned before, 64-bit floating pointer numbers are passed in R-registers pairs.
This code is a bit redundant (certainly because optimization is turned off), since it is possible to load values into the R-registers directly without touching the D-registers.

So, as we see, the _pow function receives its first argument in R0 and R1, and its second one in R2 and R3. The function leaves its result in R0 and R1. The result of _pow is moved into D16, then in the R1 and R2 pair, from where printf() takes the resulting number.

## ARM + Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)

```
_main
    STMFD SP!, {R4-R6,LR}
    LDR R2, =0xA3D70A4 ; y
    LDR R3, =0x3FF8A3D7
    LDR R0, =0xAE147AE1 ; x
    LDR R1, =0x40400147
    BL pow
    MOV R4, R0
    MOV R2, R4
    MOV R3, R1
    ADR R0, a32_011_54Lf ; "32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf\n"
    BL 2printf
    MOV \overline{R0}, #0
    LDMFD SP!, {R4-R6,PC}
y DCD 0xA3D70A4 ; DATA XREF: _main+4
lll
```

[^67]| dword_528 | DCD 0x40400147 | $;$ DATA XREF: _main+10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a32_011_54Lf | DCB "32.01 $1.54=\% l f ", 0 x A, 0$ |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  | DATA XREF: _main+24 |

D-registers are not used here, just R-register pairs.

## ARM64 + Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

Listing 1.208: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9

```
f:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -16]!
    add x29, sp, 0
    ldr d1, .LC1 ; load 1.54 into D1
    ldr d0, .LC0 ; load 32.01 into D0
    bl pow
; result of pow() in D0
    adrp x0, .LC2
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC2
    bl printf
    mov w0, 0
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 16
    ret
.LC0:
; 32.01 in IEEE 754 format
    .word -1374389535
    .word 1077936455
.LC1:
; 1.54 in IEEE 754 format
    .word 171798692
    .word 1073259479
.LC2:
    .string "32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf\n"
```

The constants are loaded into D0 and D1: pow() takes them from there. The result will be in D0 after the execution of pow(). It is to be passed to printf() without any modification and moving, because printf() takes arguments of integral types and pointers from X-registers, and floating point arguments from D-registers.

## MIPS

Listing 1.209: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)

```
main:
var_10 = -0x10
var_4 = -4
; function prologue:
    lui $gp, (dword_9C >> 16)
    addiu $sp, -0x20
    la $gp, (__gnu_local_gp & 0xFFFF)
    sw $ra, 0x20+vār_4($sp)
    sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
    lui $v0, (dword A4 >> 16) ; ?
; load low 32-bit part of 32.01:
    lwc1 $f12, dword_9C
; load address of pow() function:
    lw $t9, (pow & 0xFFFF)($gp)
; load high 32-bit part of 32.01:
    lwc1 $f13, $LC0
    lui $v0, ($LC1 >> 16) ; ?
; load low 32-bit part of 1.54:
    lwc1 $f14, dword A4
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; load high 32-bit part of 1.54:
```



And again, we see here LUI loading a 32-bit part of a double number into \$V0. And again, it's hard to comprehend why.

The new instruction for us here is MFC1 ("Move From Coprocessor 1"). The FPU is coprocessor number 1, hence " 1 " in the instruction name. This instruction transfers values from the coprocessor's registers to the registers of the CPU (GPR). So at the end the result of pow () is moved to registers \$A3 and \$A2, and printf() takes a 64-bit double value from this register pair.

### 1.19.7 Comparison example

Let's try this:

```
#include <stdio.h>
double d_max (double a, double b)
{
    if (a>b)
        return a;
    return b;
};
int main()
{
    printf ("%f\n", d_max (1.2, 3.4));
    printf ("%f\n", d_max (5.6, -4));
};
```

Despite the simplicity of the function, it will be harder to understand how it works.

## Non-optimizing MSVC

MSVC 2010 generates the following:

```
PUBLIC d max
_TEXT S\overline{EGMENT}
_a$ = 8 ; size = 8
b$ = 16 ; size = 8
d_max PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    fld QWORD PTR b$[ebp]
; current stack state: ST(0) = _b
; compare _b (ST(0)) and _a, and pop register
    fcomp QWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
; stack is empty here
    fnstsw ax
    test ah, 5
    jp SHORT $LN1@d_max
; we are here only if a>b
    fld QWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    jmp SHORT $LN2@d_max
$LN1@d_max:
    fld QWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
$LN2@d_max:
    pop ebp
    ret 0
d_max ENDP
```

So, FLD loads _b into ST(0).
FCOMP compares the value in ST(0) with what is in _a and sets C3/C2/C0 bits in FPU status word register, accordingly. This is a 16-bit register that reflects the current state of the FPU.

After the bits are set, the FCOMP instruction also pops one variable from the stack. This is what distinguishes it from FCOM, which is just compares values, leaving the stack in the same state.
Unfortunately, CPUs before Intel P6 ${ }^{121}$ don't have any conditional jumps instructions which check the C3/C2/C0 bits. Perhaps, it is a matter of history (recall: FPU was a separate chip in past).
Modern CPU starting at Intel P6 have FCOMI/FCOMIP/FUCOMI/FUCOMIP instructions -which do the same, but modify the ZF/PF/CF CPU flags.

The FNSTSW instruction copies FPU the status word register to AX. C3/C2/C0 bits are placed at positions $14 / 10 / 8$, they are at the same positions in the $A X$ register and all they are placed in the high part of $A X-A H$.

- If $b>a$ in our example, then C3/C2/C0 bits are to be set as following: $0,0,0$.
- If $a>b$, then the bits are: 0, 0, 1 .
- If $a=b$, then the bits are: 1, 0, 0 .
- If the result is unordered (in case of error), then the set bits are: 1, 1, 1 .

This is how C3/C2/C0 bits are located in the AX register:


This is how C3/C2/C0 bits are located in the AH register:


After the execution of test ah, $5^{122}$, only C0 and C2 bits (on 0 and 2 position) are considered, all other bits are just ignored.

[^68]Now let's talk about the parity flag, another notable historical rudiment.
This flag is set to 1 if the number of ones in the result of the last calculation is even, and to 0 if it is odd. Let's look into Wikipedia ${ }^{123}$ :

One common reason to test the parity flag actually has nothing to do with parity. The FPU has four condition flags (C0 to C3), but they cannot be tested directly, and must instead be first copied to the flags register. When this happens, C0 is placed in the carry flag, C2 in the parity flag and C3 in the zero flag. The C2 flag is set when e.g. incomparable floating point values (NaN or unsupported format) are compared with the FUCOM instructions.

As noted in Wikipedia, the parity flag used sometimes in FPU code, let's see how.
The PF flag is to be set to 1 if both C0 and C2 are set to 0 or both are 1 , in which case the subsequent JP (jump if $P F==1$ ) is triggering. If we recall the values of $C 3 / C 2 / C 0$ for various cases, we can see that the conditional jump JP is triggering in two cases: if $b>a$ or $a=b$ (C3 bit is not considered here, since it has been cleared by the test ah, 5 instruction).

It is all simple after that. If the conditional jump has been triggered, FLD loads the value of _b in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$, and if it hasn't been triggered, the value of _a is loaded there.

## And what about checking C2?

The C2 flag is set in case of error (NaN, etc.), but our code doesn't check it.
If the programmer cares about FPU errors, he/she must add additional checks.

[^69]Let's load the example into OllyDbg:


Figure 1.67: OllyDbg: first FLD has been executed

Current arguments of the function: $a=1.2$ and $b=3.4$ (We can see them in the stack: two pairs of 32-bit values). $b$ (3.4) is already loaded in ST(0). Now FCOMP is being executed. OllyDbg shows the second FCOMP argument, which is in stack right now.


Figure 1.68: OllyDbg: FCOMP has been executed

We see the state of the FPU's condition flags: all zeros. The popped value is reflected as ST(7), it was written earlier about reason for this: 1.19 .5 on page 225.


Figure 1.69: OllyDbg: FNSTSW has been executed

We see that the $A X$ register contain zeros: indeed, all condition flags are zero. (OllyDbg disassembles the FNSTSW instruction as FSTSW-they are synonyms).


Figure 1.70: OllyDbg: TEST has been executed

The PF flag is set to 1 .
Indeed: the number of bits set in 0 is 0 and 0 is an even number. OllyDbg disassembles JP as JPE ${ }^{124}$ _they are synonyms. And it is about to trigger now.

[^70]

Figure 1.71: OllyDbg: the second FLD has been executed
The function finishes its work.

Let's load example into OllyDbg:


Figure 1.72: OllyDbg: first FLD executed

Current function arguments: $a=5.6$ and $b=-4 . b(-4)$ is already loaded in ST(0). FCOMP about to execute now. OllyDbg shows the second FCOMP argument, which is in stack right now.


Figure 1.73: OllyDbg: FCOMP executed

We see the state of the FPU's condition flags: all zeros except C0.


Figure 1.74: OllyDbg: FNSTSW executed

We see that the $A X$ register contains $0 \times 100$ : the $C 0$ flag is at the 8 th bit.


Figure 1.75: OllyDbg: TEST executed

The PF flag is cleared. Indeed:
the count of bits set in $0 \times 100$ is 1 and 1 is an odd number. JPE is being skipped now.


Figure 1.76: OllyDbg: second FLD executed

The function finishes its work.

## Optimizing MSVC 2010

Listing 1.211: Optimizing MSVC 2010

```
a$ = 8 ; size = 8
b$ = 16 ; size = 8
d_max PROC
    fld QWORD PTR b$[esp-4]
    fld QWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
; current stack state: ST(0) = _a, ST(1) = _b
    fcom ST(1) ; compare _a and ST(1) = (_b)
    fnstsw ax
    test ah, 65 ; 00000041H
    jne SHORT $LN5@d max
; copy ST(0) to ST(1) and pop register,
; leave (_a) on top
    fstp ST(1)
; current stack state: ST(0) = _a
    ret 0
$LN5@d_max:
; copy ST(0) to ST(0) and pop register,
```

```
; leave (_b) on top
    fstp ST(0)
; current stack state: ST(0) = _b
    ret 0
d_max ENDP
```

FCOM differs from FCOMP in the sense that it just compares the values and doesn't change the FPU stack. Unlike the previous example, here the operands are in reverse order, which is why the result of the comparison in C3/C2/C0 is different:

- If $a>b$ in our example, then C3/C2/C0 bits are to be set as: $0,0,0$.
- If $b>a$, then the bits are: $0,0,1$.
- If $a=b$, then the bits are: $1,0,0$.

The test ah, 65 instruction leaves just two bits -C3 and C0. Both will be zero if $a>b$ : in that case the JNE jump will not be triggered. Then FSTP ST (1) follows -this instruction copies the value from ST (0) to the operand and pops one value from the FPU stack. In other words, the instruction copies ST(0) (where the value of a is now) into ST(1). After that, two copies of a are at the top of the stack. Then, one value is popped. After that, $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ contains _a and the function is finishes.

The conditional jump JNE is triggering in two cases: if $b>a$ or $a=b$. ST(0) is copied into ST(0), it is just like an idle (NOP) operation, then one value is popped from the stack and the top of the stack (ST(0)) is contain what has been in $\mathrm{ST}(1)$ before (that is_b). Then the function finishes. The reason this instruction is used here probably is because the FPU has no other instruction to pop a value from the stack and discard it.

## Both FLD are executed:



Figure 1.77: OllyDbg: both FLD are executed

FCOM being executed: OllyDbg shows the contents of ST(0) and ST(1) for convenience.


Figure 1.78: OllyDbg: FCOM has been executed

C0 is set, all other condition flags are cleared.


Figure 1.79: OllyDbg: FNSTSW is executed


Figure 1.80: OllyDbg: TEST is executed
$Z F=0$, conditional jump is about to trigger now.

FSTP ST (or FSTP ST(0)) has been executed -1.2 has been popped from the stack, and 3.4 was left on top:


Figure 1.81: OllyDbg: FSTP is executed

We see that the FSTP ST
instruction works just like popping one value from the FPU stack.

Both FLD are executed:


Figure 1.82: OllyDbg: both FLD are executed

FCOM is about to execute.


Figure 1.83: OllyDbg: FCOM is finished

All conditional flags are cleared.


Figure 1.84: OllyDbg: FNSTSW has been executed


Figure 1.85: OllyDbg: TEST has been executed
$Z F=1$, jump will not happen now.

FSTP ST(1) has been executed: a value of 5.6 is now at the top of the FPU stack.


Figure 1.86: OllyDbg: FSTP has been executed

We now see that the FSTP ST(1) instruction works as follows: it leaves what has been at the top of the stack, but clears ST(1).

## GCC 4.4.1

Listing 1.212: GCC 4.4.1

```
d_max proc near
b = qword ptr -10h
a = qword ptr -8
a first half = dword ptr 8
a_second half = dword ptr 0Ch
b_first_half = dword ptr 10h
b_second_half = dword ptr 14h
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    sub esp, 10h
; put a and b to local stack:
    mov eax, [ebp+a_first_half]
    mov dword ptr [ebp+a], eax
    mov eax, [ebp+a second half]
    mov dword ptr [ebp+a+4], eax
    mov eax, [ebp+b first half]
```

```
    mov dword ptr [ebp+b], eax
    mov eax, [ebp+b_second_half]
    mov dword ptr [ebp+b+4], eax
; load a and b to FPU stack:
    fld [ebp+a]
    fld [ebp+b]
; current stack state: ST(0) - b; ST(1) - a
    fxch st(1) ; this instruction swapping ST(1) and ST(0)
; current stack state: ST(0) - a; ST(1) - b
    fucompp ; compare a and b and pop two values from stack, i.e., a and b
    fnstsw ax ; store FPU status to AX
    sahf ; load SF, ZF, AF, PF, and CF flags state from AH
    setnbe al ; store 1 to \(A L\), if \(C F=0\) and \(Z F=0\)
    test al, al ; AL==0 ?
    jz short loc_8048453 ; yes
    fld [ebp+a]
    jmp short locret_8048456
loc_8048453:
    fld [ebp+b]
locret_8048456:
    leave
    retn
d_max endp
```

FUCOMPP is almost like FCOM, but pops both values from the stack and handles "not-a-numbers" differently. A bit about not-a-numbers.

The FPU is able to deal with special values which are not-a-numbers or $\mathrm{NaNs}^{125}$. These are infinity, result of division by 0 , etc. Not-a-numbers can be "quiet" and "signaling". It is possible to continue to work with "quiet" NaNs, but if one tries to do any operation with "signaling" NaNs, an exception is to be raised.

FCOM raising an exception if any operand is NaN. FUCOM raising an exception only if any operand is a signaling $\mathrm{NaN}(\mathrm{SNaN})$.

The next instruction is SAHF (Store AH into Flags) -this is a rare instruction in code not related to the FPU. 8 bits from AH are moved into the lower 8 bits of the CPU flags in the following order:


Let's recall that FNSTSW moves the bits that interest us (C3/C2/C0) into AH and they are in positions $6,2,0$ of the AH register:


In other words, the fnstsw ax / sahf instruction pair moves C3/C2/C0 into ZF, PF and CF.
Now let's also recall the values of C3/C2/C0 in different conditions:

- If $a$ is greater than $b$ in our example, then C3/C2/C0 are to be set to: $0,0,0$.
- if $a$ is less than $b$, then the bits are to be set to: $0,0,1$.
- If $a=b$, then: 1, 0,0 .

In other words, these states of the CPU flags are possible after three FUCOMPP/FNSTSW/SAHF instructions:

- If $a>b$, the CPU flags are to be set as: $\mathrm{ZF}=0, \mathrm{PF}=0, \mathrm{CF}=0$.
- If $a<b$, then the flags are to be set as: $\mathrm{ZF}=0, \mathrm{PF}=0, \mathrm{CF}=1$.

[^71]- And if $a=b$, then: $\mathrm{ZF}=1, \mathrm{PF}=0, \mathrm{CF}=0$.

Depending on the CPU flags and conditions, SETNBE stores 1 or 0 to AL. It is almost the counterpart of JNBE, with the exception that SETcc ${ }^{126}$ stores 1 or 0 in AL, but Jcc does actually jump or not. SETNBE stores 1 only if $\mathrm{CF}=0$ and $\mathrm{ZF}=0$. If it is not true, 0 is to be stored into $A L$.
Only in one case both CF and ZF are 0: if $a>b$.
Then 1 is to be stored to $A L$, the subsequent $J Z$ is not to be triggered and the function will return _a. In all other cases, _b is to be returned.

## Optimizing GCC 4.4.1

Listing 1.213: Optimizing GCC 4.4.1

| d_max $\quad$public d_max <br> proc near |
| :---: |
| $\begin{array}{lll} \arg 0 & =\text { qword ptr } & 8 \\ \text { arg_8 } & =\text { qword ptr } & 10 \mathrm{~h} \end{array}$ |
| push ebp <br> mov ebp, esp <br> fld $\left[e b p+a r g \_0\right] ;$ <br> fld $\left[e b p+a r g \_8\right] ;$ |
| $\begin{gathered} \text {; stack state now: } \underset{\text { fxch }}{\text { ST }(0)} \underset{\text { st }(1)}{=} \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{ST}(1)=-\mathrm{a} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| ```; stack state now: ST(0) = _a, ST(1) = _b fucom st(\overline{1}) ; compare _a and _b fnstsw ax sahf ja short loc_8048448``` |
| ; store ST(0) to ST(0) (idle operation), |
| ; pop value at top of stack, |
| $\begin{array}{cl} \text {; leave _b at top } & \\ & \text { fstp } \\ & \text { st } \\ \text { stp } & \text { short loc_804844A } \end{array}$ |
| loc_8048448: <br> ; store _a to ST(1), pop value at top of stack, leave _a at top fstp st(1) |
| loc_804844A:  <br>  pop <br> retn <br> endp |

It is almost the same except that JA is used after SAHF. Actually, conditional jump instructions that check "larger", "lesser" or "equal" for unsigned number comparison (these are JA, JAE, JB, JBE, JE/JZ, JNA, JNAE, JNB, JNBE, JNE/JNZ) check only flags CF and ZF.

Let's recall where bits C3/C2/C0 are located in the AH register after the execution of FSTSW/FNSTSW:


Let's also recall, how the bits from AH are stored into the CPU flags after the execution of SAHF:


After the comparison, the C3 and C0 bits are moved into ZF and CF, so the conditional jumps are able work after. JA is triggering if both CF are ZF zero.

[^72]Thereby, the conditional jumps instructions listed here can be used after a FNSTSW/SAHF instruction pair.
Apparently, the FPU C3/C2/C0 status bits were placed there intentionally, to easily map them to base CPU flags without additional permutations?

## GCC 4.8.1 with -03 optimization turned on

Some new FPU instructions were added in the P6 Intel family ${ }^{127}$. These are FUCOMI (compare operands and set flags of the main CPU) and FCMOVcc (works like CMOVcc, but on FPU registers).
Apparently, the maintainers of GCC decided to drop support of pre-P6 Intel CPUs (early Pentiums, 80486, etc.).

And also, the FPU is no longer separate unit in P6 Intel family, so now it is possible to modify/check flags of the main CPU from the FPU.

So what we get is:
Listing 1.214: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1

```
fld QWORD PTR [esp+4] ; load "a"
fld QWORD PTR [esp+12] ; load "b"
; ST0=b, ST1=a
fxch st(1)
; ST0=a, ST1=b
; compare "a" and "b"
fucomi st, st(1)
; copy ST1 ("b" here) to ST0 if a<=b
; leave "a" in ST0 otherwise
fcmovbe st, st(1)
; discard value in ST1
fstp st(1)
ret
```

Hard to guess why FXCH (swap operands) is here.
It's possible to get rid of it easily by swapping the first two FLD instructions or by replacing FCMOVBE (below or equal) by FCMOVA (above). Probably it's a compiler inaccuracy.

So FUCOMI compares $\mathrm{ST}(0)(a)$ and $\mathrm{ST}(1)(b)$ and then sets some flags in the main CPU. FCMOVBE checks the flags and copies ST(1) ( $b$ here at the moment) to ST(0) ( $a$ here) if $S T 0(a)<=S T 1(b)$. Otherwise ( $a>b$ ), it leaves $a$ in ST(0).

The last FSTP leaves ST(0) on top of the stack, discarding the contents of ST(1).
Let's trace this function in GDB:
Listing 1.215: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1 and GDB

```
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon$ gcc -03 d max.c -o d max -fno-inline
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon$ gdb d_max
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/d_max...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) b d_max
Breakpoint 1 at 0x80484a0
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/dennis/polygon/d_max
Breakpoint 1, 0x080484a0 in d max ()
(gdb) ni
0x080484a4 in d max ()
(gdb) disas $eip
Dump of assembler code for function d_max:
    0x080484a0 <+0>: fldl 0x4(%esp)
=> 0x080484a4 <+4>: fldl 0xc(%esp)
    0x080484a8 <+8>: fxch %st(1)
    0x080484aa <+10>: fucomi %st(1),%st
    0x080484ac <+12>: fcmovbe %st(1),%st
    0x080484ae <+14>: fstp %st(1)
```

[^73]0x080484b0 <+16>: ret
End of assembler dump.
(gdb) ni
0x080484a8 in d max ()
(gdb) info float
R7: Valid 0x3fff9999999999999800 +1.199999999999999956
=>R6: Valid 0x4000d999999999999800 +3.399999999999999911
R5: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R4: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R3: Empty 0x000000000000000000000
R2: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R1: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R0: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
Status Word: 0x3000
TOP: 6
Control Word: 0x037f IM DM ZM OM UM PM
PC: Extended Precision (64-bits)
RC: Round to nearest
0x0fff
Instruction Pointer: 0x73:0x080484a4
Operand Pointer: 0x7b:0xbffff118
Opcode: 0x0000
(gdb) ni
0x080484aa in d max ()
(gdb) info float
R7: Valid 0x4000d999999999999800 +3.399999999999999911
=>R6: Valid 0x3fff9999999999999800 +1.199999999999999956
R5: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R4: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R3: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R2: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R1: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
R0: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
Status Word: 0x3000
TOP: 6
Control Word: 0x037f IM DM ZM OM UM PM
PC: Extended Precision (64-bits)
RC: Round to nearest
Tag Word: 0x0fff
Instruction Pointer: 0x73:0x080484a8
Operand Pointer: 0x7b:0xbffff118
Opcode: 0x0000
(gdb) disas \$eip
Dump of assembler code for function d_max:
0x080484a0 <+0>: fldl 0x4(%esp)
0x080484a4 <+4>: fldl 0xc(%esp)
0x080484a8 <+8>: fxch %st(1)
=> 0x080484aa <+10>: fucomi %st(1),%st
0x080484ac <+12>: fcmovbe %st(1),%st
0x080484ae <+14>: fstp %st(1)
0x080484b0 <+16>: ret
End of assembler dump.
(gdb) ni
0x080484ac in d_max ()
(gdb) info regis̄ters
eax 0x1 1
ecx 0xbffff1c4 -1073745468
edx 0x8048340 134513472
ebx 0xb7fbf000 - }120822579
esp 0xbffff10c 0xbffff10c
ebp 0xbffff128 0xbffff128
esi 0x0 0
edi 0x0 0
eip 0x80484ac 0x80484ac <d_max+12>
eflags 0x203 [ CF IF ]
cs 0x73 115
ss 0x7b 123
ds 0x7b 123

```
\begin{tabular}{lcl}
\hline es & \(0 \times 7 b\) & 123 \\
fs & \(0 \times 0\) & 0 \\
gs & \(0 \times 33\) & 51 \\
(gdb) ni & & \\
\(0 \times 080484\) ae & in & \(d\) max ()
\end{tabular}
(gdb) info float
    R7: Valid 0x4000d999999999999800 +3.399999999999999911
=>R6: Valid 0x4000d999999999999800 +3.399999999999999911
    R5: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R4: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R3: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R2: Empty \(0 x 00000000000000000000\)
    R1: Empty \(0 x 00000000000000000000\)
    R0: Empty \(0 x 00000000000000000000\)
Status Word: \(0 \times 3000\)
                            TOP: 6
Control Word: 0x037f IM DM ZM OM UM PM
    PC: Extended Precision (64-bits)
    RC: Round to nearest
Tag Word: 0x0fff
Instruction Pointer: 0x73:0x080484ac
Operand Pointer: 0x7b:0xbffff118
Opcode: 0x0000
(gdb) disas \$eip
Dump of assembler code for function d_max:
    0x080484a0 <+0>: fldl 0x4(\%esp)
    \(0 x 080484 a 4<+4>: \quad f l d l\) 0xc (\%esp)
    \(0 x 080484 a 8<+8>: \quad f x c h\) \%st(1)
    0x080484aa <+10>: fucomi \%st(1),\%st
    \(0 x 080484 a c<+12>: \quad f c m o v b e \% s t(1), \% s t\)
=> 0x080484ae <+14>: fstp \%st(1)
    0x080484b0 <+16>: ret
End of assembler dump.
(gdb) ni
0x080484b0 in d max ()
(gdb) info floāt
=>R7: Valid 0x4000d999999999999800 +3.399999999999999911
    R6: Empty 0x4000d999999999999800
    R5: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R4: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R3: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R2: Empty \(0 x 00000000000000000000\)
    R1: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
    R0: Empty 0x00000000000000000000
Status Word: \(0 \times 3800\)
                                    TOP: 7
Control Word: 0x037f IM DM ZM OM UM PM
                                PC: Extended Precision (64-bits)
                            RC: Round to nearest
Tag Word: 0x3fff
Instruction Pointer: 0x73:0x080484ae
Operand Pointer: 0x7b:0xbffff118
Opcode: 0x0000
(gdb) quit
A debugging session is active.
                            Inferior 1 [process 30194] will be killed.
Quit anyway? (y or n) y
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$

Using "ni", let's execute the first two FLD instructions.
Let's examine the FPU registers (line 33).
As it was mentioned before, the FPU registers set is a circular buffer rather than a stack ( 1.19 .5 on page 225). And GDB doesn't show STx registers, but internal the FPU registers (Rx). The arrow (at line 35) points to the current top of the stack.

You can also see the TOP register contents in Status Word (line 44)—it is 6 now, so the stack top is now pointing to internal register 6.

The values of \(a\) and \(b\) are swapped after FXCH is executed (line 54).
FUCOMI is executed (line 83). Let's see the flags: CF is set (line 95).
FCMOVBE has copied the value of \(b\) (see line 104).
FSTP leaves one value at the top of stack (line 136). The value of TOP is now 7, so the FPU stack top is pointing to internal register 7.

\section*{ARM}

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.216: Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)
```

VMOV D16, R2, R3 ; b
VMOV D17, R0, R1 ; a
VCMPE.F64 D17, D16
VMRS
VMOVGT.F64 D16, D17 ; copy "a" to D16
VMOV
R0, R1, D16
BX LR

```

A very simple case. The input values are placed into the D17 and D16 registers and then compared using the VCMPE instruction.

Just like in the x86 coprocessor, the ARM coprocessor has its own status and flags register (FPSCR \({ }^{128}\) ), since there is a necessity to store coprocessor-specific flags. And just like in x86, there are no conditional jump instruction in ARM, that can check bits in the status register of the coprocessor. So there is VMRS, which copies 4 bits ( \(\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}\) ) from the coprocessor status word into bits of the general status register (APSR \({ }^{129}\) ).

VMOVGT is the analog of the MOVGT, instruction for D-registers, it executes if one operand is greater than the other while comparing (GT-Greater Than).

If it gets executed, the value of \(a\) is to be written into D16 (that is currently stored in D17). Otherwise the value of \(b\) stays in the D16 register.

The penultimate instruction VMOV prepares the value in the D16 register for returning it via the R0 and R1 register pair.

Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)

Listing 1.217: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline VM0V & D16, R2, R3 ; b \\
VM0V & D17, R0, R1 ; a \\
VCMPE.F64 & D17, D16 \\
VMRS & APSR_nzcv, FPSCR \\
IT GT & \\
VMOVGT.F64 & D16, D17 \\
VM0V & R0, R1, D16 \\
BX & LR
\end{tabular}

Almost the same as in the previous example, however slightly different. As we already know, many instructions in ARM mode can be supplemented by condition predicate. But there is no such thing in Thumb mode. There is no space in the 16 -bit instructions for 4 more bits in which conditions can be encoded.

However, Thumb-2 was extended to make it possible to specify predicates to old Thumb instructions. Here, in the IDA-generated listing, we see the VMOVGT instruction, as in previous example.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{128}\) (ARM) Floating-Point Status and Control Register
\({ }^{129}\) (ARM) Application Program Status Register
}

In fact, the usual VMOV is encoded there, but IDA adds the -GT suffix to it, since there is a IT GT instruction placed right before it.

The IT instruction defines a so-called if-then block.
After the instruction it is possible to place up to 4 instructions, each of them has a predicate suffix. In our example, IT GT implies that the next instruction is to be executed, if the GT (Greater Than) condition is true.

Here is a more complex code fragment, by the way, from Angry Birds (for iOS):
Listing 1.218: Angry Birds Classic
```

..
ITE NE
VMOVNE
R2, R3, D16
VMOVEQ R2, R3, D17
BLX _objc_msgSend ; not suffixed

```

ITE stands for if-then-else
and it encodes suffixes for the next two instructions.
The first instruction executes if the condition encoded in ITE (NE, not equal) is true at, and the second-if the condition is not true. (The inverse condition of NE is EQ (equal)).

The instruction followed after the second VMOV (or VMOVEQ) is a normal one, not suffixed (BLX).
One more that's slightly harder, which is also from Angry Birds:
Listing 1.219: Angry Birds Classic
```

ITTTT EQ
MOVEQ R0, R4
ADDEQ SP, SP, \#0x20
POPEQ.W {R8,R10}
POPEQ {R4-R7,PC}
BLX ___stack_chk_fail ; not suffixed

```

Four "T" symbols in the instruction mnemonic mean that the four subsequent instructions are to be executed if the condition is true.

That's why IDA adds the -EQ suffix to each one of them.
And if there was, for example, ITEEE EQ (if-then-else-else-else), then the suffixes would have been set as follows:
```

-EQ
-NE
-NE
-NE

```

Another fragment from Angry Birds:
Listing 1.220: Angry Birds Classic
```

CMP.W R0, \#0xFFFFFFFF
ITTE LE
SUBLE.W
NEGLE
MOVGT
MOVS R6, \#0 ; not suffixed
CBZ R0, loc_1E7E32 ; not suffixed

```

\section*{ITTE (if-then-then-else)}
implies that the 1st and 2 nd instructions are to be executed if the LE (Less or Equal) condition is true, and the 3rd-if the inverse condition (GT-Greater Than) is true.

Compilers usually don't generate all possible combinations.
For example, in the mentioned Angry Birds game (classic version for iOS) only these variants of the IT instruction are used: IT, ITE, ITT, ITTE, ITTT, ITTTT. How to learn this? In IDA, it is possible to produce listing files, so it was created with an option to show 4 bytes for each opcode. Then, knowing the high part of the 16 -bit opcode (IT is \(0 \times B F\) ), we do the following using grep:
```

cat AngryBirdsClassic.lst | grep " BF" | grep "IT" > results.lst

```

By the way, if you program in ARM assembly language manually for Thumb-2 mode, and you add conditional suffixes, the assembler will add the IT instructions automatically with the required flags where it is necessary.

\section*{Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.221: Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{20}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
b \\
a \\
val_to_return saved_R7
\end{tabular}} & \(=-0 \times 20\) & \\
\hline & \(=-0 \times 18\) & \\
\hline & \(=-0 \times 10\) & \\
\hline & \(=-4\) & \\
\hline & STR & R7, [SP,\#saved_R7]! \\
\hline & MOV & R7, SP \\
\hline & SUB & SP, SP, \#0x1C \\
\hline & BIC & SP, SP, \#7 \\
\hline & VMOV & D16, R2, R3 \\
\hline & VMOV & D17, R0, R1 \\
\hline & VSTR & D17, [SP,\#0x20+a] \\
\hline & VSTR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+b] \\
\hline & VLDR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+a] \\
\hline & VLDR & D17, [SP,\#0x20+b] \\
\hline & VCMPE.F64 & D16, D17 \\
\hline & VMRS & APSR_nzcv, FPSCR \\
\hline & BLE & loc_2E08 \\
\hline & VLDR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+a] \\
\hline & VSTR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+val_to_return] \\
\hline & B & loc_2E10 \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{loc_2E08} \\
\hline & VLDR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+b] \\
\hline & VSTR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+val_to_return] \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{loc_2E10} \\
\hline & VLDR & D16, [SP,\#0x20+val_to_return] \\
\hline & VMOV & R0, R1, D16 \\
\hline & MOV & SP, R7 \\
\hline & LDR & R7, [SP+0x20+b],\#4 \\
\hline & BX & LR \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Almost the same as we already saw, but there is too much redundant code because the \(a\) and \(b\) variables are stored in the local stack, as well as the return value.

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Listing 1.222: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
PUSH & \{R3-R7,LR\} \\
MOVS & R4, R2 \\
MOVS & R5, R3 \\
MOVS & R6, R0 \\
MOVS & R7, R1 \\
BL & aeabi_cdrcmple \\
BCS & loc_1C0 \\
MOVS & R0, R6 \\
MOVS & R1, R7
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline & POP \\
loc_1C0 & \(\{R 3-\mathrm{R} 7, \mathrm{PC}\}\) \\
& \\
& MOVS \\
MOVS & R0, R4 \\
& R1, R5 \\
& POP \\
& \(\{\) R3-R7,PC \(\}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Keil doesn't generate FPU-instructions since it cannot rely on them being supported on the target CPU, and it cannot be done by straightforward bitwise comparing. So it calls an external library function to do the comparison: \(\qquad\) aeabi_cdrcmple.
N.B. The result of the comparison is to be left in the flags by this function, so the following BCS (Carry set-Greater than or equal) instruction can work without any additional code.

\section*{ARM64}

\section*{Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}
```

d_max:
; D0 - a, D1 - b
fcmpe d0, d1
fcsel d0, d0, d1, gt
; now result in D0
ret

```

The ARM64 ISA has FPU-instructions which set APSR the CPU flags instead of FPSCR for convenience. TheFPU is not a separate device here anymore (at least, logically). Here we see FCMPE. It compares the two values passed in D0 and D1 (which are the first and second arguments of the function) and sets APSR flags (N, Z, C, V).

FCSEL (Floating Conditional Select) copies the value of D0 or D1 into D0 depending on the condition (GTGreater Than), and again, it uses flags in APSR register instead of FPSCR.

This is much more convenient, compared to the instruction set in older CPUs.
If the condition is true (GT), then the value of D0 is copied into D0 (i.e., nothing happens). If the condition is not true, the value of D1 is copied into D0.

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}
```

d max:
; save input arguments in "Register Save Area"
sub sp, sp, \#16
str d0, [sp,8]
str d1, [sp]
; reload values
ldr xl, [sp,8]
ldr x0, [sp]
fmov d0, x1
fmov d1, x0
; D0 - a, D1 - b
fcmpe d0, d1
ble .L76
; a>b; load D0 (a) into X0
ldr x0, [sp,8]
b .L74
.L76:
; a<=b; load D1 (b) into X0
ldr x0, [sp]
.L74:
; result in X0
fmov d0, x0
; result in D0
add sp, sp, 16
ret

```

Non-optimizing GCC is more verbose.
First, the function saves its input argument values in the local stack (Register Save Area). Then the code reloads these values into registers X0/X1 and finally copies them to D0/D1 to be compared using FCMPE. A lot of redundant code, but that is how non-optimizing compilers work. FCMPE compares the values and sets the APSR flags. At this moment, the compiler is not thinking yet about the more convenient FCSEL instruction, so it proceed using old methods: using the BLE instruction (Branch if Less than or Equal). In the first case \((a>b)\), the value of \(a\) gets loaded into X0. In the other case \((a<=b)\), the value of \(b\) gets loaded into X0. Finally, the value from X0 gets copied into D0, because the return value needs to be in this register.

\section*{Exercise}

As an exercise, you can try optimizing this piece of code manually by removing redundant instructions and not introducing new ones (including FCSEL).

\section*{Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9—float}

Let's also rewrite this example to use float instead of double.
```

float f_max (float a, float b)
{
if (a>b)
return a;
return b;
};

```
```

f max:
; S0 - a, S1 - b
fcmpe s0, s1
fcsel s0, s0, s1, gt
; now result in S0
ret

```

It is the same code, but the S-registers are used instead of D- ones. It's because numbers of type float are passed in 32-bit S-registers (which are in fact the lower parts of the 64-bit D-registers).

\section*{MIPS}

The co-processor of the MIPS processor has a condition bit which can be set in the FPU and checked in the CPU.

Earlier MIPS-es have only one condition bit (called FCCO), later ones have 8 (called FCC7-FCC0). This bit (or bits) are located in the register called FCCR.

Listing 1.223: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)
```

d_max:
; set FPU condition bit if $f14<$f12 (b<a):
c.lt.d \$f14, \$f12
or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
; jump to locret_14 if condition bit is set
bclt locret_14
; this instruction is always executed (set return value to "a"):
mov.d \$f0, \$f12 ; branch delay slot
; this instruction is executed only if branch was not taken (i.e., if b>=a)
; set return value to "b":
mov.d \$f0, \$f14
locret_14:
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

```
1.20. ARRAYS
C.LT.D compares two values. LT is the condition "Less Than". D implies values of type double. Depending on the result of the comparison, the FCCO condition bit is either set or cleared.

BC1T checks the FCCO bit and jumps if the bit is set. T means that the jump is to be taken if the bit is set ("True"). There is also the instruction BC1F which jumps if the bit is cleared ("False").
Depending on the jump, one of function arguments is placed into \(\$ F 0\).

\subsection*{1.19.8 Some constants}

It's easy to find representations of some constants in Wikipedia for IEEE 754 encoded numbers. It's interesting to know that 0.0 in IEEE 754 is represented as 32 zero bits (for single precision) or 64 zero bits (for double). So in order to set a floating point variable to 0.0 in register or memory, one can use MOV or XOR reg, reg instruction. This is suitable for structures where many variables present of various data types. With usual memset() function one can set all integer variables to 0 , all boolean variables to false, all pointers to NULL, and all floating point variables (of any precision) to 0.0 .

\subsection*{1.19.9 Copying}

One may think inertially that FLD/FST instructions must be used to load and store (and hence, copy) IEEE 754 values. Nevertheless, same can be achieved easier by usual MOV instruction, which, of course, copies values bitwisely.

\subsection*{1.19.10 Stack, calculators and reverse Polish notation}

Now we understand why some old calculators use reverse Polish notation \({ }^{130}\). For example, for addition of 12 and 34 one has to enter 12 , then 34 , then press "plus" sign.
It's because old calculators were just stack machine implementations, and this was much simpler than to handle complex parenthesized expressions.

\subsection*{1.19.11 80 bits?}

Internal numbers representation in FPU - 80-bit. Strange number, because the number not in \(2^{n}\) form. There is a hypothesis that this is probably due to historical reasons-the standard IBM puched card can encode 12 rows of 80 bits. \(80 \cdot 25\) text mode resolution was also popular in past.
Wikipedia has another explanation: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extended_precision. If you know better, please a drop email to the author: dennis@yurichev.com.

\subsection*{1.19.12 x64}

On how floating point numbers are processed in x86-64, read more here: 1.31 on page 427 .

\subsection*{1.19.13 Exercises}
- http://challenges.re/60
- http://challenges.re/61

\subsection*{1.20 Arrays}

An array is just a set of variables in memory that lie next to each other and that have the same type \({ }^{131}\).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{130}\) wikipedia.org/wiki/Reverse_Polish_notation
\({ }^{131}\) AKA "homogeneous container"
}

\subsection*{1.20.1 Simple example}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int a[20];
int i;
for (i=0; i<20; i++)
a[i]=i*2;
for (i=0; i<20; i++)
printf ("a[%d]=%d\n", i, a[i]);
return 0;
};

```
x86
MSVC

Let's compile:
Listing 1.224: MSVC 2008
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{TEXT SEGMENT} \\
\hline i\$ = -84 & size \(=4\) \\
\hline a\$ \(=-80\) & ; size \(=80\) \\
\hline & PROC \\
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{\[
\begin{gathered}
\text { main } \\
\text { push } \\
\text { mov } \\
\text { sub } \\
\text { mov } \\
\text { jmp }
\end{gathered}
\]} & ebp \\
\hline & ebp, esp \\
\hline & esp, 84 ; 00000054H \\
\hline & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 0 \\
\hline & SHORT \$LN6@main \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN5@main:} \\
\hline mov & eax, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline add & eax, 1 \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], eax \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN6@main:} \\
\hline cmp & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 20 ; 00000014H \\
\hline jge & SHORT \$LN4@main \\
\hline & ecx, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline shl & ecx, 1 \\
\hline mov & edx, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp + edx*4], ecx \\
\hline jmp & SHORT \$LN5@main \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN4@main:} \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 0 \\
\hline jmp & SHORT \$LN3@main \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN2@main:} \\
\hline mov & eax, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline add & eax, 1 \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], eax \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN3@main:} \\
\hline cmp & DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 20 ; 00000014H \\
\hline jge & SHORT \$LN1@main \\
\hline mov & ecx, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline mov & edx, DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp+ecx*4] \\
\hline push & edx \\
\hline mov & eax, DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp] \\
\hline push & eax \\
\hline push & OFFSET \$SG2463 \\
\hline call & _printf \\
\hline add & esp, 12 ; 0000000cH \\
\hline jmp & SHORT \$LN2@main \\
\hline \$LN1@main: & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline xor & eax, eax \\
mov & esp, ebp \\
pop & ebp \\
ret & 0 \\
main & ENDP \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Nothing very special, just two loops: the first is a filling loop and second is a printing loop. The shl ecx, 1 instruction is used for value multiplication by 2 in ECX, more about below 1.18.2 on page 217 .
80 bytes are allocated on the stack for the array, 20 elements of 4 bytes.

Let's try this example in OllyDbg.
We see how the array gets filled:
each element is 32 -bit word of int type and its value is the index multiplied by 2 :


Figure 1.87: OllyDbg: after array filling

Since this array is located in the stack, we can see all its 20 elements there.

\section*{GCC}

Here is what GCC 4.4.1 does:
Listing 1.225: GCC 4.4.1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline main & public main proc near & ; DATA XREF: _start+17 \\
\hline var_70 & = dword ptr -70h & \\
\hline var_6C & = dword ptr -6Ch & \\
\hline var_68 & = dword ptr -68h & \\
\hline i_2 & = dword ptr -54h & \\
\hline i & = dword ptr -4 & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { push } & \text { ebp } \\
\text { mov } & \text { ebp, esp }
\end{array}
\] & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
1.20. ARRAYS
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & \begin{tabular}{l}
and \\
sub \\
mov \\
jmp
\end{tabular} & ```
esp, 0FFFFFFFF0h
esp, 70h
[esp+70h+i], 0 ; i=0
short loc_804840A
``` \\
\hline loc_80483F7: & \begin{tabular}{l}
mov \\
mov \\
add \\
mov \\
add
\end{tabular} & ```
eax, [esp+70h+i]
edx, [esp+70h+i]
edx, edx ; edx=i*2
[esp+eax*4+70h+i_2], edx
[esp+70h+i], 1 ; i++
``` \\
\hline loc_804840A: & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cmp } \\
& \text { jle } \\
& \text { mov } \\
& \text { jmp }
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [esp+70h+i], 13h } \\
& \text { short loc } 80483 \mathrm{~F} 7 \\
& {[\text { esp+70h+i], } 0} \\
& \text { short loc_8048441 }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline loc_804841B: & \begin{tabular}{l}
mov \\
mov \\
mov \\
mov \\
mov \\
mov \\
mov \\
call \\
add
\end{tabular} & ```
eax, [esp+70h+i]
edx, [esp+eax*4+70h+i_2]
eax, offset aADD ; "a[%d]=%d\n"
[esp+70h+var_68], edx
edx, [esp+70\overline{h}+i]
[esp+70h+var_6C], edx
[esp+70h+var_70], eax
printf
[esp+70h+i], 1
``` \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { loc_8048441: } \\
& \text { main }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
cmp \\
jle \\
mov \\
leave retn endp
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [esp+70h+i], } 13 \mathrm{~h} \\
& \text { short loc_804841B } \\
& \text { eax, } 0
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

By the way, variable \(a\) is of type int* (the pointer to int)-you can pass a pointer to an array to another function, but it's more correct to say that a pointer to the first element of the array is passed (the addresses of rest of the elements are calculated in an obvious way).

If you index this pointer as \(a[i d x]\), \(i d x\) is just to be added to the pointer and the element placed there (to which calculated pointer is pointing) is to be returned.

An interesting example: a string of characters like "string" is an array of characters and it has a type of const char[].

An index can also be applied to this pointer.
And that is why it is possible to write things like "string"[i]-this is a correct C/C++ expression!

\section*{ARM}

Non-optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

main
STMFD SP!, {R4,LR}
SUB SP, SP, \#0x50 ; allocate place for 20 int variables
; first loop

| MOV | R4, \#0 | ; i |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $B$ | loc 4A0 |  |

loc_494
MOV R0, R4,LSL\#1 ; R0=R4*2
STR R0, [SP,R4,LSL\#2] ; store R0 to SP+R4<<2 (same as SP+R4*4)
ADD R4, R4, \#1 ; i=i+1

```
loc_4A0
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { CMP } & \text { R4, \#20 } & \text {; i<20? } \\
\text { BLT } & \text { loc_494 } & \text {; yes, run loop body again }
\end{array}
\]
; second loop
```

loc_4B0
B loc_4C4
LDR R2, [SP,R4,LSL\#2] ; (second printf argument) R2=*(SP+R4<<4) (same as *(SP+\swarrow
\ R4*4))
MOV R1, R4 ; (first printf argument) R1=i
ADR R0, aADD ; "a[%d]=%d\n"
BL 2printf
ADD \overline{R4}, R4, \#1 ; i=i+1

```
loc_4C4
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
CMP & R4, \#20 & ; i<20? \\
BLT & loc_4B0 & ; yes, run loop body again \\
MOV & R0, \#0 & ; value to return \\
ADD & SP, SP, \#0x50 & ; deallocate chunk, allocated for 20 int variables \\
LDMFD & SP!, \{R4,PC &
\end{tabular}
int type requires 32 bits for storage (or 4 bytes),
so to store 20 int variables \(80(0 x 50)\) bytes are needed. So that is why the SUB SP, SP, \#0x50 instruction in the function's prologue allocates exactly this amount of space in the stack.

In both the first and second loops, the loop iterator \(i\) is placed in the R 4 register.
The number that is to be written into the array is calculated as \(i * 2\), which is effectively equivalent to shifting it left by one bit,
so MOV R0, R4, LSL\#1 instruction does this.
STR R0, [SP,R4,LSL\#2] writes the contents of R0 into the array.
Here is how a pointer to array element is calculated: SP points to the start of the array, R4 is \(i\).
So shifting \(i\) left by 2 bits is effectively equivalent to multiplication by 4 (since each array element has a size of 4 bytes) and then it's added to the address of the start of the array.
The second loop has an inverse LDR R2, [SP, R4, LSL\#2] instruction. It loads the value we need from the array, and the pointer to it is calculated likewise.

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}
_main
; allocate place for 20 int variables + one more variable
SUB SP, SP, \#0x54
; first loop
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
MOVS & R0, \#0 & ; i \\
MOV & R5, SP & ; pointer to first array element
\end{tabular}
loc_1CE
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
LSLS & R1, R0, \#1 & \(; \mathrm{R} 1=\mathrm{i} \ll 1\) (same as \(i * 2)\) \\
LSLS & R2, R0, \#2 & \(; \mathrm{R2=i<<2} \mathrm{(same} \mathrm{as} i * 4)\) \\
ADDS & R0, R0, \#1 & ; \(i=i+1\) \\
CMP & R0, \#20 & ; i<20? \\
STR & R1, [R5,R2] & ; store R1 to *(R5+R2) (same R5+i*4) \\
BLT & loc_1CE & ; yes, \(i<20\), run loop body again
\end{tabular}
; second loop
MOVS R4, \#0 ; i=0
loc_1DC
1.20. ARRAYS


Thumb code is very similar.
Thumb mode has special instructions for bit shifting (like LSLS), which calculates the value to be written into the array and the address of each element in the array as well.

The compiler allocates slightly more space in the local stack, however, the last 4 bytes are not used.

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 (ARM64)}

Listing 1.226: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1 (ARM64)
```

.LC0:
.string "a[%d]=%d\n"
main:
; save FP and LR in stack frame:
stp x29, x30, [sp, -112]!
; set stack frame (FP=SP)
add x29, sp, 0
; setting initial counter variable at 0 (WZR is the register always holding zero):
str wzr, [x29,108]
; jump to loop condition checking code:
b .L2
.L3:
; load value of "i" variable:
ldr w0, [x29,108]
; multiplicate it by 2:
lsl w2, w0, 1
; find a place of an array in local stack:
add x0, x29, 24
; load 32-bit integer from local stack and sign extend it to 64-bit one:
ldrsw x1, [x29,108]
; calculate address of element (X0+X1<<2=array address+i*4) and store W2 (i*2) there:
str w2, [x0,x1,lsl 2]
; increment counter (i):
ldr w0, [x29,108]
add w0, w0, 1
str w0, [x29,108]
.L2:
; check if we finished:
ldr w0, [x29,108]
cmp w0, 19
; jump to L3 (loop body begin) if not:
ble .L3
; second part of the function begins here.
; setting initial counter variable at 0.
; by the way, the same place in the local stack was used for counter,
; because the same local variable (i) is being used as counter.
str wzr, [x29,108]
b .L4
.L5:
; calculate array address:
add x0, x29, 24
; load "i" value:
ldrsw x1, [x29,108]
; load value from the array at the address (X0+X1<<2 = address of array + i*4)
ldr w2, [x0,xl,lsl 2]

```
```

; load address of the "a[\%d]=\%d\n" string:
adrp x0, .LC0
add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
; load "i" variable to $W 1$ and pass it to printf() as second argument:
ldr w1, [x29,108]
; W2 still contains the value of array element which was just loaded.
; call printf():
bl printf
increment "i" variable:
ldr w0, [x29,108]
add w0, w0, 1
str w0, [x29,108]
.L4:
; are we finished?
ldr w0, [x29,108]
cmp w0, 19
; jump to the loop body begin if not:
ble .L5
; return 0
mov w0, 0
; restore FP and LR:
ldp x29, x30, [sp], 112
ret

```

\section*{MIPS}

The function uses a lot of S- registers which must be preserved, so that's why its values are saved in the function prologue and restored in the epilogue.

Listing 1.227: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

main
var_70 = -0x70
var_68 = -0x68
var 14 = -0x14
var_10 = -0x10
var_C = -0xC
var 8 = -8
var 4 = -4
; function prologue:
lui \$gp, (_gnu_local_gp >> 16)
addiu \$sp, -0x80
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x80+var 4($sp)
sw $s3, 0x80+var_8($sp)
sw $s2, 0x80+var_C($sp)
sw $s1, 0x80+var_10($sp)
sw $s0, 0x80+var 14($sp)
sw $gp, 0x80+var_70($sp)
addiu \$s1, \$sp, 0x80+var 68
move \$v1, \$s1
move \$v0, \$zero
; that value will be used as a loop terminator.
; it was precalculated by GCC compiler at compile stage:
li \$a0, 0x28 \# '('
loc 34: \# CODE XREF: main+3C
; store value into memory:
sw $v0, 0($v1)
; increase value to be stored by 2 at each iteration:
addiu \$v0, 2
; loop terminator reached?
bne \$v0, \$a0, loc_34
; add 4 to address anyway:
addiu \$v1, 4
; array filling loop is ended
; second loop begin

```
1.20. ARRAYS


Something interesting: there are two loops and the first one doesn't need \(i\), it needs only \(i * 2\) (increased by 2 at each iteration) and also the address in memory (increased by 4 at each iteration).

So here we see two variables, one (in \$V0) increasing by 2 each time, and another (in \$V1) — by 4.
The second loop is where printf() is called and it reports the value of \(i\) to the user, so there is a variable which is increased by 1 each time (in \$S0) and also a memory address (in \$S1) increased by 4 each time.
That reminds us of loop optimizations we considered earlier: 3.7 on page 490.
Their goal is to get rid of multiplications.

\subsection*{1.20.2 Buffer overflow}

\section*{Reading outside array bounds}

So, array indexing is just array[index]. If you study the generated code closely, you'll probably note the missing index bounds checking, which could check if it is less than 20. What if the index is 20 or greater? That's the one C/C++ feature it is often blamed for.

Here is a code that successfully compiles and works:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int a[20];
int i;
for (i=0; i<20; i++)
a[i]=i*2;
printf ("a[20]=%d\n", a[20]);
return 0;
};

```

Compilation results (MSVC 2008):

Listing 1.228: Non-optimizing MSVC 2008
```

$SG2474 DB 'a[20]=%d', 0aH, 00H
i$ = -84 ; size = 4
a\$ = -80 ; size = 80
main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 84
mov DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 0
jmp SHORT \$LN3@main
$LN2@main:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
add eax, 1
mov DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], eax
$LN3@main:
    cmp DWORD PTR i$[ebp], 20
jge SHORT $LN1@main
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
shl ecx, 1
mov edx, DWORD PTR i$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[eb}p+edx*4], ec
jmp SHORT \$LN2@main
$LN1@main:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp+80]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG2474 ; 'a[20]=%d'
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
add esp, 8
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP
TEXT ENDS
END

```

The code produced this result:
Listing 1.229: OllyDbg: console output
\(a[20]=1638280\)
It is just something that has been lying in the stack near to the array, 80 bytes away from its first element.

Let's try to find out where did this value come from, using OllyDbg.
Let's load and find the value located right after the last array element:


Figure 1.88: OllyDbg: reading of the 20th element and execution of printf()

What is this? Judging by the stack layout, this is the saved value of the EBP register.

Let's trace further and see how it gets restored:


Figure 1.89: OllyDbg: restoring value of EBP

Indeed, how it could be different? The compiler may generate some additional code to check the index value to be always in the array's bounds (like in higher-level programming languages \({ }^{132}\) ) but this makes the code slower.

\section*{Writing beyond array bounds}

OK, we read some values from the stack illegally, but what if we could write something to it?
Here is what we have got:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int a[20];
int i;
for (i=0; i<30; i++)
a[i]=i;
return 0;
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{132}\) Java, Python, etc.
}

And what we get:
Listing 1.230: Non-optimizing MSVC 2008
```

_TEXT SEGMENT
_i\$ = -84 ; size = 4
_a\$ = -80 ; size = 80
main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 84
mov DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], 0
jmp SHORT \$LN3@main
$LN2@main:
mov eax, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
add eax, 1
mov DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], eax
$LN3@main:
cmp DWORD PTR _i$[ebp], 30 ; 0000001eH
jge SHORT $LN1@main
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _i$[ebp]
mov edx, DWORD PTR i$[ebp] ; that instruction is obviously redundant
mov DWORD PTR _a$[e\overline{b}p+ecx*4], edx ; ECX could be used as second operand here instead
jmp SHORT \$LN2@main
\$LN1@main:
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

The compiled program crashes after running. No wonder. Let's see where exactly does it is crash.

Let's load it into OllyDbg, and trace until all 30 elements are written:


Figure 1.90: OllyDbg: after restoring the value of EBP

Trace until the function end:


Figure 1.91: OllyDbg: EIP has been restored, but OllyDbg can't disassemble at \(0 \times 15\)

Now please keep your eyes on the registers.
EIP is \(0 \times 15\) now. It is not a legal address for code-at least for win32 code! We got there somehow against our will. It is also interesting that the EBP register contain \(0 \times 14\), ECX and EDX contain \(0 \times 1 \mathrm{D}\).
Let's study stack layout a bit more.
After the control flow has been passed to main(), the value in the EBP register was saved on the stack. Then, 84 bytes were allocated for the array and the \(i\) variable. That's (20+1)*sizeof(int). ESP now points to the _i variable in the local stack and after the execution of the next PUSH something, something is appearing next to _i.
That's the stack layout while the control is in main():
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline ESP & 4 bytes allocated for \(i\) variable \\
\hline ESP+4 & 80 bytes allocated for a [20] array \\
\hline ESP+84 & saved EBP value \\
\hline ESP +88 & return address \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
a[19]=something statement writes the last int in the bounds of the array (in bounds so far!).
a[20]=something statement writes something to the place where the value of EBP is saved.
Please take a look at the register state at the moment of the crash. In our case, 20 has been written in the 20th element. At the function end, the function epilogue restores the original EBP value. ( 20 in decimal
is \(0 \times 14\) in hexadecimal). Then RET gets executed, which is effectively equivalent to POP EIP instruction.
The RET instruction takes the return address from the stack (that is the address in CRT, which has called main()), and 21 is stored there ( \(0 \times 15\) in hexadecimal). The CPU traps at address \(0 \times 15\), but there is no executable code there, so exception gets raised.
Welcome! It is called a buffer overflow \({ }^{133}\).
Replace the int array with a string (char array), create a long string deliberately and pass it to the program, to the function, which doesn't check the length of the string and copies it in a short buffer, and you'll able to point the program to an address to which it must jump. It's not that simple in reality, but that is how it emerged. Classic article about it: [Aleph One, Smashing The Stack For Fun And Profit, (1996)] \({ }^{134}\).

\section*{GCC}

Let's try the same code in GCC 4.4.1. We get:


Running this in Linux will produce: Segmentation fault.
If we run this in the GDB debugger, we get this:
```

(gdb) r
Starting program: /home/dennis/RE/1
Program received signal SIGSEGV, Segmentation fault.
0x00000016 in ?? ()
(gdb) info registers
eax 0x0 0
ecx 0xd2f96388 -755407992
edx 0x1d 29
ebx 0x26eff4 2551796
esp 0xbffff4b0 0xbffff4b0
ebp 0x15 0x15
esi 0x0 0
edi 0x0 0
eip 0x16 0x16
eflags 0x10202 [ IF RF ]
cs 0x73 115
ss 0x7b 123
ds 0x7b 123
es 0x7b 123
fs 0x0 0
gs 0x33 51

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{133}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{134}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17266
}

The register values are slightly different than in win32 example, since the stack layout is slightly different too.

\subsection*{1.20.3 Buffer overflow protection methods}

There are several methods to protect against this scourge, regardless of the C/C++ programmers' negligence. MSVC has options like \({ }^{135}\) :
```

/RTCs Stack Frame runtime checking
/GZ Enable stack checks (/RTCs)

```

One of the methods is to write a random value between the local variables in stack at function prologue and to check it in function epilogue before the function exits. If value is not the same, do not execute the last instruction RET, but stop (or hang). The process will halt, but that is much better than a remote attack to your host.
This random value is called a "canary" sometimes, it is related to the miners' canary \({ }^{136}\), they were used by miners in the past days in order to detect poisonous gases quickly.

Canaries are very sensitive to mine gases, they become very agitated in case of danger, or even die.
If we compile our very simple array example ( 1.20 .1 on page 268) in MSVC with RTC1 and RTCs option, you can see a call to @_RTC_CheckStackVars@8 a function at the end of the function that checks if the "canary" is correct.

Let's see how GCC handles this. Let's take an alloca() ( 1.7 .2 on page 35) example:
```

\#ifdef __GNUC
\#includ\overline{e}<all\overline{oca.h> // GCC}
\#else
\#include <malloc.h> // MSVC
\#endif
\#include <stdio.h>
void f()
{
char *buf=(char*)alloca (600);
\#ifdef __GNUC
snprintf (buf, 600, "hi! %d, %d, %d\n", 1, 2, 3); // GCC
\#else
snprintf (buf, 600, "hi! %d, %d, %d\n", 1, 2, 3); // MSVC
\#endif
puts (buf);
};

```

By default, without any additional options, GCC 4.7.3 inserts a "canary" check into the code:
Listing 1.231: GCC 4.7.3
```

.LC0:
.string "hi! %d, %d, %d\n"
f:
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ebx
sub esp, 676
lea ebx, [esp+39]
and ebx, -16
mov DWORD PTR [esp+20], 3
mov DWORD PTR [esp+16], 2
mov DWORD PTR [esp+12], 1
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "hi! %d, %d, %d\n"
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], 600

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{135}\) compiler-side buffer overflow protection methods: wikipedia.org/wiki/Buffer_overflow_protection
\({ }^{136}\) wikipedia.org/wiki/Domestic_canary\#Miner.27s_canary
}


The random value is located in gs:20. It gets written on the stack and then at the end of the function the value in the stack is compared with the correct "canary" in gs:20. If the values are not equal, the stack_chk_fail function is called and we can see in the console something like that (Ubuntu 13.04 x86):
```

*** buffer overflow detected ***: ./2_1 terminated
======= Backtrace: =========
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(__fortify_fail+0x63)[0xb7699bc3]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(+0x10593a)[0xb769893a]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(+0x105008)[0xb7698008]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(_IO_default_xsputn+0x8c)[0xb7606e5c]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(_IO_vfprintf+0x165)[0xb75d7a45]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(__vsprintf_chk+0xc9)[0xb76980d9]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(__sprintf_chk+0x2f)[0xb7697fef]
./2_1[0x8048404]
/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6(__libc_start_main+0xf5)[0xb75ac935]
======= Memory map: ========
08048000-08049000 r-xp 00000000 08:01 2097586 /home/dennis/2_1
08049000-0804a000 r--p 00000000 08:01 2097586 /home/dennis/2_1
0804a000-0804b000 rw-p 00001000 08:01 2097586 /home/dennis/2_1
094d1000-094f2000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0 [heap]
b7560000-b757b000 r-xp 00000000 08:01 1048602 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libgcc_s.so.1
b757b000-b757c000 r--p 0001a000 08:01 1048602 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libgcc_s.so.1
b757c000-b757d000 rw-p 0001b000 08:01 1048602 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libgcc_s.so.1
b7592000-b7593000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0
b7593000-b7740000 r-xp 00000000 08:01 1050781 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc-2.17.so
b7740000-b7742000 r--p 001ad000 08:01 1050781 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc-2.17.so
b7742000-b7743000 rw-p 001af000 08:01 1050781 /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc-2.17.so
b7743000-b7746000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0
b775a000-b775d000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0
b775d000-b775e000 r-xp 00000000 00:00 0
b775e000-b777e000 r-xp 00000000 08:01 1050794
b777e000-b777f000 r--p 0001f000 08:01 1050794
b777f000-b7780000 rw-p 00020000 08:01 1050794
bff35000-bff56000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0

```
Aborted (core dumped)
gs is the so-called segment register. These registers were used widely in MS-DOS and DOS-extenders times. Today, its function is different.
To say it briefly, the gs register in Linux always points to the \(\operatorname{TLS}^{137}\) ( 6.2 on page 742 )—some information specific to thread is stored there. By the way, in win32 the fs register plays the same role, pointing to TIB \({ }^{138139}\).

More information can be found in the Linux kernel source code (at least in 3.11 version), in arch/x86/include/asm/stackprotector. \(h\) this variable is described in the comments.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{137}\) Thread Local Storage
\({ }^{138}\) Thread Information Block
\({ }^{139}\) wikipedia.org/wiki/Win32_Thread_Information_Block
}

Let's get back to our simple array example ( 1.20 .1 on page 268),
again, now we can see how LLVM checks the correctness of the "canary":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline main & \\
\hline var 64 & \(=-0 \times 64\) \\
\hline var_60 & \(=-0 \times 60\) \\
\hline var_5C & \(=-0 \times 5 \mathrm{C}\) \\
\hline var_58 & \(=-0 \times 58\) \\
\hline var_54 & \(=-0 \times 54\) \\
\hline var_50 & \(=-0 \times 50\) \\
\hline var_4C & \(=-0 \times 4 C\) \\
\hline var_48 & \(=-0 \times 48\) \\
\hline var_44 & \(=-0 \times 44\) \\
\hline var_40 & \(=-0 \times 40\) \\
\hline var_3C & \(=-0 \times 3 \mathrm{C}\) \\
\hline var_38 & \(=-0 \times 38\) \\
\hline var_34 & \(=-0 \times 34\) \\
\hline var_30 & \(=-0 \times 30\) \\
\hline var_2C & \(=-0 \times 2 \mathrm{C}\) \\
\hline var_28 & \(=-0 \times 28\) \\
\hline var_24 & \(=-0 \times 24\) \\
\hline var_20 & \(=-0 \times 20\) \\
\hline var_1C & \(=-0 \times 1 \mathrm{C}\) \\
\hline var_18 & \(=-0 \times 18\) \\
\hline canāry & \(=-0 \times 14\) \\
\hline var_10 & \(=-0 \times 10\) \\
\hline PUSH & \{R4-R7, LR \} \\
\hline ADD & R7, SP, \#0xC \\
\hline STR.W & R8, [SP,\#0xC+var_10]! \\
\hline SUB & SP, SP, \#0x54 \\
\hline MOVW & R0, \#aObjc_methtype ; "objc_methtype" \\
\hline MOVS & R2, \#0 \\
\hline MOVT.W & R0, \#0 \\
\hline MOVS & R5, \#0 \\
\hline ADD & R0, PC \\
\hline LDR.W & R8, [R0] \\
\hline LDR.W & R0, [R8] \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+canary] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#2 \\
\hline STR & R2, [SP,\#0x64+var_64] \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_60] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#4 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_5C] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#6 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_58] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#8 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_54] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0xA \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_50] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0xC \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_4C] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0xE \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_48] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x10 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_44] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x12 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_40] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x14 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_3C] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x16 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_38] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x18 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_34] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x1A \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_30] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x1C \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_2C] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x1E \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_28] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x20 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_24] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x22 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_20] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x24 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_1C] \\
\hline MOVS & R0, \#0x26 \\
\hline STR & R0, [SP,\#0x64+var_18] \\
\hline MOV & R4, 0xFDA ; "a[\%d] \(=\%\) d \({ }^{\text {n }}\) \\
\hline MOV & R0, SP \\
\hline ADDS & R6, R0, \#4 \\
\hline ADD & R4, PC \\
\hline B & loc_2F1C \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
; second loop begin
loc 2F14
ADDS R0, R5, \#1
LDR.W R2, [R6,R5,LSL\#2]
MOV R5, R0
loc 2F1C
MOV R0, R4
MOV R1, R5
BLX _printf
CMP R5, \#0x13
BNE loc_2F14
LDR.W R0, [R8]
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x64+canary]
CMP R0, R1
ITTTT EQ ; is canary still correct?
MOVEQ R0, \#0
ADDEQ SP, SP, \#0x54
LDREQ.W R8, [SP+0x64+var_64],\#4
POPEQ \{R4-R7,PC\}
BLX __stack_chk_fail

First of all, as we see, LLVM "unrolled" the loop and all values were written into an array one-by-one, precalculated, as LLVM concluded it can work faster. By the way, instructions in ARM mode may help to do this even faster, and finding this could be your homework.

At the function end we see the comparison of the "canaries"-the one in the local stack and the correct one, to which R8 points.

If they are equal to each other, a 4-instruction block is triggered by ITTTT EQ, which contains writing 0 in R0, the function epilogue and exit. If the "canaries" are not equal, the block being skipped, and the jump to \(\qquad\) stack_chk_fail function will occur, which, perhaps will halt execution.

\subsection*{1.20.4 One more word about arrays}

Now we understand why it is impossible to write something like this in C/C++ code:
```

void f(int size)
{
int a[size];
};

```

That's just because the compiler must know the exact array size to allocate space for it in the local stack layout on at the compiling stage.

If you need an array of arbitrary size, allocate it by using malloc(), then access the allocated memory block as an array of variables of the type you need.
1.20. ARRAYS

Or use the C99 standard feature [ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007)6.7.5/2], and it works like alloca() ( 1.7.2 on page 35) internally.
It's also possible to use garbage collecting libraries for C .
And there are also libraries supporting smart pointers for \(\mathrm{C}++\).

\subsection*{1.20.5 Array of pointers to strings}

Here is an example for an array of pointers.
Listing 1.232: Get month name
```

\#include <stdio.h>
const char* month1[]=
{
"January", "February", "March", "April",
"May", "June", "July", "August",
"September", "October", "November", "December"
};
// in 0..11 range
const char* get_month1 (int month)
{
return month1[month];
};

```
x64
Listing 1.233: Optimizing MSVC 2013 x64
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline DATA & SEGMENT & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{month1} & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3122 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3123 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3124 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT:\$SG3125 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT:\$SG3126 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3127 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3128 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3129 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3130 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3131 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3132 \\
\hline & DQ & FLAT: \$SG3133 \\
\hline \$SG3122 & DB & 'January', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3123 & DB & 'February', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3124 & DB & 'March', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3125 & DB & 'April', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3126 & DB & 'May', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3127 & DB & 'June', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3128 & DB & 'July', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3129 & DB & 'August', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3130 & DB & 'September', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3156 & DB & '\%s', 0aH, 00H \\
\hline \$SG3131 & DB & 'October', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3132 & DB & 'November', 00H \\
\hline \$SG3133 & DB & 'December', 00H \\
\hline DATA & ENDS & \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{```
month$ = 8
get month1 PROC
```}} \\
\hline & & \\
\hline & movsxd & rax, ecx \\
\hline & lea & rcx, OFFSET FLAT:month1 \\
\hline & mov & rax, QWORD PTR [rcx+rax*8] \\
\hline  & ret & 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The code is very simple:
- The first MOVSXD instruction copies a 32-bit value from ECX (where month argument is passed) to RAX with sign-extension (because the month argument is of type int).
The reason for the sign extension is that this 32 -bit value is to be used in calculations with other 64-bit values.

Hence, it has to be promoted to 64 -bit \({ }^{140}\).
- Then the address of the pointer table is loaded into RCX.
- Finally, the input value (month) is multiplied by 8 and added to the address. Indeed: we are in a 64bit environment and all address (or pointers) require exactly 64 bits (or 8 bytes) for storage. Hence, each table element is 8 bytes wide. And that's why to pick a specific element, month \(* 8\) bytes has to be skipped from the start. That's what MOV does. In addition, this instruction also loads the element at this address. For 1, an element would be a pointer to a string that contains "February", etc.
Optimizing GCC 4.9 can do the job even better \({ }^{141}\) :
Listing 1.234: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

movsx rdi, edi
mov rax, QWORD PTR month1[0+rdi*8]
ret

```

\section*{32-bit MSVC}

Let's also compile it in the 32-bit MSVC compiler:
Listing 1.235: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 86\)
```

month\$ = 8
_get_month1 PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR month\$[esp-4]
mov eax, DWORD PTR _month1[eax*4]
ret 0
get month1 ENDP

```

The input value does not need to be extended to 64-bit value, so it is used as is.
And it's multiplied by 4, because the table elements are 32-bit (or 4 bytes) wide.

\section*{32-bit ARM}

\section*{ARM in ARM mode}

Listing 1.236: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

get_month1 PROC
LDR r1,|L0.100|
LDR r0,[r1,r0,LSL \#2]
BX lr
ENDP

```
|L0.100|
    DCD ||.data||
    DCB "January",0
    DCB "February",0
    DCB "March",0
    DCB "April",0
    DCB "May",0

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{140}\) It is somewhat weird, but negative array index could be passed here as month (negative array indices will have been explained later: 3.19 on page 593). And if this happens, the negative input value of int type is sign-extended correctly and the corresponding element before table is picked. It is not going to work correctly without sign-extension
141 " \(0+\) " was left in the listing because GCC assembler output is not tidy enough to eliminate it. It's displacement, and it's zero here.
}
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\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & DCB & "June", 0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "July", 0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "August", 0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "September",0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "October", 0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "November",0 & \\
\hline & DCB & "December",0 & \\
\hline & AREA & data||, DATA, A & IGN=2 \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & |+0x8 \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 11\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 17\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & | \(+0 \times 1 \mathrm{~d}\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 21\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 26\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 2 \mathrm{~b}\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 32\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 3 \mathrm{c}\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & \(1+0 \times 44\) \\
\hline & DCD & ||.conststring & |+0x4d \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The address of the table is loaded in R1.
All the rest is done using just one LDR instruction.
Then input value month is shifted left by 2 (which is the same as multiplying by 4), then added to R1 (where the address of the table is) and then a table element is loaded from this address.

The 32-bit table element is loaded into R0 from the table.

\section*{ARM in Thumb mode}

The code is mostly the same, but less dense, because the LSL suffix cannot be specified in the LDR instruction here:
```

get month1 PROC
LSLS r0,r0,\#2
LDR rl,|L0.64
LDR r0,[r1,r0]
BX lr
ENDP

```

\section*{ARM64}

Listing 1.237: Optimizing GCC 4.9 ARM64
get_month1:
adrp \(x 1\), .LANCHOR0
add \(\quad\) 1, \(x 1\), :lo12:.LANCHOR0
ldr x0, [x1,w0,sxtw 3]
ret
. LANCHOR0 = . + 0
.type month1, \%object
.size month1, 96
month1:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
.xword & .LC2 \\
.xword &. LC3 \\
.xword &. LC4 \\
.xword &. LC5 \\
.xword & .LC6 \\
.xword & .LC7 \\
.xword &. LC8 \\
.xword &. LC9 \\
.xword &. LC10
\end{tabular}
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The address of the table is loaded in X1 using ADRP/ADD pair.
Then corresponding element is picked using just one LDR, which takes W0 (the register where input argument month is), shifts it 3 bits to the left (which is the same as multiplying by 8), sign-extends it (this is what "sxtw" suffix implies) and adds to X0. Then the 64-bit value is loaded from the table into X0.

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.238: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

get_month1:
; load address of table into \$v0:
la \$v0, month1
; take input value and multiply it by 4:
sll \$a0, 2
; sum up address of table and multiplied value:
addu \$a0, \$v0
; load table element at this address into \$v0:
lw $v0, 0($a0)
; return
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
.data \# .data.rel.local
.globl month1
month1: .word aJanuary
.word aFebruary
.word aMarch
.word aApril
.word aMay
.word aJune
.word aJuly
.word aAugust
.word aSeptember
.word aOctober
.word aNovember
word aDecember
.data \# .rodata.str1.4
aJanuary: .ascii "January"<0>
aFebruary: .ascii "February"<0>

```
1.20. ARRAYS
\begin{tabular}{|ll}
\hline aMarch: & .ascii "March"<0> \\
aApril: & .ascii "April"<0> \\
aMay: & .ascii "May"<0> \\
aJune: & .ascii "June"<0> \\
aJuly: & .ascii "July"<0> \\
aAugust: & .ascii "August"<0> \\
aSeptember: & .ascii "September"<0> \\
a0ctober: & .ascii "October"<0> \\
aNovember: & .ascii "November"<0> \\
aDecember: & .ascii "December"<0>
\end{tabular}

\section*{Array overflow}

Our function accepts values in the range of \(0 . .11\), but what if 12 is passed? There is no element in table at this place.
So the function will load some value which happens to be there, and return it.
Soon after, some other function can try to get a text string from this address and may crash.
Let's compile the example in MSVC for win64 and open it in IDA to see what the linker has placed after the table:

Listing 1.239: Executable file in IDA
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline off_140011000 & \begin{tabular}{l}
dq offset aJanuary_1 \\
dq offset aFebruary_1 \\
dq offset aMarch_1 \\
dq offset aApril_1 \\
dq offset aMay_1 \\
dq offset aJune_1 \\
dq offset aJuly_1 \\
dq offset aAugust_1 \\
dq offset aSeptember_1 \\
dq offset aOctober_1 \\
dq offset aNovember_1 \\
dq offset aDecember_1
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
DATA XREF: .text:00000000140001003 \\
"January" \\
; "February" \\
; "March" \\
; "April" \\
; "May" \\
; "June" \\
; "July" \\
; "August" \\
; "September" \\
; "October" \\
; "November" \\
; "December"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline aJanuary_1 & db 'January',0 & DATA XREF: sub 140001020+4 .data:off 140011000 \\
\hline aFebruary_1 & \begin{tabular}{l}
db 'February',0 \\
align 4
\end{tabular} & ; DATA XREF: .data:0000000140011008 \\
\hline aMarch_1 & \begin{tabular}{l}
db 'March',0 \\
align 4
\end{tabular} & ; DATA XREF: .data:0000000140011010 \\
\hline aApril_1 & db 'April',0 & ; DATA XREF: .data:0000000140011018 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Month names are came right after.
Our program is tiny, so there isn't much data to pack in the data segment, so it just the month names. But it has to be noted that there might be really anything that linker has decided to put by chance.

So what if 12 is passed to the function? The 13th element will be returned.
Let's see how the CPU treats the bytes there as a 64-bit value:
Listing 1.240: Executable file in IDA
```

off_140011000 dq offset qword_140011060
; DATA XREF: .text:0000000140001003
dq offset aFebruary_1 ; "February"
dq offset aMarch_1 ; "March"
dq offset aApril_1 ; "April"
dq offset aMay 1 ; "May"
dq offset aJune_1 ; "June"
dq offset aJuly_1 ; "July"
dq offset aAugust_1 ; "August"
dq offset aSeptember_1 ; "September"
dq offset aOctober_1 ; "October"
dq offset aNovember_1 ; "November"
dq offset aDecember_1 ; "December"
qword_140011060 dq 797261756E614Ah ; DATA XREF: sub_140001020+4

```
1.20. ARRAYS
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline aFebruary_1 & \begin{tabular}{l} 
db 'February',0 \\
align 4
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
; data:off_140011000 \\
db 'March',0
\end{tabular} \\
aMarch_1 & db XREF: .data:0000000140011008
\end{tabular}

And this is \(0 \times 797261756\) E614A.
Soon after, some other function (presumably, one that processes strings) may try to read bytes at this address, expecting a C-string there.

Most likely it is about to crash, because this value doesn't look like a valid address.

\section*{Array overflow protection}

If something can go wrong, it will
Murphy's Law
It's a bit naïve to expect that every programmer who use your function or library will never pass an argument larger than 11.

There exists the philosophy that says "fail early and fail loudly" or "fail-fast", which teaches to report problems as early as possible and halt.

One such method in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) is assertions.
We can modify our program to fail if an incorrect value is passed:
Listing 1.241: assert() added
```

const char* get month1_checked (int month)

```
\{
    assert (month<12);
    return month1[month];
\};

The assertion macro checks for valid values at every function start and fails if the expression is false.
Listing 1.242: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

\$SG3143 DB 'm', 00H, 'o', 00H, 'n', 00H, 't', 00H, 'h', 00H, '.', 00H
DB 'c', 00H, 00H, 00H
$SG3144 DB 'm', 00H, 'o', 00H, 'n', 00H, 't', 00H, 'h', 00H, '<', 00H
    DB '1', 00H, '2', 00H, 00H, 00H
month$ = 48
get_month1_checked PROC
\$LN5
push rbx
sub rsp, 32
movsxd rbx, ecx
cmp ebx, 12
jl SHORT $LN3@get_month1
    lea rdx, OFFSET FLĀT:$SG3143
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:\$SG3144
mov r8d, 29
call wassert
\$LN3@get month1:
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:month1
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rcx+rbx*8]
add rsp, 32
pop rbx
ret 0
get_month1_checked ENDP

```

In fact, assert() is not a function, but macro. It checks for a condition, then passes also the line number and file name to another function which reports this information to the user.

Here we see that both file name and condition are encoded in UTF-16. The line number is also passed (it's 29).
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This mechanism is probably the same in all compilers. Here is what GCC does:
Listing 1.243: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

.LC1:
.string "month.c"
.LC2:
.string "month<12"
get_month1_checked:
cmp edi, 11
jg .L6
movsx rdi, edi
mov rax, QWORD PTR month1[0+rdi*8]
ret
.L6:
push rax
mov ecx, OFFSET FLAT:__PRETTY_FUNCTION__. }242
mov edx, 29
mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC2
call __assert_fail
PRETTY_FUNCTION__.2423:
.string "\overline{get_month1_checked"}

```

So the macro in GCC also passes the function name for convenience.
Nothing is really free, and this is true for the sanitizing checks as well.
They make your program slower, especially if the assert() macros used in small time-critical functions.
So MSVC, for example, leaves the checks in debug builds, but in release builds they all disappear.
Microsoft Windows NT kernels come in "checked" and "free" builds \({ }^{142}\).
The first has validation checks (hence, "checked"), the second one doesn't (hence, "free" of checks).
Of course, "checked" kernel works slower because of all these checks, so it is usually used only in debug sessions.

\section*{Accessing specific character}

An array of pointers to strings can be accessed like this:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
const char* month[]=
{
"January", "February", "March", "April",
"May", "June", "July", "August",
"September", "October", "November", "December"
};
int main()
{
// 4th month, 5th character:
printf ("%c\n", month[3][4]);
};

```
...since month[3] expression has a const char* type. And then, 5th character is taken from that expression by adding 4 bytes to its address.
By the way, arguments list passed to main() function has the same data type:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
printf ("3rd argument, 2nd character: %c\n", argv[3][1]);

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{142}\) msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/hardware/ff543450(v=vs.85).aspx
}

It's very important to understand, that, despite similar syntax, this is different from two-dimensional arrays, which we will consider later.

Another important thing to notice: strings to be addressed must be encoded in a system, where each character occupies single byte, like ASCII \({ }^{143}\) and extended ASCII. UTF-8 wouldn't work here.

\subsection*{1.20.6 Multidimensional arrays}

Internally, a multidimensional array is essentially the same thing as a linear array.
Since the computer memory is linear, it is an one-dimensional array. For convenience, this multi-dimensional array can be easily represented as one-dimensional.
For example, this is how the elements of the \(3 \times 4\) array are placed in one-dimensional array of 12 cells:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline Offset in memory & array element \\
\hline 0 & {\([0][0]\)} \\
\hline 1 & {\([0][1]\)} \\
\hline 2 & {\([0][2]\)} \\
\hline 3 & {\([0][3]\)} \\
\hline 4 & {\([1][0]\)} \\
\hline 5 & {\([1][1]\)} \\
\hline 6 & {\([1][2]\)} \\
\hline 7 & {\([1][3]\)} \\
\hline 8 & {\([2][0]\)} \\
\hline 9 & {\([2][1]\)} \\
\hline 10 & {\([2][2]\)} \\
\hline 11 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Table 1.3: Two-dimensional array represented in memory as one-dimensional

Here is how each cell of \(3 * 4\) array are placed in memory:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|l|}
\hline 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\
\hline 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Table 1.4: Memory addresses of each cell of two-dimensional array

So, in order to calculate the address of the element we need, we first multiply the first index by 4 (array width) and then add the second index. That's called row-major order, and this method of array and matrix representation is used in at least \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) and Python. The term row-major order in plain English language means: "first, write the elements of the first row, then the second row ...and finally the elements of the last row".

Another method for representation is called column-major order (the array indices are used in reverse order) and it is used at least in Fortran, MATLAB and R. column-major order term in plain English language means: "first, write the elements of the first column, then the second column ...and finally the elements of the last column".

Which method is better?
In general, in terms of performance and cache memory, the best scheme for data organization is the one, in which the elements are accessed sequentially.

So if your function accesses data per row, row-major order is better, and vice versa.

\section*{Two-dimensional array example}

We are going to work with an array of type char, which implies that each element requires only one byte in memory.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{143}\) American Standard Code for Information Interchange
}

Let's fill the second row with these values 0..3:
Listing 1.244: Row filling example
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char a[3][4];
int main()
{
int x, y;
// clear array
for (x=0; x<3; x++)
for (y=0; y<4; y++)
a[x][y]=0;
// fill second row by 0..3:
for (y=0; y<4; y++)
a[1][y]=y;
};

```

All three rows are marked with red. We see that second row now has values \(0,1,2\) and 3 :


Figure 1.92: OllyDbg: array is filled

\section*{Column filling example}

Let's fill the third column with values: \(0 . .2\) :
Listing 1.245: Column filling example
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char a[3][4];
int main()
{
int x, y;
// clear array
for (x=0; x<3; x++)
for (y=0; y<4; y++)
a[x][y]=0;
// fill third column by 0..2:
for (x=0; x<3; x++)
a[x][2]=x;
};

```

The three rows are also marked in red here.
We see that in each row, at third position these values are written: 0,1 and 2.
```

Address Her dump

```


```

\10333H0

```

Figure 1.93: OllyDbg: array is filled

\section*{Access two-dimensional array as one-dimensional}

We can be easily assured that it's possible to access a two-dimensional array as one-dimensional array in at least two ways:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char a[3][4];
char get_by_coordinates1 (char array[3][4], int a, int b)
{
return array[a][b];
};
char get_by_coordinates2 (char *array, int a, int b)
{
// treat input array as one-dimensional
// 4 is array width here
return array[a*4+b];
};
char get by coordinates3 (char *array, int a, int b)
{
// treat input array as pointer,
// calculate address, get value at it
// 4 is array width here
return *(array+a*4+b);
};
int main()
{
a[2][3]=123;
printf ("%d\n", get_by_coordinates1(a, 2, 3));
printf ("%d\n", get_by_coordinates2(a, 2, 3));
printf ("%d\n", get_by_coordinates3(a, 2, 3));
};

```

Compile \({ }^{144}\) and run it: it shows correct values.
What MSVC 2013 did is fascinating, all three routines are just the same!
Listing 1.246: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

array\$ = 8
a\$ = 16
b\$ = 24
get_by_coordinates3 PROC
; RCX=address of array
; RDX=a
; R8=b
movsxd rax, r8d
; EAX=b
movsxd r9, edx
; R9=a
add rax, rcx
; RAX=b+address of array
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rax+r9*4]
; AL=load byte at address RAX+R9*4=b+address of array+a*4=address of array+a*4+b
ret 0
get_by_coordinates3 ENDP
array\$ = 8
a\$ = 16
b\$ = 24
get_by_coordinates2 PROC
movsxd rax, r8d
movsxd r9, edx
add rax, rcx
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rax+r9*4]

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{144}\) This program is to be compiled as C program, not \(C++\), save it to a file with .c extension to compile it using MSVC
}
1.20. ARRAYS
```

get_by_coordinates2 ENDP
array\$ = 8
a\$ = 16
b\$ = 24
get_by_coordinates1 PROC
movsxd rax, r8d
movsxd r9, edx
add rax, rcx
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rax+r9*4]
ret 0
get_by_coordinates1 ENDP

```

GCC also generates equivalent routines, but slightly different:
Listing 1.247: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

; RDI=address of array
; RSI=a
; RDX=b
get_by_coordinates1:
; sign-extend input 32-bit int values "a" and "b" to 64-bit ones
movsx rsi, esi
movsx rdx, edx
lea rax, [rdi+rsi*4]
; RAX=RDI+RSI*4=address of array+a*4
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rax+rdx]
; AL=load byte at address RAX+RDX=address of array+a*4+b
ret
get_by_coordinates2:
lea eax, [rdx+rsi*4]
; RAX=RDX+RSI*4=b+a*4
cdqe
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rdi+rax]
; AL=load byte at address RDI+RAX=address of array+b+a*4
ret
get_by_coordinates3:
sal esi, 2
; ESI=a<<2=a*4
; sign-extend input 32-bit int values "a*4" and "b" to 64-bit ones
movsx rdx, edx
movsx rsi, esi
add rdi, rsi
; RDI=RDI+RSI=address of array+a*4
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rdi+rdx]
; AL=load byte at address RDI+RDX=address of array+a*4+b
ret

```

\section*{Three-dimensional array example}

It's the same for multidimensional arrays.
Now we are going to work with an array of type int: each element requires 4 bytes in memory.
Let's see:
Listing 1.248: simple example
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int a[10][20][30];
void insert(int x, int y, int z, int value)
{
a[x][y][z]=value;
};

```

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.249: MSVC 2010
```

DATA SEGMENT
C
DATA ENDS
PUBLIC _insert
TEXT \overline{SEGMENT}

- x\$ = 8 ; size = 4
_y\$ = 12 ; size = 4
z\$ = 16 ; size = 4
-value\$ = 20 ; size = 4
insert PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR _x$[ebp]
  imul eax, 2400 ; eax=600*4*x
  mov ecx, DWORD PTR _y$[ebp]
imul ecx, 120 ; ecx=30*4*y
lea edx, DWORD PTR _a[eax+ecx] ; edx=a + 600*4*x + 30*4*y
mov eax, DWORD PTR _z$[ebp]
  mov ecx, DWORD PTR _value$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR [edx+e-ax*4], ecx ; *(edx+z*4)=value
pop ebp
ret 0
insert ENDP
-TEXT ENDS

```

Nothing special. For index calculation, three input arguments are used in the formula address \(=600 \cdot 4 \cdot x+\) \(30 \cdot 4 \cdot y+4 z\), to represent the array as multidimensional. Do not forget that the int type is 32 -bit ( 4 bytes), so all coefficients must be multiplied by 4 .

Listing 1.250: GCC 4.4.1
```

    public insert
    insert proc near
x = dword ptr 8
y = dword ptr 0Ch
z = dword ptr 10h
value = dword ptr 14h
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ebx
mov ebx, [ebp+x]
mov eax, [ebp+y]
mov ecx, [ebp+z]
lea edx, [eax+eax] ; edx=y*2
mov eax, edx ; eax=y*2
shl eax, 4 ; eax=(y*2)<<4 = y*2*16 = y*32
sub eax, edx ; eax=y*32 - y*2=y*30
imul edx, ebx, 600 ; edx=x*600
add eax, edx ; eax=eax+edx=y*30 + x*600
lea edx, [eax+ecx] ; edx=y*30 + x*600 + z
mov eax, [ebp+value]
mov dword ptr ds:a[edx*4], eax ; *(a+edx*4)=value
pop ebx
pop ebp
retn
insert endp

```

The GCC compiler does it differently.
For one of the operations in the calculation ( \(30 y\) ), GCC produces code without multiplication instructions. This is how it done: \((y+y) \ll 4-(y+y)=(2 y) \ll 4-2 y=2 \cdot 16 \cdot y-2 y=32 y-2 y=30 y\). Thus, for the \(30 y\) calculation, only one addition operation, one bitwise shift operation and one subtraction operation are used. This works faster.

Listing 1.251: Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb mode)
```

_insert
value = -0x10
z = -0xC
y= =-8
x = -4
; allocate place in local stack for 4 values of int type
SUB SP, SP, \#0x10
MOV R9, 0xFC2 ; a
ADD R9, PC
LDR.W R9, [R9] ; get pointer to array
STR R0, [SP,\#0x10+x]
STR R1, [SP,\#0x10+y]
STR R2, [SP,\#0x10+z]
STR R3, [SP,\#0x10+value]
LDR R0, [SP,\#0x10+value]
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x10+z]
LDR R2, [SP,\#0x10+y]
LDR R3, [SP,\#0x10+x]
MOV R12, 2400
MUL.W R3, R3, R12
ADD R3, R9
MOV R9, 120
MUL.W R2, R2, R9
ADD R2, R3
LSLS R1, R1, \#2 ; R1=R1<<2
ADD R1, R2
STR R0, [R1] ; R1 - address of array element
; deallocate chunk in local stack, allocated for 4 values of int type
ADD SP, SP, \#0x10
BX LR

```

Non-optimizing LLVM saves all variables in local stack, which is redundant.
The address of the array element is calculated by the formula we already saw.

\section*{ARM + Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb mode)}

Listing 1.252: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb mode)
```

insert
MOVW R9, \#0x10FC
MOV.W R12, \#2400
MOVT.W R9, \#0
RSB.W R1, R1, R1,LSL\#4 ; R1 - y. R1=y<<4 - y = y*16 - y = y*15
ADD R9, PC
LDR.W R9, [R9] ; R9 = pointer to a array
MLA.W R0, R0, R12, R9 ; R0 - x, R12 - 2400, R9 - pointer to a. R0=x*2400 + ptr to a
ADD.W R0, R0, R1,LSL\#3 ; R0 = R0+R1<<3 = R0+R1*8 = x*2400 + ptr to a + y*15*8 =
ptr to a + y*30*4 + x*600*4
STR.W R3, [R0,R2,LSL\#2] ; R2 - z, R3 - value. address=R0+z*4 =
ptr to a + y*30*4 + x*600*4 + z*4
BX
LR

```

The tricks for replacing multiplication by shift, addition and subtraction which we already saw are also present here.
Here we also see a new instruction for us: RSB (Reverse Subtract).
It works just as SUB, but it swaps its operands with each other before execution. Why? SUB and RSB are instructions, to the second operand of which shift coefficient may be applied: (LSL\#4).
But this coefficient can be applied only to second operand.
1.20. ARRAYS

That's fine for commutative operations like addition or multiplication (operands may be swapped there without changing the result).

But subtraction is a non-commutative operation, so RSB exist for these cases.

\section*{MIPS}

My example is tiny, so the GCC compiler decided to put the \(a\) array into the 64 KiB area addressable by the Global Pointer.

Listing 1.253: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

insert:
; \$a0=x
; \$al=y
; \$a2=z
; \$a3=value
sll \$v0, \$a0, 5
; \$v0 = \$a0<<5 = x*32
sll \$a0, 3
; \$a0 = \$a0<<3 = x*8
addu \$a0, \$v0
; \$a0 = $a0+$v0 = x*8+x*32 = x*40
\$v1, \$a1,
; \$v1 = \$a1<<5 = y*32
sll \$v0, \$a0, 4
; \$v0 = \$a0<<4 = x*40*16 = x*640
sll \$a1, 1
; \$al = \$al<<1 = y*2
subu \$a1, \$v1, \$a1
; \$al = $v1-$al = y*32-y*2 = y*30
subu \$a0, \$v0, \$a0
; \$a0 = $v0-$a0 = x*640-x*40 = x*600
la \$gp, _gnu_local_gp
addu \$a0, \$a1, \$a0
; \$a0 = $a1+$a0 = y*30+x*600
addu \$a0, \$a2
; \$a0 = $a0+$a2 = y*30+x*600+z
; load address of table:
lw $v0, (a & 0xFFFF)($gp)
; multiply index by 4 to seek array element:
sll \$a0, 2
; sum up multiplied index and table address:
addu \$a0, \$v0, \$a0
; store value into table and return:
jr \$ra
sw $a3, 0($a0)
.comm a:0x1770

```

\section*{More examples}

The computer screen is represented as a 2D array, but the video-buffer is a linear 1D array. We talk about it here: 8.13.2 on page 916 .
Another example in this book is Minesweeper game: it's field is also two-dimensional array: 8.3.

\subsection*{1.20.7 Pack of strings as a two-dimensional array}

Let's revisit the function that returns the name of a month: listing.1.232.
As you see, at least one memory load operation is needed to prepare a pointer to the string that's the month's name.

Is it possible to get rid of this memory load operation?
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <assert.h>
const char month2[12][10]=
{
{ 'J','a','n','u','a','r','y', 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'F','e','b','r','u','a','r','y', 0, 0 },
{ 'M','a','r','c','h', 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'A','p','r','i','l', 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'M','a','y', 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'J','u','n','e', 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'J','u','l','y', 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'A','u','g','u','s','t', 0, 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'S','e','p','t','e','m','b','e','r', 0 },
{ '0','c','t','o','b','e','r', 0, 0, 0 },
{ 'N','o','v','e','m','b','e','r', 0, 0 },
{ 'D','e','c','e','m','b','e','r', 0, 0 }
};
// in 0..11 range
const char* get month2 (int month)
{
return \&month2[month][0];
};

```

Here is what we've get:
Listing 1.254: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

| month2 | DB | 04 aH |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| DB | 061 H |  |
| DB | 06 eH |  |
| DB | 075 H |  |
| DB | 061 H |  |
| DB | 072 H |  |
| DB | 079 H |  |
| DB | 00 H |  |
| DB | 00 H |  |
| DB | 00 H |  |

get_month2 PROC
; sign-extend input argument and promote to 64-bit value
movsxd rax, ecx
lea rcx, QWORD PTR [rax+rax*4]
; RCX=month+month*4=month*5
lea rax, OFFSET FLAT:month2
; RAX=pointer to table
lea rax, QWORD PTR [rax+rcx*2]
; RAX=pointer to table + RCX*2=pointer to table + month*5*2=pointer to table + month*10
ret 0
get_month2 ENDP

```

There are no memory accesses at all.
All this function does is to calculate a point at which the first character of the name of the month is: pointer_to_the_table + month * 10 .

There are also two LEA instructions, which effectively work as several MUL and MOV instructions.
The width of the array is 10 bytes.
Indeed, the longest string here-"September"-is 9 bytes, and plus the terminating zero is 10 bytes.
The rest of the month names are padded by zero bytes, so they all occupy the same space (10 bytes).
Thus, our function works even faster, because all string start at an address which can be calculated easily.
Optimizing GCC 4.9 can do it even shorter:
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline movsx & rdi, edi \\
lea & rax, \([r d i+r d i * 4]\) \\
lea & rax, month2[rax+rax \(]\) \\
ret & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

LEA is also used here for multiplication by 10 .
Non-optimizing compilers do multiplication differently.
Listing 1.256: Non-optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

get_month2:
push rbp
mov rbp, rsp
mov DWORD PTR [rbp-4], edi
mov eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-4]
movsx rdx, eax
; RDX = sign-extended input value
mov rax, rdx
; RAX = month
sal rax, 2
; RAX = month<<2 = month*4
add rax, rdx
; RAX = RAX+RDX = month*4+month = month*5
; RAX = RAX*2 = month*5*2 = month*10
add rax, OFFSET FLAT:month2
; RAX = month*10 + pointer to the table
pop rbp
ret

```

Non-optimizing MSVC just uses IMUL instruction:
Listing 1.257: Non-optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

month\$ = 8
get_month2 PROC
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], ecx
movsxd rax, DWORD PTR month\$[rsp]
; RAX = sign-extended input value into 64-bit one
imul rax, rax, 10
; RAX = RAX*10
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:month2
; RCX = pointer to the table
add rcx, rax
; RCX = RCX+RAX = pointer to the table+month*10
mov rax, rcx
; RAX = pointer to the table+month*10
mov ecx, 1
; RCX = 1
imul rcx, rcx, 0
; RCX = 1*0 = 0
add rax, rcx
; RAX = pointer to the table+month*10 + 0 = pointer to the table+month*10
ret 0
get_month2 ENDP

```

But one thing is weird here: why add multiplication by zero and adding zero to the final result?
This looks like a compiler code generator quirk, which wasn't caught by the compiler's tests (the resulting code works correctly, after all). We intentionally consider such pieces of code so the reader would understand, that sometimes one shouldn't puzzle over such compiler artifacts.

\section*{32-bit ARM}

Optimizing Keil for Thumb mode uses the multiplication instruction MULS:
```

; R0 = month
MOVS r1,\#0xa
; R1 = 10
MULS r0,r1,r0
; R0 = R1*R0 = 10*month
LDR r1,|L0.68|
; R1 = pointer to the table
; R0 = R0+R1 = 10*month + pointer to the table
BX lr

```

Optimizing Keil for ARM mode uses add and shift operations:
Listing 1.259: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

; R0 = month
LDR r1,|L0.104|
; R1 = pointer to the table
ADD r0, r0, r0,LSL \#2
; R0 = R0+R0<<2 = R0+R0*4 = month*5
ADD r0,r1,r0,LSL \#1
; R0 = R1+R0<<2 = pointer to the table + month*5*2 $=$ pointer to the table + month*10
BX lr

```

\section*{ARM64}

Listing 1.260: Optimizing GCC 4.9 ARM64
```

; W0 = month sxtw x0, w0
; X0 = sign-extended input value
adrp x1, .LANCHOR1
add x1, x1, :lo12:.LANCHOR1
; X1 = pointer to the table
add x0, x0, x0, lsl 2
; X0 = X0+X0<<2 = X0+X0*4 = X0*5
add x0, x1, x0, lsl 1
; X0 = X1+X0<<1 = X1+X0*2 = pointer to the table + X0*10
ret

```

SXTW is used for sign-extension and promoting input 32 -bit value into a 64 -bit one and storing it in X0. ADRP/ADD pair is used for loading the address of the table.

The ADD instructions also has a LSL suffix, which helps with multiplications.

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.261: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

    .globl get_month2
    get month2:
; \$a0=month
sll \$v0, \$a0, 3
; \$v0 = \$a0<<3 = month*8
sll \$a0, 1
; \$a0 = \$a0<<1 = month*2
addu \$a0, \$v0
; \$a0 = month*2+month*8 = month*10
; load address of the table:
la \$v0, month2
; sum up table address and index we calculated and return:
jr \$ra
addu \$v0, \$a0
month2: .ascii "January"<0>

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{aFebruary:} & .byte 0, 0 \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text {.ascii "February"<0> } \\
& \text {.byte } 0
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aMarch:} & .ascii "March"<0> \\
\hline & . byte 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aApril:} & .ascii "April"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aMay:} & .ascii "May"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aJune:} & .ascii "June"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aJuly:} & .ascii "July"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aAugust:} & .ascii "August"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline aSeptember: & .ascii "September"<0> \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{a0ctober:} & .ascii "October"<0> \\
\hline & . byte 0, 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aNovember:} & .ascii "November"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{aDecember:} & .ascii "December"<0> \\
\hline & .byte 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Conclusion}

This is a bit old-school technique to store text strings. You may find a lot of it in Oracle RDBMS, for example. It's hard to say if it's worth doing on modern computers. Nevertheless, it is a good example of arrays, so it was added to this book.

\subsection*{1.20.8 Conclusion}

An array is a pack of values in memory located adjacently.
It's true for any element type, including structures.
Access to a specific array element is just a calculation of its address.

\subsection*{1.21 By the way}

So, pointer to an array and address of a first element-is the same thing. This is why ptr[0] and *ptr expressions are equivalent in C/C++. It's interesting to note that Hex-Rays often replaces the first by the second. It does so when it have no idea that it works with pointer to the whole array, and thinks that this is a pointer to single variable.

\subsection*{1.21.1 Exercises}
- http://challenges.re/62
- http://challenges.re/63
- http://challenges.re/64
- http://challenges.re/65
- http://challenges.re/66

\subsection*{1.22 Manipulating specific bit(s)}

A lot of functions define their input arguments as flags in bit fields.
Of course, they could be substituted by a set of bool-typed variables, but it is not frugally.
x86

Win32 API example:
```

    HANDLE fh;
    fh=CreateFile ("file", GENERIC_WRITE | GENERIC_READ, FILE_SHARE_READ, NULL, OPEN_ALWAYS_
    FILE_ATTRIBUTE_NORMAL, NULL);
    ```

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.262: MSVC 2010
\begin{tabular}{lll|}
\hline push & 0 & \\
push & 128 & \\
push & 4 & \\
push & 0 & \\
push & 1 & \\
push & \(-1073741824 \quad ;\) c0000000000 \\
push & OFFSET \$SG78813 \\
call & DWORD PTR_imp_CreateFileA@28 \\
mov & DWORD PTR_fh\$[ebp], eax \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Let's take a look in WinNT.h:
Listing 1.263: WinNT.h
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline \#define GENERIC_READ & \((0 \times 80000000 \mathrm{~L})\) \\
\#define GENERIC_WRITE & \((0 \times 40000000 \mathrm{~L})\) \\
\#define GENERIC_EXECUTE & \((0 \times 20000000 \mathrm{~L})\) \\
\#define GENERIC_ALL & \((0 \times 10000000 \mathrm{~L})\)
\end{tabular}

Everything is clear, GENERIC_READ | GENERIC_WRITE \(=0 \times 80000000 \mid 0 \times 40000000=0 \times C 0000000\), and that value is used as the second argument for the CreateFile( \()^{145}\) function.

How would CreateFile() check these flags?
If we look in KERNEL32.DLL in Windows XP SP3 x86, we'll find this fragment of code in CreateFileW:
Listing 1.264: KERNEL32.DLL (Windows XP SP3 x86)
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline. text:7C83D429 & test & byte ptr [ebp+dwDesiredAccess+3], 40h \\
.text:7C83D42D & mov & [ebp+var_8], 1 \\
.text:7C83D434 & jz & short loc 7C83D417 \\
.text:7C83D436 & jmp & loc_7C810817 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here we see the TEST instruction, however it doesn't take the whole second argument, but only the most significant byte (ebp+dwDesiredAccess+3) and checks it for flag \(0 \times 40\) (which implies the GENERIC_WRITE flag here).
TEST is basically the same instruction as AND, but without saving the result (recall the fact CMP is merely the same as SUB, but without saving the result (1.9.4 on page 86)).

The logic of this code fragment is as follows:
```

if ((dwDesiredAccess\&0x40000000) == 0) goto loc_7C83D417

```

If AND instruction leaves this bit, the ZF flag is to be cleared and the JZ conditional jump is not to be triggered. The conditional jump is triggered only if the \(0 x 40000000\) bit is absent in dwDesiredAccess variable - then the result of AND is \(0, Z F\) is to be set and the conditional jump is to be triggered.
Let's try GCC 4.4.1 and Linux:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <fcntl.h>
void main()
{
${ }^{145}$ msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/aa363858(VS.85).aspx

```
```

    int handle;
    handle=open ("file", O_RDWR | O_CREAT);
    };

```

We get:
Listing 1.265: GCC 4.4.1


If we take a look in the open() function in the libc.so. 6 library, it is only a syscall:
Listing 1.266: open() (libc.so.6)
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline .text:000BE69B & mov & edx, [esp+4+mode] ; mode \\
.text:000BE69F & mov & ecx, [esp+4+flags]; flags \\
.text:000BE6A3 & mov & ebx, [esp+4+filename] ; filename \\
.text:000BE6A7 & mov & eax, 5 \\
.text:000BE6AC & int & \(80 h\)
\end{tabular}

So, the bit fields for open() are apparently checked somewhere in the Linux kernel.
Of course, it is easy to download both Glibc and the Linux kernel source code, but we are interested in understanding the matter without it.

So, as of Linux 2.6, when the sys_open syscall is called, control eventually passes to do_sys_open, and from there-to the do_filp_open() function (it's located in the kernel source tree in fs/name \(\bar{i} . c\) ).
N.B. Aside from passing arguments via the stack, there is also a method of passing some of them via registers. This is also called fastcall ( 6.1 .3 on page 735). This works faster since CPU does not need to access the stack in memory to read argument values. GCC has the option regparm \({ }^{146}\), through which it's possible to set the number of arguments that can be passed via registers.
The Linux 2.6 kernel is compiled with -mregparm=3 option \({ }^{147148}\).
What this means to us is that the first 3 arguments are to be passed via registers EAX, EDX and ECX, and the rest via the stack. Of course, if the number of arguments is less than 3 , only part of registers set is to be used.

So, let's download Linux Kernel 2.6.31, compile it in Ubuntu: make vmlinux, open it in IDA, and find the do_filp_open() function. At the beginning, we see (the comments are mine):

Listing 1.267: do_filp_open() (linux kernel 2.6.31)
\begin{tabular}{|lll} 
do_filp_open & proc near \\
\(\ldots\) & push & ebp \\
& mov & ebp, esp \\
& push & edi \\
& push & esi \\
& push & ebx
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{146}\) ohse.de/uwe/articles/gcc-attributes.html\#func-regparm
\({ }^{147}\) kernelnewbies.org/Linux_2_6_20\#head-042c62f290834eb1fe0a1942bbf5bb9a4accbc8f
\({ }^{148}\) See also arch/x86/include/asm/calling.h file in kernel tree
}
```

mov ebx, ecx
add ebx, 1
sub esp, 98h
mov esi, [ebp+arg_4] ; acc_mode (5th argument)
test bl, 3
mov [ebp+var_80], eax ; dfd (1th argument)
mov [ebp+var_7C], edx ; pathname (2th argument)
mov [ebp+var_78], ecx ; open_flag (3th argument)
jnz short loc_C01EF684
mov ebx, ecx ; ebx <- open_flag

```

GCC saves the values of the first 3 arguments in the local stack. If that wasn't done, the compiler would not touch these registers, and that would be too tight environment for the compiler's register allocator.

Let's find this fragment of code:
Listing 1.268: do_filp_open() (linux kernel 2.6.31)
\begin{tabular}{|clll}
\hline loc_C01EF6B4: & & ; CODE XREF: do_filp_open+4F \\
& test & bl, 40h & O_CREAT
\end{tabular}
\(0 \times 40\)-is what the \(0 \_\)CREAT macro equals to. open_flag gets checked for the presence of the \(0 \times 40\) bit, and if this bit is 1 , the next JNZ instruction is triggered.

\section*{ARM}

The 0_CREAT bit is checked differently in Linux kernel 3.8.0.
Listing 1.269: linux kernel 3.8.0
```

struct file *do_filp_open(int dfd, struct filename *pathname,
const struct open_flags *op)
{
... filp = path_openat(dfd, pathname, \&nd, op, flags | LOOKUP_RCU);

# 

}
static struct file *path_openat(int dfd, struct filename *pathname,
struct nameidata *nd, const struct open_flags *op, int flags)
{
... error = do_last(nd, \&path, file, op, \&opened, pathname);
}
static int do_last(struct nameidata *nd, struct path *path,
struct file *file, const struct open_flags *op,
int *opened, struct filename *name)
{
if (!(open_flag \& O_CREAT)) {
error = lookup_fast(nd, path, \&inode);
} else {
error = complete_walk(nd);
}
}

```

Here is how the kernel compiled for ARM mode looks in IDA:
Listing 1.270: do_last() from vmlinux (IDA)


TST is analogous to the TEST instruction in \(\times 86\). We can "spot" visually this code fragment by the fact the lookup_fast() is to be executed in one case and complete_walk() in the other. This corresponds to the source code of the do_last() function. The 0_CREAT macro equals to \(0 \times 40\) here too.

\subsection*{1.22.2 Setting and clearing specific bits}

For example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#define IS_SET(flag, bit) ((flag) \& (bit))
\#define SE\overline{T}}\mathrm{ BIT(var, bit) ((var) |= (bit))
\#define REMOVE_BIT(var, bit) ((var) \&= ~(bit))
int f(int a)
{
int rt=a;
SET_BIT (rt, 0x4000);
REMOVE_BIT (rt, 0x200);
return rt;
};
int main()
{
f(0x12340678);
};

```

\section*{Non-optimizing MSVC}

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.271: MSVC 2010
```

_rt\$ = -4 ; size = 4
a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR _rt$[\overline{ebp], eax}
mov ecx, DWORD PTR rt$[ebp]
    or ecx, 16384 - ; 00004000H
    mov DWORD PTR _rt$[ebp], ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR rt$[ebp]
    and edx, -513 ; fffffdffH
    mov DWORD PTR _rt$[ebp], edx
mov eax, DWORD PTR _rt\$[ebp]
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
f ENDP

```

The 0 R instruction sets one bit into a register while ignoring other 1 bits.
AND resets one bit. It can be said that AND just copies all bits except one. Indeed, in the second AND operand only the bits that need to be saved are set, just the one do not want to copy is not (which is 0 in the bitmask). It is the easier way to memorize the logic.

\section*{OllyDbg}

Let's try this example in OllyDbg.
First, let's see the binary form of the constants we are going to use:
\(0 \times 200\) ( \(0 b 00000000000000000001000000000\) ) (i.e., the 10th bit (counting from 1st)).
Inverted \(0 x 200\) is \(0 x F F F F F D F F(0 b 11111111111111111110111111111\) ).
\(0 x 4000\) (0b00000000000000100000000000000) (i.e., the 15th bit).
The input value is: \(0 \times 12340678\) (0b10010001101000000011001111000). We see how it's loaded:


Figure 1.94: OllyDbg: value is loaded into ECX

OR got executed:


Figure 1.95: OllyDbg: OR executed

15th bit is set: \(0 \times 12344678\) (0b10010001101000100011001111000).

The value is reloaded again (because the compiler is not in optimizing mode):


Figure 1.96: OllyDbg: value has been reloaded into EDX

AND got executed:


Figure 1.97: OllyDbg: AND executed

The 10th bit has been cleared (or, in other words, all bits were left except the 10th) and the final value now is
\(0 \times 12344478\) (Ob10010001101000100010001111000).

\section*{Optimizing MSVC}

If we compile it in MSVC with optimization turned on (/0x), the code is even shorter:
Listing 1.272: Optimizing MSVC
```

a\$ = 8
-f PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a\$[esp-4]
and eax, -513 ; fffffdffH
or eax, 16384 ; 00004000H
ret 0
f ENDP

```

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC}

Let's try GCC 4.4.1 without optimization:
Listing 1.273: Non-optimizing GCC
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline f & public f proc near \\
\hline \multirow[t]{9}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
var 4 \\
arg_0
\end{tabular}} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& =\text { dword ptr }-4 \\
& =\text { dword ptr } 8
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline & push ebp \\
\hline & mov ebp, esp \\
\hline & sub esp, 10h \\
\hline & mov eax, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline & mov [ebp+var_4], eax \\
\hline & or [ebp+var_4], 4000h \\
\hline & and [ebp+var_4], 0FFFFFDFFh \\
\hline & mov eax, [ebp+var_4] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline & \begin{tabular}{l} 
leave \\
retn \\
endp
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There is a redundant code present, however, it is shorter than the MSVC version without optimization. Now let's try GCC with optimization turned on -03:

\section*{Optimizing GCC}

Listing 1.274: Optimizing GCC


That's shorter. It is worth noting the compiler works with the EAX register part via the AH register-that is the EAX register part from the 8th to the 15th bits included.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{Byte number:} \\
\hline 7th & 6th & 5th & 4th & 3rd & 2nd & 1st & 0th \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{RAX \({ }^{64}\)} \\
\hline & & & & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{EAX} \\
\hline & & & & & & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{AX} \\
\hline & & & & & & AH & AL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
N.B. The 16-bit CPU 8086 accumulator was named AX and consisted of two 8-bit halves-AL (lower byte) and AH (higher byte). In 80386 almost all registers were extended to 32 -bit, the accumulator was named EAX, but for the sake of compatibility, its older parts may be still accessed as AX/AH/AL.
Since all x86 CPUs are successors of the 16-bit 8086 CPU, these older 16-bit opcodes are shorter than the newer 32-bit ones. That's why the or ah, 40h instruction occupies only 3 bytes. It would be more logical way to emit here or eax, 04000h but that is 5 bytes, or even 6 (in case the register in the first operand is not EAX).

\section*{Optimizing GCC and regparm}

It would be even shorter if to turn on the -03 optimization flag and also set regparm=3.
Listing 1.275: Optimizing GCC
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline f & \begin{tabular}{ll} 
public \(f\) \\
proc near \\
push & ebp \\
or & ah, \\
mov & ebp \\
mosp \\
and & ah, \\
pop & efDh \\
retn & ebp \\
endp &
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Indeed, the first argument is already loaded in EAX, so it is possible to work with it in-place. It is worth noting that both the function prologue (push ebp / mov ebp,esp) and epilogue (pop ebp) can easily be omitted here, but GCC probably is not good enough to do such code size optimizations. However, such short functions are better to be inlined functions ( 3.11 on page 507).

Listing 1.276: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|lllll|}
\hline 02 & \(0 C\) & C0 & E3 & BIC \\
01 & 09 & 80 & R3 & R0, R0, \#0x200 \\
\(1 E\) & FF & \(2 F\) & E1 & BX
\end{tabular}

BIC (BItwise bit Clear) is an instruction for clearing specific bits. This is just like the AND instruction, but with inverted operand. I.e., it's analogous to a NOT + AND instruction pair.

ORR is "logical or", analogous to OR in x86.
So far it's easy.

\section*{ARM + Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Listing 1.277: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline 01218903 & MOVS & R1, 0x4000 \\
08 & 43 & ORRS & R0, R1 \\
49 & 11 & ASRS & R1, R1, \#5 ; generate \(0 \times 200\) and place to R1 \\
88 & 43 & BICS & R0, R1 \\
70 & 47 & BX & LR
\end{tabular}

Seems like Keil decided that the code in Thumb mode, making \(0 \times 200\) from \(0 \times 4000\), is more compact than the code for writing \(0 \times 200\) to an arbitrary register.

So that is why, with the help of ASRS (arithmetic shift right), this value is calculated as \(0 \times 4000>5\).

\section*{ARM + Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.278: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline 42 0C C0 E3 & BIC \\
\hline 010980 E3 & ORR \\
\hline 1 FFF 2 F E1 & BX \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{The code that was generated b} \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{REMOVE BIT (rt, 0x4200); SET_BIT (rt, 0x4000);} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

And it does exactly what we need. But why \(0 \times 4200\) ? Perhaps that an artifact from LLVM's optimizer \({ }^{149}\). Probably a compiler's optimizer error, but the generated code works correctly anyway.
You can read more about compiler anomalies here ( 11.4 on page 1000).
Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) for Thumb mode generates the same code.

\section*{ARM: more about the BIC instruction}

Let's rework the example slightly:
```

int f(int a)
{
int rt=a;
REMOVE_BIT (rt, 0x1234);
return rt;
};

```

Then the optimizing Keil 5.03 in ARM mode does:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{149}\) It was LLVM build 2410.2 .00 bundled with Apple Xcode 4.6.3
}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
BIC & \(r 0, r 0, \# 0 \times 1000\) \\
BIC & \(r 0, r 0, \# 0 \times 234\) \\
BX & \(l r\) \\
ENDP &
\end{tabular}

There are two BIC instructions, i.e., bits \(0 \times 1234\) are cleared in two passes.
This is because it's not possible to encode \(0 \times 1234\) in a BIC instruction, but it's possible to encode \(0 \times 1000\) and \(0 \times 234\).

\section*{ARM64: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

Optimizing GCCcompiling for ARM64 can use the AND instruction instead of BIC:
Listing 1.279: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

f:
and w0, w0, -513 ; 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFDFF
orr w0, w0, 16384 ; 0x4000
ret

```

\section*{ARM64: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

Non-optimizing GCC generates more redundant code, but works just like optimized:
Listing 1.280: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

f:
sub sp, sp, \#32
str w0, [sp,12]
ldr w0, [sp,12]
str w0, [sp,28]
ldr w0, [sp,28]
orr w0, w0, 16384 ; 0x4000
str w0, [sp,28]
ldr w0, [sp,28]
and w0, w0, -513 ; 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFDFF
str w0, [sp,28]
ldr w0, [sp,28]
add sp, sp, 32
ret

```

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.281: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)
```

f:
; \$a0=a
; \$a0=a|0x4000
Li \$v0, 0xFFFFFDFF
jr \$ra
and \$v0, \$a0, \$v0
; at finish: \$v0 = $a0&$v0 = a|0x4000 \& 0xFFFFFDFF

```

ORI is, of course, the OR operation. " \(I\) " in the instruction name means that the value is embedded in the machine code.
But after that we have AND. There is no way to use ANDI because it's not possible to embed the 0xFFFFFDFF number in a single instruction, so the compiler has to load 0xFFFFFDFF into register \$V0 first and then generates AND which takes all its values from registers.

\subsection*{1.22.3 Shifts}

Bit shifts in C/C++ are implemented using << and >> operators. The x86 ISA has the SHL (SHift Left) and SHR (SHift Right) instructions for this. Shift instructions are often used in division and multiplications by powers of two: \(2^{n}\) (e.g., 1, 2, 4, 8, etc.): 1.18.1 on page 213, 1.18.2 on page 217.

Shifting operations are also so important because they are often used for specific bit isolation or for constructing a value of several scattered bits.

\subsection*{1.22.4 Setting and clearing specific bits: FPU example}

Here is how bits are located in the float type in IEEE 754 form:

(S—sign )
The sign of number is in the \(M S B^{150}\). Will it be possible to change the sign of a floating point number without any FPU instructions?
```

\#include <stdio.h>
float my_abs (float i)
{
unsigned int tmp=(*(unsigned int*)\&i) \& 0x7FFFFFFF;
return *(float*)\&tmp;
};
float set_sign (float i)
{
unsigned int tmp=(*(unsigned int*)\&i) | 0x80000000;
return *(float*)\&tmp;
};
float negate (float i)
{
unsigned int tmp=(*(unsigned int*)\&i) ^ 0x80000000;
return *(float*)\&tmp;
};
int main()
{
printf ("my_abs():\n");
printf ("%f\n", my_abs (123.456));
printf ("%f\n", my_abs (-456.123));
printf ("set_sign():\n");
printf ("%f\n", set_sign (123.456));
printf ("%f\n", set_sign (-456.123));
printf ("negate():\n");
printf ("%f\n", negate (123.456));
printf ("%f\n", negate (-456.123));
};

```

We need this trickery in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) to copy to/from float value without actual conversion. So there are three functions: my_abs() resets MSB; set_sign() sets MSB and negate() flips it.
XOR can be used to flip a bit: 2.6 on page 461.

\section*{x86}

The code is pretty straightforward:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{150}\) Most Significant Bit
}
```

tmp\$ = 8
_i\$ = 8
_my_abs PROC
and DWORD PTR i$[esp-4], 2147483647 ; 7ffffffff
    fld DWORD PTR _tmp$[esp-4]
ret 0
my abs ENDP
tmp\$ = 8
i\$ = 8
_set_sign PROC
or DWORD PTR _i$[esp-4], -2147483648 ; 80000000H
    fld DWORD PTR tmp$[esp-4]
ret 0
_set_sign ENDP
tmp\$ = 8
i\$ = 8
negate PROC
xor DWORD PTR _i$[esp-4], -2147483648 ; 80000000H
    fld DWORD PTR _tmp$[esp-4]
ret 0
_negate ENDP

```

An input value of type float is taken from the stack, but treated as an integer value.
AND and OR reset and set the desired bit. XOR flips it.
Finally, the modified value is loaded into ST0, because floating-point numbers are returned in this register. Now let's try optimizing MSVC 2012 for x64:

Listing 1.283: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)
```

tmp\$ = 8
i\$ = 8
my_abs PROC
movss DWORD PTR [rsp+8], xmm0
mov eax, DWORD PTR i$[rsp]
    btr eax, 31
    mov DWORD PTR tmp$[rsp], eax
movss xmm0, DWORD PTR tmp$[rsp]
    ret 0
my_abs ENDP
T\overline{EXT ENDS}
tmp$ = 8
i\$ = 8
set_sign PROC
movss DWORD PTR [rsp+8], xmm0
mov eax, DWORD PTR i$[rsp]
    bts eax, 31
    mov DWORD PTR tmp$[rsp], eax
movss xmm0, DWORD PTR tmp$[rsp]
    ret 0
set_sign ENDP
tmp$ = 8
i\$ = 8
negate PROC
movss DWORD PTR [rsp+8], xmm0
mov eax, DWORD PTR i$[rsp]
    btc eax, 31
    mov DWORD PTR tmp$[rsp], eax
movss xmm0, DWORD PTR tmp\$[rsp]
ret 0
negate ENDP

```

The input value is passed in XMM0, then it is copied into the local stack and then we see some instructions that are new to us: BTR, BTS, BTC.

These instructions are used for resetting (BTR), setting (BTS) and inverting (or complementing: BTC) specific bits. The 31st bit is MSB, counting from 0.

Finally, the result is copied into XMM0, because floating point values are returned through XMM0 in Win64 environment.

\section*{MIPS}

GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS does mostly the same:
Listing 1.284: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

my abs:
; move from coprocessor 1:
mfc1 \$v1, \$f12
li \$v0, 0x7FFFFFFF
; \$v0=0x7FFFFFFF
; do AND:
and \$v0, \$v1
; move to coprocessor 1:
mtc1 \$v0, \$f0
; return
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot
set_sign:
; move from coprocessor 1:
mfc1 \$v0, \$f12
lui \$v1, 0x8000
; \$v1=0x80000000
; do OR:
or \$v0, \$v1, \$v0
; move to coprocessor 1:
mtc1 \$v0, \$f0
; return
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot
negate:
; move from coprocessor 1:
mfc1 \$v0, \$f12
lui \$v1, 0x8000
; \$v1=0x80000000
; do XOR:
xor \$v0, \$v1, \$v0
; move to coprocessor 1:
mtc1 \$v0, \$f0
; return
jr \$ra

```

One single LUI instruction is used to load \(0 \times 80000000\) into a register, because LUI is clearing the low 16 bits and these are zeros in the constant, so one LUI without subsequent ORI is enough.

\section*{ARM}

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.285: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

my_abs PROC
; clear bit:
BIC r0,r0,\#0x80000000
BX lr
ENDP

```
set_sign PROC
```

; do OR:
ORR r0,r0,\#0x80000000
BX lr
ENDP
negate PROC
; do XOR:
EOR r0,r0,\#0x80000000
BX lr
ENDP

```

So far so good.
ARM has the BIC instruction, which explicitly clears specific bit(s). EOR is the ARM instruction name for XOR ("Exclusive OR").

Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)

Listing 1.286: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
```

my_abs PROC
; r0=i<<1
LSRS r0,r0,\#1
; r0=(i<<1)>>1
BX lr
ENDP
set_sign PROC
MOVS r1,\#1
; r1=1
LSLS r1,r1,\#31
; rl=1<<31=0x80000000
ORRS r0,r0,r1
; r0=r0 | 0x80000000
BX lr
ENDP
negate PROC
MOVS r1,\#1
; r1=1
LSLS r1,r1,\#31
; rl=1<<31=0x800000000
EORS r0,r0,r1
; r0=r0 ^ 0x80000000
BX lr
ENDP

```

Thumb mode in ARM offers 16-bit instructions and not much data can be encoded in them, so here a MOVS/LSLS instruction pair is used for forming the \(0 x 80000000\) constant. It works like this: \(1 \ll 31=\) \(0 x 80000000\).

The code of my_abs is weird and it effectively works like this expression: \((i \ll 1) \gg 1\). This statement looks meaningless. But nevertheless, when input \(\ll 1\) is executed, the MSB (sign bit) is just dropped. When the subsequent result >> 1 statement is executed, all bits are now in their own places, but MSB is zero, because all "new" bits appearing from the shift operations are always zeros. That is how the LSLS/LSRS instruction pair clears MSB.

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.6.3 (Raspberry Pi, ARM mode)}

Listing 1.287: Optimizing GCC 4.6.3 for Raspberry Pi (ARM mode)
```

my_abs
; copy from S0 to R2:
FMRS R2, S0
; clear bit:

```


Let's run Raspberry Pi Linux in QEMU and it emulates an ARM FPU, so S-registers are used here for floating point numbers instead of R-registers.

The FMRS instruction copies data from GPR to the FPU and back.
my_abs() and set_sign() looks as expected, but negate()? Why is there ADD instead of XOR?
It's hard to believe, but the instruction ADD register, \(0 \times 80000000\) works just like
XOR register, \(0 \times 80000000\). First of all, what's our goal? The goal is to flip the MSB, so let's forget about the XOR operation. From school-level mathematics we may recall that adding values like 1000 to other values never affects the last 3 digits. For example: \(1234567+10000=1244567\) (last 4 digits are never affected).

But here we operate in binary base and \(0 \times 80000000\) is \(0 b 100000000000000000000000000000000\), i.e., only the highest bit is set.

Adding \(0 x 80000000\) to any value never affects the lowest 31 bits, but affects only the MSB. Adding 1 to 0 is resulting in 1.
Adding 1 to 1 is resulting in 0 b10 in binary form, but the 32th bit (counting from zero) gets dropped, because our registers are 32 bit wide, so the result is 0 . That's why XOR can be replaced by ADD here.

It's hard to say why GCC decided to do this, but it works correctly.

\subsection*{1.22.5 Counting bits set to 1}

Here is a simple example of a function that calculates the number of bits set in the input value.
This operation is also called "population count"151.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#define IS_SET(flag, bit) ((flag) \& (bit))
int f(unsigned int a)
{
int i;
int rt=0;
for (i=0; i<32; i++)
if (IS SET (a, l<<i))
rt++;
return rt;
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{151}\) modern x86 CPUs (supporting SSE4) even have a POPCNT instruction for it
}
```

int main()
{
f(0x12345678); // test
};

```

In this loop, the iteration count value \(i\) is counting from 0 to 31 , so the \(1 \ll i\) statement is counting from 1 to \(0 x 80000000\). Describing this operation in natural language, we would say shift 1 by \(n\) bits left. In other words, \(1 \ll i\) statement consequently produces all possible bit positions in a 32 -bit number. The freed bit at right is always cleared.
Here is a table of all possible \(1 \ll i\) for \(i=0 \ldots 31\) :
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|l|}
\hline C/C++ expression & Power of two & Decimal form & Hexadecimal form \\
\hline \(1 \ll\) & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline \(1 \ll 1\) & \(2^{1}\) & 2 & 2 \\
\hline \(1<2\) & \(2^{2}\) & 4 & 4 \\
\hline \(1 \ll 3\) & \(2^{3}\) & 8 & 8 \\
\hline \(1 \ll 4\) & \(2^{4}\) & 16 & \(0 \times 10\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll\) & \(2^{5}\) & 32 & \(0 \times 20\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 6\) & \(2^{6}\) & 64 & \(0 \times 40\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 7\) & \(2^{7}\) & 128 & \(0 \times 80\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll\) & \(2^{8}\) & 256 & \(0 \times 100\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 9\) & \(2^{9}\) & 512 & \(0 \times 200\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 10\) & \(2^{10}\) & 1024 & \(0 \times 400\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 11\) & \(2^{11}\) & 2048 & \(0 \times 800\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 12\) & \(2^{12}\) & 4096 & \(0 \times 1000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 13\) & \(2^{13}\) & 8192 & \(0 \times 2000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 14\) & \(2^{14}\) & 16384 & \(0 \times 4000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 15\) & \(2^{15}\) & 32768 & \(0 \times 8000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 16\) & \(2^{16}\) & 65536 & \(0 \times 10000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 17\) & \(2^{17}\) & 131072 & \(0 \times 20000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 18\) & \(2^{18}\) & 262144 & \(0 \times 40000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 19\) & \(2^{19}\) & 524288 & \(0 \times 80000\) \\
\hline \(1<20\) & \(2^{20}\) & 1048576 & \(0 \times 100000\) \\
\hline \(1<21\) & \(2^{21}\) & 2097152 & \(0 \times 200000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 22\) & \(2^{22}\) & 4194304 & \(0 \times 400000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 23\) & \(2^{23}\) & 8388608 & \(0 \times 800000\) \\
\hline \(1<24\) & \(2^{24}\) & 16777216 & \(0 \times 1000000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 25\) & \(2^{25}\) & 33554432 & \(0 \times 2000000\) \\
\hline \(1<26\) & \(2^{26}\) & 67108864 & \(0 \times 4000000\) \\
\hline \(1<27\) & \(2^{27}\) & 134217728 & \(0 \times 8000000\) \\
\hline \(1<28\) & \(2^{28}\) & 268435456 & \(0 \times 10000000\) \\
\hline \(1 \ll 29\) & \(2^{29}\) & 536870912 & \(0 \times 20000000\) \\
\hline \(1<30\) & \(2^{30}\) & 1073741824 & \(0 \times 40000000\) \\
\hline \(1<31\) & \(2^{31}\) & 2147483648 & \(0 \times 80000000\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These constant numbers (bit masks) very often appear in code and a practicing reverse engineer must be able to spot them quickly.
Decimal numbers below 63356 and hexadecimal ones are very easy to memorize. While decimal numbers above 65536 are, probably, not worth memorizing.

These constants are very often used for mapping flags to specific bits. For example, here is excerpt from ssl_private. h from Apache 2.4.6 source code:
```

/**
* Define the SSL options
*/
\#define SSL OPT NONE
(0)
\#define SSL_OPT_RELSET (1<<0)
\#define SSL OPT STDENVVARS (1<<1)
\#define SSL_OPT+EXPORTCERTDATA (1<<3)
\#define SSL_OPT_FAKEBASICAUTH (1<<4)
\#define SSL_OPT_STRICTREQUIRE (1<<5)
\#define SSL_OPT-OPTRENEGOTIATE (1<<6)
\#define SSL_OPT_LEGACYDNFORMAT (1<<7)

```

Let's get back to our example.
The IS_SET macro checks bit presence in \(a\).

The IS_SET macro is in fact the logical AND operation (AND) and it returns 0 if the specific bit is absent there, or the bit mask, if the bit is present. The if() operator in C/C++ triggers if the expression in it is not zero, it might be even 123456, that is why it always works correctly.
\(\mathbf{x 8 6}\)
MSVC

Let's compile (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.288: MSVC 2010
```

rt\$ = -8 ; size = 4
i\$ = -4 ; size = 4
a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
mov DWORD PTR _rt$[ebp], 0
    mov DWORD PTR i$[ebp], 0
jmp SHORT \$LN4@̄f
$LN3@f:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR i$[ebp] ; increment of i
add eax, 1
mov
$LN4@f:
    cmp
    jge
    mov
    mov
    shl
    and
    edx, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
je SHORT \$LN1@f - result of AND instruction was 0?
mov
add
mov
\$LN1@f:
jmp
$LN2@f:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _rt$[ebp]
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
f ENDP

```

\section*{OllyDbg}

Let's load this example into OllyDbg. Let the input value be \(0 \times 12345678\).
For \(i=1\), we see how \(i\) is loaded into ECX:


Figure 1.98: OllyDbg: \(i=1, i\) is loaded into ECX

EDX is \(1 . \mathrm{SHL}\) is to be executed now.


Figure 1.99: OllyDbg: \(i=1\), EDX \(=1 \ll 1=2\)

EDX contain \(1 \ll 1\) (or 2 ). This is a bit mask.

AND sets ZF to 1 , which implies that the input value ( \(0 \times 12345678\) ) ANDed with 2 results in 0 :


Figure 1.100: OllyDbg: \(i=1\), is there that bit in the input value? No. ( \(\mathrm{ZF}=1\) )

So, there is no corresponding bit in the input value.
The piece of code, which increments the counter is not to be executed: the JZ instruction bypassing it.

Let's trace a bit further and \(i\) is now 4 . SHL is to be executed now:


Figure 1.101: OllyDbg: \(i=4, i\) is loaded into ECX

EDX \(=1 \ll 4\) (or \(0 \times 10\) or 16):


Figure 1.102: OllyDbg: \(i=4, \mathrm{EDX}=1 \ll 4=0 x 10\)

This is another bit mask.

AND is executed:


Figure 1.103: OllyDbg: \(i=4\), is there that bit in the input value? Yes. \((Z F=0)\)
\(Z F\) is 0 because this bit is present in the input value.
Indeed, \(0 \times 12345678\) \& \(0 \times 10=0 \times 10\).
This bit counts: the jump is not triggering and the bit counter incrementing.
The function returns 13 . This is total number of bits set in \(0 \times 12345678\).

\section*{GCC}

Let's compile it in GCC 4.4.1:
Listing 1.289: GCC 4.4.1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline f & public f proc near \\
\hline rt & = dword ptr -0Ch \\
\hline i & = dword ptr -8 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{8}{*}{arg_0} & = dword ptr 8 \\
\hline & push ebp \\
\hline & mov ebp, esp \\
\hline & push ebx \\
\hline & sub esp, 10h \\
\hline & mov [ebp+rt], 0 \\
\hline & mov [ebp+i], 0 \\
\hline & jmp short loc_80483EF \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_80483D0:} \\
\hline & mov eax, [ebp+i] \\
\hline & mov edx, 1 \\
\hline & mov ebx, edx \\
\hline & mov ecx, eax \\
\hline & shl ebx, cl \\
\hline & mov eax, ebx \\
\hline & and eax, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline & test eax, eax \\
\hline & jz short loc_80483EB \\
\hline & add [ebp+rt], 1 \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_80483EB:} \\
\hline  & add [ebp+i], 1 \\
\hline loc_80483EF: & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline cmp & {\([e b p+i], 1 F h\)} \\
jle & short loc_80483D0 \\
mov & eax, [ebp+rt] \\
add & esp, 10h \\
pop & ebx \\
pop & ebp \\
& retn & \\
endp & \\
&
\end{tabular}
x64

Let's modify the example slightly to extend it to 64-bit:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
\#define IS_SET(flag, bit) ((flag) \& (bit))
int f(uint64_t a)
{
uint64_t i;
int rt=0;
for (i=0; i<64; i++)
if (IS_SET (a, 1ULL<<i))
rt++;
return rt;
};

```

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC 4.8.2}

So far so easy.
Listing 1.290: Non-optimizing GCC 4.8.2
```

f:
push rbp
mov rbp, rsp
mov QWORD PTR [rbp-24], rdi ; a
mov DWORD PTR [rbp-12], 0 ; rt=0
mov QWORD PTR [rbp-8], 0 ; i=0
jmp .L2
.L4:
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-8]
mov rdx, QWORD PTR [rbp-24]
RAX = i, RDX = a
mov ecx, eax
; ECX = i
shr rdx, cl
RDX = RDX>>CL = a>>
mov rax, rdx
RAX = RDX = a>>i
and eax, 1
; EAX = EAX\&1 = (a>>i)\&1
test rax, rax
; the last bit is zero?
; skip the next ADD instruction, if it was so.
je .L3
add DWORD PTR [rbp-12], 1 ; rt++
.L3:
add QWORD PTR [rbp-8], 1 ; i++
.L2:
cmp QWORD PTR [rbp-8], 63 ; i<63?
jbe .L4 ; jump to the loop body begin, if so
mov eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-12] ; return rt

```

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.8.2}

Listing 1.291: Optimizing GCC 4.8.2
```

f:
xor eax, eax ; rt variable will be in EAX register
xor ecx, ecx ; i variable will be in ECX register
mov rsi, rdi ; load input value
lea edx, [rax+1] ; EDX=EAX+1
EDX here is a new version of rt,
; which will be written into rt variable, if the last bit is 1
shr rsi, cl ; RSI=RSI>>CL
and esi, 1 ; ESI=ESI\&1
the last bit is 1? If so, write new version of rt into EAX
cmovne eax, edx
add rcx, 1 ; RCX++
cmp rcx, 64
jne .L3
rep ret ; AKA fatret

```

This code is terser, but has a quirk.
In all examples that we see so far, we were incrementing the "rt" value after comparing a specific bit, but the code here increments "rt" before (line 6), writing the new value into register EDX. Thus, if the last bit is 1 , the CMOVNE \({ }^{152}\) instruction (which is a synonym for CMOVNZ \({ }^{153}\) ) commits the new value of "rt" by moving EDX ("proposed rt value") into EAX ("current rt" to be returned at the end).

Hence, the incrementing is performed at each step of loop, i.e., 64 times, without any relation to the input value.

The advantage of this code is that it contain only one conditional jump (at the end of the loop) instead of two jumps (skipping the "rt" value increment and at the end of loop). And that might work faster on the modern CPUs with branch predictors: 2.10.1 on page 466.

The last instruction is REP RET (opcode F3 C3) which is also called FATRET by MSVC. This is somewhat optimized version of RET, which is recommended by AMD to be placed at the end of function, if RET goes right after conditional jump: [[Software Optimization Guide for AMD Family 16h Processors, (2013)]p.15] 154.

\section*{Optimizing MSVC 2010}

Listing 1.292: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

a\$ = 8
f PROC
; RCX = input value
xor eax, eax
mov edx, 1
lea r8d, QWORD PTR [rax+64]
; R8D=64
npad 5
\$LL4@f:
test rdx, rcx
; there are no such bit in input value?
; skip the next INC instruction then.
je SHORT \$LN3@f
inc eax ; rt++
\$LN3@f:
rol rdx, 1 ; RDX=RDX<<1

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{152}\) Conditional MOVe if Not Equal
\({ }^{153}\) Conditional MOVe if Not Zero
\({ }^{154}\) More information on it: http://go.yurichev.com/17328
}
```

    dec r8 ; R8--
    jne SHORT $LL4@f
    fatret 0
    f ENDP

```

Here the ROL instruction is used instead of SHL, which is in fact "rotate left" instead of "shift left", but in this example it works just as SHL.

You can read more about the rotate instruction here: .1.6 on page 1034.
R8 here is counting from 64 to 0 . It's just like an inverted \(i\).
Here is a table of some registers during the execution:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline RDX & R8 \\
\hline \(0 \times 0000000000000001\) & 64 \\
\hline \(0 \times 0000000000000002\) & 63 \\
\hline \(0 \times 0000000000000004\) & 62 \\
\hline \(0 \times 0000000000000008\) & 61 \\
\hline\(\ldots\) & \(\ldots\) \\
\hline \(0 \times 4000000000000000\) & 2 \\
\hline \(0 \times 8000000000000000\) & 1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

At the end we see the FATRET instruction, which was explained here: 1.22 .5 on the previous page.

\section*{Optimizing MSVC 2012}

Listing 1.293: Optimizing MSVC 2012
```

a\$ = 8
f PROC
; RCX = input value
xor eax, eax
mov edx, 1
lea r8d, QWORD PTR [rax+32]
; EDX = 1, R8D = 32
npad 5
\$LL4@f:
; pass 1
test rdx, rcx
je SHORT \$LN3@f
inc eax ; rt++
\$LN3@f:
rol rdx, 1 ; RDX=RDX<<1
; -----------------------------------
; pass 2 -----------------------------
test rdx, rcx
je SHORT \$LN11@f
inc eax ; rt++
\$LN11@f:
rol rdx, 1 ; RDX=RDX<<1
; ---------------------------------
dec r8 ; R8--
jne SHORT \$LL4@f
fatret 0
f ENDP

```

Optimizing MSVC 2012 does almost the same job as optimizing MSVC 2010, but somehow, it generates two identical loop bodies and the loop count is now 32 instead of 64.

To be honest, it's not possible to say why. Some optimization trick? Maybe it's better for the loop body to be slightly longer?

Anyway, such code is relevant here to show that sometimes the compiler output may be really weird and illogical, but perfectly working.

Listing 1.294: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)


TST is the same things as TEST in x86.
As was noted before ( 3.9 .3 on page 499), there are no separate shifting instructions in ARM mode. However, there are modifiers LSL (Logical Shift Left), LSR (Logical Shift Right), ASR (Arithmetic Shift Right), ROR (Rotate Right) and RRX (Rotate Right with Extend), which may be added to such instructions as MOV, TST, CMP, ADD, SUB, RSB \({ }^{155}\).
These modificators define how to shift the second operand and by how many bits.
Thus the "TST R1, R2, LSL R3" instruction works here as \(R 1 \wedge(R 2 \ll R 3)\).

\section*{ARM + Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)}

Almost the same, but here are two LSL.W/TST instructions are used instead of a single TST, because in Thumb mode it is not possible to define LSL modifier directly in TST.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline & MOV & R1, R0 \\
& MOVS & R0, \#0 \\
MOV.W & R9, \#1 \\
& MOVS & R3, \#0 \\
& \\
& LSL.W & R2, R9, R3 \\
& TST & R2, R1 \\
ADD.W & R3, R3, \#1 \\
& IT NE & \\
ADDNE & R0, \#1 \\
& CMP & R3, \#32 \\
& BNE & loc_2F7A \\
& BX & LR \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{ARM64 + Optimizing GCC 4.9}

Let's take the 64-bit example which has been already used: 1.22 .5 on page 330 .
Listing 1.295: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.8


\footnotetext{
\({ }^{155}\) These instructions are also called "data processing instructions"
}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{ll} 
bne & .L2 \\
mov & \(w 0, w 2\)
\end{tabular} & ; yes \\
ret &
\end{tabular}

The result is very similar to what GCC generates for x64: 1.291 on page 331.
The CSEL instruction is "Conditional SELect". It just chooses one variable of two depending on the flags set by TST and copies the value into W2, which holds the "rt" variable.

\section*{ARM64 + Non-optimizing GCC 4.9}

And again, we'll work on the 64-bit example which was already used: 1.22 .5 on page 330 . The code is more verbose, as usual.

Listing 1.296: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.8
```

f:
sub sp, sp, \#32
str x0, [sp,8] ; store "a" value to Register Save Area
str wzr, [sp,24] ; rt=0
str wzr, [sp,28] ; i=0
b .L2
.L4:
ldr w0, [sp,28]
mov xl, 1
lsl x0, x1, x0 ; X0 = X1<<X0 = 1<<i
mov x1, x0
; X1 = 1<<i
ldr x0, [sp,8]
; X0 = a
and x0, x1, x0
; X0 = X1\&X0 = (1<<i) \& a
; X0 contain zero? then jump to .L3, skipping "rt" increment
cmp x0, xzr
beq .L3
; rt++
ldr w0, [sp,24]
add w0, w0, 1
str w0, [sp,24]
.L3:
; i++
ldr
.L2:
; i<=63? then jump to .L4
ldr w0, [sp,28]
cmp w0, 63
ble .L4
; return rt
ldr w0, [sp,24]
add sp, sp, 32
ret

```

\section*{MIPS}

\section*{Non-optimizing GCC}

Listing 1.297: Non-optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f:
; IDA is not aware of variable names, we gave them manually:
rt = -0x10
i = -0xC
var_4 = -4
a =0

```
```

    addiu $sp, -0x18
    sw $fp, 0x18+var_4($sp)
    move $fp, $sp
    sw $a0, 0x18+a($fp)
    ; initialize rt and i variables to zero:
sw $zero, 0x18+rt($fp)
sw $zero, 0x18+i($fp)
; jump to loop check instructions:
b loc 68
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

```
loc 20:
    li \(\quad \$ v 1,1\)
    lw \$v0, 0x18+i(\$fp)
    or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
    sllv \$v0, \$v1, \$v0
; \$v0 = 1<<i
    move \(\$ v 1, \$ v 0\)
    lw \(\$ v 0,0 x 18+a(\$ f p)\)
    or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
    and \(\quad \$ v 0, \$ v 1, \$ v 0\)
; \$v0 = a\&(1<<i)
; is a\&(l<<i) equals to zero? jump to loc_58 then:
    beqz \$v0, loc_58
    or \$at, \$zero
; no jump occurred, that means a\&(1<<i)!=0, so increment "rt" then:
    lw \(\quad \$ 00,0 \times 18+r t(\$ f p)\)
    or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
    addiu \$v0, 1
    sw \(\quad \$ 00,0 \times 18+r t(\$ f p)\)
loc 58:
; increment i:
```

    lw $v0, 0x18+i($fp)
    or $at, $zero ; load delay slot, NOP
    addiu $v0, 1
    sw $v0, 0x18+i($fp)
    ```
loc 68:
; load i and compare it with \(0 \times 20\) (32).
; jump to loc 20 if it is less then \(0 \times 20\) (32):
    lw \(\$ v 0,0 \times 18+i(\$ f p)\)
    or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
    slti \$v0, 0x20 \# ' '
    bnez \(\$ \mathrm{v} 0\), loc 20
    or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
; function epilogue. return rt:
    lw \(\quad \$ v 0,0 \times 18+r t(\$ f p)\)
    move \(\$ s p, \$ f p\); load delay slot
    lw \(\quad \$ \mathrm{fp}, 0 \times 18+\) var \(4(\$ \mathrm{sp})\)
    addiu \$sp, 0x18 ; load delay slot
    jr \$ra
    or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

That is verbose: all local variables are located in the local stack and reloaded each time they're needed.
The SLLV instruction is "Shift Word Left Logical Variable", it differs from SLL only in that the shift amount is encoded in the SLL instruction (and is fixed, as a consequence), but SLLV takes shift amount from a register.

\section*{Optimizing GCC}

That is terser. There are two shift instructions instead of one. Why?
It's possible to replace the first SLLV instruction with an unconditional branch instruction that jumps right to the second SLLV. But this is another branching instruction in the function, and it's always favorable to get rid of them: 2.10.1 on page 466 .
```

f:
; \$a0=a
; rt variable will reside in \$v0:
move \$v0, \$zero
; i variable will reside in \$v1:
move \$v1, \$zero
li \$t0, 1
li \$a3, 32
sllv \$a1, \$t0, \$v1
; \$a1 = $t0<<$v1 = 1<<i
loc_14:
; \$al = a\&(1<<i)
; increment i:
addiu \$v1, 1
; jump to loc_28 if a\&(l<<i)==0 and increment rt:
beqz \$al, loc_28
addiu \$a2, \$v0, 1
; if BEQZ was not triggered, save updated rt into \$v0:
move \$v0, \$a2
loc_28:
; if i!=32, jump to loc_14 and also prepare next shifted value:
bne \$v1, \$a3, loc_14
sllv \$a1, \$t0, \$v1
; return
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

```

\subsection*{1.22.6 Conclusion}

Analogous to the C/C ++ shifting operators << and >>, the shift instructions in \(x 86\) are SHR/SHL (for unsigned values) and SAR/SHL (for signed values).
The shift instructions in ARM are LSR/LSL (for unsigned values) and ASR/LSL (for signed values).
It's also possible to add shift suffix to some instructions (which are called "data processing instructions").

\section*{Check for specific bit (known at compile stage)}

Test if the 0 b1000000 bit \((0 \times 40)\) is present in the register's value:
Listing 1.299: C/C++
if (input\&0x40)
...

Listing 1.300: x86
TEST REG, 40h
JNZ is_set
; bit is not set

Listing 1.301: x86
```

TEST REG, 40h
JZ is_cleared
; bit is set

```

Listing 1.302: ARM (ARM mode)
TST REG, \#0x40
BNE is_set
; bit is not set

Sometimes, AND is used instead of TEST, but the flags that are set are the same.

This is usually done by this \(C / C++\) code snippet (shift value by \(n\) bits right, then cut off lowest bit):
Listing 1.303: \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\)
```

if ((value>>n)\&1)

```
```

    ....
    ```

This is usually implemented in x86 code as:
Listing 1.304: x86
```

; REG=input_value
; CL=n
SHR REG, CL
AND REG, 1

```

Or (shift 1 bit \(n\) times left, isolate this bit in input value and check if it's not zero):
Listing 1.305: C/C++
```

if (value \& (1<<n))

```

This is usually implemented in \(x 86\) code as:
Listing 1.306: x86
```

; CL=n
MOV REG, 1
SHL REG, CL
AND input_value, REG

```

\section*{Set specific bit (known at compile stage)}

Listing 1.307: C/C++
value=value|0×40;

Listing 1.308: x86
OR REG, 40h

Listing 1.309: ARM (ARM mode) and ARM64
ORR R0, R0, \#0×40

\section*{Set specific bit (specified at runtime)}

Listing 1.310: C/C++
```

value=value|(1<<n);

```

This is usually implemented in x86 code as:
Listing 1.311: x86
```

; CL=n
MOV REG, 1
SHL REG, CL
OR input_value, REG

```
1.23. LINEAR CONGRUENTIAL GENERATOR

\section*{Clear specific bit (known at compile stage)}

Just apply AND operation with the inverted value:
Listing 1.312: C/C++
value=value\&(~0x40);

Listing 1.313: x86
AND REG, 0FFFFFFBFh

Listing 1.314: x64
AND REG, 0FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFBFh

This is actually leaving all bits set except one.
ARM in ARM mode has BIC instruction, which works like the NOT + AND instruction pair:
Listing 1.315: ARM (ARM mode)
BIC R0, R0, \#0x40

\section*{Clear specific bit (specified at runtime)}

Listing 1.316: C/C++
value=value\&(~(1<<n));

Listing 1.317: x86
```

; CL=n
MOV REG, 1
SHL REG, CL
NOT REG
AND input_value, REG

```

\subsection*{1.22.7 Exercises}
- http://challenges.re/67
- http://challenges.re/68
- http://challenges.re/69
- http://challenges.re/70

\subsection*{1.23 Linear congruential generator as pseudorandom number generator}

Perhaps, the linear congruential generator is the simplest possible way to generate random numbers. It's not in favour nowadays \({ }^{156}\), but it's so simple (just one multiplication, one addition and AND operation), that we can use it as an example.
```

\#include <stdint.h>
// constants from the Numerical Recipes book
\#define RNG_a 1664525
\#define RNG_c 1013904223
static uint32_t rand_state;

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{156}\) Mersenne twister is better
}
```

void my_srand (uint32_t init)
{
rand_state=init;
}
int my rand ()
{
rand_state=rand_state*RNG_a;
rand_state=rand_state+RNG_c;
return rand_state \& 0x7ff\overline{f};
}

```

There are two functions: the first one is used to initialize the internal state, and the second one is called to generate pseudorandom numbers.

We see that two constants are used in the algorithm. They are taken from [William H. Press and Saul A. Teukolsky and William T. Vetterling and Brian P. Flannery, Numerical Recipes, (2007)].

Let's define them using a \#define C/C++ statement. It's a macro.
The difference between a \(C / C++\) macro and a constant is that all macros are replaced with their value by \(C / C++\) preprocessor, and they don't take any memory, unlike variables.

In contrast, a constant is a read-only variable.
It's possible to take a pointer (or address) of a constant variable, but impossible to do so with a macro.
The last AND operation is needed because by C-standard my_rand () has to return a value in the \(0 . .32767\) range.

If you want to get 32-bit pseudorandom values, just omit the last AND operation.

\section*{\(1.23 .1 \times 86\)}

Listing 1.318: Optimizing MSVC 2013
```

_BSS SEGMENT
_rand_state DD 01H DUP (?)
BSS ENDS
init\$ = 8
srand PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _init\$[esp-4]
mov DWORD PTR _rand_state, eax
ret 0
_srand ENDP
TEXT SEGMENT
_rand PROC
imul eax, DWORD PTR _rand_state, 1664525
add eax, 1013904223 ; 3c6ef35fH
mov DWORD PTR rand state, eax
and eax, 32767 ; 00007fffH
ret 0
rand ENDP
TEXT ENDS

```

Here we see it: both constants are embedded into the code. There is no memory allocated for them.
The my srand() function just copies its input value into the internal
rand state variable.
my_rand () takes it, calculates the next rand_state, cuts it and leaves it in the EAX register.
The non-optimized version is more verbose:
Listing 1.319: Non-optimizing MSVC 2013
```

_BSS SEGMENT
_rand_state DD 01H DUP (?)

```
```

_BSS ENDS
init\$ = 8
_srand PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR init\$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR _rand_state, eax
pop ebp
ret 0
_srand ENDP
_TEXT SEGMENT
_rand PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
imul eax, DWORD PTR _rand_state, 1664525
mov DWORD PTR _rand_state, eax
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _rand_state
add ecx, 1013904223 ; 3c6ef35fH
mov DWORD PTR _rand_state, ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR rand_state
and eax, 32767 ; 00007fffH
pop ebp
ret 0
rand ENDP
TEXT ENDS

```

\section*{\(1.23 .2 \times 64\)}

The x64 version is mostly the same and uses 32-bit registers instead of 64-bit ones (because we are working with int values here).

But my_srand () takes its input argument from the ECX register rather than from stack:
Listing 1.320: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

BSS SEGMENT
rand_state DD 01H DUP (?)
BSS ENDS
init\$ = 8
my_srand PROC
; \overline{ECX = input argument}
mov DWORD PTR rand_state, ecx
ret 0
my_srand ENDP
TEXT SEGMENT
\overline{my_rand PROC}
imul eax, DWORD PTR rand_state, 1664525 ; 0019660dH
add eax, 1013904223 ; 3c6ef35fH
mov DWORD PTR rand_state, eax
and eax, 32767 ; 00007fffH
ret 0
my_rand ENDP
_TEXT ENDS

```

GCC compiler generates mostly the same code.

\subsection*{1.23.3 32-bit ARM}
```

my srand PROC
LDR r1,|L0.52| ; load pointer to rand_state
STR r0,[r1,\#0] ; save rand_state
BX lr
ENDP
my_rand PROC
LDR r0,|L0.52| ; load pointer to rand_state
LDR r2,|L0.56| ; load RNG_a
LDR rl,[r0,\#0] ; load rand_state
MUL r1,r2,r1
LDR r2,|L0.60| ; load RNG_c
ADD r1,r1,r2
STR rl,[r0,\#0] ; save rand_state
; AND with 0x7FFF:
LSL r0,r1,\#17
LSR r0,r0,\#17
BX lr
ENDP
|L0.52|
|L0.52 DCD ||.data|
|L0.56|
DCD 0x0019660d
|L0.60|
DCD 0x3c6ef35f
AREA ||.data||, DATA, ALIGN=2
rand state
DCD 0x00000000

```

It's not possible to embed 32-bit constants into ARM instructions, so Keil has to place them externally and load them additionally. One interesting thing is that it's not possible to embed the 0x7FFF constant as well. So what Keil does is shifting rand_state left by 17 bits and then shifting it right by 17 bits. This is analogous to the (rand_state <<17) >> 17 statement in C/C++. It seems to be useless operation, but what it does is clearing the high 17 bits, leaving the low 15 bits intact, and that's our goal after all.

Optimizing Keil for Thumb mode generates mostly the same code.

\subsection*{1.23.4 MIPS}

Listing 1.322: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

my_srand:
; store \$a0 to rand_state:

| lui | $\$ v 0$, | $\left(r a n d \_s t a t e ~ \gg ~ 16\right)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jr | $\$ r a$ |  |
| sw | $\$ a 0$, | rand_state |

my_rand:
; load rand state to \$v0:
lui \$v1, (rand state >> 16)
lw \$v0, rand_state
or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot
; multiplicate rand_state in \$v0 by 1664525 (RNG_a):
sll \$al, \$v0, 2
sll \$a0, \$v0, 4
addu \$a0, \$al, \$a0
sll \$a1, \$a0, 6
subu \$a0, \$a1, \$a0
addu \$a0, \$v0
sll \$al, \$a0, 5
addu \$a0, \$a1
sll \$a0, 3
addu \$v0, \$a0, \$v0
sll \$a0, \$v0, 2
addu \$v0, \$a0
; add 1013904223 (RNG_c)

```
```

; the LI instruction is coalesced by IDA from LUI and ORI
li \$a0, 0x3C6EF35F
addu \$v0, \$a0
; store to rand_state:
sw $v0, (rand_state & 0xFFFF)($v1)
jr \$ra
andi \$v0, 0x7FFF ; branch delay slot

```

Wow, here we see only one constant (0x3C6EF35F or 1013904223). Where is the other one (1664525)? It seems that multiplication by 1664525 is performed by just using shifts and additions! Let's check this assumption:
```

\#define RNG_a 1664525
int f (int a)
{
return a*RNG_a;
}

```

Listing 1.323: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)


Indeed!

\section*{MIPS relocations}

We will also focus on how such operations as load from memory and store to memory actually work.
The listings here are produced by IDA, which hides some details.
We'll run objdump twice: to get a disassembled listing and also relocations list:
Listing 1.324: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (objdump)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{\# objdump -D rand_03.0} \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{00000000 <my_srand>:} \\
\hline 0 : & 3c020000 & lui & v0, \(0 \times 0\) \\
\hline 4: & 03e00008 & jr & ra \\
\hline 8: & ac440000 & sw & a0,0(v0) \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{0000000c <my_rand>:} \\
\hline c: & 3 c 0300000 & lui & v1, \(0 \times 0\) \\
\hline 10: & 8c620000 & lw & v0,0(v1) \\
\hline 14: & 00200825 & move & at, at \\
\hline 18: & 00022880 & sll & a1,v0, \(0 \times 2\) \\
\hline 1c: & 00022100 & sll & a0,v0, \(0 \times 4\) \\
\hline 20: & 00a42021 & addu & a0, al, a0 \\
\hline 24 : & 00042980 & sll & a1, a0, \(0 \times 6\) \\
\hline \(28:\) & 00a42023 & subu & a0, a1, a0 \\
\hline 2c: & 00822021 & addu & a0, a0, v0 \\
\hline 30: & 00042940 & sll & a1, a0, \(0 \times 5\) \\
\hline 34 : & 00852021 & addu & a0, a0, a1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


Let's consider the two relocations for the my_srand() function.
The first one, for address 0 has a type of R_MIPS_HI16 and the second one for address 8 has a type of R_MIPS_L016.
That implies that address of the beginning of the .bss segment is to be written into the instructions at address of 0 (high part of address) and 8 (low part of address).

The rand_state variable is at the very start of the .bss segment.
So we see zeros in the operands of instructions LUI and SW, because nothing is there yet- the compiler don't know what to write there.

The linker will fix this, and the high part of the address will be written into the operand of LUI and the low part of the address-to the operand of SW.
SW will sum up the low part of the address and what is in register \(\$ \mathrm{~V} 0\) (the high part is there).
It's the same story with the my_rand() function: R_MIPS_HI16 relocation instructs the linker to write the high part of the .bss segment address into instruction LUI.

So the high part of the rand_state variable address is residing in register \$V1.
The LW instruction at address \(0 \times 10\) sums up the high and low parts and loads the value of the rand_state variable into \$V0.

The SW instruction at address \(0 \times 54\) do the summing again and then stores the new value to the rand_state global variable.

IDA processes relocations while loading, thus hiding these details, but we should keep them in mind.

\subsection*{1.23.5 Thread-safe version of the example}

The thread-safe version of the example is to be demonstrated later: 6.2.1 on page 742 .

\subsection*{1.24 Structures}

A C/C++ structure, with some assumptions, is just a set of variables, always stored in memory together, not necessary of the same type \({ }^{157}\).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{157}\) AKA "heterogeneous container"
}

\subsection*{1.24.1 MSVC: SYSTEMTIME example}

Let's take the SYSTEMTIME \({ }^{158}\) win32 structure that describes time.
This is how it's defined:
Listing 1.325: WinBase.h
typedef struct SYSTEMTIME \{
WORD wYear;
WORD wMonth;
WORD wDayOfWeek;
WORD wDay;
WORD wHour;
WORD wMinute;
WORD wSecond;
WORD wMilliseconds;
\} SYSTEMTIME, *PSYSTEMTIME;

Let's write a C function to get the current time:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
SYSTEMTIME t;
GetSystemTime (\&t);
printf ("%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d\n",
t.wYear, t.wMonth, t.wDay,
t.wHour, t.wMinute, t.wSecond);
return;
};

```

We get (MSVC 2010):
Listing 1.326: MSVC 2010 /GS-
```

t\$ = -16 ; size = 16
_main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 16
lea eax, DWORD PTR _t$[ebp]
    push eax
    call DWORD PTR imp GetSystemTime@4
    movzx ecx, WORD PTR _t$[ebp+12] ; wSecond
push ecx
movzx edx, WORD PTR _t$[ebp+10] ; wMinute
    push edx
    movzx eax, WORD PTR t$[ebp+8] ; wHour
push eax
movzx ecx, WORD PTR _t$[ebp+6] ; wDay
    push ecx
    movzx edx, WORD PTR _t$[ebp+2] ; wMonth
push edx
movzx eax, WORD PTR _t\$[ebp] ; wYear
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG78811 ; '%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d', 0aH, 00H
call printf
add esp, 28
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

\footnotetext{
158 MSDN: SYSTEMTIME structure
}

16 bytes are allocated for this structure in the local stack -that is exactly sizeof(WORD)*8 (there are 8 WORD variables in the structure).
Pay attention to the fact that the structure begins with the wYear field. It can be said that a pointer to the SYSTEMTIME structure is passed to the GetSystemTime() \({ }^{159}\), but it is also can be said that a pointer to the wYear field is passed, and that is the same! GetSystemTime() writes the current year to the WORD pointer pointing to, then shifts 2 bytes ahead, writes current month, etc., etc.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{159}\) MSDN: SYSTEMTIME structure
}

\section*{OllyDbg}

Let's compile this example in MSVC 2010 with /GS - /MD keys and run it in OllyDbg.
Let's open windows for data and stack at the address which is passed as the first argument of the GetSystemTime() function, and let's wait until it's executed. We see this:


Figure 1.104: OllyDbg: GetSystemTime( ) just executed

The system time of the function execution on my computer is 9 December 2014, 22:29:52:
Listing 1.327: printf() output
2014-12-09 22:29:52

So we see these 16 bytes in the data window:
DE 07 0C 00020009001600 1D 003400 D4 03

Each two bytes represent one field of the structure. Since the endianness is little endian, we see the low byte first and then the high one.

Hence, these are the values currently stored in memory:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Hexadecimal number & decimal number & field name \\
\hline \(0 \times 07 \mathrm{DE}\) & 2014 & wYear \\
\hline \(0 \times 000 \mathrm{C}\) & 12 & wMonth \\
\hline \(0 \times 0002\) & 2 & wDayOfWeek \\
\hline \(0 \times 0009\) & 9 & wDay \\
\hline \(0 \times 0016\) & 22 & wHour \\
\hline \(0 \times 001 \mathrm{D}\) & 29 & wMinute \\
\hline \(0 \times 0034\) & 52 & wSecond \\
\hline \(0 \times 03 \mathrm{D} 4\) & 980 & wMilliseconds \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The same values are seen in the stack window, but they are grouped as 32-bit values.
And then printf() just takes the values it needs and outputs them to the console.
Some values aren't output by printf() (wDayOfWeek and wMilliseconds), but they are in memory right now, available for use.

\section*{Replacing the structure with array}

The fact that the structure fields are just variables located side-by-side, can be easily demonstrated by doing the following. Keeping in mind the SYSTEMTIME structure description, it's possible to rewrite this
simple example like this:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
WORD array[8];
GetSystemTime (array);
printf ("%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d\n",
array[0] /* wYear */, array[1] /* wMonth */, array[3] /* wDay */,
array[4] /* wHour */, array[5] /* wMinute */, array[6] /* wSecond */);
return;
};

```

The compiler grumbles a bit:
```

systemtime2.c(7) : warning C4133: 'function' : incompatible types - from 'WORD [8]' to '\swarrow
\ LPSYSTEMTIME'

```

But nevertheless, it produces this code:
Listing 1.328: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010
```

$SG78573 DB '%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d', 0aH, 00H
array$ = -16 ; size = 16
main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 16
lea eax, DWORD PTR array$[ebp]
    push eax
    call DWORD PTR __imp__GetSystemTime@4
    movzx ecx, WORD PTR _\overline{array$[ebp+12] ; wSecond}
push ecx
movzx edx, WORD PTR _array$[ebp+10] ; wMinute
    push edx
    movzx eax, WORD PTR _array$[ebp+8] ; wHoure
push eax
movzx ecx, WORD PTR _array$[ebp+6] ; wDay
    push ecx
    movzx edx, WORD PTR _array$[ebp+2] ; wMonth
push edx
movzx eax, WORD PTR _array\$[ebp] ; wYear
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG78573
call _printf
add esp, 28
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

And it works just as the same!
It is very interesting that the result in assembly form cannot be distinguished from the result of the previous compilation.
So by looking at this code, one cannot say for sure if there was a structure declared, or an array.
Nevertheless, no sane person would do it, as it is not convenient.
Also the structure fields may be changed by developers, swapped, etc.
We will not study this example in OllyDbg, because it will be just the same as in the case with the structure.

\subsection*{1.24.2 Let's allocate space for a structure using malloc()}

Sometimes it is simpler to place structures not the in local stack, but in the heap:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
SYSTEMTIME *t;
t=(SYSTEMTIME *)malloc (sizeof (SYSTEMTIME));
GetSystemTime (t);
printf ("%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d\n",
t->wYear, t->wMonth, t->wDay,
t->wHour, t->wMinute, t->wSecond);
free (t);
return;
};

```

Let's compile it now with optimization (/0x) so it would be easy to see what we need.
Listing 1.329: Optimizing MSVC
```

main PROC
push esi
push 16
call malloc
add ēep, 4
mov esi, eax
push esi
call DWORD PTR _ imp__GetSystemTime@4
movzx eax, WORD PTR [esi+12] ; wSecond
movzx ecx, WORD PTR [esi+10] ; wMinute
movzx edx, WORD PTR [esi+8] ; wHour
push eax
movzx eax, WORD PTR [esi+6] ; wDay
push ecx
movzx ecx, WORD PTR [esi+2] ; wMonth
push edx
movzx edx, WORD PTR [esi] ; wYear
push eax
push ecx
push edx
push OFFSET \$SG78833
call printf
push esi
call _free
add esp, 32
xor eax, eax
pop esi
ret 0
main ENDP

```

So, sizeof(SYSTEMTIME) = 16 and that is exact number of bytes to be allocated by malloc(). It returns a pointer to a freshly allocated memory block in the EAX register, which is then moved into the ESI register. GetSystemTime() win32 function takes care of saving value in ESI, and that is why it is not saved here and continues to be used after the GetSystemTime() call.
New instruction -MOVZX (Move with Zero eXtend). It may be used in most cases as MOVSX, but it sets the remaining bits to 0 . That's because printf() requires a 32 -bit int, but we got a WORD in the structure that is 16 -bit unsigned type. That's why by copying the value from a WORD into int, bits from 16 to 31 must be cleared, because a random noise may be there, which is left from the previous operations on the register(s).
In this example, it's possible to represent the structure as an array of 8 WORDs:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void main()
{
WORD *t;
t=(WORD *)malloc (16);
GetSystemTime (t);
printf ("%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d\n",
t[0] /* wYear */, t[1] /* wMonth */, t[3] /* wDay */,
t[4] /* wHour */, t[5] /* wMinute */, t[6] /* wSecond */);
free (t);
return;
};

```

We get:
Listing 1.330: Optimizing MSVC
```

\$SG78594 DB '%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d', 0aH, 00H
_main PROC
push esi
push 16
call _malloc
add esp, 4
mov esi, eax
push esi
call DWORD PTR __imp__GetSystemTime@4
movzx eax, WORD PTR [esi+12]
movzx ecx, WORD PTR [esi+10]
movzx edx, WORD PTR [esi+8]
push eax
movzx eax, WORD PTR [esi+6]
push ecx
movzx ecx, WORD PTR [esi+2]
push edx
movzx edx, WORD PTR [esi]
push eax
push ecx
push edx
push OFFSET \$SG78594
call _printf
push esi
call free
add èsp, 32
xor eax, eax
pop esi
ret 0
main ENDP

```

Again, we got the code that cannot be distinguished from the previous one.
And again it has to be noted, you haven't to do this in practice, unless you really know what you are doing.

\subsection*{1.24.3 UNIX: struct tm}

\section*{Linux}

Let's take the tm structure from time. h in Linux for example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <time.h>

```
```

void main()
{
struct tm t;
time_t unix_time;
unix_time=time(NULL);
localtime_r (\&unix_time, \&t);
printf ("Year: %d\n", t.tm_year+1900);
printf ("Month: %d\n", t.tm_mon);
printf ("Day: %d\n", t.tm_m\overline{day);}
printf ("Hour: %d\n", t.tm_hour);
printf ("Minutes: %d\n", t.tm_min);
printf ("Seconds: %d\n", t.tm_sec);
};

```

Let's compile it in GCC 4.4.1:
Listing 1.331: GCC 4.4.1
```

main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 40h
mov dword ptr [esp], 0 ; first argument for time()
call time
mov [esp+3Ch], eax
lea eax, [esp+3Ch] ; take pointer to what time() returned
lea edx, [esp+10h] ; at ESP+10h struct tm will begin
mov [esp+4], edx ; pass pointer to the structure begin
mov [esp], eax ; pass pointer to result of time()
call localtime_r
mov eax, [esp+24h] ; tm_year
lea edx, [eax+76Ch] ; edx=eax+1900
mov eax, offset format ; "Year: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx
mov [esp], eax
call printf
mov edx, [esp+20h] ; tm mon
mov eax, offset aMonthD ; "Month: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx
mov [esp], eax
call printf
mov edx, [esp+1Ch] ; tm mday
mov eax, offset aDayD ; "Day: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx
mov [esp], eax
call printf
mov edx, [esp+18h] ; tm_hour
mov eax, offset aHourD ; "Hour: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx
mov [esp], eax
call printf
mov edx, [esp+14h] ; tm_min
mov eax, offset aMinutesD ; "Minutes: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx
mov [esp], eax
call printf
mov edx, [esp+10h]
mov eax, offset aSecondsD ; "Seconds: %d\n"
mov [esp+4], edx ; tm_sec
mov [esp], eax
call printf
leave
retn
main endp

```

Somehow, IDA did not write the local variables' names in the local stack. But since we already are experienced reverse engineers :-) we may do it without this information in this simple example.

Please also pay attention to the lea edx, [eax+76Ch] —this instruction just adds \(0 \times 76 \mathrm{C}\) (1900) to value in EAX, but doesn't modify any flags. See also the relevant section about LEA ( .1.6 on page 1028).

\section*{GDB}

Let's try to load the example into GDB \({ }^{160}\) :
Listing 1.332: GDB
```

dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ date
Mon Jun 2 18:10:37 EEST 2014
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gcc GCC_tm.c -o GCC_tm
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gdb GCC_tm
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/GCC_tm...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) b printf
Breakpoint 1 at 0x8048330
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/dennis/polygon/GCC_tm
Breakpoint 1, __printf (format=0x80485c0 "Year: %d\n") at printf.c:29
29 printf.c: No such file or directory.
(gdb) x/20x \$esp
0xbffff0dc: 0x080484c3 0x080485c0 0x000007de 0x00000000
0xbffff0ec: 0x08048301 0x538c93ed 0x00000025 0x0000000a
0xbffff0fc: 0x00000012 0x00000002 0x00000005 0x00000072
0xbffff10c: 0x00000001 0x00000098 0x00000001 0x00002a30
0xbffff11c: 0x0804b090 0x08048530 0x00000000 0x00000000
(gdb)

```

We can easily find our structure in the stack. First, let's see how it's defined in time.h:
Listing 1.333: time.h
```

struct tm
{
int tm sec;
int tm_min;
int tm_hour;
int tm_mday;
int tm_mon;
int tm_year;
int tm_wday;
int tm_yday;
int tm_isdst;
};

```

Pay attention that 32-bit int is used here instead of WORD in SYSTEMTIME. So, each field occupies 32-bit. Here are the fields of our structure in the stack:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 0xbffff0dc: & 0x080484c3 & & 0x080485c0 & & 0x000007de & & 0x00000000 & \\
\hline 0xbffff0ec: & \(0 \times 08048301\) & & \(0 \times 538 \mathrm{c} 93 \mathrm{ed}\) & & 0x00000025 & sec & 0x0000000a & min \\
\hline 0xbffff0fc: & 0x00000012 & hour & 0x000000002 & mday & 0x00000005 & mon & 0x00000072 & year \\
\hline 0xbffffl0c: & 0x00000001 & wday & 0x00000098 & yday & 0x00000001 & isds & t0x00002a30 & \\
\hline 0xbffffllc: & 0x0804b090 & & \(0 \times 08048530\) & & 0x00000000 & & 0x00000000 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Or as a table:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{160}\) The date result is slightly corrected for demonstration purposes. Of course, it's not possible to run GDB that quickly, in the same second.
}
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline \multicolumn{1}{|c|}{ Hexadecimal number } & decimal number & field name \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000025\) & 37 & tm_sec \\
\hline \(0 \times 0000000 \mathrm{a}\) & 10 & tm_min \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000012\) & 18 & tm_hour \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000002\) & 2 & tm_mday \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000005\) & 5 & tm_mon \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000072\) & 114 & tm_year \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000001\) & 1 & tm_wday \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000098\) & 152 & tm_yday \\
\hline \(0 \times 00000001\) & 1 & tm_isdst \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Just like SYSTEMTIME ( 1.24 .1 on page 344),
there are also other fields available that are not used, like tm_wday, tm_yday, tm_isdst.

\section*{ARM}

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Same example:
Listing 1.334: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
```

var 38 = -0x38
var 34 = -0x34
var 30 = -0x30
var-}2C=-0\times2
var_28 = -0x28
var 24 = -0x24
timer = -0xC
PUSH \{LR\}
MOVS R0, \#0 ; timer
SUB SP, SP, \#0x34
BL time
STR R0, [SP,\#0x38+timer]
MOV R1, SP ; tp
ADD R0, SP, \#0x38+timer ; timer
BL localtime r
LDR R1, =0x76C
LDR R0, [SP,\#0x38+var_24]
ADDS R1, R0, R1
ADR R0, aYearD ; "Year: %d\n"
BL 2printf
LDR \overline{R1}, [SP,\#0x38+var 28]
ADR R0, aMonthD ; "Month: %d\n"
BL 2printf
LDR \overline{R1}, [SP,\#0x38+var_2C]
ADR R0, aDayD ; "Day: %d\n"
BL 2printf
LDR \overline{R1}, [SP,\#0x38+var_30]
ADR R0, aHourD ; "Hour: %d\n"
BL 2printf
LDR \overline{R1}, [SP,\#0x38+var_34]
ADR R0, aMinutesD ; "Minutes: %d\n"
BL 2printf
LDR \overline{R1}, [SP,\#0x38+var_38]
ADR R0, aSecondsD ; "Seconds: %d\n"
BL 2printf
ADD \overline{SP}, SP, \#0x34
POP {PC}

```

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6 .3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)}

IDA "knows" the tm structure (because IDA "knows" the types of the arguments of library functions like localtime_r()),
so it shows here structure elements accesses and their names.
Listing 1.335: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)
```

var 38 = -0x38
var_34 = - 0x34
PUSH {R7,LR}
MOV R7, SP
SUB SP, SP, \#0x30
MOVS R0, \#0 ; time_t *
BLX time
ADD R1, SP, \#0x38+var_34 ; struct tm *
STR R0, [SP,\#0x38+var 38]
MOV R0, SP ; time t *
BLX _localtime_r
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var 34.tm year]
MOV R0, 0xF44 ; "Year: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
ADDW R1, R1, \#0x76C
BLX printf
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var_34.tm_mon]
MOV R0, 0xF3A ; "Month: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
BLX _printf
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var 34.tm mday]
MOV R0, 0xF35 ; "Day: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
BLX printf
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var 34.tm hour]
MOV R0, 0xF2E ; "Hour: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
BLX printf
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var_34.tm_min]
MOV R0, 0xF28 ; "Minutes: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
BLX _printf
LDR R1, [SP,\#0x38+var 34]
MOV R0, 0xF25 ; "Secoñds: %d\n"
ADD R0, PC ; char *
BLX printf
ADD SP, SP, \#0x30
POP {R7,PC}
00000000 tm struc ; (sizeof=0x2C, standard type)
00000000 tm sec DCD ?
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 4 ~ t m ~ m i n ~ D C D ~ ? ~
00000008 tm hour DCD ?
0000000C tm_mday DCD ?
00000010 tm mon DCD ?
00000014 tm year DCD ?
00000018 tm wday DCD ?
0000001C tm_yday DCD ?
00000020 tm isdst DCD ?
00000024 tm_gmtoff DCD ?
00000028 tm_zone DCD ? ; offset
0000002C tm ends

```

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.336: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

main:
; IDA is not aware of structure field names, we named them manually
var_40 = -0x40

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 6 & var_38 & \(=-0 \times 38\) & \\
\hline 7 & secōnds & \(=-0 \times 34\) & \\
\hline 8 & minutes & \(=-0 \times 30\) & \\
\hline 9 & hour & \(=-0 \times 2 \mathrm{C}\) & \\
\hline 10 & day & \(=-0 \times 28\) & \\
\hline 11 & month & \(=-0 \times 24\) & \\
\hline 12 & year & \(=-0 \times 20\) & \\
\hline 13 & var_4 & \(=-4\) & \\
\hline 14 & & & \\
\hline 15 & & lui & \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16) \\
\hline 16 & & addiu & \$sp, -0x50 \\
\hline 17 & & la & \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF) \\
\hline 18 & & sw & \$ra, 0x50+var_4(\$sp) \\
\hline 19 & & sw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 20 & & lw & \$t9, (time \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 21 & & or & \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP \\
\hline 22 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 23 & & move & \$a0, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP \\
\hline 24 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 25 & & addiu & \$a0, \$sp, 0x50+var_38 \\
\hline 26 & & lw & \$t9, (localtime_r \(\overline{\&} 0 \times F F F F)(\$ g p)\) \\
\hline 27 & & addiu & \$al, \$sp, 0x50+seconds \\
\hline 28 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 29 & & sw & \$v0, 0x50+var_38(\$sp) ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 30 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 31 & & lw & \$a1, 0x50+year (\$sp) \\
\hline 32 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 33 & & la & \$a0, \$LC0 \# "Year: \%d\n" \\
\hline 34 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 35 & & addiu & \$a1, 1900 ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 36 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 37 & & lw & \$al, 0x50+month(\$sp) \\
\hline 38 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 39 & & lui & \$a0, (\$LC1 >> 16) \# "Month: \%d\n" \\
\hline 40 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 41 & & la & \$a0, (\$LC1 \& 0xFFFF) \# "Month: \%d\n" ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 42 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 43 & & lw & \$a1, 0x50+day(\$sp) \\
\hline 44 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 45 & & lui & \$a0, (\$LC2 >> 16) \# "Day: \%d\n" \\
\hline 46 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 47 & & la & \$a0, (\$LC2 \& 0xFFFF) \# "Day: \%d\n" ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 48 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 49 & & lw & \$a1, 0x50+hour (\$sp) \\
\hline 50 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 51 & & lui & \$a0, (\$LC3 >> 16) \# "Hour: \%d\n" \\
\hline 52 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 53 & & la & \$a0, (\$LC3 \& 0xFFFF) \# "Hour: \%d\n" ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 54 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 55 & & lw & \$a1, 0x50+minutes(\$sp) \\
\hline 56 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 57 & & lui & \$a0, (\$LC4 >> 16) \# "Minutes: \%d\n" \\
\hline 58 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 59 & & la & \$a0, (\$LC4 \& 0xFFFF) \# "Minutes: \%d\n" ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 60 & & lw & \$gp, 0x50+var_40(\$sp) \\
\hline 61 & & lw & \$a1, 0x50+seconds(\$sp) \\
\hline 62 & & lw & \$t9, (printf \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline 63 & & lui & \$a0, (\$LC5 >> 16) \# "Seconds: \%d\n" \\
\hline 64 & & jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline 65 & & la & \$a0, (\$LC5 \& 0xFFFF) \# "Seconds: \%d\n" ; branch delay slot \\
\hline 66 & & lw & \$ra, 0x50+var_4(\$sp) \\
\hline 67 & & or & \$at, \$zero ; \\
\hline 68 & & jr & \$ra \\
\hline 69 & & addiu & \$sp, 0x50 \\
\hline 70 & & & \\
\hline 71 & \$LC0: & . ascii & "Year: \%d\n"<0> \\
\hline 72 & \$LC1: & .ascii & "Month: \%d\n"<0> \\
\hline 73 & \$LC2: & .ascii & "Day: \%d\n"<0> \\
\hline 74 & \$LC3: & .ascii & "Hour: \%d\n"<0> \\
\hline 75 & \$LC4: & .ascii & "Minutes: \%d\n"<0> \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

\$LC5: .ascii "Seconds: %d\n"<0>

```

This is an example where the branch delay slots can confuse us.
For example, there is the instruction addiu \(\$ 21,1900\) at line 35 which adds 1900 to the year number. It's executed before the corresponding JALR at line 34, do not forget about it.

\section*{Structure as a set of values}

In order to illustrate that the structure is just variables laying side-by-side in one place, let's rework our example while looking at the \(t m\) structure definition again: listing.1.333.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <time.h>
void main()
{
int tm_sec, tm_min, tm_hour, tm_mday, tm_mon, tm_year, tm_wday, tm_yday, tm_isdst;
time_t unix_time;
unix_time=time(NULL);
localtime_r (\&unix_time, \&tm_sec);
printf ("Year: %d\n", tm_year+1900);
printf ("Month: %d\n", tm mon);
printf ("Day: %d\n", tm m\overline{day);}
printf ("Hour: %d\n", tm_hour);
printf ("Minutes: %d\n", tm_min);
printf ("Seconds: %d\n", tm_sec);
};

```
N.B. The pointer to the tm_sec field is passed into localtime_r, i.e., to the first element of the "structure". The compiler warns us:

Listing 1.337: GCC 4.7.3
```

GCC_tm2.c: In function 'main':
GCC_tm2.c:11:5: warning: passing argument 2 of 'localtime_r' from incompatible pointer type [\&
enabled by default]
In file included from GCC_tm2.c:2:0:
/usr/include/time.h:59:12: note: expected 'struct tm *' but argument is of type 'int *'

```

But nevertheless, it generates this:
Listing 1.338: GCC 4.7.3
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline main & proc nea & \\
\hline var_30 & = dword & ptr -30h \\
\hline var_2C & = dword p & ptr -2Ch \\
\hline unix_time & = dword p & ptr -1Ch \\
\hline tm_sec & = dword & ptr -18h \\
\hline tm_min & = dword & ptr -14h \\
\hline tm_hour & = dword & ptr -10h \\
\hline tm_mday & = dword & ptr -0Ch \\
\hline tm_mon & = dword p & ptr -8 \\
\hline tm_year & = dword & ptr -4 \\
\hline & push & ebp \\
\hline & mov & ebp, esp \\
\hline & and & esp, 0FFFFFFF0h \\
\hline & sub & esp, 30h \\
\hline & call & _main \\
\hline & mov call & [esp+30h+var_30], 0 ; arg 0 time \\
\hline & mov & [esp+30h+unix time], eax \\
\hline & lea & eax, [esp+30h+tm_sec] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


This code is identical to what we saw previously and it is not possible to say, was it a structure in original source code or just a pack of variables.

And this works. However, it is not recommended to do this in practice.
Usually, non-optimizing compilers allocates variables in the local stack in the same order as they were declared in the function.

Nevertheless, there is no guarantee.
By the way, some other compiler may warn about the tm_year, tm_mon, tm_mday, tm_hour, tm_min variables, but not tm_sec are used without being initialized.

Indeed, the compiler is not aware that these are to be filled by
localtime_r() function.
We chose this example, since all structure fields are of type int.
This would not work if structure fields are 16-bit (WORD), like in the case of the SYSTEMTIME structureGetSystemTime() will fill them incorrectly (because the local variables are aligned on a 32-bit boundary). Read more about it in next section: "Fields packing in structure" ( 1.24 .4 on page 359).

So, a structure is just a pack of variables laying in one place, side-by-side. We could say that the structure is the instruction to the compiler, directing it to hold variables in one place. By the way, in some very early C versions (before 1972), there were no structures at all [Dennis M. Ritchie, The development of the C language, (1993)] \({ }^{161}\).

There is no debugger example here: it is just the same as you already saw.

\section*{Structure as an array of 32-bit words}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <time.h>
void main()
{

```
\({ }^{161}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17264

\section*{struct tm t;}
time_t unix_time;
int \(\bar{i}\);
unix_time=time(NULL);
localtime_r (\&unix_time, \&t);
for (i=0; i<9; i++)
\{
int tmp=((int*)\&t)[i]; printf ("0x\%08X (\%d) \n", tmp, tmp);
\};
\};

We just cast a pointer to structure to an array of int's. And that works! We run the example at 23:51:45 26-July-2014.
```

0x0000002D (45)
0x00000033 (51)
0x00000017 (23)
0x0000001A (26)
0x00000006 (6)
0x00000072 (114)
0x00000006 (6)
0x000000CE (206)
0x00000001 (1)

```

The variables here are in the same order as they are enumerated in the definition of the structure: 1.333 on page 351.

Here is how it gets compiled:
Listing 1.339: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1


Indeed: the space in the local stack is first treated as a structure, and then it's treated as an array.
It's even possible to modify the fields of the structure through this pointer.
And again, it's dubiously hackish way to do things, not recommended for use in production code.

\section*{Exercise}

As an exercise, try to modify (increase by 1) the current month number, treating the structure as an array.

\section*{Structure as an array of bytes}

We can go even further. Let's cast the pointer to an array of bytes and dump it:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <time.h>
void main()
{
struct tm t;
time_t unix_time;
int \overline{i}, j;
unix_time=time(NULL);
localtime_r (\&unix_time, \&t);
for (i=0; i<9; i++)
{
for (j=0; j<4; j++)
printf ("0x%02X ", ((unsigned char*)\&t)[i*4+j]);
printf ("\n");
};
};

```
```

0x2D 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x33 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x17 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x1A 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x06 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x72 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x06 0x00 0x00 0x00
0xCE 0x00 0x00 0x00
0x01 0x00 0x00 0x00

```

We also run this example at 23:51:45 26 -July-2014 \({ }^{162}\). The values are just the same as in the previous dump ( 1.24 .3 on the preceding page), and of course, the lowest byte goes first, because this is a littleendian architecture ( 2.8 on page 464).

Listing 1.340: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline main & \begin{tabular}{l}
proc \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
push \\
push \\
and \\
sub \\
mov \\
lea \\
call \\
lea \\
mov \\
mov
\end{tabular} & ```
ebp
ebp, esp
edi
esi
ebx
esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
esp, 40h
dword ptr [esp], 0 ; timer
esi, [esp+14h]
_time
èdi, [esp+38h] ; struct end
[esp+4], esi ; tp
[esp+10h], eax
``` \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{162}\) The time and date are the same for demonstration purposes. Byte values are fixed up.
}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
lea & eax, [esp+10h] & \\
mov & [esp], eax & ; timer \\
call & localtime \(r\) & \\
lea & esi, [esi+0] & ; NOP
\end{tabular}
; ESI here is the pointer to structure in local stack. EDI is the pointer to structure end. loc_8048408:
xor ebx, ebx ; j=0
loc_804840A:
```

    movzx eax, byte ptr [esi+ebx] ; load byte
    add ebx, 1 ; j=j+1
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset a0x02x ; "0x%02X "
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax ; pass loaded byte to printf()
    call __printf_chk
    cmp \overline{ebx, 4}
    jnz short loc_804840A
    ```
; print carriage return character (CR)
    mov dword ptr [esp], 0Ah ; c
    add esi, 4
    call putchar
    cmp esi, edi ; meet struct end?
    jnz short loc_8048408 ; j=0
    lea esp, [ebp-0Ch]
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    pop edi
    pop ebp
    retn
main
    endp

\subsection*{1.24.4 Fields packing in structure}

One important thing is fields packing in structures \({ }^{163}\).
Let's take a simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
struct s
{
char a;
int b;
char c;
int d;
};
void f(struct s s)
{
printf ("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n", s.a, s.b, s.c, s.d);
};
int main()
{
struct s tmp;
tmp.a=1;
tmp.b=2
tmp.c=3;
tmp.d=4
f(tmp);
};

```

As we see, we have two char fields (each is exactly one byte) and two more -int (each - 4 bytes).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{163}\) See also: Wikipedia: Data structure alignment
}

This compiles to:
Listing 1.341: MSVC 2012 /GS- /Ob0
```

tmp\$ = -16
-main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 16
mov BYTE PTR tmp$[ebp], 1 ; set field a
    mov DWORD PTR tmp$[ebp+4], 2 ; set field b
mov BYTE PTR tmp$[ebp+8], 3 ; set field c
    mov DWORD PTR _tmp$[ebp+12], 4 ; set field d
sub esp, 16 ; allocate place for temporary structure
mov eax, esp
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _tmp$[ebp] ; copy our structure to the temporary one
    mov DWORD PTR [eax], ecx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR tmp$[ebp+4]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4}], ed
mov ecx, DWORD PTR tmp$[ebp+8]
    mov DWORD PTR [eax+\overline{8}], ecx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR tmp$[ebp+12]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+12], edx
call f
add esp, 16
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP
s\$ = 8 ; size = 16
?f@@YAXUs@@@Z PROC ; f
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR _s$[ebp+12]
    push eax
    movsx ecx, BYTE PTR _s$[ebp+8]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR _s$[ebp+4]
    push edx
    movsx eax, BYTE PTR _s$[ebp]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG3842
call _printf
add esp, 20
pop ebp
ret 0
?f@@YAXUs@@@Z ENDP ; f
TEXT ENDS

```

We pass the structure as a whole, but in fact, as we can see, the structure is being copied to a temporary one (a place in stack is allocated in line 10 for it, and then all 4 fields, one by one, are copied in lines 12 ... 19), and then its pointer (address) is to be passed.

The structure is copied because it's not known whether the f() function going to modify the structure or not. If it gets changed, then the structure in main() has to remain as it has been.
We could use C/C++ pointers, and the resulting code will be almost the same, but without the copying.
As we can see, each field's address is aligned on a 4-byte boundary. That's why each char occupies 4 bytes here (like int). Why? Because it is easier for the CPU to access memory at aligned addresses and to cache data from it.

However, it is not very economical.
Let's try to compile it with option (/Zp1) (/Zp[n] pack structures on n-byte boundary).
Listing 1.342: MSVC 2012 /GS- /Zp1
```

_main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 12
mov BYTE PTR _tmp$[ebp], 1 ; set field a
    mov DWORD PTR _tmp$[ebp+1], 2 ; set field b
mov BYTE PTR _- mp$[ebp+5], 3 ; set field c
    mov DWORD PTR _tmp$[ebp+6], 4 ; set field d
sub esp, 12 ; allocate place for temporary structure
mov eax, esp
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _tmp$[ebp] ; copy 10 bytes
    mov DWORD PTR [eax], ecx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR tmp$[ebp+4]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], edx
mov cx, WORD PTR _tmp$[ebp+8]
    mov WORD PTR [eax+8], cx
    call _f
    add esp, 12
    xor eax, eax
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
_main ENDP
TEXT SEGMENT
s$ = 8 ; size = 10
?f@@YAXUs@@@Z PROC ; f
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR _s$[ebp+6]
    push eax
    movsx ecx, BYTE PTR _s$[ebp+5]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR s$[ebp+1]
    push edx
    movsx eax, BYTE PTR _s$[ebp]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG3842
call _printf
add esp, 20
pop ebp
ret 0
?f@@YAXUs@@@Z ENDP ; f

```

Now the structure takes only 10 bytes and each char value takes 1 byte. What does it give to us? Size economy. And as drawback -the CPU accessing these fields slower than it could.
The structure is also copied in main(). Not field-by-field, but directly 10 bytes, using three pairs of MOV. Why not 4 ?
The compiler decided that it's better to copy 10 bytes using 3 MOV pairs than to copy two 32-bit words and two bytes using 4 MOV pairs.
By the way, such copy implementation using MOV instead of calling the memcpy () function is widely used, because it's faster than a call to memcpy()-for short blocks, of course: 3.11.1 on page 511.
As it can be easily guessed, if the structure is used in many source and object files, all these must be compiled with the same convention about structures packing.
Aside from MSVC /Zp option which sets how to align each structure field, there is also the \#pragma pack compiler option, which can be defined right in the source code. It is available in both MSVC \({ }^{164}\) and GCC \(^{165}\).
Let's get back to the SYSTEMTIME structure that consists of 16-bit fields. How does our compiler know to pack them on 1-byte alignment boundary?

WinNT.h file has this:
Listing 1.343: WinNT.h
\#include "pshpack1.h"
\({ }^{164}\) MSDN: Working with Packing Structures
\({ }^{165}\) Structure-Packing Pragmas

And this:
Listing 1.344: WinNT.h
```

\#include "pshpack4.h" // 4 byte packing is the default

```

The file PshPack1.h looks like:
Listing 1.345: PshPack1.h
```

\#if ! (defined(lint) || defined(RC INVOKED))
\#if ( _MSC_VER >= 800 \&\& !defined(_M_I86)) || defined(_PUSHPOP_SUPPORTED)
\#pragma warning(disable:4103)
\#if !(defined( MIDL PASS )) || defined( midl )
\#pragma pack(push,1)
\#else
\#pragma pack(1)
\#endif
\#else
\#pragma pack(1)
\#endif
\#endif /* ! (defined(lint) || defined(RC_INVOKED)) */

```

This tell the compiler how to pack the structures defined after \#pragma pack.

Let's try our example (where the fields are aligned by default (4 bytes)) in OllyDbg:


Figure 1.105: OllyDbg: Before printf() execution

We see our 4 fields in the data window.
But where do the random bytes ( \(0 \times 30,0 \times 37,0 \times 01\) ) come from, that are next to the first (a) and third (c) fields?

By looking at our listing 1.341 on page 360 , we can see that the first and third fields are char, therefore only one byte is written, 1 and 3 respectively (lines 6 and 8 ).

The remaining 3 bytes of the 32-bit words are not being modified in memory! Hence, random garbage is left there.

This garbage doesn't influence the printf() output in any way, because the values for it are prepared using the MOVSX instruction, which takes bytes, not words: listing.1.341 (lines 34 and 38).

By the way, the MOVSX (sign-extending) instruction is used here, because char is signed by default in MSVC and GCC. If the unsigned char data type or uint8_t was used here, MOVZX instruction would have been used instead.

Things are much clearer here: 4 fields occupy 10 bytes and the values are stored side-by-side


Figure 1.106: OllyDbg: Before printf() execution

\section*{ARM}

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Listing 1.346: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
.text:0000003E \\
.text:0000003E 05 B0 \\
.text:00000040 00 BD
\end{tabular} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\begin{tabular}{cc} 
exit \(;\) & CODE XREF: \(\mathrm{f}+16\) \\
& ADD \\
& POP \(\mathrm{SP}, \# 0 \times 14\) \\
& \(\{P C\}\)
\end{tabular}} & \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{f} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & & & \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{var_18 = -0x18} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\(=-0 \times 14\)} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\(=-0 \times 10\)} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\(=-0 \times C\)} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\(=-8\)} \\
\hline .text:00000280 & & & \\
\hline .text:00000280 0F B5 & PUSH & \{R0-R3, LR \} & \\
\hline .text:00000282 81 B0 & SUB & SP, SP, \#4 & \\
\hline .text:00000284 0498 & LDR & R0, [SP,\#16] & ; d \\
\hline .text:00000286 02 9A & LDR & R2, [SP,\#8] & ; b \\
\hline .text:00000288 0090 & STR & R0, [SP] & \\
\hline .text:0000028A 6846 & MOV & R0, SP & \\
\hline .text:0000028C 03 7B & LDRB & R3, [R0,\#12] & ; c \\
\hline .text:0000028E 0179 & LDRB & R1, [R0,\#4] & ; a \\
\hline .text:00000290 59 A0 & ADR & R0, aADBDCDDD & ; "a=\%d; b=\%d; c=\%d; d=\%d\n" \\
\hline .text:00000292 05 F0 AD FF & BL & 2 printf & \\
\hline .text:00000296 D2 E6 & B & exit & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

As we may recall, here a structure is passed instead of pointer to one, and since the first 4 function arguments in ARM are passed via registers, the structure's fields are passed via R0-R3.
LDRB loads one byte from memory and extends it to 32 -bit, taking its sign into account. This is similar to MOVSX in x86. Here it is used to load fields \(a\) and \(c\) from the structure.

One more thing we spot easily is that instead of function epilogue, there is jump to another function's epilogue! Indeed, that was quite different function, not related in any way to ours, however, it has exactly the same epilogue (probably because, it hold 5 local variables too \((5 * 4=0 x 14)\) ).

Also it is located nearby (take a look at the addresses).
Indeed, it doesn't matter which epilogue gets executed, if it works just as we need.
Apparently, Keil decides to reuse a part of another function to economize.
The epilogue takes 4 bytes while jump-only 2.

\section*{ARM + Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)}

Listing 1.347: Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)
```

var C = -0xC
PUSH {R7,LR}
MOV R7, SP
SUB SP, SP, \#4
MOV R9, R1 ; b
MOV R1, R0 ; a
MOVW R0, \#0xF10 ; "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n"
SXTB R1, R1 ; prepare a
MOVT.W R0, \#0
STR R3, [SP,\#0xC+var_C] ; place d to stack for printf()
ADD R0, PC ; format-string
SXTB R3, R2 ; prepare c
MOV R2, R9 ; b
BLX _printf
ADD SP, SP, \#4
POP {R7,PC}

```

SXTB (Signed Extend Byte) is analogous to MOVSX in x86. All the rest-just the same.

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.348: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f:
var 18 = -0x18
var 10 = -0x10
var_4 = -4
arg_0 = 0
arg_4 = 4
arg_8 = 8
arg_C = 0xC
; \$a0=s.a
; \$al=s.b
; \$a2=s.c
; \$a3=s.d
lui \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
addiu \$sp, -0x28
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
sw $gp, 0x28+var_10($sp)
; prepare byte from 32-bit big-endian integer:
sra \$t0, \$a0, 24
move \$v1, \$al
; prepare byte from 32-bit big-endian integer:
sra \$v0, \$a2, 24
lw $t9, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
sw $a0, 0x28+arg_0($sp)
lui $a0, ($LC0 >> 16) \# "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n"
sw $a3, 0x28+var_18($sp)

```
1.24. STRUCTURES
```

sw $a1, 0x28+arg_4($sp)
sw $a2, 0x28+arg_8($sp)
sw $a3, 0x28+arg_C($sp)
la $a0, ($LC0 \& 0}0xFFFF) \# "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n"
move \$al, \$t0
move \$a2, \$v1
jalr \$t9
move \$a3, \$v0 ; branch delay slot
lw $ra, 0x28+var 4($sp)
or \$at, \$zero ; \
jr \$ra
addiu \$sp, 0x28 ; branch delay slot
.ascii "a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n"<0>

```

Structure fields come in registers \$A0.. \$A3 and then get reshuffled into \$A1..\$A3 for printf(), while 4th field (from \$A3) is passed via local stack using SW.

But there are two SRA ("Shift Word Right Arithmetic") instructions, which prepare char fields. Why?
MIPS is a big-endian architecture by default 2.8 on page 464 , and the Debian Linux we work in is big-endian as well.

So when byte variables are stored in 32-bit structure slots, they occupy the high \(31 . .24\) bits.
And when a char variable needs to be extended into a 32-bit value, it must be shifted right by 24 bits. char is a signed type, so an arithmetical shift is used here instead of logical.

\section*{One more word}

Passing a structure as a function argument (instead of a passing pointer to structure) is the same as passing all structure fields one by one.

If the structure fields are packed by default, the \(f()\) function can be rewritten as:
```

void f(char a, int b, char c, int d)
{
printf ("a=%d; b=%d; c=%d; d=%d\n", a, b, c, d);
};

```

And that leads to the same code.

\subsection*{1.24.5 Nested structures}

Now what about situations when one structure is defined inside of another?
```

\#include <stdio.h>
struct inner_struct
{
int a;
int b;
};
struct outer_struct
{
char a;
int b;
struct inner struct c;
char d;
int e;
};
void f(struct outer_struct s)
{
printf ("a=%d; b=%d; c.a=%d; c.b=%d; d=%d; e=%d\n",
s.a, s.b, s.c.a, s.c.b, s.d, s.e);

```
```

};
int main()
{
struct outer_struct s;
s.a=1;
s.b=2;
s.c.a=100;
s.c.b=101;
s.d=3;
s.e=4;
f(s);
};

```
...in this case, both inner_struct fields are to be placed between the \(a, b\) and \(d, e\) fields of the outer_struct. Let's compile (MSVC 2010):

Listing 1.349: Optimizing MSVC 2010 /Ob0
```

$SG2802 DB 'a=%d; b=%d; c.a=%d; c.b=%d; d=%d; e=%d', 0aH, 00H
TEXT SEGMENT
S$ = 8
f PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+16]
    movsx ecx, BYTE PTR s$[esp+12]
mov edx, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+8]
    push eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR s$[esp+8]
push ecx
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+8]
    push edx
    movsx edx, BYTE PTR _s$[esp+8]
push eax
push ecx
push edx
push OFFSET $SG2802 ; 'a=%d; b=%d; c.a=%d; c.b=%d; d=%d; e=%d
    call printf
    add esp, 28
    ret 0
f ENDP
s$ = -24
main PROC
sub esp, 24
push ebx
push esi
push edi
mov ecx, 2
sub esp, 24
mov eax, esp
; from this moment, EAX is synonymous to ESP:
mov BYTE PTR s$[esp+60], 1
    mov ebx, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+60]
mov DWORD PTR [eax], ebx
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], ecx
lea edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+98]
lea esi, DWORD PTR [ecx+99]
lea edi, DWORD PTR [ecx+2]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+8], edx
mov BYTE PTR _s$[esp+76], 3
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR s$[esp+76]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+12], esi
mov DWORD PTR [eax+16], ecx
mov DWORD PTR [eax+20], edi
call f
add esp, 24
pop edi
pop esi
xor eax, eax

```

One curious thing here is that by looking onto this assembly code, we do not even see that another structure was used inside of it! Thus, we would say, nested structures are unfolded into linear or onedimensional structure.
Of course, if we replace the struct inner_struct c; declaration with struct inner_struct *c; (thus making a pointer here) the situation will be quite different.

\section*{OllyDbg}

Let's load the example into OllyDbg and take a look at outer_struct in memory:


Figure 1.107: OllyDbg: Before printf() execution

That's how the values are located in memory:
- (outer_struct.a) (byte) \(1+3\) bytes of random garbage;
- (outer_struct.b) (32-bit word) 2;
- (inner_struct.a) (32-bit word) 0x64 (100);
- (inner_struct.b) (32-bit word) 0x65 (101);
- (outer_struct.d) (byte) \(3+3\) bytes of random garbage;
- (outer_struct.e) (32-bit word) 4.

\subsection*{1.24.6 Bit fields in a structure}

\section*{CPUID example}

The \(C / C++\) language allows to define the exact number of bits for each structure field. It is very useful if one needs to save memory space. For example, one bit is enough for a bool variable. But of course, it is not rational if speed is important.

Let's consider the CPUID \({ }^{166}\) instruction example. This instruction returns information about the current CPU and its features.

If the EAX is set to 1 before the instruction's execution, CPUID returning this information packed into the EAX register:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline 3:0 (4 bits) & Stepping \\
7:4 (4 bits) & Model \\
11:8 (4 bits) & Family \\
13:12 (2 bits) & Processor Type \\
19:16 (4 bits) & Extended Model \\
27:20 (8 bits) & Extended Family \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

MSVC 2010 has CPUID macro, but GCC 4.4.1 does not. So let's make this function by ourselves for GCC with the help of its built-in assembler \({ }^{167}\).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{166}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{167}\) More about internal GCC assembler
}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#ifdef _GNUC
static inline void cpuid(int code, int *a, int *b, int *c, int *d) {
asm volatile("cpuid":"=a"(*a),"=b"(*b),"=c"(*c),"=d"(*d):"a"(code));
}
\#endif
\#ifdef _MSC_VER
\#include <intrin.h>
\#endif
struct CPUID_1 EAX
{
unsigned int stepping:4;
unsigned int model:4;
unsigned int family_id:4;
unsigned int processor_type:2;
unsigned int reserved1:2;
unsigned int extended model_id:4;
unsigned int extended_family_id:8;
unsigned int reserved\overline{2}:4;
};
int main()
{
struct CPUID_1_EAX *tmp;
int b[4];
\#ifdef _MSC_VER
c\overline{puid((b,1);}
\#endif
\#ifdef GNUC
cpuid (1, < \& [0], \&b[1], \&b[2], \&b[3]);
\#endif
tmp=(struct CPUID_1_EAX *)\&b[0];
printf ("stepping=%d\n", tmp->stepping);
printf ("model=%d\n", tmp->model);
printf ("family_id=%d\n", tmp->family_id);
printf ("processor type=%d\n", tmp->processor type);
printf ("extended model_id=%d\n", tmp->extendēd model id);
printf ("extended_famil\overline{y_id=%d\n", tmp->extende\overline{d_fami}\overline{l}y_id);}
return 0;
};

```

After CPUID fills EAX/EBX/ECX/EDX, these registers are to be written in the b[] array. Then, we have a pointer to the CPUID_1_EAX structure and we point it to the value in EAX from the b[] array.
In other words, we treat a 32 -bit int value as a structure. Then we read specific bits from the structure.

\section*{MSVC}

Let's compile it in MSVC 2008 with /0x option:
Listing 1.350: Optimizing MSVC 2008
```

b\$ = -16 ; size = 16
main PROC
sub esp, 16
push ebx
xor ecx, ecx
mov eax, 1
cpuid

```
```

    push esi
    lea esi, DWORD PTR _b$[esp+24]
    mov DWORD PTR [esi], eax
    mov DWORD PTR [esi+4], ebx
    mov DWORD PTR [esi+8], ecx
    mov DWORD PTR [esi+12], edx
    mov esi, DWORD PTR _b$[esp+24]
    mov eax, esi
    and eax, 15
    push eax
    push 0FFSET $SG15435 ; 'stepping=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    mov ecx, esi
    shr ecx, 4
    and ecx, 15
    push ecx
    push OFFSET $SG15436 ; 'model=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    mov edx, esi
    shr edx, 8
    and edx, 15
    push edx
    push OFFSET $SG15437 ; 'family_id=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    mov eax, esi
    shr eax, 12
    and eax, 3
    push eax
    push OFFSET $SG15438 ; 'processor_type=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    mov ecx, esi
    shr ecx, 16
    and ecx, 15
    push ecx
    push OFFSET $SG15439 ; 'extended_model_id=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    shr esi, 20
    and esi, 255
    push esi
    push 0FFSET $SG15440 ; 'extended_family_id=%d', 0aH, 00H
    call _printf
    add esp, 48
    pop esi
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebx
    add esp, 16
    ret 0
    main ENDP

```

The SHR instruction shifting the value in EAX by the number of bits that must be skipped, e.g., we ignore some bits at the right side.
The AND instruction clears the unneeded bits on the left, or, in other words, leaves only those bits in the EAX register we need.

Let's load our example into OllyDbg and see, what values are set in EAX/EBX/ECX/EDX after the execution of CPUID:


Figure 1.108: OllyDbg: After CPUID execution

EAX has \(0 x 000206 A 7\) (my CPU is Intel Xeon E3-1220).
This is \(0 b 00000000000000100000011010100111\) in binary form.
Here is how the bits are distributed by fields:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline field & in binary form & in decimal form \\
\hline reserved2 & 0000 & 0 \\
\hline extended_family_id & 00000000 & 0 \\
\hline extended_model_id & 0010 & 2 \\
\hline reserved1 & 00 & 0 \\
\hline processor_id & 00 & 0 \\
\hline family_id & 0110 & 6 \\
\hline model & 1010 & 10 \\
\hline stepping & 0111 & 7 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Listing 1.351: Console output
```

stepping=7
model=10
family_id=6
processor_type=0
extended model id=2
extended famil`

```

\section*{GCC}

Let's try GCC 4.4 .1 with - 03 option.
Listing 1.352: Optimizing GCC 4.4.1
```

main proc near ; DATA XREF: _start+17
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
push esi

```


Almost the same. The only thing worth noting is that GCC somehow combines the calculation of extended_model_id and extended_family_id into one block, instead of calculating them separately before each printf() call.

\section*{Handling float data type as a structure}

As we already noted in the section about FPU ( 1.19 on page 218), both float and double types consist of a sign, a significand (or fraction) and an exponent. But will we be able to work with these fields directly? Let's try this with float.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline 3130 & \\
\hline\(S\) & exponent & mantissa or fraction \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <assert.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
\#include <memory.h>
struct float_as_struct
{
unsigned int fraction : 23; // fractional part
unsigned int exponent : 8; // exponent + 0x3FF
unsigned int sign : 1; // sign bit
};
float f(float _in)
{
float f= in;
struct float_as_struct t;
assert (sizeof (struct float_as_struct) == sizeof (float));
memcpy (\&t, \&f, sizeof (float));
t.sign=1; // set negative sign
t.exponent=t.exponent+2; // multiply d by 2n(n here is 2)
memcpy (\&f, \&t, sizeof (float));
return f;
};
int main()
{
printf ("%f\n", f(1.234));
};

```

The float_as_struct structure occupies the same amount of memory as float, i.e., 4 bytes or 32 bits.
Now we are setting the negative sign in the input value and also, by adding 2 to the exponent, we thereby multiply the whole number by \(2^{2}\), i.e., by 4 .
Let's compile in MSVC 2008 without optimization turned on:
Listing 1.353: Non-optimizing MSVC 2008
```

t\$ = -8 ; size = 4
f\$ = -4 ; size = 4
in\$ = 8 ; size = 4
?f@@YAMM@Z PROC ; f
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
fld DWORD PTR in$[ebp]
    fstp DWORD PTR _f$[ebp]
push 4
lea eax, DWORD PTR _f$[ebp]
    push eax
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR t$[ebp]
push ecx
call _memcpy
add esp, 12
mov edx, DWORD PTR _t$[ebp]
    or edx, -2147483648 ; 80000000H - set minus sign
    mov DWORD PTR _t$[ebp], edx
mov eax, DWORD PTR t\$[ebp]
shr eax, 23 - ; 00000017H - drop significand
and eax, 255 ; 000000ffH - leave here only exponent

```


A bit redundant. If it was compiled with \(/ 0 x\) flag there would be no memcpy() call, the \(f\) variable is used directly. But it is easier to understand by looking at the unoptimized version.

What would GCC 4.4 .1 with -03 do?
Listing 1.354: Optimizing GCC 4.4.1
```

; f(float)
public _Z1ff
Zlff proc near
var_4 = dword ptr -4
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 4
mov eax, [ebp+arg 0]
or eax, 80000000h ; set minus sign
mov edx, eax
and eax, 807FFFFFh ; leave only sign and significand in EAX
shr edx, 23 ; prepare exponent
add edx, 2 ; add 2
movzx edx, dl ; clear all bits except 7:0 in EAX
shl edx, 23 ; shift new calculated exponent to its place
or eax, edx ; join new exponent and original value without exponent
mov [ebp+var_4], eax
fld [ebp+var_4]
leave
retn
Z1ff endp
public main
main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 10h
fld ds:dword_8048614 ; -4.936
fstp qword ptr [esp+8]
mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset asc_8048610 ; "%f\n"
mov dword ptr [esp], 1
call ___printf_chk
xor eax, eax
leave
retn

```

The \(f()\) function is almost understandable. However, what is interesting is that GCC was able to calculate the result of \(\mathrm{f}(1.234)\) during compilation despite all this hodge-podge with the structure fields and prepared this argument to printf() as precalculated at compile time!

\subsection*{1.24.7 Exercises}
- http://challenges.re/71
- http://challenges.re/72

\subsection*{1.25 Unions}

C/C++ union is mostly used for interpreting a variable (or memory block) of one data type as a variable of another data type.

\subsection*{1.25.1 Pseudo-random number generator example}

If we need float random numbers between 0 and 1 , the simplest thing is to use a PRNG like the Mersenne twister. It produces random unsigned 32 -bit values (in other words, it produces random 32 bits). Then we can transform this value to float and then divide it by RAND_MAX (0xFFFFFFFF in our case)-we getting a value in the \(0 . .1\) interval.

But as we know, division is slow. Also, we would like to issue as few FPU operations as possible. Can we get rid of the division?

Let's recall what a floating point number consists of: sign bit, significand bits and exponent bits. We just have to store random bits in all significand bits to get a random float number!
The exponent cannot be zero (the floating number is denormalized in this case), so we are storing 0 001111111 to exponent-this means that the exponent is 1 . Then we filling the significand with random bits, set the sign bit to 0 (which means a positive number) and voilà. The generated numbers is to be between 1 and 2, so we must also subtract 1 .
A very simple linear congruential random numbers generator is used in my example \({ }^{168}\), it produces 32 -bit numbers. The PRNG is initialized with the current time in UNIX timestamp format.

Here we represent the float type as an union-it is the C/C++ construction that enables us to interpret a piece of memory as different types. In our case, we are able to create a variable of type union and then access to it as it is float or as it is uint32_t. It can be said, it is just a hack. A dirty one.
The integer PRNG code is the same as we already considered: 1.23 on page 338 . So this code in compiled form is omitted.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
\#include <time.h>
// integer PRNG definitions, data and routines:
// constants from the Numerical Recipes book
const uint32_t RNG_a=1664525;
const uint32-t RNG_C=1013904223;
uint32_t RNG_state; // global variable
void my_srand(uint32_t i)
{
RNG_state=i;
};
uint32_t my_rand()
{

```

168the idea was taken from: http://go.yurichev.com/17308
```

    RNG_state=RNG_state*RNG_a+RNG_c;
    return RNG_state;
    };
// FPU PRNG definitions and routines:
union uint32_t_float
{
uint32 t i;
float f;
};
float float_rand()
{
union uint32_t_float tmp;
tmp.i=my_rand(\overline{)}\& 0x007fffff | 0x3F800000;
return tmp.f-1;
};
// test
int main()
{
my_srand(time(NULL)); // PRNG initialization
for (int i=0; i<100; i++)
printf ("%f\n", float_rand());
return 0;
};

```
x86

Listing 1.355: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

$SG4238 DB '%f', 0aH, 00H
__real@3ff0000000000000 DQ 03ff00000000000000r ; 1
tv130 = -4
tmp$ = -4
?float_rand@@YAMXZ PROC
push ecX
call ?my rand@@YAIXZ
; EAX=pseudorandom value
and eax, 8388607 ; 007fffffH
or eax, 1065353216 ; 3f800000H
; EAX=pseudorandom value \& 0x007fffff | 0x3f800000
; store it into local stack:
mov DWORD PTR tmp$[esp+4], eax
; reload it as float point number:
    fld DWORD PTR _tmp$[esp+4]
; subtract 1.0:
fsub QWORD PTR __real@3ff0000000000000
; store value we got into local stack and reload it:
fstp DWORD PTR tv130[esp+4] ; \ these instructions are redundant
fld DWORD PTR tv130[esp+4] ; /
pop ecx
ret 0
?float_rand@@YAMXZ ENDP
main PROC
push esi
xor eax, eax
call time
push eax
call ?my_srand@@YAXI@Z
add esp, 4

```
\begin{tabular}{|cl}
\hline mov & esi, 100 \\
\$LL3@main: & \\
call & ?float_rand@@YAMXZ \\
sub & esp, 8_ \\
fstp & QWORD PTR [esp] \\
push & OFFSET \$SG4238 \\
call & printf \\
add & esp, 12 \\
dec & esi \\
jne & SH0RT \$LL3@main \\
xor & eax, eax \\
pop & esi \\
ret & 0 \\
ENDP &
\end{tabular}

Function names are so strange here because this example was compiled as \(\mathrm{C}++\) and this is name mangling in \(\mathrm{C}++\), we will talk about it later: 3.18 .1 on page 542. If we compile this in MSVC 2012, it uses the SIMD instructions for the FPU, read more about it here: 1.31.5 on page 438.

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.356: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5
```

float_rand:
var_10= = 0x10
var_4 = -4
lui \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
addiu \$sp, -0x20
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x20+vār_4($sp)
sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
; call my_rand():
jal my_rand
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
; \$v0=32-bit pseudorandom value
li \$v1, 0x7FFFFF
; \$v1=0x7FFFFF
and \$v1, \$v0, \$v1
; \$v1=pseudorandom value \& 0x7FFFFF
lui \$a0, 0x3F80
; \$a0=0x3F800000
or \$v1, \$a0
; \$v1=pseudorandom value \& 0x7FFFFF | 0x3F800000
; matter of the following instruction is still hard to get:
lui $v0, ($LC0 >> 16)
; load 1.0 into \$f0:
lwc1 \$f0, \$LC0
; move value from \$v1 to coprocessor 1 (into register \$f2)
; it behaves like bitwise copy, no conversion done:
mtc1 \$v1, \$f2
lw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
; subtract 1.0. leave result in \$f0:
sub.s \$f0, \$f2, \$f0
jr \$ra
addiu \$sp, 0x20 ; branch delay slot

```
main:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
var_18 & \(=-0 \times 18\) \\
var_10 & \(=-0 \times 10\) \\
\(\operatorname{var}_{2}{ }^{\text {var_8 }}\) & \(=-0 \times C\) \\
var_4 & \(=-8\) \\
& \(=-4\)
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
lui & \(\$ g p\), & \((\quad\) gnu_local_gp \(\gg 16)\) \\
addiu & \(\$ \mathrm{sp}\), & \(-0 \times 28\)
\end{tabular}
```

la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
sw $s2, 0x28+var_8($sp)
sw $s1, 0x28+var_C($sp)
sw $s0, 0x28+var_10($sp)
sw $gp, 0x28+var 18($sp)
lw $t9, (time & 0}xFFFFF)($gp
or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
jalr \$t9
move \$a0, \$zero ; branch delay slot
lui $s2, ($LC1 >> 16) \# "%f\n"
move \$a0, \$v0
la $s2, ($LC1 \& 0xFFFF) \# "%f\n"
move \$s0, \$zero
jal my_srand
li \$s\overline{1}, 0x64 \# 'd' ; branch delay slot
loc_104:
jal float_rand
addiu \$s0, 1
lw $gp, 0x28+var_18($sp)
; convert value we got from float_rand() to double type (printf() need it):
cvt.d.s \$f2, \$f0
lw $t9, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
mfc1 \$a3, \$f2
mfc1 \$a2, \$f3
jalr \$t9
move \$a0, \$s2
bne \$s0, \$s1, loc_104
move \$v0, \$zero
lw $ra, 0x28+var_4($sp)
lw $s2, 0x28+var_8($sp)
lw $s1, 0x28+var_C($sp)
lw $s0, 0x28+var_10($sp)
jr \$ra
addiu \$sp, 0x28 ; branch delay slot
\$LC1: .ascii "%f\n"<0>
\$LC0: .float 1.0

```

There is also an useless LUI instruction added for some weird reason. We considered this artifact earlier: 1.19.5 on page 230.

\section*{ARM (ARM mode)}

Listing 1.357: Optimizing GCC 4.6.3 (IDA)
```

float_rand
STMFD SP!, {R3,LR}
BL my_rand
; R0=pseudorandom value
FLDS S0, =1.0
; S0=1.0
BIC R3, R0, \#0xFF000000
BIC R3, R3, \#0x800000
ORR R3, R3, \#0x3F800000
; R3=pseudorandom value \& 0x007fffff | 0x3f800000
; copy from R3 to FPU (register S15).
; it behaves like bitwise copy, no conversion done:
FMSR S15, R3
; subtract 1.0 and leave result in S0:
FSUBS S0, S15, S0
LDMFD SP!, {R3,PC}
flt_5C
DCFS 1.0
main
STMFD SP!, {R4,LR}

```
1.25. UNIONS


We'll also make a dump in objdump and we'll see that the FPU instructions have different names than in IDA. Apparently, IDA and binutils developers used different manuals? Perhaps it would be good to know both instruction name variants.

Listing 1.358: Optimizing GCC 4.6.3 (objdump)


The instructions at \(0 \times 5 \mathrm{c}\) in float_rand() and at \(0 \times 38\) in main() are (pseudo-)random noise.

\subsection*{1.25.2 Calculating machine epsilon}

The machine epsilon is the smallest possible value the FPU can work with. The more bits allocated for floating point number, the smaller the machine epsilon. It is \(2^{-23}=1.19 e-07\) for float and \(2^{-52}=2.22 e-16\) for double. See also: Wikipedia article.
It's interesting, how easy it's to calculate the machine epsilon:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>

```
```

union uint_float
{
uint32_t i;
float f;
};
float calculate_machine_epsilon(float start)
{
union uint_float v;
v.f=start;
v.i++;
return v.f-start;
}
void main()
{
printf ("%g\n", calculate_machine_epsilon(1.0));
};

```

What we do here is just treat the fraction part of the IEEE 754 number as integer and add 1 to it. The resulting floating number is equal to starting_value+machine_epsilon, so we just have to subtract the starting value (using floating point arithmetic) to measure, what difference one bit reflects in the single precision (float). The union serves here as a way to access IEEE 754 number as a regular integer. Adding 1 to it in fact adds 1 to the fraction part of the number, however, needless to say, overflow is possible, which will add another 1 to the exponent part.

\section*{x86}

Listing 1.359: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

tv130 = 8
v\$ = 8
start\$ = 8
calculate machine epsilon PROC
fl\overline{d} DWÖRD PTR _start$[esp-4]
        fst DWORD PTR _v$[esp-4] ; this instruction is redundant
inc DWORD PTR v$[esp-4]
        fsubr DWORD PTR -v$[esp-4]
fstp DWORD PTR tv130[esp-4] ; \ this instruction pair is also redundant
fld DWORD PTR tv130[esp-4] ; /
ret 0
calculate_machine_epsilon ENDP

```

The second FST instruction is redundant: there is no necessity to store the input value in the same place (the compiler decided to allocate the \(v\) variable at the same point in the local stack as the input argument). Then it is incremented with INC, as it is a normal integer variable. Then it is loaded into the FPU as a 32-bit IEEE 754 number, FSUBR does the rest of job and the resulting value is stored in ST0. The last FSTP/FLD instruction pair is redundant, but the compiler didn't optimize it out.

\section*{ARM64}

Let's extend our example to 64-bit:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
typedef union
{
uint64_t i;
double d;
} uint_double;
double calculate machine epsilon(double start)
{
uint_double v;

```
```

v.d=start;
v.i++;
return v.d-start;
}
void main()
{
printf ("%g\n", calculate_machine_epsilon(1.0));
};

```

ARM64 has no instruction that can add a number to a FPU D-register, so the input value (that came in D0) is first copied into GPR, incremented, copied to FPU register D1, and then subtraction occurs.

Listing 1.360: Optimizing GCC 4.9 ARM64
calculate_machine_epsilon:
```

    fmov x0, d0 ; load input value of double type into X0
    add x0, x0, 1 ; X0++
    fmov d1, x0 ; move it to FPU register
    fsub d0, d1, d0 ; subtract
    ret
    ```

See also this example compiled for x64 with SIMD instructions: 1.31 .4 on page 437.

\section*{MIPS}

The new instruction here is MTC1 ("Move To Coprocessor 1"), it just transfers data from GPR to the FPU's registers.

Listing 1.361: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
calculate_machine_epsilon:
```

    mfc1 $v0, $f12
    or $at, $zero ; NOP
    addiu $v1, $v0, 1
    mtcl $v1, $f2
    jr $ra
    sub.s $f0, $f2, $f12 ; branch delay slot
    ```

\section*{Conclusion}

It's hard to say whether someone may need this trickery in real-world code, but as was mentioned many times in this book, this example serves well for explaining the IEEE 754 format and unions in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\).

\subsection*{1.26 FSCALE replacement}

Agner Fog in his Optimizing subroutines in assembly language / An optimization guide for x86 platforms work \({ }^{169}\) states that FSCALE FPU instruction (calculating \(2^{n}\) ) may be slow on many CPUs, and he offers faster replacement.

Here is my translation of his assembly code to \(C / C++\) :
```

\#include <stdint.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
union uint_float
{
uint32 t i;
float f;
};
float flt_2n(int N)

```

\footnotetext{
169http://www.agner.org/optimize/optimizing_assembly.pdf
}
```

{
union uint_float tmp;
tmp.i=(N<<23)+0x3f800000;
return tmp.f;
};
struct float_as_struct
{
unsigned int fraction : 23;
unsigned int exponent : 8;
unsigned int sign : 1;
};
float flt_2n_v2(int N)
{
struct float_as_struct tmp;
tmp.fraction=0;
tmp.sign=0;
tmp.exponent=N+0x7f;
return *(float*)(\&tmp);
};
union uint64_double
{
uint64_t i;
double d;
};
double dbl_2n(int N)
{
union uint64_double tmp;
tmp.i=((uint64_t)N<<52)+0x3ff0000000000000UL;
return tmp.d;
};
struct double_as_struct
{
uint64_t fraction : 52;
int exponent : 11;
int sign : 1;
};
double dbl_2n_v2(int N)
{
struct double_as_struct tmp;
tmp.fraction=0;
tmp.sign=0;
tmp.exponent=N+0x3ff;
return *(double*)(\&tmp);
};
int main()
{
// 2^11=2048
printf ("%f\n", flt_2n(11));
printf ("%f\n", flt_2n_v2(11));
printf ("%lf\n", db\__2-(11));
printf ("%lf\n", dbl_2n_v2(11));
};

```

FSCALE instruction may be faster in your environment, but still, it's a good example of union's and the fact that exponent is stored in \(2^{n}\) form, so an input \(n\) value is shifted to the exponent in IEEE 754 encoded number. Then exponent is then corrected with addition of \(0 \times 3 f 800000\) or \(0 \times 3\) ff00000000000000.

The same can be done without shift using struct, but internally, shift operations still occurred.

\subsection*{1.26.1 Fast square root calculation}

Another well-known algorithm where float is interpreted as integer is fast calculation of square root.
Listing 1.362: The source code is taken from Wikipedia: http://go. yurichev. com/17364
```

* and that int is 32 bits. */
float sqrt approx(float z)
{
int val_int = *(int*)\&z; /* Same bits, but as an int */
/*
    * To justify the following code, prove that
    * ((((val_int / 2^m) - b) / 2) + b) * 2^m = ((val_int - 2^m) / 2) + ((b + 1) / 2) * 2^m)
    *         * where
where
    * b = exponent bias
    * m = number of mantissa bits
    * 
    * .
*/
val_int -= 1 << 23; /* Subtract 2^m. */
val_int >>= 1; /* Divide by 2. */
val_int += 1 << 29; /* Add ((b + 1) / 2) * 2^m. */
return *(float*)\&val_int; /* Interpret again as float */
}

```

As an exercise, you can try to compile this function and to understand, how it works.
There is also well-known algorithm of fast calculation of \(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\). Algorithm became popular, supposedly, because it was used in Quake III Arena.

Algorithm description can be found in Wikipedia: http://go. yurichev. com/17360.

\subsection*{1.27 Pointers to functions}

A pointer to a function, as any other pointer, is just the address of the function's start in its code segment. They are often used for calling callback functions \({ }^{170}\).
Well-known examples are:
- qsort() \()^{171}\), atexit() \()^{172}\) from the standard C library;
- *NIX OS signals \({ }^{173}\);
- thread starting: CreateThread () (win32), pthread_create() (POSIX);
- lots of win32 functions, like EnumChildWindows() \({ }^{174}\).
- lots of places in the Linux kernel, for example the filesystem driver functions are called via callbacks: http://go.yurichev.com/17076
- The GCC plugin functions are also called via callbacks: http://go.yurichev.com/17077
- Another example of function pointers is a table in the "dwm" Linux window manager that defines shortcuts. Each shortcut has a corresponding function to call if a specific key is pressed: GitHub. As we can see, such table is easier to handle than a large switch() statement.

So, the qsort () function is an implementation of quicksort in the C/C++ standard library. The functions is able to sort anything, any type of data, as long as you have a function to compare these two elements and qsort() is able to call it.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{170}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{171}\) wikipedia
172http://go.yurichev.com/17073
\({ }^{173}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{174}\) MSDN
}

The comparison function can be defined as:
```

int (*compare)(const void *, const void *)

```

Let's use the following example:
```

/* ex3 Sorting ints with qsort */
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
int comp(const void * _a, const void * _b)
{
const int *a=(const int *)_a;
const int *b=(const int *)_b;
if (*a==*b)
return 0;
else
if (*a < *b)
return -1;
else
return 1;
}
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
int numbers[10]={1892,45,200,-98,4087,5,-12345,1087,88,-100000};
int i;
/* Sort the array */
qsort(numbers,10,sizeof(int),comp) ;
for (i=0;i<9;i++)
printf("Number = %d\n",numbers[ i ]) ;
return 0;
}

```

\subsection*{1.27.1 MSVC}

Let's compile it in MSVC 2010 (some parts were omitted for the sake of brevity) with /0x option:
Listing 1.363: Optimizing MSVC 2010: /GS- /MD
```

__a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
b\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_comp PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR __a$[esp-4]
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[esp-4]
mov eax, DWORD PTR [eax]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
cmp eax, ecx
jne SHORT \$LN4@comp
xor eax, eax
ret 0
$LN4@comp:
        xor edx, edx
        cmp eax, ecx
        setge dl
        lea eax, DWORD PTR [edx+edx-1]
        ret 0
comp ENDP
_numbers$ = -40 ; size = 40
_argc\$ = 8 ; size = 4
-argv\$ = 12 ; size = 4
mmain PROC
sub esp, 40 ; 00000028H

```


Nothing surprising so far. As a fourth argument, the address of label_comp is passed, which is just a place where comp ( ) is located, or, in other words, the address of the very first instruction of that function.

How does qsort() call it?
Let's take a look at this function, located in MSVCR80.DLL (a MSVC DLL module with C standard library functions):

Listing 1.364: MSVCR80.DLL
```

.text:7816CBF0 ; void __cdecl qsort(void *, unsigned int, unsigned int, int (__cdecl *)(const 々
\zeta void *, const void *))
.text:7816CBF0 public _qsort
.text:7816CBF0 _qsort proc near
.text:7816CBF0
.text:7816CBF0 lo = dword ptr -104h
.text:7816CBF0 hi = dword ptr -100h
.text:7816CBF0 var FC = dword ptr -0FCh
.text:7816CBF0 stkptr = dword ptr -0F8h
.text:7816CBF0 lostk = dword ptr -0F4h
.text:7816CBF0 histk = dword ptr -7Ch
.text:7816CBF0 base = dword ptr 4
.text:7816CBF0 num = dword ptr 8
.text:7816CBF0 width = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:7816CBF0 comp = dword ptr 10h
.text:7816CBF0
.text:7816CBF0 sub esp, 100h
.text:7816CCE0 loc_7816CCE0: ; CODE XREF: _qsort+B1
.text:7816CCE0 shr eax, 1
.text:7816CCE2 imul eax, ebp
.text:7816CCE5 add eax, ebx
.text:7816CCE7 mov edi, eax
.text:7816CCE9 push edi
.text:7816CCEA push ebx
.text:7816CCEB call [esp+118h+comp]
.text:7816CCF2 add esp, 8
.text:7816CCF5 test eax, eax
.text:7816CCF7 jle short loc_7816CD04

```
comp-is the fourth function argument. Here the control gets passed to the address in the comp argument. Before it, two arguments are prepared for comp(). Its result is checked after its execution.

That's why it is dangerous to use pointers to functions. First of all, if you call qsort () with an incorrect function pointer, qsort () may pass control flow to an incorrect point, the process may crash and this bug will be hard to find.

\subsection*{1.27. POINTERS TO FUNCTIONS}

The second reason is that the callback function types must comply strictly, calling the wrong function with wrong arguments of wrong types may lead to serious problems, however, the crashing of the process is not a problem here -the problem is how to determine the reason for the crash -because the compiler may be silent about the potential problems while compiling.

Let's load our example into OllyDbg and set a breakpoint on comp(). We can see how the values are compared at the first comp () call:


Figure 1.109: OllyDbg: first call of comp ()

OllyDbg shows the compared values in the window under the code window, for convenience. We can also see that the SP points to RA, where the qsort ( ) function is (located in MSVCR100.DLL).

\subsection*{1.27. POINTERS TO FUNCTIONS}

By tracing (F8) until the RETN instruction and pressing F8 one more time, we return to the qsort () function:


Figure 1.110: OllyDbg: the code in qsort() right after comp() call

That has been a call to the comparison function.

Here is also a screenshot of the moment of the second call of comp()-now values that have to be compared are different:


Figure 1.111: OllyDbg: second call of comp ()

\section*{MSVC + tracer}

Let's also see which pairs are compared. These 10 numbers are being sorted: 1892, 45, 200, \(-98,4087\), 5, -12345, 1087, 88, -100000.

We got the address of the first CMP instruction in comp(), it is \(0 \times 0040100 \mathrm{C}\) and we've set a breakpoint on it:
```

tracer.exe -l:17 1.exe bpx=17 1.exe!0x0040100C

```

Now we get some information about the registers at the breakpoint:
```

PID=4336|New process 17 1.exe
(0) 17_1.exe!0x40100c
EAX=0x00000764 EBX=0x0051f7c8 ECX=0x00000005 EDX=0x00000000
ESI=0x0051f7d8 EDI=0x0051f7b4 EBP=0x0051f794 ESP=0x0051f67c
EIP=0x0028100c
FLAGS=IF
(0) 17 1.exe!0x40100c
EAX=0x00000005 EBX=0x0051f7c8 ECX=0xfffe7960 EDX=0x00000000
ESI=0x0051f7d8 EDI=0x0051f7b4 EBP=0x0051f794 ESP=0x0051f67c
EIP=0x0028100c
FLAGS=PF ZF IF
(0) 17 1.exe!0x40100c
EAX=0x0}00000764 EBX=0x0051f7c8 ECX=0x00000005 EDX=0x00000000
ESI=0x0051f7d8 EDI=0x0051f7b4 EBP=0x0051f794 ESP=0x0051f67c
EIP=0x0028100c
FLAGS=CF PF ZF IF
...

```

Let's filter out EAX and ECX and we got:
```

EAX=0x00000764 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x00000005 ECX=0xfffe7960
EAX=0x00000764 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x0000002d ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x00000058 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x0000043f ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffcfc7 ECX=0x00000005

```

\subsection*{1.27. POINTERS TO FUNCTIONS}

EAX=0x000000c8 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffffge ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x00000ff7 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0x00000ff7 ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffffge ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffffge ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffcfc7 ECX=0xfffe7960
EAX=0x00000005 ECX=0xffffcfc7
EAX=0xffffffge ECX=0x00000005
EAX=0xffffcfc7 ECX=0xfffe7960
EAX=0xffffffge ECX=0xffffcfc7
EAX=0xffffcfc7 ECX=0xfffe7960
EAX=0x000000c8 ECX=0x00000ff7
\(E A X=0 x 0000002 d \quad E C X=0 x 00000 f f 7\)
EAX=0x0000043f ECX=0x00000ff7
EAX=0x00000058 ECX=0x00000ff7
EAX=0x00000764 ECX=0x00000ff7
EAX=0x000000c8 ECX=0x00000764
EAX=0x0000002d ECX=0x00000764
EAX=0x0000043f ECX=0x00000764
EAX=0x00000058 ECX=0x00000764
EAX=0x000000c8 ECX=0x00000058
EAX=0x0000002d ECX=0x000000c8
EAX=0x0000043f ECX=0x000000c8
EAX=0x000000c8 ECX=0x00000058
EAX=0x0000002d ECX=0x000000c8
\(E A X=0 x 0000002 d \quad E C=0 x 00000058\)
That's 34 pairs. Therefore, the quick sort algorithm needs 34 comparison operations to sort these 10 numbers.

We can also use the tracer's feature to collect all possible register values and show them in IDA.
Let's trace all instructions in comp():
```

tracer.exe -l:17_1.exe bpf=17_1.exe!0x00401000,trace:cc

```

We get an .idc-script for loading into IDA and load it:


Figure 1.112: tracer and IDA. N.B.: some values are cut at right

IDA gave the function a name (PtFuncCompare)—because IDA sees that the pointer to this function is passed to qsort().

We see that the \(a\) and \(b\) pointers are pointing to various places in the array, but the step between them is 4, as 32-bit values are stored in the array.
We see that the instructions at \(0 \times 401010\) and \(0 \times 401012\) were never executed (so they left as white): indeed, comp() has never returned 0 , because there no equal elements in the array.

\subsection*{1.27.2 GCC}

Not a big difference:
Listing 1.365: GCC



The implementation of qsort () is located in libc.so. 6 and it is in fact just a wrapper \({ }^{175}\) for qsort_r(). In turn, it is calling quicksort(), where our defined function is called via a passed pointer:

Listing 1.366: (file libc.so.6, glibc version-2.10.1)
```

...
.text:0002DDF6 mov edx, [ebp+arg_10]
.text:0002DDF9 mov [esp+4], esi
.text:0002DDFD mov [esp], edi
.text:0002DE00 mov [esp+8], edx
.text:0002DE04 call [ebp+arg_C]

```

\section*{GCC + GDB (with source code)}

Obviously, we have the C-source code of our example ( 1.27 on page 385), so we can set a breakpoint (b) on line number (11-the line where the first comparison occurs). We also have to compile the example with debugging information included \((-g)\), so the table with addresses and corresponding line numbers is present.

We can also print values using variable names ( \(p\) ): the debugging information also has tells us which register and/or local stack element contains which variable.
We can also see the stack (bt) and find out that there is some intermediate function msort_with_tmp() used in Glibc.

Listing 1.367: GDB session
```

dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gcc 17_1.c -g
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gdb ./a.out
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Copyright (C) 2013 Free Software Foundation, Inc.
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/a.out...done.
(gdb) b 17_1.c:11
Breakpoint }\mp@subsup{}{}{-1}\mathrm{ at 0x804845f: file 17 1.c, line 11.
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/dennis/polygon/./a.out
Breakpoint 1, comp (_a=0xbffff0f8, _b=_b@entry=0xbffff0fc) at 17_1.c:11
11 if (*a==*b)

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{175}\) a concept like thunk function
}
```

(gdb) p *a
\$1 = 1892
(gdb) p *b
\$2 = 45
(gdb) c
Continuing.
Breakpoint 1, comp (_a=0xbfffff104, _b=_b@entry=0xbffff108) at 17_1.c:11
11 if (*a==*b)
(gdb) p *a
\$3 = -98
(gdb) p *b
\$4 = 4087
(gdb) bt
\#0 comp (_a=0xbffff0f8, _b=_b@entry=0xbffff0fc) at 17_1.c:11
\#1 0xb7e4\overline{2}872 in msort_wīth_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=2)
at msort.c:65
\#2 0xb7e4273e in msort_with_tmp (n=2, b=0xbffff0f8, p=0xbffff07c) at msort.c:45
\#3 msort_with_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=5) at msort.c:53
\#4 0xb7e4273e in msort_with_tmp (n=5, b=0xbffff0f8, p=0xbffff07c) at msort.c:45
\#5 msort with_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=10) at msort.c:53
\#6 0xb7e42cef in msort with tmp ( }\textrm{n}=10, b=0xbffff0f8, p=0xbffff07c) at msort.c:4
\#7 __GI_qsort_r (b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=10, s=s@entry=4, cmp=cmp@entry=0x804844d < <
\zeta comp>,
arg=arg@entry=0x0) at msort.c:297
\#8 0xb7e42dcf in __GI_qsort (b=0xbffff0f8, n=10, s=4, cmp=0x804844d <comp>) at msort.c:307
\#9 0x0804850d in main (argc=1, argv=0xbffff1c4) at 17_1.c:26
(gdb)

```

\section*{GCC + GDB (no source code)}

But often there is no source code at all, so we can disassemble the comp() function (disas), find the very first CMP instruction and set a breakpoint (b) at that address.
At each breakpoint, we are going to dump all register contents (info registers). The stack information is also available (bt),
but partially: there is no line number information for comp().
Listing 1.368: GDB session
```

dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gcc 17_1.c
dennis@ubuntuvm:~/polygon\$ gdb ./\overline{a}.out
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1-ubuntu
Copyright (C) 2013 Free Software Foundation, Inc.
Reading symbols from /home/dennis/polygon/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) set disassembly-flavor intel
(gdb) disas comp
Dump of assembler code for function comp:

| 0x0804844d <+0>: | push | ebp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0 \times 0804844 \mathrm{e}<+1>$ : | mov | ebp,esp |
| $0 \times 08048450<+3>$ : | sub | esp,0x10 |
| $0 \times 08048453$ <+6>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp+0x8] |
| $0 \times 08048456<+9>$ : | mov | DWORD PTR [ebp-0x8],eax |
| $0 \times 08048459<+12>$ : | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp+0xc] |
| $0 \times 0804845 \mathrm{c}<+15>$ : | mov | DWORD PTR [ebp-0x4],eax |
| 0x0804845f <+18>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp-0x8] |
| 0x08048462 <+21>: | mov | edx, DWORD PTR [eax] |
| 0x08048464 <+23>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp-0x4] |
| 0x08048467 <+26>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [eax] |
| 0x08048469 <+28>: | cmp | edx, eax |
| 0x0804846b <+30>: | jne | 0x8048474 <comp+39> |
| $0 x 0804846 \mathrm{~d}<+32>$ : | mov | eax,0x0 |
| $0 \times 08048472<+37>$ : | jmp | 0x804848e <comp+65> |
| $0 \times 08048474$ <+39>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp-0x8] |
| $0 \times 08048477$ <+42>: | mov | edx, DWORD PTR [eax] |
| $0 \times 08048479<+44>$ : | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [ebp-0x4] |
| 0x0804847c <+47>: | mov | eax, DWORD PTR [eax] |

```
1.27. POINTERS TO FUNCTIONS

```

| es | $0 \times 7 b$ | 123 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fs | $0 \times 0$ | 0 |
| gs | $0 \times 33$ | 51 |

(gdb) bt
\#0 0x08048469 in comp ()
\#1 0xb7e42872 in msort_with_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=2)
at msort.c:65
\#2 0xb7e4273e in msort_with_tmp (n=2, b=0xbffff0f8, p=0xbffff07c) at msort.c:45
\#3 msort_with_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=5) at msort.c:53

```

```

\#5 msort_with_tmp (p=p@entry=0xbffff07c, b=b@entry=0xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=10) at msort.c:53
\#6 0xb7e42cef in msort_with_tmp (n=10, b=0xbffff0f8, p=0xbffff07c) at msort.c:45
\#7 __GI_qsort_r (b=b@eñtry=\overline{0}xbffff0f8, n=n@entry=10, s=s@entry=4, cmp=cmp@entry=0x804844d < <
Ccomp>,
arg=arg@entry=0x0) at msort.c:297
\#8 0xb7e42dcf in __GI_qsort (b=0xbffff0f8, n=10, s=4, cmp=0x804844d <comp>) at msort.c:307
\#9 0x0804850d in main ()

```

\subsection*{1.27.3 Danger of pointers to functions}

As we can see, qsort() function expects a pointer to function which takes two void* arguments and returning integer. If you have several comparison functions in your code (one compares string, anotherintegers, etc), it's very easy to mix them up with each other. You could try to sort array of string using function which compares integers, and compiler will not warn you about bug.

\subsection*{1.28 64-bit values in 32-bit environment}

In a 32-bit environment, GPR's are 32 -bit, so 64 -bit values are stored and passed as 32 -bit value pairs \({ }^{176}\).

\subsection*{1.28.1 Returning of 64-bit value}
```

\#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f ()
{
return 0x1234567890ABCDEF;
};

```
x86

In a 32-bit environment, 64-bit values are returned from functions in the EDX:EAX register pair.
Listing 1.369: Optimizing MSVC 2010
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline f & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{PROC} \\
\hline & mov & eax, -1867788817 & ; 90abcdefH \\
\hline & mov & edx, 305419896 & ; 12345678H \\
\hline f & ret ENDP & 0 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{ARM}

A 64-bit value is returned in the R0-R1 register pair (R1 is for the high part and R0 for the low part):

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{176}\) By the way, 32-bit values are passed as pairs in 16-bit environment in the same way: 3.29 .4 on page 652
}

Listing 1.370: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\|f\||| PROC
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
LDR & r0, |L0.12| \\
LDR & r1,|L0.16| \\
BX & \(l r\)
\end{tabular}

ENDP
|L0.12|
DCD 0x90abcdef
|L0.16|
DCD \(0 \times 12345678\)

\section*{MIPS}

A 64-bit value is returned in the V0-V1 (\$2-\$3) register pair (V0 (\$2) is for the high part and V1 (\$3) for the low part):

Listing 1.371: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (assembly listing)
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline li & \(\$ 3,-1867841536\) & \# 0xfffffffff90ab0000 \\
li & \(\$ 2,305397760\) & \# 0x12340000 \\
ori & \(\$ 3, \$ 3,0 \times c d e f\) & \\
j & \(\$ 31\) \\
ori & \(\$ 2, \$ 2,0 \times 5678\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Listing 1.372: Optimizing GCC 4.4 .5 (IDA)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline lui & \(\$ v 1,0 \times 90 A B\) \\
lui & \(\$ v 0,0 \times 1234\) \\
li & \(\$ v 1,0 \times 90 A B C D E F\) \\
jr & \(\$ r a\)
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{1.28.2 Arguments passing, addition, subtraction}
```

\#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f_add (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{
};
void f_add_test ()
{
\#ifdef __GNUC
printf ("%lld\n", f_add(12345678901234, 23456789012345));
\#else
printf ("%I64d\n", f_add(12345678901234, 23456789012345));
\#endif
};
uint64_t f_sub (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{
return a-b;
};

```

Listing 1.373: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob1
```

a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
f add PROC

```


We can see in the f_add_test () function that each 64-bit value is passed using two 32-bit values, high part first, then low part.

Addition and subtraction occur in pairs as well.
In addition, the low 32-bit part are added first. If carry has been occurred while adding, the CF flag is set. The following ADC instruction adds the high parts of the values, and also adds 1 if \(C F=1\).

Subtraction also occurs in pairs. The first SUB may also turn on the CF flag, which is to be checked in the subsequent SBB instruction: if the carry flag is on, then 1 is also to be subtracted from the result.
It is easy to see how the \(f_{\text {_ }} \operatorname{add}()\) function result is then passed to printf().
Listing 1.374: GCC 4.8.1-O1 -fno-inline
```

_f_add:
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+12]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+16]
add eax, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
adc edx, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
ret
f_add_test:
sub esp, 28
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], 1972608889 ; 75939f79H
mov DWORD PTR [esp+12], 5461 ; 00001555H
mov DWORD PTR [esp], 1942892530 ; 73ce2ff_subH
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], 2874 ; 00000b3aH
call f add
mov \overline{DWO}RD PTR [esp+4], eax
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], edx
mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:LC0 ; "%lld\12\0"
call _printf
add esp, 28
ret
f_sub:
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
sub eax, DWORD PTR [esp+12]
sbb edx, DWORD PTR [esp+16]
ret

```

GCC code is the same.

\section*{ARM}

Listing 1.375: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)


The first 64-bit value is passed in R0 and R1 register pair, the second in R2 and R3 register pair. ARM has the ADC instruction as well (which counts carry flag) and SBC ("subtract with carry"). Important thing: when the low parts are added/subtracted, ADDS and SUBS instructions with -S suffix are used. The -S suffix stands for "set flags", and flags (esp. carry flag) is what consequent ADC/SBC instructions definitely need. Otherwise, instructions without the -S suffix would do the job (ADD and SUB).

\section*{MIPS}

Listing 1.376: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f_add:
; \$a0 - high part of a
; \$al - low part of a
; \$a2 - high part of b
; \$a3 - low part of b
addu \$v1, \$a3, \$a1 ; sum up low parts
addu \$a0, \$a2, \$a0 ; sum up high parts
; will carry generated while summing up low parts?
; if yes, set \$v0 to 1
sltu \$v0, \$v1, \$a3
jr \$ra
; add 1 to high part of result if carry should be generated:
addu \$v0, \$a0 ; branch delay slot
; \$v0 - high part of result

```
```

; \$v1 - low part of result
f_sub:
; \$a0 - high part of a
; \$al - low part of a
; \$a2 - high part of b
; \$a3 - low part of b
subu \$v1, \$a1, \$a3 ; subtract low parts
subu \$v0, \$a0, \$a2 ; subtract high parts
; will carry generated while subtracting low parts?
; if yes, set \$a0 to 1
sltu \$al, \$v1
jr \$ra
; subtract 1 from high part of result if carry should be generated:
subu \$v0, \$al ; branch delay slot
; \$v0 - high part of result
; \$v1 - low part of result
f_add_test:

| var_10 | $=-0 \times 10$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| var_4 | $=-4$ |

    lui $gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
    addiu $sp, -0\times20
    la $gp, (__gnu_local_gp & 0xFFFF)
    sw $ra, 0x20+var 4($sp)
    sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
    lui $a1, 0x73CE
    lui $a3, 0x7593
    li $a0, 0xB3A
    li $a3, 0x75939F79
    li $a2, 0x1555
    jal f add
    li $a1, 0x73CE2FF2
    lw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
    lui $a0, ($LC0 >> 16) # "%lld\n"
    lw $t9, (printf & 0xFFFF)($gp)
    lw $ra, 0x20+var 4($sp)
    la $a0, ($LC0 & 0}x\mathrm{ xFFF) # "%lld\n"
    move $a3, $v1
    move $a2, $v0
    jr $t9
    addiu $sp, 0x20
    \$LC0: .ascii "%lld\n"<0>

```

MIPS has no flags register, so there is no such information present after the execution of arithmetic operations. So there are no instructions like x86's ADC and SBB. To know if the carry flag would be set, a comparison (using SLTU instruction) also occurs, which sets the destination register to 1 or 0 . This 1 or 0 is then added or subtracted to/from the final result.

\subsection*{1.28.3 Multiplication, division}
```

\#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f_mul (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{
return a*b;
};
uint64_t f_div (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{
return a/b;
};
uint64_t f_rem (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{

```
\};

Listing 1.377: Optimizing MSVC 2013 /Ob1
```

a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
f_mul PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp+4]
    push eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp+4]
    push edx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
push eax
call __allmul ; long long multiplication
pop ebp
ret 0
f_mul ENDP
a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
-f_div PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp+4]
    push eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp+4]
    push edx DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    push eax
    call __aulldiv ; unsigned long long division
    pop ebp
    ret 0
    f_div ENDP
a$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
-f rem PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[ebp+4]
    push eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp+4]
    push edx DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
mov eax, DWORD PTR a\$[ebp]
push eax
call __aullrem ; unsigned long long remainder
pop ebp
ret 0
f_rem ENDP

```

Multiplication and division are more complex operations, so usually the compiler embeds calls to a library functions doing that.
These functions are described here: . 5 on page 1043.
Listing 1.378: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1 -fno-inline
```

    push ebx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+16]
    mov ebx, DWORD PTR [esp+12]
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR [esp+20]
    imul ebx, eax
    imul ecx, edx
    mul edx
    add ecx, ebx
    add edx, ecx
    pop ebx
    ret
    f div:
sub esp, 28
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+40]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+44]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+32]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+12], edx
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+36]
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], edx
call __udivdi3 ; unsigned division
add esp, 28
ret
f_rem:
sub esp, 28
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+40]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+44]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+32]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+12], edx
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+36]
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], edx
call __umoddi3 ; unsigned modulo
add esp, 28
ret

```

GCC does the expected, but the multiplication code is inlined right in the function, thinking it could be more efficient. GCC has different library function names: . 4 on page 1043.

\section*{ARM}

Keil for Thumb mode inserts library subroutine calls:
Listing 1.379: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{||f_mul|| PROC} \\
\hline PUSH & \{r4, lr \\
\hline BL & __aeabi_lmul \\
\hline POP & \(\overline{\text { r }} 4, \mathrm{pc}\}\) \\
\hline ENDP & \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{||f_div|| PROC} \\
\hline PUSH & \{r4, lr \\
\hline BL & __aeabi_uldivmod \\
\hline POP & \(\overline{\text { r }} 4, \mathrm{pc}\}\) \\
\hline ENDP & \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{||f_rem|| PROC} \\
\hline - PUSH & \{r4, 1 r \(\}\) \\
\hline BL & __aeabi_uldivmod \\
\hline MOVS & \(\overline{r 0}, r 2\) \\
\hline MOVS & r1, r3 \\
\hline POP & \{r4, pc \(\}\) \\
\hline ENDP & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Keil for ARM mode, on the other hand, is able to produce 64-bit multiplication code:
Listing 1.380: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

||f_mul|| PROC
PUSH {r4,lr}
UMULL r12,r4,r0,r2
MLA r1,r2,r1,r4
MLA r1,r0,r3,r1
MOV r0,r12
POP {r4,pc}
ENDP
||f_div|| PROC
PUSH {r4,lr}
BL __aeabi_uldivmod
POP {r}\,pc
ENDP
||f_rem|| PROC
PUSH
{r4,lr}
BL _aeabi_uldivmod
MOV r0,r2
MOV r1,r3
POP {r4,pc}
ENDP

```

\section*{MIPS}

Optimizing GCC for MIPS can generate 64-bit multiplication code, but has to call a library routine for 64-bit division:

Listing 1.381: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f_mul:
mult \$a2, \$a1
mflo \$v0
or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
mult \$a0, \$a3
mflo \$a0
addu \$v0, \$a0
or \$at, \$zero ; NOP
multu \$a3, \$a1
mfhi \$a2
mflo \$v1
jr \$ra
addu \$v0, \$a2
f_div:
var_10 = -0x10
var_4 = -4
lui \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
addiu \$sp, -0x20
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
sw $gp, 0x20+var_10($sp)
lw $t9, (__udivd\overline{i}3 & 0xFFFF)($gp)
or \$at, \$zero
jalr \$t9
or \$at, \$zero
lw $ra, 0x20+var_4($sp)
or \$at, \$zero
jr \$ra
addiu \$sp, 0x20
f_rem:

```
```

var_10 = -0x10

```
var_4 = -4
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline lui & \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16) \\
\hline addiu & \$sp, -0x20 \\
\hline la & \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF) \\
\hline sw & \$ra, 0x20+var_4(\$sp) \\
\hline sw & \$gp, 0x20+var_10(\$sp) \\
\hline lw & \$t9, (__umoddi3 \& 0xFFFF) (\$gp) \\
\hline or & \$at, \$zero \\
\hline jalr & \$t9 \\
\hline or & \$at, \$zero \\
\hline lw & \$ra, 0x20+var_4(\$sp) \\
\hline or & \$at, \$zero \\
\hline jr & \$ra \\
\hline addiu & \$sp, 0x20 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are a lot of NOPs, probably delay slots filled after the multiplication instruction (it's slower than other instructions, after all).

\subsection*{1.28.4 Shifting right}
```

\#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t f (uint64_t a)
{
return a>>7;
};

```
\(\mathbf{x 8 6}\)

Listing 1.382: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob1
```

_a\$ = 8 ; size = 8

```
_a$ = 8 ; size = 8
f PROC
f PROC
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR a$[esp]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR a$[esp]
    shrd eax, edx, 7
    shrd eax, edx, 7
    shr edx, 7
    shr edx, 7
    ret 0
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

f ENDP

```

Listing 1.383: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1 -fno-inline
```

f:
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+8]
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
shrd eax, edx, 7
shr edx, 7
ret

```

Shifting also occurs in two passes: first the lower part is shifted, then the higher part. But the lower part is shifted with the help of the SHRD instruction, it shifts the value of EAX by 7 bits, but pulls new bits from EDX, i.e., from the higher part. In other words, 64-bit value from EDX: EAX register's pair, as a whole, is shifted by 7 bits and lowest 32 bits of result are placed into EAX. The higher part is shifted using the much more popular SHR instruction: indeed, the freed bits in the higher part must be filled with zeros.

\section*{ARM}

ARM doesn't have such instruction as SHRD in x86, so the Keil compiler ought to do this using simple shifts and OR operations:

Listing 1.384: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\|f\|| PROC
LSR r0,r0,\#7
ORR r0,r0,r1,LSL \#25
LSR r1,r1,\#7
BX
lr
ENDP

Listing 1.385: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
\begin{tabular}{|ll}
\(||f|| ~ P R O C\) & \\
LSLS & \(r 2, r 1, \# 25\) \\
LSRS & \(r 0, r 0, \# 7\) \\
ORRS & \(r 0, r 0, r 2\) \\
LSRS & \(r 1, r 1, \# 7\) \\
BX & \(l r\) \\
ENDP &
\end{tabular}

\section*{MIPS}

GCC for MIPS follows the same algorithm as Keil does for Thumb mode:
Listing 1.386: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(f:\) & & \\
& sll & \(\$ v 0, \$ a 0,25\) \\
& srl & \(\$ v 1, \$ a 1,7\) \\
& or & \(\$ v 1, \$ v 0, \$ v 1\) \\
& \(j r\) & \(\$ r a\) \\
& srl & \(\$ v 0, \$ a 0,7\)
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{1.28.5 Converting 32-bit value into 64-bit one}
```

\#include <stdint.h>
int64_t f (int32_t a)
{
return a;
};

```
\(\mathbf{x} 86\)

Listing 1.387: Optimizing MSVC 2012
```

_a\$ = 8
_f PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a\$[esp-4]
cdq
ret 0
f ENDP

```

Here we also run into necessity to extend a 32-bit signed value into a 64-bit signed one. Unsigned values are converted straightforwardly: all bits in the higher part must be set to 0 . But this is not appropriate for signed data types: the sign has to be copied into the higher part of the resulting number.
The CDQ instruction does that here, it takes its input value in EAX, extends it to 64-bit and leaves it in the EDX:EAX register pair. In other words, CDQ gets the number sign from EAX (by getting the most significant bit in EAX), and depending of it, sets all 32 bits in EDX to 0 or 1. Its operation is somewhat similar to the MOVSX instruction.

Listing 1.388: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{rl}
\(\|f\|\) & \\
& \\
& \\
ASROC & \(r 1, r 0, \# 31\) \\
BX & \(l r\) \\
ENDP &
\end{tabular}

Keil for ARM is different: it just arithmetically shifts right the input value by 31 bits. As we know, the sign bit is MSB, and the arithmetical shift copies the sign bit into the "emerged" bits. So after "ASR r1,r0,\#31", R1 containing \(0 x F F F F F F F F\) if the input value has been negative and 0 otherwise. R1 contains the high part of the resulting 64-bit value. In other words, this code just copies the MSB (sign bit) from the input value in \(R 0\) to all bits of the high 32-bit part of the resulting 64-bit value.

\section*{MIPS}

GCC for MIPS does the same as Keil did for ARM mode:
Listing 1.389: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f:
sra \$v0, \$a0, 31
jr \$ra
move \$v1, \$a0

```

\subsection*{1.29 SIMD}

SIMD is an acronym: Single Instruction, Multiple Data.
As its name implies, it processes multiple data using only one instruction.
Like the FPU, that CPU subsystem looks like a separate processor inside x86.
SIMD began as MMX in x86. 8 new 64-bit registers appeared: MM0-MM7.
Each MMX register can hold 2 32-bit values, 4 16-bit values or 8 bytes. For example, it is possible to add 8 8-bit values (bytes) simultaneously by adding two values in MMX registers.

One simple example is a graphics editor that represents an image as a two dimensional array. When the user changes the brightness of the image, the editor must add or subtract a coefficient to/from each pixel value. For the sake of brevity if we say that the image is grayscale and each pixel is defined by one 8-bit byte, then it is possible to change the brightness of 8 pixels simultaneously.
By the way, this is the reason why the saturation instructions are present in SIMD.
When the user changes the brightness in the graphics editor, overflow and underflow are not desirable, so there are addition instructions in SIMD which are not adding anything if the maximum value is reached, etc.
When MMX appeared, these registers were actually located in the FPU's registers. It was possible to use either FPU or MMX at the same time. One might think that Intel saved on transistors, but in fact the reason of such symbiosis was simpler -older OSes that are not aware of the additional CPU registers would not save them at the context switch, but saving the FPU registers. Thus, MMX-enabled CPU + old OS + process utilizing MMX features will still work.
SSE—is extension of the SIMD registers to 128 bits, now separate from the FPU.
AVX—another extension, to 256 bits.
Now about practical usage.
Of course, this is memory copy routines (memcpy), memory comparing (memcmp) and so on.
One more example: the DES encryption algorithm takes a 64-bit block and a 56-bit key, encrypt the block and produces a 64-bit result. The DES algorithm may be considered as a very large electronic circuit, with wires and AND/OR/NOT gates.
1.29. SIMD

Bitslice DES \({ }^{177}\)-is the idea of processing groups of blocks and keys simultaneously. Let's say, variable of type unsigned int on x86 can hold up to 32 bits, so it is possible to store there intermediate results for 32 block-key pairs simultaneously, using 64+56 variables of type unsigned int.

There is an utility to brute-force Oracle RDBMS passwords/hashes (ones based on DES), using slightly modified bitslice DES algorithm for SSE2 and AVX—now it is possible to encrypt 128 or 256 block-keys pairs simultaneously.
http://go.yurichev.com/17313

\subsection*{1.29.1 Vectorization}

Vectorization \({ }^{178}\) is when, for example, you have a loop taking couple of arrays for input and producing one array. The loop body takes values from the input arrays, does something and puts the result into the output array. Vectorization is to process several elements simultaneously.

Vectorization is not very fresh technology: the author of this textbook saw it at least on the Cray Y-MP supercomputer line from 1988 when he played with its "lite" version Cray Y-MP EL \({ }^{179}\).

For example:
```

for (i = 0; i < 1024; i++)
{
C[i] = A[i]*B[i];
}

```

This fragment of code takes elements from \(A\) and \(B\), multiplies them and saves the result into \(C\).
If each array element we have is 32 -bit int, then it is possible to load 4 elements from \(A\) into a 128-bit XMM-register, from B to another XMM-registers, and by executing PMULLD (Multiply Packed Signed Dword Integers and Store Low Result) and PMULHW (Multiply Packed Signed Integers and Store High Result), it is possible to get 464 -bit products at once.
Thus, loop body execution count is \(1024 / 4\) instead of 1024 , that is 4 times less and, of course, faster.

\section*{Addition example}

Some compilers can do vectorization automatically in simple cases, e.g., Intel C \(++^{180}\).
Here is tiny function:
```

int f (int sz, int *ar1, int *ar2, int *ar3)
{
for (int i=0; i<sz; i++)
ar3[i]=ar1[i]+ar2[i];
return 0;
};

```

\section*{Intel C++}

Let's compile it with Intel C++ 11.1.051 win32:
icl intel.cpp /QaxSSE2 /Faintel.asm /Ox
We got (in IDA):
```

; int __cdecl f(int, int *, int *, int *)
public ?f@@YAHHPAH00@Z
?f@@YAHHPAH00@Z proc near
var_10 = dword ptr -10h

```

\footnotetext{
177http://go.yurichev.com/17329
\({ }^{178}\) Wikipedia: vectorization
\({ }^{179}\) Remotely. It is installed in the museum of supercomputers: http://go.yurichev.com/17081
\({ }^{180}\) More about Intel C++ automatic vectorization: Excerpt: Effective Automatic Vectorization
}
```

sz = dword ptr 4
ar1 = dword ptr 8
ar2 = dword ptr 0Ch
ar3 = dword ptr 10h
push edi
push esi
push ebx
push esi
mov edx, [esp+10h+sz]
test edx, edx
jle loc_15B
mov eax, [esp+10h+ar3]
cmp edx, 6
jle loc_143
cmp eax, [esp+10h+ar2]
jbe short loc_36
mov esi, [esp+10h+ar2]
sub esi, eax
lea ecx, ds:0[edx*4]
neg esi
cmp ecx, esi
jbe short loc_55

```
loc_36: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+21
    cmp eax, [esp+10h+ar2]
    jnb loc_143
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar2]
    sub esi, eax
    lea ecx, ds:0[edx*4]
    cmp esi, ecx
    jb loc_143
loc_55: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+34
    cmp eax, [esp+10h+arl]
    jbe short loc_67
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar1]
    sub esi, eax
    neg esi
    cmp ecx, esi
    jbe short loc_7F
loc_67: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+59
    cmp eax, [esp+10h+ar1]
    jnb loc_143
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar1]
    sub esi, eax
    cmp esi, ecx
    jb loc_143
loc_7F: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+65
    mov edi, eax ; edi = ar3
    and edi, 0Fh ; is ar3 16-byte aligned?
    jz short loc_9A ; yes
    test edi, 3
    jnz loc_162
    neg edi
    add edi, 10h
    shr edi, 2
loc_9A: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+84
    lea ecx, [edi+4]
    cmp edx, ecx
    jl loc_162
    mov ecx, edx
    sub ecx, edi
    and ecx, 3
    neg ecx
    add ecx, edx
    test edi, edi
```

jbe short loc_D6
mov ebx, [esp+10h+ar2]
mov [esp+10h+var_10], ecx
mov ecx, [esp+10\overline{h}+ar1]
xor esi, esi
loc_C1: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+CD
mov edx, [ecx+esi*4]
add edx, [ebx+esi*4]
mov [eax+esi*4], edx
inc esi
cmp esi, edi
jb short loc_C1
mov ecx, [esp+10h+var_10]
mov edx, [esp+10h+sz]
loc_D6: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+B2
mov esi, [esp+10h+ar2]
lea esi, [esi+edi*4] ; is ar2+i*4 16-byte aligned?
test esi, 0Fh
jz short loc_109 ; yes!
mov ebx, [esp+10h+ar1]
mov esi, [esp+10h+ar2]
loc_ED: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+105
movdqu xmm1, xmmword ptr [ebx+edi*4] ; ar1+i*4
movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [esi+edi*4] ; ar2+i*4 is not 16-byte aligned, so load it to 々
XMM0
paddd xmm1, xmm0
movdqa xmmword ptr [eax+edi*4], xmm1 ; ar3+i*4
add edi, 4
cmp edi, ecx
jb short loc_ED
jmp short loc_127

```
loc 109: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+E3
    mov ebx, [esp+10h+ar1]
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar2]
loc_111: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+125
    movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [ebx+edi*4]
    paddd xmm0, xmmword ptr [esi+edi*4]
    movdqa xmmword ptr [eax+edi*4], xmm0
    add edi, 4
    cmp edi, ecx
    jb short loc_111
loc_127: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+107
    f(int,int *,int *,int *)+164
    cmp ecx, edx
    jnb short loc_15B
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar1]
    mov edi, [esp+10h+ar2]
loc_133: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+13F
    mov ebx, [esi+ecx*4]
    add ebx, [edi+ecx*4]
    mov [eax+ecx*4], ebx
    inc ecx
    cmp ecx, edx
    jb short loc_133
    jmp short loc_15B
loc_143: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+17
    f(int,int *,int *,int *)+3A ...
    mov esi, [esp+10h+ar1]
    mov edi, [esp+10h+ar2]
    xor ecx, ecx
loc_14D: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+159
```

    mov ebx, [esi+ecx*4]
    add ebx, [edi+ecx*4]
    mov [eax+ecx*4], ebx
    inc ecx
    cmp ecx, edx
    jb short loc_14D
    loc_15B: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+A
f(int,int *,int *,int *)+129 ...
xor eax, eax
pop ecx
pop ebx
pop esi
pop edi
retn
loc_162: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+8C
f(int,int *,int *,int *)+9F
xor ecx, ecx
jmp short loc_127
?f@@YAHHPAH00@Z endp

```

The SSE2-related instructions are:
- MOVDQU (Move Unaligned Double Quadword)—just loads 16 bytes from memory into a XMM-register.
- PADDD (Add Packed Integers) —adds 4 pairs of 32-bit numbers and leaves the result in the first operand. By the way, no exception is raised in case of overflow and no flags are to be set, just the low 32 bits of the result are to be stored. If one of PADDD's operands is the address of a value in memory, then the address must be aligned on a 16-byte boundary. If it is not aligned, an exception will be triggered 181.
- MOVDQA (Move Aligned Double Quadword) is the same as MOVDQU, but requires the address of the value in memory to be aligned on a 16-bit boundary. If it is not aligned, exception will be raised. MOVDQA works faster than MOVDQU, but requires aforesaid.

So, these SSE2-instructions are to be executed only in case there are more than 4 pairs to work on and the pointer ar3 is aligned on a 16-byte boundary.

Also, if ar2 is aligned on a 16-byte boundary as well, this fragment of code is to be executed:
```

movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [ebx+edi*4] ; arl+i*4
paddd xmm0, xmmword ptr [esi+edi*4] ; ar2+i*4
movdqa xmmword ptr [eax+edi*4], xmm0 ; ar3+i*4

```

Otherwise, the value from ar2 is to be loaded into XMM0 using MOVDQU, which does not require aligned pointer, but may work slower:
```

movdqu xmml, xmmword ptr [ebx+edi*4] ; arl+i*4
movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [esi+edi*4] ; ar2+i*4 is not 16-byte aligned, so load it to XMM0
paddd xmm1, xmm0
movdqa xmmword ptr [eax+edi*4], xmm1 ; ar3+i*4

```

In all other cases, non-SSE2 code is to be executed.

\section*{GCC}

GCC may also vectorize in simple cases \({ }^{182}\), if the -03 option is used and SSE2 support is turned on: -msse2. What we get (GCC 4.4.1):
```

; f(int, int *, int *, int *)
public ZlfiPiS_S
ZlfiPiS_S_ proc neār

| var_18 | $=$ dword ptr $-18 h$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| var 14 | $=$ dword ptr $-14 h$ |

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{181}\) More about data alignment: Wikipedia: Data structure alignment
\({ }^{182}\) More about GCC vectorization support: http://go. yurichev.com/17083
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline var_10 & = dword & ptr -10h \\
\hline arg_0 & = dword & ptr 8 \\
\hline arg_4 & = dword & ptr 0Ch \\
\hline arg_8 & = dword & ptr 10h \\
\hline arg_C & = dword & ptr 14h \\
\hline & push & ebp \\
\hline & mov & ebp, esp \\
\hline & push & edi \\
\hline & push & esi \\
\hline & push & ebx \\
\hline & sub & esp, 0Ch \\
\hline & mov & ecx, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline & mov & esi, [ebp+arg_4] \\
\hline & mov & edi, [ebp+arg_8] \\
\hline & mov & ebx, [ebp+arg_C] \\
\hline & test & ecx, ecx \\
\hline & jle & short loc_80484D8 \\
\hline & cmp & ecx, 6 \\
\hline & lea & eax, [ebx+10h] \\
\hline & ja & short loc_80484E8 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
loc_80484C1: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *) +4 B ; f(int,int *,int *,int *)+61 ...
xor eax, eax
nop
lea esi, [esi+0]
loc_80484C8: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+36
mov edx, [edi+eax*4]
add edx, [esi+eax*4]
mov [ebx+eax*4], edx
add eax, 1
cmp eax, ecx
jnz short loc_80484C8
loc_80484D8: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+17 ; f(int,int *,int *,int *)+A5
add esp, 0Ch
xor eax, eax
pop ebx
pop esi
pop edi
pop ebp
retn
align 8
loc_80484E8: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+1F
test bl, 0Fh
jnz short loc 80484C1
lea edx, [esi+10h]
cmp ebx, edx
jbe loc 8048578
loc_80484F8: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+E0
lea edx, [edi+10h]
cmp ebx, edx
ja short loc_8048503
cmp edi, eax
jbe short loc_80484C1
loc 8048503: ; CODE XREF: f(int,int *,int *,int *)+5D
mov eax, ecx
shr eax, 2
mov [ebp+var_14], eax
shl eax, 2
test eax, eax
mov [ebp+var 10], eax
jz short loć 8048547
1.29. SIMD


Almost the same, however, not as meticulously as Intel C++.

\section*{Memory copy example}

Let's revisit the simple memcpy() example ( 1.16 .2 on page 195):
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void my memcpy (unsigned char* dst, unsigned char* src, size t cnt)
{
size_t i;
for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
dst[i]=src[i];
};

```

And that's what optimizations GCC 4.9.1 did:
my memcpy:
; \(\overline{\mathrm{R}} \mathrm{DI}=\) destination address
; RSI = source address
; RDX = size of block
test rdx, rdx
je .L41
lea rax, [rdi+16]
cmp rsi, rax
lea rax, [rsi+16]
setae cl
cmp rdi, rax
setae al
or cl, al
je .L13
cmp rdx, 22
jbe .L13
mov rcx, rsi
push rbp
push rbx
neg rcx
and ecx, 15
cmp rcx, rdx
cmova rcx, rdx
xor eax, eax
test rcx, rcx
je .L4
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi]
cmp rcx, 1
mov BYTE PTR [rdi], al
je .L15
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+1]
cmp rcx, 2
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+1], al
je .L16
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+2]
cmp rcx, 3
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+2], al
je .L17
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+3]
cmp rcx, 4
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+3], al
je .L18
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+4]
cmp rcx, 5
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+4], al
je .L19
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+5]
cmp rcx, 6
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+5], al
je .L20
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+6]
cmp rcx, 7
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+6], al
je .L21
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+7]
cmp rcx, 8
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+7], al
je .L22
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+8]
cmp rcx, 9
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+8], al
je .L23
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+9]
cmp rcx, 10
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+9], al
je .L24
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+10]
cmp rcx, 11
mov BYTE PTR [rdi+10], al
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & & \\
\hline & je & . L25 \\
\hline & movzx & eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+11] \\
\hline & cmp & rcx, 12 \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+11], al \\
\hline & je & . L26 \\
\hline & movzx & eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+12] \\
\hline & cmp & rcx, 13 \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+12], al \\
\hline & je & . L 27 \\
\hline & movzx & eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+13] \\
\hline & cmp & rcx, 15 \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+13], al \\
\hline & jne & . L28 \\
\hline & movzx & eax, BYTE PTR [rsi+14] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+14], al \\
\hline & mov & eax, 15 \\
\hline & mov & r10, rdx \\
\hline & lea & r9, [ rdx-1] \\
\hline & sub & r10, rcx \\
\hline & lea & r8, [r10-16] \\
\hline & sub & r9, rcx \\
\hline & shr & r8, 4 \\
\hline & add & r8, 1 \\
\hline & mov & r11, r8 \\
\hline & sal & r11, 4 \\
\hline & cmp & r9, 14 \\
\hline & jbe & .L6 \\
\hline & lea & rbp, [rsi+rcx] \\
\hline & xor & r9d, r9d \\
\hline & add & rcx, rdi \\
\hline & xor & ebx, ebx \\
\hline & movdqa & xmm0, XMMWORD PTR [rbp+0+r9] \\
\hline & add & rbx, 1 \\
\hline & movups & XMMWORD PTR [rcx+r9], xmm0 \\
\hline & add & r9, 16 \\
\hline & cmp & rbx, r8 \\
\hline & jb & .L7 \\
\hline & add & rax, r11 \\
\hline & cmp & r10, r11 \\
\hline & je & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+rax], cl \\
\hline & lea & rcx, [rax+1] \\
\hline & cmp & rdx, rcx \\
\hline & jbe & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+1+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+1+rax], cl \\
\hline & lea & rcx, [rax+2] \\
\hline & cmp & rdx, rcx \\
\hline & jbe & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+2+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+2+rax], cl \\
\hline & lea & rcx, [rax+3] \\
\hline & cmp & rdx, rcx \\
\hline & jbe & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+3+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+3+rax], cl \\
\hline & lea & rcx, [rax+4] \\
\hline & cmp & rdx, rcx \\
\hline & jbe & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+4+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+4+rax], cl \\
\hline & lea & rcx, [rax+5] \\
\hline & cmp & rdx, rcx \\
\hline & jbe & . L1 \\
\hline & movzx & ecx, BYTE PTR [rsi+5+rax] \\
\hline & mov & BYTE PTR [rdi+5+rax], cl \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

```

.L18:
mov eax, 4
jmp .L4
.L19:
mov eax, 5
jmp .L4
.L20:
mov eax, 6
jmp .L4
.L21:
mov eax, 7
jmp .L4
.L22:
mov eax, 8
jmp .L4
.L23:
mov eax, 9
jmp .L4
.L24:
mov eax, 10
jmp .L4
.L25:
mov eax, 11
jmp .L4
.L26:
mov eax, 12
jmp .L4
.L27:
mov eax, 13
jmp .L4

```

\subsection*{1.29.2 SIMD strlen() implementation}

It has to be noted that the SIMD instructions can be inserted in C/C++ code via special macros \({ }^{183}\). For MSVC, some of them are located in the intrin. \(h\) file.

It is possible to implement the strlen ( ) function \({ }^{184}\) using SIMD instructions that works 2-2.5 times faster than the common implementation. This function loads 16 characters into a XMM-register and check each against zero \({ }^{185}\).
```

size_t strlen_sse2(const char *str)
{
register size_t len = 0;
const char *s=str;
bool str_is_aligned=(((unsigned int)str)\&0xFFFFFFF0) == (unsigned int)str;
if (str_is_aligned==false)
return strlen (str);
__m128i xmm0 = _mm_setzero_si128();
m128i xmm1;
int mask = 0;
for (;;)
{
xmm1 = mm load si128(( m128i *)s);
xmm1 = _mm_cmpeq_epi8(xmm1, xmm0);
if ((mask = mm movemask epi8(xmm1)) != 0)
{
unsigned long pos;
BitScanForward(\&pos, mask);
len += (size_t)pos;

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{183}\) MSDN: MMX, SSE, and SSE2 Intrinsics
\({ }^{184}\) strlen() -standard C library function for calculating string length
\({ }^{185}\) The example is based on source code from: http://go.yurichev. com/17330.
}
```

        break;
    }
    s += sizeof( m128i);
    len += sizeof(__m128i);
    };
    return len;
    }

```

Let's compile it in MSVC 2010 with /0x option:
Listing 1.391: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

los$75552 = -4 ; size = 4
?strlen_sse2@@YAIPBD@Z PROC ; strlen_sse2
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    and esp, -16 ; fffffff0H
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _str$[ebp]
sub esp, 12 ; 0000000cH
push esi
mov esi, eax
and esi, -16 ; fffffff0H
xor edx, edx
mov ecx, eax
cmp esi, eax
je SHORT \$LN4@strlen_sse
lea edx, DWORD PTR [eāx+1]
npad 3 ; align next label
\$LL11@strlen sse:
mov cl, BYTE PTR [eax]
inc eax
test cl, cl
jne SHORT \$LL11@strlen_sse
sub eax, edx
pop esi
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
\$LN4@strlen_sse:
movdqa xmm1, XMMWORD PTR [eax]
pxor xmm0, xmm0
pcmpeqb xmm1, xmm0
pmovmskb eax, xmm1
test eax, eax
jne SHORT \$LN9@strlen_sse
\$LL3@strlen_sse:
movdqa xmm1, XMMWORD PTR [ecx+16]
add ecx, 16 ; 00000010H
pcmpeqb xmm1, xmm0
add edx, 16 ; 00000010H
pmovmskb eax, xmm1
test eax, eax
je SHORT \$LL3@strlen_sse
\$LN9@strlen_sse:
bsf eax, eax
mov ecx, eax
mov DWORD PTR _pos\$75552[esp+16], eax
lea eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+edx]
pop esi
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
?strlen_sse2@@YAIPBD@Z ENDP ; strlen_sse2

```

How it works? First of all, we must understand goal of the function. It calculates C-string length, but we can use different terms: it's task is searching for zero byte, and then calculating its position relatively to string start.

First, we check if the str pointer is aligned on a 16-byte boundary. If not, we call the generic strlen() implementation.

Then, we load the next 16 bytes into the XMM1 register using MOVDQA.
An observant reader might ask, why can't MOVDQU be used here since it can load data from the memory regardless pointer alignment?

Yes, it might be done in this way: if the pointer is aligned, load data using MOVDQA, if not -use the slower MOVDQU.

But here we are may hit another caveat:
In the Windows NT line of OS (but not limited to it), memory is allocated by pages of 4 KiB ( 4096 bytes). Each win32-process has 4 GiB available, but in fact, only some parts of the address space are connected to real physical memory. If the process is accessing an absent memory block, an exception is to be raised. That's how VM works \({ }^{186}\).

So, a function loading 16 bytes at once may step over the border of an allocated memory block. Let's say that the OS has allocated \(8192(0 \times 2000)\) bytes at address \(0 \times 008 c 0000\). Thus, the block is the bytes starting from address 0x008c0000 to 0x008c1fff inclusive.

After the block, that is, starting from address 0x008c2000 there is nothing at all, e.g. the OS not allocated any memory there. Any attempt to access memory starting from that address will raise an exception.
And let's consider the example in which the program is holding a string that contains 5 characters almost at the end of a block, and that is not a crime.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline 0x008c1ff8 & 'h' \\
\hline 0x008c1ff9 & 'e' \\
\hline 0x008c1ffa & 'l' \\
\hline 0x008c1ffb & 'I' \\
\hline 0x008c1ffc & '0' \\
\hline 0x008c1ffd & ' x 000 \\
\hline 0x008c1ffe & random noise \\
\hline 0x008c1fff & random noise \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So, in normal conditions the program calls strlen(), passing it a pointer to the string 'hello' placed in memory at address 0x008c1ff8. strlen() reads one byte at a time until 0x008c1ffd, where there's a zero byte, and then it stops.

Now if we implement our own strlen() reading 16 bytes at once, starting at any address, aligned or not, MOVDQU may attempt to load 16 bytes at once at address 0x008c1ff8 up to \(0 x 008 c 2008\), and then an exception will be raised. That situation is to be avoided, of course.

So then we'll work only with the addresses aligned on a 16 bytes boundary, which in combination with the knowledge that the OS' page size is usually aligned on a 16-byte boundary gives us some warranty that our function will not read from unallocated memory.
Let's get back to our function.
_mm_setzero_si128() -is a macro generating pxor xmm0, xmm0 -it just clears the XMM0 register.
_mm_load_si128() -is a macro for MOVDQA, it just loads 16 bytes from the address into the XMM1 register.
_mm_cmpeq_epi8() -is a macro for PCMPEQB, an instruction that compares two XMM-registers bytewise.
And if some byte is equals to the one in the other register, there will be \(0 x f f\) at this point in the result or 0 if otherwise.

For example:
XMM1: 0x11223344556677880000000000000000
XMM0: 0x11ab3444007877881111111111111111
After the execution of pcmpeqb xmm1, xmm0, the XMM1 register contains:
XMM1: 0xff0000ff0000ffff0000000000000000
In our case, this instruction compares each 16-byte block with a block of 16 zero-bytes, which has been set in the XMM0 register by pxor xmm0, xmm0.

The next macro is _mm_movemask_epi8() -that is the PMOVMSKB instruction.
It is very useful with PCMPEQB.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{186}\) wikipedia
}

This instruction sets first EAX bit to 1 if the most significant bit of the first byte in XMM1 is 1 . In other words, if the first byte of the XMM1 register is \(0 x f f\), then the first bit of EAX is to be 1 , too.
If the second byte in the XMM1 register is \(0 x f f\), then the second bit in EAX is to be set to 1 . In other words, the instruction is answering the question "which bytes in XMM1 has the most significant bit set, or greater than \(0 \times 7 f^{\prime \prime}\), and returns 16 bits in the EAX register. The other bits in the EAX register are to be cleared.

By the way, do not forget about this quirk of our algorithm. There might be 16 bytes in the input like:


It is the 'hello' string, terminating zero, and some random noise in memory.
If we load these 16 bytes into XMM1 and compare them with the zeroed XMM0, we are getting something like \({ }^{187}\) :

XMM1: 0x0000ff00000000000000ff0000000000
This means that the instruction found two zero bytes, and it is not surprising.
PMOVMSKB in our case will set EAX to
0b0010000000100000.
Obviously, our function must take only the first zero bit and ignore the rest.
The next instruction is BSF (Bit Scan Forward).
This instruction finds the first bit set to 1 and stores its position into the first operand.
\(E A X=0 b 0010000000100000\)
After the execution of bsf eax, eax, EAX contains 5, meaning 1 has been found at the 5th bit position (starting from zero).
MSVC has a macro for this instruction: BitScanForward.
Now it is simple. If a zero byte has been found, its position is added to what we have already counted and now we have the return result.

Almost all.
By the way, it is also has to be noted that the MSVC compiler emitted two loop bodies side by side, for optimization.
By the way, SSE 4.2 (that appeared in Intel Core i7) offers more instructions where these string manipulations might be even easier: http://go.yurichev.com/17331

\subsection*{1.3064 bits}

\subsection*{1.30.1 x86-64}

It is a 64-bit extension to the \(x 86\) architecture.
From the reverse engineer's perspective, the most important changes are:
- Almost all registers (except FPU and SIMD) were extended to 64 bits and got a R- prefix. 8 additional registers wer added. Now GPR's are: RAX, RBX, RCX, RDX, RBP, RSP, RSI, RDI, R8, R9, R10, R11, R12, R13, R14, R15.

It is still possible to access the older register parts as usual. For example, it is possible to access the lower 32-bit part of the RAX register using EAX:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{Byte number:} \\
\hline 7th & 6th & 5th & 4th & 3rd & 2nd & 1st & 0th \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{RAX \({ }^{\text {64 }}\)} \\
\hline & & & & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{EAX} \\
\hline & & & & & & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{AX} \\
\hline & & & & & & AH & AL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{187} \mathrm{An}\) order from MSB to LSB \({ }^{188}\) is used here.
}

The new R8-R15 registers also have their lower parts: R8D-R15D (lower 32-bit parts), R8W-R15W (lower 16-bit parts), R8L-R15L (lower 8-bit parts).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{Byte number:} \\
\hline 7th & 6th & 5th & 4th & 3rd & 2nd & 1st & 0th \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{R8} \\
\hline & & & & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{R8D} \\
\hline & & & & & & \multicolumn{2}{|r|}{R8W} \\
\hline & & & & & & & R8L \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The number of SIMD registers was doubled from 8 to 16: XMM0-XMM15.
- In Win64, the function calling convention is slightly different, somewhat resembling fastcall ( 6.1 .3 on page 735). The first 4 arguments are stored in the RCX, RDX, R8, R9 registers, the rest -in the stack. The caller function must also allocate 32 bytes so the callee may save there 4 first arguments and use these registers for its own needs. Short functions may use arguments just from registers, but larger ones may save their values on the stack.
System V AMD64 ABI (Linux, *BSD, Mac OS X)[Michael Matz, Jan Hubicka, Andreas Jaeger, Mark Mitchell, System V Application Binary Interface. AMD64 Architecture Processor Supplement, (2013)] \({ }^{189}\) also somewhat resembles fastcall, it uses 6 registers RDI, RSI, RDX, RCX, R8, R9 for the first 6 arguments. All the rest are passed via the stack.

See also the section on calling conventions ( 6.1 on page 734).
- The C/C++ int type is still 32-bit for compatibility.
- All pointers are 64-bit now.

Since now the number of registers is doubled, the compilers have more space for maneuvering called register allocation. For us this implies that the emitted code containing less number of local variables.
For example, the function that calculates the first S-box of the DES encryption algorithm processes 32/64/128/256 values at once (depending on DES type type (uint32, uint64, SSE2 or AVX)) using the bitslice DES method (read more about this technique here ( 1.29 on page 406)):
```

/*
* Generated S-box files.
* This software may be modified, redistributed, and used for any purpose,
* so long as its origin is acknowledged.
*
* Produced by Matthew Kwan - March 1998
*/
\#ifdef WIN64
\#define DES_type unsigned
int64
\#else
\#define DES_type unsigned int
\#endif
void
s1 (
DES type al,
DES_type a2,
DES type a3,
DES type a4,
DES_type a5,
DES type a6,
DES_type *out1,
DES_type *out2,
DES_type *out3,
DES type *out4
) {
DES type x1, x2, x3, x4, x5, x6, x7, x8;
DES type x9, x10, x11, x12, x13, x14, x15, x16;
DES_type x17, x18, x19, x20, x21, x22, x23, x24;
DES type x25, x26, x27, x28, x29, x30, x31, x32;
DES_type x33, x34, x35, x36, x37, x38, x39, x40;
DES_type x41, x42, x43, x44, x45, x46, x47, x48;

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{189}\) Also available as https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/article/402129/mpx-linux64-abi.pdf
}

DES type \(\times 49, \times 50, \times 51, \times 52, \times 53, \times 54, \times 55, \times 56 ;\)
x1 = a3 \& ~a5;
\(x 2=x 1 \wedge\) a4;
x3 = a3 \& ~a4;
x4 = x3 | a5;
\(x 5=a 6 \& x 4 ;\)
x6 = x2 ^ x5;
x7 = a4 \& ~a5
\(\mathrm{x} 8=\mathrm{a3}\) ^ a 4 ;
x9 = a6 \& ~x8;
x10 = x7 ^ x9;
\(\times 11=a 2 \mid \times 10 ;\)
\(\times 12=x 6\) ^ x11;
x13 = a5 ^ x5;
x14 = x13 \& x8;
x15 = a5 \& ~a4;
x16 = x3 ^ x14;
\(\times 17=a 6 \mid \times 16 ;\)
x18 = x15 ^ x17;
x19 = a2 | x18;
\(\times 20=x 14\) ^ x19;
x21 = al \& x20;
x22 = x12 ^ ~x21;
*out2 ^= x22
x23 = x1 | x5;
x24 = x23 ^ x8;
x25 = x18 \& ~x2;
x26 = a2 \& ~x25;
x27 = x24 ^ x26;
\(\times 28=x 6 \mid x 7 ;\)
x29 = x28 ^ x25;
x30 = x9 ^ x24;
x31 = x18 \& ~x30;
x32 = a2 \& x31;
x33 = x29 ^ x32;
x34 = al \& x33;
x35 = x27 ^ x34;
*out4 ^= x35
x36 = a3 \& x28;
x37 = x18 \& ~x36;
x38 = a2 | x3
\(\times 39=x 37\) ^ x38;
x40 = a3 | x31;
x41 = x24 \& ~x37;
\(\times 42=x 41 \mid \times 3 ;\)
\(\mathrm{x} 43=\mathrm{x} 42 \& \sim \mathrm{a}\);
\(\mathrm{x} 44=\mathrm{x} 40\) ^ x43;
x45 = a1 \& ~x44;
x46 = x39 ^ ~x45;
*out1 ^= x46;
\(x 47=x 33 \& \sim x 9\);
x48 = x47 ^ x39;
x49 = x4 ^ x36;
x50 = x49 \& ~x5;
x51 = x42 | x18;
x52 = x51 ^ a5;
x53 = a2 \& ~x52;
x54 = x50 ^ x53;
x55 = al | x54;
x56 = x48 ^ ~x55;
*out3 ^= x56;

There are a lot of local variables. Of course, not all those going into the local stack. Let's compile it with MSVC 2008 with /0x option:

Listing 1.392: Optimizing MSVC 2008
PUBLIC s1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; Function compile flags: /Ogtpy} \\
\hline TEXT SE & EGMENT & \\
\hline -x6\$ = -20 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline -x3\$ = -16 & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline -x1\$ = -12 & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline -x8\$ = -8 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline -x4\$ = -4 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline _al\$ = 8 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline a2\$ = 12 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline a3\$ = 16 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline x33\$ = 20 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline - \(\times 7\) \$ \(=20\) & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline a4\$ \(=20\) & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline a5\$ \(=24\) & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline tv326 = 28 & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline -x36\$ = 28 & ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline -x28\$ = 28 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline _a6\$ \(=28\) & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline _out1\$ = 32 & 2 ; size = 4 & \\
\hline x24\$ = 36 & ; size = 4 & \\
\hline _out2\$ = 36 & ( size = 4 & \\
\hline out3\$ = 40 & ( ; size = 4 & \\
\hline _out4\$ = 44 & 4 ; size \(=4\) & \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{-_s1 PROC} \\
\hline sub & esp, 20 ; & 00000014H \\
\hline mov & edx, DWORD PTR _a5\$[esp+16] & \\
\hline push & ebx & \\
\hline mov & ebx, DWORD PTR _a4\$[esp+20] & \\
\hline push & ebp & \\
\hline push & esi & \\
\hline mov & esi, DWORD PTR _a3\$[esp+28] & \\
\hline push & edi & \\
\hline mov & edi, ebx & \\
\hline not & edi & \\
\hline mov & ebp, edi & \\
\hline and & edi, DWORD PTR _a5\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline mov & ecx, edx & \\
\hline not & ecx & \\
\hline and & ebp, esi & \\
\hline mov & eax, ecx & \\
\hline and & eax, esi & \\
\hline and & ecx, ebx & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x1\$[esp+36], eax & \\
\hline xor & eax, ebx & \\
\hline mov & esi, ebp & \\
\hline or & esi, edx & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x4\$[esp+36], esi & \\
\hline and & esi, DWORD PTR _a6\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x7\$[esp+32], ecx & \\
\hline mov & edx, esi & \\
\hline xor & edx, eax & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x6\$[esp+36], edx & \\
\hline mov & edx, DWORD PTR _a3\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline xor & edx, ebx & \\
\hline mov & ebx, esi & \\
\hline xor & ebx, DWORD PTR _a5\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x 8 [ \(\mathrm{esp}+36]\), edx & \\
\hline and & ebx, edx & \\
\hline mov & ecx, edx & \\
\hline mov & edx, ebx & \\
\hline xor & edx, ebp & \\
\hline or & edx, DWORD PTR _a6\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline not & ecx & \\
\hline and & ecx, DWORD PTR _a6\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline xor & edx, edi & \\
\hline mov & edi, edx & \\
\hline or & edi, DWORD PTR _a 2 \$ \(e s p+32]\) & \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x \({ }^{\text {S }}\) [esp+36], ebp & \\
\hline mov & ebp, DWORD \({ }^{-}\)PTR _a2\$[esp+32] & \\
\hline xor & edi, ebx & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline and & edi, DWORD PTR _a1\$[esp+32] \\
\hline mov & ebx, ecx \\
\hline xor & ebx, DWORD PTR _x \(7 \$\) [esp+32] \\
\hline not & edi \\
\hline or & ebx, ebp \\
\hline xor & edi, ebx \\
\hline mov & ebx, edi \\
\hline mov & edi, DWORD PTR _out2\$[esp+32] \\
\hline xor & ebx, DWORD PTR [edi] \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline xor & ebx, DWORD PTR _x6\$[esp+36] \\
\hline and & eax, edx \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR [edi], ebx \\
\hline mov & ebx, DWORD PTR _x \(7 \$\) [esp+32] \\
\hline or & ebx, DWORD PTR _x6\$[esp+36] \\
\hline mov & edi, esi \\
\hline or & edi, DWORD PTR _x1\$[esp+36] \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x \(28 \$[\mathrm{esp}+32]\), ebx \\
\hline xor & edi, DWORD PTR x \(8 \$[\mathrm{esp+36]}\) \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x \(24 \$[e s p+32]\), edi \\
\hline xor & edi, ecx \\
\hline not & edi \\
\hline and & edi, edx \\
\hline mov & ebx, edi \\
\hline and & ebx, ebp \\
\hline xor & ebx, DWORD PTR _x28\$[esp+32] \\
\hline xor & ebx, eax \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x \(33 \$[e s p+32], \mathrm{ebx}\) \\
\hline and & ebx, DWORD PTR _al\$[esp+32] \\
\hline and & eax, ebp \\
\hline xor & eax, ebx \\
\hline mov & ebx, DWORD PTR _out4\$[esp+32] \\
\hline xor & eax, DWORD PTR [ ebx ] \\
\hline xor & eax, DWORD PTR _x24\$[esp+32] \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR [ebx], eax \\
\hline mov & eax, DWORD PTR _x \(28 \$[\mathrm{esp+32}]\) \\
\hline and & eax, DWORD PTR _a3\$[esp+32] \\
\hline mov & ebx, DWORD PTR _x 3 [ \(\mathrm{esp}+36]\) \\
\hline or & edi, DWORD PTR a3\$[esp+32] \\
\hline mov & DWORD PTR _x \(36 \$[\mathrm{esp}+32]\), eax \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline and & eax, edx \\
\hline or & ebx, ebp \\
\hline xor & ebx, eax \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline and & eax, DWORD PTR _x \(24 \$[\mathrm{esp}+32]\) \\
\hline not & ebp \\
\hline or & eax, DWORD PTR _x3\$[esp+36] \\
\hline not & esi \\
\hline and & ebp, eax \\
\hline or & eax, edx \\
\hline xor & eax, DWORD PTR _a5\$[esp+32] \\
\hline mov & edx, DWORD PTR _x \(36 \$[e s p+32]\) \\
\hline xor & edx, DWORD PTR _x 4 [ \(e s p+36]\) \\
\hline xor & ebp, edi \\
\hline mov & edi, DWORD PTR _out1\$[esp+32] \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline and & eax, DWORD PTR _a2\$[esp+32] \\
\hline not & ebp \\
\hline and & ebp, DWORD PTR _al\$[esp+32] \\
\hline and & edx, esi \\
\hline xor & eax, edx \\
\hline or & eax, DWORD PTR _al\$[esp+32] \\
\hline not & ebp \\
\hline xor & ebp, DWORD PTR [edi] \\
\hline not & ecx \\
\hline and & ecx, DWORD PTR _x \(33 \$[e s p+32]\) \\
\hline xor & ebp, ebx \\
\hline not & eax \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

    mov DWORD PTR [edi], ebp
    xor eax, ecx
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _out3$[esp+32]
    xor eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
    pop edi
    pop esi
    xor eax, ebx
    pop ebp
    mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
    pop ebx
    add esp, 20
    ret 0
    s1
ENDP

```

5 variables were allocated in the local stack by the compiler.
Now let's try the same thing in the 64-bit version of MSVC 2008:
Listing 1.393: Optimizing MSVC 2008
```

a1\$ = 56
a2\$ = 64
a3\$ = 72
a4\$ = 80
x36$1$ = 88
a5\$ = 88
a6\$ = 96
out1\$ = 104
out2\$ = 112
out3\$ = 120
out4\$ = 128
s1 PROC
$LN3:
    mov QWORD PTR [rsp+24], rbx
    mov QWORD PTR [rsp+32], rbp
    mov QWORD PTR [rsp+16], rdx
    mov QWORD PTR [rsp+8], rcx
    push rsi
    push rdi
    push r12
    push r13
    push r14
    push r15
    mov r15, QWORD PTR a5$[rsp]
mov rcx, QWORD PTR a6\$[rsp]
mov rbp, r8
mov r10, r9
mov rax, rl5
mov rdx, rbp
not rax
xor rdx, r9
not r10
mov rll, rax
and rax, r9
mov rsi, r10
mov QWORD PTR x36$1$[rsp], rax
and rl1, r8
and rsi, r8
and r10, r15
mov r13, rdx
mov rbx, rl1
xor rbx, r9
mov r9, QWORD PTR a2\$[rsp]
mov r12, rsi
or r12, r15
not r13
and r13, rcx
mov rl4, rl2
and r14, rcx
mov rax, r14
mov r8, r14

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline xor & r8, rbx \\
\hline xor & rax, r15 \\
\hline not & rbx \\
\hline and & rax, rdx \\
\hline mov & rdi, rax \\
\hline xor & rdi, rsi \\
\hline or & rdi, rcx \\
\hline xor & rdi, r10 \\
\hline and & rbx, rdi \\
\hline mov & rcx, rdi \\
\hline or & rcx, r9 \\
\hline xor & rcx, rax \\
\hline mov & rax, r13 \\
\hline xor & rax, QWORD PTR x \(36 \$ 1 \$[r s p]\) \\
\hline and & rcx, QWORD PTR al\$[rsp] \\
\hline or & rax, r9 \\
\hline not & rcx \\
\hline xor & rcx, rax \\
\hline mov & rax, QWORD PTR out2\$[rsp] \\
\hline xor & rcx, QWORD PTR [rax] \\
\hline xor & rcx, r8 \\
\hline mov & QWORD PTR [rax], rcx \\
\hline mov & rax, QWORD PTR x \(36 \$ 1 \$[r s p]\) \\
\hline mov & rcx, r14 \\
\hline or & rax, r8 \\
\hline or & rcx, rll \\
\hline mov & r11, r9 \\
\hline xor & rcx, rdx \\
\hline mov & QWORD PTR x \(361 \$[r s p]\), rax \\
\hline mov & r8, rsi \\
\hline mov & rdx, rcx \\
\hline xor & rdx, r13 \\
\hline not & rdx \\
\hline and & rdx, rdi \\
\hline mov & r10, rdx \\
\hline and & r10, r9 \\
\hline xor & r10, rax \\
\hline xor & r10, rbx \\
\hline not & rbx \\
\hline and & rbx, r9 \\
\hline mov & rax, r10 \\
\hline and & rax, QWORD PTR a1\$[rsp] \\
\hline xor & rbx, rax \\
\hline mov & rax, QWORD PTR out4\$[rsp] \\
\hline xor & rbx, QWORD PTR [rax] \\
\hline xor & rbx, rcx \\
\hline mov & QWORD PTR [rax], rbx \\
\hline mov & rbx, QWORD PTR x \(36 \$ 1 \$[r s p]\) \\
\hline and & rbx, rbp \\
\hline mov & r9, rbx \\
\hline not & r9 \\
\hline and & r9, rdi \\
\hline or & r8, r11 \\
\hline mov & rax, QWORD PTR out1\$[rsp] \\
\hline xor & r8, r9 \\
\hline not & r9 \\
\hline and & r9, rcx \\
\hline or & rdx, rbp \\
\hline mov & rbp, QWORD PTR [rsp+80] \\
\hline or & r9, rsi \\
\hline xor & rbx, r12 \\
\hline mov & rcx, rll \\
\hline not & rcx \\
\hline not & r14 \\
\hline not & r13 \\
\hline and & rcx, r9 \\
\hline or & r9, rdi \\
\hline and & rbx, r14 \\
\hline xor & r9, r15 \\
\hline xor & rcx, rdx \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


Nothing was allocated in the local stack by the compiler, x36 is synonym for a5.
By the way, there are CPUs with much more GPR's, e.g. Itanium (128 registers).

\subsection*{1.30.2 ARM}

64-bit instructions appeared in ARMv8.

\subsection*{1.30.3 Float point numbers}

How floating point numbers are processed in \(x 86-64\) is explained here: 1.31 on the next page.

\subsection*{1.30.4 64-bit architecture criticism}

Some people has irritation sometimes: now one needs twice as much memory for storing pointers, including cache memory, despite the fact that x64 CPUs can address only 48 bits of external RAM.

Pointers have gone out of favor to the point now where I had to flame about it because on my 64-bit computer that I have here, if I really care about using the capability of my machine I find that I'd better not use pointers because I have a machine that has 64-bit registers but it only has 2 gigabytes of RAM. So a pointer never has more than 32 significant bits to it. But every time I use a pointer it's costing me 64 bits and that doubles the size of my data structure. Worse, it goes into the cache and half of my cache is gone and that costs cash-cache is expensive.

So if I'm really trying to push the envelope now, I have to use arrays instead of pointers. I make complicated macros so that it looks like I'm using pointers, but I'm not really.

\section*{( Donald Knuth in "Coders at Work: Reflections on the Craft of Programming ". )}

Some people make their own memory allocators. It's interesting to know about CryptoMiniSat \({ }^{190}\) case. This program rarely uses more than 4 GiB of RAM, but it uses pointers heavily. So it requires less memory on 32-bit architecture than on 64-bit one. To mitigate this problem, author made his own allocator (in

\footnotetext{
190https://github.com/msoos/cryptominisat/
}

\subsection*{1.31 Working with floating point numbers using SIMD}

Of course, the FPU has remained in x86-compatible processors when the SIMD extensions were added.
The SIMD extensions (SSE2) offer an easier way to work with floating-point numbers.
The number format remains the same (IEEE 754).
So, modern compilers (including those generating for x86-64) usually use SIMD instructions instead of FPU ones.

It can be said that it's good news, because it's easier to work with them.
We are going to reuse the examples from the FPU section here: 1.19 on page 218.

\subsection*{1.31.1 Simple example}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
double f (double a, double b)
{
return a/3.14 + b*4.1;
};
int main()
{
printf ("%f\n", f(1.2, 3.4));
};

```
x64

Listing 1.394: Optimizing MSVC 2012 x64
```

real@4010666666666666 DQ 04010666666666666r ; 4.1
real@40091eb851eb851f DQ 040091eb851eb851fr ; 3.14
a\$ = 8
b\$ = 16
f PROC
divsd xmm0, QWORD PTR real@40091eb851eb851f
mulsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@4010666666666666
addsd xmm0, xmm1
ret 0
f ENDP

```

The input floating point values are passed in the XMM0-ХMM3 registers, all the rest-via the stack \({ }^{191}\). \(a\) is passed in XMM0, \(b\)-via XMM1.

The XMM-registers are 128-bit (as we know from the section about SIMD: 1.29 on page 406), but the double values are 64 bit, so only lower register half is used.
DIVSD is an SSE-instruction that stands for "Divide Scalar Double-Precision Floating-Point Values", it just divides one value of type double by another, stored in the lower halves of operands.

The constants are encoded by compiler in IEEE 754 format.
MULSD and ADDSD work just as the same, but do multiplication and addition.
The result of the function's execution in type double is left in the in XMM0 register.

That is how non-optimizing MSVC works:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{191}\) MSDN: Parameter Passing
}
```

    real@4010666666666666 DQ 04010666666666666r ; 4.1
    real@40091eb851eb851f DQ 040091eb851eb851fr ; 3.14
    a\$ = 8
b\$ = 16
f PROC
movsdx QWORD PTR [rsp+16], xmm1
movsdx QWORD PTR [rsp+8], xmm0
movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR a$[rsp]
    divsd xmm0, QWORD PTR real@40091eb851eb851f
    movsdx xmm1, QWORD PTR \overline{b$[rsp]}
mulsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@4010666666666666
addsd xmm0, xmm1
ret 0
f ENDP

```

Slightly redundant. The input arguments are saved in the "shadow space" ( 1.10 .2 on page 100), but only their lower register halves, i.e., only 64-bit values of type double. GCC produces the same code.

\section*{\(\mathbf{x 8 6}\)}

Let's also compile this example for \(\times 86\). Despite the fact it's generating for \(\times 86\), MSVC 2012 uses SSE2 instructions:

Listing 1.396: Non-optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 86\)
```

tv70 = -8 ; size = 8
a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
f PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 8
movsd xmm0, QWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    divsd xmm0, QWORD PTR __real@40091eb851eb851f
    movsd xmm1, QWORD PTR b$[ebp]
mulsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@4010666666666666
addsd xmm0, xmm1
movsd QWORD PTR tv70[ebp], xmm0
fld QWORD PTR tv70[ebp]
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
f ENDP

```

Listing 1.397: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 86\)
```

tv67 = 8 ; size = 8
a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
f PROC
movsd xmm1, QWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    divsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@40091eb851eb851f
    movsd xmm0, QWORD PTR b$[esp-4]
mulsd xmm0, QWORD PTR __real@4010666666666666
addsd xmm1, xmm0
movsd QWORD PTR tv67[esp-4], xmm1
fld QWORD PTR tv67[esp-4]
ret 0
f ENDP

```

It's almost the same code, however, there are some differences related to calling conventions: 1) the arguments are passed not in XMM registers, but in the stack, like in the FPU examples ( 1.19 on page 218); 2) the result of the function is returned in ST(0) - in order to do so, it's copied (through local variable tv) from one of the XMM registers to ST(0).


Figure 1.113: OllyDbg: MOVSD loads the value of \(a\) into XMM1


Figure 1.114: OllyDbg: DIVSD calculated quotient and stored it in XMM1


Figure 1.115: OllyDbg: MULSD calculated product and stored it in XMM0


Figure 1.116: OllyDbg: ADDSD adds value in XMM0 to XMM1


Figure 1.117: OllyDbg: FLD left function result in ST(0)

We see that OllyDbg shows the XMM registers as pairs of double numbers, but only the lower part is used. Apparently, OllyDbg shows them in that format because the SSE2 instructions (suffixed with - SD) are executed right now.

But of course, it's possible to switch the register format and to see their contents as 4 float-numbers or just as 16 bytes.

\subsection*{1.31.2 Passing floating point number via arguments}
```

\#include <math.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main ()
{
printf ("32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf\n", pow (32.01,1.54));
return 0;
}

```

They are passed in the lower halves of the XMM0-XMM3 registers.
Listing 1.398: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)
```

$SG1354 DB '32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf', 0aH, 00H
__real@40400147ae147ae1 DQ 040400147ae147ae1r ; 32.01
__real@3ff8a3d70a3d70a4 DQ 03ff8a3d70a3d70a4r ; 1.54
main PROC
    sub rsp, 40 ; 00000028H
    movsdx xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@3ff8a3d70a3d70a4
    movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR __real@40400147ae147ae1
    call pow
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG1354
movaps xmm1, xmm0
movd rdx, xmm1
call printf
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 40 ; 00000028H
ret 0
main ENDP

```

There is no MOVSDX instruction in Intel and AMD manuals ( 12.1 .4 on page 1013), there it is called just MOVSD. So there are two instructions sharing the same name in \(x 86\) (about the other see: . 1.6 on page 1029). Apparently, Microsoft developers wanted to get rid of the mess, so they renamed it to MOVSDX. It just loads a value into the lower half of a XMM register.
pow() takes arguments from XMM0 and XMM1, and returns result in XMM0. It is then moved to RDX for printf(). Why? Maybe because printf()-is a variable arguments function?

Listing 1.399: Optimizing GCC 4.4.6 x64
```

.LC2:
.string "32.01 ^ 1.54 = %lf\n"
main:
sub rsp, 8
movsd xmm1, QWORD PTR .LC0[rip]
movsd xmm0, QWORD PTR .LC1[rip]
call pow
; result is now in XMM0
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC2
mov eax, 1 ; number of vector registers passed
call printf
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 8
ret
.LC0:
.long 171798692
.long 1073259479
.LC1:
.long 2920577761
.long 1077936455

```

GCC generates clearer output. The value for printf() is passed in XMM0. By the way, here is a case when 1 is written into EAX for printf() -this implies that one argument will be passed in vector registers, just

\subsection*{1.31.3 Comparison example}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
double d_max (double a, double b)
{
if (a>b)
return a;
return b;
};
int main()
{
printf ("%f\n", d_max (1.2, 3.4));
printf ("%f\n", d_max (5.6, -4));
};

```
x64

Listing 1.400: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)
```

a\$ = 8
b\$ = 16
d_max PROC
comisd xmm0, xmm1
ja SHORT \$LN2@d_max
movaps xmm0, xmm1
\$LN2@d_max:
fatret 0
d_max ENDP

```

Optimizing MSVC generates a code very easy to understand.
COMISD is "Compare Scalar Ordered Double-Precision Floating-Point Values and Set EFLAGS". Essentially, that is what it does.

Non-optimizing MSVC generates more redundant code, but it is still not hard to understand:
Listing 1.401: MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)
```

a\$ = 8
b\$ = 16
d_max PROC
movsdx QWORD PTR [rsp+16], xmm1
movsdx QWORD PTR [rsp+8], xmm0
movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR a$[rsp]
    comisd xmm0, QWORD PTR b$[rsp]
jbe SHORT $LN1@d max
    movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR a$[rsp]
jmp SHORT \$LN2@d_max
$LN1@d_max:
    movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR b$[rsp]
\$LN2@d_max:
fatret 0
d_max ENDP

```

However, GCC 4.4.6 did more optimizations and used the MAXSD ("Return Maximum Scalar Double-Precision Floating-Point Value") instruction, which just choose the maximum value!

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{192}\) Also available as https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/article/402129/mpx-linux64-abi.pdf
}
```

d_max:
maxsd xmm0, xmm1
ret

```

Let's compile this example in MSVC 2012 with optimization turned on:
Listing 1.403: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 86\)
```

_a\$ = 8 ; size = 8
b\$ = 16 ; size = 8
d_max PROC
movsd xmm0, QWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
    comisd xmm0, QWORD PTR _b$[esp-4]
jbe SHORT $LN1@d_max
    fld QWORD PTR a$[esp-4]
ret 0
$LN1@d_max:
    fld QWORD PTR _b$[esp-4]
ret 0
d_max ENDP

```

Almost the same, but the values of \(a\) and \(b\) are taken from the stack and the function result is left in \(\mathrm{ST}(0)\). If we load this example in OllyDbg, we can see how the COMISD instruction compares values and sets/clears the CF and PF flags:


Figure 1.118: OllyDbg: COMISD changed CF and PF flags

\subsection*{1.31.4 Calculating machine epsilon: x64 and SIMD}

Let's revisit the "calculating machine epsilon" example for double listing.1.25.2.
Now we compile it for \(\times 64\) :
```

v\$ = 8
calculate_machine_epsilon PROC
movsdx QWORD PTR v$[rsp], xmm0
    movaps xmml, xmm0
    inc QWORD PTR v$[rsp]
movsdx xmm0, QWORD PTR v\$[rsp]
subsd xmm0, xmm1
ret 0
calculate_machine_epsilon ENDP

```

There is no way to add 1 to a value in 128 -bit XMM register, so it must be placed into memory.
There is, however, the ADDSD instruction (Add Scalar Double-Precision Floating-Point Values) which can add a value to the lowest 64-bit half of a XMM register while ignoring the higher one, but MSVC 2012 probably is not that good yet \({ }^{193}\).

Nevertheless, the value is then reloaded to a XMM register and subtraction occurs. SUBSD is "Subtract Scalar Double-Precision Floating-Point Values", i.e., it operates on the lower 64-bit part of 128-bit XMM register. The result is returned in the XMM0 register.

\subsection*{1.31.5 Pseudo-random number generator example revisited}

Let's revisit "pseudo-random number generator example" example listing.1.25.1.
If we compile this in MSVC 2012, it will use the SIMD instructions for the FPU.
Listing 1.405: Optimizing MSVC 2012
```

real@3f800000 DD 03f800000r ; 1
tv128 = -4
tmp\$ = -4
?ffloat_rand@@YAMXZ PROC
push ecx
call ?my_rand@@YAIXZ
; EAX=pseudorandom value
and eax, 8388607 ; 007fffffH
or eax, 1065353216 ; 3f8000000H
; EAX=pseudorandom value \& 0x007fffff | 0x3f800000
; store it into local stack:
mov DWORD PTR tmp$[esp+4], eax
; reload it as float point number:
    movss xmm0, DWORD PTR _tmp$[esp+4]
; subtract 1.0:
subss xmm0, DWORD PTR real@3f800000
; move value to ST0 by placing it in temporary variable...
movss DWORD PTR tv128[esp+4], xmm0
; ... and reloading it into ST0:
fld DWORD PTR tv128[esp+4]
pop ecx
ret 0
?float_rand@@YAMXZ ENDP

```

All instructions have the -SS suffix, which stands for "Scalar Single".
"Scalar" implies that only one value is stored in the register.
"Single" \({ }^{194}\) stands for float data type.

\subsection*{1.31.6 Summary}

Only the lower half of XMM registers is used in all examples here, to store number in IEEE 754 format.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{193}\) As an exercise, you may try to rework this code to eliminate the usage of the local stack.
\({ }^{194}\) I.e., single precision.
}

Essentially, all instructions prefixed by -SD ("Scalar Double-Precision")—are instructions working with floating point numbers in IEEE 754 format, stored in the lower 64-bit half of a XMM register.

And it is easier than in the FPU, probably because the SIMD extensions were evolved in a less chaotic way than the FPU ones in the past. The stack register model is not used.

If you would try to replace double with float
in these examples, the same instructions will be used, but prefixed with - SS ("Scalar Single-Precision"), for example, MOVSS, COMISS, ADDSS, etc.
"Scalar" implies that the SIMD register containing only one value instead of several.
Instructions working with several values in a register simultaneously have "Packed" in their name.
Needless to say, the SSE2 instructions work with 64-bit IEEE 754 numbers (double), while the internal representation of the floating-point numbers in FPU is 80-bit numbers.
Hence, the FPU may produce less round-off errors and as a consequence, FPU may give more precise calculation results.

\subsection*{1.32 ARM-specific details}

\subsection*{1.32.1 Number sign (\#) before number}

The Keil compiler, IDA and objdump precede all numbers with the "\#" number sign, for example: listing.1.16.1.
But when GCC 4.9 generates assembly language output, it doesn't, for example: listing.3.15.
The ARM listings in this book are somewhat mixed.
It's hard to say, which method is right. Supposedly, one has to obey the rules accepted in environment he/she works in.

\subsection*{1.32.2 Addressing modes}

This instruction is possible in ARM64:
```

ldr x0, [x29,24]

```

This means add 24 to the value in X29 and load the value from this address.
Please note that 24 is inside the brackets. The meaning is different if the number is outside the brackets:
```

ldr w4, [x1],28

```

This means load the value at the address in X1, then add 28 to X 1 .
ARM allows you to add or subtract a constant to/from the address used for loading.
And it's possible to do that both before and after loading.
There is no such addressing mode in x86, but it is present in some other processors, even on PDP-11.
There is a legend that the pre-increment, post-increment, pre-decrement and post-decrement modes in PDP-11,
were "guilty" for the appearance of such C language (which developed on PDP-11) constructs as *ptr++, *++ptr, *ptr--, *--ptr.

By the way, this is one of the hard to memorize C features. This is how it is:
1.32. ARM-SPECIFIC DETAILS
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|l|}
\hline C term & ARM term & C statement & how it works \\
\hline Post-increment & post-indexed addressing & *ptr++ & \begin{tabular}{l} 
use *ptr value, \\
then increment \\
ptr pointer
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Post-decrement & post-indexed addressing & *ptr-- & \begin{tabular}{l} 
use *ptr value, \\
then decrement \\
ptr pointer
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Pre-increment & pre-indexed addressing & \(*_{++ \text {ptr }}^{\text {increment ptr pointer, }}\) \\
then use \\
*ptr value
\end{tabular}\(|\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
decrement ptr pointer, \\
then use \\
*ptr value
\end{tabular}

Pre-indexing is marked with an exclamation mark in the ARM assembly language. For example, see line 2 in listing.1.29.
Dennis Ritchie (one of the creators of the C language) mentioned that it presumably was invented by Ken Thompson (another C creator) because this processor feature was present in PDP-7 \({ }^{195}\), [Dennis M. Ritchie, The development of the C language, (1993)] \({ }^{196}\).

Thus, C language compilers may use it, if it is present on the target processor.
That's very convenient for array processing.

\subsection*{1.32.3 Loading a constant into a register}

\section*{32-bit ARM}

As we already know, all instructions have a length of 4 bytes in ARM mode and 2 bytes in Thumb mode. Then how can we load a 32-bit value into a register, if it's not possible to encode it in one instruction? Let's try:
```

unsigned int f()
{
return 0x12345678;
};

```

Listing 1.406: GCC 4.6.3-O3 ARM mode
```

f:
ldr llor.L2
.L2:
.word 305419896 ; 0x12345678

```

So, the \(0 \times 12345678\) value is just stored aside in memory and loaded if needed.
But it's possible to get rid of the additional memory access.
Listing 1.407: GCC 4.6.3-O3 -march=armv7-a (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline movw & r0, \#22136 & ; \(0 \times 5678\) \\
movt & r0, \#4660 & ; \(0 \times 1234\) \\
bx & lr &
\end{tabular}

We see that the value is loaded into the register by parts, the lower part first (using MOVW), then the higher (using MOVT).

This implies that 2 instructions are necessary in ARM mode for loading a 32-bit value into a register. It's not a real problem, because in fact there are not many constants in real code (except of 0 and 1).

Does it mean that the two-instruction version is slower than one-instruction version?
Doubtfully. Most likely, modern ARM processors are able to detect such sequences and execute them fast.
On the other hand, IDA is able to detect such patterns in the code and disassembles this function as:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{195}\) http://yurichev.com/mirrors/C/c_dmr_postincrement.txt
\({ }^{196}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17264
}
```

MOV R0, 0x12345678
BX LR

```
```

ARM64
uint64_t f()
{
return 0x12345678ABCDEF01;
};

```

Listing 1.408: GCC 4.9.1-O3
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\hline mov & x0, & 61185 & ; 0xef01 \\
movk & x0, & \(0 \times a b c d\), & lsl 16 \\
movk & x0, & \(0 \times 5678\), & lsl 32 \\
movk & x0, & \(0 \times 1234\), & lsl 48 \\
ret & & &
\end{tabular}

MOVK stands for "MOV Keep", i.e., it writes a 16-bit value into the register, not touching the rest of the bits. The LSL suffix shifts left the value by 16,32 and 48 bits at each step. The shifting is done before loading.

This implies that 4 instructions are necessary to load a 64-bit value into a register.

\section*{Storing floating-point number into register}

It's possible to store a floating-point number into a D-register using only one instruction.
For example:
```

double a()
{
return 1.5;
};

```

Listing 1.409: GCC 4.9.1-O3 + objdump
```

0000000000000000 <a>:
0: le6f1000 fmov d0, \#1.500000000000000000e+000
4: d65f03c0 ret

```

The number 1.5 was indeed encoded in a 32-bit instruction. But how?
In ARM64, there are 8 bits in the FMOV instruction for encoding some floating-point numbers.
The algorithm is called VFPExpandImm() in [ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv8, for ARMv8-A architecture profile, (2013)] \({ }^{197}\). This is also called minifloat \({ }^{198}\).

We can try different values: the compiler is able to encode 30.0 and 31.0 , but it couldn't encode 32.0 , as 8 bytes have to be allocated for this number in the IEEE 754 format:
```

double a()
{
return 32;
};

```

Listing 1.410: GCC 4.9.1-O3
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
a: & & \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
ldr \\
ret
\end{tabular} & d0, . LC0 \\
. LC0: & & \\
& \begin{tabular}{l}
.word \\
.word
\end{tabular} & 1077936128
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{197}\) Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/ARMv8-A_Architecture_Reference_Manual_(Issue_A.a).pdf
198 wikipedia
}

\subsection*{1.32.4 Relocs in ARM64}

As we know, there are 4-byte instructions in ARM64, so it is impossible to write a large number into a register using a single instruction.

Nevertheless, an executable image can be loaded at any random address in memory, so that's why relocs exists. Read more about them (in relation to Win32 PE): 6.5.2 on page 759.

The address is formed using the ADRP and ADD instruction pair in ARM64.
The first loads a 4 KiB -page address and the second one adds the remainder. Let's compile the example from "Hello, world!" (listing.1.8) in GCC (Linaro) 4.9 under win32:

Listing 1.411: GCC (Linaro) 4.9 and objdump of object file
```

...>aarch64-linux-gnu-gcc.exe hw.c -c
...>aarch64-linux-gnu-objdump.exe -d hw.o
...
0000000000000000 <main>:
0: a9bf7bfd stp x29, x30, [sp,\#-16]!
4: 910003fd mov x29, sp
8: 90000000 adrp x0, 0 <main>
c: 91000000 add x0, x0, \#0x0
10: 94000000 bl 0 <printf>
14: 52800000 mov w0, \#0x0 // \#0
18: a8c17bfd ldp x29, x30, [sp],\#16
1c: d65f03c0 ret
...>aarch64-linux-gnu-objdump.exe -r hw.o
...
RELOCATION RECORDS FOR [.text]:
OFFSET TYPE VALUE
0000000000000008 R_AARCH64_ADR_PREL_PG_HI21 .rodata
000000000000000c R AARCH64 ADD ABS L012 NC .rodata
0000000000000010 R AARCH64 CALL26 printf

```

So there are 3 relocs in this object file.
- The first one takes the page address, cuts the lowest 12 bits and writes the remaining high 21 bits to the ADRP instruction's bit fields. This is because we don't need to encode the low 12 bits, and the ADRP instruction has space only for 21 bits.
- The second one puts the 12 bits of the address relative to the page start into the ADD instruction's bit fields.
- The last, 26 -bit one, is applied to the instruction at address \(0 x 10\) where the jump to the printf() function is.

All ARM64 (and in ARM in ARM mode) instruction addresses have zeros in the two lowest bits (because all instructions have a size of 4 bytes), so one have to encode only the highest 26 bits of 28-bit address space ( \(\pm 128 \mathrm{MB}\) ).

There are no such relocs in the executable file: because it's known where the "Hello!" string is located, in which page, and the address of puts() is also known.

So there are values set already in the ADRP, ADD and BL instructions (the linker has written them while linking):

Listing 1.412: objdump of executable file
\begin{tabular}{|cc} 
00000000000400590 <main>: \\
400590: & a9bf7bfd \\
400594: & \(910003 f d\) \\
400598: & 90000000 \\
40059c: & 91192000 \\
4005a0: & \(97 f f f f a 0\) \\
4005a4: & 52800000 \\
4005a8: & a8c17bfd
\end{tabular}
stp x29, x30, [sp,\#-16]!
    400594: 910003fd
    400598: 90000000
mov \(\quad x 29, \mathrm{sp}\)
adrp x0, 400000 <_init-0x3b8>
add \(x 0, \times 0, \# 0 \times 6 \overline{4} 8\)
    4005a0: 97ffffa0
    4005a8: a8c17bfd
bl 400420 <puts@plt>
mov w0, \#0x0 // \#0
ldp x29, x30, [sp],\#16
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 4005ac: & d65f03c0 & ret \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{Contents of section . rodata:
\(400640010002000000000048656 c 6 c\) 6f210000}} \\
\hline & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

As an example, let's try to disassemble the BL instruction manually.
\(0 x 97 \mathrm{ffffa} 0\) is \(0 b 10010111111111111111111110100000\). According to [ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv8, for ARMv8-A architecture profile, (2013)C5.6.26], imm26 is the last 26 bits:
imm \(26=0 b 11111111111111111110100000\). It is \(0 \times 3 F F F F A 0\), but the MSB is 1 , so the number is negative, and we can convert it manually to convenient form for us. By the rules of negation ( 2.2 on page 453 ), just invert all bits: (it is \(0 \mathrm{~b} 1011111=0 \times 5 \mathrm{~F})\), and add \(1(0 \times 5 \mathrm{~F}+1=0 \times 60)\). So the number in signed form is \(-0 \times 60\). Let's multiply \(-0 x 60\) by 4 (because address stored in opcode is divided by 4): it is \(-0 x 180\). Now let's calculate destination address: \(0 \times 4005 \mathrm{a} 0+(-0 \times 180)=0 \times 400420\) (please note: we consider the address of the BL instruction, not the current value of PC, which may be different!). So the destination address is \(0 \times 400420\).

More about ARM64-related relocs: [ELF for the ARM 64-bit Architecture (AArch64), (2013)] \({ }^{199}\).

\subsection*{1.33 MIPS-specific details}

\subsection*{1.33.1 Loading a 32-bit constant into register}
```

unsigned int f()
{
return 0x12345678;
};

```

All instructions in MIPS, just like ARM, have a size of 32-bit, so it's not possible to embed a 32-bit constant into one instruction.

So one have to use at least two instructions: the first loads the high part of the 32-bit number and the second one applies an OR operation, which effectively sets the low 16-bit part of the target register:

Listing 1.413: GCC 4.4.5-O3 (assembly output)
\begin{tabular}{lll|}
\hline li & \(\$ 2,305397760\) & \(\# 0 \times 12340000\) \\
\(j\) & \(\$ 31\) & \\
ori & \(\$ 2, \$ 2,0 \times 5678\) & ; branch delay slot \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

IDA is fully aware of such frequently encountered code patterns, so, for convenience it shows the last ORI instruction as the LI pseudo instruction, which allegedly loads a full 32-bit number into the \(\$ \mathrm{~V} 0\) register.

Listing 1.414: GCC 4.4.5-O3 (IDA)
\begin{tabular}{ll|}
\hline lui & \(\$ v 0,0 \times 1234\) \\
jr & \(\$ r a\) \\
li & \(\$ v 0,0 \times 12345678\); branch delay slot \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The GCC assembly output has the LI pseudo instruction, but in fact, LUI ("Load Upper Immediate") is there, which stores a 16-bit value into the high part of the register.

Let's see in objdump output:
Listing 1.415: objdump
\begin{tabular}{ccll}
\hline \(00000000<f>:\) & & \\
\(0:\) & \(3 c 021234\) & lui & \(v 0,0 \times 1234\) \\
\(4:\) & \(03 e 00008\) & jr & ra \\
8: & 34425678 & ori & \(v 0, v 0,0 \times 5678\)
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{199}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17288
}
```

unsigned int global_var=0x12345678;
unsigned int f2()
{
};

```

This is slightly different: LUI loads upper 16-bit from global_var into \(\$ 2\) (or \$V0) and then LW loads lower 16 -bits summing it with the contents of \(\$ 2\) :

Listing 1.416: GCC 4.4.5-O3 (assembly output)
```

f2:
lui \$2,%hi(global_var)
lw \$2,%lo(global_var)(\$2)
j \$31
nop ; branch delay slot
global_var:
.word 305419896

```

IDA is fully aware of often used LUI/LW instruction pair, so it coalesces both into a single LW instruction:
Listing 1.417: GCC 4.4.5-O3 (IDA)

objdump's output is the same as GCC's assembly output. Let's also dump relocs of the object file:
Listing 1.418: objdump
```

objdump -D filename.o
...
0000000c <f2>:
c: 3c020000 lui v0,0x0
10: 8c420000 lw v0,0(v0)
14: 03e00008 jr ra
18: 00200825 move at,at ; branch delay slot
1c: 00200825 move at,at
Disassembly of section .data:
00000000 <global_var>:
0: 12345678 beq s1,s4,159e4 <f2+0x159d8>
objdump -r filename.o
...
RELOCATION RECORDS FOR [.text]:
OFFSET TYPE VALUE
0000000c R_MIPS_HI16 global_var
00000010 R_MIPS_LO16 global_var

```

We can see that address of global_var is to be written right into LUI and LW instructions during executable file loading: high 16-bit part of global_var goes into the first one (LUI), lower 16-bit part goes into the second one (LW).

\subsection*{1.33.2 Further reading about MIPS}

Dominic Sweetman, See MIPS Run, Second Edition, (2010).

\section*{Chapter 2}

\section*{Important fundamentals}


\subsection*{2.1 Integral datatypes}

Integral datatype is a type for a value which can be converted to number. These are numbers, enumerations, booleans.

\subsection*{2.1.1 Bit}

Obvious usage for bits are boolean values: 0 for false and 1 for true.
Set of booleans can be packed into word: there will be 32 booleans in 32-bit word, etc. This way is called bitmap or bitfield.
But it has obvious overhead: a bit jiggling, isolating, etc. While using word (or int type) for boolean variable is not economic, but highly efficient.
In C/C++ environment, 0 is for false and any non-zero value is for true. For example:
```

if (1234)
printf ("this will always be executed\n");
else
printf ("this will never\n");

```

This is popular way of enumerating characters in a C-string:
```

char *input=...;
while(*input) // execute body if *input character is non-zero
{
// do something with *input
input++;
};

```

\subsection*{2.1.2 Nibble AKA nybble}

AKA half-byte, tetrade. Equals to 4 bits.
All these terms are still in use today.

\section*{Binary-coded decimal (BCD \({ }^{1}\) )}

4-bit nibbles were used in 4-bit CPUs like legendary Intel 4004 (used in calculators).
It's interesting to know that there was binary-coded decimal (BCD) way of representing decimal digit using 4 bits. Decimal 0 is represented as 0b0000, decimal 9 as \(0 b 1001\) and higher values are not used. Decimal 1234 is represented as \(0 \times 1234\). Of course, this way is not economical.
Nevertheless, it has one advantage: decimal to BCD-packed number conversion and back is extremely easy. BCD-numbers can be added, subtracted, etc., but an additional correction is needed. x86 CPUs has rare instructions for that: AAA/DAA (adjust after addition), AAS/DAS (adjust after subtraction), AAM (after multiplication), AAD (after division).
The need for CPUs to support BCD numbers is a reason why half-carry flag (on 8080/Z80) and auxiliary flag (AF on x86) are exist: this is carry-flag generated after proceeding of lower 4 bits. The flag is then used for adjustment instructions.
The fact of easy conversion had led to popularity of [Peter Abel, IBM PC assembly language and programming (1987)] book. But aside of this book, the author of these notes never seen BCD numbers in practice, except for magic numbers ( 5.6 .1 on page 712), like when someone's birthday is encoded like \(0 \times 19791011\)-this is indeed packed BCD number.

BCD instructions in x86 were often used for other purposes, especially in undocumented ways, for example:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{1}\) Binary-Coded Decimal
}
```

cmp al,10
sbb al,69h
das

```

This obscure code converts number in \(0 . .15\) range into ASCII character '0'..'9', 'A'..'F'.

\section*{Z80}

Z80 was clone of 8-bit Intel 8080 CPU, and because of space constraints, it has 4-bit ALU, i.e., each operation over two 8-bit numbers had to be proceeded in two steps. One side-effect of this was easy and natural generation of half-carry flag.

\subsection*{2.1.3 Byte}

Byte is primarily used for character storage. 8-bit bytes were not common as today. Punched tapes for teletypes had 5 and 6 possible holes, this is 5 or 6 bits for byte.

To emphasize the fact the byte has 8 bits, byte is sometimes called octet: at least fetchmail uses this terminology.
9-bit bytes used to exist in 36-bit architectures: 49-bit bytes would fit in a single word. Probably because of this fact, \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) standard tells that char has to have a room for at least 8 bits, but more bits are allowable.

For example, in the early \(C\) language manual \({ }^{2}\), we can find this:
```

char one byte character (PDP-11, IBM360: 8 bits; H6070: 9 bits)

```

By H6070 they probably meant Honeywell 6070, with 36-bit words.

\section*{Standard ASCII table}

7-bit ASCII table is standard, which has only 128 possible characters. Early E-Mail transport software were operating only on 7-bit ASCII codes, so a MIME \({ }^{3}\) standard needed to encode messages in non-Latin writing systems. 7-bit ASCII code was augmented by parity bit, resulting in 8 bits.

Data Encryption Standard (DES \({ }^{4}\) ) has a 56 bits key, this is 87 -bit bytes, leaving a space to parity bit for each character.

There is no need to memorize whole ASCII table, but rather ranges. [0..0x1F] are control characters (nonprintable). [0x20..0x7E] are printable ones. Codes starting at \(0 \times 80\) are usually used for non-Latin writing systems and/or pseudographics.

Significant codes which will be easily memorized are: 0 (end of C-string, ' \(\backslash 0\) ' in C/C++); 0xA or 10 (line feed, ' n ' in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) ); 0xD or 13 (carriage return, ' \(\backslash r\) ' in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) ).
\(0 \times 20\) (space) is also often memorized.

\section*{8-bit CPUs}
x86 has capability to work with byte(s) on register level (because they are descendants of 8-bit 8080 CPU), RISC CPUs like ARM and MIPS—not.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{2}\) https://yurichev.com/mirrors/C/bwk-tutor.html
\({ }^{3}\) Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions
\({ }^{4}\) Data Encryption Standard
}

\subsection*{2.1.4 Wide char}

This is an attempt to support multi-lingual environment by extending byte to 16-bit. Most well-known example is Windows NT kernel and win32 functions with \(W\) suffix. This is why each Latin character in plain English text string is interleaved with zero byte. This encoding is called UCS-2 or UTF-16
Usually, wchar_t is synonym to 16-bit short data type.

\subsection*{2.1.5 Signed integer vs unsigned}

Some may argue, why unsigned data types exist at first place, since any unsigned number can be represented as signed. Yes, but absence of sign bit in a value extends its range twice. Hence, signed byte has range of \(-128 . .127\), and unsigned one: \(0 . .255\). Another benefit of using unsigned data types is selfdocumenting: you define a variable which can't be assigned to negative values.
Unsigned data types are absent in Java, for which it's criticized. It's hard to implement cryptographical algorithms using boolean operations over signed data types.

Values like 0xFFFFFFFF (-1) are used often, mostly as error codes.

\subsection*{2.1.6 Word}

Word word is somewhat ambiguous term and usually denotes a data type fitting in GPR. Bytes are practical for characters, but impractical for other arithmetical calculations.

Hence, many CPUs have GPRs with width of 16,32 or 64 bits. Even 8 -bit CPUs like 8080 and \(Z 80\) offer to work with 8-bit register pairs, each pair forming a 16-bit pseudoregister ( \(B C, D E, H L\), etc.). Z80 has some capability to work with register pairs, and this is, in a sense, some kind of 16-bit CPU emulation.
In general, if a CPU marketed as " \(n\)-bit CPU", this usually means it has \(n\)-bit GPRs.
There was a time when hard disks and RAM modules were marketed as having \(n\) kilo-words instead of \(b\) kilobytes/megabytes.
For example, Apollo Guidance Computer \({ }^{5}\) has 2048 words of RAM. This was a 16-bit computer, so there was 4096 bytes of RAM.
\(T X-0^{6}\) had 64 K of 18 -bit words of magnetic core memory, i.e., 64 kilo-words.
DECSYSTEM-2060 \({ }^{7}\) could have up to 4096 kilowords of solid state memory (i.e., hard disks, tapes, etc). This was 36-bit computer, so this is 18432 kilobytes or 18 megabytes.
int in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) is almost always mapped to word. (Except of AMD64 architecture where int is still 32-bit one, perhaps, for the reason of better portability.)
int is 16-bit on PDP-11 and old MS-DOS compilers. int is 32-bit on VAX, on x86 starting at 80386, etc.
Even more than that, if type declaration for a variable is omitted in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) program, int is used silently by default. Perhaps, this is inheritance of B programming language \({ }^{8}\).

GPR is usually fastest container for variable, faster than packed bit, and sometimes even faster than byte (because there is no need to isolate a single bit/byte from GPR). Even if you use it as a container for loop counter in \(0 . .99\) range.

Word in assembly language is still 16-bit for x86, because it was so for 16 -bit 8086 . Double word is 32 -bit, quad word is 64-bit. That's why 16-bit words are declared using DW in x86 assembly, 32-bit ones using DD and 64-bit ones using DQ.
Word is 32-bit for ARM, MIPS, etc., 16-bit data types are called half-word there. Hence, double word on 32-bit RISC is 64-bit data type.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{5}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apollo_Guidance_Computer
\({ }^{6}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/TX-0
\({ }^{7}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DECSYSTEM-20
\({ }^{8}\) http://yurichev.com/blog/typeless/
}
\(\overline{G D B}\) has the following terminology: halfword for 16-bit, word for 32-bit and giant word for 64-bit.
16-bit C/C++ environment on PDP-11 and MS-DOS has long data type with width of 32 bits, perhaps, they meant long word or long int?
32-bit C/C++ environment has long long data type with width of 64 bits.
Now you see why the word word is ambiguous.

\section*{Should I use int?}

Some people argue that int shouldn't be used at all, because it ambiguity can lead to bugs. For example, well-known Izhuf library uses int at one point and everything works fine on 16-bit architecture. But if ported to architecture with 32-bit int, it can crash: http://yurichev. com/blog/lzhuf/.

Less ambiguous types are defined in stdint.h file: uint8_t, uint16_t, uint32_t, uint64_t, etc.
Some people like Donald E. Knuth proposed \({ }^{9}\) more sonorous words for these types: byte/wyde/tetrabyte/octabyte. But these names are less popular than clear terms with inclusion of \(u\) (unsigned) character and number right into the type name.

\section*{Word-oriented computers}

Despite the ambiguity of the word term, modern computers are still word-oriented: RAM and all levels of cache are still organized by words, not by bytes. However, size in bytes is used in marketing.
Access to RAM/cache by address aligned by word boundary is often cheaper than non-aligned.
During data structures development, which are supposed to be fast and efficient, one should always take into consideration length of the word on the CPU to be executed on. Sometimes the compiler will do this for programmer, sometimes not.

\subsection*{2.1.7 Address register}

For those who fostered on 32-bit and/or 64-bit x86, and/or RISC of 90s like ARM, MIPS, PowerPC, it's natural that address bus has the same width as GPR or word. Nevertheless, width of address bus can be different on other architectures.

8-bit Z80 can address \(2^{16}\) bytes, using 8-bit registers pairs or dedicated registers (IX,IY). SP and PC registers are also 16-bit ones.

Cray-1 supercomputer has 64-bit GPRs, but 24-bit address registers, so it can address \(2^{24}\) (16 megawords or 128 megabytes). RAM was very expensive in 1970s, and even in supercomputing environment it cannot be expected it could have more. So why to allocate 64-bit register for address or pointer?
8086/8088 CPUs had a really weird addressing scheme: values of two 16-bit registers were summed in a weird manner resulting in a 20 -bit address. Perhaps, this was some kind of toy-level virtualization ( 11.6 on page 1003)? 8086 could run several programs (not simultaneously, though).

Early ARM1 has an interesting artifact:

Another interesting thing about the register file is the PC register is missing a few bits. Since the ARM1 uses 26-bit addresses, the top 6 bits are not used. Because all instructions are aligned on a 32-bit boundary, the bottom two address bits in the PC are always zero. These 8 bits are not only unused, they are omitted from the chip entirely.
( http://www.righto.com/2015/12/reverse-engineering-arm1-ancestor-of.html)
Hence, it's physically not possible to push a value with one of two last bits set into PC register. Nor it's possible to set any bits in high 6 bits of PC.
x86-64 architecture has virtual 64-bit pointers/addresses, but internally, width of address bus is 48 bits (seems enough to address 256TB of RAM).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{9}\) http://www-cs-faculty.stanford.edu/~uno/news 98. html
}

\subsection*{2.1.8 Numbers}

What are numbers used for?
When you see some number(s) altering in a CPU register, you may be interested in what this number means. It's an important skill for a reverse engineer to determine possible data type from a set of changing numbers.

\section*{Boolean}

If the number is switching from 0 to 1 and back, most chances that this value has boolean data type.

\section*{Loop counter, array index}

Variable increasing from 0 , like: \(0,1,2,3 \ldots-\) a good chance this is a loop counter and/or array index.

\section*{Signed numbers}

If you see a variable which holds very low numbers and sometimes very high numbers, like \(0,1,2,3\), and 0xFFFFFFFF, \(0 \times\) FFFFFFFE, \(0 \times\) FFFFFFFD, there's a good chance it is a signed variable in two's complement form ( 2.2 on the following page), and last 3 numbers are \(-1,-2,-3\).

\section*{32-bit numbers}

There are numbers so large \({ }^{10}\), that there is even a special notation which exists to represent them (Knuth's up-arrow notation \({ }^{11}\) ). These numbers are so large so these are not practical for engineering, science and mathematics.

Almost all engineers and scientists are happy with IEEE 754 double precision floating point, which has maximal value around \(1.8 \cdot 10^{308}\). (As a comparison, the number of atoms in the observable universe, is estimated to be between \(4 \cdot 10^{79}\) and \(4 \cdot 10^{81}\).)
In fact, upper bound in practical computing is much, much lower. If you get the source code of UNIX v6 for PDP-11 \({ }^{12}, 16\)-bit int is used everywhere while 32-bit long type is not used at all.

Same story was in MS-DOS era: 16-bit int was used almost for everything (array indices, loop counters), while 32-bit long was used rarely.
During advent of \(x 86-64\), it was decided for int to stay as 32 bit size integer, because, probably, usage of 64 -bit int is even rarer.

I would say, 16 -bit numbers in range \(0 . .65535\) are probably most used numbers in computing.
Given that, if you see unusually large 32-bit value like \(0 \times 87654321\), this is a good chance this can be:
- this can still be a 16 -bit number, but signed, between 0xFFFF8000 ( -32768 ) and 0xFFFFFFFF ( -1 ).
- address of memory cell (can be checked using memory map feature of debugger).
- packed bytes (can be checked visually).
- bit flags.
- something related to (amateur) cryptography.
- magic number ( 5.6 .1 on page 712).
- IEEE 754 floating point number (can also be checked).

Almost same story for 64-bit values.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{10}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Large numbers
\({ }^{11}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knuth\%27s_up-arrow_notation
12http://minnie.tuhs.org/Archive/PDP-11/Distributions/research/Dennis_v6/
}

It's interesting to note: in [Michael Abrash, Graphics Programming Black Book, 1997 chapter 13] we can find that there are plenty cases in which 16 -bit variables are just enough. In a meantime, Michael Abrash has a pity that 80386 and 80486 CPUs has so little available registers, so he offers to put two 16-bit values into one 32-bit register and then to rotate it using ROR reg, 16 (on 80386 and later) (ROL reg, 16 will also work) or BSWAP (on 80486 and later) instruction.

That reminds us Z80 with alternate pack of registers (suffixed with apostrophe), to which CPU can switch (and then switch back) using EXX instruction.

\section*{Size of buffer}

When a programmer needs to declare the size of some buffer, values in form of \(2^{x}\) are usually used (512 bytes, 1024 , etc.). Values in \(2^{x}\) form are easily recognizable ( 1.22 .5 on page 322 ) in decimal, hexadecimal and binary base.
But needless to say, programmers are still humans with their decimal culture. And somehow, in DBMS area, size of textual database fields is often chosen as \(10^{x}\) number, like 100, 200. They just think "Okay, 100 is enough, wait, 200 will be better". And they are right, of course.

Maximum width of VARCHAR2 data type in Oracle RDBMS is 4000 characters, not 4096.
There is nothing wrong with this, this is just a place where numbers like \(10^{x}\) can be encountered.

\begin{abstract}
Address

It's always a good idea to keep in mind an approximate memory map of the process you currently debug. For example, many win32 executables started at 0x00401000, so an address like 0x00451230 is probably located inside executable section. You'll see addresses like these in the EIP register.

Stack is usually located somewhere below.
Many debuggers are able to show the memory map of the debuggee, for example: 1.9.3 on page 79.
If a value is increasing by step 4 on 32 -bit architecture or by step 8 on 64 -bit one, this probably sliding address of some elements of array.
It's important to know that win32 doesn't use addresses below \(0 \times 10000\), so if you see some number below this constant, this cannot be an address (see also: https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ ms810627.aspx).
Anyway, many debuggers can show you if the value in a register can be an address to something. OllyDbg can also show an ASCII string if the value is an address of it.
\end{abstract}

\section*{Bit field}

If you see a value where one (or more) bit(s) are flipping from time to time like 0xABCD1234 \(\rightarrow 0 \times A B C D 1434\) and back, this is probably a bit field (or bitmap).

\section*{Packed bytes}

When strcmp() or memcmp() copies a buffer, it loads/stores 4 (or 8) bytes simultaneously, so if a string containing " 4321 ", and it would be copied to another place, at one point you'll see \(0 \times 31323334\) value in some register. This is 4 packed bytes into a 32-bit value.

\subsection*{2.2 Signed number representations}

There are several methods for representing signed numbers \({ }^{13}\), but "two's complement" is the most popular one in computers.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{13}\) wikipedia
}

Here is a table for some byte values:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline binary & hexadecimal & unsigned & signed \\
\hline 01111111 & 0x7f & 127 & 127 \\
\hline 01111110 & 0x7e & 126 & 126 \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{...} \\
\hline 00000110 & 0x6 & 6 & 6 \\
\hline 00000101 & 0x5 & 5 & 5 \\
\hline 00000100 & 0x4 & 4 & 4 \\
\hline 00000011 & \(0 \times 3\) & 3 & 3 \\
\hline 00000010 & 0x2 & 2 & 2 \\
\hline 00000001 & 0x1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline 00000000 & 0x0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline 11111111 & 0xff & 255 & -1 \\
\hline 11111110 & 0xfe & 254 & -2 \\
\hline 11111101 & 0xfd & 253 & -3 \\
\hline 11111100 & 0xfc & 252 & -4 \\
\hline 11111011 & 0xfb & 251 & -5 \\
\hline 11111010 & 0xfa & 250 & -6 \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{\(\ldots\)} \\
\hline 10000010 & 0x82 & 130 & -126 \\
\hline 10000001 & 0x81 & 129 & -127 \\
\hline 10000000 & 0x80 & 128 & -128 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The difference between signed and unsigned numbers is that if we represent \(0 x F F F F F F F E\) and \(0 \times 00000002\) as unsigned, then the first number (4294967294) is bigger than the second one (2). If we represent them both as signed, the first one becomes -2 , and it is smaller than the second (2). That is the reason why conditional jumps ( 1.14 on page 124) are present both for signed (e.g. JG, JL) and unsigned (JA, JB) operations.
For the sake of simplicity, this is what one needs to know:
- Numbers can be signed or unsigned.
- C/C++ signed types:
- int64_t (-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 .. 9,223,372,036,854,775,807) (-9.2.. 9.2 quintillions) or 0x800 \(0000000000000 . .0 x 7 F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F)\),
- int (-2,147,483,648..2,147,483,647 (-2.15.. 2.15Gb) or 0x80000000..0x7FFFFFFF),
- char (-128.. 127 or \(0 \times 80\). . \(0 x 7 F\) ),
- ssize_t.

Unsigned:
- uint64_t (0..18,446,744,073,709,551,615 ( 18 quintillions) or 0. . \(0 x\) FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF),
- unsigned int (0..4,294,967,295 (4.3Gb) or 0..0xFFFFFFFF),
- unsigned char (0.. 255 or \(0 . .0 x F F\) ),
- size_t.
- Signed types have the sign in the MSB: 1 means "minus", 0 means "plus".
- Promoting to a larger data types is simple: 1.28.5 on page 405.
- Negation is simple: just invert all bits and add 1.

We can keep in mind that a number of inverse sign is located on the opposite side at the same proximity from zero. The addition of one is needed because zero is present in the middle.
- The addition and subtraction operations work well for both signed and unsigned values. But for multiplication and division operations, x86 has different instructions: IDIV/IMUL for signed and DIV/MUL for unsigned.
- Here are some more instructions that work with signed numbers:

CBW/CWD/CWDE/CDQ/CDQE ( .1.6 on page 1031), MOVSX ( 1.17 .1 on page 201), SAR ( . 1.6 on page 1035).
A table of some negative and positive values (??) looks like thermometer with Celsius scale. This is why addition and subtraction works equally well for both signed and unsigned numbers: if the first addend is
represented as mark on thermometer, and one need to add a second addend, and it's positive, we just shift mark up on thermometer by the value of second addend. If the second addend is negative, then we shift mark down to absolute value of the second addend.

Addition of two negative numbers works as follows. For example, we need to add -2 and -3 using 16-bit registers. -2 and -3 is 0xfffe and 0xfffd respectively. If we add these numbers as unsigned, we will get \(0 \times f f f e+0 x f f f d=0 \times 1 \mathrm{fffb}\). But we work on 16 -bit registers, so the result is cut off, the first 1 is dropped, \(0 x f f f b\) is left, and this is -5 . This works because -2 (or 0xfffe) can be represented using plain English like this: "2 lacks in this value up to maximal value in 16 -bit register +1". -3 can be represented as "... 3 lacks in this value up to ...". Maximal value of 16 -bit register +1 is \(0 \times 10000\). During addition of two numbers and cutting off by \(2^{16}\) modulo, \(2+3=5\) will be lacking.

\subsection*{2.2.1 Using IMUL over MUL}

Example like listing.3.21.2 where two unsigned values are multiplied compiles into listing.3.21.2 where IMUL is used instead of MUL.

This is important property of both MUL and IMUL instructions. First of all, they both produce 64-bit value if two 32-bit values are multiplied, or 128-bit value if two 64-bit values are multiplied (biggest possible product in 32-bit environment is
0xffffffff* \(0 x f f f f f f f f=0 x f f f f f f f e 00000001\) ). But \(C / C++\) standards have no way to access higher half of result, and a product always has the same size as multiplicands. And both MUL and IMUL instructions works in the same way if higher half is ignored, i.e., they both generate the same lower half. This is important property of "two's complement" way of representing signed numbers.

So C/C++ compiler can use any of these instructions.
But IMUL is more versatile than MUL because it can take any register(s) as source, while MUL requires one of multiplicands stored in AX/EAX/RAX register. Even more than that: MUL stores result in EDX: EAX pair in 32-bit environment, or RDX: RAX in 64-bit one, so it always calculates the whole result. On contrary, it's possible to set a single destination register while using IMUL instead of pair, and then CPU will calculate only lower half, which works faster [see Torborn Granlund, Instruction latencies and throughput for AMD and Intel x86 processors \({ }^{14}\) ).

Given than, C/C++ compilers may generate IMUL instruction more often then MUL.
Nevertheless, using compiler intrinsic, it's still possible to do unsigned multiplication and get full result. This is sometimes called extended multiplication. MSVC has intrinsic for this called _emul \({ }^{15}\) and another one: _umul \(128^{16}\). GCC offer __int128 data type, and if 64-bit multiplicands are first promoted to 128-bit ones, then a product is stored into another _int128 value, then result is shifted by 64 bits right, you'll get higher half of result \({ }^{17}\).

\section*{MulDiv() function in Windows}

Windows has MulDiv() function \({ }^{18}\), fused multiply/divide function, it multiplies two 32-bit integers into intermediate 64-bit value and then divides it by a third 32-bit integer. It is easier than to use two compiler intrinsic, so Microsoft developers made a special function for it. And it seems, this is busy function, judging by its usage.

\subsection*{2.2.2 Couple of additions about two's complement form}

Exercise 2-1. Write a program to determine the ranges of char, short, int, and long variables, both signed and unsigned, by printing appropriate values from standard headers and by direct computation.

\footnotetext{
14http://yurichev.com/mirrors/x86-timing.pdf]
\({ }^{15}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/d2s81xt0(v=vs.80).aspx
\({ }^{16}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/library/3dayytw \(9 \% 28 \mathrm{v}=\mathrm{vs} .100 \% 29\).aspx
\({ }^{17}\) Example: http://stackoverflow.com/a/13187798
\({ }^{18}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/desktop/aa383718(v=vs.85).aspx
}

\subsection*{2.3. INTEGER OVERFLOW}

\section*{Getting maximum number of some word}

Maximum unsigned number is just a number where all bits are set: OxFF....FF (this is -1 if the word is treated as signed integer). So you take a word, set all bits and get the value:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
unsigned int val=~0; // change to "unsigned char" to get maximal value for the unsignedљ
4 8-bit byte
// 0-1 will also work, or just -1
printf ("%u\n", val); // %u for unsigned
};

```

This is 4294967295 for 32 -bit integer.

\section*{Getting minimum number for some signed word}

Minimum signed number is encoded as \(0 \times 80 . . .00\), i.e., most significant bit is set, while others are cleared. Maximum signed number is encoded in the same way, but all bits are inverted: \(0 \times 7 F \ldots . . . F F\).
Let's shift a lone bit left until it disappears:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
signed int val=1; // change to "signed char" to find values for signed byte
while (val!=0)
{
printf ("%d %d\n", val, ~val);
val=val<<1;
};
};

```

Output is:
```

...
536870912 -536870913
1073741824-1073741825
-2147483648 2147483647

```

Two last numbers are minimum and maximum signed 32 -bit int respectively.

\subsection*{2.3 Integer overflow}

I intentionally put this section after the section about signed number representation.
First, take a look at this implementation of itoa() function from [Brian W. Kernighan, Dennis M. Ritchie, The C Programming Language, 2ed, (1988)]:
```

void itoa(int n, char s[])
{
int i, sign;
if ((sign = n) < 0) /* record sign */
n = -n; /* make n positive */
i = 0;
do { /* generate digits in reverse order */
s[i++] = n % 10 + '0'; /* get next digit */
} while ((n /= 10) > 0); /* delete it */
if (sign < 0)
s[i++] = '-';
s[i] = '\0';
strrev(s);

```
(The full source code: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/fundamentals itoa_KR.c)

It has a subtle bug. Try to find it. You can download source code, compile it, etc. The answer on the next page.

Exercise 3-4. In a two's complement number representation, our version of itoa does not handle the largest negative number, that is, the value of \(n\) equal to \(-\left(2^{\text {wordsize-1 }}\right)\). Explain why not. Modify it to print that value correctly, regardless of the machine on which it runs.

The answer is: the function cannot process largest negative number (INT_MIN or 0x80000000 or -2147483648) correctly.
How to change sign? Invert all bits and add 1. If to invert all bits in INT_MIN value ( \(0 \times 80000000\) ), this is \(0 x 7 f f f f f f f\). Add 1 and this is \(0 x 80000000\) again. So changing sign has no effect. This is an important artifact of two's complement system.
Further reading:
- blexim - Basic Integer Overflows \({ }^{19}\)
- Yannick Moy, Nikolaj Bjørner, and David Sielaff - Modular Bug-finding for Integer Overflows in the Large: Sound, Efficient, Bit-precise Static Analysis \({ }^{20}\)

\subsection*{2.4 AND}

\subsection*{2.4.1 Checking if a value is on \(2^{n}\) boundary}

If you need to check if your value is divisible by \(2^{n}\) number (like 1024, 4096, etc.) without remainder, you can use a \% operator in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\), but there is a simpler way. 4096 is \(0 \times 1000\), so it always has \(4 * 3=12\) lower bits cleared.

What you need is just:
```

if (value\&0xFFF)
{
printf ("value is not divisible by 0x1000 (or 4096)\n");
printf ("by the way, remainder is %d\n", value\&0xFFF);
}
else
printf ("value is divisible by 0x1000 (or 4096)\n");

```

In other words, this code checks if there are any bit set among lower 12 bits. As a side effect, lower 12 bits is always a remainder from division a value by 4096 (because division by \(2^{n}\) is merely a right shift, and shifted (and dropped) bits are bits of remainder).
Same story if you want to check if the number is odd or even:
```

if (value\&1)
else
// even

```

This is merely the same as if to divide by 2 and get 1-bit remainder.

\subsection*{2.4.2 KOI-8R Cyrillic encoding}

It was a time when 8-bit ASCII table wasn't supported by some Internet services, including email. Some supported, some others-not.
It was also a time, when non-Latin writing systems used second half of 8-bit ASCII table to accommodate non-Latin characters. There were several popular Cyrillic encodings, but KOI-8R (devised by Andrey "ache" Chernov) is somewhat unique in comparison with others.

\footnotetext{
19http://phrack.org/issues/60/10.html
\({ }^{20}\) https://yurichev.com/mirrors/SMT/z3prefix.pdf
}


Figure 2.1: KOI8-R table

Someone may notice that Cyrillic characters are allocated almost in the same sequence as Latin ones. This leads to one important property: if all 8th bits in Cyrillic text encoded in KOI-8R are to be reset, a text transforms into transliterated text with Latin characters in place of Cyrillic. For example, Russian sentence:

Мой дядя самых честных правил, Когда не в шутку занемог, Он уважать себя заставил, И лучше выдумать не мог.
...if encoded in KOI-8R and then 8th bit stripped, transforms into:
mOJ DQDQ SAMYH ^ESTNYH PRAWIL, kOGDA NE W [UTKU ZANEMOG, oN UWAVATX SEBQ ZASTAWIL, i LU^[E WYDUMATX NE MOG.
...perhaps this is not very appealing æsthetically, but this text is still readable to Russian language natives. Hence, Cyrillic text encoded in KOI-8R, passed through an old 7-bit service will survive into transliterated, but still readable text.

Stripping 8th bit is automatically transposes any character from the second half of the (any) 8-bit ASCII table to the first one, into the same place (take a look at red arrow right of table). If the character has already been placed in the first half (i.e., it has been in standard 7-bit ASCII table), it's not transposed.
Perhaps, transliterated text is still recoverable, if you'll add 8th bit to the characters which were seems transliterated.

Drawback is obvious: Cyrillic characters allocated in KOI-8R table are not in the same sequence as in Russian/Bulgarian/Ukrainian/etc. alphabet, and this isn't suitable for sorting, for example.

\subsection*{2.5 AND and OR as subtraction and addition}

\subsection*{2.5.1 ZX Spectrum ROM text strings}

Those who once investigated ZX Spectrum ROM internals, probably noticed that the last symbol of each text string is seemingly absent.


Figure 2.2: Part of ZX Spectrum ROM

There are present, in fact.
Here is excerpt of ZX Spectrum 128K ROM disassembled:
```

L048C: DEFM "MERGE erro" ; Report 'a'.
DEFB 'r'+\$80
L0497: DEFM "Wrong file typ" ; Report 'b'.
DEFB 'e'+\$80
L04A6: DEFM "CODE erro" ; Report 'c'.
L04B0: DEFM "Too many bracket" ; Report 'd'.
DEFB 's'+\$80
L04C1: DEFM "File already exist" ; Report 'e'.
DEFB 's'+\$80

```
( http://www.matthew-wilson.net/spectrum/rom/128_ROM0.html )
Last character has most significant bit set, which marks string end. Presumably, it was done to save some space? Old 8-bit computers has very tight environment.
Characters of all messages are always in standard 7-bit ASCII table, so it's guaranteed 8th bit is never used for characters.

To print such string, we must check MSB of each byte, and if it's set, we must clear it, then print character, and then stop. Here is a C example:
```

unsigned char hw[]=
{
'H',
'e',
'l',
'l',
'o'|0x80
};
void print_string()
{
for (int i=0; ;i++)
{
if (hw[i]\&0x80) // check MSB
{
// clear MSB
// (in other words, clear all, but leave 7 lower bits intact)
printf ("%c", hw[i] \& 0x7F);
// stop

```
```

                                    break;
        };
        printf ("%c", hw[i]);
    };
    };

```

Now what is interesting, since 8th bit is the most significant bit (in byte), we can check it, set it and remove it using arithmetical operations instead of logical.
I can rewrite my C example:
```

unsigned char hw[]=
{
'H',
'e',
'l',
'l',
'0'+0x80
};
void print()
{
for (int i=0; ;i++)
{
// hw[] must have 'unsigned char' type
if (hw[i] >= 0x80) // check for MSB
{
printf ("%c", hw[i]-0x80); // clear MSB
// stop
break;
};
printf ("%c", hw[i]);
};
};

```

By default, char is signed type in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\), so to compare it with variable like \(0 \times 80\) (which is negative ( -128 ) if treated as signed), we must treat each character in text message as unsigned.

Now if 8th bit is set, the number is always larger or equal to \(0 \times 80\). If 8 th bit is clear, the number is always smaller than 0x80.

Even more than that: if 8 th bit is set, it can be cleared by subtracting \(0 \times 80\), nothing else. If it's not set beforehand, however, subtracting will destruct other bits.
Likewise, if 8 th bit is clear, it's possible to set it by adding \(0 \times 80\). But if it's set beforehand, addition operation will destruct some other bits.
In fact, this is valid for any bit. If the 4 th bit is clear, you can set it just by adding \(0 \times 10\) : \(0 \times 100+0 \times 10=\) \(0 \times 110\). If the 4 th bit is set, you can clear it by subtracting \(0 \times 10: 0 \times 1234-0 \times 10=0 \times 1224\).

It works, because carry isn't happened during addition/subtraction. It will, however, happen, if the bit is already set there before addition, or absent before subtraction.
Likewise, addition/subtraction can be replaced using OR/AND operation if two conditions are met: 1) you want to add/subtract by a number in form of \(2^{n} ; 2\) ) this bit in source value is clear/set.

For example, addition of \(0 \times 20\) is the same as ORing value with \(0 \times 20\) under condition that this bit is clear before: \(0 \times 1204 \mid 0 \times 20=0 \times 1204+0 \times 20=0 \times 1224\).
Subtraction of \(0 \times 20\) is the same as ANDing value with \(0 \times 20\) ( \(0 \times \ldots .\). FFDF), but if this bit is set before: \(0 \times 1234 \&\left({ }^{\sim} 0 \times 20\right)=0 \times 1234 \& 0 \times F F D F=0 \times 1234-0 \times 20=0 \times 1214\).

Again, it works because carry not happened when you add \(2^{n}\) number and this bit isn't set before.
This property of boolean algebra is important, worth understanding and keeping it in mind.
Another example in this book: 3.16.3 on page 537.

\subsection*{2.6 XOR (exclusive OR)}

XOR is widely used when one needs just to flip specific bit(s). Indeed, the XOR operation applied with 1 effectively inverts a bit:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline input \(A\) & input \(B\) & output \\
\hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline 1 & 0 & 1 \\
\hline 1 & 1 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

And vice-versa, the XOR operation applied with 0 does nothing, i.e., it's an idle operation. This is a very important property of the XOR operation and it's highly recommended to memorize it.

\subsection*{2.6.1 Everyday speech}

XOR operation present in common everyday speech. When someone asks "please buy apples or bananas", this usually means "buy the first object or the second, but not both"-this is exactly exclusive OR, because logical OR would mean "both objects are also fine".

Some people suggest "and/or" should be used in everyday speech to make emphasis that logical OR is used instead of exclusive OR: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/And/or.

\subsection*{2.6.2 Encryption}

XOR is heavily used in both amateur (9.1) and real encryption (at least in Feistel network). XOR is very useful here because: cipher_text \(=\) plain_text \(\oplus k e y\) and then: \((\) plain_text \(\oplus k e y) \oplus k e y=p l a i n \_t e x t\).

\subsection*{2.6.3 RAID4}

RAID4 offers a very simple method to protect hard disks. For example, there are several disks ( \(D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\), etc.) and one parity disk \((P)\). Each bit/byte written to parity disk is calculated and written on-fly:
\[
\begin{equation*}
P=D_{1} \oplus D_{2} \oplus D_{3} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
\]

If any of disks is failed, for example, \(D_{2}\), it's restored using the very same way:
\[
\begin{equation*}
D_{2}=D_{1} \oplus P \oplus D_{3} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
\]

If parity disk failed, it is restored using 2.1 way. If two of any disks are failed, then it wouldn't be possible to restore both.

RAID5 is more advanced, but this XOR property is still exploited there.
That's why RAID controllers has hardware "XOR accelerators" helping to XOR large chunks of written data on-fly. When computers get faster and faster, it now can be done at software level, using SIMD.

\subsection*{2.6.4 XOR swap algorithm}

Hard to believe, but this code swaps values in EAX and EBX without aid of any other additional register or memory cell:
```

xor eax, ebx
xor ebx, eax
xor eax, ebx

```

Let's find out, how it works. First, we will rewrite it to step aside from x86 assembly language:
```

X = X XOR Y
Y = Y XOR X
X = X XOR Y

```

What X and Y has at each step? Just keep in mind the simple rule: \((X \oplus Y) \oplus Y=X\) for any values of X and Y.

Let's see, \(X\) after 1st step has \(X \oplus Y ; Y\) after 2nd step has \(Y \oplus(X \oplus Y)=X ; X\) after 3rd step has \((X \oplus Y) \oplus X=Y\). Hard to say if anyone should use this trick, but it servers as a good demonstration example of XOR properties.

Wikipedia article (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XOR_swap_algorithm) has also yet another explanation: addition and subtraction operations can be used instead of XOR:
```

X = X + Y

```
\(Y=X-Y\)
\(X=X-Y\)

Let's see: \(X\) after 1st step has \(X+Y ; Y\) after 2 nd step has \(X+Y-Y=X ; X\) after 3rd step has \(X+Y-X=Y\).

\subsection*{2.6.5 XOR linked list}

Doubly linked list is a list in which each element has link to the previous element and to the next one. Hence, it's very easy to traverse list backwards or forward. std: : list in C++ implements doubly linked list which also is examined in this book: 3.18.4.

So each element has two pointers. Is it possible, perhaps in environment of small RAM footprint, to preserve all functionality with one pointer instead of two? Yes, if it a value of prev \(\oplus\) next will be stored in this memory cell, which is usually called "link".
Maybe, we could say that address to the previous element is "encrypted" using address of next element and otherwise: next element address is "encrypted" using previous element address.
When we traverse this list forward, we always know address of the previous element, so we can "decrypt" this field and get address of the next element. Likewise, it's possible to traverse this list backwards, "decrypting" this field using next element's address.

But it's not possible to find address of previous or next element of some specific element without knowing address of the first one.
Couple of things to complete this solution: first element will have address of next element without any XOR-ing, last element will have address of previous element without any XOR-ing.

Now let's sum it up. This is example of doubly linked list of 5 elements. \(A_{x}\) is address of element.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline address & link field contents \\
\hline\(A_{0}\) & \(A_{1}\) \\
\hline\(A_{1}\) & \(A_{0} \oplus A_{2}\) \\
\hline\(A_{2}\) & \(A_{1} \oplus A_{3}\) \\
\hline\(A_{3}\) & \(A_{2} \oplus A_{4}\) \\
\hline\(A_{4}\) & \(A_{3}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

And again, hard to say if anyone should use this tricky hacks, but this is also a good demonstration of XOR properties. As with XOR swap algorithm, Wikipedia article about it also offers way to use addition or subtraction instead of XOR: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XOR_linked_list.

\subsection*{2.6.6 Zobrist hashing / tabulation hashing}

If you work on a chess engine, you traverse a game tree many times per second, and often, you can encounter the same position, which has already been processed.

So you have to use a method to store already calculated positions somewhere. But chess position can require a lot of memory, and a hash function would be used instead.
Here is a way to compress a chess position into 64-bit value, called Zobrist hashing:
```

// we have 8*8 board and 12 pieces (6 for white side and 6 for black)
uint64_t table[12][8][8]; // filled with random values
int position[8][8]; // for each square on board. 0 - no piece. 1..12 - piece
uint64_t hash;
for (int row=0; row<8; row++)
for (int col=0; col<8; col++)
{
int piece=position[row][col];
if (piece!=0)
hash=hash^table[piece][row][col];
};
return hash;

```

Now the most interesting part: if the next (modified) chess position differs only by one (moved) piece, you don't need to recalculate hash for the whole position, all you need is:
hash=...; // (already calculated)
// subtract information about the old piece:
hash=hash^table[old_piece][old_row][old_col];
// add information about the new piece:
hash=hash^table[new_piece][new_row][new_col];

\subsection*{2.6.7 By the way}

The usual \(O R\) also sometimes called inclusive \(O R\) (or even IOR), as opposed to exclusive OR. One place is operator Python's library: it's called operator.ior here.

\subsection*{2.6.8 AND/OR/XOR as MOV}

OR reg, 0xFFFFFFFF sets all bits to 1 , hence, no matter what has been in register before, it will be set to -1 . OR reg, -1 is shorter than MOV reg, -1 , so MSVC uses OR instead the latter, for example: 3.15.1 on page 527.
Likewise, AND reg, 0 always resets all bits, hence, it acts like MOV reg, 0.
XOR reg, reg, no matter what has been in register beforehand, resets all bits, and also acts like MOV reg, 0.

\subsection*{2.7 Population count}

POPCNT instruction is population count (AKA Hamming weight). It just counts number of bits set in an input value.

As a side effect, POPCNT instruction (or operation) can be used to determine, if the value has \(2^{n}\) form. Since, \(2^{n}\) number always has just one single bit, POPCNT's result will always be just 1.
For example, I once wrote a base64 strings scanner for hunting something interesting in binary files \({ }^{21}\). And there is a lot of garbage and false positives, so I add an option to filter out data blocks which has size of \(2^{n}\) bytes (i.e., 256 bytes, 512,1024 , etc.). The size of block is checked just like this:
```

if (popcnt(size)==1)
// OK

```
. . .

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{21}\) https://github.com/DennisYurichev/base64scanner
}

The instruction is also known as "NSA" instruction" due to rumors:

This branch of cryptography is fast-paced and very politically charged. Most designs are secret; a majority of military encryptions systems in use today are based on LFSRs. In fact, most Cray computers (Cray 1, Cray X-MP, Cray Y-MP) have a rather curious instruction generally known as "population count." It counts the 1 bits in a register and can be used both to efficiently calculate the Hamming distance between two binary words and to implement a vectorized version of a LFSR. I've heard this called the canonical NSA instruction, demanded by almost all computer contracts.
[Bruce Schneier, Applied Cryptography, (John Wiley \& Sons, 1994)]

\subsection*{2.8 Endianness}

The endianness is a way of representing values in memory.

\subsection*{2.8.1 Big-endian}

The \(0 \times 12345678\) value is represented in memory as:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline address in memory & byte value \\
\hline+0 & \(0 \times 12\) \\
\hline+1 & \(0 \times 34\) \\
\hline+2 & \(0 \times 56\) \\
\hline+3 & \(0 \times 78\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Big-endian CPUs include Motorola 68k, IBM POWER.

\subsection*{2.8.2 Little-endian}

The \(0 \times 12345678\) value is represented in memory as:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline address in memory & byte value \\
\hline+0 & \(0 \times 78\) \\
\hline+1 & \(0 \times 56\) \\
\hline+2 & \(0 \times 34\) \\
\hline+3 & \(0 \times 12\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Little-endian CPUs include Intel x86.

\subsection*{2.8.3 Example}

Let's take big-endian MIPS Linux installed and ready in QEMU \({ }^{23}\).
And let's compile this simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int v, i;
v=123;
printf ("%02X %02X %02X %02X\n",
*(char*)\&v,
*(((char*)\&v)+1),
*(((char*)\&v)+2),

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{22}\) National Security Agency
\({ }^{23}\) Available for download here: http://go.yurichev. com/17008
}
```

*(((char*)\&v)+3));
};

```

After running it we get:
```

root@debian-mips:~\# ./a.out

```
000000 7B

That is it. \(0 \times 7 B\) is 123 in decimal. In little-endian architectures, \(7 B\) is the first byte (you can check on x86 or x86-64), but here it is the last one, because the highest byte goes first.
That's why there are separate Linux distributions for MIPS ("mips" (big-endian) and "mipsel" (little-endian)). It is impossible for a binary compiled for one endianness to work on an OS with different endianness.
There is another example of MIPS big-endiannes in this book: 1.24.4 on page 365 .

\subsection*{2.8.4 Bi-endian}

CPUs that may switch between endianness are ARM, PowerPC, SPARC, MIPS, IA64 \({ }^{24}\), etc.

\subsection*{2.8.5 Converting data}

The BSWAP instruction can be used for conversion.
TCP/IP network data packets use the big-endian conventions, so that is why a program working on a littleendian architecture has to convert the values. The htonl() and htons() functions are usually used.
In TCP/IP, big-endian is also called "network byte order", while byte order on the computer "host byte order". "host byte order" is little-endian on Intel x86 and other little-endian architectures, but it is bigendian on IBM POWER, so htonl () and htons () don't shuffle any bytes on the latter.

\subsection*{2.9 Memory}

There are 3 main types of memory:
- Global memory AKA "static memory allocation". No need to allocate explicitly, the allocation is performed just by declaring variables/arrays globally. These are global variables, residing in the data or constant segments. They are available globally (hence, considered as an anti-pattern). Not convenient for buffers/arrays, because they must have a fixed size. Buffer overflows that occur here usually overwrite variables or buffers residing next to them in memory. There's an example in this book: 1.9.3 on page 76.
- Stack AKA "allocate on stack". The allocation is performed just by declaring variables/arrays locally in the function. These are usually local variables for the function. Sometimes these local variable are also available to descending functions (to callee functions, if caller passes a pointer to a variable to the callee to be executed). Allocation and deallocation are very fast, it just SP needs to be shifted.

But they're also not convenient for buffers/arrays, because the buffer size has to be fixed, unless alloca() ( 1.7 .2 on page 35) (or a variable-length array) is used. Buffer overflows usually overwrite important stack structures: 1.20.2 on page 275.
- Heap AKA "dynamic memory allocation". Allocation/deallocation is performed by calling malloc()/free() or new/delete in C++. This is the most convenient method: the block size may be set at runtime.
Resizing is possible (using realloc()), but can be slow. This is the slowest way to allocate memory: the memory allocator must support and update all control structures while allocating and deallocating. Buffer overflows usually overwrite these structures. Heap allocations are also source of memory leak problems: each memory block has to be deallocated explicitly, but one may forget about it, or do it incorrectly.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{24}\) Intel Architecture 64 (Itanium)
}

Another problem is the "use after free"-using a memory block after free() has been called on it, which is very dangerous.

Example in this book: 1.24.2 on page 348.

\subsection*{2.10 CPU}

\subsection*{2.10.1 Branch predictors}

Some latest compilers try to get rid of conditional jump instructions. Examples in this book are: 1.14.1 on page 135, 1.14.3 on page 143, 1.22 .5 on page 330.

This is because the branch predictor is not always perfect, so the compilers try to do without conditional jumps, if possible.
Conditional instructions in ARM (like ADRcc) are one way, another one is the CMOVcc x86 instruction.

\subsection*{2.10.2 Data dependencies}

Modern CPUs are able to execute instructions simultaneously \(\left(\mathrm{OOE}^{25}\right)\), but in order to do so, the results of one instruction in a group must not influence the execution of others. Hence, the compiler endeavors to use instructions with minimal influence on the CPU state.
That's why the LEA instruction is so popular, because it does not modify CPU flags, while other arithmetic instructions does.

\subsection*{2.11 Hash functions}

A very simple example is CRC32, an algorithm that provides "stronger" checksum for integrity checking purposes. It is impossible to restore the original text from the hash value, it has much less information: But CRC32 is not cryptographically secure: it is known how to alter a text in a way that the resulting CRC32 hash value will be the one we need. Cryptographic hash functions are protected from this.

MD5, SHA1, etc. are such functions and they are widely used to hash user passwords in order to store them in a database. Indeed: an Internet forum database may not contain user passwords (a stolen database can compromise all users' passwords) but only hashes (so a cracker can't reveal the passwords). Besides, an Internet forum engine does not need to know your password exactly, it needs only to check if its hash is the same as the one in the database, and give you access if they match. One of the simplest password cracking methods is just to try hashing all possible passwords in order to see which matches the resulting value that we need. Other methods are much more complex.

\subsection*{2.11.1 How do one-way functions work?}

A one-way function is a function which is able to transform one value into another, while it is impossible (or very hard) to reverse it. Some people have difficulties while understanding how this is possible at all. Here is a simple demonstration.
We have a vector of 10 numbers in range \(0 . .9\), each is present only once, for example:
```

46 0 1 3 5 7 8 9 2

```

The algorithm for the simplest possible one-way function is:
- take the number at zeroth position (4 in our case);
- take the number at first position (6 in our case);
- swap numbers at positions of 4 and 6 .

Let's mark the numbers at positions 4 and 6:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{25}\) Out-of-Order Execution
}
```

46013578 9 2

```

Let's swap them and we get this result:
```

460175 3 8 9 2

```

While looking at the result, and even if we know the algorithm, we can't know unambiguously the initial state, because the first two numbers could be 0 and/or 1, and then they could participate in the swapping procedure.
This is an utterly simplified example for demonstration. Real one-way functions are much more complex.

\section*{Chapter 3}

\section*{Slightly more advanced examples}

\subsection*{3.1 Double negation}

A popular way \({ }^{1}\) to convert non-zero value into 1 (or boolean true) and zero value into 0 (or boolean false) is !!statement:
```

int convert_to_bool(int a)
{
return !!a;
};

```

Optimizing GCC \(5.4 \times 86\) :
```

convert_to_bool:
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
xor eax, eax
test edx, edx
setne al
ret

```

XOR always clears return value in EAX, even in case if SETNE will not trigger. I.e., XOR sets default return value to zero.
If the input value is not equal to zero (-NE suffix in SET instruction), 1 is set to AL, otherwise AL isn't touched.

Why SETNE operates on low 8-bit part of EAX register? Because the matter is just in the last bit ( 0 or 1 ), while other bits are cleared by XOR.

Therefore, that C/C++ code could be rewritten like this:
```

int convert_to_bool(int a)
{
if (a!=0)
return 1;
else
return 0;
};

```
...or even:
```

int convert to bool(int a)
{
if (a)
return 1;
else
return 0;
};

```

Compilers targeting CPUs lacking instruction similar to SET, in this case, generates branching instructions, etc.
\({ }^{1}\) This way is also controversial, because it leads to hard-to-read code

\section*{3.2 strstr() example}

Let's back to the fact that GCC sometimes can use part of string: 1.5.3 on page 18.
The strstr() C/C++ standard library function is used to find any occurrence in a string. This is what we will do:
```

\#include <string.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
char *s="Hello, world!";
char *w=strstr(s, "world");
printf ("%p, [%s]\n", s, s);
printf ("%p, [%s]\n", w, w);
};

```

The output is:
```

0x8048530, [Hello, world!]
0x8048537, [world!]

```

The difference between the address of the original string and the address of the substring that strstr() has returned is 7 . Indeed, "Hello," string has length of 7 characters.

The printf() function during second call has no idea there are some other characters before the passed string and it prints characters from the middle of original string till the end (marked by zero byte).

\subsection*{3.3 Temperature converting}

Another very popular example in programming books for beginners is a small program that converts Fahrenheit temperature to Celsius or back.
\[
C=\frac{5 \cdot(F-32)}{9}
\]

We can also add simple error handling: 1) we must check if the user has entered a correct number; 2) we must check if the Celsius temperature is not below - 273 (which is below absolute zero, as we may recall from school physics lessons).
The exit () function terminates the program instantly, without returning to the caller function.

\subsection*{3.3.1 Integer values}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
int main()
{

```
```

    int celsius, fahr;
    ```
    int celsius, fahr;
    printf ("Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:\n");
    printf ("Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:\n");
    if (scanf ("%d", &fahr)!=1)
    if (scanf ("%d", &fahr)!=1)
    {
    {
        printf ("Error while parsing your input\n");
        printf ("Error while parsing your input\n");
        exit(0);
        exit(0);
    };
    };
    celsius = 5 * (fahr-32) / 9;
    celsius = 5 * (fahr-32) / 9;
    if (celsius<-273)
    if (celsius<-273)
    {
    {
        printf ("Error: incorrect temperature!\n");
```

        printf ("Error: incorrect temperature!\n");
    ```
```

        exit(0);
    };
    printf ("Celsius: %d\n", celsius);
    };

```

\section*{Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 86\)}

Listing 3.1: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 86\)
```

\$SG4228 DB 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4230 DB '%d', 00H
\$SG4231 DB 'Error while parsing your input', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4233 DB 'Error: incorrect temperature!', 0aH, 00H
$SG4234 DB 'Celsius: %d', 0aH, 00H
fahr$ = -4 ; size = 4
main PROC
push ecx
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR imp printf
push OFFSET $SG4228 - ; 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:'
    call esi ; call printf()
    lea eax, DWORD PTR fahr$[esp+12]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG4230 ; '%d'
call DWORD PTR __imp__scanf
add esp, 12
cmp eax, 1
je SHORT \$LN2@main
push OFFSET \$SG4231 ; 'Error while parsing your input'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
\$LN9@main:
$LN2@main:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _fahr$[esp+8]
add eax, -32 ; ffffffe0H
lea ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+eax*4]
mov eax, 954437177 ; 38e38e39H
imul ecx
sar edx, 1
mov eax, edx
shr eax, 31 ; 0000001fH
add eax, edx
cmp eax, -273 ; fffffeefH
jge SHORT \$LN1@main
push OFFSET \$SG4233 ; 'Error: incorrect temperature!'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
\$LN10@main:
\$LN1@main:
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG4234 ; 'Celsius: %d'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 8
; return 0 - by C99 standard
xor eax, eax
pop esi
pop ecx
ret 0
\$LN8@main:
main ENDP

```

What we can say about it:
- The address of printf() is first loaded in the ESI register, so the subsequent printf() calls are done just by the CALL ESI instruction. It's a very popular compiler technique, possible if several consequent calls to the same function are present in the code, and/or if there is a free register which can be used for this.
- We see the ADD EAX, -32 instruction at the place where 32 has to be subtracted from the value. \(E A X=E A X+(-32)\) is equivalent to \(E A X=E A X-32\) and somehow, the compiler decided to use ADD instead of SUB. Maybe it's worth it, it's hard to be sure.
- The LEA instruction is used when the value is to be multiplied by 5: lea ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+eax*4]. Yes, \(i+i * 4\) is equivalent to \(i * 5\) and LEA works faster then IMUL.
By the way, the SHL EAX, 2 / ADD EAX, EAX instruction pair could be also used here insteadsome compilers do it like.
- The division by multiplication trick ( 3.9 on page 497) is also used here.
- main() returns 0 if we don't have return 0 at its end. The C99 standard tells us [ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007)5.1.2.2.3] that main() will return 0 in case the return statement is missing. This rule works only for the main() function.

Though, MSVC doesn't officially support C99, but maybe it support it partially?

\section*{Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)}

The code is almost the same, but we can find INT 3 instructions after each exit () call.
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline xor & ecx, ecx \\
call & QWORD PTR __imp_exit \\
int & 3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

INT 3 is a debugger breakpoint.
It is known that exit() is one of the functions which can never return \({ }^{2}\), so if it does, something really odd has happened and it's time to load the debugger.

\subsection*{3.3.2 Floating-point values}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
int main()
{
double celsius, fahr;
printf ("Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:\n");
if (scanf ("%lf", \&fahr)!=1)
{
printf ("Error while parsing your input\n");
exit(0);
};
celsius = 5 * (fahr-32) / 9;
if (celsius<-273)
{
printf ("Error: incorrect temperature!\n");
exit(0);
};
printf ("Celsius: %lf\n", celsius);
};

```

MSVC \(2010 \times 86\) uses FPU instructions...
Listing 3.2: Optimizing MSVC \(2010 \times 86\)
```

\$SG4038 DB 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4040 DB '%lf', 00H

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{2}\) another popular one is longjmp()
}
```

\$SG4041 DB 'Error while parsing your input', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4043 DB 'Error: incorrect temperature!', 0aH, 00H
$SG4044 DB 'Celsius: %lf', 0aH, 00H
__real@c071100000000000 DQ 0c071100000000000r ; -273
real@4022000000000000 DQ 04022000000000000r
    ; 9
    real@4014000000000000 DQ 04014000000000000r ; 5
__real@4040000000000000 DQ 04040000000000000r ; 32
fahr$ = -8 ; size = 8
main PROC
sub esp, 8
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR __imp__printf
push OFFSET $SG4038 ; 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:'
    call esi ; call printf()
    lea eax, DWORD PTR fahr$[esp+16]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG4040 ; '%lf'
call DWORD PTR __imp__scanf
add esp, 12
cmp eax, 1
je SHORT \$LN2@main
push OFFSET \$SG4041 ; 'Error while parsing your input'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
$LN2@main:
    fld QWORD PTR fahr$[esp+12]
fsub QWORD PTR __real@4040000000000000 ; 32
fmul QWORD PTR __real@4014000000000000 ; 5
fdiv QWORD PTR __real@4022000000000000 ; 9
fld QWORD PTR __real@c071100000000000 ; -273
fcomp ST(1)
fnstsw ax
test ah, 65 ; 00000041H
jne SHORT \$LN1@main
push OFFSET \$SG4043 ; 'Error: incorrect temperature!'
fstp ST(0)
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
\$LN1@main:
sub esp, 8
fstp QWORD PTR [esp]
push OFFSET \$SG4044 ; 'Celsius: %lf'
call esi
add esp, 12
; return 0 - by C99 standard
xor eax, eax
pop esi
add esp, 8
ret 0
\$LN10@main:
main ENDP

```
...but MSVC 2012 uses SIMD instructions instead:
Listing 3.3: Optimizing MSVC \(2010 \times 86\)
```

\$SG4228 DB 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4230 DB '%lf', 00H
\$SG4231 DB 'Error while parsing your input', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4233 DB 'Error: incorrect temperature!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG4234 DB 'Celsius: %lf', 0aH, 00H
real@c071100000000000 DQ 0c071100000000000r ; -273
real@4040000000000000 DQ 04040000000000000r ; 32
real@4022000000000000 DQ 04022000000000000r ; 9
real@4014000000000000 DQ 04014000000000000r ; 5

```
```

_fahr\$ = -8 ; size = 8
main PROC
sub esp, 8
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR __imp__printf
push OFFSET $SG4228 - ; 'Enter temperature in Fahrenheit:'
    call esi ; call printf()
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _fahr$[esp+16]
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG4230 ; '%lf'
call DWORD PTR __imp__scanf
add esp, 12
cmp eax, 1
je SHORT \$LN2@main
push OFFSET \$SG4231 ; 'Error while parsing your input'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
\$LN9@main:
$LN2@main:
    movsd xmm1, QWORD PTR _fahr$[esp+12]
subsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@4040000000000000 ; 32
movsd xmm0, QWORD PTR —real@c071100000000000 ; -273
mulsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@40140000000000000 ; 5
divsd xmm1, QWORD PTR __real@4022000000000000 ; 9
comisd xmm0, xmm1
jbe SHORT \$LN1@main
push OFFSET \$SG4233 ; 'Error: incorrect temperature!'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 4
push 0
call DWORD PTR __imp__exit
\$LN10@main:
\$LN1@main:
sub esp, 8
movsd QWORD PTR [esp], xmm1
push OFFSET \$SG4234 ; 'Celsius: %lf'
call esi ; call printf()
add esp, 12
; return 0 - by C99 standard
xor eax, eax
pop esi
add esp, 8
ret 0
\$LN8@main:
main ENDP

```

Of course, SIMD instructions are available in \(x 86\) mode, including those working with floating point numbers.

It's somewhat easier to use them for calculations, so the new Microsoft compiler uses them.
We can also see that the -273 value is loaded into XMM0 register too early. And that's OK, because the compiler may emit instructions not in the order they are in the source code.

\subsection*{3.4 Fibonacci numbers}

Another widespread example used in programming textbooks is a recursive function that generates the Fibonacci numbers \({ }^{3}\). The sequence is very simple: each consecutive number is the sum of the previous two. The first two numbers are 0 and 1 , or 1 and 1 .
The sequence starts like this:
\[
0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55,89,144,233,377,610,987,1597,2584,4181 \ldots
\]

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{3}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17332
}

\subsection*{3.4.1 Example \#1}

The implementation is simple. This program generates the sequence until 21.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void fib (int a, int b, int limit)
{
printf ("%d\n", a+b);
if (a+b > limit)
return;
fib (b, a+b, limit);
};
int main()
{
printf ("0\n1\n1\n");
fib (1, 1, 20);
};

```

Listing 3.4: MSVC \(2010 \times 86\)
```

_a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
b\$ = 12 ; size = 4
-limit\$ = 16 ; size = 4
-fib PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    add eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
push eax
push OFFSET $SG2643
    call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
    add esp, 8
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
add ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    cmp ecx, DWORD PTR limit$[ebp]
jle SHORT \$LN1@fib
jmp SHORT \$LN2@fib
$LN1@fib:
    mov edx, DWORD PTR _limit$[ebp]
push edx
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    add eax, DWORD PTR -b$[ebp]
push eax mWORD PTR b\$[ebp]
push
call fib
add esp, 12
\$LN2@fib:
pop ebp
ret 0
fib ENDP
main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push OFFSET \$SG2647 ; "0\n1\n1\n"
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
add esp, 4
push 20
push 1
push 1
call fib
add èsp, 12
xor eax, eax
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

\subsection*{3.4. FIBONACCI NUMBERS}

We will illustrate the stack frames with this.


Figure 3.1: OllyDbg: last call of \(f()\)

Let's investigate the stack more closely. Comments were added by the author of this book \({ }^{4}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 0035F940 & 00FD1039 & RETURN to fib.00FD1039 from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F944 & 00000008 & 1st argument: a \\
\hline 0035F948 & 00000000 & 2nd argument b \\
\hline 0035F94C & 00000014 & 3rd argument: limit \\
\hline 0035F950 & /0035F964 & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F954 & | 00FD1039 & RETURN to fib.00FD1039 from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F958 & |00000005 & 1st argument: a \\
\hline 0035F95C & |00000008 & 2nd argument: b \\
\hline 0035F960 & |00000014 & 3rd argument: limit \\
\hline 0035F964 & ]0035F978 & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F968 & |00FD1039 & RETURN to fib.00FD1039 from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F96C & |00000003 & 1st argument: a \\
\hline 0035F970 & |00000005 & 2nd argument: b \\
\hline 0035F974 & |00000014 & 3rd argument: limit \\
\hline 0035 F 978 & ]0035F98C & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F97C & | 00FD1039 & RETURN to fib.00FD1039 from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F980 & |00000002 & 1st argument: a \\
\hline 0035F984 & |00000003 & 2nd argument: b \\
\hline 0035F988 & |00000014 & 3rd argument: limit \\
\hline 0035F98C & ]0035F9A0 & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F990 & |00FD1039 & RETURN to fib.00FD1039 from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F994 & |00000001 & 1st argument: a \\
\hline 0035F998 & |00000002 & 2nd argument: b \\
\hline 0035F99C & |00000014 & 3rd argument: limit \\
\hline 0035F9A0 & ]0035F9B4 & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F9A4 & |00FD105C & RETURN to fib.00FD105C from fib.00FD1000 \\
\hline 0035F9A8 & |00000001 & 1st argument: a \} \\
\hline 0035F9AC & |00000001 & 2nd argument: b | prepared in main() for f1() \\
\hline 0035F9B0 & |00000014 & 3rd argument: limit / \\
\hline 0035F9B4 & ]0035F9F8 & saved EBP register \\
\hline 0035F9B8 & |00FD11D0 & RETURN to fib.00FD11D0 from fib.00FD1040 \\
\hline 0035F9BC & |00000001 & main() 1st argument: argc \} \\
\hline 0035F9C0 & |006812C8 & main() 2nd argument: argv | prepared in CRT for main() \\
\hline 0035F9C4 & |00682940 & main() 3rd argument: envp / \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The function is recursive \({ }^{5}\), hence stack looks like a "sandwich".
We see that the limit argument is always the same ( \(0 \times 14\) or 20), but the \(a\) and \(b\) arguments are different for each call.

There are also the RA-s and the saved EBP values. OllyDbg is able to determine the EBP-based frames, so it draws these brackets. The values inside each bracket make the stack frame, in other words, the stack area which each function incarnation uses as scratch space.

We can also say that each function incarnation must not access stack elements beyond the boundaries of its frame (excluding function arguments), although it's technically possible.
It's usually true, unless the function has bugs.
Each saved EBP value is the address of the previous stack frame: this is the reason why some debuggers can easily divide the stack in frames and dump each function's arguments.

As we see here, each function incarnation prepares the arguments for the next function call.
At the end we see the 3 arguments for main(). argc is 1 (yes, indeed, we have ran the program without command-line arguments).

This easily to lead to a stack overflow: just remove (or comment out) the limit check and it will crash with exception 0xC00000FD (stack overflow.)

\subsection*{3.4.2 Example \#2}

My function has some redundancy, so let's add a new local variable next and replace all "a+b" with it:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{4}\) By the way, it's possible to select several entries in OllyDbg and copy them to the clipboard (Ctrl-C). That's what was done by author for this example.
\(5^{5}\) i.e., it calls itself
}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void fib (int a, int b, int limit)
{
int next=a+b;
printf ("%d\n", next);
if (next > limit)
return;
fib (b, next, limit);
};
int main()
{
printf ("0\n1\n1\n");
fib (1, 1, 20);
};

```

This is the output of non-optimizing MSVC, so the next variable is actually allocated in the local stack:
Listing 3.5: MSVC \(2010 \times 86\)
```

_next\$ = -4 ; size = 4
a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
b\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_limit\$ = 16 ; size = 4
fib PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    add eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR next$[ebp], eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _next$[ebp]
push ecx
push OFFSET $SG2751 ; '%d'
    call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
    add esp, 8
    mov edx, DWORD PTR next$[ebp]
cmp edx, DWORD PTR _limit\$[ebp]
jle SHORT \$LN1@fib
jmp SHORT \$LN2@fib
$LN1@fib:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _limit$[ebp]
push eax
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _next\$[ebp]

```

```

    mov edx, DWORD PTR b$[ebp]
    push edx
    call fib
    add esp, 12
    \$LN2@fib:
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
fib ENDP
_main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push OFFSET \$SG2753; "0\n1\n1\n"
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
add esp, 4
push 20
push 1
push 1
call fib
add esp, 12
xor eax, eax
pop ebp
ret 0

```
3.4. FIBONACCI NUMBERS
_main ENDP


Figure 3.2: OllyDbg: last call of \(f()\)

Now the next variable is present in each frame.

Let's investigate the stack more closely. The author has again added his comments:
```

0029FC14
0029FC18
0029FC1C
0029FC20
0029FC24
0029FC28
0029FC2C
0029FC30
0029FC34
0029FC38
0029FC3C
0029FC40
0029FC44
0029FC48
0029FC4C
0029FC50
0029FC54
0029FC58
0029FC5C
0029FC60
0029FC64
0029FC68
0029FC6C
0029FC70
0029FC74
0029FC78
0029FC7C
0029FC80
0029FC84
0029FC88
0029FC8C
0029FC90
0029FC94
0029FC98
0029FC9C
0029FCA0
0029FCA4
0029FCA8
0029FCAC

```
```

00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000

```
00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
00000008 1st argument: a
00000008 1st argument: a
0000000D 2nd argument: b
0000000D 2nd argument: b
00000014 3rd argument: limit
00000014 3rd argument: limit
0000000D "next" variable
0000000D "next" variable
/0029FC40 saved EBP register
/0029FC40 saved EBP register
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
00000005 1st argument: a
00000005 1st argument: a
|00000008 2nd argument: b
|00000008 2nd argument: b
|000000014 3rd argument: limit
|000000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000008 "next" variable
|00000008 "next" variable
]0029FC58 saved EBP register
]0029FC58 saved EBP register
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|000000003 1st argument: a
|000000003 1st argument: a
|000000005 2nd argument: b
|000000005 2nd argument: b
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000005 "next" variable
|00000005 "next" variable
]0029FC70 saved EBP register
]0029FC70 saved EBP register
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00000002 1st argument: a
|00000002 1st argument: a
|00000003 2nd argument: b
|00000003 2nd argument: b
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000003 "next" variable
|00000003 "next" variable
]0029FC88 saved EBP register
]0029FC88 saved EBP register
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00E0103A RETURN to fib2.00E0103A from fib2.00E01000
|00000001 1st argument: a \
|00000001 1st argument: a \
|00000002 2nd argument: b | prepared in fl() for next f1() call
|00000002 2nd argument: b | prepared in fl() for next f1() call
|00000014 3rd argument: limit /
|00000014 3rd argument: limit /
|00000002 "next" variable
|00000002 "next" variable
]0029FC9C saved EBP register
]0029FC9C saved EBP register
|00E0106C RETURN to fib2.00E0106C from fib2.00E01000
|00E0106C RETURN to fib2.00E0106C from fib2.00E01000
|00000001 1st argument: a \
|00000001 1st argument: a \
|00000001 2nd argument: b | prepared in main() for f1()
|00000001 2nd argument: b | prepared in main() for f1()
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
|00000014 3rd argument: limit
    /
    /
    saved EBP register
    saved EBP register
    RETURN to fib2.00E011E0 from fib2.00E01050
    RETURN to fib2.00E011E0 from fib2.00E01050
    main() 1st argument: argc \
    main() 1st argument: argc \
    main() 2nd argument: argv | prepared in CRT for main()
    main() 2nd argument: argv | prepared in CRT for main()
    main() 3rd argument: envp /
```

    main() 3rd argument: envp /
    ```

Here we see it: the next value is calculated in each function incarnation, then passed as argument \(b\) to the next incarnation.

\subsection*{3.4.3 Summary}

Recursive functions are æsthetically nice, but technically may degrade performance because of their heavy stack usage. Everyone who writes performance critical code probably should avoid recursion.
For example, the author of this book once wrote a function to seek a particular node in a binary tree. As a recursive function it looked quite stylish but since additional time was spent at each function call for the prologue/epilogue, it was working a couple of times slower than an iterative (recursion-free) implementation.
By the way, that is the reason that some functional \(\mathrm{PL}^{6}\) compilers (where recursion is used heavily) use tail call. We talk about tail call when a function has only one single call to itself located at the end of it, like:

Listing 3.6: Scheme, example is copypasted from Wikipedia
```

;; factorial : number -> number
;; to calculate the product of all positive
;; integers less than or equal to n.
(define (factorial n)
(if (= n 1)
1

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{6}\) LISP, Python, Lua, etc.
}

Tail call is important because compiler can rework this code easily into iterative one, to get rid of recursion.

\subsection*{3.5 CRC32 calculation example}

This is a very popular table-based CRC32 hash calculation technique \({ }^{7}\).
```

/* By Bob Jenkins, (c) 2006, Public Domain */
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stddef.h>
\#include <string.h>
typedef unsigned long ub4;
typedef unsigned char ub1;
static const ub4 crctab[256] = {
0x00000000, 0x77073096, 0xee0e612c, 0x990951ba, 0x076dc419,
0x706af48f, 0xe963a535, 0x9e6495a3, 0x0edb8832, 0x79dcb8a4,
0xe0d5e91e, 0x97d2d988, 0x09b64c2b, 0x7eb17cbd, 0xe7b82d07,
0x90bf1d91, 0x1db71064, 0x6ab020f2, 0xf3b97148, 0x84be41de,
0x1adad47d, 0x6ddde4eb, 0xf4d4b551, 0x83d385c7, 0x136c9856,
0x646ba8c0, 0xfd62f97a, 0x8a65c9ec, 0x14015c4f, 0x63066cd9,
0xfa0f3d63, 0x8d080df5, 0x3b6e20c8, 0x4c69105e, 0xd56041e4,
0xa2677172, 0x3c03e4d1, 0x4b04d447, 0xd20d85fd, 0xa50ab56b,
0x35b5a8fa, 0x42b2986c, 0xdbbbc9d6, 0xacbcf940, 0x32d86ce3,
0x45df5c75, 0xdcd60dcf, 0xabd13d59, 0x26d930ac, 0x51de003a,
0xc8d75180, 0xbfd06116, 0x21b4f4b5, 0x56b3c423, 0xcfba9599,
0xb8bda50f, 0x2802b89e, 0x5f058808, 0xc60cd9b2, 0xb10be924,
0x2f6f7c87, 0x58684c11, 0xc1611dab, 0xb6662d3d, 0x76dc4190,
0x01db7106, 0x98d220bc, 0xefd5102a, 0x71b18589, 0x06b6b51f,
0x9fbfe4a5, 0xe8b8d433, 0x7807c9a2, 0x0f00f934, 0x9609a88e,
0xe10e9818, 0x7f6a0dbb, 0x086d3d2d, 0x91646c97, 0xe6635c01,
0x6b6b51f4, 0x1c6c6162, 0x856530d8, 0xf262004e, 0x6c0695ed,
0x1b01a57b, 0x8208f4c1, 0xf50fc457, 0x65b0d9c6, 0x12b7e950,
0x8bbeb8ea, 0xfcb9887c, 0x62dd1ddf, 0x15da2d49, 0x8cd37cf3,
0xfbd44c65, 0x4db26158, 0x3ab551ce, 0xa3bc0074, 0xd4bb30e2,
0x4adfa541, 0x3dd895d7, 0xa4d1c46d, 0xd3d6f4fb, 0x4369e96a,
0x346ed9fc, 0xad678846, 0xda60b8d0, 0x44042d73, 0x33031de5,
0xaa0a4c5f, 0xdd0d7cc9, 0x5005713c, 0x270241aa, 0xbe0b1010,
0xc90c2086, 0x5768b525, 0x206f85b3, 0xb966d409, 0xce61e49f,
0x5edef90e, 0x29d9c998, 0xb0d09822, 0xc7d7a8b4, 0x59b33d17,
0x2eb40d81, 0xb7bd5c3b, 0xc0ba6cad, 0xedb88320, 0x9abfb3b6,
0x03b6e20c, 0x74b1d29a, 0xead54739, 0x9dd277af, 0x04db2615,
0x73dc1683, 0xe3630b12, 0x94643b84, 0x0d6d6a3e, 0x7a6a5aa8,
0xe40ecf0b, 0x9309ff9d, 0x0a00ae27, 0x7d079eb1, 0xf00f9344,
0x8708a3d2, 0x1e01f268, 0x6906c2fe, 0xf762575d, 0x806567cb,
0x196c3671, 0x6e6b06e7, 0xfed41b76, 0x89d32be0, 0x10da7a5a,
0x67dd4acc, 0xf9b9df6f, 0x8ebeeff9, 0x17b7be43, 0x60b08ed5,
0xd6d6a3e8, 0xa1d1937e, 0x38d8c2c4, 0x4fdff252, 0xd1bb67f1,
0xa6bc5767, 0x3fb506dd, 0x48b2364b, 0xd80d2bda, 0xaf0a1b4c,
0x36034af6, 0x41047a60, 0xdf60efc3, 0xa867df55, 0x316e8eef,
0x4669be79, 0xcb61b38c, 0xbc66831a, 0x256fd2a0, 0x5268e236,
0xcc0c7795, 0xbb0b4703, 0x220216b9, 0x5505262f, 0xc5ba3bbe,
0xb2bd0b28, 0x2bb45a92, 0x5cb36a04, 0xc2d7ffa7, 0xb5d0cf31,
0x2cd99e8b, 0x5bdeae1d, 0x9b64c2b0, 0xec63f226, 0x756aa39c,
0x026d930a, 0x9c0906a9, 0xeb0e363f, 0x72076785, 0x05005713,
0x95bf4a82, 0xe2b87a14, 0x7bb12bae, 0x0cb61b38, 0x92d28e9b,
0xe5d5be0d, 0x7cdcefb7, 0x0bdbdf21, 0x86d3d2d4, 0xf1d4e242,
0x68ddb3f8, 0x1fda836e, 0x81be16cd, 0xf6b9265b, 0x6fb077e1,
0x18b74777, 0x88085ae6, 0xff0f6a70, 0x66063bca, 0x11010b5c,
0x8f659eff, 0xf862ae69, 0x616bffd3, 0x166ccf45, 0xa00ae278,
0xd70dd2ee, 0x4e048354, 0x3903b3c2, 0xa7672661, 0xd06016f7,
0x4969474d, 0x3e6e77db, 0xaed16a4a, 0xd9d65adc, 0x40df0b66,
0x37d83bf0, 0xa9bcae53, 0xdebb9ec5, 0x47b2cf7f, 0x30b5ffe9,

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{7}\) The source code has been taken from here: http://go.yurichev.com/17327
}

\subsection*{3.5. CRC32 CALCULATION EXAMPLE}
```

    0xbdbdf21c, 0xcabac28a, 0x53b39330, 0x24b4a3a6, 0xbad03605,
    0xcdd70693, 0x54de5729, 0x23d967bf, 0xb3667a2e, 0xc4614ab8,
    0x5d681b02, 0x2a6f2b94, 0xb40bbe37, 0xc30c8ea1, 0x5a05df1b,
    0x2d02ef8d
    };
/* how to derive the values in crctab[] from polynomial 0xedb88320 */
void build_table()
{
ub4 i, j;
for (i=0; i<256; ++i) {
j = i;
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
j = (j>>1) ^ ((j\&1) ? 0xedb88320 : 0);
printf("0x%.8lx, ", j);
if (i%6 == 5) printf("\n");
}
}
/* the hash function */
ub4 crc(const void *key, ub4 len, ub4 hash)
{
ub4 i;
const ub1 *k = key;
for (hash=len, i=0; i<len; ++i)
hash = (hash >> 8) ^ crctab[(hash \& 0xff) ^ k[i]];
return hash;
}
/* To use, try "gcc -0 crc.c -o crc; crc < crc.c" */
int main()
{
char s[1000];
while (gets(s)) printf("%.8lx\n", crc(s, strlen(s), 0));
return 0;
}

```

We are interested in the crc() function only. By the way, pay attention to the two loop initializers in the for() statement: hash=len, \(i=0\). The C/C++ standard allows this, of course. The emitted code will contain two operations in the loop initialization part instead of one.

Let's compile it in MSVC with optimization (/0x). For the sake of brevity, only the crc() function is listed here, with my comments.
```

_key\$ = 8 ; size = 4
len\$ = 12 ; size = 4
hash\$ = 16 ; size = 4
_crc PROC
mov edx, DWORD PTR len\$[esp-4]
xor ecx, ecx ; i will be stored in ECX
mov eax, edx
test edx, edx
jbe SHORT $LN1@crc
    push ebx
    push esi
    mov esi, DWORD PTR _key$[esp+4] ; ESI = key
push edi
\$LL3@crc:
; work with bytes using only 32 -bit registers. byte from address key+i we store into EDI

```
```

movzx edi, BYTE PTR [ecx+esi]

```
movzx edi, BYTE PTR [ecx+esi]
mov ebx, eax ; EBX = (hash = len)
```

mov ebx, eax ; EBX = (hash = len)

```

\subsection*{3.5. CRC32 CALCULATION EXAMPLE}


Let's try the same in GCC 4.4 .1 with -03 option:


GCC has aligned the loop start on a 8-byte boundary by adding NOP and lea esi, [esi+0] (that is an idle operation too). Read more about it in npad section ( .1.7 on page 1038).

\subsection*{3.6. NETWORK ADDRESS CALCULATION EXAMPLE}

\subsection*{3.6 Network address calculation example}

As we know, a TCP/IP address (IPv4) consists of four numbers in the \(0 . .255\) range, i.e., four bytes.
Four bytes can be fit in a 32-bit variable easily, so an IPv4 host address, network mask or network address can all be 32-bit integers.

From the user's point of view, the network mask is defined as four numbers and is formatted like 255.255.255.0 or so, but network engineers (sysadmins) use a more compact notation (CIDR \({ }^{8}\) ), like "/8", "/16", etc.

This notation just defines the number of bits the mask has, starting at the MSB.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|}
\hline Mask & Hosts & Usable & Netmask & Hex mask & \\
\hline\(/ 30\) & 4 & 2 & 255.255 .255 .252 & 0xfffffffc & \\
\hline\(/ 29\) & 8 & 6 & 255.255 .255 .248 & 0xffffffe & \\
\hline\(/ 28\) & 16 & 14 & 255.255 .255 .240 & 0xfffffff0 & \\
\hline\(/ 27\) & 32 & 30 & 255.255 .255 .224 & 0xffffffe0 & \\
\hline\(/ 26\) & 64 & 62 & 255.255 .255 .192 & 0xffffffc0 & \\
\hline\(/ 24\) & 256 & 254 & 255.255 .255 .0 & 0xffffff00 & class C network \\
\hline\(/ 23\) & 512 & 510 & 255.255 .254 .0 & 0xffffe00 & \\
\hline\(/ 22\) & 1024 & 1022 & 255.255 .252 .0 & 0xfffffc00 & \\
\hline\(/ 21\) & 2048 & 2046 & 255.255 .248 .0 & 0xfffff800 & \\
\hline\(/ 20\) & 4096 & 4094 & 255.255 .240 .0 & 0xfffff000 & \\
\hline\(/ 19\) & 8192 & 8190 & 255.255 .224 .0 & 0xffffe000 & \\
\hline\(/ 18\) & 16384 & 16382 & 255.255 .192 .0 & 0xffff0000 & \\
\hline\(/ 17\) & 32768 & 32766 & 255.255 .128 .0 & 0xffff8000 & \\
\hline\(/ 16\) & 65536 & 65534 & 255.255 .0 .0 & 0xffff0000 & class B network \\
\hline\(/ 8\) & 16777216 & 16777214 & 255.0 .0 .0 & 0xff000000 & class A network \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here is a small example, which calculates the network address by applying the network mask to the host address.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
uint32_t form_IP (uint8_t ip1, uint8_t ip2, uint8_t ip3, uint8_t ip4)
{
};
void print_as_IP (uint32_t a)
{
printf ("%d.%d.%d.%d\n",
(a>>24)\&0xFF,
(a>>16)\&0xFF,
(a>>8)\&0xFF,
(a) \&0xFF);
};
// bit=31..0
uint32_t set_bit (uint32_t input, int bit)
{
};
uint32_t form_netmask (uint8_t netmask_bits)
{
uint32 t netmask=0;
uint8_t i;
for (i=0; i<netmask bits; i++)
netmask=set_bit(netmask, 31-i);
return netmask;
};
void calc_network_address (uint8_t ip1, uint8_t ip2, uint8_t ip3, uint8_t ip4, uint8_t \swarrow
netmask_bits)
{

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{8}\) Classless Inter-Domain Routing
}
```

uint32 t netmask=form_netmask(netmask bits);
uint32_t ip=form_IP(ip1, ip2, ip3, ip4);
uint32_t netw_adr;
printf ("netmask=");
print_as_IP (netmask);
netw_adr=ip\&netmask;
printf ("network address=");
print_as_IP (netw_adr);
};
int main()
{
calc_network_address (10, 1, 2, 4, 24); // 10.1.2.4, /24
calc_network_address (10, 1, 2, 4, 8); // 10.1.2.4, /8
calc_network_address (10, 1, 2, 4, 25); // 10.1.2.4, /25
calc_network_address (10, 1, 2, 64, 26); // 10.1.2.4, /26
};

```

\subsection*{3.6.1 calc_network_address()}
calc_network_address () function is simplest one: it just ANDs the host address with the network mask, resulting in the network address.

Listing 3.7: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob0
```

ip1\$ = 8 ; size = 1
ip2\$ = 12 ; size = 1
ip3\$ = 16 ; size = 1
-ip4\$ = 20 ; size = 1
_netmask_bits\$ = 24 ; size = 1
_calc_network_address PROC
push - edi
push DWORD PTR _netmask_bits\$[esp]
call form_netmask
push \overline{OFFSET \$SG3045 ; 'netmask='}
mov edi, eax
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
push edi
call _print_as_IP
push OFFSET $SG3046 ; 'network address='
    call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
    push DWORD PTR _ip4$[esp+16]
push DWORD PTR ip3$[esp+20]
    push DWORD PTR -ip2$[esp+24]
push DWORD PTR _ip1\$[esp+28]
call form IP
and eax, èdi ; network address = host address \& netmask
push eax
call _print_as_IP
add esp, 3\overline{6}
pop edi
ret 0
calc_network address ENDP

```

At line 22 we see the most important AND—here the network address is calculated.

\subsection*{3.6.2 form_IP()}

The form_IP() function just puts all 4 bytes into a 32 -bit value.
Here is how it is usually done:
- Allocate a variable for the return value. Set it to 0 .
- Take the fourth (lowest) byte, apply OR operation to this byte and return the value. The return value contain the 4th byte now.
- Take the third byte, shift it left by 8 bits. You'll get a value like \(0 x 0000 \mathrm{bb} 00\) where bb is your third byte. Apply the OR operation to the resulting value and returning value. The return value has contained \(0 x 000000\) aa so far, so ORing the values will produce a value like \(0 \times 0000 \mathrm{bbaa}\).
- Take the second byte, shift it left by 16 bits. You'll get a value like \(0 x 00 \mathrm{cc} 0000\), where cc is your second byte. Apply the OR operation to the resulting value and returning value. The return value has contained \(0 x 0000\) bbaa so far, so ORing the values will produce a value like \(0 x 00 c c b b a a\).
- Take the first byte, shift it left by 24 bits. You'll get a value like \(0 x d d 000000\), where dd is your first byte. Apply the OR operation to the resulting value and returning value. The return value has contained \(0 x 00 c c b b a a\) so far, so ORing the values will produce a value like \(0 x d d c c b b a a\).
And this is how it's done by non-optimizing MSVC 2012:
Listing 3.8: Non-optimizing MSVC 2012
```

; denote ip1 as "dd", ip2 as "cc", ip3 as "bb", ip4 as "aa".
_ip1\$ = 8 ; size = 1
ip2\$ = 12 ; size = 1
_ip3\$ = 16 ; size = 1
_ip4\$ = 20 ; size = 1
form IP PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
movzx eax, BYTE PTR _ip1$[ebp]
    ; EAX=000000dd
    shl eax, 24
    ; EAX=dd000000
    movzx ecx, BYTE PTR ip2$[ebp]
; ECX=000000cc
shl ecx, 16
; ECX=00cc0000
or eax, ecx
; EAX=ddcc0000
movzx edx, BYTE PTR ip3$[ebp]
    ; EDX=000000bb
    shl edx, 8
    ; EDX=0000bb00
    or eax, edx
    ; EAX=ddccbb00
    movzx ecx, BYTE PTR ip4$[ebp]
; ECX=0000000aa
or eax, ecx
; EAX=ddccbbaa
pop ebp
ret 0
form_IP ENDP

```

Well, the order is different, but, of course, the order of the operations doesn't matter.
Optimizing MSVC 2012 does essentially the same, but in a different way:
Listing 3.9: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob0
```

; denote ip1 as "dd", ip2 as "cc", ip3 as "bb", ip4 as "aa".
ip1\$ = 8 ; size = 1
-ip2\$ = 12 ; size = 1
ip3\$ = 16 ; size = 1
-ip4\$ = 20 ; size = 1
_form_IP PROC
movzx eax, BYTE PTR _ip1$[esp-4]
    ; EAX=000000dd
    movzx ecx, BYTE PTR _ip2$[esp-4]
; ECX=000000cc
shl eax, 8
; EAX=0000dd00
or eax, ecx
; EAX=0000ddcc
movzx ecx, BYTE PTR _ip3\$[esp-4]

```
```

    ; ECX=0000000bb
    shl eax, 8
    ; EAX=00ddcc00
    or eax, ecx
    ; EAX=00ddccbb
    movzx ecx, BYTE PTR _ip4$[esp-4]
    ; ECX=000000aa
    shl eax, 8
    ; EAX=ddccbb00
    or eax, ecX
    ; EAX=ddccbbaa
    ret 0
    form_IP ENDP

```

We could say that each byte is written to the lowest 8 bits of the return value, and then the return value is shifted left by one byte at each step.

Repeat 4 times for each input byte.
That's it! Unfortunately, there are probably no other ways to do it.
There are no popular CPUs or ISAs which has instruction for composing a value from bits or bytes.
It's all usually done by bit shifting and ORing.

\subsection*{3.6.3 print_as_IP()}
print_as_IP() does the inverse: splitting a 32-bit value into 4 bytes.
Slicing works somewhat simpler: just shift input value by \(24,16,8\) or 0 bits, take the bits from zeroth to seventh (lowest byte), and that's it:

Listing 3.10: Non-optimizing MSVC 2012
```

a\$ = 8
_print_as_IP PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    ; EAX=ddccbbaa
    and eax, 255
    ; EAX=000000aa
    push eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
; ECX=ddccbbaa
shr ecx, 8
; ECX=00ddccbb
and ecx, 255
; ECX=000000bb
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    ; EDX=ddccbbaa
    shr edx, 16
    ; EDX=0000ddcc
    and edx, 255
    ; EDX=000000cc
    push edx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
; EAX=ddccbbaa
shr eax, 24
; EAX=000000dd
and eax, 255 ; probably redundant instruction
; EAX=000000dd
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG2973 ; '%d.%d.%d.%d'
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
add esp, 20
pop ebp
ret 0
print_as_IP ENDP

```

Listing 3.11: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob0
```

a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
_print_as_IP PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a\$[esp-4]
; ECX=ddccbbaa
movzx eax, cl
; EAX=000000aa
push eax
mov eax, ecx
; EAX=ddccbbaa
shr eax, 8
; EAX=00ddccbb
and eax, 255
; EAX=000000bb
push eax
mov eax, ecx
; EAX=ddccbbaa
shr eax, 16
; EAX=0000ddcc
and eax, 255
; EAX=000000cc
push eax
; ECX=ddccbbaa
shr ecx, 24
; ECX=000000dd
push ecx
push OFFSET \$SG3020 ; '%d.%d.%d.%d'
call DWORD PTR __imp__printf
add esp, 20
ret 0
print_as_IP ENDP

```

\subsection*{3.6.4 form_netmask() and set_bit()}
form_netmask() makes a network mask value from CIDR notation. Of course, it would be much effective to use here some kind of a precalculated table, but we consider it in this way intentionally, to demonstrate bit shifts.

We will also write a separate function set_bit(). It's a not very good idea to create a function for such primitive operation, but it would be easy to understand how it all works.

Listing 3.12: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /ObO
```

_input\$ = 8 ; size = 4
-bit\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_set_bit PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _bit$[esp-4]
    mov eax, 1
    shl eax, cl
    or eax, DWORD PTR _input$[esp-4]
ret 0
_set_bit ENDP
netmask bits\$ = 8 ; size = 1
form_netmask PROC
push ebx
push esi
movzx esi, BYTE PTR netmask_bits\$[esp+4]
xor ecx, ecx
xor bl, bl
test esi, esi
jle SHORT \$LN9@form_netma
xor edx, edx
\$LL3@form_netma:
mov eax, 31
sub eax, edx

```
\begin{tabular}{cl}
\hline push & eax \\
push & ecx \\
call & set_bit \\
inc & bl \\
movzx & edx, bl \\
add & esp, 8 \\
mov & ecx, eax \\
cmp & edx, esi \\
jl & SHORT \$LL3@form_netma \\
\$LN9@form_netma: \\
pop & esi \\
mov & eax, ecx \\
pop & ebx \\
ret & 0 \\
form_netmask &
\end{tabular}
set_bit() is primitive: it just shift left 1 to number of bits we need and then ORs it with the "input" value. form_netmask() has a loop: it will set as many bits (starting from the MSB) as passed in the netmask_bits argument

\subsection*{3.6.5 Summary}

That's it! We run it and getting:
```

netmask=255.255.255.0
network address=10.1.2.0
netmask=255.0.0.0
network address=10.0.0.0
netmask=255.255.255.128
network address=10.1.2.0
netmask=255.255.255.192
network address=10.1.2.64

```

\subsection*{3.7 Loops: several iterators}

In most cases loops have only one iterator, but there could be several in the resulting code.
Here is a very simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(int *a1, int *a2, size_t cnt)
{
size_t i;
// copy from one array to another in some weird scheme
for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
a1[i*3]=a2[i*7];
};

```

There are two multiplications at each iteration and they are costly operations. Can we optimize it somehow?

Yes, if we notice that both array indices are jumping on values that we can easily calculate without multiplication.

\subsection*{3.7.1 Three iterators}

Listing 3.13: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)

\footnotetext{
f PROC
; RCX=a1
; RDX=a2
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{|; R8=cnt} \\
\hline & test & r8, r8 ; cnt==0? exit then \\
\hline & je & SHORT \$LN1@f \\
\hline & npad & 11 \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\$LL3@f:} \\
\hline & mov & eax, DWORD PTR [rdx] \\
\hline & lea & rcx, QWORD PTR [rcx+12] \\
\hline & lea & rdx, QWORD PTR [rdx+28] \\
\hline & mov & DWORD PTR [rcx-12], eax \\
\hline & dec & r8 \\
\hline & jne & SHORT \$LL3@f \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\$LN1@f:} \\
\hline & ret & 0 \\
\hline f & ENDP & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Now there are 3 iterators: the cnt variable and two indices, which are increased by 12 and 28 at each iteration. We can rewrite this code in C/C++:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(int *al, int *a2, size_t cnt)
{
size_t i;
size_t idx1=0; idx2=0;
// copy from one array to another in some weird scheme
for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
{
a1[idx1]=a2[idx2];
idx1+=3;
idx2+=7;
};
};

```

So, at the cost of updating 3 iterators at each iteration instead of one, we can remove two multiplication operations.

\subsection*{3.7.2 Two iterators}

GCC 4.9 does even more, leaving only 2 iterators:
Listing 3.14: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

; RDI=a1
; RSI=a2
; RDX=cnt
f:
test rdx, rdx ; cnt==0? exit then
je .L1
; calculate last element address in "a2" and leave it in RDX
lea rax, [0+rdx*4]
; RAX=RDX*4=cnt*4
sal rdx, 5
; RDX=RDX<<5=cnt*32
sub rdx, rax
; RDX=RDX-RAX=cnt*32-cnt*4=cnt*28
add rdx, rsi
; RDX=RDX+RSI=a2+cnt*28
.L3:
mov eax, DWORD PTR [rsi]
add rsi, 28
add rdi, 12
mov DWORD PTR [rdi-12], eax
cmp rsi, rdx
jne .L3
.L1:
rep ret

```

\subsection*{3.7. LOOPS: SEVERAL ITERATORS}

There is no counter variable any more: GCC concluded that it is not needed.
The last element of the a2 array is calculated before the loop begins (which is easy: cnt*7) and that's how the loop is to be stopped: just iterate until the second index reaches this precalculated value.
You can read more about multiplication using shifts/additions/subtractions here: 1.18.1 on page 213. This code can be rewritten into \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) like that:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(int *a1, int *a2, size_t cnt)
{
size_t idxl=0; idx2=0;
size_t last_idx2=cnt*7;
// copy from one array to another in some weird scheme
for (;;)
{
a1[idx1]=a2[idx2];
idx1+=3;
idx2+=7;
if (idx2==last_idx2)
break;
};
};

```

GCC (Linaro) 4.9 for ARM64 does the same, but it precalculates the last index of a1 instead of a2, which, of course has the same effect:

\section*{Listing 3.15: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9 ARM64}
```

; X0=a1
; Xl=a2
; X2=cnt
f:
cbz x2, .L1 ; cnt==0? exit then
; calculate last element of "al" array
add x2, x2, x2, lsl 1
; X2=X2+X2<<1=X2+X2*2=X2*3
mov x3, 0
lsl x2, x2, 2
; X2=X2<<2=X2*4=X2*3*4=X2*12
.L3:
ldr w4, [x1],28 ; load at X1, add 28 to X1 (post-increment)
str w4, [x0,x3] ; store at X0+X3=al+X3
add x3, x3, 12 ; shift X3
cmp x3, x2 ; end?
bne .L3
.L1:
ret

```

GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS does the same:
Listing 3.16: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS (IDA)
```

\$a0=a1
\$a1=a2
\$a2=cnt
f:
; jump to loop check code:
beqz \$a2, locret_24
; initialize counter (i) at 0:
move \$v0, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
loc 8:
; load 32-bit word at \$a1
lw $a3, 0($a1)
; increment counter (i):
addiu \$v0, 1
; check for finish (compare "i" in \$v0 and "cnt" in \$a2):
sltu \$v1, \$v0, \$a2

```
```

; store 32-bit word at \$a0:
sw $a3, 0($a0)
; add 0x1C (28) to \$al at each iteration:
addiu \$a1, 0x1C
; jump to loop body if i<cnt:
bnez \$v1, loc 8
; add 0xC (12) to \$a0 at each iteration:
addiu \$a0, 0xC ; branch delay slot
locret_24:
jr \$ra
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

```

\subsection*{3.7.3 Intel C++ 2011 case}

Compiler optimizations can also be weird, but nevertheless, still correct. Here is what the Intel C++ compiler 2011 does:

Listing 3.17: Optimizing Intel C++ 2011 x64
```

f PROC
; parameter 1: rcx = al
; parameter 2: rdx = a2
; parameter 3: r8 = cnt
.B1.1::
test r8, r8
jbe exit

```
.B1. 2 :
    cmp r8, 6
    jbe just_copy
.B1.3:
    \(\begin{array}{ll}\text { cmp } & \text { rcx, rdx } \\ \text { jbe } & \text {.B1.5 }\end{array}\)
.B1.4:
    mov \(\quad r 10, r 8\)
    mov r9, rcx
    shl r10, 5
    lea rax, QWORD PTR [r8*4]
    sub r9, rdx
    sub r10, rax
    cmp r9, r10
    jge just_copy2
.B1.5:
    cmp rdx, rcx
    jbe just_copy
.B1.6::
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov & \(r 9, r d x\) \\
lea & rax, QWORD PTR \([r 8 * 8]\) \\
sub & r9, rcx \\
lea & r10, QWORD PTR \([r a x+r 8 * 4]\) \\
cmp & r9, r10 \\
jl & just_copy
\end{tabular}
just copy2::
; R8 = cnt
; RDX = a2
; RCX = al
    xor r10d, r10d
    xor r9d, r9d
    xor eax, eax
.B1. 8 : :
mov rlld, DWORD PTR [rax+rdx]


First, there are some decisions taken, then one of the routines is executed.
Looks like it is a check if arrays intersect.
This is very well known way of optimizing memory block copy routines. But copy routines are the same!
This is has to be an error of the Intel C++ optimizer, which still produces workable code, though.
We intentionally considering such example code in this book so the reader would understand that compiler output is weird at times, but still correct, because when the compiler was tested, it passed the tests.

\subsection*{3.8 Duff's device}

Duff's device \({ }^{9}\) is an unrolled loop with the possibility to jump to the middle of it. The unrolled loop is implemented using a fallthrough switch() statement. We would use here a slightly simplified version of Tom Duff's original code. Let's say, we have to write a function that clears a region in memory. One can come with a simple loop, clearing byte by byte. It's obviously slow, since all modern computers have much wider memory bus. So the better way is to clear the memory region using 4 or 8 bytes blocks. Since we are going to work with a 64-bit example here, we are going to clear the memory in 8 bytes blocks. So far so good. But what about the tail? Memory clearing routine can also be called for regions of size that's not a multiple of 8 . So here is the algorithm:
- calculate the number of 8-bytes blocks, clear them using 8-bytes (64-bit) memory accesses;
- calculate the size of the tail, clear it using 1-byte memory accesses.

The second step can be implemented using a simple loop. But let's implement it as an unrolled loop:
```

\#include <stdint.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void bzero(uint8_t* dst, size t count)
{
int i;
if (count\&(~7))
// work out 8-byte blocks
for (i=0; i<count>>3; i++)
{

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{9}\) wikipedia
}
```

                *(uint64_t*)dst=0;
                dst=dst+8;
        };
    // work out the tail
    switch(count & 7)
    {
    case 7: *dst++ = 0;
    case 6: *dst++ = 0;
    case 5: *dst++ = 0;
    case 4: *dst++ = 0;
    case 3: *dst++ = 0;
    case 2: *dst++ = 0;
    case 1: *dst++ = 0;
    case 0: // do nothing
        break;
    }
    }

```

Let's first understand how the calculation is performed. The memory region size comes as a 64-bit value. And this value can be divided in two parts:

( " \(B\) " is number of 8-byte blocks and " \(S\) " is length of the tail in bytes ).
When we divide the input memory region size by 8 , the value is just shifted right by 3 bits. But to calculate the remainder, we can just to isolate the lowest 3 bits! So the number of 8 -byte blocks is calculated as count >> 3 and remainder as count \&7. We also have to find out if we are going to execute the 8 -byte procedure at all, so we need to check if the value of count is greater than 7 . We do this by clearing the 3 lowest bits and comparing the resulting number with zero, because all we need here is to answer the question, is the high part of count non-zero. Of course, this works because 8 is \(2^{3}\) and division by numbers that are \(2^{n}\) is easy. It's not possible for other numbers. It's actually hard to say if these hacks are worth using, because they lead to hard-to-read code. However, these tricks are very popular and a practicing programmer, even if he/she is not using them, nevertheless has to understand them.
So the first part is simple: get the number of 8 -byte blocks and write 64 -bit zero values to memory. The second part is an unrolled loop implemented as fallthrough switch() statement.

First, let's express in plain English what we have to do here.
We have to "write as many zero bytes in memory, as count\&7 value tells us". If it's 0 , jump to the end, there is no work to do. If it's 1 , jump to the place inside switch() statement where only one storage operation is to be executed. If it's 2 , jump to another place, where two storage operation are to be executed, etc. 7 as input value leads to the execution of all 7 operations. There is no 8 , because a memory region of 8 bytes is to be processed by the first part of our function. So we wrote an unrolled loop. It was definitely faster on older computers than normal loops (and conversely, latest CPUs works better for short loops than for unrolled ones). Maybe this is still meaningful on modern low-cost embedded \(\mathrm{MCU}^{10} \mathrm{~s}\).
Let's see what the optimizing MSVC 2012 does:
```

dst\$ = 8
count\$ = 16
bzero PROC
test rdx, -8
je SHORT \$LN11@bzero
; work out 8-byte blocks
xor r10d, r10d
mov r9, rdx
shr r9, 3
mov r8d, r10d
test r9, r9
je SHORT \$LN11@bzero
npad 5
\$LL19@bzero:
inc r8d
mov QWORD PTR [rcx], r10
add rCx, 8

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{10}\) Microcontroller Unit
}
```

    movsxd rax, r8d
    cmp rax, r9
    jb SHORT $LL19@bzero
    \$LN11@bzero:
; work out the tail
and edx, 7
dec rdx
cmp rdx, 6
ja SHORT \$LN9@bzero
lea r8, OFFSET FLAT:__ImageBase
mov eax, DWORD PTR \$LN22@bzero[r8+rdx*4]
add rax, r8
jmp rax
\$LN8@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcX
\$LN7@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcX
\$LN6@bzero:
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcx
\$LN5@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcx
\$LN4@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcx
\$LN3@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
inc rcx
\$LN2@bzero
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
\$LN9@bzero:
fatret 0
npad 1
\$LN22@bzero:
DD \$LN2@bzero
DD \$LN3@bzero
DD \$LN4@bzero
DD \$LN5@bzero
DD \$LN6@bzero
DD \$LN7@bzero
DD \$LN8@bzero
bzero ENDP

```

The first part of the function is predictable. The second part is just an unrolled loop and a jump passing control flow to the correct instruction inside it. There is no other code between the MOV/INC instruction pairs, so the execution is to fall until the very end, executing as many pairs as needed. By the way, we can observe that the MOV/INC pair consumes a fixed number of bytes ( \(3+3\) ). So the pair consumes 6 bytes. Knowing that, we can get rid of the switch() jumptable, we can just multiple the input value by 6 and jump to current_RIP + input_value * 6 .
This can also be faster because we are not in need to fetch a value from the jumptable.
It's possible that 6 probably is not a very good constant for fast multiplication and maybe it's not worth it, but you get the idea \({ }^{11}\).

That is what old-school demomakers did in the past with unrolled loops.

\subsection*{3.8.1 Should one use unrolled loops?}

Unrolled loops can have benefits if there is no fast cache memory between RAM and CPU, and the CPU, in order to get the code of the next instruction, must load it from RAM each time. This is a case of modern low-cost MCU and old CPUs.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{11}\) As an exercise, you can try to rework the code to get rid of the jumptable. The instruction pair can be rewritten in a way that it will consume 4 bytes or maybe 8.1 byte is also possible (using STOSB instruction).
}

Unrolled loops are slower than short loops if there is a fast cache between RAM and CPU and the body of loop can fit into cache, and CPU will load the code from it not touching the RAM. Fast loops are the loops which body's size can fit into Ll cache, but even faster loops are those small ones which can fit into micro-operation cache.

\subsection*{3.9 Division using multiplication}

A very simple function:
```

int f(int a)
{
};

```

\subsection*{3.9.1 x86}
.is compiled in a very predictable way:
Listing 3.18: MSVC
```

a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp]
cdq ; sign extend EAX to EDX:EAX
mov ecx, 9
idiv ecx
pop ebp
ret 0
f ENDP

```

IDIV divides the 64-bit number stored in the EDX: EAX register pair by the value in the ECX. As a result, EAX will contain the quotient, and EDX - the remainder. The result is returned from the \(f()\) function in the EAX register, so the value is not moved after the division operation, it is in right place already.

Since IDIV uses the value in the EDX: EAX register pair, the CDQ instruction (before IDIV) extends the value in EAX to a 64-bit value taking its sign into account, just as MOVSX does.

If we turn optimization on (/0x), we get:
Listing 3.19: Optimizing MSVC
```

a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
f PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR a\$[esp-4]
mov eax, 954437177 ; 38e38e39H
imul ecx
sar edx, 1
mov eax, edx
shr eax, 31 ; 0000001fH
add eax, edx
ret 0
f ENDP

```

This is division by multiplication. Multiplication operations work much faster. And it is possible to use this trick \({ }^{12}\) to produce code which is effectively equivalent and faster.
This is also called "strength reduction" in compiler optimizations.
GCC 4.4.1 generates almost the same code even without additional optimization flags, just like MSVC with optimization turned on:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{12}\) Read more about division by multiplication in [Henry S. Warren, Hacker's Delight, (2002)10-3]
}
```

    public f
    f proc near
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov ecx, [ebp+arg 0]
mov edx, 954437177 ; 38E38E39h
mov eax, ecx
imul edx
sar edx, l
mov eax, ecx
sar eax, 1Fh
mov ecx, edx
sub ecx, eax
mov eax, ecx
pop ebp
retn
endp

```

\subsection*{3.9.2 How it works}

From school-level mathematics, we can remember that division by 9 can be replaced by multiplication by \(\frac{1}{9}\). In fact, sometimes compilers do so for floating-point arithmetics, for example, FDIV instruction in x86 code can be replaced by FMUL. At least MSVC 6.0 will replace division by 9 by multiplication by \(0.111111 .\). and sometimes it's hard to be sure, what operation was in original source code.
But when we operate over integer values and integer CPU registers, we can't use fractions. However, we can rework fraction like that:
\[
\text { result }=\frac{x}{9}=x \cdot \frac{1}{9}=x \cdot \frac{1 \cdot \text { MagicNumber }}{9 \cdot \text { MagicNumber }}
\]

Given the fact that division by \(2^{n}\) is very fast (using shifts), we now should find that MagicNumber, for which the following equation will be true: \(2^{n}=9 \cdot\) MagicNumber.
Division by \(2^{32}\) is somewhat hidden: lower 32-bit of product in EAX is not used (dropped), only higher 32-bit of product (in EDX) is used and then shifted by additional 1 bit.

In other words, the assembly code we have just seen multiplicates by \(\frac{954437177}{2^{32+1}}\), or divides by \(\frac{2^{32+1}}{954437177}\). To find divisor we just have to divide numerator by denominator. Using Wolfram Alpha, we can get 8.99999999.... as result (which is close to 9).

Read more about it in [Henry S. Warren, Hacker's Delight, (2002)10-3].
Couple of words about better understanding. Many people miss "hidden" division by \(2^{32}\) or \(2^{64}\), when lower 32-bit part (or 64-bit part) of product is not used. Also, there is misconception that modulo inverse is used here. This is close, but not the same thing. Extended Euclidean algorithm is usually used to find magic coefficient, but in fact, this algorithm is rather used to solve the equation. You can solve it using any other method. Anyway, Extended Euclidean algorithm is probably the most efficient way to solve it. Also, needless to mention, the equation is unsolvable for some divisors, because this is diophantine equation (i.e., equation allowing result to be only integer), since we work on integer CPU registers, after all.

\subsection*{3.9.3 ARM}

The ARM processor, just like in any other "pure" RISC processor lacks an instruction for division. It also lacks a single instruction for multiplication by a 32-bit constant (recall that a 32-bit constant cannot fit into a 32-bit opcode).

By taking advantage of this clever trick (or hack), it is possible to do division using only three instructions: addition, subtraction and bit shifts ( 1.22 on page 304).
Here is an example that divides a 32-bit number by 10, from [Advanced RISC Machines Ltd, The ARM Cookbook, (1994)3.3 Division by a Constant]. The output consists of the quotient and the remainder.
```

; takes argument in al
; returns quotient in al, remainder in a2
; cycles could be saved if only divide or remainder is required
SUB a2, a1, \#10 ; keep (x-10) for later
SUB al, al, al, lsr \#2
ADD al, al, al, lsr \#4
ADD al, al, al, lsr \#8
ADD al, al, al, lsr \#16
MOV al, al, lsr \#3
ADD a3, a1, a1, asl \#2
SUBS a2, a2, a3, asl \#1 ; calc (x-10) - (x/10)*10
ADDPL al, al, \#1 ; fix-up quotient
ADDMI a2, a2, \#10 ; fix-up remainder
MOV pc, lr

```

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (ARM mode)}
\begin{tabular}{|llllll|}
\hline _text:00002C58 39 1E 08 E3 E3 18 43 E3 & M0V & R1, 0x38E38E39 \\
_text:00002C60 10 F1 50 E7 & & SMMUL & R0, R0, R1 \\
_text:00002C64 C0 10 A0 E1 & & MOV & R1, R0, ASR\#1 \\
_text:00002C68 A0 0F 81 E0 & & ADD & R0, R1, R0, LSR\#31 \\
__text:00002C6C 1E FF 2F E1 & & BX & LR \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This code is almost the same as the one generated by the optimizing MSVC and GCC.
Apparently, LLVM uses the same algorithm for generating constants.
The observant reader may ask, how does MOV writes a 32-bit value in a register, when this is not possible in ARM mode.
it is impossible indeed, but, as we see, there are 8 bytes per instruction instead of the standard 4 , in fact, there are two instructions.
The first instruction loads \(0 \times 8\) E39 into the low 16 bits of register and the second instruction is MOVT, it loads \(0 \times 383 \mathrm{E}\) into the high 16 bits of the register. IDA is fully aware of such sequences, and for the sake of compactness reduces them to one single "pseudo-instruction".
The SMMUL (Signed Most Significant Word Multiply) instruction two multiplies numbers, treating them as signed numbers and leaving the high 32-bit part of result in the R0 register, dropping the low 32-bit part of the result.
The"MOV R1, R0,ASR\#1" instruction is an arithmetic shift right by one bit.
"ADD R0, R1, R0,LSR\#31" is \(R 0=R 1+R 0 \gg 31\)
There is no separate shifting instruction in ARM mode. Instead, an instructions like (MOV, ADD, SUB, RSB) \({ }^{13}\) can have a suffix added, that says if the second operand must be shifted, and if yes, by what value and how. ASR stands for Arithmetic Shift Right, LSR-Logical Shift Right.

\section*{Optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) (Thumb-2 mode)}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline MOV & R1, 0x38E38E39 \\
SMMUL.W & R0, R0, R1 \\
ASRS & R1, R0, \#1 \\
ADD.W & R0, R1, R0, LSR\#31 \\
BX & LR
\end{tabular}

There are separate instructions for shifting in Thumb mode, and one of them is used here-ASRS (arithmetic shift right).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{13}\) These instructions are also called "data processing instructions"
}

\section*{Non-optimizing Xcode 4.6.3 (LLVM) and Keil 6/2013}

Non-optimizing LLVM does not generate the code we saw before in this section, but instead inserts a call to the library function \(\qquad\) divsi3.

What about Keil: it inserts a call to the library function __aeabi_idivmod in all cases.

\subsection*{3.9.4 MIPS}

For some reason, optimizing GCC 4.4.5 generate just a division instruction:
Listing 3.21: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

f:

| li | $\$ v 0,9$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| bnez | $\$ v 0$, loc_10 |

div \$a0, \$v0 ; branch delay slot
break 0x1C00 ; "break 7" in assembly output and objdump
loc_10:

```
```

mflo \$v0

```
mflo $v0
jr $ra
jr $ra
or $at, $zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
```

or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP

```

Here we see here a new instruction: BREAK. It just raises an exception.
In this case, an exception is raised if the divisor is zero (it's not possible to divide by zero in conventional math).

But GCC probably did not do very well the optimization job and did not see that \$V0 is never zero.
So the check is left here. So if \$V0 is zero somehow, BREAK is to be executed, signaling to the OS about the exception.
Otherwise, MFLO executes, which takes the result of the division from the LO register and copies it in \$V0. By the way, as we may know, the MUL instruction leaves the high 32 bits of the result in register HI and the low 32 bits in register LO.

DIV leaves the result in the LO register, and remainder in the HI register.
If we alter the statement to "a \% 9", the MFHI instruction is to be used here instead of MFLO.

\subsection*{3.9.5 Exercise}
- http://challenges.re/27

\subsection*{3.10 String to number conversion (atoi())}

Let's try to reimplement the standard atoi() C function.

\subsection*{3.10.1 Simple example}

Here is the simplest possible way to read a number represented in ASCII encoding.
It's not error-prone: a character other than a digit leads to incorrect result.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int my_atoi (char *s)
{
int rt=0;
while (*s)
{

```
```

                        rt=rt*10 + (*s-'0');
    s++;
    };
    return rt;
    };
int main()
{
printf ("%d\n", my atoi ("1234"));
printf ("%d\n", my_atoi ("1234567890"));
};

```

So what the algorithm does is just reading digits from left to right.
The zero ASCII character is subtracted from each digit.
The digits from " 0 " to " 9 " are consecutive in the ASCII table, so we do not even need to know the exact value of the " 0 " character.

All we have to know is that " 0 " minus " 0 " is \(0, ~ " ~ 9 " ~ m i n u s ~ " ~ 0 " ' i s ~ 9 ~ a n d ~ s o ~ o n . ~\)
Subtracting " 0 " from each character results in a number from 0 to 9 inclusive.
Any other character leads to an incorrect result, of course!
Each digit has to be added to the final result (in variable "rt"), but the final result is also multiplied by 10 at each digit.
In other words, the result is shifted left by one position in decimal form on each iteration.
The last digit is added, but there is no shift.

\section*{Optimizing MSVC 2013 x64}

Listing 3.22: Optimizing MSVC \(2013 \times 64\)
```

s\$ = 8
my atoi PROC
; load first character
movzx r8d, BYTE PTR [rcx]
; EAX is allocated for "rt" variable
; its 0 at start
xor eax, eax
; first character is zero-byte, i.e., string terminator?
; exit then.
test r8b, r8b
je SHORT \$LN9@my_atoi
\$LL2@my_atoi:
lea edx, DWORD PTR [rax+rax*4]
; EDX=RAX+RAX*4=rt+rt*4=rt*5
movsx eax, r8b
; EAX=input character
; load next character to R8D
movzx r8d, BYTE PTR [rcx+1]
; shift pointer in RCX to the next character:
lea rcx, QWORD PTR [rcx+1]
lea eax, DWORD PTR [rax+rdx*2]
; EAX=RAX+RDX*2=input character + rt*5*2=input character + rt*10
; correct digit by subtracting 48 (0x30 or '0')
add eax, -48 ; ffffffffffffffd0H
; was the last character zero?
test r8b, r8b
; jump to loop begin, if not
jne SHORT \$LL2@my_atoi
\$LN9@my_atoi:
ret 0
my_atoi ENDP

```

A character can be loaded in two places: the first character and all subsequent characters. This is arranged so for loop regrouping.
3.10. STRING TO NUMBER CONVERSION (ATOI())

There is no instruction for multiplication by 10, two LEA instruction do this instead.
MSVC sometimes uses the ADD instruction with a negative constant instead of SUB. This is the case. It's very hard to say why this is better then SUB. But MSVC does this often.

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64}

Optimizing GCC 4.9 .1 is more concise, but there is one redundant RET instruction at the end. One would be enough.

Listing 3.23: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64
```

my atoi:
; load input character into EDX
movsx edx, BYTE PTR [rdi]
; EAX is allocated for "rt" variable
xor eax, eax
; exit, if loaded character is null byte
test dl, dl
je .L4
.L3:
lea eax, [rax+rax*4]
EAX=RAX*5=rt*5
; shift pointer to the next character:
add rdi, 1
lea eax, [rdx-48+rax*2]
; EAX=input character - 48 + RAX*2 = input character - '0' + rt*10
; load next character:
movsx edx, BYTE PTR [rdi]
; goto loop begin, if loaded character is not null byte
test dl, dl
jne .L3
rep ret
.L4:
rep ret

```

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)}

Listing 3.24: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

my atoi PROC
; \overline{R}1 will contain pointer to character
MOV r1,r0
; R0 will contain "rt" variable
MOV r0,\#0
B |L0.28|
|L0.12|
ADD r0,r0,r0,LSL \#2
; R0=R0+R0<<2=rt*5
ADD r0,r2,r0,LSL \#1
; R0=input character + rt*5<<1 = input character + rt*10
; correct whole thing by subtracting '0' from rt:
SUB r0,r0,\#0x30
; shift pointer to the next character:
ADD rl,rl,\#1
|L0.28|
; load input character to R2
LDRB r2,[r1,\#0]
; is it null byte? if no, jump to loop body.
CMP r2,\#0
BNE |L0.12|
; exit if null byte.
; "rt" variable is still in R0 register, ready to be used in caller function
BX lr
ENDP

```

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

Listing 3.25: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
```

my_atoi PROC
; R1 will be pointer to the input character
MOVS r1,r0
; R0 is allocated to "rt" variable
MOVS r0,\#0
B |L0.16|
|L0.6|
MOVS r3,\#0xa
; R3=10
MULS r0,r3,r0
; R0=R3*R0=rt*10
; shift pointer to the next character:
ADDS rl,rl,\#1
; correct whole thing by subtracting 0' character from it':
SUBS r0,r0,\#0x30
ADDS r0,r2,r0
; rt=R2+R0=input character + (rt*10 - '0')
|L0.16|
; load input character to R2
LDRB r2,[r1,\#0]
; is it zero?
CMP r2,\#0
; jump to loop body if it is not
BNE |L0.6|
; rt variable in R0 now, ready to be used in caller function
BX lr
ENDP

```

Interestingly, from school mathematics we may recall that the order of addition and subtraction operations doesn't matter.

That's our case: first, the \(r t * 10-^{\prime} 0^{\prime}\) expression is computed, then the input character value is added to it. Indeed, the result is the same, but the compiler did some regrouping.

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64}

The ARM64 compiler can use the pre-increment instruction suffix:
Listing 3.26: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64
```

my_atoi:
; load input character into W1
ldrb w1, [x0]
mov x2, x0
; X2=address of input string
; is loaded character zero?
; jump to exit if its so
; W1 will contain 0 in this case.
; it will be reloaded into W0 at L4.
cbz w1, .L4
; W0 will contain "rt" variable
; initialize it at zero:
mov w0, 0
.L3:
; subtract 48 or '0' from input variable and put result into W3:
sub w3, w1, \#48
; load next character at address X2+1 into W1 with pre-increment:
ldrb w1, [x2,1]!
add w0, w0, w0, lsl 2
; W0=W0+W0<<2=W0+W0*4=rt*5
add w0, w3, w0, lsl 1
; W0=input digit + W0<<1 = input digit + rt*5*2 = input digit + rt*10
; if the character we just loaded is not null byte, jump to the loop begin
cbnz w1, .L3

```
; variable to be returned (rt) is in W0, ready to be used in caller function
    ret
.L4:
mov w0, w1
ret

\subsection*{3.10.2 A slightly advanced example}

My new code snippet is more advanced, now it checks for the "minus" sign at the first character and reports an error if a non-digit has been found in the input string:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int my_atoi (char *s)
{
int negative=0;
int rt=0;
if (*s=='-')
{
negative=1;
s++;
};
while (*s)
{
if (*s<'0' || *s>'9')
{
printf ("Error! Unexpected char: '%c'\n", *s);
exit(0);
};
rt=rt*10 + (*s-'0');
s++;
};
if (negative)
return -rt;
return rt;
};
int main()
{
printf ("%d\n", my_atoi ("1234"));
printf ("%d\n", my_atoi ("1234567890"));
printf ("%d\n", my atoi ("-1234"));
printf ("%d\n", my_atoi ("-1234567890"));
printf ("%d\n", my_atoi ("-al234567890")); // error
};

```

\section*{Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64}

Listing 3.27: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 .1 \times 64\)
```

.LC0:
.string "Error! Unexpected char: '%c'\n"
my_atoi:
sub rsp, 8
movsx edx, BYTE PTR [rdi]
; check for minus sign
cmp dl, 45 ; '-'
je .L22
xor esi, esi
test dl, dl
je .L20
.L10:

```
```

; ESI=0 here if there was no minus sign and 1 if it was
lea eax, [rdx-48]
; any character other than digit will result in unsigned number greater than 9 after \swarrow
subtraction
; so if it is not digit, jump to L4, where error will be reported:
cmp al, 9
ja .L4
xor eax, eax
jmp .L6
.L7:
lea ecx, [rdx-48]
cmp cl, 9
ja .L4
.L6:
lea eax, [rax+rax*4]
add rdi, 1
lea eax, [rdx-48+rax*2]
movsx edx, BYTE PTR [rdi]
test dl, dl
jne .L7
; if there was no minus sign, skip NEG instruction
; if it was, execute it.
test esi, esi
je .L18
neg eax
.L18:
add rsp, 8
ret
.L22:
movsx edx, BYTE PTR [rdi+1]
lea rax, [rdi+1]
test dl, dl
je .L20
mov rdi, rax
mov esi, 1
jmp .L10
.L20:
xor eax, eax
jmp .L18
.L4:
; report error. character is in EDX
mov edi, 1
mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "Error! Unexpected char: '%c'\n"
xor eax, eax
call __printf_chk
xor edi, edi
call exit

```

If the "minus" sign has been encountered at the string start, the NEG instruction is to be executed at the end. It just negates the number.
There is one more thing that needs mentioning.
How would a common programmer check if the character is not a digit? Just how we have it in the source code:
if (*s<'0' || *s>'9')
...
There are two comparison operations.
What is interesting is that we can replace both operations by single one: just subtract " 0 " from character value,
treat result as unsigned value (this is important) and check if it's greater than 9.
For example, let's say that the user input contains the dot character (".") which has ASCII code 46. \(46-48=-2\) if we treat the result as a signed number.
Indeed, the dot character is located two places earlier than the " 0 " character in the ASCII table. But it is \(0 x F F F F F F F E\) (4294967294) if we treat the result as an unsigned value, and that's definitely bigger than 9 !

The compilers do this often, so it's important to recognize these tricks.
Another example of it in this book: 3.16.1 on page 535.
Optimizing MSVC 2013 x64 does the same tricks.

\section*{Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)}

Listing 3.28: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
```

my_atoi PROC
PUSH {r4-r6,lr}
MOV r4,r0
LDRB r0,[r0,\#0]
MOV r6,\#0
MOV r5,r6
CMP r0,\#0x2d '-'
; R6 will contain 1 if minus was encountered, 0 if otherwise
MOVEQ r6,\#1
ADDEQ r4,r4,\#1
B |L0.80|
|L0.36|
SUB r0,r1,\#0x30
CMP r0,\#0xa
BCC |L0.64|
ADR r0,|L0.220|
BL _2printf
MOV r0,\#0
BL exit
|L0.64|
LDRB r0,[r4],\#1
ADD rl,r5,r5,LSL \#2
ADD r0,r0,r1,LSL \#1
SUB r5,r0,\#0x30
|L0.80|
LDRB r1,[r4,\#0]
CMP rl,\#0
BNE |L0.36|
CMP r6,\#0
negate result
RSBNE r0,r5,\#0
MOVEQ r0,r5
POP {r4-r6,pc}
ENDP
|L0.220|
DCB "Error! Unexpected char: '%c'\n",0

```

There is no NEG instruction in 32-bit ARM, so the "Reverse Subtraction" operation (line 31) is used here. It is triggered if the result of the CMP instruction (at line 29) has been "Not Equal" (hence -NE suffix). So what RSBNE does is to subtract the resulting value from 0.

It works just like the regular subtraction operation, but swaps operands.
Subtracting any number from 0 results in negation: \(0-x=-x\).
Thumb mode code is mostly the same.
GCC 4.9 for ARM64 can use the NEG instruction, which is available in ARM64.

\subsection*{3.10.3 Exercise}

Oh, by the way, security researchers deals often with unpredictable behavior of program while handling of incorrect data.
For example, while fuzzing. As an exercise, you may try to enter non-digit characters and see what happens.

\subsection*{3.11 Inline functions}

Inlined code is when the compiler, instead of placing a call instruction to a small or tiny function, just places its body right in-place.

Listing 3.29: A simple example
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int celsius_to_fahrenheit (int celsius)
{
return celsius * 9 / 5 + 32;
};
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
int celsius=atol(argv[1]);
printf ("%d\n", celsius_to_fahrenheit (celsius));
};

```
...is compiled in very predictable way, however, if we turn on GCC optimizations (-03), we'll see:
Listing 3.30: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1
```

mmain:
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, -16
sub esp, 16
call main
mov \overline{eax, DWORD PTR [ebp+12]}
mov eax, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
call atol
mov edx, 1717986919
mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:LC2 ; "%d\12\0"
lea ecx, [eax+eax*8]
mov eax, ecx
imul edx
sar ecx, 31
sar edx
sub edx, ecx
add edx, 32
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], edx
call _printf
leave
ret

```
(Here the division is performed by multiplication( 3.9 on page 497).)
Yes, our small function celsius_to_fahrenheit() has just been placed before the printf() call.
Why? It can be faster than executing this function's code plus the overhead of calling/returning.
Modern optimizing compilers are choosing small functions for inlining automatically. But it's possible to force compiler additionally to inline some function, if to mark it with the "inline" keyword in its declaration.

\subsection*{3.11.1 Strings and memory functions}

Another very common automatic optimization tactic is the inlining of string functions like strcpy(), str\(c m p()\), strien(), memset(), memcmp(), memcpy(), etc..
Sometimes it's faster than to call a separate function.
These are very frequent patterns and it is highly advisable for reverse engineers to learn to detect automatically.

\section*{strcmp()}

Listing 3.31: strcmp() example
```

bool is_bool (char *s)
{
if (strcmp (s, "true")==0)
return true;
if (strcmp (s, "false")==0)
return false;
assert(0);
};

```

Listing 3.32: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1
.LC0:
.LC1:
```

    .string "true"
    .string "false"

```
is bool:
.LFB0:
push edi
mov ecx, 5
push esi
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
sub esp, 20
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esp+32]
repz cmpsb
je .L3
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esp+32]
mov ecx, 6
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1
repz cmpsb
seta cl
setb dl
xor eax, eax
cmp cl, dl
jne .L8
add esp, 20
pop esi
pop edi
ret
.L8:
mov DWORD PTR [esp], 0
call assert
add esp, 20
pop esi
pop edi
ret
.L3:
add esp, 20
mov eax, 1
pop esi
pop edi
ret

Listing 3.33: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

\$SG3454 DB 'true', 00H
$SG3456 DB 'false', 00H
_s$ = 8
; size = 4
?is_bool@@YA_NPAD@Z PROC ; is_bool
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR s\$[esp]
mov ecx, OFFSET \$SG3454 ; 'true'
mov eax, esi
npad 4 ; align next label
\$LL6@is_bool:

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline mov
cmp
jne
test
je
mov
cmp
jne
add
add
test & \begin{tabular}{l}
dl, BYTE PTR [eax] \\
dl, BYTE PTR [ecx] \\
SHORT \$LN7@is_bool \\
dl, dl \\
SHORT \$LN8@is_bool \\
dl, BYTE PTR [eax+1] \\
dl, BYTE PTR [ecx+1] \\
SHORT \$LN7@is_bool \\
eax, 2 \\
ecx, 2 \\
dl, dl \\
SHORT \$LL6@is_bool
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { xor } \\
& \text { jmp }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
eax, eax \\
SHORT \$LN9@is bool
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\begin{array}{r}
\text { \$LN7@is_bool: } \\
\text { sbb } \\
\text { sbb }
\end{array}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eax, eax } \\
& \text { eax, -1 }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \$LN9@is_bool:
test
jne & ```
eax, eax
SHORT $LN2@is_bool
``` \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mov } \\
& \text { pop }
\end{aligned}
\] & al, 1 esi \\
\hline \$LN2@is_bool: & 0 \\
\hline mov
mov & ecx, OFFSET \$SG3456 ; 'false' eax, esi \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LL10@is_bool:} \\
\hline mov & dl, BYTE PTR [eax] \\
\hline cmp & dl, BYTE PTR [ecx] \\
\hline jne & SHORT \$LN11@is_bool \\
\hline test & dl, dl \\
\hline je & SHORT \$LN12@is_bool \\
\hline mov & dl, BYTE PTR [eax+1] \\
\hline cmp & dl, BYTE PTR [ecx+1] \\
\hline jne & SHORT \$LN11@is bool \\
\hline add & eax, 2 \\
\hline add & ecx, 2 \\
\hline test & dl, dl \\
\hline jne & SHORT \$LL10@is_bool \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN12@is_bool:} \\
\hline xor & eax, eax \\
\hline jmp & SHORT \$LN13@is_bool \\
\hline \$LN11@is bool: & \\
\hline \(\overline{\text { sbb }}\) & eax, eax \\
\hline sbb & eax, -1 \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN13@is_bool:} \\
\hline test & eax, eax \\
\hline jne & SHORT \$LN1@is_bool \\
\hline xor & al, al \\
\hline pop & esi \\
\hline ret & 0 \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\$LN1@is_bool:} \\
\hline push & 11 \\
\hline push & OFFSET \$SG3458 \\
\hline push & OFFSET \$SG3459 \\
\hline call & DWORD PTR _imp wassert \\
\hline add & esp, 12 - - \\
\hline pop & esi \\
\hline ret & 0 \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{?is_bool@@YA_NPAD@Z ENDP ; is_bool} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
    mov dl, BYTE PTR [eax]
    jne SHORT \$LN7Ois bool
    test \(\mathrm{dl}, \mathrm{dl}\)
    je SHORT \$LN8@is_bool
    mov dl, BYTE PTR [eax+1]
    cmp dl, BYTE PTR [ecx+1]
    jne SHORT \$LN7@is_bool
    eax, 2
    add ecx, 2
    jne SHORT \$LL6@is bool
    xor eax, eax
    jmp SHORT \$LN9@is bool
    sbb eax, eax
    eax, -1
    test eax, eax
    mov al, 1
    pop esi
    ret 0
    mov ecx, OFFSET \$SG3456 ; 'false'
    bool:
    cmp dl, BYTE PTR [ecx]
    jne SHORT \$LN11@is bool
    je SHORT \$LN12@is bool
    mov dl, BYTE PTR [eax+1]
    cmp dl, BYTE PTR [ecx+1]
    jne SHORT \$LN11@is bool
    add eax, 2
    test
    jne SHORT \$LL10@is_bool
    xor eax, eax
    jmp SHORT \$LN13@is bool
    sbb eax, eax
    sbb eax, -1
    test eax, eax
    jne SHORT \$LN1@is_bool
    xor al, al
    pop esi
    ret 0
    push 11
    push OFFET \$G3458
    call DWORD PTR imp wassert
    add esp, 12
    pop esi
    ret 0
?is_bool@@YA_NPAD@Z ENDP ; is_bool

\section*{strlen()}

Listing 3.34: strlen() example
```

int strlen_test(char *sl)
{
};

```

Listing 3.35: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

sl\$ = 8 ; size = 4
_strlen_test PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _s1\$[esp-4]
lea edx, DWORD PTR [eax+1]
\$LL3@strlen_tes:
mov cl, BYTE PTR [eax]
inc eax
test cl, cl
jne SHORT \$LL3@strlen_tes
sub eax, edx
ret 0
strlen_test ENDP

```

\section*{strcpy()}

Listing 3.36: strcpy() example
```

void strcpy test(char *s1, char *outbuf)
{
strcpy(outbuf, s1);
};

```

Listing 3.37: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

s1\$ = 8 ; size = 4
outbuf\$ = 12 ; size = 4
strcpy test PROC
mov eax, DWORD PTR _s1$[esp-4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR _outbuf$[esp-4]
sub edx, eax
npad 6 ; align next label
\$LL3@strcpy_tes:
mov cl, BYTE PTR [eax]
mov BYTE PTR [edx+eax], cl
inc eax
test cl, cl
jne SHORT \$LL3@strcpy_tes
ret 0
strcpy test ENDP

```

\section*{memset()}

\section*{Example\#1}

Listing 3.38: 32 bytes
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(char *out)
{
};

```

Many compilers don't generate a call to memset() for short blocks, but rather insert a pack of MOVs:
```

f:

| mov | QWORD PTR $[r d i], 0$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| mov | QWORD PTR $[r d i+8], 0$ |
| mov | QWORD PTR $[r d i+16], 0$ |
| mov | QWORD PTR $[r d i+24], 0$ |

```
ret

By the way, that remind us of unrolled loops: 1.16.1 on page 192.

\section*{Example\#2}

Listing 3.40: 67 bytes
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(char *out)
{
memset(out, 0, 67);
};

```

When the block size is not a multiple of 4 or 8 , the compilers can behave differently.
For instance, MSVC 2012 continues to insert MOVs:
Listing 3.41: Optimizing MSVC 2012 x64
```

out\$ = 8
f PROC
xor eax, eax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+8], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+16], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+24], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+32], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+40], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+48], rax
mov QWORD PTR [rcx+56], rax
mov WORD PTR [rcx+64], ax
mov BYTE PTR [rcx+66], al
ret 0
f ENDP

```
...while GCC uses REP STOSQ, concluding that this would be shorter than a pack of MOVs:
Listing 3.42: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64
```

f:

```
```

mov QWORD PTR [rdi], 0

```
mov QWORD PTR [rdi], 0
    mov QWORD PTR [rdi+59], 0
    mov QWORD PTR [rdi+59], 0
    mov rcx, rdi
    mov rcx, rdi
    lea rdi, [rdi+8]
    lea rdi, [rdi+8]
    xor eax, eax
    xor eax, eax
    and rdi, -8
    and rdi, -8
    sub rcx, rdi
    sub rcx, rdi
    add ecx, 67
    add ecx, 67
    shr ecx, 3
    shr ecx, 3
    rep stosq
    rep stosq
    ret
```

    ret
    ```

\section*{memcpy()}

\section*{Short blocks}

The routine to copy short blocks is often implemented as a sequence of MOV instructions.

\section*{Listing 3.43: memcpy() example}
```

void memcpy 7(char *inbuf, char *outbuf)

```
\{
\};

Listing 3.44: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

inbuf\$ = 8 ; size = 4
_outbuf\$ = 12 ; size = 4
memcpy_7 PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR inbuf$[esp-4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _outbuf$[esp-4]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+10], edx
mov dx, WORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov WORD PTR [eax+14], dx
mov cl, BYTE PTR [ecx+6]
mov BYTE PTR [eax+16], cl
ret 0
memcpy 7 ENDP

```

Listing 3.45: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1
memcpy_7:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
push & ebx \\
mov & eax, DWORD PTR [esp+8] \\
mov & ecx, DWORD PTR [esp+12] \\
mov & ebx, DWORD PTR [eax] \\
lea & edx, [ecx+10] \\
mov & DWORD PTR [ecx+10], ebx \\
movzx & ecx, WORD PTR [eax+4] \\
mov & WORD PTR [edx+4], cx \\
movzx & eax, BYTE PTR [eax+6] \\
mov & BYTE PTR [edx+6], al \\
pop & ebx \\
ret &
\end{tabular}

That's usually done as follows: 4-byte blocks are copied first, then a 16-bit word (if needed), then the last byte (if needed).

Structures are also copied using MOV: 1.24.4 on page 361.

\section*{Long blocks}

The compilers behave differently in this case.
Listing 3.46: memcpy() example
```

void memcpy 128(char *inbuf, char *outbuf)
{
memcpy(outbuf+10, inbuf, 128);
};
void memcpy_123(char *inbuf, char *outbuf)
{
memcpy(outbuf+10, inbuf, 123);
};

```

For copying 128 bytes, MSVC uses a single MOVSD instruction (because 128 divides evenly by 4):
Listing 3.47: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

_inbuf\$ = 8 ; size = 4
-outbuf\$ = 12 ; size = 4
memcpy 128 PROC
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR _inbuf\$[esp]

```
```

    push edi
    mov edi, DWORD PTR _outbuf$[esp+4]
    add edi, 10
    mov ecx, 32
    rep movsd
    pop edi
    pop esi
    ret 0
    memcpy_128 ENDP

```

When copying 123 bytes, 3032 -bit words are copied first using MOVSD (that's 120 bytes), then 2 bytes are copied using MOVSW, then one more byte using MOVSB.

Listing 3.48: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

_inbuf\$ = 8 ; size = 4
-outbuf\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_memcpy_123 PROC
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR inbuf$[esp]
    push edi
    mov edi, DWORD PTR _outbuf$[esp+4]
add edi, 10
mov ecx, 30
rep movsd
movsw
movsb
pop edi
pop esi
ret 0
memcpy_123 ENDP

```

GCC uses one big universal functions, that works for any block size:
Listing 3.49: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1
```

memcpy_123:
.LFB3:
push edi
mov eax, 123
push esi
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+16]
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esp+12]
lea edi, [edx+10]
test edi, 1
jne .L24
test edi, 2
jne .L25
mov ecx, eax
xor edx, edx
shr ecx, 2
test al, 2
rep movsd
je .L8
movzx edx, WORD PTR [esi]
mov WORD PTR [edi], dx
mov edx, 2
.L8:
test al, 1
je .L5
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [esi+edx]
mov BYTE PTR [edi+edx], al
.L5:
pop esi
pop edi
ret
.L24:
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [esi]
lea edi, [edx+11]
add esi, 1

```
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline & test & edi, 2 \\
& mov & BYTE PTR [edx+10], al \\
mov & eax, 122 \\
je & .L7
\end{tabular}

Universal memory copy functions usually work as follows: calculate how many 32-bit words can be copied, then copy them using MOVSD, then copy the remaining bytes.

More advanced and complex copy functions use SIMD instructions and also take the memory alignment in consideration.

As an example of SIMD strlen() function: 1.29.2 on page 416.

\section*{memcmp()}

Listing 3.50: memcmp() example
```

int memcmp_1235(char *buf1, char *buf2)
{
return memcmp(buf1, buf2, 1235);
};

```

For any block size, MSVC 2013 inserts the same universal function:
Listing 3.51: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

buf1\$ = 8 ; size = 4
buf2\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_memcmp_1235 PROC
mov ecx, DWORD PTR buf1$[esp-4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR _buf2$[esp-4]
push esi
mov esi, 1231
npad 2
\$LL5@memcmp_123:
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
cmp eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
jne SHORT \$LN4@memcmp_123
add ecx, 4
add edx, 4
sub esi, 4
jae SHORT \$LL5@memcmp_123
\$LN4@memcmp_123:
mov al, BYTE PTR [ecx]
cmp al, BYTE PTR [edx]
jne SHORT \$LN6@memcmp_123
mov al, BYTE PTR [ecx+1]
cmp al, BYTE PTR [edx+1]
jne SHORT \$LN6@memcmp 123
mov al, BYTE PTR [ecx+2]
cmp al, BYTE PTR [edx+2]
jne SHORT \$LN6@memcmp_123
cmp esi, -1
je SHORT \$LN3@memcmp_123
mov al, BYTE PTR [ecx+3]
cmp al, BYTE PTR [edx+3]
jne SHORT \$LN6@memcmp 123
\$LN3@memcmp_123:
xor eax, eax
pop esi
ret 0

```
```

\$LN6@memcmp_123:
sbb eax, eax
or eax, 1
pop esi
ret 0
memcmp 1235 ENDP

```

\section*{strcat()}

This is inlined strcat() as it has been generated by MSVC 6.0. There are 3 parts visible: 1) getting source string length (first scasb); 2) getting destination string length (second scasb); 3) copying source string into the end of destination string (movsd/movsb pair).

Listing 3.52: strcat()
lea edi, [src]
or ecx, 0FFFFFFFFh
repne scasb
not ecx
sub \(\quad\) edi, ecx
mov esi, edi
mov \(\quad\) edi, [dst]
mov edx, ecx
or ecx, 0FFFFFFFFh
repne scasb
mov ecx, edx
dec edi
shr ecx, 2
rep movsd
mov ecx, edx
and ecx, 3
rep movsb

\section*{IDA script}

There is also a small IDA script for searching and folding such very frequently seen pieces of inline code: GitHub.

\subsection*{3.12 C99 restrict}

Here is a reason why Fortran programs, in some cases, work faster than C/C++ ones.
```

void fl (int* x, int* y, int* sum, int* product, int* sum_product, int* update_me, size_t s)
{
for (int i=0; i<s; i++)
{
sum[i]=x[i]+y[i];
product[i]=x[i]*y[i];
update_me[i]=i*123; // some dummy value
sum_product[i]=sum[i]+product[i];
};
};

```

That's very simple example with one specific thing in it: the pointer to the update_me array could be a pointer to the sum array, product array, or even the sum_product array-nothing forbids that, right?
The compiler is fully aware of this, so it generates code with four stages in the loop body:
- calculate next sum[i]
- calculate next product[i]
- calculate next update_me[i]
- calculate next sum_product[i]—on this stage, we need to load from memory the already calculated sum[i] and product[i]

Is it possible to optimize the last stage? Since we have already calculated sum[i] and product[i] it is not necessary to load them again from memory.
Yes, but compiler is not sure that nothing has been overwritten at the 3rd stage! This is called "pointer aliasing", a situation when the compiler cannot be sure that a memory to which a pointer is pointing hasn't been changed.
restrict in the C99 standard [ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007) 6.7.3/1] is a promise, given by programmer to the compiler that the function arguments marked by this keyword always points to different memory locations and never intersects.

To be more precise and describe this formally, restrict shows that only this pointer is to be used to access an object, and no other pointer will be used for it.
It can be even said the object will be accessed only via one single pointer, if it is marked as restrict.
Let's add this keyword to each pointer argument:
```

void f2 (int* restrict x, int* restrict y, int* restrict sum, int* restrict product, int* \&
restrict sum_product,
int* restrict update_me, size_t s)
{
for (int i=0; i<s; i++)
{
sum[i]=x[i]+y[i];
product[i]=x[i]*y[i];
update me[i]=i*123; // some dummy value
sum_product[i]=sum[i]+product[i];
};
};

```

Let's see results:
Listing 3.53: GCC x64: f1()
```

f1:
push r15 r14 r13 r12 rbp rdi rsi rbx
mov r13, QWORD PTR 120[rsp]
mov rbp, QWORD PTR 104[rsp]
mov r12, QWORD PTR 112[rsp]
test r13, r13
je .L1
add r13, 1
xor ebx, ebx
mov edi, 1
xor rlld, rlld
jmp .L4
.L6:
mov rll, rdi
mov rdi, rax
lea rax, 0[0+r11*4]
lea r10, [rcx+rax]
lea r14, [rdx+rax]
lea rsi, [r8+rax]
add rax, r9
mov r15d, DWORD PTR [r10]
add r15d, DWORD PTR [r14]
mov DWORD PTR [rsi], r15d
mov r10d, DWORD PTR [r10]
imul r10d, DWORD PTR [r14]
mov DWORD PTR [rax], r10d ; store to product[]
mov DWORD PTR [r12+r11*4], ebx ; store to update_me[]
add ebx, 123
mov r10d, DWORD PTR [rsi] ; reload sum[i]
add r10d, DWORD PTR [rax] ; reload product[i]
lea rax, 1[rdi]
cmp rax, r13
mov DWORD PTR 0[rbp+r11*4], r10d ; store to sum_product[]

```
```

.L1:
pop rbx rsi rdi rbp r12 r13 r14 r15
ret

```

Listing 3.54: GCC x64: f2()
```

f2:
push r13 r12 rbp rdi rsi rbx
mov rl3, QWORD PTR 104[rsp]
mov rbp, QWORD PTR 88[rsp]
mov r12, QWORD PTR 96[rsp]
test r13, r13
je .L7
add r13, 1
xor r10d, r10d
mov edi, 1
xor eax, eax
jmp .L10
.L11:
mov rax, rdi
mov rdi, rll
.L10:
mov esi, DWORD PTR [rcx+rax*4]
mov rlld, DWORD PTR [rdx+rax*4]
mov DWORD PTR [r12+rax*4], r10d ; store to update_me[]
add r10d, 123
lea ebx, [rsi+r11]
imul rlld, esi
mov DWORD PTR [r8+rax*4], ebx ; store to sum[]
mov DWORD PTR [r9+rax*4], rlld ; store to product[]
add r11d, ebx
mov DWORD PTR 0[rbp+rax*4], rlld ; store to sum_product[]
lea rll, 1[rdi]
cmp r11, r13
jne .L11
.L7:
pop rbx rsi rdi rbp r12 r13
ret

```

The difference between the compiled f1() and f2() functions is as follows: in f1(), sum[i] and product[i] are reloaded in the middle of the loop, and in f 2() there is no such thing, the already calculated values are used, since we "promised" the compiler that no one and nothing will change the values in sum[i] and product [i] during the execution of the loop's body, so it is "sure" that there is no need to load the value from memory again.

Obviously, the second example works faster.
But what if the pointers in the function's arguments intersect somehow?
This is on the programmer's conscience, and the results will be incorrect.
Let's go back to Fortran.
Compilers of this programming language treats all pointers as such, so when it was not possible to set restrict in C, Fortran could generate faster code in these cases.
How practical is it?
In the cases when the function works with several big blocks in memory.
There are a lot of such in linear algebra, for instance.
Supercomputers/HPC \({ }^{14}\) are very busy with linear algebra, so probably that is why, traditionally, Fortran is still used there [Eugene Loh, The Ideal HPC Programming Language, (2010)].

But when the number of iterations is not very big, certainly, the speed boost may not to be significant.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{14}\) High-Performance Computing
}

\subsection*{3.13 Branchless abs() function}

Let's revisit an example we considered earlier 1.14.2 on page 141 and ask ourselves, is it possible to make a branchless version of the function in \(\times 86\) code?
```

int my_abs (int i)
{
if (i<0)
else
return i;
};

```

And the answer is yes.

\subsection*{3.13.1 Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64}

We could see it if we compile it using optimizing GCC 4.9:
Listing 3.55: Optimizing GCC \(4.9 \times 64\)
```

my_abs:
mov edx, edi
mov eax, edi
sar edx, 31
; EDX is 0xFFFFFFFF here if sign of input value is minus
; EDX is 0 if sign of input value is plus (including 0)
; the following two instructions have effect only if EDX is 0xFFFFFFFF
; or idle if EDX is 0
xor eax, edx
sub eax, edx
ret

```

This is how it works:
Arithmetically shift the input value right by 31 .
Arithmetical shift implies sign extension, so if the MSB is 1 , all 32 bits are to be filled with 1 , or with 0 if otherwise.
In other words, the SAR REG, 31 instruction makes \(0 x\) FFFFFFFF if the sign has been negative or 0 if positive.
After the execution of SAR, we have this value in EDX.
Then, if the value is \(0 x F F F F F F F F\) (i.e., the sign is negative), the input value is inverted (because XOR REG, 0xFFFFFFFF is effectively an inverse all bits operation).
Then, again, if the value is \(0 \times\) FFFFFFFF (i.e., the sign is negative), 1 is added to the final result (because subtracting -1 from some value resulting in incrementing it).

Inversion of all bits and incrementing is exactly how two's complement value is negated: 2.2 on page 452.
We may observe that the last two instruction do something if the sign of the input value is negative.
Otherwise (if the sign is positive) they do nothing at all, leaving the input value untouched.
The algorithm is explained in [Henry S. Warren, Hacker's Delight, (2002)2-4].
It's hard to say, how GCC did it, deduced it by itself or found a suitable pattern among known ones?

\subsection*{3.13.2 Optimizing GCC 4.9 ARM64}

GCC 4.9 for ARM64 generates mostly the same, just decides to use the full 64-bit registers.
There are less instructions, because the input value can be shifted using a suffixed instruction ("asr") instead of using a separate instruction.
```

my_abs:
; Sign-extend input 32-bit value to X0 64-bit register:
sxtw x0, w0
eor x1, x0, x0, asr 63
; X1=X0^(X0>>63) (shift is arithmetical)
sub x0, x1, x0, asr 63
; X0=X1-(X0>>63)=X0^(X0>>63)-(X0>>63) (all shifts are arithmetical)
ret

```

\subsection*{3.14 Variadic functions}

Functions like printf() and scanf() can have a variable number of arguments. How are these arguments accessed?

\subsection*{3.14.1 Computing arithmetic mean}

Let's imagine that we want to calculate arithmetic mean, and for some weird reason we want to specify all the values as function arguments.

But it's impossible to get the number of arguments in a variadic function in \(C / C++\), so let's denote the value of -1 as a terminator.

\section*{Using va_arg macro}

There is the standard stdarg.h header file which define macros for dealing with such arguments.
The printf() and scanf() functions use them as well.
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdarg.h>
int arith mean(int v, ...)
{
va_list args;
int sum=v, count=1, i;
va_start(args, v);
while(1)
{
i=va_arg(args, int);
if (i==-1) // terminator
break;
sum=sum+i;
count++;
}
va end(args);
re\overline{turn sum/count;}
};
int main()
{
printf ("%d\n", arith mean (1, 2, 7, 10, 15, -1 /* terminator */));
};

```

The first argument has to be treated just like a normal argument.
All other arguments are loaded using the va_arg macro and then summed.
So what is inside?


The arguments, as we may see, are passed to main() one-by-one.
The first argument is pushed into the local stack as first.
The terminating value \((-1)\) is pushed last.
The arith_mean() function takes the value of the first argument and stores it in the sum variable.
Then, it sets the EDX register to the address of the second argument, takes the value from it, adds it to sum, and does this in an infinite loop, until -1 is found.
When it's found, the sum is divided by the number of all values (excluding -1 ) and the quotient is returned. So, in other words, the function treats the stack fragment as an array of integer values of infinite length.

Now we can understand why the cdecl calling convention forces us to push the first argument into the stack as last.

Because otherwise, it would not be possible to find the first argument, or, for printf-like functions, it would not be possible to find the address of the format-string.

\section*{Register-based calling conventions}

The observant reader may ask, what about calling conventions where the first few arguments are passed in registers? Let's see:
```

$SG3013 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
v$ = 8
arith mean PROC
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], ecx ; 1st argument
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+16], rdx ; 2nd argument
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+24], r8 ; 3rd argument
mov eax, ecx ; sum = 1st argument
lea rcx, QWORD PTR v\$[rsp+8] ; pointer to the 2nd argument
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+32], r9 ; 4th argument
mov edx, DWORD PTR [rcx] ; load 2nd argument
mov r8d, 1 ; count=1
cmp edx, -1 ; 2nd argument is -1?
je SHORT \$LN8@arith_mean ; exit if so
\$LL3@arith_mean:
add eax, edx ; sum = sum + loaded argument
mov edx, DWORD PTR [rcx+8] ; load next argument
lea rcx, QWORD PTR [rcx+8] ; shift pointer to point to the argument after next
inc r8d ; count++
cmp edx, -1 ; is loaded argument -1?
jne SHORT \$LL3@arith_mean ; go to loop begin if its not
\$LN8@arith_mean:
; calculate quotient
cdq
idiv r8d
ret 0
arith_mean ENDP
main PROC
sub rsp, 56
mov edx, 2
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], -1
mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], 15
lea r9d, QWORD PTR [rdx+8]
lea r8d, QWORD PTR [rdx+5]
lea ecx, QWORD PTR [rdx-1]
call arith mean
lea rcx, O
mov edx, eax
call printf
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 56
ret 0
main ENDP

```

We see that the first 4 arguments are passed in the registers and two more-in the stack.
The arith_mean() function first places these 4 arguments into the Shadow Space and then treats the Shadow Space and stack behind it as a single continuous array!
What about GCC? Things are slightly clumsier here, because now the function is divided in two parts: the first part saves the registers into the "red zone", processes that space, and the second part of the function processes the stack:

Listing 3.59: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64
arith_mean:
lea rax, [rsp+8]
; save 6 input registers in
; red zone in the local stack
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-40], rsi
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-32], rdx
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-16], r8
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-24], rcx
mov esi, 8
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-64], rax
lea rax, [rsp-48]
mov QWORD PTR [rsp-8], r9
mov DWORD PTR [rsp-72], 8
lea rdx, [rsp+8]

.LC1:
    .string "\%d\n"
main:
```

sub rsp, 8
mov edx, 7
mov esi, 2
mov edi, 1
mov r9d, -1
mov r8d, 15
mov ecx, 10
xor eax, eax
call arith_mean
mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1
mov edx, eax
mov edi, 1
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 8
jmp __printf_chk

```

By the way, a similar usage of the Shadow Space is also considered here: 6.1.8 on page 740 .

\section*{Using pointer to the first function argument}

The example can be rewritten without va arg macro:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int arith mean(int v, ...)
{

```
```

int *i=\&v;

```
int *i=&v;
    int sum=*i, count=1;
    int sum=*i, count=1;
    i++;
    i++;
    while(1)
    while(1)
    {
    {
    if ((*i)==-1) // terminator
```

    if ((*i)==-1) // terminator
    ```
```

                        break;
        sum=sum+(*i);
        count++;
        i++;
    }
    return sum/count;
    };
int main()
{
printf ("%d\n", arith_mean (1, 2, 7, 10, 15, -1 /* terminator */));
// test: https://www.wolframalpha.com/input/?i=mean(1,2,7,10,15)
};

```

In other words, if an argument set is array of words (32-bit or 64-bit), we just enumerate array elements starting at first one.

\subsection*{3.14.2 vprintf() function case}

Many programmers define their own logging functions which take a printf-like format string + a variable number of arguments.

Another popular example is the die() function, which prints some message and exits.
We need some way to pack input arguments of unknown number and pass them to the printf() function. But how?

That's why there are functions with " \(v\) " in name.
One of them is vprintf(): it takes a format-string and a pointer to a variable of type va_list:
```

\#include <stdlib.h>
\#include <stdarg.h>
void die (const char * fmt, ...)
{
va_list va;
va_start (va, fmt);
vprintf (fmt, va);
exit(0);
};

```

By closer examination, we can see that va_list is a pointer to an array. Let's compile:
Listing 3.60: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

fmt\$ = 8
_die PROC
; load 1st argument (format-string)
mov ecx, DWORD PTR fmt$[esp-4]
    ; get pointer to the 2nd argument
    lea eax, DWORD PTR fmt$[esp]
push eax - pass a pointer
push ecx
call vprintf
add esp, 8
push 0
call exit
\$LN3@die:
int 3
die ENDP

```

We see that all our function does is just taking a pointer to the arguments and passing it to vprintf(), and that function is treating it like an infinite array of arguments!

Listing 3.61: Optimizing MSVC \(2012 \times 64\)
```

die PROC
; save first 4 arguments in Shadow Space
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+8], rcx
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+16], rdx
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+24], r8
mov QWORD PTR [rsp+32], r9
sub rsp, 40
lea rdx, QWORD PTR fmt\$[rsp+8] ; pass pointer to the lst argument
; RCX here is still points to the lst argument (format-string) of die()
; so vprintf() will take it right from RCX
call vprintf
xor ecx, ecx
call exit
int 3
die ENDP

```

\subsection*{3.14.3 Pin case}

It's interesting to note how some functions from Pin DBI \({ }^{15}\) framework takes number of arguments:
```

INS InsertPredicatedCall(
ins, IPOINT_BEFORE, (AFUNPTR)RecordMemRead,
IARG_INST_PTR,
IARG MEMO\overline{RYOP EA, memOp,}
IARG_END);

```
( pinatrace.cpp)
And this is how INS_InsertPredicatedCall() function is declared:
extern VOID INS_InsertPredicatedCall(INS ins, IPOINT ipoint, AFUNPTR funptr, ...);
( pin_client.PH)
Hence, constants with names starting with IARG are some kinds of arguments to the function, which are handled inside of INS InsertPredicatedCall( \(\overline{)}\). You can pass as many arguments, as you need. Some commands has additional argument(s), some are not. Full list of arguments: https://software.intel. com/sites/landingpage/pintool/docs/58423/Pin/html/group__INST__ARGS.html. And it has to be a way to detect an end of arguments list, so the list must be terminated with IARG_END constant, without which, the function will (try to) handle random noise in the local stack, treating it as additional arguments.

Also, in [Brian W. Kernighan, Rob Pike, Practice of Programming, (1999)] we can find a nice example of C/C++ routines very similar to pack/unpack \({ }^{16}\) in Python.

\subsection*{3.14.4 Format string exploit}

It's a popular mistake, to write printf(string) instead of puts(string) or printf("\%s", string). If the attacker can put his/her own text into string, he/she can crash process, or get insight into variables in the local stack.

Take a look at this:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{

```
```

    char *sl="hello";
    ```
    char *sl="hello";
    char *s2="world";
    char *s2="world";
    char buf[128];
    char buf[128];
    // do something mundane here
    // do something mundane here
    strcpy (buf, s1);
    strcpy (buf, s1);
    strcpy (buf, " ");
    strcpy (buf, " ");
    strcpy (buf, s2);
```

    strcpy (buf, s2);
    ```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{15}\) Dynamic Binary Instrumentation
\({ }^{16}\) https://docs.python.org/3/library/struct.html
}
```

    printf ("%s");
    };

```

Please note, that printf() has no additional arguments besides single format string.
Now let's imagine, that was the attacker who put \%s string into the last printf() first arguments. I compile this example using GCC 5.4.0 on x86 Ubuntu, and the resulting executable prints "world" string if it gets executed!

If I turn optimization on, printf() outputs some garbage, though-probably, strcpy() calls has been optimized and/or local variables as well. Also, result will be different for x64 code, different compiler, OS, etc.

Now, let's say, attacker could pass the following string to printf() call: \%x \%x \%x \%x \%x. In may case, output is: "80485c6 b7751b48 \(1080485 c 0\) " (these are just values from local stack). You see, there are 1 and 0 values, and some pointers (first is probably pointer to "world" string). So if the attacker passes \%s \(\% s \% s \% s \% s\) string, the process will crash, because printf() treats 1 and/or 0 as pointer to string, tries to read characters from there and fails.

Even worse, there could be sprintf (buf, string) in code, where buf is a buffer in the local stack with size of 1024 bytes or so, attacker can craft string in such a way that buf will be overflown, maybe even in a way that would lead to code execution.
Many popular and well-known software was (or even still) vulnerable:

QuakeWorld went up, got to around 4000 users, then the master server exploded.
Disrupter and cohorts are working on more robust code now.
If anyone did it on purpose, how about letting us know... (It wasn't all the people that tried \%s as a name)
( John Carmack's .plan file, 17-Dec-1996 \({ }^{17}\) )
Nowadays, almost all decent compilers warn about this.
Another problem is the lesser known \%n printf() argument: whenever printf() reaches it in a format string, it writes the number of characters printed so far into the corresponding argument: http:// stackoverflow. com/questions/3401156/what-is-the-use-of-the-n-format-specifier-in-c. Thus, an attacker could zap local variables by passing many \%n commands in format string.

\subsection*{3.15 Strings trimming}

A very common string processing task is to remove some characters at the start and/or at the end.
In this example, we are going to work with a function which removes all newline characters ( \(\mathrm{CR}^{18} / \mathrm{LF}^{19}\) ) from the end of the input string:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <string.h>
char* str_trim (char *s)
{
char c;
size_t str_len;
// work as long as \r or \n is at the end of string
// stop if some other character there or its an empty string
// (at start or due to our operation)
for (str_len=strlen(s); str_len>0 \&\& (c=s[str_len-1]); str_len--)
{
if (c=='\r' || c=='\n')
s[str len-1]=0;
else

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{17}\) https://github.com/ESWAT/john-carmack-plan-archive/blob/33ae52fdba46aa0dlabfed6fc7598233748541c0/by_day/ johnc_plan_19961217.txt
\({ }^{18}\) Carriage Return (13 or ' r ' in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) )
\({ }^{19}\) Line Feed (10 or ' n ' in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) )
}
```

                                    break;
    };
    return s;
    };
int main()
{
// test
// strdup() is used to copy text string into data segment,
// because it will crash on Linux otherwise,
// where text strings are allocated in constant data segment,
// and not modifiable.
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("\n")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("\r")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("\n\r")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("\r\n")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("test1\r\n")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("test2\n\r")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("test3\n\r\n\r")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("test4\n")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str trim (strdup("test5\r")));
printf ("[%s]\n", str_trim (strdup("test6\r\r\r")));
};

```

The input argument is always returned on exit, this is convenient when you want to chain string processing functions, like it has done here in the main() function.
The second part of for() (str_len>0 \&\& ( \(\left.c=s\left[s t r \_l e n-1\right]\right)\) ) is the so called "short-circuit" in C/C++ and is very convenient [Dennis Yürichev, \(C / C++\) progrämming language notes1.3.8].

The C/C++ compilers guarantee an evaluation sequence from left to right.
So if the first clause is false after evaluation, the second one is never to be evaluated.

\subsection*{3.15.1 x64: Optimizing MSVC 2013}

Listing 3.62: Optimizing MSVC 2013 x64
```

s\$ = 8
str_trim PROC
; RCX is the first function argument and it always holds pointer to the string
mov rdx, rcx
; this is strlen() function inlined right here:
; set RAX to 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF (-1)
or rax, -1
\$LL14@str_trim:
inc rax
cmp BYTE PTR [rcx+rax], 0
jne SHORT \$LL14@str_trim
; is the input string length zero? exit then:
test rax, rax
je SHORT \$LN15@str_trim
; RAX holds string length
dec rcx
; RCX = s-1
mov r8d, 1
add rcx, rax
; RCX = s-1+strlen(s), i.e., this is the address of the last character in the string
; R8 = 1-s
\$LL6@str_trim:
; load the last character of the string:
; jump, if its code is 13 or 10:
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rcx]
cmp al, 13

```
```

    je SHORT \$LN2@str_trim
    cmp al, 10
    jne SHORT \$LN15@str_trim
    \$LN2@str trim:
; the last character has a 13 or 10 code
; write zero at this place:
mov BYTE PTR [rcx], 0
; decrement address of the last character,
; so it will point to the character before the one which has just been erased:
dec rcx
lea rax, QWORD PTR [r8+rcx]
; RAX = 1 - s + address of the current last character
; thus we can determine if we reached the first character and we need to stop, if it is so
test rax, rax
jne SHORT \$LL6@str_trim
\$LN15@str trim:
mov rax, rdx
ret 0
str trim ENDP

```

First, MSVC inlined the strlen() function code, because it concluded this is to be faster than the usual strlen() work + the cost of calling it and returning from it. This is called inlining: 3.11 on page 507.

The first instruction of the inlined strlen() is
OR RAX, 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF.
MSVC often uses OR instead of MOV RAX, 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF, because resulting opcode is shorter.
And of course, it is equivalent: all bits are set, and a number with all bits set is -1 in two's complement arithmetic: 2.2 on page 452.

Why would the -1 number be used in strlen(), one might ask. Due to optimizations, of course. Here is the code that MSVC generated:

Listing 3.63: Inlined strlen() by MSVC 2013 x64
```

; RCX = pointer to the input string
; RAX = current string length
or rax, -1
label:
inc rax
cmp BYTE PTR [rcx+rax], 0
jne SHORT label
; RAX = string length

```

Try to write shorter if you want to initialize the counter at 0! OK, let' try:
Listing 3.64: Our version of strlen()
```

; RCX = pointer to the input string
; RAX = current string length
xor rax, rax
label:
cmp byte ptr [rcx+rax], 0
jz exit
inc rax
jmp label
exit:
; RAX = string length

```

We failed. We have to use additional JMP instruction!
So what the MSVC 2013 compiler did is to move the INC instruction to the place before the actual character loading.
If the first character is 0 , that's \(O K, R A X\) is 0 at this moment, so the resulting string length is 0 .
The rest in this function seems easy to understand.

\subsection*{3.15.2 x64: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9.1}
```

str_trim:
push rbp
mov rbp, rsp
sub rsp, 32
mov QWORD PTR [rbp-24], rdi
; for() first part begins here
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-24]
mov rdi, rax
call strlen
mov QWORD PTR [rbp-8], rax ; str_len
; for() first part ends here
jmp .L2
; for() body begins here
.L5:
cmp BYTE PTR [rbp-9], 13 ; c=='\r'?
je .L3
cmp BYTE PTR [rbp-9], 10 ; c=='\n'?
jne .L4
.L3:
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-8] ; str_len
lea rdx, [rax-1] ; EDX=str_len-1
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-24] ; s
add rax, rdx ; RAX=s+str_len-1
mov BYTE PTR [rax], 0 ; s[str_len-1]=0
; for() body ends here
; for() third part begins here
sub QWORD PTR [rbp-8], 1 ; str_len--
; for() third part ends here
.L2:
; for() second part begins here
cmp QWORD PTR [rbp-8], 0 ; str_len==0?
je .L4 ; exi\overline{t}}\mathrm{ then
check second clause, and load "c"
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-8] ; RAX=str len
lea rdx, [rax-1] ; RDX=str_len-1
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-24] ; RAX=s
add rax, rdx ; RAX=s+str_len-1
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rax] ; AL=s[str_\ len-1]
mov BYTE PTR [rbp-9], al ; store loaded char into "c"
cmp BYTE PTR [rbp-9], 0 ; is it zero?
jne .L5 ; yes? exit then
; for() second part ends here
.L4:
; return "s"
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rbp-24]
leave
ret

```

Comments are added by the author of the book.
After the execution of strlen ( ), the control is passed to the L2 label, and there two clauses are checked, one after another.
The second will never be checked, if the first one (str_len==0) is false (this is "short-circuit").
Now let's see this function in short form:
- First for() part (call to strlen())
- goto L2
- L5: for() body. goto exit, if needed
- for() third part (decrement of str_len)
- L2: for() second part: check first clause, then second. goto loop body begin or exit.
- L4: // exit
- return s

\subsection*{3.15.3 x64: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1}
```

str_trim:

```
    \(\begin{array}{ll}\text { push } & \text { rbx } \\ \text { mov } & \text { rbx, rdi }\end{array}\)
; RBX will always be "s"
    call strlen
; check for str_len==0 and exit if its so
    test rax, rax
    je .L9
    lea rdx, [rax-1]
; RDX will always contain str len-1 value, not str_len
; so RDX is more like buffer index variable


\section*{.L4:}
; this is weird instruction. we need RSI=s-1 here.
; its possible to get it by MOV RSI, EBX / DEC RSI
; but this is two instructions instead of one
    sub rsi, rax
; RSI = s+str_len-1-str_len = s-1
; main loop begin
.L12:
    test rdx, rdx
; store zero at address s-1+str_len-1+1 = s-1+str_len = s+str_len-1
    mov BYTE PTR [rsi+1+rdx], 0
; check for str_len-1==0. exit if so.
    je .L9
    sub rdx, 1 ; equivalent to str_len--
; load next character at address s+str len-1
    movzx ecx, BYTE PTR [rbx+rdx]
    test cl, cl ; is it zero? exit then
    je .L9
    cmp cl, \(10 \quad\); is it '\n'?
    \(\begin{array}{lll}\mathrm{je} & \text {.L12 } \\ \mathrm{cmp} & \mathrm{cl}, 13 \quad \text {; is it ' } \backslash \mathrm{r} \text { '? }\end{array}\)
    je .L12
.L9:
; return "s"
    mov rax, rbx
    pop rbx
    ret

Now this is more complex.
The code before the loop's body start is executed only once, but it has the CR/LF characters check too! What is this code duplication for?
The common way to implement the main loop is probably this:
- (loop start) check for CR/LF characters, make decisions
- store zero character

But GCC has decided to reverse these two steps.
Of course, store zero character cannot be first step, so another check is needed:
- workout first character. match it to CR/LF, exit if character is not CR/LF
- (loop begin) store zero character
- check for CR/LF characters, make decisions

Now the main loop is very short, which is good for latest CPUs.
The code doesn't use the str_len variable, but str_len-1. So this is more like an index in a buffer.

Apparently, GCC notices that the str_len-1 statement is used twice.
So it's better to allocate a variable which always holds a value that's smaller than the current string length by one, and decrement it (this is the same effect as decrementing the str_len variable).

\subsection*{3.15.4 ARM64: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

This implementation is straightforward:
Listing 3.65: Non-optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

str_trim:
stp x29, x30, [sp, -48]!
add x29, sp, 0
str x0, [x29,24] ; copy input argument into local stack
ldr x0, [x29,24] ; s
bl strlen
str x0, [x29,40] ; str_len variable in local stack
b .L2

```
; main loop begin
.L5:
    ldrb \(\quad\) 0, \([x 29,39]\)
; W0=c
    cmp w0, 13 ; is it ' \(\backslash r^{\prime}\) ?
    beq .L3
    ldrb w0, [x29,39]
; W0=c
    cmp w0, \(10 \quad\); is it '\n'?
    bne .L4 ; goto exit if it is not
.L3:
    ldr \(\quad x 0,[x 29,40]\)
; X0=str_len
    sub x0, x0, \#1
; X0=str_len-1
; X1=s
; \(\mathrm{X} 0=\mathrm{s}+\mathrm{str}\) _len -1
    strb wzr, [x0] ; write byte at s+str_len-1
; decrement str_len:
    ldr \(\quad x 0,[x 29,40]\)
; X0=str_len
    sub x0, x0, \#1
; X0=str_len-1
    str \(\quad x 0,[x 29,40]\)
; save X0 (or str_len-1) to local stack
.L2:
ldr x0, [x29,40]
; str_len==0?
    cmp \(x 0, x z r\)
; goto exit then
    beq .L4
    ldr \(x 0,[x 29,40]\)
; X0=str_len
    sub x0, x0, \#1
; X0=str len-1
र्ldr x1, [x29,24]
; X1=s
    add \(\quad \mathrm{x} 0, \mathrm{x} 1, \mathrm{x} 0\)
; X0=s+str_len-1
; load byte at address s+str_len-1 to W0
        ldrb w0, [x0]
        strb \(w 0,[x 29,39]\); store loaded byte to "c"
        ldrb w0, [x29,39] ; reload it
; is it zero byte?
    cmp w0, wzr
; goto exit, if its zero or to L5 if its not
    bne .L5
; return s
```

ldr x0, [x29,24]
ldp x29, x30, [sp], 48
ret

```

\subsection*{3.15.5 ARM64: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9}

This is a more advanced optimization.
The first character is loaded at the beginning, and compared against 10 (the LF character).
Characters are also loaded in the main loop, for the characters after first one.
This is somewhat similar to the 3.15 .3 on page 529 example.
Listing 3.66: Optimizing GCC (Linaro) 4.9
```

str_trim:
stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
add x29, sp, 0
str x19, [sp,16]
mov x19, x0
; X19 will always hold value of "s"
bl strlen
; X0=str len
chz x0, .L9 ; goto L9 (exit) if str_len==0
sub x1, x0, \#1
; X1=X0-1=str_len-1
add - x3, x19, x1
; X3=X19+X1=s+str_len-1
ldrb w2, [x19,x1] ; load byte at address X19+X1=s+str_len-1
; W2=loaded character
cbz w2, .L9 ; is it zero? jump to exit then
cmp w2, 10 ; is it '\n'?
bne .L15
.L12:
; main loop body. loaded character is always 10 or 13 at this moment!
sub x2, x1, x0
; X2=X1-X0=str_len-1-str_len=-1
add x2, x3, x2
; X2=X3+X2=s+str_len-1+(-1)=s+str_len-2
strb wzr, [x2,1] ; store zero byte at address s+str_len-2+1=s+str_len-1
cbz x1,.L9 ; str_len-l==0? goto exit, if so
sub x1, x1, \#1 ; str-len--
ldrb w2, [x19,x1] ; load next character at address X19+X1=s+str_len-1
cmp w2, 10 ; is it '\n'?
cbz w2,.L9 ; jump to exit, if its zero
beq .L12 ; jump to begin loop, if its '\n'
.L15:
cmp w2, 13 ; is it '\r'?
beq .L12 ; yes, jump to the loop body begin
.L9:
; return "s"
mov x0, x19
ldr x19, [sp,16]
ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
ret

```

\subsection*{3.15.6 ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)}

And again, the compiler took advantage of ARM mode's conditional instructions, so the code is much more compact.

Listing 3.67: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
str_trim PROC
PUSH \(\quad\{r 4, l r\}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; R0=s mov rero} \\
\hline MOV & r4, r0 & \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; R4=s} \\
\hline BL & strlen & ; strlen() takes "s" value from R0 \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; R0=str_len} \\
\hline MOV & r3,\#0 & \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{; R3 will always hold 0
|L0.16|}} \\
\hline & & \\
\hline CMP & r0,\#0 & ; str_len==0? \\
\hline ADDNE & r2,r4, r0 & ; (if str_len!=0) R2=R4+R0=s+str_len \\
\hline LDRBNE & r1, [r2,\#-1] & ; (if str_len!=0) R1=load byte at address R2-1=s+str_len-1 \\
\hline CMPNE & r1,\#0 & ; (if str_len!=0) compare loaded byte against 0 \\
\hline BEQ & |L0.56| & ; jump to exit if str_len==0 or loaded byte is 0 \\
\hline CMP & r1,\#0xd & ; is loaded byte '\r'? \\
\hline CMPNE & r1,\#0xa & ; (if loaded byte is not '\} r ^ { \prime } \text { ) is loaded byte '\} \mathrm { r } ^ { \prime } \text { ? } \\
\hline SUBEQ & r0, r0,\#1 & ; (if loaded byte is '\r' or '\n') R0-- or str_len-- \\
\hline STRBEQ & r3, [r2,\#-1] & ; (if loaded byte is ' \(\backslash r\) ' or ' \(\backslash \mathrm{n}\) ') store R3 (zero) at address R2\& \\
\hline \(\rightarrow-1=s+s t r\) _l & & \\
\hline BEQ & |L0.16| & ; jump to loop begin if loaded byte was '\r' or '\n' \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{|L0.56|} \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; return "s"} \\
\hline MOV & r0, r4 & \\
\hline POP & \{r4, pc \} & \\
\hline ENDP & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{3.15.7 ARM: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)}

There are less conditional instructions in Thumb mode, so the code is simpler.
But there are is really weird thing with the \(0 \times 20\) and \(0 \times 1 F\) offsets (lines 22 and 23 ). Why did the Keil compiler do so? Honestly, it's hard to say.

It has to be a quirk of Keil's optimization process. Nevertheless, the code works correctly.
Listing 3.68: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
```

str trim PROC
PUSH {r4,lr}
MOVS r4,r0
; R4=s
BL strlen ; strlen() takes "s" value from R0
; R0=str len
MOvS r3,\#0
; R3 will always hold 0
B |L0.24|
|L0.12|
CMP r1,\#0xd ; is loaded byte '\r'?
BEQ lL0.20| ; is loaded byte '\n'?
BNE |L0.38| ; jump to exit, if no
|L0.20|
SUBS r0,r0,\#1 ; R0-- or str len--
STRB r3,[r2,\#0x1f] ; store 0 at äddress R2+0x1F=s+str_len-0x20+0x1F=s+str_len-1
|L0.24|
CMP r0,\#0 ; str len==0?
BEQ |L0.38| ; yes?}\mathrm{ jump to exit
ADDS r2,r4,r0 ; R2=R4+R0=s+str_len
SUBS r2,r2,\#0x20 ; R2=R2-0x20=s+s\overline{tr}}\mathrm{ len-0x20
LDRB r1,[r2,\#0x1f] ; load byte at address R2+0x1F=s+str_len-0x20+0x1F=s+str_len-1 \imath
to R1
CMP rl,\#0 ; is loaded byte 0?
BNE |L0.12| ; jump to loop begin, if its not 0
|L0.38|
; return "s"
MOVS r0,r4
POP {r4,pc}
ENDP

```

\subsection*{3.15.8 MIPS}

Listing 3.69: Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 (IDA)
```

str trim:
; IDAA is not aware of local variable names, we gave them manually:
saved_GP = -0\times10
saved_S0 = -8
saved RA = -4
lui \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp >> 16)
addiu \$sp, -0x20
la \$gp, (__gnu_local_gp \& 0xFFFF)
sw $ra, 0x20+saved_RA($sp)
sw $s0, 0x20+saved_S0($sp)
sw $gp, 0x20+saved_GP($sp)
; call strlen(). input string address is still in \$a0, strlen() will take it from there:
lw $t9, (strlen & 0xFFFF)($gp)
or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
jalr \$t9
; input string address is still in \$a0, put it to \$s0:
move \$s0, \$a0 ; branch delay slot
; result of strlen() (i.e, length of string) is in \$v0 now
; jump to exit if \$v0==0 (i.e., if length of string is 0):
beqz \$v0, exit
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
addiu \$a1, \$v0, -1
; \$a1 = \$v0-1 = str_len-1
addu \$a1, \$s0, \$a1
; \$al = input string address + \$al = s+strlen-1
; load byte at address \$al:
lb $a0, 0($a1)
or \$at, \$zero ; load delay slot, NOP
; loaded byte is zero? jump to exit if its so:
beqz \$a0, exit
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
addiu \$v1, \$v0, -2
; \$v1 = str_len-2
addu \$v1, \$s0, \$v1
; \$v1 = $s0+$v1 = s+str_len-2
li \$a2, 0xD
; skip loop body:
b loc_6C
li \$a3, 0xA ; branch delay slot
loc_5C:
; load next byte from memory to \$a0:
lb $a0, 0($v1)
move \$al, \$v1
; \$a1=s+str_len-2
; jump to exit if loaded byte is zero:
beqz \$a0, exit
; decrement str_len:
addiu \$v1, -1 ; branch delay slot
loc_6C:
; a\overline{t}}\mathrm{ this moment, \$a0=loaded byte, \$a2=0xD (CR symbol) and \$a3=0xA (LF symbol)
; loaded byte is CR? jump to loc_7C then:
beq \$a0, \$a2, loc_7C
addiu \$v0, -1 ; \overline{branch delay slot}
; loaded byte is LF? jump to exit if its not LF:
bne \$a0, \$a3, exit
or \$at, \$zero ; branch delay slot, NOP
loc_7C:
; loaded byte is CR at this moment
; jump to loc_5c (loop body begin) if str_len (in \$v0) is not zero:
bnez \$v0, loc_5C
; simultaneously, store zero at that place in memory:
sb $zero, 0($a1) ; branch delay slot
; "exit" label was named by me manually:
exit:
lw $ra, 0x20+saved_RA($sp)

```
```

    move $v0, $s0
    lw $s0, 0x20+saved_S0($sp)
    jr $ra
    addiu $sp, 0x20 ; branch delay slot
    ```

Registers prefixed with S- are also called "saved temporaries", so \$S0 value is saved in the local stack and restored upon finish.

\subsection*{3.16 toupper() function}

Another very popular function transforms a symbol from lower case to upper case, if needed:
```

char toupper (char c)
{
if(c>='a' \&\& c<='z')
return c-'a'+'A';
else
return c;
}

```

The 'a'+'A' expression is left in the source code for better readability, it will be optimized by compiler, of course \({ }^{20}\).

The ASCII code of "a" is 97 (or \(0 \times 61\) ), and 65 (or \(0 \times 41\) ) for " \(A\) ".
The difference (or distance) between them in the ASCII table is 32 (or \(0 \times 20\) ).
For better understanding, the reader may take a look at the 7-bit standard ASCII table:


Figure 3.3: 7-bit ASCII table in Emacs

\section*{\(3.16 .1 \times 64\)}

\section*{Two comparison operations}

Non-optimizing MSVC is straightforward: the code checks if the input symbol is in [97..122] range (or in ['a'..'z'] range) and subtracts 32 if it's true.
There are also some minor compiler artifact:
Listing 3.70: Non-optimizing MSVC 2013 (x64)
```

c\$ = 8
toupper PROC
mov BYTE PTR [rsp+8], cl
movsx eax, BYTE PTR c\$[rsp]
cmp eax, 97
jl SHORT $LN2@toupper
    movsx eax, BYTE PTR c$[rsp]
cmp eax, 122
jg SHORT \$LN2@toupper

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{20}\) However, to be meticulous, there still could be compilers which can't optimize such expressions and will leave them right in the code.
}
3.16. TOUPPER() FUNCTION
```

    movsx eax, BYTE PTR c$[rsp]
    sub eax, 32
    jmp SHORT $LN3@toupper
    jmp SHORT $LN1@toupper ; compiler artefact
    $LN2@toupper:
    movzx eax, BYTE PTR c$[rsp] ; unnecessary casting
\$LN1@toupper:
\$LN3@toupper: ; compiler artefact
ret 0
toupper ENDP

```

It's important to notice that the input byte is loaded into a 64-bit local stack slot at line 3.
All the remaining bits ([8..63]) are untouched, i.e., contain some random noise (you'll see it in debugger).
All instructions operate only on byte-level, so it's fine.
The last MOVZX instruction at line 15 takes the byte from the local stack slot and zero-extends it to a int 32-bit data type.

Non-optimizing GCC does mostly the same:
Listing 3.71: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9 (x64)
```

toupper:
push rbp
mov rbp, rsp
mov eax, edi
mov BYTE PTR [rbp-4], al
cmp BYTE PTR [rbp-4], 96
jle .L2
cmp BYTE PTR [rbp-4], 122
jg .L2
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rbp-4]
sub eax, 32
jmp .L3
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rbp-4]
pop rbp
ret

```

\section*{One comparison operation}

Optimizing MSVC does a better job, it generates only one comparison operation:
Listing 3.72: Optimizing MSVC 2013 (x64)
```

toupper PROC
lea eax, DWORD PTR [rcx-97]
cmp al, 25
ja SHORT \$LN2@toupper
movsx eax, cl
sub eax, 32
ret 0
\$LN2@toupper:
movzx eax, cl
ret 0
toupper ENDP

```

It was explained earlier how to replace the two comparison operations with a single one: 3.10.2 on page 505.
We will now rewrite this in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) :
```

int tmp=c-97;
if (tmp>25)
return c;
else
return c-32;

```
3.16. TOUPPER() FUNCTION

The tmp variable must be signed.
This makes two subtraction operations in case of a transformation plus one comparison.
In contrast the original algorithm uses two comparison operations plus one subtracting.
Optimizing GCC is even better, it gets rid of the jumps (which is good: 2.10.1 on page 466) by using the CMOVcc instruction:

Listing 3.73: Optimizing GCC 4.9 (x64)
```

toupper:
lea edx, [rdi-97] ; 0x61
lea eax, [rdi-32] ; 0x20
cmp dl, 25
cmova eax, edi
ret

```

At line 3 the code prepares the subtracted value in advance, as if the conversion will always happen.
At line 5 the subtracted value in EAX is replaced by the untouched input value if a conversion is not needed. And then this value (of course incorrect) is dropped.
Advance subtracting is a price the compiler pays for the absence of conditional jumps.

\subsection*{3.16.2 ARM}

Optimizing Keil for ARM mode also generates only one comparison:
Listing 3.74: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (ARM mode)
\begin{tabular}{|cl|}
\hline toupper & PROC \\
SUB & \(r 1, r 0, \# 0 \times 61\) \\
CMP & \(r 1, \# 0 \times 19\) \\
SUBLS & \(r 0, r 0, \# 0 \times 20\) \\
ANDLS & \(r 0, r 0, \# 0 \times f f\) \\
BX & \(l r\) \\
ENDP &
\end{tabular}

The SUBLS and ANDLS instructions are executed only if the value in R1 is less than \(0 \times 19\) (or equal). They also do the actual conversion.

Optimizing Keil for Thumb mode generates only one comparison operation as well:
Listing 3.75: Optimizing Keil 6/2013 (Thumb mode)
```

toupper PROC
MOVS r1,r0
SUBS r1,r1,\#0x61
CMP r1,\#0x19
BHI |L0.14|
SUBS r0,r0,\#0x20
LSLS r0,r0,\#24
LSRS r0,r0,\#24
|L0.14|
BX lr
ENDP

```

The last two LSLS and LSRS instructions work like AND reg, \(0 x F F\) : they are equivalent to the \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) expression \((i \ll 24) \gg 24\).

Seems like that Keil for Thumb mode deduced that two 2-byte instructions are shorter than the code that loads the 0xFF constant into a register plus an AND instruction.

\section*{GCC for ARM64}

Listing 3.76: Non-optimizing GCC 4.9 (ARM64)
toupper:
sub sp, sp, \#16
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & strb & w0, [sp,15] \\
\hline & ldrb & w0, [sp,15] \\
\hline & cmp & w0, 96 \\
\hline & bls & .L2 \\
\hline & ldrb & w0, [sp,15] \\
\hline & cmp & w0, 122 \\
\hline & bhi & . L 2 \\
\hline & ldrb & w0, [sp,15] \\
\hline & sub & w0, w0, \#32 \\
\hline & uxtb & w0, w0 \\
\hline & b & .L3 \\
\hline .L2: & & \\
\hline & ldrb & w0, [sp,15] \\
\hline .L3: & & \\
\hline & add & sp, sp, 16 \\
\hline & ret & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Listing 3.77: Optimizing GCC 4.9 (ARM64)
toupper:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
uxtb & w0, w0 \\
sub & w1, w0, \#97 \\
uxtb & w1, w1
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{3.16.3 Using bit operations}

Given the fact that 5th bit (counting from 0th) is always present after the check, subtracting is merely clearing this sole bit, but the very same effect can be achieved with ANDing ( 2.5 on page 458).

Even simpler, with XOR-ing:
```

char toupper (char c)
{
if(c>='a' \&\& c<='z')
return c^0x20;
else
return c;
}

```

The code is close to what the optimized GCC has produced for the previous example ( 3.73 on the preceding page):

Listing 3.78: Optimizing GCC 5.4 (x86)
```

toupper:
mov edx, DWORD PTR [esp+4]
lea ecx, [edx-97]
mov eax, edx
xor eax, 32
cmp cl, 25
cmova eax, edx
ret

```
...but XOR is used instead of SUB.
Flipping 5th bit is just moving a cursor in ASCII table up and down by two rows.
Some people say that lowercase/uppercase letters has been placed in the ASCII table in such a way deliberately, because:

Very old keyboards used to do Shift just by toggling the 32 or 16 bit, depending on the key; this is why the relationship between small and capital letters in ASCII is so regular, and the relationship between numbers and symbols, and some pairs of symbols, is sort of regular if you squint at it.
( Eric S. Raymond, http://www. catb.org/esr/faqs/things-every-hacker-once-knew/)
Therefore, we can write this piece of code, which just flips the case of letters:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char flip (char c)
{
if((c>='a' \&\& c<='z') || (c>='A' \&\& c<='Z'))
return c^0x20;
else
return c;
}
int main()
{
// will produce "hELLO, WORLD!"
for (char *s="Hello, world!"; *s; s++)
printf ("%c", flip(*s));
};

```

\subsection*{3.16.4 Summary}

All these compiler optimizations are very popular nowadays and a practicing reverse engineer usually sees such code patterns often.

\subsection*{3.17 Obfuscation}

The obfuscation is an attempt to hide the code (or its meaning) from reverse engineers.

\subsection*{3.17.1 Text strings}

As we saw in ( 5.4 on page 704 ), text strings may be really helpful.
Programmers who are aware of this try to hide them, making it impossible to find the string in IDA or any hex editor.

Here is the simplest method.
This is how the string can be constructed:
```

mov byte ptr [ebx], 'h'
mov byte ptr [ebx+1], 'e'
mov byte ptr [ebx+2], 'l'
mov byte ptr [ebx+3], 'l'
mov byte ptr [ebx+4], 'o'
mov byte ptr [ebx+5], ' '
mov byte ptr [ebx+6], 'w'
mov byte ptr [ebx+7], 'o'
mov byte ptr [ebx+8], 'r'
mov byte ptr [ebx+9], 'l'
mov byte ptr [ebx+10], 'd'

```

The string can also be compared with another one like this:
```

mov ebx, offset username
cmp byte ptr [ebx], 'j'
jnz fail
cmp byte ptr [ebx+1], 'o'
jnz fail
cmp byte ptr [ebx+2], 'h'
jnz fail
cmp byte ptr [ebx+3], 'n'
jnz fail
jz it_is_john

```

In both cases, it is impossible to find these strings straightforwardly in a hex editor.
By the way, this is a way to work with the strings when it is impossible to allocate space for them in the data segment, for example in a \(\mathrm{PIC}^{21}\) or in shellcode.

Another method is to use sprintf() for the construction:
```

sprintf(buf, "%s%C%s%C%s", "hel",'l',"o w",'o',"rld");

```

The code looks weird, but as a simple anti-reversing measure, it may be helpful.
Text strings may also be present in encrypted form, then every string usage is to be preceded by a string decrypting routine. For example: 8.5.2 on page 822.

\subsection*{3.17.2 Executable code}

\section*{Inserting garbage}

Executable code obfuscation implies inserting random garbage code between real one, which executes but does nothing useful.
A simple example:
Listing 3.79: original code
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
add eax, ebx \\
mul & ecx
\end{tabular}
mul ecx

Listing 3.80: obfuscated code
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
xor & esi, 011223344h & ; garbage \\
add & esi, eax & ; garbage \\
add & eax, ebx & \\
mov & edx, eax & ; garbage \\
shl & edx, 4 & ; garbage \\
mul & \begin{tabular}{l} 
ecx \\
xor
\end{tabular} & esi, ecx
\end{tabular} & ; garbage \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here the garbage code uses registers which are not used in the real code (ESI and EDX). However, the intermediate results produced by the real code may be used by the garbage instructions for some extra mess-why not?

\section*{Replacing instructions with bloated equivalents}
- MOV op1, op2 can be replaced by the PUSH op2 / POP op1 pair.
- JMP label can be replaced by the PUSH label / RET pair. IDA will not show the references to the label.
- CALL label can be replaced by the following instructions triplet: PUSH label_after_CALL_instruction / PUSH label / RET.
- PUSH op can also be replaced with the following instructions pair: SUB ESP, 4 (or 8) / MOV [ESP], op.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{21}\) Position Independent Code
}

\section*{Always executed/never executed code}

If the developer is sure that ESI at always 0 at that point:
```

mov esi, 1
... ; some code not touching ESI
dec esi
... ; some code not touching ESI
cmp esi, 0
jz real_code
; fake luggage
real_code:

```

The reverse engineer needs some time to get into it.
This is also called an opaque predicate.
Another example (and again, the developer is sure that ESI is always zero):
```

add eax, ebx ; real code
mul ecx ; real code
add eax, esi ; opaque predicate. XOR, AND or SHL, etc, can be here instead of ADD.

```

\section*{Making a lot of mess}
```

instruction 1
instruction 2
instruction 3

```

Can be replaced with:
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline begin: & jmp ins1_label \\
ins2_label: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
instruction 2 \\
jmp ins3_label
\end{tabular} \\
ins3_label: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
instruction 3 \\
jmp exit:
\end{tabular} \\
ins1_label: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
instruction 1 \\
jmp ins2_label
\end{tabular} \\
exit: &
\end{tabular}

\section*{Using indirect pointers}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline dummy_datal & db & 100h dup (0) \\
\hline messagel & db & 'hello world',0 \\
\hline dummy_data2 & db & 200h dup (0) \\
\hline message2 & db & 'another message',0 \\
\hline func & proc & \\
\hline & \begin{tabular}{l}
mov \\
add \\
push \\
call
\end{tabular} & ```
eax, offset dummy_datal ; PE or ELF reloc here
eax, 100h
eax
dump_string
``` \\
\hline & \begin{tabular}{l}
mov \\
add \\
push \\
call
\end{tabular} & ```
eax, offset dummy_data2 ; PE or ELF reloc here
eax, 200h
eax
dump_string
``` \\
\hline func & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
3.18. C++

IDA will show references only to dummy_datal and dummy_data2, but not to the text strings.
Global variables and even functions may be accessed like that.

\subsection*{3.17.3 Virtual machine / pseudo-code}

A programmer can construct his/her own PL or ISA and interpreter for it.
(Like the pre-5.0 Visual Basic, .NET or Java machines). The reverse engineer will have to spend some time to understand the meaning and details of all of the ISA's instructions.
\(\mathrm{He} /\) she will also have to write a disassembler/decompiler of some sort.

\subsection*{3.17.4 Other things to mention}

My own (yet weak) attempt to patch the Tiny C compiler to produce obfuscated code: http://go.yurichev. com/17220.

Using the MOV instruction for really complicated things: [Stephen Dolan, mov is Turing-complete, (2013)] 22.

\subsection*{3.17.5 Exercise}
- http://challenges.re/29

\section*{\(3.18 \mathrm{C}++\)}

\subsection*{3.18.1 Classes}

\section*{A simple example}

Internally, the representation of \(\mathrm{C}++\) classes is almost the same as the structures.
Let's try an example with two variables, two constructors and one method:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
class c
{
private:
int v1;
int v2;
public:
c() // default ctor
{
v1=667;
v2=999;
};
c(int a, int b) // ctor
{
v1=a;
v2=b;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("%d; %d\n", v1, v2);
};
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{22}\) Also available as http://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~sd601/papers/mov.pdf
}
```

int main()
{
class c c1;
class c c2(5,6);
c1.dump();
c2.dump();
return 0;
};

```

\section*{MSVC: x86}

Here is how the main( ) function looks like, translated into assembly language:
Listing 3.81: MSVC
```

c2\$ = -16 ; size = 8
c1\$ = -8 ; size = 8
main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 16
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c1$[ebp]
    call ??0c@@QAE@XZ ; c::c
    push 6
    push 5
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c2$[ebp]
call ??0c@@QAE@HH@Z ; c::c
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c1$[ebp]
    call ?dump@c@@QAEXXZ ; c::dump
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR c2$[ebp]
call ?dump@c@@QAEXXZ ; c::dump
xor eax, eax
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

Here's what's going on. For each object (instance of class \(c\) ) 8 bytes are allocated, exactly the size needed to store the 2 variables.

For c1 a default argumentless constructor ??0c@@QAE@XZ is called. For c2 another constructor ??0c@@QAE@HH@Z is called and two numbers are passed as arguments.
A pointer to the object (this in C++ terminology) is passed in the ECX register. This is called thiscall ( 3.18.1) the method for passing a pointer to the object.

MSVC does it using the ECX register. Needless to say, it is not a standardized method, other compilers can do it differently, e.g., via the first function argument (like GCC).
Why do these functions have such odd names? That's name mangling.
A C++ class may contain several methods sharing the same name but having different arguments-that is polymorphism. And of course, different classes may have their own methods with the same name.

Name mangling enable us to encode the class name + method name + all method argument types in one ASCII string, which is then used as an internal function name. That's all because neither the linker, nor the DLL OS loader (mangled names may be among the DLL exports as well) knows anything about C++ or OOP \({ }^{23}\).

The dump () function is called two times.
Now let's see the constructors' code:
Listing 3.82: MSVC
```

this\$ = -4 ; size = 4
??0c@@QAE@XZ PROC ; c::c, COMDAT

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{23}\) Object-Oriented Programming
}
```

; this\$ = ecx
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov DWORD PTR _this$[ebp], ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR [eax], 667
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _this$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR [ecx+4], 999
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
??0c@@QAE@XZ ENDP ; c::c
this\$ = -4 ; size = 4
a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
b\$ = 12 ; size = 4
??0c@@QAE@HH@Z PROC ; c::c, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov DWORD PTR this$[ebp], ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR [eax], ecx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR [edx+4], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 8
??0c@@QAE@HH@Z ENDP ; c::c

```

The constructors are just functions, they use a pointer to the structure in ECX, copying the pointer into their own local variable, however, it is not necessary.
From the \(C++\) standard \((C++1112.1)\) we know that constructors are not required to return any values.
In fact, internally, the constructors return a pointer to the newly created object, i.e., this.
Now the dump() method:
Listing 3.83: MSVC
```

this\$ = -4 ; size = 4
?dump@c@@QAEXXZ PROC ; c::dump, COMDAT
; _this\$ = ecx
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov DWORD PTR this$[ebp], ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
push ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
    push eax
    push 0FFSET ??_C@_07NJBDCIEC@?$CFd?$DL?5?$CFd?6?\$AA@
call _printf
add esp, 12
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
?dump@c@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; c::dump

```

Simple enough: dump () takes a pointer to the structure that contains the two int's from ECX, takes both values from it and passes them to printf().

The code is much shorter if compiled with optimizations (/0x):
```

??0c@@QAE@XZ PROC ; c::c, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, ecx
mov DWORD PTR [eax], 667
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], 999
ret 0
??0c@@QAE@XZ ENDP ; c::c
a\$ = 8 ; size = 4
b\$ = 12 ; size = 4
??0c@@QAE@HH@Z PROC ; c::c, COMDAT
; _this\$ = ecx
mov edx, DWORD PTR b$[esp-4]
    mov eax, ecx
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4]
mov DWORD PTR [eax], ecx
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], edx
ret 8
??0c@@QAE@HH@Z ENDP ; c::c
?dump@c@@QAEXXZ PROC ; c::dump, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push eax
push ecx
push OFFSET ??_C@_07NJBDCIEC@?$CFd?$DL?5?$CFd?6?$AA@
call printf
add esp, 12
ret 0
?dump@c@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; c::dump

```

That's all. The other thing we must note is that the stack pointer hasn't been corrected with add esp, X after the constructor has been called. At the same time, the constructor has ret 8 instead of RET at the end.

This is all because the thiscall ( 3.18 .1 on page 542) calling convention is used here, which together with the stdcall ( 6.1 .2 on page 734) method offers the callee to correct the stack instead of the caller. The ret \(x\) instruction adds \(X\) to the value in ESP, then passes the control to the caller function.
See also the section about calling conventions ( 6.1 on page 734 ).
It also has to be noted that the compiler decides when to call the constructor and destructor-but we already know that from the \(C++\) language basics.

\section*{MSVC: x86-64}

As we already know, the first 4 function arguments in \(x 86-64\) are passed in \(R C X, R D X, R 8\) and \(R 9\) registers, all the rest-via the stack.

Nevertheless, the this pointer to the object is passed in RCX, the first argument of the method in RDX, etc. We can see this in the c(int \(a\), int b) method internals:

Listing 3.85: Optimizing MSVC 2012 x64
```

; void dump()
?dump@c@@QEAAXXZ PROC ; c::dump
mov r8d, DWORD PTR [rcx+4]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [rcx]
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:??_C@_07NJBDCIEC@?$CFd?$DL?5?$CFd?6?$AA@ ; '%d; %d'
jmp printf
?dump@c@@QEAAXXZ ENDP ; c::dump
; c(int a, int b)
??0c@@QEAA@HH@Z PROC ; c::c
mov DWORD PTR [rcx], edx ; 1st argument: a

```
3.18. \(C++\)
```

    mov DWORD PTR [rcx+4], r8d ; 2nd argument: b
    mov rax, rcx
    ret 0
    ??0c@@QEAA@HH@Z ENDP ; c::c
; default ctor
??0c@@QEAA@XZ PROC ; c::c
mov DWORD PTR [rcx], 667
mov DWORD PTR [rcx+4], 999
mov rax, rcx
ret 0
??0c@@QEAA@XZ ENDP ; c::c

```

The int data type is still 32-bit in \(\times 64{ }^{24}\), so that is why 32-bit register parts are used here.
We also see JMP printf instead of RET in the dump() method, that hack we already saw earlier: 1.15.1 on page 154.

\section*{GCC: \(x 86\)}

It is almost the same story in GCC 4.4.1, with a few exceptions.
Listing 3.86: GCC 4.4.1
```

    public main
    main proc near
var_20 = dword ptr -20h
var_1C = dword ptr -1Ch
var_18 = dword ptr -18h
var_10 = dword ptr -10h
var_8 = dword ptr -8
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 20h
lea eax, [esp+20h+var_8]
mov [esp+20h+var_20], eax
call ZN1cC1Ev
mov [esp+20h+var_18], 6
mov [esp+20h+var_1C], 5
lea eax, [esp+20h+var_10]
mov [esp+20h+var_20], - eax
call ZN1cC1Eii
lea eax, [esp+20h+var_8]
mov [esp+20h+var 20], eax
call _ZN1c4dumpEv
lea eax, [esp+20h+var_10]
mov [esp+20h+var 20], eax
call _ZN1c4dumpEv
mov eax, 0
leave
retn
main endp

```

Here we see another name mangling style, specific to GNU \({ }^{25}\) It can also be noted that the pointer to the object is passed as the first function argument-invisible to programmer, of course.
First constructor:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline ZN1cC1Ev & \begin{tabular}{l} 
public ZN1cC1Ev ; weak \\
proc near
\end{tabular} & CODE XREF: main+10
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{24}\) Apparently, for easier porting of 32-bit C/C++ code to \(x 64\)
\({ }^{25}\) There is a good document about the various name mangling conventions in different compilers: [Agner Fog, Calling conventions (2015)].
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{9}{*}{arg_0} & = dwo & ptr 8 \\
\hline & push & ebp \\
\hline & mov & ebp, esp \\
\hline & mov & eax, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline & mov & dword ptr [eax], 667 \\
\hline & mov & eax, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline & mov & dword ptr [eax+4], 999 \\
\hline & pop & ebp \\
\hline & retn endp & \\
\hline ZN1cC1Ev & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It just writes two numbers using the pointer passed in the first (and only) argument.
Second constructor:


This is a function, the analog of which can look like this:
```

void ZN1cC1Eii (int *obj, int a, int b)
{
*obj=a;
*(obj+1)=b;
};

```
...and that is completely predictable.
Now the dump() function:

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This function in its internal representation has only one argument, used as pointer to the object (this).
This function could be rewritten in C like this:
```

void ZN1c4dumpEv (int *obj)
{
printf ("%d; %d\n", *obj, *(obj+1));
};

```

Thus, if we base our judgment on these simple examples, the difference between MSVC and GCC is the style of the encoding of function names (name mangling) and the method for passing a pointer to the object (via the ECX register or via the first argument).

\section*{GCC: x86-64}

The first 6 arguments, as we already know, are passed in the RDI, RSI, RDX, RCX, R8 and R9 ([Michael Matz, Jan Hubicka, Andreas Jaeger, Mark Mitchell, System V Application Binary Interface. AMD64 Architecture Processor Supplement, (2013)] \({ }^{26}\) ) registers, and the pointer to this via the first one (RDI) and that is what we see here. The int data type is also 32 -bit here.
The JMP instead of RET hack is also used here.
Listing 3.87: GCC 4.4.6 x64
```

; default ctor
ZN1cC2Ev:
mov DWORD PTR [rdi], 667
mov DWORD PTR [rdi+4], 999
ret
; c(int a, int b)
ZN1cC2Eii:
mov DWORD PTR [rdi], esi
mov DWORD PTR [rdi+4], edx
ret
; dump()
ZN1c4dumpEv:
mov edx, DWORD PTR [rdi+4]
mov esi, DWORD PTR [rdi]
xor eax, eax
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; "%d; %d\n"
jmp printf

```

\section*{Class inheritance}

Inherited classes are similar to the simple structures we already discussed, but extended in inheritable classes.
Let's take this simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
class object
{
public:
int color;
object() { };
object (int color) { this->color=color; };
void print_color() { printf ("color=%d\n", color); };
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{26}\) Also available as https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/article/402129/mpx-linux64-abi.pdf
}
```

class box : public object
{
private:
int width, height, depth;
public:
box(int color, int width, int height, int depth)
{
this->color=color;
this->width=width;
this->height=height;
this->depth=depth;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is box. color=%d, width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d\n", color, width, \swarrow
height, depth);
};
};
class sphere : public object
{
private:
int radius;
public:
sphere(int color, int radius)
{
this->color=color;
this->radius=radius;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is sphere. color=%d, radius=%d\n", color, radius);
};
};
int main()
{
box b(1, 10, 20, 30);
sphere s(2, 40);
b.print_color();
s.print_color();
b.dump();
s.dump();
return 0;
};

```

Let's investigate the generated code of the dump() functions/methods and also object::print_color(), and see the memory layout for the structures-objects (for 32-bit code).

So, here are the dump () methods for several classes, generated by MSVC 2008 with /0x and /0b0 options 27

Listing 3.88: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

??_C@_09GCEDOLPA@color?$DN?$CFd?6?$AA@ DB 'color=%d', 0aH, 00H ; `string'
?print_color@object@@QAEXXZ PROC ; object::print_color, COMDAT
; this$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push eax
; 'color=%d', 0aH, 00H
push OFFSET ??_C@_09GCEDOLPA@color?$DN?$CFd?6?\$AA@
call _printf
add esp, 8
ret 0
?print color@object@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; object::print color

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{27}\) The /Ob0 option stands for disabling inline expansion since function inlining can make our experiment harder
}
?dump@box@@QAEXXZ PROC ; box::dump, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+12]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+8]
push eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push edx
push eax
push ecx
; 'this is box. color \(=\% d\), width \(=\% d\), height \(=\% d, d e p t h=\% d ', 0 a H, 00 H\); `string'
push OFFSET ??_C@_0DG@NCNGAADL@this?5is?5box?4?5color?\$DN?\$CFd?0?5width?\$DN?\$CFd?0@ call _printf
add esp, 20
ret 0
?dump@box@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; box::dump

Listing 3.90: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?dump@sphere@@QAEXXZ PROC ; sphere::dump, COMDAT
; _this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push eax
push ecx
; 'this is sphere. color=%d, radius=%d', 0aH, 00H
push OFFSET ??_C@_0CF@EFEDJLDC@this?5is?5sphere?4?5color?$DN?$CFd?0?5radius@
call _printf
add esp, 12
ret 0
?dump@sphere@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; sphere::dump

```

So, here is the memory layout:
(base class object)
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & int color \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
(inherited classes)
box:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & int color \\
\hline\(+0 \times 4\) & int width \\
\hline\(+0 \times 8\) & int height \\
\hline\(+0 \times C\) & int depth \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
sphere:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & int color \\
\hline\(+0 \times 4\) & int radius \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Let's see main( ) function body:
Listing 3.91: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

PUBLIC main
TEXT SĒGMENT
_s\$ = -24 ; size = 8
b\$ = -16 ; size = 16
-main PROC
sub esp, 24
push 30
push }2
push 10
push 1

```
```

    lea ecx, DWORD PTR b$[esp+40]
    call ??0box@@QAE@HHHH@Z ; box::box
    push 40
    push 2
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+32]
    call ??0sphere@@QAE@HH@Z ; sphere::sphere
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR b$[esp+24]
    call ?print_color@object@@QAEXXZ ; object::print_color
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR s$$[esp+24]
    call ?print_color@object@@QAEXXZ ; object::print_color
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[esp+24]
    call ?dump@box@@QAEXXZ ; box::dump
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _s$[esp+24]
    call ?dump@sphere@@QAEXXZ ; sphere::dump
    xor eax, eax
    add esp, 24
    ret 0
    main ENDP

```

The inherited classes must always add their fields after the base classes' fields, to make it possible for the base class methods to work with their own fields.

When the object::print_color() method is called, a pointers to both the box and sphere objects are passed as this, and it can work with these objects easily since the color field in these objects is always at the pinned address (at offset \(+0 x 0\) ).
It can be said that the object: : print_color() method is agnostic in relation to the input object type as long as the fields are pinned at the same addresses, and this condition is always true.

And if you create inherited class of the box class, the compiler will add the new fields after the depth field, leaving the box class fields at the pinned addresses.

Thus, the box::dump() method will work fine for accessing the color, width, height and depths fields, which are always pinned at known addresses.

The code generated by GCC is almost the same, with the sole exception of passing the this pointer (as it has been explained above, it is passed as the first argument instead of using the ECX register.

\section*{Encapsulation}

Encapsulation is hiding the data in the private sections of the class, e.g. to allow access to them only from this class methods.

However, are there any marks in code the about the fact that some field is private and some other-not? No, there are no such marks.
Let's try this simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
class box
{
private:
int color, width, height, depth;
public:
box(int color, int width, int height, int depth)
{
this->color=color;
this->width=width;
this->height=height;
this->depth=depth;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is box. color=%d, width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d\n", color, width, 々
\zetaeight, depth);
};
};

```

Let's compile it again in MSVC 2008 with / \(0 x\) and /Ob0 options and see the box: :dump() method code:
```

?dump@box@@QAEXXZ PROC ; box::dump, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+12]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+8]
push eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push edx
push eax
push ecx
; 'this is box. color=%d, width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d', 0aH, 00H
push OFFSET ??_C@_0DG@NCNGAADL@this?5is?5box?4?5color?$DN?$CFd?0?5width?$DN?$CFd?0@
call _printf
add esp, 20
ret 0
?dump@box@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; box::dump

```

Here is a memory layout of the class:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & int color \\
\hline\(+0 \times 4\) & int width \\
\hline\(+0 \times 8\) & int height \\
\hline\(+0 \times C\) & int depth \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

All fields are private and not allowed to be accessed from any other function, but knowing this layout, can we create code that modifies these fields?
To do this we'll add the hack_oop_encapsulation() function, which is not going to compile if it looked like this:
```

void hack_oop_encapsulation(class box * o)
{
o->width=1; // that code can't be compiled':
// "error C2248: 'box::width' : cannot access private member declared in class \swarrow
৬ 'box'"
};

```

Nevertheless, if we cast the box type to a pointer to an int array, and we modify the array of int-s that we have, we can succeed.
```

void hack_oop_encapsulation(class box * o)
{
unsigned int *ptr_to_object=reinterpret_cast<unsigned int*>(o);
ptr_to_object[1]=\overline{1}23;
};

```

This function's code is very simple-it can be said that the function takes a pointer to an array of int-s for input and writes 123 to the second int:
```

?hack_oop_encapsulation@@YAXPAVbox@@@Z PROC ; hack_oop_encapsulation
mov eax, DWORD PTR o\$[esp-4]
mov DWORD PTR [eax+4], 123
ret 0
?hack_oop_encapsulation@@YAXPAVbox@@@Z ENDP ; hack_oop_encapsulation

```

Let's check how it works:
```

int main()
{
box b(1, 10, 20, 30);
b.dump();
hack_oop_encapsulation(\&b);
b.dump();

```
    return 0;
\};

Let's run:
```

this is box. color=1, width=10, height=20, depth=30
this is box. color=1, width=123, height=20, depth=30

```

We see that the encapsulation is just protection of class fields only in the compilation stage.
The C++ compiler is not allowing the generation of code that modifies protected fields straightforwardly, nevertheless, it is possible with the help of dirty hacks.

\section*{Multiple inheritance}

Multiple inheritance is creating a class which inherits fields and methods from two or more classes.
Let's write a simple example again:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
class box
{
public:
int width, height, depth;
box() { };
box(int width, int height, int depth)
{
this->width=width;
this->height=height;
this->depth=depth;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is box. width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d\n", width, height, depth);
};
int get volume()
{
return width * height * depth;
};
};
class solid_object
{
public:
int density;
solid_object() { };
solid_object(int density)
{
this->density=density;
};
int get density()
{
return density;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is solid_object. density=%d\n", density);
};
};
class solid_box: box, solid_object
{
public:
solid_box (int width, int height, int depth, int density)
{
this->width=width;
this->height=height;
this->depth=depth;

```
```

                this->density=density;
    };
        void dump()
    {
        printf ("this is solid_box. width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d, density=%d\n", width, 々
    height, depth, density);
    };
    int get_weight() { return get_volume() * get_density(); };
    };
int main()
{
box b(10, 20, 30);
solid_object so(100);
solid_box sb(10, 20, 30, 3);
b.dump();
so.dump();
sb.dump();
printf ("%d\n", sb.get_weight());
return 0;
};

```

Let's compile it in MSVC 2008 with the /0x and /Ob0 options and see the code of box: : dump(), solid_object::dump() and solid_box::dump():

Listing 3.92: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?dump@box@@QAEXXZ PROC ; box::dump, COMDAT
; _this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+8]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
push eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push edx
push eax
; 'this is box. width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d', 0aH, 00H
push 0FFSET ??_C@_0CM@DIKPHDFI@this?5is?5box?4?5width?$DN?$CFd?0?5height?$DN?$CFd@
call _printf
add esp, 16
ret 0
?dump@box@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; box::dump

```

Listing 3.93: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?dump@solid_object@@QAEXXZ PROC ; solid_object::dump, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push eax
; 'this is solid_object. density=%d', 0aH
push OFFSET ??_C@_0CC@KICFJINL@this?5is?5solid_object?4?5density?$DN?$CFd@
call _printf
add esp, 8
ret 0
?dump@solid_object@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; solid_object::dump

```

Listing 3.94: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?dump@solid_box@@QAEXXZ PROC ; solid_box::dump, COMDAT
; _this\$ = \overline{ecx}
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+12]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+8]
push eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
push edx
push eax
push ecx
; 'this is solid_box. width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d, density=%d', 0aH

```
    push OFFSET ??_C@_0D0@HNCNIHNN@this?5is?5solid_box?4?5width?\$DN?\$CFd?0?5hei@
    call _printf
    add esp, 20
    ret 0
?dump@solid_box@@QAEXXZ ENDP ; solid_box::dump

So, the memory layout for all three classes is:
box class:
\begin{tabular}{|c|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & width \\
\hline\(+0 \times 4\) & height \\
\hline\(+0 \times 8\) & depth \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
solid_object class:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & density \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It can be said that the solid_box class memory layout is united:
solid_box class:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline offset & description \\
\hline\(+0 \times 0\) & width \\
\hline\(+0 \times 4\) & height \\
\hline\(+0 \times 8\) & depth \\
\hline\(+0 \times C\) & density \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The code of the box::get_volume() and solid_object::get_density() methods is trivial:
Listing 3.95: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?get_volume@box@@QAEHXZ PROC ; box::get_volume, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+8]
imul eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+4]
imul eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
ret 0
?get_volume@box@@QAEHXZ ENDP ; box::get_volume

```

Listing 3.96: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?get_density@solid_object@@QAEHXZ PROC ; solid_object::get_density, COMDAT
; _this\$ = ecx
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ecx]
ret 0
?get_density@solid_object@@QAEHXZ ENDP ; solid_object::get_density

```

But the code of the solid_box: :get_weight() method is much more interesting:
Listing 3.97: Optimizing MSVC 2008 /Ob0
```

?get_weight@solid_box@@QAEHXZ PROC ; solid_box::get_weight, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
push esi
mov esi, ecx
push edi
lea ecx, DWORD PTR [esi+12]
call ?get_density@solid_object@@QAEHXZ ; solid_object::get_density
mov ecx, esi
mov edi, eax
call ?get_volume@box@@QAEHXZ ; box::get_volume
imul eax, edi
pop edi
pop esi
ret 0
?get_weight@solid_box@@QAEHXZ ENDP ; solid_box::get_weight

```
get_weight () just calls two methods, but for get_volume() it just passes pointer to this, and for get_density() it passes a pointer to this incremented by 12 (or \(0 x C\) ) bytes, and there, in the solid_box class memory layout, the fields of the solid_object class start.
3.18. C++

Thus, the solid_object::get_density() method will believe like it is dealing with the usual solid_object class, and the box::get_volume() method will work with its three fields, believing this is just the usual object of class box.
Thus, we can say, an object of a class, that inherits from several other classes, is representing in memory as a united class, that contains all inherited fields. And each inherited method is called with a pointer to the corresponding structure's part.

\section*{Virtual methods}

Yet another simple example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
class object
{
public:
int color;
object() { };
object (int color) { this->color=color; };
virtual void dump()
{
printf ("color=%d\n", color);
};
};
class box : public object
{
private:
int width, height, depth;
public:
box(int color, int width, int height, int depth)
{
this->color=color;
this->width=width;
this->height=height;
this->depth=depth;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is box. color=%d, width=%d, height=%d, depth=%d\n", color, width, २
height, depth);
};
};
class sphere : public object
{
private:
int radius;
public:
sphere(int color, int radius)
{
this->color=color;
this->radius=radius;
};
void dump()
{
printf ("this is sphere. color=%d, radius=%d\n", color, radius);
};
};
int main()
{
box b(1, 10, 20, 30);
sphere s(2, 40);
object *ol=\&b;
object *o2=\&s;

```
```

    o1->dump();
    o2->dump();
    return 0;
    ```
\};

Class object has a virtual method dump () that is being replaced in the inheriting box and sphere classes.
If we are in an environment where it is not known the type of an object, as in the main() function in example, where the virtual method dump() is called, the information about its type must be stored somewhere, to be able to call the relevant virtual method.

Let's compile it in MSVC 2008 with the / \(0 x\) and /Ob0 options and see the code of main():
```

s\$ = -32 ; size = 12
b\$ = -20 ; size = 20
main PROC
sub esp, 32
push 30
push 20
push 10
push 1
lea ecx, DWORD PTR b$[esp+48]
    call ??0box@@QAE@HHHH̄@Z ; box::box
    push 40
    push 2
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR s$[esp+40]
call ??0sphere@@QAE@HH@Z ; sphere::sphere
mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[esp+32]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [eax]
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _b$[esp+32]
call edx
mov eax, DWORD PTR s$[esp+32]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [eax]
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR s$[esp+32]
call edx
xor eax, eax
add esp, 32
ret 0
main ENDP

```

A pointer to the dump ( ) function is taken somewhere from the object. Where could we store the address of the new method? Only somewhere in the constructors: there is no other place since nothing else is called in the main() function. \({ }^{28}\)

Let's see the code of the constructor of the box class:
```

??_R0?AVbox@@@8 DD FLAT:??_7type_info@@6B@ ; box `RTTI Type Descriptor'     DD 00H     DB '.?AVbox@@', 00H ??_R1A@?0A@EA@box@@8 DD FLAT:??_R0?AVbox@@@8 ; box::`RTTI Base Class Descriptor at (0,-1,0,64)'
DD 01H
DD 00H
DD 0ffffffffH
DD 00H
DD 040H
DD FLAT:??_R3box@@8
??_R2box@@8 DD FLAT:??_R1A@?0A@EA@box@@8 ; box::`RTTI Base Class Array'     DD FLAT:??_R1A@?0A@EA@object@@8 ?? R3box@@8 DD 00H ; box::`RTTI Class Hierarchy Descriptor'
DD 00H
DD 02H
DD FLAT:?? R2box@@8
?? R4box@@6B@ DD 00H ; box::`RTTI Complete Object Locator'
DD 00H
DD 00H

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{28}\) You can read more about pointers to functions in the relevant section:( 1.27 on page 384)
}
```

    DD FLAT:?? R0?AVbox@@@8
    DD FLAT:??_R3box@@8
    ??_7box@@6B@ DD FLAT:??_R4box@@6B@ ; box::`vftable'
DD FLAT:?dump@box@@UAEXXZ
color\$ = 8 ; size = 4
width\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_height\$ = 16 ; size = 4
depth\$ = 20 ; size = 4
??0box@@QAE@HHHH@Z PROC ; box::box, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
push esi
mov esi, ecx
call ??0object@@QAE@XZ ; object::object
mov eax, DWORD PTR color\$[esp]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _width\$[esp]
mov edx, DWORD PTR height\$[esp]
mov DWORD PTR [esi+ $\overline{4}$ ], eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR _depth\$[esp]
mov DWORD PTR [esi+16], eax
mov DWORD PTR [esi], OFFSET ?? 7box@@6B@
mov DWORD PTR [esi+8], ecx
mov DWORD PTR [esi+12], edx
mov eax, esi
pop esi
ret 16
??0box@@QAE@HHHH@Z ENDP ; box::box

```

Here we see a slightly different memory layout: the first field is a pointer to some table box: : vftable' (the name has been set by the MSVC compiler).

In this table we see a link to a table named
box:: 'RTTI Complete Object Locator' and also a link to the box: : dump() method.

These are called virtual methods table and \(\mathrm{RTTI}{ }^{29}\). The table of virtual methods has the addresses of methods and the RTTI table contains information about types.

By the way, the RTTI tables are used while calling dynamic_cast and typeid in C++. You can also see here the class name as a plain text string.
Thus, a method of the base object class may call the virtual method object::dump(), which in turn will call a method of an inherited class, since that information is present right in the object's structure.

Some additional CPU time is needed for doing look-ups in these tables and finding the right virtual method address, thus virtual methods are widely considered as slightly slower than common methods.
In GCC-generated code the RTTI tables are constructed slightly differently.

\subsection*{3.18 .2 ostream}

Let's start again with a "hello world" example, but now we are going to use ostream:
```

\#include <iostream>
int main()
{
std::cout << "Hello, world!\n";
}

```

Almost any \(\mathrm{C}++\) textbook tells us that the << operation can be defined (overloaded) for other types. That is what is done in ostream. We see that operator \(\ll\) is called for ostream:

Listing 3.98: MSVC 2012 (reduced listing)
```

\$SG37112 DB 'Hello, world!', 0aH, 00H

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{29}\) Run-Time Type Information
}
```

main PROC
push OFFSET $SG37112
    push OFFSET ?cout@std@@3V?$basic_ostream@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@@1@A ; std::cout
    call ??$?6U?$char_traits@D@std@@@̄std@@YAAAV?$basic_ostream@DU?\&
৬ \$char_traits@D@std@@@0@AAV10@PBD@Z ; std::operator<<<std::char_traits<char> >
add esp, 8
xor eax, eax
ret 0
main ENDP

```

Let's modify the example:
```

\#include <iostream>
int main()
{
std::cout << "Hello, " << "world!\n";
}

```

And again, from many C++ textbooks we know that the result of each operator<< in ostream is forwarded to the next one. Indeed:

Listing 3.99: MSVC 2012
```

\$SG37112 DB 'world!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG37113 DB 'Hello, ', 00H
main PROC
push OFFSET $SG37113 ; 'Hello, '
    push OFFSET ?cout@std@@3V?$basic ostream@DU?$char traits@D@std@@@1@A ; std::cout
    call ??$?6U?$char_traits@D@std@@@std@@YAAAV?$basic_ostream@DU?,
\zeta \$char traits@D@std@@@0@AAV10@PBD@Z ; std::operator<<<std::char traits<char> >
add esp, 8
push OFFSET $SG37112 ; 'world!'
    push eax ; result of previous function execution
    call ??$?6U?$char_traits@D@std@@@std@@YAAAV?$basic_ostream@DU?\imath
৬ \$char_traits@D@std@@@0@AAV10@PBD@Z ; std::operator<<<std::char_traits<char> >
add es\overline{p},8
xor eax, eax
ret 0
main ENDP

```

If we would rename operator<< method name to \(f()\), that code will looks like:
```

f(f(std::cout, "Hello, "), "world!");

```

GCC generates almost the same code as MSVC.

\subsection*{3.18.3 References}

In C++, references are pointers ( 3.21 on page 611) as well, but they are called safe, because it is harder to make a mistake while dealing with them ( \(C++11\) 8.3.2).

For example, reference must always be pointing to an object of the corresponding type and cannot be NULL [Marshall Cline, C++ FAQ8.6].
Even more than that, references cannot be changed, it is impossible to point them to another object (reseat) [Marshall Cline, \(C++\) FAQ8.5].

If we are going to try to change the example with pointers ( 3.21 on page 611) to use references instead
```

void f2 (int x, int y, int \& sum, int \& product)

```
\{
    sum=x+y;
    product=x*y;
\};
...then we can see that the compiled code is just the same as in the pointers example ( 3.21 on page 611):
Listing 3.100: Optimizing MSVC 2010
```

x\$ = 8 ; size = 4
-y\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_sum\$ = 16 ; size = 4
product\$ = 20 ; size = 4
?f2@@YAXHHAAH0@Z PROC ; f2
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _y$[esp-4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _x$[esp-4]
lea edx, DWORD PTR [eax+ecx]
imul eax, ecx
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _product$[esp-4]
    push esi
    mov esi, DWORD PTR _sum$[esp]
mov DWORD PTR [esi], edx
mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
pop esi
ret 0
?f2@@YAXHHAAH0@Z ENDP ; f2

```
(The reason why \(\mathrm{C}++\) functions has such strange names is explained here: 3.18.1 on page 542.) Hence, C++ references are as much efficient as usual pointers.

\subsection*{3.18.4 STL}
N.B.: all examples here were checked only in 32-bit environment. x64 wasn't checked.

\section*{std::string}

\section*{Internals}

Many string libraries [Dennis Yurichev, C/C++ programming language notes2.2] implement a structure that contains a pointer to a string buffer, a variable that always contains the current string length (which is very convenient for many functions: [Dennis Yurichev, \(C / C++\) programming language notes2.2.1]) and a variable containing the current buffer size.

The string in the buffer is usually terminated with zero, in order to be able to pass a pointer to the buffer into the functions that take usual C ASCIIZ strings.
It is not specified in the C++ standard how std::string has to be implemented, however, it is usually implemented as explained above.

The C++ string is not a class (as QString in Qt, for instance) but a template (basic_string), this is made in order to support various character types: at least char and wchar_t.
So, std::string is a class with char as its base type.
And std::wstring is a class with wchar_t as its base type.

\section*{MSVC}

The MSVC implementation may store the buffer in place instead of using a pointer to a buffer (if the string is shorter than 16 symbols).

This implies that a short string is to occupy at least \(16+4+4=24\) bytes in 32 -bit environment or at least \(16+8+8=32\)
bytes in 64 -bit one, and if the string is longer than 16 characters, we also have to add the length of the string itself.

Listing 3.101: example for MSVC
```

struct std_string
{
union
{
char buf[16];
char* ptr;
} u;
size_t size; // AKA 'Mysize' in MSVC
size_t capacity; // AKA 'Myres' in MSVC
};
void dump std_string(std::string s)
{
struct std_string *p=(struct std_string*)\&s;
printf ("[%s] size:%d capacity:%\overline{d}\n", p->size>16 ? p->u.ptr : p->u.buf, p->size, p->\swarrow
capacity);
};
int main()
{
std::string sl="short string";
std::string s2="string longer that 16 bytes";
dump std string(s1);
dump_std_string(s2);
// that works without using c_str()
printf ("%s\n", \&s1);
printf ("%s\n", s2);
};

```

Almost everything is clear from the source code.
A couple of notes:
If the string is shorter than 16 symbols, a buffer for the string is not to be allocated in the heap.
This is convenient because in practice, a lot of strings are short indeed.
Looks like that Microsoft's developers chose 16 characters as a good balance.
One very important thing here can be seen at the end of main(): we're not using the c_str() method, nevertheless, if we compile and run this code, both strings will appear in the console!
This is why it works.
In the first case the string is shorter than 16 characters and the buffer with the string is located in the beginning of the std::string object (it can be treated as a structure). printf() treats the pointer as a pointer to the null-terminated array of characters, hence it works.
Printing the second string (longer than 16 characters) is even more dangerous: it is a typical programmer's mistake (or typo) to forget to write c_str().

This works because at the moment a pointer to buffer is located at the start of structure.
This may stay unnoticed for a long time, until a longer string appears there at some time, then the process will crash.

\section*{GCC}

GCC's implementation of this structure has one more variable—reference count.
One interesting fact is that in GCC a pointer an instance of std::string instance points not to the beginning of the structure, but to the buffer pointer. In libstdc++-v3\includelbits|basic_string.h we can read that it was done for more convenient debugging:
* The reason you want _M_data pointing to the character \%array and
* not the Rep is so that the debugger can see the string
* contents. (Probably we should add a non-inline member to get
* the _Rep for the debugger to use, so users can check the actual
    * string length.)
basic_string.h source code
We consider this in our example:
Listing 3.102: example for GCC
```

\#include <string>
\#include <stdio.h>
struct std_string
{
size_t length;
size_t capacity;
size_t refcount;
};
void dump std_string(std::string s)
{
char *pl=*(char**)\&s; // GCC type checking workaround
struct std_string *p2=(struct std_string*)(p1-sizeof(struct std_string));
printf ("[%s] size:%d capacity:%d\n", p1, p2->length, p2->capacity);
};
int main()
{
std::string sl="short string";
std::string s2="string longer that 16 bytes";
dump_std_string(s1);
dump_std_string(s2);
// GCC type checking workaround:
printf ("%s\n", *(char**)\&s1);
printf ("%s\n", *(char**)\&s2);
};

```

A trickery has to be used to imitate the mistake we already have seen above because GCC has stronger type checking, nevertheless, printf() works here without c_str() as well.

\section*{A more advanced example}
```

\#include <string>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
std::string sl="Hello, ";
std::string s2="world!\n";
std::string s3=s1+s2;
printf ("%s\n", s3.c_str());
}

```

Listing 3.103: MSVC 2012
```

\$SG39512 DB 'Hello, ', 00H
\$SG39514 DB 'world!', 0aH, 00H
$SG39581 DB '%s', 0aH, 00H
s2$ = -72 ; size = 24
s3\$ = -48 ; size = 24
s1\$ = -24 ; size = 24
main PROC
sub esp, 72
push 7

```
```

    push OFFSET $SG39512
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _s1$[esp+80]
    mov DWORD PTR _s1$[esp+100], 15
    mov DWORD PTR s1$[esp+96], 0
    mov BYTE PTR _s1$[esp+80], 0
    call ?assign@?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@QAEAAV12@PBDI@Z ; ,
    std::basic_string<char,std::char_traits<char>,std::allocator<char> >::assign
    push 7
    push OFFSET $SG39514
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _s2$[esp+80]
    mov DWORD PTR s2$[esp+100], 15
    mov DWORD PTR s2$[esp+96], 0
    mov BYTE PTR _s2$[esp+80], 0
    call ?assign@?$basic string@DU?$char traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@QAEAAV12@PBDI@Z ; ,
     std::basic_string<char,std::char_traits<char>,std::allocator<char> >::assign
    lea eax, DWORD PTR s2$[esp+72]
    push eax
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _s1$[esp+76]
    push eax
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _s3$[esp+80]
    push eax
    call ??$?HDU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@1@@std@@YA?AV?$basic_string@DU?,
    \zeta $char traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@0@ABV10@0@Z ; std::operator+<char,std::char traits<z
    char>,std::allocator<char> >
    ; inlined c str() method:
    cmp DWORD PTR _s3$[esp+104], 16
    lea eax, DWORD PTR s3$[esp+84]
    cmovae eax, DWORD PT\overline{R}
    push eax
    push OFFSET $SG39581
    call _printf
    add esp, 20
    cmp DWORD PTR _s3$[esp+92], 16
    jb SHORT $LN119@main
    push DWORD PTR _s3$[esp+72]
    call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
    add esp, 4
    $LN119@main:
    cmp DWORD PTR _s2$[esp+92], 16
mov DWORD PTR s3$[esp+92], 15
    mov DWORD PTR s3$[esp+88], 0
mov BYTE PTR _s3\$[esp+72], 0
jb SHORT $LN151@main
    push DWORD PTR s2$[esp+72]
call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
add esp, 4
$LN151@main:
    cmp DWORD PTR _s1$[esp+92], 16
mov DWORD PTR s2$[esp+92], 15
    mov DWORD PTR -s2$[esp+88], 0
mov BYTE PTR _s2\$[esp+72], 0
jb SHORT $LN195@main
    push DWORD PTR _s1$[esp+72]
call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
add esp, 4
\$LN195@main:
xor eax, eax
add esp, 72
ret 0
main ENDP

```

The compiler does not construct strings statically: it would not be possible anyway if the buffer needs to be located in the heap.

Instead, the ASCIIZ strings are stored in the data segment, and later, at runtime, with the help of the
"assign" method, the s1 and s2 strings are constructed. And with the help of operator+, the s3 string is constructed.

Please note that there is no call to the c_str() method, because its code is tiny enough so the compiler inlined it right there: if the string is shorter than 16 characters, a pointer to buffer is left in EAX, otherwise the address of the string buffer located in the heap is fetched.

Next, we see calls to the 3 destructors, they are called if the string is longer than 16 characters: then the buffers in the heap have to be freed. Otherwise, since all three std::string objects are stored in the stack, they are freed automatically, when the function ends.

As a consequence, processing short strings is faster, because of less heap accesses.
GCC code is even simpler (because the GCC way, as we saw above, is to not store shorter strings right in the structure):

Listing 3.104: GCC 4.8.1
```

.LC0:
.string "Hello, "
.LC1:
.string "world!\n"
main:
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push edi
push esi
push ebx
and esp, -16
sub esp, 32
lea ebx, [esp+28]
lea edi, [esp+20]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], ebx
lea esi, [esp+24]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
mov DWORD PTR [esp], edi
call ZNSsC1EPKcRKSaIcE
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], ebx
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC1
mov DWORD PTR [esp], esi
call _ZNSsC1EPKcRKSaIcE
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], edi
mov DWORD PTR [esp], ebx
call ZNSsC1ERKSs
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], esi
mov DWORD PTR [esp], ebx
call _ZNSs6appendERKSs
; inlined c str():
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+28]
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
call puts
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+28]
lea ebx, [esp+19]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], ebx
sub eax, 12
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
call ZNSs4 Rep10 M disposeERKSaIcE
mov eax, D\overline{WORD PT}\mp@subsup{\}{}{-}}[\textrm{esp+24]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], ebx
sub eax, 12
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
call _ZNSs4_Rep10_M_disposeERKSaIcE

```
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```

    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esp+20]
    mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], ebx
    sub eax, 12
    mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
    call _ZNSs4_Rep10_M_disposeERKSaIcE
    lea esp, [ebp-12]
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    pop edi
    pop ebp
    ret
    ```

It can be seen that it's not a pointer to the object that is passed to destructors, but rather an address 12 bytes (or 3 words) before, i.e., a pointer to the real start of the structure.

\section*{std::string as a global variable}

Experienced \(\mathrm{C}++\) programmers knows that global variables of \(\mathrm{STL}^{30}\) types can be defined without problems.

Yes, indeed:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <string>
std::string s="a string";
int main()
{
printf ("%s\n", s.c_str());
};

```

But how and where std::string constructor will be called?
In fact, this variable is to be initialized even before main() start.
Listing 3.105: MSVC 2012: here is how a global variable is constructed and also its destructor is registered
```

??__Es@@YAXXZ PROC
push 8
push OFFSET $SG39512 ; 'a string'
    mov ecx, OFFSET ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A ; s
call ?assign@?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?\$allocator@D@2@@std@@QAEAAV12@PBDI@Z ; \ell
std::basic string<char,std::char traits<char>,std::allocator<char> >::assign
push OFFSET ??__Fs@@YAXXZ ; `dynamic atexit destructor for 's''
call _atexit
pop ecx
ret 0
??__Es@@YAXXZ ENDP

```

Listing 3.106: MSVC 2012: here a global variable is used in main()
```

\$SG39512 DB 'a string', 00H
$SG39519 DB '%s', 0aH, 00H
main PROC
    cmp DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic string@DU?$char traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A+20, 16
mov eax, OFFSET ?s@@3V?$basīc_string@DU?$chār_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A ; s
    cmovae eax, DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A
push eax
push OFFSET \$SG39519 ; '%S'
call _printf
add esp, 8
xor eax, eax
ret 0
main ENDP

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{30}\) (C++) Standard Template Library
}

Listing 3.107: MSVC 2012: this destructor function is called before exit
```

?? Fs@@YAXXZ PROC
push ecx
cmp DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?\$allocator@D@2@@std@@A+20, 16
jb SHORT $LN23@dynamic
    push esi
    mov esi, DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T2[esp+8]
    call ??0?$ Wrap alloc@V?$allocator@D@std@@@std@@QAE@XZ
    push OFFSET ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A ; s
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T2[esp+12]
    call ??$destroy@PAD@?$_Wrap_alloc@V?$allocator@D@std@@@std@@QAEXPAPAD@Z
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T1[esp+8]
    call ??0?$ Wrap alloc@V?\$allocator@D@std@@@std@@QAE@XZ
push esi
call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
add esp, 4
pop esi
$LN23@dynamic:
    mov DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic string@DU?$char traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A+20, 15
mov DWORD PTR ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A+16, 0
    mov BYTE PTR ?s@@3V?$basic_string@DU?$char_traits@D@std@@V?$allocator@D@2@@std@@A, 0
pop ecx
ret 0
?? Fs@@YAXXZ ENDP

```

In fact, a special function with all constructors of global variables is called from CRT, before main().
More than that: with the help of atexit() another function is registered, which contain calls to all destructors of such global variables.

GCC works likewise:
Listing 3.108: GCC 4.8.1
```

main:
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
and esp, -16
sub esp, 16
mov eax, DWORD PTR s
mov DWORD PTR [esp], eax
call puts
xor eax, eax
leave
ret
.LC0:
.string "a string"
GLOBAL sub_I_s:
sub esp, 44
lea eax, [esp+31]
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], eax
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:s
call ZNSsC1EPKcRKSaIcE
mov DWORD PTR [esp+8], OFFSET FLAT:__dso_handle
mov DWORD PTR [esp+4], OFFSET FLAT:s
mov DWORD PTR [esp], OFFSET FLAT:_ZNSsD1Ev
call __cxa_atexit
add esp, 44
ret
.LFE645:
.size GLOBAL sub I s, .- GLOBAL sub I s
.section
.align 4
.long GLOBAL sub_I_s
.globl s
.bss
.align 4
.type s, @object
.size s, 4

```
```

.zero 4
.hidden
dso handle

```

But it does not create a separate function for this, each destructor is passed to atexit(), one by one.

\section*{std::list}

This is the well-known doubly-linked list: each element has two pointers, to the previous and next elements.

This implies that the memory footprint is enlarged by 2 words for each element ( 8 bytes in 32-bit environment or 16 bytes in 64-bit).

C++ STL just adds the "next" and "previous" pointers to the existing structure of the type that you want to unite in a list.

Let's work out an example with a simple 2-variable structure that we want to store in a list.
Although the C++ standard does not say how to implement it, both MSVC's and GCC's implementations are straightforward and similar, so here is only one source code for both:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <list>
\#include <iostream>
struct a
{
int x;
int y;
};
struct List_node
{
struct List_node* _Next;
struct List_node* _Prev;
int x;
int y;
};
void dump_List_node (struct List_node *n)
{
printf ("ptr=0x%p _Next=0x%p _Prev=0x%p x=%d y=%d\n",
n, n->_Next, n->_Prev, n->x, n->y);
};
void dump_List_vals (struct List_node* n)
{
struct List_node* current=n;
for (;;)
{
dump_List_node (current);
current=current-> Next;
if (current==n) // end
break;
};
};
void dump_List_val (unsigned int *a)
{
\#ifdef _MSC_VER
// GCC implementation does not have "size" field
printf ("_Myhead=0x%p, _Mysize=%d\n", a[0], a[1]);
\#endif
dump_List_vals ((struct List_node*)a[0]);
};
int main()

```
```

    std::list<struct a> l;
    printf ("* empty list:\n");
    dump_List_val((unsigned int*)(void*)&l);
    struct a t1;
    t1.x=1;
    t1.y=2;
    l.push_front (t1);
    t1.x=3;
    t1.y=4;
    l.push front (t1);
    t1.x=5;
    t1.y=6;
    l.push_back (t1);
    printf ("* 3-elements list:\n");
    dump List_val((unsigned int*)(void*)&l);
    std::list<struct a>::iterator tmp;
    printf ("node at .begin:\n");
    tmp=l.begin();
    dump_List_node ((struct List_node *)*(void**)&tmp);
    printf ("node at .end:\n");
    tmp=l.end();
    dump_List_node ((struct List_node *)*(void**)&tmp);
    printf ("* let's count from the beginning:\n")
    std::list<struct a>::iterator it=l.begin();
    printf ("lst element: %d %d\n", (*it).x, (*it).y);
    it++;
    printf ("2nd element: %d %d\n", (*it).x, (*it).y);
    it++;
    printf ("3rd element: %d %d\n", (*it).x, (*it).y);
    it++;
    printf ("element at .end(): %d %d\n", (*it).x, (*it).y);
    printf ("* let's count from the end:\n");
    std::list<struct a>::iterator it2=l.end()
    printf ("element at .end(): %d %d\n", (*it2).x, (*it2).y);
    it2--;
    printf ("3rd element: %d %d\n", (*it2).x, (*it2).y);
    it2--;
    printf ("2nd element: %d %d\n", (*it2).x, (*it2).y);
    it2--;
    printf ("1st element: %d %d\n", (*it2).x, (*it2).y);
    printf ("removing last element...\n");
    l.pop_back();
    dump_List_val((unsigned int*)(void*)&l);
    ```
\};

\section*{GCC}

Let's start with GCC.
When we run the example, we'll see a long dump, let's work with it in pieces.
```

* empty list:
ptr=0x0028fe90 _Next=0x0028fe90 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=0

```

Here we see an empty list.
Despite the fact it is empty, it has one element with garbage (AKA dummy node) in \(x\) and \(y\). Both the "next" and "prev" pointers are pointing to the self node:


At this moment, the .begin and .end iterators are equal to each other.
If we push 3 elements, the list internally will be:
```

* 3-elements list:
ptr=0x000349a0 _Next=0x00034988 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=4
ptr=0x00034988 -Next=0x00034b40 _Prev=0x000349a0 x=1 y=2
ptr=0x00034b40 _Next=0x0028fe90 _Prev=0x00034988 x=5 y=6
ptr=0x0028fe90 - Next=0x000349a0 - Prev=0x00034b40 x=5 y=6

```

The last element is still at 0x0028fe90, it not to be moved until the list's disposal.
It still contain random garbage in \(x\) and \(y\) (5 and 6). By coincidence, these values are the same as in the last element, but it doesn't mean that they are meaningful.

Here is how these 3 elements are stored in memory:


The \(l\) variable always points to the first node.
The .begin() and .end() iterators are not variables, but functions, which when called return pointers to the corresponding nodes.

Having a dummy element (AKA sentinel node) is a very popular practice in implementing doubly-linked lists.

Without it, a lot of operations may become slightly more complex and, hence, slower.
The iterator is in fact just a pointer to a node. list.begin() and list.end() just return pointers.
```

node at .begin:
ptr=0x000349a0 _Next=0x00034988 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=4
node at .end:
ptr=0x0028fe90 _Next=0x000349a0 _Prev=0x00034b40 x=5 y=6

```

The fact that the last element has a pointer to the first and the first element has a pointer to the last one remind us of circular lists.
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This is very helpful here: having a pointer to the first list element, i.e., that is in the \(l\) variable, it is easy to get a pointer to the last one quickly, without the necessity to traverse the whole list.

Inserting an element at the end of the list is also quick, thanks to this feature.
operator-- and operator++ just set the current iterator's value to the current node->prev or current node->next values.

The reverse iterators (.rbegin, .rend) work just as the same, but in reverse.
operator* just returns a pointer to the point in the node structure, where the user's structure starts, i.e., a pointer to the first element of the structure \((x)\).
The list insertion and deletion are trivial: just allocate a new node (or deallocate) and update all pointers to be valid.

That's why an iterator may become invalid after element deletion: it may still point to the node that has been already deallocated. This is also called a dangling pointer.
And of course, the information from the freed node (to which iterator still points) cannot be used anymore.
The GCC implementation (as of 4.8.1) doesn't store the current size of the list: this implies a slow .size() method: it has to traverse the whole list to count the elements, because it doesn't have any other way to get the information.
This means that this operation is \(O(n)\), i.e., it steadily gets slower as the list grows.
Listing 3.109: Optimizing GCC 4.8.1-fno-inline-small-functions
```

main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push esi
push ebx
and esp, 0FFFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 20h
lea ebx, [esp+10h]
mov dword ptr [esp], offset s ; "* empty list:"
mov [esp+10h], ebx
mov [esp+14h], ebx
call puts
mov [esp], ebx
call _Z13dump_List_valPj ; dump_List_val(uint *)
lea èsi, [esp
mov [esp+4], esi
mov [esp], ebx
mov dword ptr [esp+18h], 1 ; X for new element
mov dword ptr [esp+1Ch], 2 ; Y for new element
call _ZNSt4listIlaSaIS0_EE10push_frontERKS0_ ; std::list<a,std::allocator<a>>::push_front(a<
con
mov [esp+4], esi
mov [esp], ebx
mov dword ptr [esp+18h], 3 ; X for new element
mov dword ptr [esp+1Ch], 4 ; Y for new element
call _ZNSt4listIlaSaIS0_EE10push_frontERKS0_ ; std::list<a,std::allocator<a>>::push_front(a<
const\&)
mov dword ptr [esp], 10h
mov dword ptr [esp+18h], 5 ; X for new element
mov dword ptr [esp+1Ch], 6 ; Y for new element
call _Znwj ; operator new(uint)
cmp eax, 0FFFFFFF8h
jz short loc_80002A6
mov ecx, [esp+1Ch]
mov edx, [esp+18h]
mov [eax+0Ch], ecx
mov [eax+8], edx
loc_80002A6: ; CODE XREF: main+86
mov [esp+4], ebx
mov [esp], eax
call _ZNSt8__detail15_List_node_base7_M_hookEPS0_ ; std::__detail::_List_node_base::_M_hook\_
৬(std}::_detail::_List_node_base*)
mov dword ptr [esp], offset a3ElementsList ; "* 3-elements list:"

```
```

    call puts
    mov [esp], ebx
    call _Z13dump_List_valPj ; dump_List_val(uint *)
    mov \overline{dword pt\overline{r [es\overline{p}], offset aNōdeAt_begin ; "node at .begin:"}}\mathbf{=}\mathrm{ - b}
    call puts
    mov eax, [esp+10h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _Z14dump_List_nodeP9List_node ; dump_List_node(List_node *)
    mov dword ptr [esp], offset aNodeAt_end ; "node at .end:"
    call puts
    mov [esp], ebx
    call Z14dump List_nodeP9List_node ; dump_List_node(List_node *)
    mov \overline{dword pt\overline{r [esp}], offset a}\mathrm{ LetSCountFromT ; "* let's count from the beginning:"}
    call puts
    mov esi, [esp+10h]
    mov eax, [esi+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esi+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset alstElementDD ; "1st element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov esi, [esi] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
    mov eax, [esi+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esi+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset a2ndElementDD ; "2nd element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov esi, [es\overline{i}] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
    mov eax, [esi+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esi+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset a3rdElementDD ; "3rd element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov eax, [esi] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
    mov edx, [eax+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], edx
    mov eax, [eax+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset aElementAt endD ; "element at .end(): %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call printf_chk
    mov dword ptr [esp], offset aLetSCountFro_0 ; "* let's count from the end:"
    call puts
    mov eax, [esp+1Ch]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset aElementAt_endD ; "element at .end(): %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esp+18h]
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call printf chk
    mov esi, [esp+14h]
    mov eax, [esi+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esi+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset a3rdElementDD ; "3rd element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov esi, [es\overline{i}+4] ; operator--: get ->prev pointer
    mov eax, [esi+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], eax
    mov eax, [esi+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset a2ndElementDD ; "2nd element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    ```
```

    call _printf_chk
    mov eax, [esi}+4] ; operator--: get ->prev pointe
    mov edx, [eax+0Ch]
    mov [esp+0Ch], edx
    mov eax, [eax+8]
    mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset alstElementDD ; "1st element: %d %d\n"
    mov dword ptr [esp], 1
    mov [esp+8], eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov \overline{dword pt\overline{r [esp], offset aRemovingLastEl ; "removing last element..."}}=|=\mp@code{l}
    call puts
    mov esi, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], esi
    call _ZNSt8__detail15_List_node_base9_M_unhookEv ; std::__detail::_List_node_base::/
    M unhook(void)
    mov}\mp@subsup{}{}{-}[esp], esi ; void *
    call _ZdlPv ; operator delete(void *)
    mov [esp], ebx
    call _Z13dump_List_valPj ; dump_List_val(uint *)
    mov [esp], ebx
    call ZNSt10 List_baseIlaSaIS0 EE8_M_clearEv ; std:: List_base<a,std::allocator<a>>::\swarrow
    M clear(vöid)
    lea}\mathrm{ esp, [ebp-8]
    xor eax, eax
    pop ebx
    pop esi
    pop ebp
    retn
    main endp

```

Listing 3.110: The whole output
```

* empty list:
ptr=0x0028fe90 Next=0x0028fe90 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=0
* 3-elements list:
ptr=0x000349a0 _Next=0x00034988 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=4
ptr=0x00034988 _Next=0x00034b40 _Prev=0x000349a0 x=1 y=2
ptr=0x00034b40 -Next=0x0028fe90 _Prev=0x00034988 x=5 y=6
ptr=0x0028fe90 _Next=0x000349a0 _Prev=0x00034b40 x=5 y=6
node at .begin:
ptr=0x000349a0 _Next=0x00034988 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=4
node at .end:
ptr=0x0028fe90 Next=0x000349a0 Prev=0x00034b40 x=5 y=6
* let's count from the beginning:
1st element: 3 4
2nd element: 1 2
3rd element: 5 6
element at .end(): 5 6
* let's count from the end:
element at .end(): 5 6
3rd element: 5 6
2nd element: 1 2
1st element: 3 4
removing last element...
ptr=0x000349a0 Next=0x00034988 _Prev=0x0028fe90 x=3 y=4
ptr=0x00034988 _Next=0x0028fe90 _Prev=0x000349a0 x=1 y=2
ptr=0x0028fe90 _Next=0x000349a0 _Prev=0x00034988 x=5 y=6

```

\section*{MSVC}

MSVC's implementation (2012) is just the same, but it also stores the current size of the list.
This implies that the .size() method is very fast \((O(1))\) : it just reads one value from memory.
On the other hand, the size variable must be updated at each insertion/deletion.
MSVC's implementation is also slightly different in the way it arranges the nodes:


GCC has its dummy element at the end of the list, while MSVC's is at the beginning.
Listing 3.111: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Fa2.asm /GS- /Ob1
```

l\$ = -16 ; size = 8
t1\$ = -8 ; size = 8
main PROC
sub esp, 16
push ebx
push esi
push edi
push 0
push 0
lea ecx, DWORD PTR l$[esp+36]
    mov DWORD PTR _l$[esp+40], 0
; allocate first garbage element
call ? Buynode0@?\$ List_alloc@$0A@U?$ List base types@Ua@@V? /
\zeta $allōcator@Ua@@@std@@@std@@@std@@QAEPAU?$_List_node@Ua@@PAX@2@PAU32@0@Z ; std::/
_List_alloc<0,std::_List_base_types<a,std::allocator<a> > >: :_Buynode0
mov}\mathrm{ edi
mov ebx, eax
push OFFSET $SG40685 ; '* empty list:'
    mov DWORD PTR l$[esp+32], ebx
call edi ; printf
lea eax, DWORD PTR _l$[esp+32]
    push eax
    call ?dump_List_val@@YAXPAI@Z ; dump_List_val
    mov esi, DWORD PTR [ebx]
    add esp, 8
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _t1$[esp+28]
push eax
push DWORD PTR [esi+4]
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _l$[esp+36]
    push esi
    mov DWORD PTR t1$[esp+40], 1 ; data for a new node
mov DWORD PTR _t1$[esp+44], 2 ; data for a new node
    ; allocate new node
    call ??$_Buynode@ABUa@@@?$_List_buy@Ua@@V?$allocator@Ua@@@std@@@std@@QAEPAU? \swarrow
\zeta $_List_node@Ua@@PAX@1@PAUZ21@0ABUa@@@Z ; std::_List_buy<a,std::allocator<a> >::_Buynode<a \swarrow
    const &>
    mov DWORD PTR [esi+4], eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
    mov DWORD PTR _t1$[esp+28], 3 ; data for a new node
mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
mov esi, DWORD PTR [ebx]
lea eax, DWORD PTR _t1$[esp+28]
    push eax
    push DWORD PTR [esi+4]
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _l$[esp+36]
push esi
mov DWORD PTR _t1\$[esp+44], 4 ; data for a new node

```
; allocate new node
call ??\$_Buynode@ABUa@@@?\$_List_buy@Ua@@V?\$allocator@Ua@@@std@@@std@@QAEPAU? ,
ᄂ \$ List node@Ua@@PAX@1@PAU21@0ABUa@@@Z ; std:: List_buy<a,std::allocator<a\gg:: Buynode<a 々
\(\hookrightarrow\) const \(\overline{\&}>\)
mov DWORD PTR [esi+4], eax
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
mov DWORD PTR t1\$[esp+28], 5 ; data for a new node
mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
lea eax, DWORD PTR _t1\$[esp+28]
push eax
push DWORD PTR [ebx+4]
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _l\$[esp+36]
push ebx
mov DWORD PTR _t1\$[esp+44], 6 ; data for a new node
; allocate new n̄ode
call ??\$_Buynode@ABUa@@@?\$_List_buy@Ua@@V?\$allocator@Ua@@@std@@@std@@QAEPAU?, ,
৬ \$_List_node@Ua@@PAX@1@PAU21@0ABUa@@@Z ; std::_List_buy<a,std::allocator<a\gg::_Buynode<a \(\prec\)
\(\stackrel{C}{ } \rightarrow\) const \(\overline{\&}>\)
mov DWORD PTR [ebx+4], eax
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
push OFFSET \$SG40689 ; '* 3-elements list:'
mov DWORD PTR \(1 \$[e s p+36], 3\)
mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
call edi ; printf
lea eax, DWORD PTR _l\$[esp+32]
push eax
call ?dump_List_val@@YAXPAI@Z ; dump_List_val
push OFFSET \$SḠ̄0831 ; 'node at .begin:'
call edi ; printf
push DWORD PTR [ebx] ; get next field of node \$l\$ variable points to
call ?dump_List_node@@YAXPAUList_node@@@Z ; dump_List_node
push OFFSET \$SG40835 ; 'node at .end:'
call edi ; printf
push ebx ; pointer to the node "l" variable points to!
call ?dump List_node@@YAXPAUList_node@@@Z ; dump_List_node
push OFFSET \$SG40839 ; '* let''s count from the begin:'
call edi ; printf
mov esi, DWORD PTR [ebx] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
push DWORD PTR [esi+12]
push DWORD PTR [esi+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40846 ; '1st element: \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esi] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
push DWORD PTR [esi+12]
push DWORD PTR [esi+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40848 ; '2nd element: \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esi] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
push DWORD PTR [esi+12]
push DWORD PTR [esi+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40850 ; '3rd element: \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
mov eax, DWORD PTR [esi] ; operator++: get ->next pointer
add esp, 64
push DWORD PTR [eax+12]
push DWORD PTR [eax+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40852 ; 'element at .end(): \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
push OFFSET \$SG40853 ; '* let''s count from the end:'
call edi ; printf
push DWORD PTR [ebx+12] ; use \(x\) and \(y\) fields from the node "l" variable points to
push DWORD PTR [ebx+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40860 ; 'element at .end(): \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
mov esi, DWORD PTR [ebx+4] ; operator--: get ->prev pointer
push DWORD PTR [esi+12]
push DWORD PTR [esi+8]
push OFFSET \$SG40862 ; '3rd element: \%d \%d'
call edi ; printf
mov esi, DWORD PTR [esi+4] ; operator--: get ->prev pointer
```

    push DWORD PTR [esi+12]
    push DWORD PTR [esi+8]
    push OFFSET $SG40864 ; '2nd element: %d %d'
    call edi ; printf
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [esi+4] ; operator--: get ->prev pointer
    push DWORD PTR [eax+12]
    push DWORD PTR [eax+8]
    push OFFSET $SG40866 ; '1st element: %d %d'
    call edi ; printf
    add esp, 64
    push OFFSET $SG40867 ; 'removing last element...'
    call edi ; printf
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [ebx+4]
    add esp, 4
    prev=next?
    ; it is the only element, garbage one?
    ; if yes, do not delete it!
    cmp edx, ebx
    je SHORT $LN349@main
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR [edx+4]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
    mov DWORD PTR [ecx], eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR [edx]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx+4]
    push edx
    mov DWORD PTR [ecx+4], eax
    call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
    add esp, 4
    mov DWORD PTR _l$[esp+32], 2
    $LN349@main:
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _l$[esp+28]
push eax
call ?dump_List_val@@YAXPAI@Z ; dump_List_val
mov eax, DWORD PTR [ebx]
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR [ebx], ebx
mov DWORD PTR [ebx+4], ebx
cmp eax, ebx
je SHORT \$LN412@main
\$LL414@main:
mov esi, DWORD PTR [eax]
push eax
call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
add esp, 4
mov eax, esi
cmp esi, ebx
jne SHORT \$LL414@main
\$LN412@main
push ebx
call ??3@YAXPAX@Z ; operator delete
add esp, 4
xor eax, eax
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
add esp, 16
ret 0
main ENDP

```

Unlike GCC, MSVC's code allocates the dummy element at the start of the function with the help of the "Buynode" function, it is also used to allocate the rest of the nodes ( GCC's code allocates the first element in the local stack).

Listing 3.112: The whole output
```

* empty list:
_Myhead=0x003CC258, _Mysize=0
p
* 3-elements lis̄t:

```
```

Myhead=0x003CC258, Mysize=3
ptr=0x003CC258 _Next=0x003CC288 _Prev=0x003CC2A0 x=6226002 y=4522072
ptr=0x003CC288 Next=0x003CC270 _Prev=0x003CC258 x=3 y=4
ptr=0x003CC270 -Next=0x003CC2A0 _Prev=0x003CC288 x=1 y=2
ptr=0x003CC2A0 _Next=0x003CC258 _Prev=0x003CC270 x=5 y=6
node at .begin:
ptr=0x003CC288 Next=0x003CC270 Prev=0x003CC258 x=3 y=4
node at .end:
ptr=0x003CC258 _Next=0x003CC288 _Prev=0x003CC2A0 x=6226002 y=4522072

* let's count from the beginning:
1st element: 3 4
2nd element: 1 2
3rd element: 5 6
element at .end(): 6226002 4522072
* let's count from the end:
element at .end(): 6226002 4522072
3rd element: 5 6
2nd element: 1 2
1st element: 3 4
removing last element...
Myhead=0x003CC258, Mysize=2
p
ptr=0x003CC288 _Next=0x003CC270 _Prev=0x003CC258 x=3 y=4
ptr=0x003CC270 Next=0x003CC258 Prev=0x003CC288 x=1 y=2

```

\section*{C++11 std::forward_list}

The same thing as std::list, but singly-linked one, i.e., having only the "next" field at each node. It has a smaller memory footprint, but also don't offer the ability to traverse list backwards.

\section*{std::vector}

We would call std::vector a safe wrapper of the PODT \({ }^{31} \mathrm{C}\) array. Internally it is somewhat similar to std::string ( 3.18 .4 on page 559): it has a pointer to the allocated buffer, a pointer to the end of the array, and a pointer to the end of the allocated buffer.
The array's elements lie in memory adjacently to each other, just like in a normal array ( 1.20 on page 267). In C++11 there is a new method called .data(), that returns a pointer to the buffer, like .c_str() in std::string.

The buffer allocated in the heap can be larger than the array itself.
Both MSVC's and GCC's implementations are similar, just the names of the structure's fields are slightly different \({ }^{32}\), so here is one source code that works for both compilers. Here is again the C-like code for dumping the structure of std::vector:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <vector>
\#include <algorithm>
\#include <functional>
struct vector of ints
{
// MSVC names:
int *Myfirst;
int *Mylast;
int *Myend;
// GCC structure is the same, but names are: _M_start, _M_finish, _M_end_of_storage
};
void dump(struct vector_of_ints *in)
{

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{31}\) (C++) Plain Old Data Type
\({ }^{32}\) GCC internals: http://go.yurichev.com/17086
}
    printf ("_Myfirst=\%p, _Mylast=\%p, _Myend=\%p\n", in->Myfirst, in->Mylast, in->Myend);
    size_t size=(in->Mylast-in->Myfirst);
    size_t capacity=(in->Myend-in->Myfirst);
    print \(f(" s i z e=\% d\), capacity \(=\% d \backslash n "\), size, capacity);
    for (size_t i=0; i<size; i++)
        print \(\bar{f}\) ("element \%d: \%d\n", i, in->Myfirst[i]);
\};
int main()
\{
    std::vector<int> c;
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*)\&c);
    c.push_back(1);
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*) \&c);
    c.push_back(2);
    dump ( ( struct vector_of_ints*) (void*) \&c);
    c. push_back(3);
    dump ( (struct vector_of_ints*) (void*) \&c) ;
    c.push_back(4);
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*)\&c);
    c.reserve (6);
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*)\&c);
    c. push_back(5);
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*)\&c);
    c.push_back(6);
    dump ((struct vector_of_ints*)(void*)\&c);
    printf ("\%d\n", c.at(5)); // with bounds checking
    printf ("\%d\n", c[8]); // operator[], without bounds checking
\};

Here is the output of this program when compiled in MSVC:
```

_Myfirst=00000000, _Mylast=00000000, _Myend=00000000
size=0, capacity=0
_Myfirst=0051CF48, _Mylast=0051CF4C, _Myend=0051CF4C
size=1, capacity=1
element 0: 1
Myfirst=0051CF58, _Mylast=0051CF60, _Myend=0051CF60
size=2, capacity=2
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
_Myfirst=0051C278, _Mylast=0051C284, _Myend=0051C284
size=3, capacity=3
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
_Myfirst=0051C290, _Mylast=0051C2A0, _Myend=0051C2A0
size=4, capacity=4
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
_Myfirst=0051B180, _Mylast=0051B190, _Myend=0051B198
size=4, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
Myfirst=0051B180, _Mylast=0051B194, _Myend=0051B198
size=5, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
element 4: 5
_Myfirst=0051B180, _Mylast=0051B198, _Myend=0051B198
size=6, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3

```

As it can be seen, there is no allocated buffer when main() starts. After the first push_back() call, a buffer is allocated. And then, after each push_back() call, both array size and buffer size (capacity) are increased. But the buffer address changes as well, because push_back() reallocates the buffer in the heap each time. It is costly operation, that's why it is very important to predict the size of the array in the future and reserve enough space for it with the . reserve() method.

The last number is garbage: there are no array elements at this point, so a random number is printed. This illustrates the fact that operator[] of std:: vector does not check of the index is in the array's bounds. The slower .at() method, however, does this checking and throws an std::out_of_range exception in case of error.

Let's see the code:
Listing 3.113: MSVC 2012 /GS- /Ob1
```

\$SG52650 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
$SG52651 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
this$ = -4 ; size = 4
Pos\$ = 8 ; size = 4
?at@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEAAHI@Z PROC ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int> \swarrow
>>:at, COMDAT
; this\$ = ecx
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
mov DWORD PTR this$[ebp], ecx
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [eax+4]
    sub edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
    sar edx, 2
    cmp edx, DWORD PTR _Pos$[ebp]
ja SHORT $LN1@at
    push OFFSET ??_C@_0BM@NMJKDPPO@invalid?5vector?$DMT?$DO?5subscript?$AA@
call DWORD PTR ___imp_?_Xout_of_range@std@@YAXPBD@Z
$LN1@at:
    mov eax, DWORD PTR this$[ebp]
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax]
mov edx, DWORD PTR __Pos\$[ebp]
lea eax, DWORD PTR [ecx+edx*4]
$LN3@at:
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 4
?at@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEAAHI@Z ENDP ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int> \swarrow
    > >: at
c$ = -36 ; size = 12
\$T1 = -24 ; size = 4
\$T2 = -20 ; size = 4
\$T3 = -16 ; size = 4
\$T4 = -12 ; size = 4
\$T5 = -8 ; size = 4
$T6 = -4 ; size = 4
main PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    sub esp, 36
    mov DWORD PTR _c$[ebp], 0 ; Myfirst
mov DWORD PTR _c$[ebp+4], 0 ; Mylast
    mov DWORD PTR _c$[ebp+8], 0 ; Myend
lea eax, DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp]
push eax
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump

```
```

add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR \$T6[ebp], 1
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T6[ebp]
push ecx
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]

call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX$$
QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::/
\ allocato\overline{r}<int> > : push_back
lea edx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
push edx
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR $T5[ebp], 2
lea eax, DWORD PTR $T5[ebp]
push eax
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX
$$QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::\ell

}allocator<int> >::push_back
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp]
push ecx
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR \$T4[ebp], 3
lea edx, DWORD PTR $T4[ebp]
push edx
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]

call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX$$
QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::/
} allocator<int> >::push back
lea eax, DWORD PTR _c$[ēbp]
push eax
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR $T3[ebp], 4
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T3[ebp]
push ecx
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX
$$QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::/

} allocato\overline{r}<int> >::push back
lea edx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
push edx
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
push 6
lea ecx, DWORD PTR c$[ebp]
call ?reserve@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEXI@Z ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<\downarrow
u int> >::reserve
lea eax, DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp]
push eax
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector of ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR \$T2[ebp], 5
lea ecx, DWORD PTR $T2[ebp]
push ecx
lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]

call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX$$
QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::/
l allocato\overline{r}<int> >::push back
lea edx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
push edx
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR $T1[ebp], 6
lea eax, DWORD PTR $T1[ebp]
push eax
lea ecx, DWORD PTR c$[ebp]
call ?push_back@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEX
$$QAH@Z ; std::vector<int,std::/

allocator<int> >::push_back
lea ecx, DWORD PTR c\$[ebp]
push ecx
call ?dump@@YAXPAUvector_of_ints@@@Z ; dump
add esp, 4
push 5

```
```

    lea ecx, DWORD PTR c$[ebp]
    call ?at@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@QAEAAHI@Z ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int\imath
    G > >::at
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [eax]
    push edx
    push OFFSET $SG52650 ; '%d'
    call DWORD PTR _imp printf
    add esp, 8
    mov eax, 8
    shl eax, 2
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+eax]
    push edx
    push OFFSET $SG52651 ; '%d'
    call DWORD PTR imp printf
    add esp, 8
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR _c$[ebp]
    call ? Tidy@?$vector@HV?$allocator@H@std@@@std@@IAEXXZ ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int,~
    > > :: Tidy
    xor eax, eax
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    ret 0
    main ENDP

```

We see how the . at () method checks the bounds and throws an exception in case of error. The number that the last printf() call prints is just taken from the memory, without any checks.

One may ask, why not use the variables like "size" and "capacity", like it was done in std::string. Supposedly, this was done for faster bounds checking.

The code GCC generates is in general almost the same, but the . at () method is inlined:
Listing 3.114: GCC 4.8.1 -fno-inline-small-functions -O1
```

main proc near
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push edi
push esi
push ebx
and esp, 0FFFFFFF0h
sub esp, 20h
mov dword ptr [esp+14h], 0
mov dword ptr [esp+18h], 0
mov dword ptr [esp+1Ch], 0
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
mov dword ptr [esp+10h], 1
lea eax, [esp+10h]
mov [esp+4], eax
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
int const\&)
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call Z4dumpP14vector of ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
mov \overline{dword ptr [esp+1\overline{0}h],},2
lea eax, [esp+10h]
mov [esp+4], eax
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
lint const\&)
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _Z4dumpP14vector of ints ; dump(vector of ints *)
mov dword ptr [esp+10h], 3
lea eax, [esp+10h]

```
```

    mov [esp+4], eax
    lea eax, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
    bint const&)
    lea eax, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
    mov dword ptr [esp+10h], 4
    lea eax, [esp+10h]
    mov [esp+4], eax
    lea eax, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
    \zetaint const&)
    lea eax, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
    mov èbx, [esp+14h]
    mov eax, [esp+1Ch]
    sub eax, ebx
    cmp eax, 17h
    ja short loc_80001CF
    mov edi, [esp+18h]
    sub edi, ebx
    sar edi, 2
    mov dword ptr [esp], 18h
    call _Znwj ; operator new(uint)
    mov esi, eax
    test edi, edi
    jz short loc 80001AD
    lea eax, ds:0[edi*4]
    mov [esp+8], eax ; n
    mov [esp+4], ebx ; src
    mov [esp], esi ; dest
    call memmove
    loc_80001AD: ; CODE XREF: main+F8
mov eax, [esp+14h]
test eax, eax
jz short loc_80001BD
mov [esp], eax ; void *
call _ZdlPv ; operator delete(void *)
loc 80001BD: ; CODE XREF: main+117
mov [esp+14h], esi
lea eax, [esi+edi*4]
mov [esp+18h], eax
add esi, 18h
mov [esp+1Ch], esi
loc_80001CF: ; CODE XREF: main+DD
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
mov dword ptr [esp+10h], 5
lea eax, [esp+10h]
mov [esp+4], eax
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
int const\&)
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax
call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
mov dword ptr [esp+10h], 6
lea eax, [esp+10h]
mov [esp+4], eax
lea eax, [esp+14h]
mov [esp], eax

```
```

    call _ZNSt6vectorIiSaIiEE9push_backERKi ; std::vector<int,std::allocator<int>>::push_back(\swarrow
    lint const&)
    lea eax, [esp+14h]
    mov [esp], eax
    call _Z4dumpP14vector_of_ints ; dump(vector_of_ints *)
    mov eax, [esp+14h]
    mov edx, [esp+18h]
    sub edx, eax
    cmp edx, 17h
    ja short loc 8000246
    mov dword ptr [esp], offset aVector_m_range ; "vector::_M_range_check"
    call ZSt20 throw out of rangePKc ; std:: throw out of range(char const*)
    loc_8000246: ; CODE XREF: main+19C
mov eax, [eax+14h]
mov [esp+8], eax
mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset aD ; "%d\n"
mov dword ptr [esp], l
call printf chk
mov eax, [esp+14h]
mov eax, [eax+20h]
mov [esp+8], eax
mov dword ptr [esp+4], offset aD ; "%d\n"
mov dword ptr [esp], l
call _printf_chk
mov eax, [esp+14h]
test eax, eax
jz short loc_80002AC
mov [esp], eax ; void *
call ZdlPv ; operator delete(void *)
jmp short loc_80002AC
mov ebx, eax
mov edx, [esp+14h]
test edx, edx
jz short loc_80002A4
mov [esp], ed\overline{x ; void *}
call _ZdlPv ; operator delete(void *)
loc_80002A4: ; CODE XREF: main+1FE
mov [esp], ebx
call _Unwind_Resume
loc_80002AC: ; CODE XREF: main+1EA
; main+1F4
mov eax, 0
lea esp, [ebp-0Ch]
pop ebx
pop esi
pop edi
pop ebp
locret_80002B8: ; DATA XREF: .eh_frame:08000510
; .eh_frame:0800}\overline{0}5\textrm{BC
retn
main endp

```
.reserve() is inlined as well. It calls new() if the buffer is too small for the new size, calls memmove() to copy the contents of the buffer, and calls delete() to free the old buffer.

Let's also see what the compiled program outputs if compiled with GCC:
```

_Myfirst=0x(nil), _Mylast=0x(nil), _Myend=0x(nil)
size=0, capacity=0
_Myfirst=0x8257008, _Mylast=0x825700c, _Myend=0x825700c
size=1, capacity=1
element 0: 1
Myfirst=0x8257018, _Mylast=0x8257020, _Myend=0x8257020
size=2, capacity=2

```
```

element 0: 1
element 1: 2
Myfirst=0x8257028, _Mylast=0x8257034, Myend=0x8257038
size=3, capacity=4
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
Myfirst=0x8257028, _Mylast=0x8257038, _Myend=0x8257038
size=4, capacity=4
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
Myfirst=0x8257040, _Mylast=0x8257050, _Myend=0x8257058
size=4, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
_Myfirst=0x8257040, _Mylast=0x8257054, _Myend=0x8257058
size=5, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
element 4: 5
_Myfirst=0x8257040, _Mylast=0x8257058, _Myend=0x8257058
size=6, capacity=6
element 0: 1
element 1: 2
element 2: 3
element 3: 4
element 4: 5
element 5: 6
6
0

```

We can spot that the buffer size grows in a different way that in MSVC.
Simple experimentation shows that in MSVC's implementation the buffer grows by \(\sim 50 \%\) each time it needs to be enlarged, while GCC's code enlarges it by \(100 \%\) each time, i.e., doubles it.

\section*{std::map and std::set}

The binary tree is another fundamental data structure.
As its name states, this is a tree where each node has at most 2 links to other nodes. Each node has key and/or value: std::set provides only key at each node, std::map provides both key and value at each node.

Binary trees are usually the structure used in the implementation of "dictionaries" of key-values (AKA "associative arrays").

There are at least three important properties that a binary trees has:
- All keys are always stored in sorted form.
- Keys of any types can be stored easily. Binary tree algorithms are unaware of the key's type, only a key comparison function is required.
- Finding a specific key is relatively fast in comparison with lists and arrays.

Here is a very simple example: let's store these numbers in a binary tree: \(0,1,2,3,5,6,9,10,11,12\), 20, 99, 100, 101, 107, 1001, 1010.


All keys that are smaller than the node key's value are stored on the left side.
All keys that are bigger than the node key's value are stored on the right side.
Hence, the lookup algorithm is straightforward: if the value that you are looking for is smaller than the current node's key value: move left, if it is bigger: move right, stop if the value required is equal to the node key's value.

That is why the searching algorithm may search for numbers, text strings, etc., as long as a key comparison function is provided.

All keys have unique values.
Having that, one needs \(\approx \log _{2} n\) steps in order to find a key in a balanced binary tree with \(n\) keys. This implies that \(\approx 10\) steps are needed \(\approx 1000\) keys, or \(\approx 13\) steps for \(\approx 10000\) keys.

Not bad, but the tree has always to be balanced for this: i.e., the keys has to be distributed evenly on all levels. The insertion and removal operations do some maintenance to keep the tree in a balanced state.

There are several popular balancing algorithms available, including the AVL tree and the red-black tree.
The latter extends each node with a "color" value to simplify the balancing process, hence, each node may be "red" or "black".

Both GCC's and MSVC's std: : map and std: : set template implementations use red-black trees.
std: : set has only keys. std: :map is the "extended" version of std::set: it also has a value at each node.

\section*{MSVC}
```

\#include <map>
\#include <set>
\#include <string>
\#include <iostream>
// Structure is not packed! Each field occupies 4 bytes.
struct tree_node
{
struct tree node *Left;
struct tree_node *Parent;
struct tree node *Right;
char Color; // 0 - Red, 1 - Black
char Isnil;
//std::pair Myval;
unsigned int first; // called Myval in std::set
const char *second; // not present in std::set
};
struct tree_struct
{
struct tree_node *Myhead;
size_t Mysize;
};

```
```

void dump_tree_node (struct tree_node *n, bool is_set, bool traverse)

```
    printf ("ptr=0x\%p Left=0x\%p Parent=0x\%p Right=0x\%p Color=\%d Isnil=\%d\n",
        n, n->Left, n->Parent, n->Right, n->Color, n->Isnil);
    if (n->Isnil==0)
    \{
        if (is_set)
        printf ("first=\%d\n", n->first);
        else
        printf ("first=\%d second=[\%s]\n", n->first, n->second);
    \}
    if (traverse)
    \{
        if (n->Isnil==1)
                dump_tree_node (n->Parent, is_set, true);
        else
        \{
            if (n->Left->Isnil==0)
                dump tree node ( \(n\)->Left, is set, true);
            if ( n ->Right->Isnil==0)
                dump_tree_node (n->Right, is_set, true);
    \};
    \};
\};
const char* ALOT_OF_TABS="\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t";
void dump_as_tree (int tabs, struct tree_node *n, bool is_set)
\{
    if (is_set)
    printf ("\%d\n", n->first);
    else
        printf ("\%d [\%s]\n", n->first, n->second);
    if (n->Left->Isnil==0)
    \{
        printf ("\%.*sL-------", tabs, ALOT_OF_TABS);
        dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->Left, is_set);
    \};
    if (n->Right->Isnil==0)
    \{
        printf ("\%.*sR-------", tabs, ALOT OF TABS);
        dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->Right, is_set);
    \};
\};
void dump map and set(struct tree struct \(*_{\mathrm{m}}\), bool is set)
\{
    printf ("ptr=0x\%p, Myhead=0x\%p, Mysize=\%d\n", m, m->Myhead, m->Mysize);
    dump tree node (m->Myhead, is set, true);
    prin̄̄f ("Ās a tree:\n");
    printf ("root----");
    dump_as_tree (1, m->Myhead->Parent, is_set);
\};
int main()
\{
    // map
    std::map<int, const char*> m;
    m[10]="ten";
    m[20]="twenty";
    m[3]="three";
    m[101]="one hundred one";
    m[100]="one hundred";
    m[12]="twelve";
    m[107]="one hundred seven";
    m[0]="zero";
```

    m[1]="one";
    m[6]="six";
    m[99]="ninety-nine";
    m[5]="five";
    m[11]="eleven";
    m[1001]="one thousand one";
    m[1010]="one thousand ten";
    m[2]="two";
    m[9]="nine";
    printf ("dumping m as map:\n");
    dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)&m, false);
    std::map<int, const char*>::iterator it1=m.begin();
    printf ("m.begin():\n");
    dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)&it1, false, false);
    it1=m.end();
    printf ("m.end():\n");
    dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)&itl, false, false);
    // set
    std::set<int> s;
    s.insert(123);
    s.insert(456);
    s.insert(11);
    s.insert(12);
    s.insert(100);
    s.insert(1001);
    printf ("dumping s as set:\n");
    dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)&s, true);
    std::set<int>::iterator it2=s.\overline{begin();}
    printf ("s.begin():\n");
    dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)&it2, true, false);
    it2=s.end();
    printf ("s.end():\n");
    dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)&it2, true, false);
    ```
\};

Listing 3.115: MSVC 2012
```

dumping m as map:
ptr=0x0020FE04, Myhead=0x005BB3A0, Mysize=17
ptr=0x005BB3A0 Left=0x005BB4A0 Parent=0x005BB3C0 Right=0x005BB580 Color=1 Isnil=1
ptr=0x005BB3C0 Left=0x005BB4C0 Parent=0x005BB3A0 Right=0x005BB440 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=10 second=[ten]
ptr=0x005BB4C0 Left=0x005BB4A0 Parent=0x005BB3C0 Right=0x005BB520 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=1 second=[one]
ptr=0x005BB4A0 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB4C0 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=0 second=[zero]
ptr=0x005BB520 Left=0x005BB400 Parent=0x005BB4C0 Right=0x005BB4E0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=5 second=[five]
ptr=0x005BB400 Left=0x005BB5A0 Parent=0x005BB520 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=3 second=[three]
ptr=0x005BB5A0 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB400 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=2 second=[two]
ptr=0x005BB4E0 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB520 Right=0x005BB5C0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=6 second=[six]
ptr=0x005BB5C0 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB4E0 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=9 second=[nine]
ptr=0x005BB440 Left=0x005BB3E0 Parent=0x005BB3C0 Right=0x005BB480 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=100 second=[one hundred]
ptr=0x005BB3E0 Left=0x005BB460 Parent=0x005BB440 Right=0x005BB500 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=20 second=[twenty]
ptr=0x005BB460 Left=0x005BB540 Parent=0x005BB3E0 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=12 second=[twelve]
ptr=0x005BB540 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB460 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=11 second=[eleven]
ptr=0x005BB500 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB3E0 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=99 second=[ninety-nine]
ptr=0x005BB480 Left=0x005BB420 Parent=0x005BB440 Right=0x005BB560 Color=0 Isnil=0

```
```

first=107 second=[one hundred seven]
ptr=0x005BB420 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB480 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=101 second=[one hundred one]
ptr=0x005BB560 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB480 Right=0x005BB580 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=1001 second=[one thousand one]
ptr=0x005BB580 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB560 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=1010 second=[one thousand ten]
As a tree:
root----10 [ten]
L------1 [one]
L-------0 [zero]
R------5 [five]
L------3 [three]
L-------2 [two]
R------6 [six]
R-------9 [nine]
R-------100 [one hundred]
L-------20 [twenty]
L------12 [twelve]
L-------11 [eleven]
R------99 [ninety-nine]
R-------107 [one hundred seven]
L-------101 [one hundred one]
R------1001 [one thousand one]
R-------1010 [one thousand ten]

```
m. begin():
ptr=0x005BB4A0 Left=0x005BB3A0 Parent=0x005BB4C0 Right=0x005BB3A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=0 second=[zero]
m.end():
ptr=0x005BB3A0 Left=0x005BB4A0 Parent=0x005BB3C0 Right=0x005BB580 Color=1 Isnil=1
dumping s as set:
ptr=0x0020FDFC, Myhead=0x005BB5E0, Mysize=6
ptr=0x005BB5E0 Left=0x005BB640 Parent=0x005BB600 Right=0x005BB6A0 Color=1 Isnil=1
ptr=0x005BB600 Left=0x005BB660 Parent=0x005BB5E0 Right=0x005BB620 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=123
ptr=0x005BB660 Left=0x005BB640 Parent=0x005BB600 Right=0x005BB680 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=12
ptr=0x005BB640 Left=0x005BB5E0 Parent=0x005BB660 Right=0x005BB5E0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=11
ptr=0x005BB680 Left=0x005BB5E0 Parent=0x005BB660 Right=0x005BB5E0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=100
ptr=0x005BB620 Left=0x005BB5E0 Parent=0x005BB600 Right=0x005BB6A0 Color=1 Isnil=0
first=456
ptr=0x005BB6A0 Left=0x005BB5E0 Parent=0x005BB620 Right=0x005BB5E0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=1001
As a tree:
root----123
    L------ 12
        L-------11
        R------100
    R------456
    R-------1001
s.begin():
ptr=0x005BB640 Left=0x005BB5E0 Parent=0x005BB660 Right=0x005BB5E0 Color=0 Isnil=0
first=11
s.end():
ptr=0x005BB5E0 Left=0x005BB640 Parent=0x005BB600 Right=0x005BB6A0 Color=1 Isnil=1

The structure is not packed, so both char values occupy 4 bytes each.
As for std::map, first and second can be viewed as a single value of type std::pair. std::set has only one value at this address in the structure instead.
The current size of the tree is always present, as in the case of the implementation of std: :list in MSVC ( 3.18.4 on page 571).

As in the case of std: :list, the iterators are just pointers to nodes. The .begin() iterator points to the minimal key.

That pointer is not stored anywhere (as in lists), the minimal key of the tree is looked up every time.
3.18. C++
operator-- and operator++ move the current node pointer to the predecessor or successor respectively, i.e., the nodes which have the previous or next key.

The algorithms for all these operations are explained in [Cormen, Thomas H. and Leiserson, Charles E. and Rivest, Ronald L. and Stein, Clifford, Introduction to Algorithms, Third Edition, (2009)].
The .end() iterator points to the dummy node, it has 1 in Isnil, which implies that the node has no key and/or value. It can be viewed as a "landing zone" in HDD \({ }^{33}\) and often called sentinel [see N. Wirth, Algorithms and Data Structures, 1985] \({ }^{34}\).

The "parent" field of the dummy node points to the root node, which serves as a vertex of the tree and contains information.

GCC
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <map>
\#include <set>
\#include <string>
\#include <iostream>
struct map_pair
{
int key;
const char *value;
};
struct tree node
{
int M_color; // 0 - Red, 1 - Black
struct tree node *M parent;
struct tree_node *M left;
struct tree_node *M_right;
};
struct tree_struct
{
int M_key_compare;
struct tree_node M_header;
size t M node count;
};

```
void dump_tree_node (struct tree_node \(* \mathrm{n}\), bool is_set, bool traverse, bool dump_keys_and_values 2
    \(\longrightarrow)\)
\{
    printf ("ptr=0x\%p M left=0x\%p M parent=0x\%p M right=0x\%p M color=\%d\n",
        n, n->M_left, n->M_parent, n->M_right, n->M_color);
    void *point_after_struct=((char*)n)+sizeof(struct tree_node);
    if (dump_keys_and_values)
    \{
        if (is_set)
            printf ("key=\%d\n", *(int*)point_after_struct);
        else
        \{
            struct map_pair *p=(struct map_pair *)point_after_struct;
            printf ("key=\%d value=[\%s]\n", p->key, p->value);
        \};
    \};
    if (traverse==false)
        return;
    if (n->M_left)
        dump_tree_node (n->M_left, is_set, traverse, dump_keys_and_values);

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{33}\) Hard Disk Drive
\({ }^{34}\) http://www.ethoberon.ethz.ch/WirthPubl/AD.pdf
}
if (n->M_right)
dump_tree_node ( \(n->M_{-}\)right, is_set, traverse, dump_keys_and_values);
\};
const char* ALOT_OF_TABS="\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t";
void dump_as_tree (int tabs, struct tree_node \({ }^{n}\) n, bool is_set)
\{
void *point_after_struct=((char*)n)+sizeof(struct tree_node);
if (is_set)
printf ("\%d\n", *(int*)point_after_struct);
else
\{
struct map_pair *p=(struct map_pair *) point_after_struct;
printf ("\%d [\%s]\n", p->key, p->value);
\}
if (n->M_left)
\{
printf ("\%.*sL------" ", tabs, ALOT_OF_TABS);
dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->M_left, is_sèt);
\};
if (n->M_right)
\{
printf ("\%.*sR------" , tabs, ALOT_OF_TABS);
dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->M_right, is_set);
\};
\};
void dump_map_and_set(struct tree_struct \(*\) m, bool is_set)
\{
printf ("ptr=0x\%p, M_key_compare=0x\%x, M_header=0x\%p, M_node_count=\%d\n",
m, m->M_key_compāre, \&m->M_header, m->M_node_count) ;
dump_tree_node (m->M_header.M_parent, is_set, true, true);
printf ("As a tree:\n");
printf ("root---");
dump_as_tree (1, m->M_header.M_parent, is_set);
\};
int main()
\{
// map
std::map<int, const char*> m;
m[10]="ten";
m[20]="twenty";
m[3]="three";
m[101]="one hundred one";
m[100]="one hundred";
m[12]="twelve";
m[107]="one hundred seven";
m[0]="zero";
m[1]="one";
m[6]="six";
m[99]="ninety-nine";
m[5]="five";
m[11]="eleven";
m[1001]="one thousand one";
m[1010]="one thousand ten";
m[2]="two";
m[9]="nine";
printf ("dumping m as map:\n");
dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&m, false);
std::map<int, const char*>::iterator itl=m.begin();
printf ("m.begin():\n");
dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node \(\left.{ }^{*}\right)^{*}\left(\right.\) void \(\left.\left.^{* *}\right) \& i t 1, ~ f a l s e, ~ f a l s e, ~ t r u e\right) ; ~\)
it1=m.end();
printf ("m.end():\n");
dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)\&it1, false, false, false);
// set
std::set<int> s;
s.insert(123);
s.insert(456);
s.insert(11);
s.insert(12);
s.insert(100);
s.insert(1001);
printf ("dumping s as set:\n");
dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&s, true);
std::set<int>::iterator it2=s.begin();
printf ("s.begin():\n");
dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)\&it2, true, false, true);
it2=s.end();
printf ("s.end():\n");
dump_tree_node ((struct tree_node *)*(void**)\&it2, true, false, false);

Listing 3.116: GCC 4.8.1
dumping \(m\) as map:
ptr=0x0028FE3C, M_key_compare=0x402b70, M_header=0x0028FE40, M_node_count=17
 key=10 value=[ten]
ptr=0x007A4C00 M_left=0x007A4BE0 M_parent=0x007A4988 M_right=0x007A4C60 M_color=1 key=1 value=[one]
ptr=0x007A4BE0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4C00 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=1 key=0 value=[zero]
ptr=0x007A4C60 M_left=0x007A4B40 M_parent=0x007A4C00 M_right=0x007A4C20 M_color=0 key=5 value=[fivē]
ptr=0x007A4B40 M_left=0x007A4CE0 M_parent=0x007A4C60 M_right=0x000000000 M_color=1 key=3 value=[three]
ptr=0x007A4CE0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4B40 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0 key=2 value=[two]
ptr=0x007A4C20 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4C60 M_right=0x007A4D00 M_color=1 key=6 value=[six]
ptr=0x007A4D00 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4C20 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0 key=9 value=[nine]
ptr=0x007A4B80 M_left=0x007A49A8 M_parent=0x007A4988 M_right=0x007A4BC0 M_color=1 key=100 value=[one hundred]
ptr=0x007A49A8 M_left=0x007A4BA0 M_parent=0x007A4B80 M_right=0x007A4C40 M_color=0 key=20 value=[twenty]
ptr=0x007A4BA0 M_left=0x007A4C80 M_parent=0x007A49A8 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=1 key=12 value=[twelve]
ptr=0x007A4C80 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4BA0 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0 key=11 value=[eleven]
ptr=0x007A4C40 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A49A8 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=1 key=99 value=[ninety-nine]
ptr=0x007A4BC0 M_left=0x007A4B60 M_parent=0x007A4B80 M_right=0x007A4CA0 M_color=0 key=107 value=[one hundred seven]
ptr=0x007A4B60 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4BC0 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=1 key=101 value=[one hundred one]
ptr=0x007A4CA0 M left=0x00000000 M parent=0x007A4BC0 M right=0x007A4CC0 M color=1 key=1001 value=[one thousand one]
ptr=0x007A4CC0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4CA0 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0 key=1010 value=[one thousand ten]
As a tree:
root----10 [ten]
L------1 [one]

```

    R------100 [one hundred]
        L-------20 [twenty]
        L------12 [twelve]
        L-------11 [eleven]
    R-------99 [ninety-nine]
    R-------107 [one hundred seven]
    L------101 [one hundred one]
    R------1001 [one thousand one]
        R-------1010 [one thousand ten]
    m.begin():
ptr=0x007A4BE0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A4C00 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=1
key=0 value=[zero]
m.end():
ptr=0x0028FE40 M_left=0x007A4BE0 M_parent=0x007A4988 M_right=0x007A4CC0 M_color=0
dumping s as set:
ptr=0x0028FE20, M_key_compare=0x8, M_header=0x0028FE24, M_node_count=6
ptr=0x007A1E80 M left=0x01D5D890 M parent=0x0028FE24 M right=0x01D5D850 M color=1
key=123
ptr=0x01D5D890 M_left=0x01D5D870 M_parent=0x007A1E80 M_right=0x01D5D8B0 M_color=1
key=12
ptr=0x01D5D870 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x01D5D890 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0
key=11
ptr=0x01D5D8B0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x01D5D890 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0
key=100
ptr=0x01D5D850 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x007A1E80 M_right=0x01D5D8D0 M_color=1
key=456
ptr=0x01D5D8D0 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x01D5D850 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0
key=1001
As a tree:
root----123
L-------12
L-------11
R------100
R------456
R------1001
s.begin():
ptr=0x01D5D870 M_left=0x00000000 M_parent=0x01D5D890 M_right=0x00000000 M_color=0
key=11
s.end():
ptr=0x0028FE24 M_left=0x01D5D870 M_parent=0x007A1E80 M_right=0x01D5D8D0 M_color=0

```

GCC's implementation is very similar \({ }^{35}\). The only difference is the absence of the Isnil field, so the structure occupies slightly less space in memory than its implementation in MSVC.

The dummy node is also used as a place to point the .end() iterator also has no key and/or value.

\section*{Rebalancing demo (GCC)}

Here is also a demo showing us how a tree is rebalanced after some insertions.
Listing 3.117: GCC
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <map>
\#include <set>
\#include <string>
\#include <iostream>
struct map_pair
{
int key
const char *value;
};
struct tree_node
{

```
\({ }^{35}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17084
```

    int M_color; // 0 - Red, 1 - Black
    struct tree_node *M_parent;
    struct tree_node *M_left;
    struct tree_node *M_right;
    };
struct tree struct
{
int M_key_compare;
struct tree_node M header;
size_t M_node_count;
};
const char* ALOT_0F_TABS="\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t\t";
void dump_as_tree (int tabs, struct tree_node *n)
{
void *point_after_struct=((char*)n)+sizeof(struct tree_node);
printf ("%d\n", *(int*)point_after_struct);
if (n->M_left)
{
printf ("%.*sL------", tabs, ALOT_OF_TABS);
dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->M_left);
};
if (n->M_right)
{
printf ("%.*sR------", tabs, ALOT_OF_TABS);
dump_as_tree (tabs+1, n->M_right);
};
};
void dump_map_and_set(struct tree_struct *m)
{
printf ("root----");
dump_as_tree (1, m->M_header.M_parent);
};
int main()
{
std::set<int> s;
s.insert(123);
s.insert(456);
printf ("123, 456 has been inserted\n");
dump map and set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&s);
s.insert(11);
s.insert(12);
printf ("\n");
printf ("11, 12 has been inserted\n");
dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&s);
s.insert(100);
s.insert(1001);
printf ("\n");
printf ("100, 1001 has been inserted\n");
dump_map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&s);
s.insert(667);
s.insert(1);
s.insert(4);
s.insert(7);
printf ("\n");
printf ("667, 1, 4, 7 has been inserted\n");
dump map_and_set ((struct tree_struct *)(void*)\&s);
printf ("\n");
};

```

Listing 3.118: GCC 4.8.1

R------456
11, 12 has been inserted
root---123
L------11
R-------12
R------456
100, 1001 has been inserted
root----123
L------ 12
L-------11
R------100
R------ 456
R-------1001

667, 1, 4, 7 has been inserted
root----12
L------ 4
L------1
R-------11
L------ 7
R------ 123
L------100
R------667
L------456
R-------1001

\subsection*{3.18.5 Memory}

Sometimes you may hear from C++ programmers "allocate memory on stack" and/or "allocate memory on heap".

Allocating object on stack:
```

void f()
{
Class o=Class(...);
};

```

The memory for object (or structure) is allocated in stack, using simple SP shift. The memory is deallocated upon function exit, or, more precisely, at the end of scope-SP is returning to its state (same as at the start of function) and destructor of Class is called. In the same manner, memory for allocated structure in C is deallocated upon function exit.

Allocating object on heap:
```

void f1()
{
Class *o=new Class(...);
};
void f2()
{
delete o;
};

```

This is the same as allocating memory for a structure using malloc() call. In fact, new in C++ is wrapper for malloc(), and delete is wrapper for free(). Since memory block has been allocated in heap, it must be deallocated explicitly, using delete. Class destructor will be automatically called right before that moment.
Which method is better? Allocating on stack is very fast, and good for small, short-lived object, which will be used only in the current function.
Allocating on heap is slower, and better for long-lived object, which will be used across many functions. Also, objects allocated in heap are prone to memory leakage, because they must to be freed explicitly, but one can forget about it.
Anyway, this is matter of taste.

\subsection*{3.19 Negative array indices}

It's possible to address the space before an array by supplying a negative index, e.g., array[-1].

\subsection*{3.19.1 Addressing string from the end}

Python PL allows to address arrays and strings from the end. For example, string[-1] returns the last character, string[-2] returns penultimate, etc. Hard to believe, but this is also possible in C/C++:
```

\#include <string.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
char *s="Hello, world!";
char *s_end=s+strlen(s);
printf ("last character: %c\n", s_end[-1]);
printf ("penultimate character: %c\n", s_end[-2]);
};

```

It works, but s_end must always has an address of terminating zero byte at the end of string. If s string's size get changed, s_end must be updated.
The trick is dubious, but again, this is a demonstration of negative indices.

\subsection*{3.19.2 Addressing some kind of block from the end}

Let's first recall why stack grows backwards ( 1.7 .1 on page 30 ). There is some kind of block in memory and you want to store both heap and stack there, and you are not sure, how big they both can grow during runtime.

You can set a heap pointer to the beginning of the block, then you can set a stack pointer to the end of the block (heap + size_of_block), and then you can address nth element of stack like stack[-n]. For example, stack[-1] for 1st element, stack[-2] for 2nd, etc.

This will work in the same fashion, as our trick of addressing string from the end.
You can easily check if the structures has not begun to overlap each other: just be sure that address of the last element in heap is below the address of the last element of stack.

Unfortunately, -0 as index will not work, since two's complement way of representing negative numbers ( 2.2 on page 452) don't allow negative zero, so it cannot be distinguished from positive zero.
This method is also mentioned in "Transaction processing", Jim Gray, 1993, "The Tuple-Oriented File System" chapter, p. 755.

\subsection*{3.19.3 Arrays started at 1}

Fortran and Mathematica defined first element of array as 1th, probably because this is tradition in mathematics. Other PLs like C/C++ defined it as Oth. Which is better? Edsger W. Dijkstra argued that latter is better \({ }^{36}\).
But programmers may still have a habit after Fortran, so using this little trick, it's possible to address the first element in C/C++ using index 1:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int random_value=0x11223344;
unsigned char array[10];
int i;
unsigned char *fakearray=\&array[-1];
for (i=0; i<10; i++)
array[i]=i;
printf ("first element %d\n", fakearray[1]);
printf ("second element %d\n", fakearray[2]);
printf ("last element %d\n", fakearray[10]);
printf ("array[-1]=%02X, array[-2]=%02X, array[-3]=%02X, array[-4]=%02X\n",
array[-1],
array[-2],
array[-3],
array[-4]);
};

```

Listing 3.119: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010
```

\$SG2751 DB 'first element %d', 0aH, 00H
\$SG2752 DB 'second element %d', 0aH, 00H
\$SG2753 DB 'last element %d', 0aH, 00H
$SG2754 DB 'array[-1]=%02X, array[-2]=%02X, array[-3]=%02X, array[-4'
    DB ']=%02X', 0aH, 00H
_fakearray$ = -24 ; size = 4
_random_value\$ = -20 ; size = 4
-array$= -16 ; size = 10
_i$ = -4 ; size = 4
_main PROC P
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 24
mov DWORD PTR _random_value$[ebp], 287454020 ; 11223344H
    ; set fakearray[] one byte earlier before array[]
    lea eax, DWORD PTR _array$[ebp]
add eax, -1 ; eax=eax-1
mov DWORD PTR _fakearray$[ebp], eax
    mov DWORD PTR i$[ebp], 0
jmp SHORT \$LN3@̄main
; fill array[] with 0..9
$LN2@main:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR i$[ebp]
add ecx, 1
mov DWORD PTR _i\$[ebp], ecx
$LN3@main:
    cmp DWORD PTR _i$[ebp], 10
jge SHORT $LN1@main
    mov edx, DWORD PTR i$[ebp]
mov al, BYTE PTR _i$[ebp]
    mov BYTE PTR _array$[ebp+edx], al
jmp SHORT \$LN2`@main
\$LN1@main:

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{36}\) See https://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/transcriptions/EWD08xx/EWD831.html
}

So we have array[] of ten elements, filled with \(0 \ldots 9\) bytes.
Then we have the fakearray[] pointer, which points one byte before array[].
fakearray[1] points exactly to array[0]. But we are still curious, what is there before array[]? We have added random_value before array[] and set it to \(0 \times 11223344\). The non-optimizing compiler allocated the variables in the order they were declared, so yes, the 32-bit random_value is right before the array.

We ran it, and:
```

first element 0
second element 1
last element 9
array[-1]=11, array[-2]=22, array[-3]=33, array[-4]=44

```

Here is the stack fragment we will copypaste from OllyDbg's stack window (with comments added by the author):

Listing 3.120: Non-optimizing MSVC 2010

\section*{CPU Stack}

Address Value
001DFBCC /001DFBD3 ; fakearray pointer
001DFBD0 |11223344 ; random_value
001DFBD4 |03020100 ; 4 bytes of array[]
001DFBD8 |07060504; 4 bytes of array[]
```

001DFBDC |00CB0908 ; random garbage + 2 last bytes of array[]
001DFBE0 |0000000A ; last i value after loop was finished
001DFBE4 |001DFC2C ; saved EBP value
001DFBE8 \00CB129D ; Return Address

```

The pointer to the fakearray [] (0x001DFBD3) is indeed the address of array [ ] in the stack (0x001DFBD4), but minus 1 byte.

It's still very hackish and dubious trick. Doubtfully anyone should use it in production code, but as a demonstration, it fits perfectly here.

\subsection*{3.20 Packing 12-bit values into array using bit operations (x64, ARM/ARM64, MIPS)}
(This part has been first appeared in my blog at 4-Sep-2015.)

\subsection*{3.20.1 Introduction}

File Allocation Table (FAT) was a widely popular filesystem. Hard to believe, but it's still used on flash drives, perhaps, for the reason of simplicity and compatibility. The FAT table itself is array of elements, each of which points to the next cluster number of a file (FAT supports files scattered across the whole disk). That implies that maximum of each element is maximum number of clusters on the disk. In MS-DOS era, most hard disks has FAT16 filesystem, because cluster number could be packed into 16 -bit value. Hard disks then become cheaper, and FAT32 emerged, where 32-bit value was allocated for cluster number. But there were also a times, when floppy diskettes were not that cheap and has no much space, so FAT12 were used on them, for the reason of packing all filesystem structures as tight as possible.

So the FAT table in FAT12 filesystem is an array where each two subsequent 12 -bit elements are stored into 3 bytes (triplet). Here is how 612 -bit values (AAA, BBB, CCC, DDD, EEE and FFF) are packed into 9 bytes:
```

+0 +1 +2 +3 +4 +5 +6 +7 +8
|AA|AB|BB|CC|CD|DD|EE|EF|FF|...

```

Pushing values into array and pulling them back can be good example of bit twiddling operations (in both C/C++ and low-level machine code), so that's why l'll use FAT12 as an example here.

\subsection*{3.20.2 Data structure}

We can quickly observe that each byte triplet will store 2 12-bit values: the first one is located at the left side, second one is at right:
```

+0 +1 +2
|11|12|22|...

```

We will pack nibbles (4 bit chunks) in the following way (1-highest nibble, 3 - lowest):
(Even)
```

+0 +1 +2
|12|3.|..|...

```

\section*{(Odd)}
```

+0 +1 +2
|..|.1|23|...

```

\subsection*{3.20.3 The algorithm}

So the algorithm can be as follows: if the element's index is even, put it at left side, if the index is odd, place it at right side. The middle byte: if the element's index is even, place part of it in high 4 bits, if it's odd, place its part in low 4 bits. But first, find the right triplet, this is easy: \(\frac{i n d e x}{2}\). Finding the address of right byte in array of bytes is also easy: \(\frac{\text { index }}{2} \cdot 3\) or index \(\cdot \frac{3}{2}\) or just index \(\cdot 1.5\).
Pulling values from array: if index is even, get leftmost and middle bytes and combine its parts. If index is odd, get middle and rightmost bytes and combine them. Do not forget to isolate unneeded bits in middle byte.

Pushing values is almost the same, but be careful not to overwrite some other's bits in the middle byte, correcting only yours.

\subsection*{3.20.4 The \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) code}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
\#include <assert.h>
\#define ARRAY_SIZE (0x1000/2*3)
uint8_t array[ARRAY_SIZE]; // big enough array of triplets
unsigned int get_from_array (unsigned int idx)
{
// find right triple in array:
int triple=(idx>>1);
int array_idx=triple*3;
//assert (array_idx<ARRAY_SIZE);
if (idx\&1)
{
// this is odd element
// compose value using middle and rightmost bytes:
return ((array[array_idx+1]\&0xF) << 8)|array[array_idx+2];
}
else
{
// this is even element
// compose value using rightmost and middle bytes:
return array[array_idx]<<4 | ((array[array_idx+1]>>4)\&0xF);
};
};
void put to_array (unsigned int idx, unsigned int val)
{
//assert (val<=0xFFF);
// find right triple in array:
int triple=(idx>>1);
int array_idx=triple*3;
//assert (array_idx<ARRAY_SIZE);
if (idx\&1)
{
// this is odd element
// put value into middle and rightmost bytes:
// decompose value to be stored:
uint8 t val_lowest byte=val\&0xFF; // isolate lowest 8 bits
uint8_t val_highes\overline{t}_nibble=val>>8; // no need to apply \&0xF, we already know \&
the val<=0xFFF
// clear low 4 bits in the middle byte:
array[array_idx+1]=array[array_idx+1]\&0xF0;

```
```

                                    array[array_idx+1]=array[array_idx+1]|val_highest_nibble;
                                    array[array_idx+2]=val_lowest_byte;
    }
    else
    {
            // this is even element
            // put value into leftmost and middle bytes:
            // decompose value to be stored:
            uint8_t val_highest_byte=val>>4;
            uint8_t val_lowest_nibble=val&0xF;
            array[array_idx]=val_highest_byte;
            // clear high 4 bits in the middle byte:
            array[array_idx+1]=array[array_idx+1]&0xF;
            array[array_idx+1]=array[array_idx+1]|val_lowest_nibble<<4;
    };
    };
int main()
{
int i;
// test
for (i=0; i<0x1000; i++)
{
put_to_array(i, i);
};
for (i=0; i<0x1000; i++)
{
assert(get_from_array(i)==i);
};
//put_to_array(0x1000, 1); // will fail due to assert()
// print triples:
for (int i=0;i<0x1000/2;i++)
printf ("0x%02X%02X%02X\n",array[i*3],array[i*3+1],array[i*3+2]);
};

```

During test, all 12-bit elements are filled with values in \(0 . .0 x F F F\) range. And here is a dump of all triplets, each line has 3 bytes:
```

0x000001
0x002003
0x004005
0x006007
0x008009
0x00A00B
0x00C00D
0x00E00F
0x010011
0x012013
0x014015
0xFECFED
0xFEEFEF
0xFF0FF1
0xFF2FF3
0xFF4FF5
0xFF6FF7
0xFF8FF9
0xFFAFFB
0xFFCFFD
0xFFEFFF

```

Here is also GDB byte-level output of 300 bytes (or 100 triplets) started at 512/2*3, i.e., it's address where

512th element ( \(0 \times 200\) ) is beginning. I added square brackets in my text editor to show triplets explicitly. Take a notice at the middle bytes, where the last element is ended and the next is started. In other words, each middle byte has lowest 4 bits of even element and highest 4 bits of odd element.


\subsection*{3.20.5 How it works}

Let array be a global buffer to make simpler access to it.

\section*{Getter}

Let's first start at the function getting values from the array, because it's simpler.
The method of finding triplet's number is just division input index by 2 , but we can do it just by shifting right by 1 bit. This is a very common way of dividing/multiplication by numbers in form of \(2^{n}\).

I can demonstrate how it works. Let's say, you want to divide 123 by 10. Just drop last digit (3, which is remainder of division) and 12 is left. Division by 2 is just dropping least significant bit. Dropping can be done by shifting right.

Now the functions must decide if the input index even (so 12-bit value is placed at the left) or odd (at the right). Simplest way to do so is to isolate lowest bit (x\&1). If it's zero, our value is even, otherwise it's odd.

This fact can be illustrated easily, take a look at the lowest bit:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline 0 & 0000 & even \\
1 & 0001 & odd \\
2 & 0010 & even \\
3 & 0011 & odd \\
4 & 0100 & even \\
5 & 0101 & odd \\
6 & 0110 & even \\
7 & 0111 & odd \\
8 & 1000 & even \\
9 & 1001 & odd \\
10 & 1010 & even \\
11 & 1011 & odd \\
12 & 1100 & even \\
13 & 1101 & odd \\
14 & 1110 & even \\
15 & 1111 & odd \\
\(\cdots\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Zero is also even number, it's so in two's complement system, where it's located between two odd numbers ( -1 and 1 ).
For math geeks, I could also say that even or odd sign is also remainder of division by 2. Division of a number by 2 is merely dropping the last bit, which is remainder of division. Well, we do not have to do shifts here, just isolate lowest bit.
If the element is odd, we take middle and right bytes (array[array_idx+1] and array[array_idx+2]). Lowest 4 bits of the middle byte is isolated. Right byte is taken as a whole. Now we have to combine these parts into 12 -bit value. To do so, shift 4 bits from the middle byte by 8 bits left, so these 4 bits will be allocated right behind highest 8th bit of byte. Then, using OR operation, we just add these parts.
If the element is even, high 8 bits of 12 -bit value is located in left byte, while lowest 4 bits are located in the high 4 bits of middle byte. We isolate highest 4 bits in the middle byte by shifting it 4 bits right and then applying AND operation, just to be sure that nothing is left there. We also take left byte and shift its value 4 bits left, because it has bits from 11th to 4th (inclusive, starting at 0), Using OR operation, we combine these two parts.

\section*{Setter}

Setter calculates triplet's address in the same way. It also operates on left/right bytes in the same way. But it's not correct just to write to the middle byte, because write operation will destroy the information related to the other element. So the common way is to load byte, drop bits where you'll write, write it there, but leave other part intact. Using AND operation ( \& in C/C++), we drop everything except our part. Using OR operation (| in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) ), we then update the middle byte.

\subsection*{3.20.6 Optimizing GCC \(\mathbf{4 . 8} \mathbf{8}\) for \(\mathbf{x 8 6 - 6 4}\)}

Let's see what optimizing GCC 4.8 .2 for Linux \(x 64\) will do. I added comments. Sometimes readers are confused because instructions order is not logical. It's OK, because optimizing compilers take CPU out-of-order-execution mechanisms into considerations, and sometimes, swapped instructions performing better.

\section*{Getter}
```

get_from_array:
; EDI=id\overline{x}
; make a copy:
mov eax, edi
; calculate idx>>1:
shr eax
; determine if the element even or odd by isolation of the lowest bit:
and edi, 1
; calculate (idx>>1)*3.
; multiplication is slow in geenral, and can be replaced by one shifting and addition operation
; LEA is capable to do both:
lea edx, [rax+rax*2]

```
```

; EDX now is (idx>>1)*3
; point EAX to the middle byte:
lea eax, [rdx+1]
; sign-extend EAX value to RDX:
cdqe
; get middle byte into EAX:
movzx eax, BYTE PTR array[rax]
; finally check the value of the lowest bit in index.
; jump if index is odd (NE is the same as NZ (Not Zero)):
jne .L9
; this is even element, go on
; sign-extend EDX to RDX:
movsx rdx, edx
; shift middle byte 4 bits right:
shr al, 4
; AL now has 4 highest bits of middle byte
; load left byte into EDX:
movzx edx, BYTE PTR array[rdx]
; sign-extend AL (where high 4 bits of middle byte are now)
movzx eax, al
; EAX has 4 high bits bits of middle byte
EDX now has left byte
shift left byte 4 bits left:
sal edx, 4
; 4 lowest bits in EDX after shifting is cleared to zero
; finally merge values:
or eax, edx
ret
.L9:
; this is odd element, go on
; calculate address of right byte:
add edx, 2
; isolate lowest 4 bits in middle byte:
and eax, 15 ; 15=0xF
; sign-extend EDX (where address of right byte is) to RDX:
movsx rdx, edx
; shift 4 bits we got from middle bytes 8 bits left:
sal eax, 8
; load right byte:
movzx edx, BYTE PTR array[rdx]
; merge values:
or eax, edx
ret

```

\section*{Setter}
```

put to array:
; ED\I=\overline{idx}
ESI=val
; copy idx to EAX:
mov eax, edi
; calculate idx>>1 and put it to EAX:
shr eax
; isolate lowest bit in idx:
and edi, 1
; calculate (idx>>2)*3 and put it to EAX:
lea eax, [rax+rax*2]
; jump if index is odd (NE is the same as NZ (Not Zero)):
jne .L5
; this is even element, go on
; sign-extend address of triplet in EAX to RDX:
movsx rdx, eax
; copy val value to ECX:
mov ecx, esi
; calculate address of middle byte:
add eax, 1

```
```

; sign-extend address in EAX to RDX:
cdqe
; prepare left byte in ECX by shifting it:
shr ecx, 4
; prepare 4 bits for middle byte:
sal esi, 4
; put left byte:
mov BYTE PTR array[rdx], cl
; load middle byte (its address still in RAX):
movzx edx, BYTE PTR array[rax]
; drop high 4 bits:
and edx, 15 ; 15=0xF
; merge our data and low 4 bits which were there before:
or esi, edx
; put middle byte back:
mov BYTE PTR array[rax], sil
ret
.L5:
; this is odd element, go on
; calculate address of middle byte and put it to ECX:
lea ecx, [rax+1]
; copy val value from ESI to EDI:
mov edi, esi
; calculate address of right byte:
add eax, 2
; get high 4 bits of input value by shifting it 8 bits right:
shr edi, 8
; sign-extend address in EAX into RAX:
cdqe
; sign-extend address of middle byte in ECX to RCX:
movsx rcx, ecx
; load middle byte into EDX:
movzx edx, BYTE PTR array[rcx]
; drop low 4 bits in middle byte:
and edx, -16 ; -16=0xF0
; merge data from input val with what was in middle byte before:
or edx, edi
; store middle byte:
mov BYTE PTR array[rcx], dl
; store right byte. val is still in ESI and SIL is a part of ESI register which has lowest $8 \quad 2$
$\rightarrow$ bits:
mov BYTE PTR array[rax], sil
ret

```

\section*{Other comments}

All addresses in Linux x64 are 64-bit ones, so during pointer arithmetic, all values should also be 64-bit. The code calculating offsets inside of array operates on 32-bit values (input idx argument has type of int, which has width of 32 bits), and so these values must be converted to 64 -bit addresses before actual memory load/store. So there are a lot of sign-extending instructions (like CDQE, MOVSX) used for conversion. Why to extend sign? By C/C++ standards, pointer arithmetic can operate on negative values (it's possible to access array using negative index like array[-123], see: 3.19 on page 593). Since GCC compiler cannot be sure if all indices are always positive, it adds sign-extending instructions.

\subsection*{3.20.7 Optimizing Keil 5.05 (Thumb mode)}

\section*{Getter}

The following code has final OR operation in the function epilogue. Indeed, it executes at the end of both branches, so it's possible to save some space.
```

get_from_array PROC
; R0 = idx
PUSH {r4,r5,lr}
LSRS r1,r0,\#1

```
```

; R1 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
; R1 is now number of triplet
LSLS r2,r1,\#1
; $\mathrm{R} 2=\mathrm{R} 1 \ll 1=(\mathrm{R} 0 \gg 1) \ll 1=\mathrm{R} 0 \&(\sim 1)=i d x \&(\sim 1)$
; the operation (x>>1)<<1 looks senseless, but it's intended to clear the lowest bit in $x$ (or $\prec$
$५$ idx)
LSLS r5,r0,\#31
; R5 = R0<<31 = idx<<31
; thus, R5 will contain $0 \times 80000000$ in case of even idx or zero if odd
ADDS $\quad \mathrm{r} 4, \mathrm{r} 1, \mathrm{r} 2$
; R4 = R1+R2 = idx>>1 + idx\&(~1) = offset of triplet begin (or offset of left byte)
; the expression looks tricky, but it's equal to multiplication by 1.5
LSRS r0,r0,\#1
; R0 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
; load pointer to array:
LDR r3,|array|
; R3 = offset of array table
LSLS r1,r0,\#1
; R1 = R0<<1 = (idx>>1) $\ll 1=\operatorname{idx\& (\sim 1)}$
ADDS r0,r0,r1
; R0 = idx>>1 + idx\&(~1) $=$ idx*1.5 = offset of triple begin
ADDS r1,r3,r0
; R1 = R3+R0 = offset of array + idx*1.5
; in other words, R1 now contains absolute address of triplet
; load middle byte (at address R1+1):
LDRB r2,[r1,\#1]
; R2 = middle byte
; finally check if the idx even or odd:
CMP r5,\#0
; jump if even:
BEQ |L0.92|
; idx is odd, go on:
LSLS r0,r2,\#28
; R0 = R2<<28 = middle_byte $\ll 28$
; load right byte at R1+2:
LDRB r1,[r1,\#2]
; R1 = right byte
LSRS r0,r0,\#20
; R0 = R0>>20 = ( $\mathrm{R} 2 \ll 28$ ) $\gg 20$
; this is the same as $\mathrm{R} 2 \ll 8$, but Keil compiler generates more complex code in order to drop all $\downarrow$
$\checkmark$ bits behind these 4
B |L0.98|
|L0.92|
; idx is even, go on:
; load left byte. R3=array now and R4=address of it
LDRB r0,[r3,r4]
; R0 = left byte
LSLS r0,r0,\#4
; R0 = left byte $\ll 4$
; shift middle_byte in R2 4 bits right:
LSRS r1,r2,\#4
; R1=middle_byte>>4
|L0.98|
; function epilogue:
; current R0 value is shifted left byte or part of middle byte
; R1 is shifted part of middle byte or right byte
; now merge values and leave merged result in R0:
ORRS r0,r0,r1
; R0 = R0|R1
POP
ENDP $\quad\{r 4, r 5, p c\}$

```

There are at least of redundancy: \(i d x^{*} 1.5\) is calculated twice. As an exercise, reader may try to rework assembly function to make it shorter. Do not forget about testing!

Another thing to mention is that it's hard to generate big constants in 16-bit Thumb instructions, so Keil compiler often generates tricky code using shifting instructions to achieve the same effect. For example, it's tricky to generate AND Rdest, Rsrc, 1 or TST Rsrc, 1 code in Thumb mode, so Keil generates the code which shifts input idx by 31 bits left and then check, if the resulting value zero or not.

\section*{Setter}

The first half of setter code is very similar to getter, address of triplet is calculated first, then the jump is occurred in order to dispatch to the right handler's code.
```

put_to_array PROC
PUSH {r4,r5,lr}
; R0 = idx
; R1 = val
LSRS r2,r0,\#1
; R2 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
LSLS r3,r2,\#1
; R3 = R2<<1 = (idx>>1)<<1 = idx\&(~1)
LSLS r4,r0,\#31
; R4 = R0<<31 = idx<<31
ADDS r3,r2,r3
; R3 = R2+R3 = idx>>1 + idx\&(~1) = idx*1.5
LSRS r0,r0,\#1
; R0 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
LDR r2,|array|
; R2 = address of array
LSLS r5,r0,\#1
; R5 = R0<<1 = (idx>>1)<<1 = idx\&(~1)
ADDS r0,r0,r5
; R0 = R0+R5 = idx>>1 + idx\&(~1) = idx*1.5
ADDS r0,r2,r0
; R0 = R2+R0 = array + idx*1.5, in other words, this is address of triplet
; finally test shifted lowest bit in idx:
CMP r4,\#0
; jump if idx is even:
BEQ |L0.40|
; idx is odd, go on:
; load middle byte at R0+1:
LDRB r3,[r0,\#1]
; R3 = middle_byte
LSRS r2,r1,\#8
; R2 = R1>>8 = val>>8
LSRS r3,r3,\#4
; R3 = R3>>4 = middle_byte>>4
LSLS r3,r3,\#4
; R3 = R3<<4 = (middle_byte>>4)<<4
; this two shift operations are used to drop low 4 bits in middle_byte
; merge high 4 bits in middle byte (in R3) with val>>8 (in R2):
ORRS r3,r3,r2
; R3 = updated middle byte
; store it at R0+1:
STRB r3,[r0,\#1]
; store low 8 bits of val (val\&0xFF) at R0+2:
STRB r1,[r0,\#2]
POP {r4,r5,pc}
|L0.40|
; idx is even, go on:
LSRS r4,r1,\#4
; R4 = R1>>4 = val>>4
; store val>>4 at R2+R3 (address of left byte or beginning of triplet):
STRB r4,[r2,r3]
; load middle byte at R0+1:
LDRB r3,[r0,\#1]
; R3 = middle byte
LSLS r2,r1,\#4
; R2 = R1<<4 = val<<4
LSLS r1,r3,\#28
; R1 = R3<<28 = middle_byte<<28
LSRS rl,r1,\#28
; R1 = R1>>28 = (middle byte<<28)>>28
; these two shifting operation are used to drop all bits in register except lowest 4
; merge lowest 4 bits (in R1) and val<<4 (in R2):
ORRS r1,r1,r2
; store it at R0+1:
STRB r1,[r0,\#1]

```
```

POP {r4,r5,pc}

```
ENDP

\subsection*{3.20.8 Optimizing Keil 5.05 (ARM mode)}

\section*{Getter}

Getter function for ARM mode has no conditional branches at all! Thanks to the suffixes (like \(-E Q,-N E\) ), which can be supplied to many instructions in ARM mode, so the instruction will be only executed if the corresponding flag(s) are set.
Many arithmetical instructions in ARM mode can have shifting suffix like LSL \#1 (it means, the last operand is shifted left by 1 bit).
```

get_from_array PROC
; R0}= i\overline{d}
LSR r1,r0,\#1
; R1 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
; check lowest bit in idx and set flags:
TST r0,\#1
ADD r2,r1,r1,LSL \#1
; R2 = R1+R1<<1 = R1+R1*2 = R1*3
; thanks to shifting suffix, a single instruction in ARM mode can multiplicate by 3
LDR rl,|array|
; R1 = address of array
LSR r0,r0,\#1
; R0 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
ADD r0,r0,r0,LSL \#1
; R0 = R0+R0<<1 = R0+R0*2 = R0*3 = (idx>>1)*3 = idx*1.5
ADD r0,r0,r1
; R0 = R0+R1 = array + idx*1.5, this is absolute address of triplet
; load middle byte at R0+1:
LDRB r3,[r0,\#1]
; R3 = middle byte
; the following 3 instructions executed if index is odd, otherwise all of them are skipped:
; load right byte at R0+2:
LDRBNE r0,[r0,\#2]
; R0 = right byte
ANDNE r1,r3,\#0xf
; R1 = R3\&0xF = middle_byte\&0xF
ORRNE r0,r0,r1,LSL \#8
; R0 = R0|(R1<<8) = right_byte | (middle_byte\&0xF)<<8
; this is the result returned
; the following 3 instructions executed if index is even, otherwise all of them are skipped:
; load at R1+R2 = array + (idx>>1)*3 = array + idx*1.5
LDRBEQ r0,[r1,r2]
; R0 = left byte
LSLEQ r0,r0,\#4
; R0 = R0<<4 = left_byte << 4
ORREQ r0,r0,r3,LSR \#4
; R0 = R0 | R3>>4 = left_byte << 4 | middle_byte >> 4
; this is the result returned
BX lr
ENDP

```

\section*{Setter}
```

put_to_array PROC
; R0 = idx
; R1 = val
LSR r2,r0,\#1
; R2 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
; check the lowest bit of idx and set flags:

```
```

    TST r0,\#1
    LDR r12,|array|
    ; R12 = address of array
LSR r0,r0,\#1
; R0 = R0>>1 = idx>>1
ADD r0,r0,r0,LSL \#1
; R0 = R0+R0<<1 = R0+R0*2 = R0*3 = (idx>>1)*3 = idx/2*3 = idx*1.5
ADD r3, r2, r2,LSL \#1
; $\mathrm{R} 3=\mathrm{R} 2+\mathrm{R} 2 \ll 1=\mathrm{R} 2+\mathrm{R} 2 * 2=\mathrm{R} 2 * 3=(i d x \gg 1) * 3=i d x / 2 * 3=i d x * 1.5$
ADD r0,r0,r12
; R0 = R0+R12 = idx*1.5 + array
; jump if idx is even:
BEQ |L0.56|
; idx is odd, go on:
; load middle byte at R0+1:
LDRB r3,[r0,\#1]
; R3 = middle byte
AND r3,r3,\#0xf0
; R3 $=$ R3\&0xF0 $=$ middle_byte $\& 0 \times F 0$
ORR r2,r3,r1,LSR \#8
; R2 = R3 | R1>>8 = middle_byte\&0xF0 | val>>8
; store middle_byte\&0xF0 | val>>8 at R0+1 (at the place of middle byte):
STRB r2,[r0,\#1]
; store low 8 bits of val (or val\&0xFF) at R0+2 (at the place of right byte):
STRB r1,[r0,\#2]
BX lr
|L0.56|
; idx is even, go on:
LSR r2,r1,\#4
; R2 = R1>>4 = val>>4
; store val>>4 at R12+R3 or array + idx*1.5 (place of left byte):
STRB r2,[r12,r3]
; load byte at R0+1 (middle byte):
LDRB r2,[r0,\#1]
; R2 = middle_byte
; drop high 4 bits of middle byte:
AND r2,r2,\#0xf
; R2 = R2\&0xF = middle_byte\&0xF
; update middle byte:
ORR r1,r2,r1,LSL \#4
; R1 = R2 | R1 $\ll 4=$ middle_byte\&0xF | val $\ll 4$
; store updated middle byte at R0+1:
STRB r1,[r0,\#1]
BX lr
ENDP

```

Value of \(i d x^{*} 1.5\) is calculated twice, this is redundancy Keil compiler produced can be eliminated. You can rework assembly function as well to make it shorter. Do not forget about tests!

\subsection*{3.20.9 (32-bit ARM) Comparison of code density in Thumb and ARM modes}

Thumb mode in ARM CPUs was introduced to make instructions shorter (16-bits) instead of 32-bit instructions in ARM mode. But as we can see, it's hard to say, if it was worth it: code in ARM mode is always shorter (however, instructions are longer).

\subsection*{3.20.10 Optimizing GCC 4.9.3 for ARM64}

\section*{Getter}
```

<get from_array>:
; W0 = id\overline{x}
0: lsr w2, w0, \#1
; W2 = W0>>1 = idx>>1
4: lsl w1, w2, \#2
; W1 = W2<<2 = (W0>>1)<<2 = (idx\&(~1))<<1

```
```

; W1 = W1-W2 = (idx\&(~1)) <<1 - idx>>1 = idx*1.5
; now test lowest bit of idx and jump if it is present.
; (ARM64 has single instruction for these operations: TBNZ (Test and Branch Not Zero)).
c: tbnz w0, \#0, 30 <get_from_array+0x30>
; idx is even, go on:
10: adrp $\times 2$, page of array
14: add w3, w1, \#0x1
; $\mathrm{W} 3=\mathrm{W} 1+1=$ idx*1.5 + 1, i.e., offset of middle byte
18: add $x 2, \times 2$, offset of array within page
; load left byte at X2+W1 = array + idx*1.5 with sign-extension ("sxtw")
1c: ldrb w0, [x2,w1,sxtw]
; load middle byte at X2+W3 = array + idx*1.5 + 1 with sign-extension ("sxtw")
20: ldrb w1, [x2,w3,sxtw]
; W0 = left byte
; W1 = middle byte
24: lsl w0, w0, \#4
; W0 = W0<<4 = left_byte << 4
; merge parts:
28: orr w0, w0, w1, lsr \#4
; W0 = W0 | W1>>4 = left_byte << 4 | middle_byte >> 4
; value in W0 is returned
2c: ret
; idx is odd, go on:
30: adrp x2, page of array
34: add w0, w1, \#0x1
; W0 = W1+1 = idx*1.5+1, i.e., offset of middle byte
38: add x2, x2, address of array within page
3c: add w1, w1, \#0x2
; W1 = W1+2 = idx*1.5+2, i.e., offset of right byte
; load middle byte at X2+W0 = array+idx*1.5+1 with sign-extension ("sxtw")
40: ldrb w0, [x2,w0,sxtw]
; load right byte at $\mathrm{X} 2+W 1=$ array+idx*1.5+2 with sign-extension ("sxtw")
44: ldrb w1, [x2,w1,sxtw]
; W 0 = middle byte
; W1 = right byte
48: ubfiz w0, w0, \#8, \#4
; W0 = middle_byte<<8
; now merge parts:
4c: orr w0, w0, w1
; W0 = W0 | W1 = middle_byte<<8 | right_byte
; value in W0 is returned
50: ret

```

ARM64 has new cool instruction UBFIZ (Unsigned bitfield insert in zero, with zeros to left and right), which can be used to place specified number of bits from one register to another. It's alias of another instruction, UBFM (Unsigned bitfield move, with zeros to left and right). UBFM is the instruction used internally in ARM64 instead of LSL/LSR (bit shifts).

\section*{Setter}
```

<put to array>:
W0 = idx
W1 = val
54: lsr w3, w0, \#1
; W3 = W0>>1 = idx>>1
58: lsl w2, w3, \#2
; W2 = W3<<2 = (W0>>1)<<2 = (idx\&(~1))<<<1
5c: sub w2, w2, w3
W2 = W2-W3 = (idx\&(~1))<<1 - idx>>1 = idx*1.5
jump if lowest bit in idx is 1:
60: tbnz w0, \#0, 94 <put_to_array+0x40>
; idx is even, go on:
64: adrp x0, page of array
68: add w3, w2, \#0x1

```
```

; W3 = W2+1 = idx*1.5+1, i.e., offset of middle byte
6c: add $\quad x 0, x 0$, offset of array within page
; X0 = address of array
70: lsr w4, w1, \#4
W4 = W1>>4 = val>>4
74: sxtw x3, w3
; X3 = sign-extended 32-bit W3 (idx*1.5+1) to 64-bit
; sign-extension is needed here because the value will be used as offset within array,
; and negative offsets are possible in standard C/C++
78: ubfiz w1, w1, \#4, \#4
; $\mathrm{W} 1=\mathrm{W} 1 \ll 4=\mathrm{val} \ll 4$
; store W4 (val>>4) at X0+W2 = array + idx*1.5, i.e., address of left byte:
7c: strb w4, [x0,w2,sxtw]
; load middle byte at X0+X3 = array+idx*1.5+1
80: ldrb w2, [x0,x3]
; W2 = middle byte
84: and w2, w2, \#0xf
; W2 = W2\&0xF = middle_byte\&0xF (high 4 bits in middle byte are dropped)
; merge parts of new version of middle byte:
88: orr w1, w2, w1
; W1 = W2|W1 = middle_byte\&0xF | val<<4
; store $W 2$ (new middle byte) at $\mathrm{X} 0+\mathrm{X} 3=$ array+idx*1.5+1
8c: strb w1, [x0, x3]
90: ret
; idx is odd, go on:
94: add w4, w2, \#0x1
; $\mathrm{W} 4=\mathrm{W} 2+1=$ idx*1.5+1, i.e., offset of middle byte
98: adrp x0, page of array
9c: add x0, x0, offset of array within page
; X0 = address of array
a0: add w2, w2, \#0x2
; W2 = W2+2 = idx*1.5+2, i.e., offset of right byte
a4: sxtw x4, w4
; $\mathrm{X} 4=$ sign-extended 64 -bit version of 32 -bit W4
; load at X0+X4 = array+idx*1.5+1:
a8: ldrb w3, [x0, x4]
; W3 = middle byte
ac: and w3, w3, \#0xfffffff0
; W3 = W3\&0xFFFFFFF0 = middle_byte\&0xFFFFFFF0, i.e., clear lowest 4 bits
b0: orr w3, w3, w1, lsr \#8
; W3 = W3|W1>>8 = middle_byte\&0xFFFFFFF0 | val>>8
; store new version of middle byte at X0+X4=array+idx*1.5+1:
b4: strb w3, [x0,x4]
; now store lowest 8 bits of val (in W1) at X0+W2=array+idx*1.5+2, i.e., place of right byte
; SXTW suffix means W2 will be sign-extended to 64 -bit value before summing with X0
b8: strb w1, [x0,w2,sxtw]
bc: ret

```

\subsection*{3.20.11 Optimizing GCC 4.4.5 for MIPS}

Needless to keep in mind that each instruction after jump/branch instruction is executed first. It's called branch delay slot in RISC CPUs lingo. To make things simpler, just swap instructions (mentally) in each instruction pair which is started with branch or jump instruction.

MIPS has no flags (apparently, to simplify data dependencies), so branch instructions (like BNE) does both comparison and branching.

There is also GP (Global Pointer) set up code in the function prologue, which can be ignored so far.

\section*{Getter}
```

get_from_array:
; \$4 = idx
srl \$2,\$4,1
; \$2 = \$4>>1 = idx>>1

```
```

    lui \(\$ 28\),\%hi( gnu local_gp)
    sll \$3,\$2,1
    $\$ 3=\$ 2 \ll 1=(i d x \gg 1) \ll 1=1 d x \&(\sim 1)$
andi $\$ 4, \$ 4,0 \times 1$
\$4 = \$4\&1 = idx\&1
addiu $\$ 28, \$ 28$,\%lo(__gnu_local_gp)
jump if $\$ 4$ (idx\&1) is not zero (if idx is odd):
bne \$4,\$0,\$L6
$\$ 2=\$ 3+\$ 2=i d x \gg 1+i d x \&(\sim 1)=i d x * 1.5$
addu $\$ 2, \$ 3, \$ 2$; branch delay slot - this instruction executed before BNE
; idx is even, go on:
lw \$3,\%got(array)(\$28)
\$3 = array
nop
addu $\$ 2, \$ 3, \$ 2$
\$2 = \$3+\$2 = array + idx*1.5
load byte at $\$ 2+0=$ array $+i d x * 1.5$ (left byte):
lbu \$3,0(\$2)
\$3 = left byte
load byte at $\$ 2+1=$ array $+i d x * 1.5+1$ (middle byte):
lbu \$2,1(\$2)
\$2 = middle byte
sll \$3,\$3,4
$\$ 3=\$ 3 \ll 4=$ left_byte $\ll 4$
srl \$2,\$2,4
$\$ 2=\$ 2 \gg 4=$ middle_byte>>4
j $\$ 31$
or $\$ 2, \$ 2, \$ 3$; branch delay slot - this instruction executed before J
$\$ 2=\$ 2 \mid \$ 3=$ middle_byte>>4 | left_byte<<4
\$2=returned result
\$L6:
; idx is odd, go on:
lw \$3,\%got(array)(\$28)
\$3 = array
nop
addu \$2,\$3,\$2
$\$ 2=\$ 3+\$ 2=$ array $+i d x * 1.5$
load byte at $\$ 2+1=$ array $+i d x * 1.5+1$ (middle byte)
lbu \$4,1(\$2)
\$4 = middle byte
load byte at $\$ 2+1=$ array $+i d x * 1.5+2$ (right byte)
lbu \$3,2(\$2)
$\$ 3=$ right byte
andi $\$ 2, \$ 4,0 x f$
$\$ 2=\$ 4 \& 0 x F=$ middle_byte\&0xF
sll \$2,\$2,8
$\$ 2=\$ 2 \ll 8=$ middle_byte\&0xF $\ll 8$
j \$31
or $\quad \$ 2, \$ 2, \$ 3$; branch delay slot - this instruction executed before J
\$2 = \$2|\$3 = middle_byte\&0xF $\ll 8$ | right byte
$\$ 2=$ returned result

```

\section*{Setter}
```

put_to_array:
\$4=idx
\$5=val
srl \$2,\$4,1
\$2 = \$4>>1 = idx>>1
lui \$28,%hi(_gnu_local_gp)
sll \$3,\$2,1
\$3 = \$2<<1 = (idx>>1)<<1 = idx\&(~1)
andi \$4,\$4,0x1
\$4 = \$4\&1 = idx\&1
addiu \$28,\$28,%lo(__gnu_local_gp)

```
```

; jump if \$4=idx\&1 is not zero (i.e., if idx is odd):
bne $\quad \$ 4, \$ 0, \$$ L11
addu $\$ 2, \$ 3, \$ 2$; branch delay slot, this instruction is executed before BNE
; $\$ 2=\$ 3+\$ 2=i d x \&(\sim 1)+i d x \gg 1=i d x * 1.5$
; idx is even, go on
lw $\$ 3, \%$ got (array) (\$28)
; \$3 = array
addiu \$4,\$2,1
; $\$ 4=\$ 2+1=$ idx*1.5+1, i.e., offset of middle byte in array
srl \$6,\$5,4
; \$6 = \$5>>4 = val>>4
addu $\$ 2, \$ 3, \$ 2$
; $\$ 2=\$ 3+\$ 2=$ array $+i d x * 1.5$ (offset of left byte)
; store \$6 (val>>4) as left byte:
sb $\quad \$ 6,0(\$ 2)$
addu $\$ 2, \$ 3$,\$4
; $\$ 2$ = \$3+\$4 = array + idx*1.5 + 1 (absolute address of middle byte)
; load middle byte at $\$ 2+0=$ array $+i d x * 1.5+1$
lbu $\$ 3,0(\$ 2)$
; \$3 = middle byte
andi $\$ 5, \$ 5,0 x f$
; \$5 = \$5\&0xF = val\&0xF
andi \$3,\$3,0xf
; $\$ 3=\$ 3 \& 0 x F=$ middle_byte $\& 0 x F$
sll \$5,\$5,4
; \$5 = \$5<<4 = (val\&0xF) <<4
or \$5,\$3,\$5
; $\$ 5=\$ 3 \mid \$ 5=$ middle_byte $\& 0 x F \mid(v a l \& 0 x F) \ll 4$ (new version of middle byte)
j \$31
; store $\$ 5$ (new middle byte) at $\$ 2$ (array + idx*1.5 + 1)
sb $\quad \$ 5,0(\$ 2)$; branch delay slot, this instruction is executed before J
\$L11:
; idx is odd, go on
lw \$4,\%got(array)(\$28)
; \$4 = array
addiu \$3,\$2,1
; $\$ 3=\$ 2+1=$ idx*1.5+1 (offset of middle byte)
addu $\$ 3, \$ 4, \$ 3$
; $\$ 3=\$ 4+\$ 3=$ array $+i d x * 1.5+1$
; load middle byte at \$3 (array + idx*1.5+1)
lbu \$6,0(\$3)
; \$6 = middle byte
srl \$7,\$5,8
; $\$ 7=\$ 5 \gg 8=$ val>>8
andi $\$ 6, \$ 6,0 x f 0$
; $\$ 6=\$ 6 \& 0 x F 0=$ middle byte $80 x F 0$
; $\$ 6=\$ 6 \mid \$ 7=$ middle_byte\&0xF0 | val>>8
addu \$2,\$4,\$2
; store updated middle byte at $\$ 3$ (array $+i d x * 1.5+1$ )
sb $\quad \$ 6,0(\$ 3)$
j \$31
; store low 8 bits of val at $\$ 2+2=i d x * 1.5+2$ ( $p$ lace of right byte)
sb $\quad \$ 5,2(\$ 2)$; branch delay slot, this instruction is executed before J

```

\subsection*{3.20.12 Difference from the real FAT12}

The real FAT12 table is slightly different: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Design_of_the_FAT_file_ system\#Cluster_map.
For even elements:
```

+0 +1 +2
|23|.1|..|..

```

For odd elements:
```

+0 +1 +2
|..|3.|12|..

```

Here are FAT12-related functions in Linux Kernel:
fat12_ent_get(), fat12_ent_put().
Nevertheless, I did as I did because values are better visible and recognizable in byte-level GDB dump, for the sake of demonstration.

\subsection*{3.20.13 Exercise}

Perhaps, there could be a way to store data in a such way, so getter/setter functions would be faster. If we would place values in this way:
(Even elements)
```

+0 +1 +2
|23|1.|..|..

```
(Odd elements)
```

+0 +1 +2
|..|.1|23|..

```

This schema of storing data will allow to eliminate at least one shift operation. As an exercise, you may rework my C/C++ code in that way and see what compiler will produce.

\subsection*{3.20.14 Summary}

Bit shifts (<< and >> in C/C++, SHL/SHR/SAL/SAR in \(x 86\), LSL/LSR in ARM, SLL/SRL in MIPS) are used to place bit(s) to specific place.

AND operation (\& in C/C++, AND in x86/ARM) is used to drop unneeded bits, also during isolation.
OR operation (| in C/C++, OR in x86/ARM) is used to merge or combine several values into one. One input value must have zero space at the place where another value has its information-caring bits.

ARM64 has new instructions UBFM, UFBIZ to move specific bits from one register to another.

\subsection*{3.20.15 Conclusion}

FAT12 is hardly used somewhere nowadays, but if you have space constraints and you have to store values limited to 12 bits, you may consider tightly-packed array in the manner it's done in FAT12 table.

\subsection*{3.21 More about pointers}

The way C handles pointers, for example, was a brilliant innovation; it solved a lot of problems that we had before in data structuring and made the programs look good afterwards.

Donald Knuth, interview (1993)
For those, who still have hard time understanding \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) pointers, here are more examples. Some of them are weird and serves only demonstration purpose: use them in production code only if you really know what you're doing.

\subsection*{3.21.1 Working with addresses instead of pointers}

Pointer is just an address in memory. But why we write char* string instead of something like address string? Pointer variable is supplied with a type of the value to which pointer points. So then compiler will be able to catch data typization bugs during compilation.
To be pedantic, data typing in programming languages is all about preventing bugs and self-documentation. It's possible to use maybe two of data types like int (or int64_t) and byte-these are the only types which are available to assembly language programmers. But it's just very hard task to write big and practical assembly programs without nasty bugs. Any small typo can lead to hard-to-find bug.

Data type information is absent in a compiled code (and this is one of the main problems for decompilers), and I can demonstrate this.

This is what sane \(C / C++\) programmer can write:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
void print_string (char *s)
{
printf ("(address: 0x%llx)\n", s);
printf ("%s\n", s);
};
int main()
{
char *s="Hello, world!";
print_string (s);
};

```

This is what I can write:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
void print_string (uint64_t address)
{
printf ("(address: 0x%llx)\n", address);
puts ((char*)address);
};
int main()
{
char *s="Hello, world!";
print_string ((uint64_t)s);
};

```

I use uint64_t because I run this example on Linux x64. int would work for 32 -bit OS-es. First, a pointer to character (the very first in the greeting string) is casted to uint64_t, then it's passed further. print_string () function casts back incoming uint64_t value into pointer to a character.

What is interesting is that GCC 4.8 .4 produces identical assembly output for both versions:
gcc 1.c -S -masm=intel -03 -fno-inline
. LC0:
print string:
    push rbx
    mov rdx, rdi
    mov rbx, rdi
    mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
    mov edi, 1
    xor eax, eax
    call __printf_chk
    mov rdi, rbx
    pop rbx
jmp puts
.LC1:
.string "Hello, world!"
main:
sub rsp, 8
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC1
call print string
add rsp, 8
ret
(I've removed all insignificant GCC directives.)
I also tried UNIX diff utility and it shows no differences at all.
Let's continue to abuse C/C++ programming traditions heavily. Someone may write this:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
uint8_t load_byte_at_address (uint8_t* address)
{
return *address;
//this is also possible: return address[0];
};
void print_string (char *s)
{
char* current_address=s;
while (1)
{
char current_char=load_byte_at_address(current_address);
if (current_char==0)
break;
printf ("%c", current_char);
current_address++;
};
};
int main()
{
char *s="Hello, world!";
print_string (s);
};

```

It can be rewritten like this:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
uint8 t load byte at address (uint64 t address)
{
return *(uint8_t*)address;
//this is also possible: return address[0];
};
void print_string (uint64_t address)
{
uint64_t current_address=address;
while (1)
{
char current_char=load_byte_at_address(current_address);
if (current char==0)
break;
printf ("%c", current_char);
current_address++;
};
};
int main()
{

```
```

    char *s="Hello, world!";
    print_string ((uint64_t)s);
    };

```

Both source codes resulting in the same assembly output:
gcc 1.c -S -masm=intel -03 -fno-inline
```

load_byte_at_address:
movzx eax, BYTE PTR [rdi]
ret
print string:
.LFB15:
push rbx
mov rbx, rdi
jmp .L4
.L7:
movsx edi, al
add rbx, 1
call putchar
.L4:
mov rdi, rbx
call load_byte_at_address
test al, \overline{al}
jne .L7
pop rbx
ret
.LC0:
.string "Hello, world!"
main:
sub rsp, 8
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
call print_string
add rsp, 8
ret

```
(I have also removed all insignificant GCC directives.)
No difference: C/C++ pointers are essentially addresses, but supplied with type information, in order to prevent possible mistakes at the time of compilation. Types are not checked during runtime-it would be huge (and unneeded) overhead.

\subsection*{3.21.2 Passing values as pointers; tagged unions}

Here is an example on how to pass values in pointers:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
uint64_t multiply1 (uint64_t a, uint64_t b)
{
return a*b;
};
uint64_t* multiply2 (uint64_t *a, uint64_t *b)
{
};
int main()
{
printf ("%d\n", multiply1(123, 456));
printf ("%d\n", (uint64_t)multiply2((uint64_t*)123, (uint64_t*)456));
};

```

It works smoothly and GCC 4.8 .4 compiles both multiply1() and multiply2() functions identically!
multiply1:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov \\
imul & rax, rdi \\
ret & rax, rsi
\end{tabular}
multiply2:
mov rax, rdi
imul rax, rsi
ret

As long as you do not dereference pointer (in other words, you don't read any data from the address stored in pointer), everything will work fine. Pointer is a variable which can store anything, like usual variable.
Signed multiplication instruction (IMUL) is used here instead of unsigned one (MUL), read more about it here: 2.2.1.

By the way, it's well-known hack to abuse pointers a little called tagged pointers. In short, if all your pointers points to blocks of memory with size of, let's say, 16 bytes (or it is always aligned on 16-byte boundary), 4 lowest bits of pointer is always zero bits and this space can be used somehow. It's very popular in LISP compilers and interpreters. They store cell/object type in these unused bits, this can save some memory. Even more, you can judge about cell/object type using just pointer, with no additional memory access. Read more about it: [Dennis Yurichev, \(C / C++\) programming language notes1.3].

\subsection*{3.21.3 Pointers abuse in Windows kernel}

The resource section of PE executable file in Windows OS is a section containing pictures, icons, strings, etc. Early Windows versions allowed to address resources only by IDs, but then Microsoft added a way to address them using strings.

So then it would be possible to pass ID or string to FindResource() function. Which is declared like this:
```

HRSRC WINAPI FindResource(
In_opt HMODULE hModule,
-In_ - LPCTSTR lpName,
_In_ LPCTSTR lpType
);

```

IpName and IpType has char* or wchar* types, and when someone still wants to pass ID, he/she have to use MAKEINTRESOURCE macro, like this:
```

result = FindResource(..., MAKEINTRESOURCE(1234), ...);

```

It's interesting fact that MAKEINTRESOURCE is merely casting integer to pointer. In MSVC 2013, in the file Microsoft SDKs|Windows|v7.1A|IncludelKs.h we can find this:
```

...
\#if (!defined( MAKEINTRESOURCE ))
\#define MAKEINTRESOURCE( res ) ((ULONG_PTR) (USHORT) res)
\#endif

```

Sounds insane. Let's peek into ancient leaked Windows NT4 source code. In private/windows/base/client/module.c we can find FindResource() source code:
```

HRSRC
FindResourceA(
HMODULE hModule,
LPCSTR lpName,
LPCSTR lpType
)
...
{
NTSTATUS Status;

```
```

ULONG IdPath[ 3 ];
PVOID p;
IdPath[ 0 ] = 0;
IdPath[ 1 ] = 0;
try {
if ((IdPath[ 0 ] = BaseDllMapResourceIdA( lpType )) == -1) {
Status = STATUS_INVALID_PARAMETER;
}
else
if ((IdPath[ 1 ] = BaseDllMapResourceIdA( lpName )) == -1) {
Status = STATUS INVALID PARAMETER;

```

Let's proceed to BaseDIIMapResourceldA() in the same source file:
```

ULONG
BaseDllMapResourceIdA(
LPCSTR lpId
)
{
NTSTATUS Status;
ULONG Id;
UNICODE STRING UnicodeString;
ANSI STRING AnsiString;
PWSTR s;
try {
if ((ULONG)lpId \& LDR_RESOURCE_ID_NAME_MASK) {
if (*lpId == '\#') {
Status = RtlCharToInteger( lpId+1, 10, \&Id );
if (!NT_SUCCESS( Status ) || Id \& LDR_RESOURCE_ID_NAME_MASK) {
if (NT SUCCESS( Status )) {
Stätus = STATUS INVALID PARAMETER;
}
BaseSetLastNTError( Status );
Id = (ULONG)-1;
}
}
else {
RtlInitAnsiString( \&AnsiString, lpId );
Status = RtlAnsiStringToUnicodeString( \&UnicodeString,
\&AnsiString,
TRUE
);
if (!NT SUCCESS( Status )){
BaseSetLastNTError( Status );
Id = (ULONG)-1;
}
else {
s = UnicodeString.Buffer;
while (*s != UNICODE NULL) {
*s = RtlUpcaseUnicodeChar( *s );
S++;
}
Id = (ULONG)UnicodeString.Buffer;
}
}
}
else {
Id = (ULONG)lpId;
}
}
except (EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER) {
BaseSetLastNTError( GetExceptionCode() );
Id = (ULONG)-1;
}
return Id;
}

```
\(\square\)
\#define LDR_RESOURCE_ID_NAME_MASK 0xFFFF0000

So IpId is ANDed with OxFFFFOOOO and if some bits beyond lowest 16 bits are still present, first half of function is executed (lpld is treated as an address of string). Otherwise-second half (Ipld is treated as 16-bit value).

Still, this code can be found in Windows 7 kernel32.dll file:
```

....
.text:0000000078D24510 ; __int64 __fastcall BaseDllMapResourceIdA(PCSZ SourceString)
.text:0000000078D24510 BaseDllMapResourceIdA proc near ; CODE XREF: FindResourceExA+34
.text:0000000078D24510 ; FindResourceExA+4B
.text:0000000078D24510
.text:0000000078D24510 var_38 = qword ptr -38h
.text:0000000078D24510 var_30 = qword ptr -30h
.text:0000000078D24510 var_28 = _UNICODE_STRING ptr -28h
.text:0000000078D24510 DestinationString= _STRING ptr -18h
.text:0000000078D24510 arg_8 = dword ptr 10h
.text:0000000078D24510
.text:0000000078D24510 ; FUNCTION CHUNK AT .text:0000000078D42FB4 SIZE 000000D5 BYTES
.text:0000000078D24510
.text:0000000078D24510 push rbx
.text:0000000078D24512 sub rsp, 50h
.text:0000000078D24516 cmp rcx, 10000h
.text:0000000078D2451D jnb loc_78D42FB4
.text:0000000078D24523 mov [rsp+58h+var_38], rcx
.text:0000000078D24528 jmp short \$+2
.text:0000000078D2452A ;
.text:0000000078D2452A
.text:0000000078D2452A loc_78D2452A: ; CODE XREF: \&
BaseDllMapResourceIdA+18
.text:0000000078D2452A ; BaseDllMapResourceIdA+1EAD0
.text:0000000078D2452A jmp short \$+2
.text:00000000078D2452C ;
\& ---------------------------------------------------------------------------
.text:00000000078D2452C
.text:0000000078D2452C loc_78D2452C: ; CODE XREF: \swarrow
BaseDllMapResourceIdA\overline{:loc_78D2452A}
.text:0000000078D2452C ; BaseDllMapResourceIdA+1EB74
.text:0000000078D2452C mov rax, rcx
.text:0000000078D2452F add rsp, 50h
.text:0000000078D24533 pop rbx
.text:0000000078D24534 retn
.text:0000000078D24534 ; ح
text:0000000078D24535 align 20h
.text:0000000078D24535 BaseDllMapResourceIdA endp
.text:0000000078D42FB4 loc_78D42FB4:
; CODE XREF: \swarrow
BaseDllMapResourceIdA+D
.text:0000000078D42FB4 cmp byte ptr [rcx], '\#'
.text:0000000078D42FB7 jnz short loc_78D43005
.text:0000000078D42FB9
.text:0000000078D42FBC
.text:0000000078D42FC1
.text:0000000078D42FC6
.text:0000000078D42FCC
.text:0000000078D42FD0
.text:0000000078D42FD5
.text:0000000078D42FD7
.text:0000000078D42FD9

| jnz | short loc_78D43005 |
| :--- | :--- |
| inc | rcx |
| lea | r8, [rsp+58h+arg_8] |
| mov | edx, 0Ah |
| call | cs:_imp_RtlCharToInteger |
| mov | ecx, [rsp+58h+arg_8] |
| mov | $\left[r s p+58 h+v a r \_38\right], r c x$ |
| test | eax, eax |
| js | short loc_78D42FE6 |
| test | $r c x, 0 F F F F F F F F F F F F F 0000 h$ |

```

If value in input pointer is greater than \(0 x 10000\), jump to string processing is occurred. Otherwise, input value of IpId is returned as is. OxFFFF0000 mask is not used here any more, because this is 64-bit code after all, but still, OxFFFFFFFFFFFF0000 could work here.

Attentive reader may ask, what if address of input string is lower than \(0 \times 10000\) ? This code relied on the fact that in Windows there are nothing on addresses below 0x10000, at least in Win32 realm.

Raymond Chen writes about this:

How does MAKEINTRESOURCE work? It just stashes the integer in the bottom 16 bits of a pointer, leaving the upper bits zero. This relies on the convention that the first 64 KB of address space is never mapped to valid memory, a convention that is enforced starting in Windows 7.

In short words, this is dirty hack and probably one should use it only if there is a real necessity. Perhaps, FindResource() function in past had SHORT type for its arguments, and then Microsoft has added a way to pass strings there, but older code must also be supported.

Now here is my short distilled example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
void f(char* a)
{
if (((uint64_t)a)>0x10000)
printf ("Pointer to string has been passed: %s\n", a);
else
printf ("16-bit value has been passed: %d\n", (uint64_t)a);
};
int main()
{
f("Hello!"); // pass string
f((char*)1234); // pass 16-bit value
};

```

It works!

\section*{Pointers abuse in Linux kernel}

As it has been noted in comments on Hacker News, Linux kernel also has something like that.
For example, this function can return both error code and pointer:
```

struct kernfs_node *kernfs_create_link(struct kernfs_node *parent,
const char *name,
struct kernfs_node *target)
{

```
```

struct kernfs_node *kn;

```
struct kernfs_node *kn;
int error;
int error;
kn = kernfs_new_node(parent, name, S_IFLNK|S_IRWXUGO, KERNFS_LINK);
kn = kernfs_new_node(parent, name, S_IFLNK|S_IRWXUGO, KERNFS_LINK);
if (!kn)
if (!kn)
    return ERR_PTR(-ENOMEM);
    return ERR_PTR(-ENOMEM);
if (kernfs_ns_enabled(parent))
if (kernfs_ns_enabled(parent))
    kn->ns = target->ns;
    kn->ns = target->ns;
kn->symlink.target kn = target;
kn->symlink.target kn = target;
kernfs_get(target); /* ref owned by symlink */
kernfs_get(target); /* ref owned by symlink */
error = kernfs add_one(kn);
error = kernfs add_one(kn);
if (!error)
if (!error)
    return kn;
```

    return kn;
    ```
    kernfs_put(kn);
    return ERR PTR(error);
\}
(https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/fceef393a538134f03b778c5d2519e670269342f/fs/kernfs/ symlink.c\#L25)

ERR_PTR is a macro to cast integer to pointer:
```

static inline void * __must_check ERR_PTR(long error)
{
return (void *) error;
}

```
( https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/61d0b5a4b2777dcf5daef245e212b3c1fa8091ca/tools/ virtio/linux/err.h)

This header file also has a macro helper to distinguish error code from pointer:
```

\#define IS_ERR_VALUE(x) unlikely((x) >= (unsigned long)-MAX_ERRNO)

```

This means, error codes are the "pointers" which are very close to -1 and, hopefully, there are nothing in kernel memory on the addresses like 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF, 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFE,0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFD, etc.

Much more popular solution is to return NULL in case of error and to pass error code via additional argument. Linux kernel authors don't do that, but everyone who use these functions must always keep in mind that returning pointer must always be checked with IS_ERR_VALUE before dereferencing.

For example:
```

fman->cam_offset = fman_muram_alloc(fman->muram, fman->cam_size);
if (IS ER\overline{R}}\operatorname{VALUE(fman->\overline{cam off}
dev_err(fman->dev, "%s: MURAM alloc for DMA CAM failed\n",
func );
return --ENOMEM;
}

```
(https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/aa00edc1287a693eadc7bc67a3d73555d969b35d/drivers/ net/ethernet/freescale/fman/fman.c\#L826 )

\section*{Pointers abuse in UNIX userland}
mmap() function returns -1 in case of error (or MAP FAILED, which equals to -1). Some people say, mmap() can map a memory at zeroth address in rare situations, so it can't use 0 or NULL as error code.

\subsection*{3.21.4 Null pointers}

\section*{"Null pointer assignment" error of MS-DOS era}

Some oldschoolers may recall a weird error message of MS-DOS era: "Null pointer assignment". What does it mean?

It's not possible to write a memory at zero address in *NIX and Windows OSes, but it was possible to do so in MS-DOS due to absence of memory protection whatsoever.

So I've pulled my ancient Turbo C++ 3.0 (later it was renamed to Borland \(C++\) ) from early 1990s and tried to compile this:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{

```
```

int *ptr=NULL;

```
int *ptr=NULL;
    *ptr=1234;
    *ptr=1234;
    printf ("Now let's read at NULL\n");
```

    printf ("Now let's read at NULL\n");
    ```

Hard to believe, but it works, with error upon exit, though:
Listing 3.121: Ancient Turbo C 3.0
C: \TC30\BIN \(\backslash 1\)
Now let's read at NULL
1234
Null pointer assignment

C: \TC30\BIN>

Let's dig deeper into the source code of CRT of Borland C++ 3.1, file c0.asm:


The MS-DOS memory model was really weird (11.6) and probably not worth looking into it unless you're fan of retrocomputing or retrogaming. One thing we have to keep in mind is that memory segment (included data segment) in MS-DOS is a memory segment in which code or data is stored, but unlike "serious" OSes, it's started at address 0.
And in Borland \(C++\) CRT, the data segment is started with 4 zero bytes and the copyright string "Borland C++ - Copyright 1991 Borland Intl.". The integrity of the 4 zero bytes and text string is checked upon exit, and if it's corrupted, the error message is displayed.

But why? Writing at null pointer is common mistake in \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\), and if you do so in *NIX or Windows, your application will crash. MS-DOS has no memory protection, so CRT has to check this post-factum and warn about it upon exit. If you see this message, this means, your program at some point has written at address 0.

Our program did so. And this is why 1234 number has been read correctly: because it was written at the place of the first 4 zero bytes. Checksum is incorrect upon exit (because the number has been left there), so error message has been displayed.
Am I right? I've rewritten the program to check my assumptions:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
int *ptr=NULL;
*ptr=1234;
printf ("Now let's read at NULL\n");
printf ("%d\n", *ptr);
*ptr=0; // psst, cover our tracks!
};

```

This program executes without error message upon exit.
Though method to warn about null pointer assignment is relevant for MS-DOS, perhaps, it can still be used today in low-cost MCUs with no memory protection and/or MMU \({ }^{37}\).

\section*{Why would anyone write at address 0 ?}

But why would sane programmer write a code which writes something at address 0 ? It can be done accidentally: for example, a pointer must be initialized to newly allocated memory block and then passed to some function which returns data through pointer.
```

int *ptr=NULL;
... we forgot to allocate memory and initialize ptr
strcpy (ptr, buf); // strcpy() terminates silently because MS-DOS has no memory protection

```

Even worse:
```

int *ptr=malloc(1000);
... we forgot to check if memory has been really allocated: this is MS-DOS after all and \swarrow
computers had small amount of RAM,
... and RAM shortage was very common.
... if malloc() returned NULL, the ptr will also be NULL.
strcpy (ptr, buf); // strcpy() terminates silently because MS-DOS has no memory protection

```

\section*{NULL in C/C++}

NULL in \(C / C++\) is just a macro which is often defined like this:
```

\#define NULL ((void*)0)

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{37}\) Memory Management Unit
}
( libio.h file )
void* is a data type reflecting the fact it's the pointer, but to a value of unknown data type (void).
NULL is usually used to show absence of an object. For example, you have a single-linked list, and each node has a value (or pointer to a value) and next pointer. To show that there are no next node, 0 is stored to next field. Other solutions are just worse. Perhaps, you may have some crazy environment where you need to allocate memory blocks at zero address. How would you indicate absence of the next node? Some kind of magic number? Maybe -1? Or maybe using additional bit?
In Wikipedia we may find this:
In fact, quite contrary to the zero page's original preferential use, some modern operating systems such as FreeBSD, Linux and Microsoft Windows[2] actually make the zero page inaccessible to trap uses of NULL pointers.
(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zero_page)

\section*{Null pointer to function}

It's possible to call function by its address. For example, I compile this by MSVC 2010 and run it in Windows 7:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
printf ("0x%x\n", \&MessageBoxA);
};

```

The result is \(0 x 7578 f e a e\) and doesn't changing after several times I run it, because user32.dll (where MessageBoxA function resides) is always loads at the same address. And also because ASLR \({ }^{38}\) is not enabled (result would be different each time in that case).

Let's call MessageBoxA() by address:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
typedef int (*msgboxtype)(HWND hWnd, LPCTSTR lpText, LPCTSTR lpCaption, UINT uType);
int main()
{
msgboxtype msgboxaddr=0x7578feae;
// force to load DLL into process memory,
// since our code doesn't use any function from user32.dll,
// and DLL is not imported
LoadLibrary ("user32.dll");
msgboxaddr(NULL, "Hello, world!", "hello", MB_OK);
};

```

Weird, but works in Windows \(7 \times 86\).
This is commonly used in shellcodes, because it's hard to call DLL functions by name from there. And ASLR is a countermeasure.

Now what is really weird, some embedded C programmers may be familiar with a code like that:
```

int reset()
{
void (*foo)(void) = 0;
foo();
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{38}\) Address Space Layout Randomization
}

Who will want to call a function at address 0 ? This is portable way to jump at zero address. Many low-cost cheap microcontrollers also have no memory protection or MMU and after reset, they start to execute code at address 0 , where some kind of initialization code is stored. So jumping to address 0 is a way to reset itself. One could use inline assembly, but if it's not possible, this portable method can be used.
It even compiles correctly by my GCC 4.8.4 on Linux x64:
reset:
```

sub rsp, 8
xor eax, eax
call rax
add rsp, 8
ret

```

The fact that stack pointer is shifted is not a problem: initialization code in microcontrollers usually completely ignores registers and RAM state and boots from scratch.

And of course, this code will crash on *NIX or Windows because of memory protection and even in absence of protection, there are no code at address 0.

GCC even has non-standard extension, allowing to jump to a specific address rather than call a function there: http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Labels-as-Values.html.

\subsection*{3.21.5 Array as function argument}

Someone may ask, what is the difference between declaring function argument type as array and as pointer?

As it seems, there are no difference at all:
```

void write somethingl(int a[16])
{
a[5]=0;
};
void write_something2(int *a)
{
a[5]=0;
};
int f()
{
int a[16];
write_something1(a);
write_something2(a);
};

```

Optimizing GCC 4.8.4:
```

write_something1:
mov DWORD PTR [rdi+20], 0
ret
write_something2:
mov DWORD PTR [rdi+20], 0
ret

```

But you may still declare array instead of pointer for self-documenting purposes, if the size of array is always fixed. And maybe, some static analysis tool will be able to warn you about possible buffer overflow. Or is it possible with some tools today?

Some people, including Linus Torvalds, criticizes this C/C++ feature: https://lkml.org/lkml/2015/9/ 3/428.

C99 standard also have static keyword [ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007) 6.7.5.3]:

If the keyword static also appears within the [ and ] of the array type derivation, then for each call to the function, the value of the corresponding actual argument shall provide access to the first element of an array with at least as many elements as specified by the size expression.

\subsection*{3.21.6 Pointer to function}

A function name in C/C++ without brackets, like "printf" is a pointer to function of void (*)() type. Let's try to read function's contents and patch it:
```

\#include <memory.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
void print_something ()
{
printf ("we are in %s()\n", __FUNCTION__);
};
int main()
{
print_something();
print\overline{f}}("first 3 bytes: %x %x %x...\n"
*(unsigned char*)print_something,
*((unsigned char*)print_something+1),
*((unsigned char*)print_something+2));
*(unsigned char*)print_something=0xC3; // opecode of RET
printf ("going to call patched print_something():\n");
print_something();
printf ("it must exit at this point\n");

```
\};

It tells, that the first 3 bytes of functions are 5589 e5. Indeed, these are opcodes of PUSH EBP and MOV EBP, ESP instructions (these are x86 opcodes). But then our program crashes, because text section is readonly.
We can recompile our example and make text section writable \({ }^{39}\) :
```

gcc --static -g -Wl,--omagic -o example example.c

```

That works!
```

we are in print_something()
first 3 bytes: 55 89 e5...
going to call patched print_something():
it must exit at this point

```

\subsection*{3.21.7 Pointer as object identificator}

Both assembly language and C has no OOP features, but it's possible to write a code in OOP style (just treat structure as an object).
It's interesting, that sometimes, pointer to an object (or its address) is called as ID (in sense of data hiding/encapsulation).
For example, LoadLibrary(), according to MSDN \({ }^{40}\), returns "handle to the module" \({ }^{41}\). Then you pass this "handle" to other functions like GetProcAddress(). But in fact, LoadLibrary() returns pointer to DLL file mapped into memory \({ }^{42}\). You can read two bytes from the address LoadLibrary() returns, and that would be "MZ" (first two bytes of any .EXE/.DLL file in Windows).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{39}\) http://stackoverflow.com/questions/27581279/make-text-segment-writable-elf
\({ }^{40}\) Microsoft Developer Network
\({ }^{41}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/ru-ru/library/windows/desktop/ms684175(v=vs.85).aspx
\({ }^{42}\) https://blogs.msdn.microsoft.com/oldnewthing/20041025-00/?p=37483
}

Apparently, Microsoft "hides" that fact to provide better forward compatibility. Also, HMODULE and HINSTANCE data types had another meaning in 16-bit Windows.

Probably, this is reason why printf() has "\%p" modifier, which is used for printing pointers (32-bit integers on 32-bit architectures, 64-bit on 64-bit, etc) in hexadecimal form. Address of a structure dumped into debug log may help in finding it in another place of log.

Here is also from SQLite source code:
```

...
struct Pager {
sqlite3_vfs *pVfs; /* OS functions to use for IO */
u8 exclusiveMode; /* Boolean. True if locking_mode==EXCLUSIVE */
u8 journalMode; /* One of the PAGER_JOURNALMODE_* values */
u8 useJournal; /* Use a rollback journal on this file */
u8 noSync; /* Do not sync the journal if true */
static int pagerLockDb(Pager *pPager, int eLock){
int rc = SQLITE_OK;
assert( eLock==SHARED_LOCK || eLock==RESERVED_LOCK || eLock==EXCLUSIVE_LOCK );
if( pPager->eLock<eLock || pPager->eLock==UNKNOWN LOCK ){
rc = sqlite30sLock(pPager->fd, eLock);
if( rc==SQLITE_OK \&\& (pPager->eLock!=UNKNOWN_LOCK||eLock==EXCLUSIVE_LOCK) ){
pPager->eLock = (u8)eLock;
IOTRACE(("LOCK %p %d\n", pPager, eLock))
}
}
return rc;
}
PAGER INCR(sqlite3 pager readdb count);
PAGER INCR(pPager->nRead);
IOTRACE(("PGIN %p %d\n", pPager, pgno));
PAGERTRACE(("FETCH %d page %d hash(%08x)\n",
PAGERID(pPager), pgno, pager_pagehash(pPg)));

```

\subsection*{3.22 Loop optimizations}

\subsection*{3.22.1 Weird loop optimization}

This is a simplest ever memcpy() function implementation:
```

void memcpy (unsigned char* dst, unsigned char* src, size_t cnt)
{
size t i;
for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
dst[i]=src[i];
};

```

At least MSVC 6.0 from the end of 1990s till MSVC 2013 can produce a really weird code (this listing is generated by MSVC \(2013 \times 86\) )
```

dst\$ = 8 ; size = 4
src\$ = 12 ; size = 4
cnt\$ = 16 ; size = 4
memcpy PROC
mov edx, DWORD PTR _cnt\$[esp-4]
test edx, edx

```
```

je SHORT \$LN1@f
mov eax, DWORD PTR _dst\$[esp-4]
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR src\$[esp]
sub esi, eax
; ESI=src-dst, i.e., pointers difference
\$LL8@f:
mov cl, BYTE PTR [esi+eax] ; load byte at "esi+dst" or at "src-dst+dst" at the $\prec$
$\rightarrow$ beginning or at just "src"
lea eax, DWORD PTR [eax+1] ; dst++
mov BYTE PTR [eax-1], cl ; store the byte at "(dst++)--" or at just "dst" at the $\prec$
$\rightarrow$ beginning
dec edx ; decrement counter until we finished
jne SHORT \$LL8@f
pop esi
\$LN1@f
ret 0
memcpy ENDP

```

This is weird, because how humans work with two pointers? They store two addresses in two registers or two memory cells. MSVC compiler in this case stores two pointers as one pointer (sliding dst in EAX) and difference between src and dst pointers (left unchanged over the span of loop body execution in ESI). (By the way, this is a rare case when ptrdiff_t data type can be used.) When it needs to load a byte from src, it loads it at diff + sliding dst and stores byte at just sliding dst.

This has to be some optimization trick. But I've rewritten this function to:
```

_f2 mROC mov edx, DWORD PTR _cnt\$[esp-4]
test edx, edx
je SHORT $LN1@f
    mov eax, DWORD PTR dst$[esp-4]
push esi
mov esi, DWORD PTR _src\$[esp]
; eax=dst; esi=src
\$LL8@f:
mov cl, BYTE PTR [esi+edx]
mov BYTE PTR [eax+edx], cl
dec edx
jne SHORT \$LL8@f
pop esi
\$LN1@f:
ret 0
f2 ENDP

```
...and it works as efficient as the optimized version on my Intel Xeon E31220 @ 3.10GHz. Maybe, this optimization was targeted some older x86 CPUs of 1990s era, since this trick is used at least by ancient MS VC 6.0?

Any idea?
Hex-Rays 2.2 have a hard time recognizing patterns like that (hopefully, temporary?):
```

void __cdecl fl(char *dst, char *src, size_t size)
{
size t counter; // edx@1
char *sliding_dst; // eax@2
char tmp; // cl@3
counter = size;
if ( size )
{
sliding_dst = dst;
do
{
tmp = (sliding_dst++)[src - dst]; // difference (src-dst) is calculated once, \swarrow
before loop body
*(sliding dst - 1) = tmp;
--counter;
}

```

Nevertheless, this optimization trick is often used by MSVC (not just in DIY \({ }^{43}\) homebrew memcpy() routines, but in many loops which uses two or more arrays), so it's worth for reverse engineers to keep it in mind.

\subsection*{3.22.2 Another loop optimization}

If you process all elements of some array which happens to be located in global memory, compiler can optimize it. For example, let's calculate a sum of all elements of array of 128 int :
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int a[128];
int sum_of_a()
{
int rt=0;
for (int i=0; i<128; i++)
rt=rt+a[i];
return rt;
};
int main()
{
// initialize
for (int i=0; i<128; i++)
a[i]=i;
// calculate the sum
printf ("%d\n", sum_of_a());
};

```

Optimizing GCC 5.3.1 (x86) can produce this (IDA):
```

.text:080484B0 sum_of_a proc near
.text:080484B0
.text:080484B5
.text:080484B7
.text:080484B9
.text:080484C0
.text:080484C0 loc_80484C0:
.text:080484C0
.text:080484C2
.text:080484C5
.text:080484CB
.text:080484CD
.text:080484CD sum_of_a
mov edx, offset a
xor eax, eax
mov esi, esi
lea edi, [edi+0]
; CODE XREF: sum_of_a+1B
add eax, [edx]
add edx, 4
cmp edx, offset __libc_start_main@@GLIBC_2_0
jnz short loc_80\overline{48}4C0
rep retn
endp
.text:080484CD
...
.bss:0804A040
public a
.bss:0804A040 a
.bss:0804A040
.bss:0804A040 _bss
dd 80h dup(?) ; DATA XREF: main:loc_8048338
; main+19
.bss:0804A040
extern:0804A240
extern:0804A240
extern:0804A240 ; Segment type: Externs
extern:0804A240 ; extern
extern:0804A240 extrn __libc_start_main@@GLIBC_2_0:near
extern:0804A240

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{43}\) Do It Yourself
}
```

extern:0804A240 ; main+5D
extern:0804A244 extrn __printf_chk@@GLIBC_2_3_4:near
extern:0804A248 extrn __libc_start_main:near
extern:0804A248
extern:0804A248 ; DATA XREF: .got.plt:off_804A00C
; CODE XREF: __libc_start_main

```

What the heck is __libc_start_main@@GLIBC_2_0 at 0x080484C5? This is a label just after end of a[] array. The function can be rewritten like this:
```

int sum_of_a_v2()
{
int *tmp=a;
int rt=0;
do
{
rt=rt+(*tmp);
tmp++;
}
while (tmp<(a+128));
return rt;
};

```

First version has \(i\) counter, and the address of each element of array is to be calculated at each iteration. The second version is more optimized: the pointer to each element of array is always ready and is sliding 4 bytes forward at each iteration. How to check if the loop is ended? Just compare the pointer with the address just behind array's end, which is, in our case, is happens to be address of imported
libc_start_main() function from Glibc 2.0. Sometimes code like this is confusing, and this is very popular optimizing trick, so that's why I made this example.
My second version is very close to what GCC did, and when I compile it, the code is almost the same as in first version, but two first instructions are swapped:
.text:080484D0
.text: 080484D0 sum_of_a_v2
.text:080484D0
.text:080484D2
.text:080484D7
.text:080484D9
.text:080484E0
.text:080484E0 loc_80484E0:
.text:080484E0
.text:080484E2
.text:080484E5
.text:080484EB
.text:080484ED
.text: \(080484 E D\) sum_of_a v2
```

public sum_of_a_v2
proc near
xor eax, eax
mov edx, offset a
mov esi, esi
lea edi, [edi+0]
; CODE XREF: sum_of_a_v2+1B
add eax, [edx]
add edx, 4
cmp edx, offset _libc_start_main@@GLIBC_2_0
jnz short loc_80484E0
rep retn
endp

```

Needless to say, this optimization is possible if the compiler can calculate address of the end of array during compilation time. This happens if the array is global and it's size is fixed.

However, if the address of array is unknown during compilation, but size is fixed, address of the label just behind array's end can be calculated at the beginning of the loop.

\subsection*{3.23 More about structures}

\subsection*{3.23.1 Sometimes a \(C\) structure can be used instead of array}

\section*{Arithmetic mean}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int mean(int *a, int len)
{
int sum=0;

```
```

    for (int i=0; i<len; i++)
    sum=sum+a[i];
    return sum/len;
    };
struct five_ints
{
int a0;
int al;
int a2;
int a3;
int a4;
};
int main()
{
struct five_ints a;
a.a0=123;
a.al=456;
a.a2=789;
a.a3=10;
a.a4=100;
printf ("%d\n", mean(\&a, 5));
// test: https://www.wolframalpha.com/input/?i=mean(123,456,789,10,100)
};

```

This works: mean() function will never access behind the end of five ints structure, because 5 is passed, meaining, only 5 integers will be accessed.

\section*{Putting string into structure}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
struct five_chars
{
char a0;
char al;
char a2;
char a3;
char a4;
} __attribute__ ((aligned (1),packed));
int main()
{
struct five_chars a
a.a0='h';
a.al='i';
a.a2='!';
a.a3='\n';
a.a4=0;
printf (\&a); // prints "hi!"
};

```
((aligned (1),packed)) attribute must be used, because otherwise, each structure field will be aligned on 4-byte or 8-byte boundary.

\section*{Summary}

This is just another example of how structures and arrays are stored in memory. Perhaps, no sane programmer will do something like in this example, except in case of some specific hack. Or maybe in case of source code obfuscation?

\subsection*{3.23.2 Unsized array in C structure}

In some win32 structures we can find ones with last field defined as an array of one element:
```

typedef struct _SYMBOL_INFO {
ULONG SizeOfStruct;
ULONG TypeIndex;
ULONG MaxNameLen;
TCHAR Name[1];
} SYMBOL_INFO, *PSYMBOL_INFO;

```
( https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/desktop/ms680686(v=vs.85).aspx)
This is a hack, meaning, the last field is array of unknown size, which is to be calculated at the time of structure allocation.

Why: Name field may be short, so why to define it with some kind of MAX_NAME constant which can be 128,256 , or even bigger?

Why not to use pointer instead? Then you have to allocate two blocks: one for structure and the other one for string. This may be slower and may require larger memory overhead. Also, you need dereference pointer (i.e., read address of the string from the structure) - not a big deal, but some people say this is still surplus cost.
This is also known as struct hack: http://c-faq. com/struct/structhack. html.
Example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
struct st
{
int a;
int b;
char s[];
};
void f (struct st *s)
{
printf ("%d %d %s\n", s->a, s->b, s->s);
// f() can't replace s[] with bigger string - size of allocated block is unknown at \swarrow
this point
};
int main()
{
\#define STRING "Hello!"
struct st *s=malloc(sizeof(struct st)+strlen(STRING)+1); // incl. terminating zero
s->a=1;
s->b=2;
strcpy (s->s, STRING);
f(s);
};

```

In short, it works because C has no array boundary checks. Any array is treated as having infinite size.
Problem: after allocation, the whole size of allocated block for structure is unknown (except for memory manager), so you can't just replace string with larger string. You would still be able to do so if the field would be declared as something like s[MAX_NAME].

In other words, you have a structure plus an array (or string) fused together in the single allocated memory block. Another problem is what you obviously can't declare two such arrays in single structure, or to declare another field after such array.
Older compilers require to declare array with at least one element: s[1], newer allows to declare it as variable-sized array: \(s[]\). This is also called flexible array member \({ }^{44}\) in C 99 standard.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{44}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flexible_array_member
}

Read more about it in GCC documentation \({ }^{45}\), MSDN documentation \({ }^{46}\).
Dennis Ritchie (one of C creators) called this trick "unwarranted chumminess with the C implementation" (perhaps, acknowledging hackish nature of the trick).
Like it or not, use it or not: it is still another demonstration on how structures are stored in memory, that's why I write about it.

\subsection*{3.23.3 Version of C structure}

Many Windows programmers have seen this is MSDN:
SizeOfStruct
The size of the structure, in bytes. This member must be set to sizeof(SYMBOL_INFO).
( https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/desktop/ms680686(v=vs.85).aspx)
Some structures like SYMBOL_INFO has started with this field indeed. Why? This is some kind of structure version.

Imagine you have a function which draws circle. It takes a single argument-a pointer to a structure with only two fields: X and Y. And then color displays flooded a market, sometimes in 1980s. And you want to add color argument to the function. But, let's say, you cannot add another argument to it (a lot of software use your \(\mathrm{API}^{47}\) and cannot be recompiled). And if the old piece of software uses your API with color display, let your function draw a circle in (default) black and white colors.

Another day you add another feature: circle now can be filled, and brush type can be set.
Here is one solution to the problem:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
struct verl
{
size_t SizeOfStruct;
int coord_X;
int coord_Y;
};
struct ver2
{
size_t SizeOfStruct;
int coord_X;
int coord_Y;
int color;
};
struct ver3
{
size_t SizeOfStruct;
int coord_X;
int coord_Y;
int color;
int fill_brush_type; // 0 - do not fill circle
};
void draw_circle(struct ver3 *s) // latest struct version is used here
{
// we presume SizeOfStruct, coord_X and coord_Y fields are always present
printf ("We are going to draw a circle at %d:%d\n", s->coord_X, s->coord_Y);
if (s->SizeOfStruct>=sizeof(int)*4)
{
// this is at least ver2, color field is present
printf ("We are going to set color %d\n", s->color);
}

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{45}\) https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Zero-Length.html
\({ }^{46}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/b6fae073.aspx
\({ }^{47}\) Application Programming Interface
}
```

    if (s->SizeOfStruct>=sizeof(int)*5)
    {
        // this is at least ver3, fill_brush_type field is present
        printf ("We are going to fill it using brush type %d\n", s->fill_brush_type);
    }
};
// early software version
void call_as_verl()
{
struct verl s;
s.Size0fStruct=sizeof(s);
s.coord_X=123;
s.coord_Y=456;
printf ("** %s()\n", __ FUNCTION__);
draw_circle(\&s);
};
// next software version
void call_as_ver2()
{
struct ver2 s;
s.Size0fStruct=sizeof(s);
s.coord X=123;
s.coord_Y=456;
s.color=1;
printf ("** %s()\n", __FUNCTION__);
draw_circle(\&s);
};
// latest, most advanced version
void call_as_ver3()
{
struct ver3 s;
s.SizeOfStruct=sizeof(s);
s.coord_X=123;
s.coord_Y=456;
s.color=1;
s.fill_brush_type=3;
printf ("** %s()\n", __FUNCTION__);
draw_circle(\&s);
};
int main()
{
call_as_verl();
call_as_ver2();
call_as_ver3();
};

```

In other words, SizeOfStruct field takes a role of version of structure field. It could be enumerate type (1, 2, 3, etc.), but to set SizeOfStruct field to sizeof(struct...) is less prone to mistakes/bugs.
In \(C++\), this problem is solved using inheritance ( 3.18 .1 on page 547). You just extend your base class (let's call it Circle), and then you will have ColoredCircle and then FilledColoredCircle, and so on. A current version of an object (or, more precisely, current type) will be determined using C++ RTTI.

So when you see SizeOfStruct somewhere in MSDN—perhaps this structure was extended at least once in past.

\subsection*{3.23.4 High-score file in "Block out" game and primitive serialization}

Many videogames has high-score file, sometimes called "Hall of fame". Ancient "Block out" 48 game (3D tetris from 1989) isn't exception, here is what we see at the end:

\footnotetext{
48http://www. bestoldgames.net/eng/old-games/blockout.php
}


Figure 3.4: High score table

Now we can see that the file has changed after we added our name is BLSCORE.DAT.
```

% xxd -g 1 BLSCORE.DAT
00000000: 0a 00 58 65 6e 69 61 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 df 01 00 ..Xenia..........
00000010: 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 50 61 75 6c .03-27-2018.Paul
00000020: 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 61 01 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 .......a...03-27
00000030: 2d 32 30 31 38 00 4a 6f 68 6e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e -2018.John......
00000040: 00 46 01 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 .F...03-27-2018.
00000050: 4a 61 6d 65 73 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 44 01 00 00 30 James......D...0
00000060: 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 43 68 61 72 6c 69 3-27-2018.Charli
00000070: 65 2e 2e 2e 00 ea 00 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 e........03-27-2
00000080: 30 31 38 00 4d 69 6b 65 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 b5 018.Mike........
00000090: 00 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 50 68 ...03-27-2018.Ph
000000a0: 69 6c 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 ac 00 00 00 30 33 2d il...........03-
000000b0: 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 4d 61 72 79 2e 2e 2e 2e 27-2018.Mary....
000000c0: 2e 2e 00 7b 00 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 ...{...03-27-201
000000d0: 38 00 54 6f 6d 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 77 00 00 8.Tom........w..
000000e0: 00 30 33 2d 32 37 2d 32 30 31 38 00 42 6f 62 2e .03-27-2018.Bob.
000000f0: 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 2e 00 77 00 00 00 30 33 2d 32 37 ........w...03-27
00000100: 2d 32 30 31 38 00

```
```

.Xenia........

```
.Xenia........
    -2018.
```

    -2018.
    ```

All entries are clearly visible. The very first byte is probably number of entries. Second is zero and, in fact, number of entries can be 16-bit value spanning over first two bytes.

Next, after "Xenia" name we see 0xDF and \(0 x 01\) bytes. Xenia has score of 479, and this is exactly 0x1DF in hexadecimal radix. So a high score value is probably 16-bit integer, or maybe 32-bit integer: there are two more zero bytes after.

Now let's think about the fact that both array elements and structure elements are always placed in memory in adjacently to each other. That enables us to write the whole array/structure to the file using simple write() or fwrite() function, and then restore it using read() or fread(), as simple as that. This is what is called serialization nowadays.

\section*{Read}

Now let's write C program to read highscore file:
```

\#include <assert.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdint.h>
\#include <string.h>
struct entry
{

```
```

    char name[11]; // incl. terminating zero
    uint32_t score;
    char date[11]; // incl. terminating zero
    \} _attribute_((aligned (1), packed));
struct highscore_file
\{
uint8_t count;
uint8_t unknown;
struc $\bar{t}$ entry entries[10];
\} __attribute__ ((aligned (1), packed));
struct highscore_file file;
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
\{
FILE* f=fopen(argv[1], "rb");
assert (f!=NULL);
size_t got=fread(\&file, 1, sizeof(struct highscore_file), f);
assert (got==sizeof(struct highscore_file));
fclose(f);
for (int i=0; i<file.count; i++)
\{
printf ("name=\%s score=\%d date=\%s\n",
file.entries[i].name,
file.entries[i].score,
file.entries[i].date);
\};
\};

```

We need GCC ((aligned (1),packed)) attribute so that all structure fields will be packed on 1-byte boundary.
Of course it works:
```

name=Xenia..... score=479 date=03-27-2018
name=Paul...... score=353 date=03-27-2018
name=John...... score=326 date=03-27-2018
name=James . . . . . score=324 date=03-27-2018
name=Charlie... score=234 date=03-27-2018
name=Mike...... score=181 date=03-27-2018
name=Phil....... score=172 date=03-27-2018
name=Mary...... score=123 date=03-27-2018
name=Tom....... score=119 date=03-27-2018
name=Bob........ score=119 date=03-27-2018

```
(Needless to say, each name is padded with dots, both on screen and in the file, perhaps, for æsthetical reasons.)

\section*{Write}

Let's check if we right about width of score value. Is it really has 32 bits?
```

int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{

```
```

FILE* f=fopen(argv[1], "rb");

```
FILE* f=fopen(argv[1], "rb");
assert (f!=NULL);
assert (f!=NULL);
size_t got=fread(&file, 1, sizeof(struct highscore_file), f);
size_t got=fread(&file, 1, sizeof(struct highscore_file), f);
assert (got==sizeof(struct highscore_file));
assert (got==sizeof(struct highscore_file));
fclose(f);
fclose(f);
strcpy (file.entries[1].name, "Mallory...");
strcpy (file.entries[1].name, "Mallory...");
file.entries[1].score=12345678;
file.entries[1].score=12345678;
strcpy (file.entries[1].date, "08-12-2016");
strcpy (file.entries[1].date, "08-12-2016");
f=fopen(argv[1], "wb");
f=fopen(argv[1], "wb");
assert (f!=NULL);
assert (f!=NULL);
got=fwrite(&file, 1, sizeof(struct highscore_file), f);
got=fwrite(&file, 1, sizeof(struct highscore_file), f);
assert (got==sizeof(struct highscore_file));
assert (got==sizeof(struct highscore_file));
fclose(f);
```

fclose(f);

```

Let's run Blockout:


Figure 3.5: High score table

First two digits (1 or 2 ) are choked. Perhaps, this is formatting issues... but the number is almost correct. Now I'm changing it to 999999 and run again:


Figure 3.6: High score table

Now it's correct. Yes, high score value is 32-bit integer.

\section*{Is it serialization?}
...almost. Serialization like this is highly popular in scientific and engineering software, where efficiency and speed is much more important than converting into XML \({ }^{49}\) or JSON \({ }^{50}\) and back.
One important thing is that you obviously cannot serialize pointers, because each time you load the file into memory, all the structures may be allocated in different places.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{49}\) Extensible Markup Language
\({ }^{50}\) JavaScript Object Notation
}

But: if you work on some kind of low-cost MCU with simple OS on it and you have your structures allocated at always same places in memory, perhaps you can save and restore pointers as well.

\section*{Random noise}

When I prepared this example, I had to run "Block out" many times and played for it a bit to fill high-score table with random names.

And when there were just 3 entries in the file, I saw this:


The first byte has value of 3 , meaning there are 3 entries. And there are 3 entries present. But then we see a random noise at the second half of file.

The noise is probably has its origins in uninitialized data. Perhaps, "Block out" allocated memory for 10 entries somewhere in heap, where, obviously, some pseudorandom noise (left from something else) was present. Then it set first/second byte, fill 3 entries, and then it never touched 7 entries left, so they are written to the file as is.

When "Block out" loads high score file at the next run, it reads number of entries from the first/second byte (3) and then completely ignores what is after it.

This is common problem. Not a problem in strict sense: it's not a bug, but information can be exposed outwards.

Microsoft Word versions from 1990s has been often left pieces of previously edited texts into the *.doc* files. It was some kind of amusement back then, to get a .doc file from someone, then open it in a hexadecimal editor and read something else, what has been edited on that computer before.
The problem can be even much more serious: Heartbleed bug \({ }^{51}\) in OpenSSL.

\section*{Homework}
"Block out" has several polycubes (flat/basic/extended), size of pit can be configured, etc. And it seems, for each configuration, "Block out" has its own high score table. I've noticed that some information is probably stored in BLSCORE.IDX file. This can be a homework for hardcore "Block out" fans-to understand its structure as well.

The "Block out" files are here: http://beginners. re/examples/blockout. zip (including the binary high score files I've used in this example). You can use DosBox to run it.

\subsection*{3.24 memmove() and memcpy()}

The difference between these standard functions is that memcpy() blindly copies a block to another place, while memmove() correctly handles overlapping blocks. For example, you want to tug a string two bytes forward:

\footnotetext{
51https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heartbleed
}
```

`|.|.|h|e|l|l|o|...` -> `|h|e|l|l|o|...

```
memcpy() which copies 32-bit or 64-bit words at once, or even SIMD, will obviously fail here, a byte-wise copy routine must be used instead.

Now even more advanced example, insert two bytes in front of string:
```

`|h|e|l|l|o|...` -> `|.|.|h|e|l|l|o|...

```

Now even byte-wise memory copy routine will fail, you have to copy bytes starting at the end.
That's a rare case where DF x86 flag is to be set before REP MOVSB instruction: DF defines direction, and now we must move backwardly.

The typical memmove() routine works like this: 1) if source is below destination, copy forward; 2) if source is above destination, copy backward.
This is memmove() from uClibc:
```

void *memmove(void *dest, const void *src, size_t n)
{
int eax, ecx, esi, edi;
__asm__ __volatile__(
" movl %%eax, %%edi\n"
" cmpl %%esi, %%eax\n"
" je 2f\n" /* (optional) src == dest -> NOP */
" jb lf\n" /* src > dest -> simple copy */
" leal -1(%%esi,%%ecx), %%esi\n"
" leal -1(%%eax,%%ecx), %%edi\n"
" std\n"
"1: rep; movsb\n"
" cld\n"
"2:\n"
: "=\&C" (ecx), "=\&S" (esi), "=\&a" (eax), "=\&D" (edi)
: "0" (n), "1" (src), "2" (dest)
: "memory"
);
return (void*)eax;
}

```

In the first case, REP MOVSB is called with DF flag cleared. In the second, DF is set, then cleared.
More complex algorithm has the following piece in it:
"if difference between source and destination is larger than width of word, copy using words rather than bytes, and use byte-wise copy to copy unaligned parts".

This how it happens in Glibc 2.24 in non-optimized C part.
Given all that, memmove() may be slower than memсpy(). But some people, including Linus Torvalds, argue \({ }^{52}\) that memсру() should be an alias (or synonym) of memmove(), and the latter function must just check at start, if the buffers are overlapping or not, and then behave as memcpy() or memmove(). Nowadays, check for overlapping buffers is very cheap, after all.

\subsection*{3.24.1 Anti-debugging trick}

I've heard about anti-debugging trick where all you need is just set DF to crash the process: the very next memсpy() routine will lead to crash because it copies backwardly. But I can't check this: it seems all memory copy routines clear/set DF as they want to. On the other hand, memmove() from uClibc I cited here, has no explicit clear of DF (it assumes DF is always clear?), so it can really crash.

\subsection*{3.25 setjmp/longjmp}
setjmp/longjmp is a mechanism in \(C\) which is very similar to throw/catch mechanism in \(C++\) and other higher-level PLs. Here is an example from zlib:

\footnotetext{
52https://bugzilla.redhat.com/show_bug.cgi?id=638477\#c132
}
```

/* return if bits() or decode() tries to read past available input */
if (setjmp(s.env) != 0) /* if came back here via longjmp(), */
err = 2; /* then skip decomp(), return error */
else
err = decomp(\&s); /* decompress */

```
```

/* load at least need bits into val */
val = s->bitbuf;
while (s->bitcnt < need) {
if (s->left == 0) {
s->left = s->infun(s->inhow, \&(s->in));
if (s->left == 0) longjmp(s->env, 1); /* out of input */

```
    if (s->left == 0) \{
        s->left = s->infun(s->inhow, \&(s->in));
        if (s->left == 0) longjmp(s->env, 1); /* out of input */
( zlib/contrib/blast/blast.c )
Call to setjmp() saves current PC, SP and other registers into env structure, then it returns 0 .
In case of error, longjmp() teleporting you into the point after right after setjmp() call, as if setjmp() call returned non-null value (which was passed to longjmp()). This reminds as fork() syscall in UNIX.
Now let's take a look on distilled example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <setjmp.h>
jmp buf env;
void f2()
{
printf ("%s() begin\n", __ FUNCTION__);
// something odd happened here
longjmp (env, 1234);
printf ("%s() end\n", __FUNCTION__);
};
void f1()
{
printf ("%s() begin\n", FUNCTION
f2();
printf ("%s() end\n", __FUNCTION__);
};
int main()
{
int err=setjmp(env);
if (err==0)
{
f1();
}
else
{
printf ("Error %d\n", err);
};
};

```

If we run it, we will see:
```

f1() begin
f2() begin
Error 1234

```
jmp_buf structure usually comes undocumented, to preserve forward compatibility.
Let's see how setjmp() implemented in MSVC 2013 x64:


It just populates jmp_buf structure with current values of almost all registers. Also, current value of RA is taken from the stack and saved in jmp_buf: it will be used as new value of PC in future.
Now longjmp():


It just restores (almost) all registers, takes RA from structure and jumps there. This effectively works as if setjmp() returned to caller. Also, RAX is set to be equal to the second argument of longjmp(). This works as if setjmp() returned non-zero value at first place.
As a side effect of SP restoration, all values in stack which has been set and used between setjmp() and longjmp() calls are just dropped. They will not be used anymore. Hence, longjmp() usually jumps backwards \({ }^{53}\).

This implies that, unlike in throw/catch mechanism in \(\mathrm{C}++\), no memory will be freed, no destructors will be called, etc. Hence, this technique sometimes can be dangerous. Nevertheless, it's still quite popular. It's still used in Oracle RDBMS.

It also has unexpected side-effect: if some buffer has been overflown inside of a function (maybe due to remote attack), and a function wants to report error, and it calls longjmp(), overwritten stack part just gets unused.
As an exercise, you can try to understand, why not all registers are saved. Why XMM0-XMM5 and other registers are skipped?

\subsection*{3.26 Other weird stack hacks}

\subsection*{3.26.1 Accessing arguments/local variables of caller}

From \(\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++\) basics we know that this is impossible for a function to access arguments of caller function or its local variables.

Nevertheless, it's possible using dirty hacks. For example:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
void f(char *text)
{
// print stack
int *tmp=\&text;
for (int i=0; i<20; i++)
{
printf ("0x%x\n", *tmp);
tmp++;
};
};
void draw_text(int X, int Y, char* text)
{
f(text);
printf ("We are going to draw [%s] at %d:%d\n", text, X, Y);
};
int main()
{
printf ("address of main()=0x%x\n", \&main);
printf ("address of draw text()=0x%x\n", \&draw_text);
draw_text(100, 200, "Hello!");
};

```

On 32-bit Ubuntu 16.04 and GCC 5.4.0, I got this:
```

address of main()=0x80484f8
address of draw_text()=0\times80484cb
0x8048645 first argument to f()
0x8048628
0xbfd8ab98

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{53}\) However, there are some people who can use it for much more complicated things, imitating coroutines, etc: https://www. embeddedrelated.com/showarticle/455.php, http://fanf.livejournal.com/105413.html
}
```

0xb7634590
0xb779eddc
0xb77e4918
0xbfd8aba8
0x8048547 return address into the middle of main()
0x64 first argument to draw text()
0xc8 second argument to draw text()
0x8048645 third argument to draw_text()
0x8048581
0xb779d3dc
0xbfd8abc0
0x0
0xb7603637
0xb779d000
0xb779d000
0x0
0xb7603637

```

\section*{(Comments are mine.)}

Since \(f()\) starting to enumerate stack elements at its first argument, the first stack element is indeed a pointer to "Hello!" string. We see its address is also used as third argument to draw_text() function.
In \(f()\) we could read all functions arguments and local variables if we know exact stack layout, but it's always changed, from compiler to compiler. Various optimization levels affects stack layout greatly.

But if we can somehow detect information we need, we can use it and even modify it. As an example, l'll rework \(f()\) function:
```

void f(char *text)
{
// find 100, 200 values pair and modify the second on
tmp=\&text;
for (int i=0; i<20; i++)
{
if (*tmp==100 \&\& *(tmp+1)==200)
{
printf ("found\n");
*(tmp+1)=210; // change 200 to 210
break;
};
tmp++;
};
};

```

Holy moly, it works:
```

found

```
We are going to draw [Hello!] at 100:210

\section*{Summary}

It's extremely dirty hack, intended to demonstrate stack internals. I never ever seen or heard that anyone used this in a real code. But still, this is a good example.

\section*{Exercise}

The example has been compiled without optimization on 32-bit Ubuntu using GCC 5.4.0 and it works. But when I turn on -03 maximum optimization, it's failed. Try to find why.

Use your favorite compiler and OS, try various optimization levels, find if it's works and if it's not, find why.

\subsection*{3.26.2 Returning string}

This is classic bug from Brian W. Kernighan, Rob Pike, Practice of Programming, (1999):
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char* amsg(int n, char* s)
{
char buf[100];
sprintf (buf, "error %d: %s\n", n, s) ;
return buf;
};
int main()
{
amsg ("%s\n", interim (1234, "something wrong!"));
};

```

It would crash. First, let's understand, why.
This is a stack state before amsg() return:
```

(lower addresses)
[amsg(): 100 bytes]
[RA] <- current SP
[two amsg arguments]
[something else]
[main() local variables]
(upper addresses)

```

When amsg() returns control flow to main(), so far so good. But printf() is called from main(), which is, in turn, use stack for its own needs, zapping 100-byte buffer. A random garbage will be printed at the best.

Hard to believe, but I know how to fix this problem:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
char* amsg(int n, char* s)
{
char buf[100];
sprintf (buf, "error %d: %s\n", n, s) ;
return buf;
};
char* interim (int n, char* s)
{
char large buf[8000];
// make use of local array.
// it will be optimized away otherwise, as useless.
large_buf[0]=0;
return amsg (n, s);
};
int main()
{
printf ("%s\n", interim (1234, "something wrong!"));
};

```

It will work if compiled by MSVC 2013 with no optimizations and with /GS- option \({ }^{54}\). MSVC will warn: "warning C4172: returning address of local variable or temporary", but the code will run and message will be printed. Let's see stack state at the moment when amsg() returns control to interim():

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{54}\) Turn off buffer security check
}
```

(lower addresses)
[amsg(): 100 bytes]
[RA] <- current SP
[two amsg() arguments]
[interim() stuff, incl. 8000 bytes]
[something else]
[main() local variables]
(upper addresses)

```

Now the stack state at the moment when interim() returns control to main( ):
```

(lower addresses)
[amsg(): 100 bytes]
[RA]
[two amsg() arguments]
[interim() stuff, incl. 8000 bytes]
[something else] <- current SP
[main() local variables]
(upper addresses)

```

So when main() calls printf(), it uses stack at the place where interim()'s buffer was allocated, and doesn't zap 100 bytes with error message inside, because 8000 bytes (or maybe much less) is just enough for everything printf() and other descending functions do!
It may also work if there are many functions between, like: main() \(\rightarrow \mathrm{f} 1() \rightarrow \mathrm{f} 2() \rightarrow \mathrm{f} 3() \ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{amsg}()\), and then the result of amsg() is used in main(). The distance between SP in main() and address of buf[] must be long enough,

This is why bugs like these are dangerous: sometimes your code works (and bug can be hiding unnoticed), sometimes not. Bugs like these are jokingly called heisenbugs or schrödinbugs \({ }^{55}\).

\subsection*{3.27 OpenMP}

OpenMP is one of the simplest ways to parallelize simple algorithms.
As an example, let's try to build a program to compute a cryptographic nonce.
In my simplistic example, the nonce is a number added to the plain unencrypted text in order to produce a hash with some specific features.

For example, at some step, the Bitcoin protocol requires to find such nonce so the resulting hash contains a specific number of consecutive zeros. This is also called "proof of work" \({ }^{56}\) (i.e., the system proves that it did some intensive calculations and spent some time for it).
My example is not related to Bitcoin in any way, it will try to add numbers to the "hello, world!_" string in order to find such number that when "hello, world!_<number>" is hashed with the SHA512 algorithm, it will contain at least 3 zero bytes.

Let's limit our brute-force to the interval in 0..INT32_MAX-1 (i.e., 0x7FFFFFFE or 2147483646).
The algorithm is pretty straightforward:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <string.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
\#include <time.h>
\#include "sha512.h"
int found=0;
int32_t checked=0;
int32_t* __min;

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{55}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heisenbug
\({ }^{56}\) wikipedia
}
time t start;
\#ifdef GNUC
\#define \(\min (X, \bar{Y}) \quad((X)<(Y) \quad ?(X):(Y))\)
\#define \(\max (\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})((\mathrm{X})>(\mathrm{Y})\) ? (X) : (Y))
\#endif
void check nonce (int32 t nonce)
\{
    uint8_t buf[32];
        struct sha512 ctx ctx;
        uint8_t res[64];
        // update statistics
        int t=omp_get_thread_num();
        if ( \(\quad\) min \([t]==-1\) )
            min[t]=nonce;
        if ( \(\quad \max [t]==-1)\)
            \(\max [t]=\) nonce;
        min[t]=min(__min[t], nonce);
        _max[t]=max(__max[t], nonce);
        // idle if valid nonce found
        if (found)
            return;
        memset (buf, 0, sizeof(buf));
        sprintf (buf, "hello, world!_od", nonce);
        sha512_init_ctx (\&ctx);
        sha512_process_bytes (buf, strlen(buf), \&ctx);
        sha512_finish_ctx (\&ctx, \&res);
        if (res[0]==0 \(\& \&\) res[1]==0 \&\& res[2]==0)
        \{
        printf ("found (thread \%d): [\%s]. seconds spent=\%d\n", t, buf, time(NULL)-start»
    \(\rightarrow)\);
        found=1;
    \};
    \#pragma omp atomic
    checked++;
    \#pragma omp critical
    if ((checked \% 100000)==0)
        printf ("checked=\%d\n", checked);
\};
int main()
\{
```

int32 t i;
int threads=omp get max threads();
printf ("threads=%d\n", threads);
min=(int32 t*)malloc(threads*sizeof(int32 t));
max=(int32_t*)malloc(threads*sizeof(int32_t));
for (i=0; i<threads; i++)
min[i]=__max[i]=-1;
start=time(NULL);
\#pragma omp parallel for
for (i=0; i<INT32_MAX; i++)
check nonce (i);
for (i=0; i<threads; i++)
printf ("__min[%d]=0x%08x __max[%d]=0x%08x\n", i, __min[i], i, __max[i]);

```
free(__min); free(__max);
\};
The check_nonce () function just adds a number to the string, hashes it with the SHA512 algorithm and checks for 3 zero bytes in the result.

A very important part of the code is:
```

\#pragma omp parallel for
for (i=0; i<INT32_MAX; i++)
check_nonce (i);

```

Yes, that simple, without \#pragma we just call check_nonce() for each number from 0 to INT32_MAX (0x7fffffff or 2147483647 ). With \#pragma, the compiler adds some special code which slices the loop interval into smaller ones, to run them on all CPU cores available \({ }^{57}\).

The example can be compiled \({ }^{58}\) in MSVC 2012:
```

cl openmp_example.c sha512.obj /openmp /01 /Zi /Faopenmp_example.asm

```

Or in GCC:
```

gcc -fopenmp 2.c sha512.c -S -masm=intel

```

\subsection*{3.27.1 MSVC}

Now this is how MSVC 2012 generates the main loop:
Listing 3.122: MSVC 2012
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline push & 0FFSET_main\$omp\$1 \\
push & 0 \\
push & 1 \\
call & \(\overline{\text { esp }}\) vcomp_fork 16 \\
add & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

All functions prefixed by vcomp are OpenMP-related and are stored in the vcomp*.dll file. So here a group of threads is started.

Let's take a look on _main\$omp\$1:
Listing 3.123: MSVC 2012
```

\$T1 = -8 ; size = 4
$T2 = -4 ; size = 4
_main$omp\$1 PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push ecx
push ecx
push esi
lea eax, DWORD PTR \$T2[ebp]
push eax
lea eax, DWORD PTR \$T1[ebp]
push eax
push 1
push 1
push 2147483646 ; 7ffffffeH
push 0
call __vcomp_for_static_simple_init
mov \overline{esi, DWÖRD PTR \$T1[ebp]}
add esp, 24
jmp SHORT $LN6@main$omp\$1
$LL2@main$omp\$1:
push esi
call _check_nonce

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{57}\) N.B.: This is intentionally simplest possible example, but in practice, the usage of OpenMP can be harder and more complex
\({ }^{58}\) sha512.(c|h) and u64.h files can be taken from the OpenSSL library: http://go.yurichev.com/17324
}
\begin{tabular}{cl} 
pop & ecx \\
inc & esi \\
\$LN6@main\$omp\$1: & \\
cmp & esi, DWORD PTR \$T2[ebp] \\
jle & SHORT \$LL2@main\$omp\$1 \\
call & vcomp_for_static_end \\
pop & esi \\
leave & \\
ret & 0 \\
main\$omp\$1 ENDP
\end{tabular}

This function is to be started \(n\) times in parallel, where \(n\) is the number of CPU cores.
vcomp_for_static_simple_init() calculates the interval for the for() construct for the current thread, depending on the current thread's number.

The loop's start and end values are stored in the \$T1 and \$T2 local variables. You may also notice \(7 f f f f f f e h\) (or 2147483646 ) as an argument to the vcomp_for_static_simple_init() function-this is the number of iterations for the whole loop, to be divided evenly.

Then we see a new loop with a call to the check_nonce() function, which does all the work.
Let's also add some code at the beginning of the check_nonce() function to gather statistics about the arguments with which the function has been called.
This is what we see when we run it:
```

threads=4
checked=28000000
checked=30000000
checked=32000000
checked=33000000
found (thread 3): [hello, world!_1611446522]. seconds spent=3
min[0]=0x00000000 __max[0]=0x1fffffff
min[1]=0x200000000 max[1]=0x3fffffff
min[2]=0x40000000 _max[2]=0x5fffffff
min[3]=0x60000000 __max[3]=0x7ffffffe

```

Yes, the result is correct, the first 3 bytes are zeros:
C:\...\sha512sum test
000000f4a8fac5a4ed38794da4c1e39f54279ad5d9bb3c5465cdf57adaf60403
df6e3fe6019f5764fc9975e505a7395fed780fee50eb38dd4c0279cb114672e2 *test

The running time is \(\approx 2 . .3\) seconds on 4 -core Intel Xeon E3-1220 3.10 GHz . In the task manager we see 5 threads: 1 main thread +4 more. No further optimizations are done to keep this example as small and clear as possible. But probably it can be done much faster. My CPU has 4 cores, that is why OpenMP started exactly 4 threads.

By looking at the statistics table we can clearly see how the loop has been sliced into 4 even parts. Oh well, almost even, if we don't consider the last bit.

There are also pragmas for atomic operations.
Let's see how this code is compiled:
```

\#pragma omp atomic
checked++;
\#pragma omp critical
if ((checked % 100000)==0)
printf ("checked=%d\n", checked);

```

Listing 3.124: MSVC 2012
\begin{tabular}{rl} 
push & edi \\
push \\
call & 0FFSET_checked \\
; Line 55 & _vcomp_atomic_add_i4 \\
push & 0FFSET_\$vcomp\$critsect\$ \\
call & _lvcomp_enter_critsect
\end{tabular}
add esp, 12
; Line 56
mov ecx, DWORD PTR _checked
mov eax, ecx
cdq
mov esi, 100000 ; 000186a0H
idiv esi
test edx, edx
jne SHORT \$LN1@check_nonc
; Line 57
push ecx
push OFFSET ?? C@ 0M@NPNHLIOO@checked?\$DN?\$CFd?6?\$AA@
call _printf
pop ecx
pop ecx
\$LN1@check nonc:
push DWORD PTR _\$vcomp\$critsect\$
call __vcomp_leave_critsect
pop ecx

As it turns out, the vcomp_atomic_add_i4() function in the vcomp*.dIl is just a tiny function with the LOCK XADD instruction \({ }^{59}\) in it.
vcomp_enter_critsect() eventually calling win32 API function
EnterCriticalSection() \({ }^{60}\).

\subsection*{3.27.2 GCC}

GCC 4.8.1 produces a program which shows exactly the same statistics table, so, GCC's implementation divides the loop in parts in the same fashion.

Listing 3.125: GCC 4.8.1
```

mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:main._omp_fn.0
call GOMP parallel_start
mov edi, 0
call main._omp_fn.0
call GOMP_\overline{parā̄lel_end}

```

Unlike MSVC's implementation, what GCC code does is to start 3 threads, and run the fourth in the current thread. So there are 4 threads instead of the 5 in MSVC.

Here is the main._omp_fn. 0 function:
Listing 3.126: GCC 4.8.1
```

main._omp_fn.0:
push rbp
mov rbp, rsp
push rbx
sub rsp, 40
mov QWORD PTR [rbp-40], rdi
call omp get num threads
mov ebx, eax
call omp_get_thread_num
mov esi, eax
mov eax, 2147483647 ; 0x7FFFFFFF
cdq
idiv ebx
mov ecx, eax
mov eax, 2147483647 ; 0x7FFFFFFF
cdq
idiv ebx
mov eax, edx
cmp esi, eax
jl .L15

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{59}\) Read more about LOCK prefix: .1.6 on page 1026
\({ }^{60}\) You can read more about critical sections here: 6.5.4 on page 787
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.L18:} \\
\hline & imul & esi, ecx \\
\hline & mov & edx, esi \\
\hline & add & eax, edx \\
\hline & lea & ebx, [rax+rcx] \\
\hline & cmp & eax, ebx \\
\hline & jge & . L14 \\
\hline & mov & DWORD PTR [rbp-20], eax \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{. L17:} \\
\hline & mov & eax, DWORD PTR [rbp-20] \\
\hline & mov & edi, eax \\
\hline & call & check_nonce \\
\hline & add & DWORD PTR [rbp-20], 1 \\
\hline & cmp & DWORD PTR [rbp-20], ebx \\
\hline & jl & . L17 \\
\hline & jmp & . L14 \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.L15:} \\
\hline & mov & eax, 0 \\
\hline & add & ecx, 1 \\
\hline & j mp & . L18 \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{. L14:} \\
\hline & add & rsp, 40 \\
\hline & pop & rbx \\
\hline & pop & rbp \\
\hline & ret & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here we see the division clearly: by calling omp get num threads() and omp get thread num()
we get the number of threads running, and also the current thread's number, and then determine the loop's interval. Then we run check_nonce().
GCC also inserted the LOCK ADD
instruction right in the code, unlike MSVC, which generated a call to a separate DLL function:
Listing 3.127: GCC 4.8.1
```

lock add DWORD PTR checked[rip], 1
call GOMP critical start
mov ecx, DWORD PT\overline{R}}\mathrm{ checked[rip]
mov edx, 351843721
mov eax, ecx
imul edx
sar edx, 13
mov eax, ecx
sar eax, 31
sub edx, eax
mov eax, edx
imul eax, eax, 100000
sub ecx, eax
mov eax, ecx
test eax, eax
jne .L7
mov eax, DWORD PTR checked[rip]
mov esi, eax
mov edi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC2 ; "checked=%d\n"
mov eax, 0
call printf
. L7:
call GOMP_critical_end

```

The functions prefixed with GOMP are from GNU OpenMP library. Unlike vcomp*.dll, its source code is freely available: GitHub.

\subsection*{3.28 Another heisenbug}

Sometimes, array (or buffer) can overflow due to fencepost error:
```

\#include <stdio.h>
int array1[128];
int important varl;
int important_var2;
int important_var3;
int important var4;
int important_var5;
int main()
{
important_varl=1;
important_var2=2;
important var3=3;
important_var4=4;
important_var5=5;
array1[0]=123;
array1[128]=456; // BUG
printf ("important_varl=%d\n", important_var1);
printf ("important var2=%d\n", important var2);
printf ("important_var3=%d\n", important_var3);
printf ("important_var4=%d\n", important_var4);
printf ("important_var5=%d\n", important_var5);

```
\};

This is what this program printed in my case (non-optimized GCC \(5.4 \times 86\) on Linux):
```

important_varl=1
important_var2=456
important_var3=3
important_var4=4
important_var5=5

```

As it happens, important_var2 has been placed by compiler right after array1[]:
Listing 3.128: objdump -x
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 0804a040 & g & 0 & . bss & 00000200 & array1 \\
\hline 0804a240 & g & 0 & .bss & 00000004 & important_var2 \\
\hline 0804a244 & g & 0 & . bss & 00000004 & important_var4 \\
\hline 0804a248 & g & 0 & . bss & 00000004 & important_var1 \\
\hline 0804a24c & g & 0 & .bss & 00000004 & important_var3 \\
\hline 0804a250 & g & 0 & . bss & 00000004 & important_var5 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Other compiler can arrange variables in another order, and another variable would be zapped. This is also heisenbug ( 3.26 .2 on page 643)-bug may appear or may left unnoticed depending on compiler version and optimization switches.
It all variables and arrays are allocated in local stack, stack protection may be triggered, or may not. However, Valgrind can find bugs like these.

\subsection*{3.29 Windows 16-bit}

16-bit Windows programs are rare nowadays, but can be used in the cases of retrocomputing or dongle hacking ( 8.5 on page 815).
16-bit Windows versions were up to 3.11 . 95/98/ME also support 16 -bit code, as well as the 32 -bit versions of the Windows NT line. The 64 -bit versions of Windows NT line do not support 16-bit executable code at all.

The code resembles MS-DOS's one.
Executable files are of type NE-type (so-called "new executable").

All examples considered here were compiled by the OpenWatcom 1.9 compiler, using these switches:
wcl.exe -i=C:/WATCOM/h/win/ -s -os -bt=windows -bcl=windows example.c

\subsection*{3.29.1 Example\#1}
```

\#include <windows.h>
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
LPSTR lpCmdLine,
int nCmdShow )
{
MessageBeep(MB_ICONEXCLAMATION);
return 0;
};

```


Seems to be easy, so far.

\subsection*{3.29.2 Example \#2}
```

\#include <windows.h>
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
LPSTR lpCmdLine,
int nCmdShow )
{
MessageBox (NULL, "hello, world", "caption", MB_YESNOCANCEL)
return 0;
};

```


Couple important things here: the PASCAL calling convention dictates passing the first argument first (MB_YESNOCANCEL), and the last argument-last (NULL). This convention also tells the callee to restore the stack pointer: hence the RETN instruction has 0Ah as argument, which implies that the pointer has to be increased by 10 bytes when the function exits. It is like stdcall ( 6.1 .2 on page 734), but the arguments are passed in "natural" order.

The pointers are passed in pairs: first the data segment is passed, then the pointer inside the segment. There is only one segment in this example, so DS always points to the data segment of the executable.

\subsection*{3.29.3 Example \#3}
```

\#include <windows.h>
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
LPSTR lpCmdLine,
int nCmdShow )
{
int result=MessageBox (NULL, "hello, world", "caption", MB_YESNOCANCEL);
if (result==IDCANCEL)
MessageBox (NULL, "you pressed cancel", "caption", MB_OK);
else if (result==IDYES)
MessageBox (NULL, "you pressed yes", "caption", MB_OK);
else if (result==IDNO)
MessageBox (NULL, "you pressed no", "caption", MB_OK);
return 0;
};

```

\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline & push & ds \\
& mov & ax, offset aCaption ; "caption" \\
& push & ax \\
& xor & ax, ax \\
push & ax \\
& call & MESSAGEBOX \\
& & \\
& xor & ax, ax \\
& pop & bp \\
& retn & 0Ah \\
WinMain & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Somewhat extended example from the previous section.

\subsection*{3.29.4 Example \#4}
```

\#include <windows.h>
int PASCAL funcl (int a, int b, int c)
{
};
long PASCAL func2 (long a, long b, long c)
{
};
long PASCAL func3 (long a, long b, long c, int d)
{
return a*b+c-d;
};
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
LPSTR lpCmdLine,
int nCmdShow )
{
funcl (123, 456, 789);
func2 (600000, 700000, 800000);
func3 (600000, 700000, 800000, 123);
return 0;
};

```


\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline WinMain & \begin{tabular}{l}
mov \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
mov \\
push \\
call \\
xor \\
pop \\
retn \\
endp
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
ax, 27C0h \\
ax \\
ax, 0Ah \\
ax \\
ax, 0AE60h \\
ax \\
ax, 0Ch \\
ax \\
ax, 3500h \\
ax \\
ax, 7Bh \\
ax \\
func3 \\
ax, ax \\
bp \\
0Ah
\end{tabular} & low part of 600000 high part of 700000 low part of 700000 high part of 800000 low part of 800000 123 return 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

32-bit values (the long data type implies 32 bits, while int is 16 -bit) in 16 -bit code (both MS-DOS and Win16) are passed in pairs. It is just like when 64-bit values are used in a 32-bit environment ( 1.28 on page 396).
sub B2 here is a library function written by the compiler's developers that does "long multiplication", i.e. multiplies two 32-bit values. Other compiler functions that do the same are listed here: . 5 on page 1043, . 4 on page 1043.

The ADD/ADC instruction pair is used for addition of compound values: ADD may set/clear the CF flag, and ADC uses it after.

The SUB/SBB instruction pair is used for subtraction: SUB may set/clear the CF flag, SBB uses it after.
32-bit values are returned from functions in the DX:AX register pair.
Constants are also passed in pairs in WinMain() here.
The int-typed 123 constant is first converted according to its sign into a 32-bit value using the CWD instruction.

\subsection*{3.29.5 Example \#5}
```

\#include <windows.h>
int PASCAL string_compare (char *s1, char *s2)
{

```
```

while (1)

```
while (1)
{
{
        if (*s1!=*s2)
        if (*s1!=*s2)
            return 0;
            return 0;
        if (*s1==0 || *s2==0)
        if (*s1==0 || *s2==0)
            return 1; // end of string
            return 1; // end of string
        s1++;
        s1++;
        s2++;
        s2++;
        };
        };
};
int PASCAL string_compare_far (char far *s1, char far *s2)
{
    while (1)
    {
        if (*s1!=*s2)
            return 0;
        if (*s1==0 || *s2==0)
            return 1; // end of string
        s1++;
        s2++;
        };
};
```

```
void PASCAL remove_digits (char *s)
{
    while (*s)
    {
            if (*s>='0' && *s<='9')
            s++;
    };
};
char str[]="hello }1234\mathrm{ world";
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
                            HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
                        LPSTR lpCmdLine,
                        int nCmdShow )
{
    string_compare ("asd", "def");
    string_compare_far ("asd", "def");
    remove_digits (str);
    MessagēBox (NULL, str, "caption", MB_YESNOCANCEL);
    return 0;
};
```

```
string compare proc near
arg_0 = word ptr 4
arg_2 = word ptr 6
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    push si
    mov si, [bp+arg_0]
    mov bx, [bp+arg 2]
```

loc_12: ; CODE XREF: string_compare+21j
mov al, [bx]
cmp al, [si]
jz short loc_1C
xor ax, ax
jmp short loc_2B
loc_1C: ; CODE XREF: string_compare+Ej
test al, al
jz short loc 22
jnz short loc_27
loc_22: ; CODE XREF: string_compare+16j
mov ax, 1
jmp short loc_2B
loc_27: ; CODE XREF: string_compare+18j
inc bx
inc si
jmp short loc_12
loc_2B: ; CODE XREF: string_compare+12j
; string compare+1Dj
pop si
pop bp
retn 4
string_compare endp
string_compare_far proc near ; CODE XREF: WinMain+18p
arg_0 = word ptr 4

```
arg_2 = word ptr 6
arg_4 = word ptr 8
arg_6 = word ptr 0Ah
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    push si
    mov si, [bp+arg_0]
    mov bx, [bp+arg_4]
```

loc_3A: ; CODE XREF: string_compare_far+35j
mov es, [bp+arg_6]
mov al, es:[bx]
mov es, [bp+arg_2]
cmp al, es:[si]
jz short loc_4C
xor ax, ax
jmp short loc_67
loc_4C: ; CODE XREF: string_compare_far+16j
mov es, [bp+arg_6]
cmp byte ptr es:[bx], 0
jz short loc_5E
mov es, [bp+arg_2]
cmp byte ptr es:[si], 0
jnz short loc_63
loc_5E: ; CODE XREF: string_compare_far+23j
mov ax, 1
jmp short loc_67
loc_63: ; CODE XREF: string_compare_far+2Cj
inc bx
inc si
jmp short loc_3A
loc_67: ; CODE XREF: string_compare_far+1Aj
; string_compare_far+31j
pop si
pop bp
retn 8
string_compare_far endp
remove_digits proc near ; CODE XREF: WinMain+1Fp
arg_0 $=$ word ptr 4
push bp
mov $b p, s p$
mov bx, [bp+arg_0]
loc_72: ; CODE XREF: remove_digits+18j
mov al, [bx]
test al, al
jz short loc 86
cmp al, 30h ; '0'
jb short loc_83
cmp al, 39h ;'9'
ja short loc_83
mov byte ptr [bx], 2Dh ; '-'
loc_83: ; CODE XREF: remove_digits+Ej
; remove_digits+12j
inc $b x$
jmp short loc_72

```
loc_86: ; CODE XREF: remove_digits+Aj
    pop bp
    retn 2
remove_digits endp
WinMain proc near ; CODE XREF: start+EDp
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    mov ax, offset aAsd ; "asd"
    push ax
    mov ax, offset aDef ; "def"
    push ax
    call string_compare
    push ds
    mov ax, offset aAsd ; "asd"
    push ax
    push ds
    mov ax, offset aDef ; "def"
    push ax
    call string_compare_far
    mov ax, offset aHello1234World ; "hello 1234 world"
    push ax
    call remove_digits
    xor ax, ax
    push ax
    push ds
    mov ax, offset aHello1234World ; "hello 1234 world"
    push ax
    push ds
    mov ax, offset aCaption ; "caption"
    push ax
    mov ax, 3 ; MB_YESNOCANCEL
    push ax
    call MESSAGEBOX
    xor ax, ax
    pop bp
    retn 0Ah
WinMain endp
```

Here we see a difference between the so-called "near" pointers and the "far" pointers: another weird artifact of segmented memory in 16-bit 8086.
You can read more about it here: 11.6 on page 1003.
"near" pointers are those which point within the current data segment. Hence, the string_compare() function takes only two 16 -bit pointers, and accesses the data from the segment that DS points to (The mov $a l,[b x]$ instruction actually works like mov $a l$, $d s:[b x]-D S$ is implicit here).
"far" pointers are those which may point to data in another memory segment.
Hence string_compare_far() takes the 16-bit pair as a pointer, loads the high part of it in the ES segment register and accesses the data through it
(mov al, es:[bx]). "far" pointers are also used in my
MessageBox() win16 example: 3.29.2 on page 650. Indeed, the Windows kernel is not aware which data segment to use when accessing text strings, so it need the complete information.
The reason for this distinction is that a compact program may use just one 64 kb data segment, so it doesn't need to pass the high part of the address, which is always the same. A bigger program may use several 64 kb data segments, so it needs to specify the segment of the data each time.

It's the same story for code segments. A compact program may have all executable code within one 64 kb -segment, then all functions in it will be called using the CALL NEAR instruction, and the code flow will be returned using RETN. But if there are several code segments, then the address of the function is to be specified by a pair, it is to be called using the CALL FAR instruction, and the code flow is to be returned using RETF.

This is what is set in the compiler by specifying "memory model".
The compilers targeting MS-DOS and Win16 have specific libraries for each memory model: they differ by pointer types for code and data.

```
#include <windows.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <stdio.h>
char strbuf[256];
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
                                    HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
                    LPSTR lpCmdLine,
                int nCmdShow )
{
    struct tm *t;
    time_t unix_time;
    unix_time=time(NULL);
    t=localtime (&unix_time);
    sprintf (strbuf, "%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d", t->tm_year+1900, t->tm_mon, t->又
    tm_mday,
        t->tm_hour, t->tm_min, t->tm_sec);
    MessageBox (NULL, strbuf, "caption", MB_OK);
    return 0;
};
```



|  | call |
| :--- | :--- |
| xor | MESSAGEBOX |
|  | mov ax |
|  | pop |
|  | pp bp |
| hinMain | retn |
| endp | 0Ah |

UNIX time is a 32-bit value, so it is returned in the DX:AX register pair and stored in two local 16-bit variables. Then a pointer to the pair is passed to the localtime() function. The localtime() function has a struct tm allocated somewhere in the guts of the C library, so only a pointer to it is returned.

By the way, this also implies that the function cannot be called again until its results are used.
For the time() and localtime() functions, a Watcom calling convention is used here: the first four arguments are passed in the $A X, D X, B X$ and $C X$, registers, and the rest arguments are via the stack.

The functions using this convention are also marked by underscore at the end of their name.
sprintf() does not use the PASCAL calling convention, nor the Watcom one,
so the arguments are passed in the normal cdecl way ( 6.1 .1 on page 734).

## Global variables

This is the same example, but now these variables are global:

```
#include <windows.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <stdio.h>
char strbuf[256];
struct tm *t;
time_t unix_time;
int PASCAL WinMain( HINSTANCE hInstance,
                                    HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
                                    LPSTR lpCmdLine,
                int nCmdShow )
{
    unix_time=time(NULL);
    t=localtime (&unix_time);
    sprintf (strbuf, "%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d", t->tm_year+1900, t->tm_mon, t->L
    \iota tm_mday,
        t->tm hour, t->tm_min, t->tm_sec);
    MessageBox (NULL, strbuf, "caption", MB_OK);
    return 0;
};
```

```
unix_time_low dw 0
unix_time_high dw 0
t dw 0
WinMain proc near
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    xor ax, ax
    call time
    mov unix_time low, ax
    mov unix_time_high, dx
    mov ax, offset unix time low
    call localtime
    mov bx, ax
    mov t, ax ; will not be used in future...
    push word ptr [bx] ; seconds
    push word ptr [bx+2] ; minutes
    push word ptr [bx+4] ; hour
```


$t$ is not to be used, but the compiler emitted the code which stores the value.
Because it is not sure, maybe that value will eventually be used in some other module.

## Chapter 4

## Java

### 4.1 Java

### 4.1.1 Introduction

There are some well-known decompilers for Java (or JVM bytecode in general) ${ }^{1}$.
The reason is the decompilation of JVM-bytecode is somewhat easier than for lower level x86 code:

- There is much more information about the data types.
- The JVM memory model is much more rigorous and outlined.
- The Java compiler don't do any optimizations (the JVM JIT ${ }^{2}$ does them at runtime), so the bytecode in the class files is usually pretty readable.

When can the knowledge of JVM be useful?

- Quick-and-dirty patching tasks of class files without the need to recompile the decompiler's results.
- Analyzing obfuscated code.
- Building your own obfuscator.
- Building a compiler codegenerator (back-end) targeting JVM (like Scala, Clojure, etc. ${ }^{3}$ ).

Let's start with some simple pieces of code. JDK 1.7 is used everywhere, unless mentioned otherwise.
This is the command used to decompile class files everywhere:
javap -c -verbose.
This is the book I used while preparing all examples: [Tim Lindholm, Frank Yellin, Gilad Bracha, Alex Buckley, The Java(R) Virtual Machine Specification /Java SE 7 Edition] ${ }^{4}$.

### 4.1.2 Returning a value

Probably the simplest Java function is the one which returns some value.
Oh, and we must keep in mind that there are no "free" functions in Java in common sense, they are "methods".
Each method is related to some class, so it's not possible to define a method outside of a class.
But we'll call them "functions" anyway, for simplicity.

```
public class ret
{
    public static int main(String[] args)
    {
                                    return 0;
```

[^74]Let's compile it:

```
javac ret.java
```

...and decompile it using the standard Java utility:

```
javap -c -verbose ret.class
```

And we get:
Listing 4.1: JDK 1.7 (excerpt)

```
public static int main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args size=1
            0: iconst_0
            1: ireturn
```

The Java developers decided that 0 is one of the busiest constants in programming, so there is a separate short one-byte iconst_0 instruction which pushes 0
${ }^{5}$. There are also iconst_1 (which pushes 1 ), iconst_2, etc., up to iconst_5.
There is also iconst_m1 which pushes -1 .
The stack is used in JVM for passing data to called functions and also for return values. So iconst_0 pushes 0 into the stack. ireturn returns an integer value ( $i$ in name means integer) from the TOS ${ }^{6}$.

Let's rewrite our example slightly, now we return 1234:

```
public class ret
{
    public static int main(String[] args)
    {
        return 1234;
    }
}
```

...we get:
Listing 4.2: JDK 1.7 (excerpt)

```
public static int main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: sipush 1234
            3: ireturn
```

sipush (short integer) pushes 1234 into the stack. short in name implies a 16 -bit value is to be pushed. The number 1234 indeed fits well in a 16-bit value.

What about larger values?

```
public class ret
{
    public static int main(String[] args)
    {
        return 12345678;
    }
}
```

[^75]```
#2 = Integer 12345678
...
```

```
public static int main(java.lang.String[]);
```

public static int main(java.lang.String[]);
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
Code:
stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
0: ldc \#2 // int 12345678
0: ldc \#2 // int 12345678
2: ireturn

```
            2: ireturn
```

It's not possible to encode a 32-bit number in a JVM instruction opcode, the developers didn't leave such possibility.
So the 32 -bit number 12345678 is stored in so called "constant pool" which is, let's say, the library of most used constants (including strings, objects, etc.).
This way of passing constants is not unique to JVM.
MIPS, ARM and other RISC CPUs also can't encode a 32-bit number in a 32-bit opcode, so the RISC CPU code (including MIPS and ARM) has to construct the value in several steps, or to keep it in the data segment: 1.32 .3 on page 440, 1.33 .1 on page 443.
MIPS code also traditionally has a constant pool, named "literal pool", the segments are called ".lit4" (for 32 -bit single precision floating point number constants) and ".lit8" (for 64-bit double precision floating point number constants).

Let's try some other data types!

## Boolean:

```
public class ret
{
    public static boolean main(String[] args)
    {
        return true;
    }
}
```

```
public static boolean main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: iconst 1
            1: ireturn
```

This JVM bytecode is no different from one returning integer 1.
32-bit data slots in the stack are also used here for boolean values, like in C/C++.
But one could not use returned boolean value as integer or vice versa - type information is stored in the class file and checked at runtime.

It's the same story with a 16-bit short:

```
public class ret
{
    public static short main(String[] args)
    {
                return 1234;
    }
}
```

```
public static short main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: sipush 1234
            3: ireturn
```

```
public class ret
{
    public static char main(String[] args)
    {
        return 'A';
    }
}
```

```
public static char main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: bipush 65
            2: ireturn
```

bipush means "push byte". Needless to say that a char in Java is 16-bit UTF-16 character, and it's equivalent to short, but the ASCII code of the "A" character is 65 , and it's possible to use the instruction for pushing a byte in the stack.

Let's also try a byte:

```
public class retc
{
    public static byte main(String[] args)
    {
        return 123;
    }
}
```

```
public static byte main(java.lang.String[])
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: bipush 123
            2: ireturn
```

One may ask, why bother with a 16-bit short data type which internally works as a 32-bit integer?
Why use a char data type if it is the same as a short data type?
The answer is simple: for data type control and source code readability.
A char may essentially be the same as a short, but we quickly grasp that it's a placeholder for an UTF-16 character, and not for some other integer value.

When using short, we show everyone that the variable's range is limited by 16 bits.
It's a very good idea to use the boolean type where needed to, instead of the C-style int.
There is also a 64-bit integer data type in Java:

```
public class ret3
{
    public static long main(String[] args)
    {
        return 1234567890123456789L;
    }
}
```

Listing 4.4: Constant pool

```
#2 = Long 1234567890123456789l
```

public static long main(java.lang.String[]);
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1

```
0: ldc2_w #2 // long 12345678901234567891
3: lreturn
```

The 64-bit number is also stored in a constant pool, ldc2_w loads it and lreturn (long return) returns it.
The ldc2_w instruction is also used to load double precision floating point numbers (which also occupy 64 bits) from a constant pool:

```
public class ret
{
    public static double main(String[] args)
    {
    }
}
```

Listing 4.5: Constant pool

```
\cdots"#2 = Double 123.456d
...
```

    public static double main(java.lang.String[]);
        flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: ldc2_w \#2 // double 123.456d
            3: dreturn
    dreturn stands for "return double".
And finally, a single precision floating point number:

```
public class ret
{
    public static float main(String[] args)
    {
        return 123.456f;
    }
}
```

Listing 4.6: Constant pool

```
#2 = Float 123.456f
...
```

```
public static float main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: ldc #2 // float 123.456f
            2: freturn
```

The ldc instruction used here is the same one as for loading 32-bit integer numbers from a constant pool. freturn stands for "return float".

Now what about function that return nothing?

```
public class ret
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        return;
    }
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=0, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: return
```

This means that the return instruction is used to return control without returning an actual value.
Knowing all this, it's very easy to deduce the function's (or method's) returning type from the last instruction.

### 4.1.3 Simple calculating functions

Let's continue with a simple calculating functions.

```
public class calc
{
    public static int half(int a)
    {
    }
}
```

Here's the output when the iconst_2 instruction is used:

```
public static int half(int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: iload 0
            1: iconst 2
            2: idiv
            3: ireturn
```

iload_0 takes the zeroth function argument and pushes it to the stack.
iconst_2 pushes 2 in the stack. After the execution of these two instructions, this is how stack looks like:

```
    +---+
TOS ->| 2 |
    +---+
    | a |
    +---+
```

idiv just takes the two values at the TOS, divides one by the other and leaves the result at TOS:

```
TOS ->| re-----+
```

ireturn takes it and returns.
Let's proceed with double precision floating point numbers:

```
public class calc
{
    public static double half_double(double a)
    {
        return a/2.0
    }
}
```

Listing 4.7: Constant pool

```
#2 = Double
2.0d
...
```

```
public static double half double(double);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=2, args_size=1
            0: dload_0
            1: ldc2 w #2 // double 2.0d
            4: ddiv
            5: dreturn
```

It's the same, but the ldc2_w instruction is used to load the constant 2.0 from the constant pool. Also, the other three instructions have the $d$ prefix, meaning they work with double data type values.
Let's now use a function with two arguments:

```
public class calc
{
    public static int sum(int a, int b)
    {
    }
}
```

```
public static int sum(int, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
            0: iload 0
            1: iload 1
            2: iadd
            3: ireturn
```

iload_0 loads the first function argument (a), iload_1-second (b).
Here is the stack after the execution of both instructions:

```
        +---+
TOS ->| b |
    +---+
    | a |
    +---+
```

iadd adds the two values and leaves the result at TOS:

```
    +--------+
TOS ->| result |
    +-------+
```

Let's extend this example to the long data type:

```
public static long lsum(long a, long b)
{
    return a+b;
}
```

...we got:

```
public static long lsum(long, long);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=4, args_size=2
            0: lload 0
            1: lload 2
            2: ladd
            3: lreturn
```

The second $l$ load instruction takes the second argument from the 2 nd slot.
That's because a 64-bit long value occupies exactly two 32-bit slots.
Slightly more advanced example:

```
public class calc
{
    public static int mult_add(int a, int b, int c)
    {
        return a*b+c;
    }
}
```

```
public static int mult_add(int, int, int);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, A\overline{C}C STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=3, args size=3
            0: iload 0
            1: iload_1
            2: imul
            3: iload 2
            4: iadd
            5: ireturn
```

The first step is multiplication. The product is left at the TOS:

```
    +--------+
TOS ->| product |
    +--------+
```

iload_2 loads the third argument (c) in the stack:

```
+---------+
TOS -> | c |
    +---------+
    | product |
    +---------+
```

Now the iadd instruction can add the two values.

### 4.1.4 JVM memory model

x86 and other low-level environments use the stack for argument passing and as a local variables storage. JVM is slightly different.

It has:

- Local variable array ( $\mathrm{LVA}^{7}$ ). Used as storage for incoming function arguments and local variables. Instructions like iload_0 load values from it.
istore stores values in it. At the beginning the function arguments are stored: starting at 0 or at 1 (if the zeroth argument is occupied by this pointer).
Then the local variables are allocated.
Each slot has size of 32-bit.
Hence, values of long and double data types occupy two slots.
- Operand stack (or just "stack"). It's used for computations and passing arguments while calling other functions.

Unlike low-level environments like x86, it's not possible to access the stack without using instructions which explicitly pushes or pops values to/from it.

- Heap. It is used as storage for objects and arrays.

These 3 areas are isolated from each other.

[^76]4.1. JAVA

### 4.1.5 Simple function calling

Math. random( ) returns a pseudorandom number in range of [0.0 ...1.0), but let's say that for some reason we need to devise a function that returns a number in range of [0.0 ...0.5):

```
public class HalfRandom
{
    public static double f()
    {
        return Math.random()/2;
    }
}
```

Listing 4.8: Constant pool

```
    #2 = Methodref #18.#19 // java/lang/Math.random:()D
    #3 = Double
    2.0d
    #12 = Utf8 ()D
    #18 = Class #22 // java/lang/Math
    #19 = NameAndType #23:#12 // random:()D
    #22 = Utf8 java/lang/Math
    #23 = Utf8 random
```

```
public static double f();
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=0, args_size=0
            0: invokestatic #2 // Method java/lang/Math.random:()D
            3: ldc2 w #3 // double 2.0d
            6: ddiv
            : dreturn
```

invokestatic calls the Math. random( ) function and leaves the result at the TOS.
Then the result is divided by 2.0 and returned.
But how is the function name encoded?
It's encoded in the constant pool using a Methodref expression
It defines the class and method names.
The first field of Methodref points to a Class expression which, in turn, points to the usual text string ("java/lang/Math").

The second Methodref expression points to a NameAndType expression which also has two links to the strings.

The first string is "random", which is the name of the method.
The second string is "()D", which encodes the function's type. It means that it returns a double value (hence the $D$ in the string).

This is the way 1) JVM can check data for type correctness; 2) Java decompilers can restore data types from a compiled class file.

Now let's try the "Hello, world!" example:

```
public class HelloWorld
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.println("Hello, World");
    }
}
```

Listing 4.9: Constant pool


```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            3: ldc #3 // String Hello, World
            5: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            8: return
```

ldc at offset 3 takes a pointer to the "Hello, World" string in the constant pool and pushes in the stack. It's called a reference in the Java world, but it's rather a pointer, or an address 8.

The familiar invokevirtual instruction takes the information about the println function (or method) from the constant pool and calls it.

As we may know, there are several println methods, one for each data type.
Our case is the version of println intended for the String data type.
But what about the first getstatic instruction?
This instruction takes a reference (or address of) a field of the object System. out and pushes it in the stack.

This value is acts like the this pointer for the println method.
Thus, internally, the println method takes two arguments for input: 1) this, i.e., a pointer to an object;
2) the address of the "Hello, World" string.

Indeed, println() is called as a method within an initialized System. out object.
For convenience, the javap utility writes all this information in the comments.

### 4.1.6 Calling beep()

This is a simple calling of two functions without arguments:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    java.awt.Toolkit.getDefaultToolkit().beep();
};
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: invokestatic #2 // Method java/awt/Toolkit.getDefaultToolkit:()Ljava/awt/々
    Toolkit;
```

[^77]```
invokevirtual #3
// Method java/awt/Toolkit.beep:()V
```

6: return

First invokestatic at offset 0 calls
java. awt. Toolkit.getDefaultToolkit(), which returns a reference to an object of class Toolkit.
The invokevirtual instruction at offset 3 calls the beep() method of this class.

### 4.1.7 Linear congruential PRNG

Let's try a simple pseudorandom numbers generator, which we already considered once in the book ( 1.23 on page 338):

```
public class LCG
{
    public static int rand_state;
    public void my_srand (int init)
    {
            rand_state=init;
    }
    public static int RNG_a=1664525;
    public static int RNG_c=1013904223;
    public int my_rand ()
    {
        rand_state=rand_state*RNG a;
        rand_state=rand_state+RNG_c;
        return rand_sta\overline{te & 0x7fff};
    }
}
```

There are couple of class fields which are initialized at start.
But how? In javap output we can find the class constructor:

```
static {};
    flags: ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=0, args size=0
            0: ldc #5 // int 1664525
            2: putstatic #3 // Field RNG_a:I
            5: ldc #6 // int 1013904223
            : putstatic #4 // Field RNG c:I
            10: return
```

That's the way variables are initialized.
RNG_a occupies the 3rd slot in the class and RNG_c-4th, and putstatic puts the constants there.
The my_srand() function just stores the input value in rand_state:

```
public void my srand(int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=2, args size=2
            0: iload_1
            putstatic #2 // Field rand state:I
                return
```

iload_1 takes the input value and pushes it into stack. But why not iload_0?
It's because this function may use fields of the class, and so this is also passed to the function as a zeroth argument.

The field rand_state occupies the 2 nd slot in the class, so putstatic copies the value from the TOS into the 2 nd slot.

Now my rand():

```
public int my rand();
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: getstatic #2 // Field rand_state:I
            getstatic #3 // Field RNG_a:I
            imul
            putstatic #2 // Field rand_state:I
            getstatic #2 // Field rand_state:I
            getstatic #4 // Field RNG_c:I
            iadd
            putstatic #2 // Field rand_state:I
            getstatic #2 // Field rand_state:I
            sipush 32767
            iand
            ireturn
```

It just loads all the values from the object's fields, does the operations and updates rand_state's value using the putstatic instruction.

At offset 20, rand_state is reloaded again (because it has been dropped from the stack before, by putstatic).
This looks like non-efficient code, but be sure, the JVM is usually good enough to optimize such things really well.

### 4.1.8 Conditional jumps

Now let's proceed to conditional jumps.

```
public class abs
{
    public static int abs(int a)
    {
        if (a<0)
            return -a
        return a;
    }
}
```

```
public static int abs(int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=1, locals=1, args size=1
            0: iload_0
            1: ifge 7
            4: iload 0
            5: ineg
            6: ireturn
            7: iload 0
            8: ireturn
```

ifge jumps to offset 7 if the value at TOS is greater or equal to 0 .
Don't forget, any ifXX instruction pops the value (to be compared) from the stack.
ineg just negates value at TOS.
Another example:

```
public static int min (int a, int b)
{
        if (a>b)
            return b;
        return a;
}
```

We get:

```
public static int min(int, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
            0: iload_0
            1: iload 1
            : if icmple 7
            : iload 1
            6: ireturn
            : iload 0
            8: ireturn
```

if_icmple pops two values and compares them. If the second one is lesser than (or equal to) the first, a jump to offset 7 is performed.

When we define max() function ..

```
public static int max (int a, int b)
{
    if (a>b)
    return a;
    return b;
}
```

...the resulting code is the same, but the last two iload instructions (at offsets 5 and 7) are swapped:

```
public static int max(int, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
            stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
                0: iload 0
                1: iload 1
                : if icmple 7
                5: iload 0
                6: ireturn
                7: iload 1
                    8: ireturn
```

A more advanced example:

```
public class cond
{
    public static void f(int i)
    {
        if (i<100)
            System.out.print("<100");
        if (i==100)
                System.out.print("==100");
        if (i>100)
            System.out.print(">100");
        if (i==0)
            System.out.print("==0");
    }
}
```

```
public static void f(int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: iload 0
            1: bipush }10
            3: if icmpge 14
            getstatic #+
            9: ldc #3
            11: invokevirtual #
            // String <100
                            // Method java/io/PrintStream.print:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            14: iload 0
            15: bipush\overline{ }}10
            17: if_icmpne 28
            20: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
```

| 23: ldc | $\# 5$ | // String ==100 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 25: invokevirtual $\# 4$ | // Method java/io/PrintStream.print: (Ljava/lang/String;)V |  |
| 28: iload_0 |  |  |
| 29: bipush | 100 |  |
| 31: if_icmple | 42 |  |
| 34: getstatic | $\# 2$ | // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream; |
| 37: ldc | $\# 6$ | // String >100 |
| 39: invokevirtual $\# 4$ | // Method java/io/PrintStream.print:(Ljava/lang/String; )V |  |
| 42: iload_0 |  |  |
| 43: ifne | 54 |  |
| 46: getstatic | $\# 2$ | // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream; |
| 49: ldc | $\# 7$ | // String ==0 |
| 51: invokevirtual $\# 4$ | // Method java/io/PrintStream.print:(Ljava/lang/String;)V |  |
| 54: return |  |  |

if_icmpge pops two values and compares them. If the second one is larger than the first, a jump to offset 14 is performed.
if_icmpne and if_icmple work just the same, but implement different conditions.
There is also a ifne instruction at offset 43.
Its name is misnomer, it would've be better to name it ifnz (jump if the value at TOS is not zero).
And that is what it does: it jumps to offset 54 if the input value is not zero.
If zero, the execution flow proceeds to offset 46 , where the " $==0$ " string is printed.
N.B.: JVM has no unsigned data types, so the comparison instructions operate only on signed integer values.

### 4.1.9 Passing arguments

Let's extend our min()/max() example:

```
public class minmax
{
    public static int min (int a, int b)
    {
        if (a>b)
            return b;
    return a;
}
    public static int max (int a, int b)
{
    if (a>b)
            return a;
    return b;
}
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    int a=123, b=456;
    int max_value=max(a, b);
    int min_value=min(a, b);
    System.out.println(min_value);
    System.out.println(max_value);
}
}
```

Here is main() function code:

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=5, args size=1
            0: bipush 123
            2: istore 1
            3: sipush
                        4 5 6
```

```
istore 2
iload 1
iload 2
    invokēstatic #2 // Method max:(II)I
    istore_3
    iload 1
    iload 2
    invokestatic #3 // Method min:(II)I
    istore 4
    getstatic #4 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
    iload 4
    invokevirtual #5 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
    getstatic #4 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
    iload_3
    invokevirtual #5 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
    : return
```

Arguments are passed to the other function in the stack, and the return value is left on TOS.

### 4.1.10 Bitfields

All bit-wise operations work just like in any other ISA:

```
public static int set (int a, int b)
{
    return a | 1<<b;
}
public static int clear (int a, int b)
{
    return a & (~(1<<b));
}
```

```
public static int set(int, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args size=2
            0: iload_0
            1: iconst 1
            2: iload 1
            3: ishl
            4: ior
            5: ireturn
public static int clear(int, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args_size=2
            0: iload 0
            : iconst 1
            : iload_1
            3: ishl
            4: iconst ml
            5: ixor
            6: iand
            7: ireturn
```

iconst_m1 loads -1 in the stack, it's the same as the $0 x F F F F F F F F$ number.

XORing with $0 x F F F F F F F F$ has the same effect of inverting all bits ( 2.6 on page 461).
Let's extend all data types to 64-bit long:

```
public static long lset (long a, int b)
{
    return a | 1<<b;
}
```

```
public static long lclear (long a, int b)
{
    return a & (~(1<<b));
}
```

```
public static long lset(long, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=3, args size=2
            0: lload_0
            1: iconst 1
            2: iload 2
            3: ishl
            4: i2l
            5: lor
            6: lreturn
public static long lclear(long, int);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=3, args size=2
            0: lload_0
            1: iconst 1
            : iload \(\overline{2}\)
            : ishl
            : iconst m1
            5: ixor
            6: i2l
            7: land
            8: lreturn
```

The code is the same, but instructions with / prefix are used, which operate on 64-bit values.
Also, the second argument of the function still is of type int, and when the 32-bit value in it needs to be promoted to 64-bit value the i2l instruction is used, which essentially extend the value of an integer type to a long one.

### 4.1.11 Loops

```
public class Loop
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
        {
        System.out.println(i)
        }
    }
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args size=1
            0: iconst_1
            1: istore 1
            2: iload \(\overline{1}\)
            3: bipush 10
            5: if_icmpgt 21
            8: gē̄static \#2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            11: iload_1
            12: invokevirtual \#3 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
            15: iinc 1,
            18: goto 2
            21: return
```

iconst_1 loads 1 into TOS, istore_1 stores it in the LVA at slot 1.

Why not the zeroth slot? Because the main() function has one argument (array of String) and a pointer to it (or reference) is now in the zeroth slot.

So, the $i$ local variable will always be in 1st slot.
Instructions at offsets 3 and 5 compare $i$ with 10.
If $i$ is larger, execution flow passes to offset 21 , where the function ends.
If it's not, println is called.
$i$ is then reloaded at offset 11, for println.
By the way, we call the println method for an integer, and we see this in the comments: "(I)V" (I means integer and $V$ means the return type is void).

When println finishes, $i$ is incremented at offset 15.
The first operand of the instruction is the number of a slot (1), the second is the number (1) to add to the variable.
goto is just GOTO, it jumps to the beginning of the loop's body offset 2 .
Let's proceed with a more complex example:

```
public class Fibonacci
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
    int limit = 20, f = 0, g = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= limit; i++)
    {
        f = f + g
        g = f - g
        System.out.println(f);
        }
    }
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=5, args size=1
            bipush 20
            istore 1
            iconst 0
            istore-2
            iconst 1
                istore 3
                iconst-1
                istore 4
                iload 4
                iload_1
                if_icmpgt 37
                iload 2
                iload 3
                iadd
                istore 2
                iload_2
                iload_3
                isub
                istore 3
                getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
                iload 2
                invokevirtual #3 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
                iinc 4, l
                goto 10
                return
```

Here is a map of the LVA slots:

- 0 - the sole argument of main()
- 1 - limit, always contains 20
- 2 - f
- $3-9$
- $4-i$

We can see that the Java compiler allocates variables in LVA slots in the same order they were declared in the source code.

There are separate istore instructions for accessing slots $0,1,2$ and 3 , but not for 4 and larger, so there is istore with an additional operand at offset 8 which takes the slot number as an operand.

It's the same with iload at offset 10.
But isn't it dubious to allocate another slot for the limit variable, which always contains 20 (so it's a constant in essence), and reload its value so often?
JVM JIT compiler is usually good enough to optimize such things.
Manual intervention in the code is probably not worth it.

### 4.1.12 switch()

The switch() statement is implemented with the tableswitch instruction:

```
public static void f(int a)
{
    switch (a)
    {
    case 0: System.out.println("zero"); break;
    case 1: System.out.println("one\n"); break;
    case 2: System.out.println("two\n"); break;
    case 3: System.out.println("three\n"); break;
    case 4: System.out.println("four\n"); break;
    default: System.out.println("something unknown\n"); break;
    };
}
```

As simple, as possible:

```
public static void f(int);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: iload 0
            1: tableswitch { // 0 to 4
                    0: 36
                    1: 47
                    2: 58
                    3: 69
                    4: 80
                    default: 91
                }
                getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
                ldc #3 // String zero
            invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            goto 99
            getstatic #2
            ldc #5
                invokevirtual #4
            goto 99
            getstatic #2
            ldc #6
            invokevirtual #4
            goto 99
            getstatic #2
            ldc #7
            #7
                    // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
                    // String three\n
                            // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
                invokevirtual #4
            goto
            #4
                    // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
                // String one\n
                // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
                // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
                    // String two\n
                // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
                    // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/Stringi)V
            goto 99
```

```
80: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
83: ldc #8 // String four\n
85: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
88: goto 99
91: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
94: ldc #9 // String something unknown\n
96: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
99: return
```


### 4.1.13 Arrays

## Simple example

Let's first create an array of 10 integers and fill it:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    int a[]=new int[10];
    for (int i=0; i<10; i++)
    a[i]=i;
    dump (a);
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=3, args_size=1
            bipush 10
            newarray int
            astore 1
            iconst 0
            istore 2
            iload 2
            bipush10
            if icmpge 23
            aload_1
            iload 2
            iload-2
            iastore
            iinc 2, 1
            goto
            7
            aload_1
            invokestatic #4
                    #4 // Method dump:([I)V
            return
```

The newarray instruction creates an array object of 10 int elements.
The array's size is set with bipush and left at TOS.
The array's type is set in newarray instruction's operand.
After newarray's execution, a reference (or pointer) to the newly created array in the heap is left at the TOS.
astore_1 stores the reference to the 1st slot in LVA.
The second part of the main( ) function is the loop which stores $i$ into the corresponding array element. aload_1 gets a reference of the array and places it in the stack.
iastore then stores the integer value from the stack in the array, reference of which is currently in TOS.
The third part of the main() function calls the dump () function.
An argument for it is prepared by aload_1 (offset 23).
Now let's proceed to the dump () function:

```
public static void dump(int a[])
{
        for (int i=0; i<a.length; i++)
    System.out.println(a[i]);
}
```

```
public static void dump(int[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args_size=1
            0: iconst_0
            1: istore 1
            2: iload 1
            : aload_0
            4: arraylength
            5: if icmpge 23
            8: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            11: aload 0
            12: iload 1
            13: iaload
            14: invokevirtual #3 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
            17: iinc 1, 1
            20: goto 2
            23: return
```

The incoming reference to the array is in the zeroth slot.
The a.length expression in the source code is converted to an arraylength instruction: it takes a reference to the array and leaves the array size at TOS.
iaload at offset 13 is used to load array elements, it requires to array reference be present in the stack (prepared by aload_0 at 11), and also an index (prepared by iload_1 at offset 12).
Needless to say, instructions prefixed with a may be mistakenly comprehended as array instructions. It's not correct. These instructions works with references to objects.

And arrays and strings are objects too.

## Summing elements of array

Another example:

```
public class ArraySum
{
    public static int f (int[] a)
    {
        int sum=0;
        for (int i=0; i<a.length; i++)
            sum=sum+a[i];
        return sum;
    }
}
```

```
public static int f(int[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=3, args_size=1
            0: iconst_0
            1: istore 1
            2: iconst_0
            3: istore 2
            : iload 2
            5: aload-0
            6: arraylength
            7: if icmpge 22
            10: iload 1
            11: aload_0
```

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```
12: iload_2
iaload
iadd
istore 1
inc 2, 1
goto 4
iload 1
ireturn
```

LVA slot 0 contains a reference to the input array.
LVA slot 1 contains the local variable sum.

## The only argument of the main() function is an array too

We'll be using the only argument of the main( ) function, which is an array of strings:

```
public class UseArgument
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.print("Hi, ");
        System.out.print(args[1]);
        System.out.println(". How are you?");
    }
}
```

The zeroth argument is the program's name (like in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$, etc.), so the 1 st argument supplied by the user is 1st.

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            3: ldc #3 // String Hi,
            5: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.print:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            #: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            11: aload 0
            12: iconst_1
            13: aaload
            14: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.print:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            17: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            20: ldc #5 // String . How are you?
            22: invokevirtual #6 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            25: return
```

aload_0 at 11 loads a reference of the zeroth LVA slot (1st and only main() argument).
iconst_1 and aaload at 12 and 13 take a reference to the first (counting at 0) element of array.
The reference to the string object is at TOS at offset 14 , and it is taken from there by println method.

Pre-initialized array of strings

```
class Month
{
    public static String[] months =
    {
            "January",
            "February",
            "March",
            "April",
            "May",
            "June",
            "July",
            "August",
```

```
                "September",
                        "October",
                "November",
                "December"
    };
    public String get_month (int i)
    {
        return months[i];
    };
}
```

The get_month() function is simple: Функция get_month() проста:

```
public java.lang.String get_month(int);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
            0: getstatic #2 // Field months:[Ljava/lang/String;
            3: iload_1
            : aaload
            5: areturn
```

aaload operates on an array of references.
Java String are objects, so the a-instructions are used to operate on them.
areturn returns a reference to a String object.
How is the months [] array initialized?

```
static {};
    flags: ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=0, args size=0
            0: bipush 12
            2: anewarray #3 // class java/lang/String
            5: dup
            6: iconst_0
            7: ldc #4 // String January
            9: aastore
            10: dup
            11: iconst_1
            12: ldc #5 // String February
            14: aastore
            15: dup
            16: iconst 2
                17: ldc - #6 // String March
                19: aastore
                20: dup
                21: iconst_3
                22: ldc #7 // String April
                24: aastore
                25: dup
                26: iconst_4
                27: ldc #8 // String May
                29: aastore
                30: dup
                31: iconst 5
                32: ldc # #9 // String June
                34: aastore
                35: dup
                36: bipush 6
                38: ldc #10 // String July
                40: aastore
                41: dup
                42: bipush 7
                44: ldc #11 // String August
                46: aastore
                47: dup
        48: bipush
                        8
```

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| 50: ldc | $\# 12$ | // String September |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 52: aastore |  |  |
| 53: dup |  |  |
| 54: bipush | 9 |  |
| 56: ldc | $\# 13$ | // String October |
| 58: aastore |  |  |
| 59: dup |  |  |
| 60: bipush | 10 |  |
| 62: ldc | $\# 14$ | // String November |
| 64: aastore |  |  |
| 65: dup |  |  |
| 66: bipush | 11 |  |
| 68: ldc | $\# 15$ | // String December |
| 70: aastore |  |  |
| 71: putstatic | $\# 2$ | // Field months:[Ljava/lang/String; |
| 74: return |  |  |

anewarray creates a new array of references (hence a prefix).
The object's type is defined in the anewarray's operand, it is the
"java/lang/String" string.
The bipush 12 before anewarray sets the array's size.
We see here a new instruction for us: dup.
It's a standard instruction in stack computers (including the Forth programming language) which just duplicates the value at TOS.

By the way, FPU 80x87 is also a stack computer and it has similar instruction - FDUP.
It is used here to duplicate a reference to an array, because the aastore instruction pops the reference to array from the stack, but subsequent aastore will need it again.

The Java compiler concluded that it's better to generate a dup instead of generating a getstatic instruction before each array store operation (i.e., 11 times). aastore puts a reference (to string) into the array at an index which is taken from TOS.

Finally, putstatic puts reference to the newly created array into the second field of our object, i.e., months field.

## Variadic functions

Variadic functions actually use arrays:

```
public static void f(int... values)
{
        for (int i=0; i<values.length; i++)
            System.out.println(values[i]);
}
    public static void main(String[] args)
{
        f (1,2,3,4,5);
}
```

```
public static void f(int...);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC, ACC_VARARGS
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args size=1
            0: iconst_0
            : istore 1
            : iload 1
            : aload_0
            : array\̄ength
            5: if icmpge
            2 3
                getstatic #2
                            // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            11: aload 0
            12: iload_1
            13: iaload
```

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| $14:$ | invokevirtual $\# 3$ | // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 17: iinc | 1,1 |  |
| $20:$ goto | 2 |  |
| $23:$ return |  |  |

$f()$ just takes an array of integers using aload_0 at offset 3.
Then it gets the array's size, etc.

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=4, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: iconst 5
            1: newarray int
            3: dup
            : iconst 0
            : iconst_1
            6: iastore
            dup
            iconst 1
            iconst_2
            iastore
            dup
            iconst_2
            iconst 3
            iastore
            dup
            iconst 3
            iconst-4
            iastore
            dup
            iconst_4
            : iconst_5
            : iastore
            3: invokestatic #4 // Method f:([I)V
            26: return
```

The array is constructed in main() using the newarray instruction, then it's filled, and $f()$ is called.
Oh, by the way, array object is not destroyed at the end of main().
There are no destructors in Java at all, because the JVM has a garbage collector which does this automatically, when it feels it needs to.

What about the format () method?
It takes two arguments at input: a string and an array of objects:

```
public PrintStream format(String format, Object... args)
```

( http://docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/java/data/numberformat.html )
Let's see:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
        int i=123;
        double d=123.456;
        System.out.format("int: %d double: %f.%n", i, d);
    }
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=7, locals=4, args_size=1
            0: bipush 123
            2: istore_1
            3: ldc2 w- #2 // double 123.456d
            6: dstore 2
            7: getstatic #4 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
```

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So values of the int and double types are first promoted to Integer and Double objects using the value0f methods.

The format () method needs objects of type Object at input, and since the Integer and Double classes are derived from the root Object class, they suitable for elements in the input array.

On the other hand, an array is always homogeneous, i.e., it can't hold elements of different types, which makes it impossible to push int and double values in it.
An array of Object objects is created at offset 13, an Integer object is added to the array at offset 22, and a Double object is added to the array at offset 29.

The penultimate pop instruction discards the element at TOS, so when return is executed, the stack becomes empty (or balanced).

## Two-dimensional arrays

Two-dimensional arrays in Java are just one-dimensional arrays of references to another one-dimensional arrays.

Let's create a two-dimensional array:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    int[][] a = new int[5][10];
    a[1][2]=3;
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args size=1
            0: iconst_5
            . bipush 10
            : multianewarray #2, 2 // class "[[I"
            : astore 1
            : aload 1
            : icons\overline{t 1}
            10: aaload
            11: iconst 2
            12: iconst - 3
            13: iastore
            14: return
```

It's created using the multianewarray instruction: the object's type and dimensionality are passed as operands.
The array's size (10*5) is left in stack (using the instructions iconst_5 and bipush).
A reference to row \#1 is loaded at offset 10 (iconst_1 and aaload).
The column is chosen using iconst_2 at offset 11.
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The value to be written is set at offset 12 .
iastore at 13 writes the array's element.
How it is an element accessed?

```
public static int get12 (int[][] in)
{
    return in[1][2];
}
```

```
public static int get12(int[][])
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: aload 0
            1: iconst 1
            2: aaload
            3: iconst 2
            4: iaload
            5: ireturn
```

A Reference to the array's row is loaded at offset 2, the column is set at offset 3, then iaload loads the array's element.

## Three-dimensional arrays

Three-dimensional arrays are just one-dimensional arrays of references to one-dimensional arrays of references.

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    int[][][] a = new int[5][10][15];
    a[1][2][3]=4;
    get elem(a);
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args size=1
            0: iconst_5
            1: bipush 10
            3: bipush 15
            5: multianewarray #2, 3 // class "[[[I"
            : astore 1
            10: aload \overline{1}
            11: iconst_1
            12: aaload
            13: iconst 2
            14: aaload
            15: iconst 3
            16: iconst 4
            17: iastore
            18: aload_1
            19: invokēstatic #3 // Method get_elem:([[[I)I
            22: pop
            23: return
```

Now it takes two aaload instructions to find right reference:

```
public static int get elem (int[][][] a)
{
    return a[1][2][3];
}
```

```
public static int get elem(int[][][]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args_size=1
            0: aload 0
            : iconst 1
            aaload
            iconst 2
            aaload
            iconst 3
            iaload
            7: ireturn
```


## Summary

Is it possible to do a buffer overflow in Java?
No, because the array's length is always present in an array object, array bounds are controlled, and an exception is to be raised in case of out-of-bounds access.

There are no multi-dimensional arrays in Java in the C/C++ sense, so Java is not very suited for fast scientific computations.

### 4.1.14 Strings

## First example

Strings are objects and are constructed in the same way as other objects (and arrays).

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
        System.out.println("What is your name?");
        String input = System.console().readLine();
        System.out.println("Hello, "+input);
}
```

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=2, args size=1
            0: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            3: ldc #3 // String What is your name?
            5: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            8: invokestatic #5 // Method java/lang/System.console:()Ljava/io/Console;
            11: invokevirtual #6 // Method java/io/Console.readLine:()Ljava/lang/String;
            14: astore 1
            15: getstatic #2 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            18: new #7 // class java/lang/StringBuilder
            21: dup
                            // Method java/lang/StringBuilder."<init>":()V
            22: invokespecial #8 % // Method java/l
            27: invokevirtual #10 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String&
    \zeta)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
            30: aload_1
            31: invokevirtual #10 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String凤
    \zeta ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
            34: invokevirtual #11 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.toString:()Ljava/lang/\swarrow
    \ String;
        37: invokevirtual #4 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
            40: return
```

The readLine() method is called at offset 11, a reference to string (which is supplied by the user) is then stored at TOS.

At offset 14 the reference to string is stored in slot 1 of LVA.

The string the user entered is reloaded at offset 30 and concatenated with the "Hello," string using the StringBuilder class.

The constructed string is then printed using println at offset 37 .

## Second example

Another example:

```
public class strings
{
    public static char test (String a)
    {
        return a.charAt(3);
    };
    public static String concat (String a, String b)
    {
    }
}
```

```
public static char test(java.lang.String);
    flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=1, args size=1
            0: aload_0
            1: iconst 3
            2: invokeveirtual #2 // Method java/lang/String.charAt:(I)C
            5: ireturn
```

The string concatenation is performed using StringBuilder:

```
public static java.lang.String concat(java.lang.String, java.lang.String);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
            0: new #3 // class java/lang/StringBuilder
            3: dup
            4: invokespecial #4 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder."<init>":()V
            7: aload 0
            8: invokēvirtual #5 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String凤
    ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
            11: aload 1
            12: invokēvirtual #5 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String/
    \zeta ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
            15: invokevirtual #6 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.toString:()Ljava/lang/\swarrow
    String;
                18: areturn
```

Another example:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
        String s="Hello!";
        int n=123;
        System.out.println("s=" + s + " n=" + n);
}
```

And again, the strings are constructed using the StringBuilder class and its append method, then the constructed string is passed to println:

```
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC STATIC
    Code:
        stack=3, locals=3, args_size=1
            0: ldc #2 // String Hello!
            2: astore_1
```

```
bipush 123
istore 2
getstatic #3 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
new #4 // class java/lang/StringBuilder
५ ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
    21: aload 1
    22: invokevirtual #7
\zeta ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
    25: ldc #8 // String n=
    27: invokevirtual #
५ ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
    30: iload 2
    31: invokevirtual #9 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(I)Ljava/lang/r
\zeta StringBuilder;
    34: invokevirtual #10
String;
    37: invokevirtual #11 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
40: return
```

// Method java/lang/StringBuilder."<init>":()V

```
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder."<init>":()V
// String s=
// String s=
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String_
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String_
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String\curvearrowright
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String\curvearrowright
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String/
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String/
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.toString:()Ljava/lang/&
```

```
// Method java/lang/StringBuilder.toString:()Ljava/lang/&
```

```

\subsection*{4.1.15 Exceptions}

Let's rework our Month example ( 4.1 .13 on page 681 ) a bit:
Listing 4.10: IncorrectMonthException.java
```

public class IncorrectMonthException extends Exception
{
private int index;
public IncorrectMonthException(int index)
{
this.index = index;
}
public int getIndex()
{
return index;
}
}

```

Listing 4.11: Month2.java
class Month2
\{
```

    public static String[] months =
    {
        "January",
        "February",
            "March"
            "April",
            "May",
            "June",
            "July",
            "August",
            "September",
            "October"
            "November",
            "December"
    };
    public static String get month (int i) throws IncorrectMonthException
    {
        if (i<0 || i>11)
                throw new IncorrectMonthException(i);
    return months[i];
    ```
```

    };
    public static void main (String[] args)
    {
        try
        {
                System.out.println(get_month(100));
        }
        catch(IncorrectMonthException e)
        {
            System.out.println("incorrect month index: "+ e.getIndex());
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    };
    }

```

Essentially, IncorrectMonthException.class has just an object constructor and one getter method.
The IncorrectMonthException class is derived from Exception, so the IncorrectMonthException constructor first calls the constructor of the Exception class, then it puts incoming integer value into the sole IncorrectMonthException class field:
```

public IncorrectMonthException(int);
flags: ACC PUBLIC
Code:
stack=2, locals=2, args_size=2
0: aload 0
1: invokēspecial \#1 // Method java/lang/Exception."<init>":()V
4: aload_0
5: iload 1
6: putfiēld \#2 // Field index:I
9: return

```
getIndex() is just a getter. A reference to IncorrectMonthException is passed in the zeroth LVA slot (this), aload_0 takes it, getfield loads an integer value from the object, ireturn returns it.
```

public int getIndex();
flags: ACC PUBLIC
Code:
stack=1, locals=1, args size=1
0: aload 0
1: getfield \#2 // Field index:I
4: ireturn

```

Now let's take a look at get_month() in Month2.class:
Listing 4.12: Month2.class
```

public static java.lang.String get_month(int) throws IncorrectMonthException;
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
stack=3, locals=1, args_size=1
0: iload_0
iflt 10
: iload_0
: bipush 11
: if icmple 19
10: new / \#2 class IncorrectMonthException
13: dup
14: iload 0
15: invokēspecial \#3 // Method IncorrectMonthException."<init>":(I)V
18: athrow
19: getstatic \#4 // Field months:[Ljava/lang/String;
22: iload_0
23: aaload
24: areturn

```
iflt at offset 1 is if less than.
In case of invalid index, a new object is created using the new instruction at offset 10.
4.1. JAVA

The object's type is passed as an operand to the instruction (which is IncorrectMonthException).
Then its constructor is called, and index is passed via TOS (offset 15).
When the control flow is offset 18, the object is already constructed, so now the athrow instruction takes a reference to the newly constructed object and signals to JVM to find the appropriate exception handler.

The athrow instruction doesn't return the control flow here, so at offset 19 there is another basic block, not related to exceptions business, where we can get from offset 7 .

How do handlers work?
main() in Month2.class:
Listing 4.13: Month2.class
```

public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
stack=3, locals=2, args_size=1
0: getstatic \#5 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
3: bipush 100
5: invokestatic \#6 // Method get_month:(I)Ljava/lang/String;
8: invokevirtual \#7 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
11: goto 47
14: astore_1
15: getstatic \#5 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
18: new \#8 // class java/lang/StringBuilder
21: dup
22: invokespecial \#9 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder."<init>":()V
25: ldc \#10 // String incorrect month index:
27: invokevirtual \#11 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(Ljava/lang/String}
\zeta ;)Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
30: aload 1
31: invokevirtual \#12 // Method IncorrectMonthException.getIndex:()I
34: invokevirtual \#13 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.append:(I)Ljava/lang/\&
StringBuilder;
37: invokevirtual \#14 // Method java/lang/StringBuilder.toString:()Ljava/lang/\&
\String;
40: invokevirtual \#7 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(Ljava/lang/String;)V
43: aload_1
44: invokevirtual \#15 // Method IncorrectMonthException.printStackTrace:()V
47: return
Exception table:
from to target type
0}1114\quad\mathrm{ Class IncorrectMonthException

```

Here is the Exception table, which defines that from offsets 0 to 11 (inclusive) an exception IncorrectMonthException may happen, and if it does, the control flow is to be passed to offset 14. Indeed, the main program ends at offset 11.

At offset 14 the handler starts. It's not possible to get here, there are no conditional/unconditional jumps to this area.

But JVM will transfer the execution flow here in case of an exception.
The very first astore_1 (at 14) takes the incoming reference to the exception object and stores it in LVA slot 1.

Later, the getIndex() method (of this exception object) will be called at offset 31.
The reference to the current exception object is passed right before that (offset 30).
The rest of the code is does just string manipulation: first the integer value returned by getIndex() is converted to string by the toString() method, then it's concatenated with the "incorrect month index: " text string (like we saw before), then println() and printStackTrace() are called.
After printStackTrace() finishes, the exception is handled and we can continue with the normal execution.

At offset 47 there is a return which finishes the main( ) function, but there could be any other code which would execute as if no exceptions were raised.
Here is an example on how IDA shows exception ranges:

Listing 4.14: from some random .class file found on the author's computer
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_335 to met001_360\ using met001_360
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_185 to met001_214 using met001 214
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_181 to met001_192 using met001_195
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001 155 to met001 176\} using met001 176
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_83 to met001_129 using \} met001 129
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_42 to met001_66 using \}
met001_69
.catch java/io/FileNotFoundException from met001_begin to met001_37\}
using met001_37

\subsection*{4.1.16 Classes}

Simple class:
Listing 4.15: test.java
```

public class test
{
public static int a;
private static int b;
public test()
{
a=0;
b=0;
}
public static void set_a (int input)
{
a=input;
}
public static int get_a ()
{
return a;
}
public static void set_b (int input)
{
b=input;
}
public static int get_b ()
{
return b;
}
}

```

The constructor just sets both fields to zero:
```

public test();
flags: ACC_PUBLIC
Code:
stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
0: aload 0
1: invokēspecial \#1 // Method java/lang/Object."<init>":()V
4: iconst 0
5: putstātic \#2 // Field a:I
8: iconst 0
9: putstatic \#3 // Field b:I
12: return

```

\section*{Setter of a:}
public static void set_a(int);
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC

Code:
stack=1, locals=1, args_size=1
0: iload 0
1: putstatic \#2 // Field a:I
4: return

Getter of a:
```

public static int get a();
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, \overline{A}CC_STATIC
Code:
stack=1, locals=0, args size=0
0: getstatic \#2 // Field a:I
3: ireturn

```

Setter of b:
```

public static void set b(int);
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
stack=1, locals=1, args size=1
0: iload_0
1: putstatic \#3 // Field b:I
4: return

```

Getter of \(b\) :
```

public static int get_b();
flags: ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
Code:
stack=1, locals=0, args_size=0
0: getstatic \#3 // Field b:I
3: ireturn

```

There is no difference in the code which works with public and private fields.
But this type information is present in the .class file, and it's not possible to access private fields from everywhere.

Let's create an object and call its method:
Listing 4.16: ex1.java
```

public class ex1
{
public static void main(String[] args)
{
test obj=new test();
obj.set_a (1234)
System.out.println(obj.a);
}
}

```
```

    public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
    flags: ACC PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC
    Code:
        stack=2, locals=2, args_size=1
            0: new #2 // class test
            dup
            : invokespecial #3 // Method test."<init>":()V
            : astore 1
            8: aload 1
            9: pop
            10: sipush 1234
            13: invokestatic #4 // Method test.set_a:(I)V
            16: getstatic #5 // Field java/lang/System.out:Ljava/io/PrintStream;
            19: aload_1
            20: pop
            21: getstatic #6 // Field test.a:I
            24: invokevirtual #7 // Method java/io/PrintStream.println:(I)V
            27: return
    ```
4.1. JAVA

The new instruction creates an object, but doesn't call the constructor (it is called at offset 4).
The set_a() method is called at offset 16.
The a field is accessed using the getstatic instruction at offset 21.

\subsection*{4.1.17 Simple patching}

\section*{First example}

Let's proceed with a simple code patching task.
```

public class nag
{
public static void nag_screen()
{
System.out.println("This program is not registered");
};
public static void main(String[] args)
{
System.out.println("Greetings from the mega-software");
nag_screen();
}
}

```

How would we remove the printing of "This program is not registered" string?
Let's load the .class file into IDA:
```

; Segment type: Pure code
.method public static nag_screen()U
.limit stack 2
.line 4
178 009 0. | getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream; ; CODE XREF: main+8\&P
018 003 1dc "This program is not registered"
182 050 004 invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
_line 5
return
.end method
??? ??? ???+
??? ??? ???+
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------
; Segment type: Pure code
.method public static main([Ljava/lang/String;)u
.limit stack 2
.limit locals 1
.line 8
178 }00600
getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
018 605 ldc "Greetings from the mega-software"
182 500 604 invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)v
.line 9
invokestatic nag-nag_screen()U
.line 10
return

```

Figure 4.1: IDA

Let's patch the first byte of the function to 177 (which is the return instruction's opcode):
4.1. JAVA


Figure 4.2: IDA

But that doesn't work (JRE 1.7):
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.VerifyError: Expecting a stack map frame Exception Details:

Location: nag.nag_screen()V @1: nop
Reason: Error exists in the bytecode
Bytecode: 0000000: b100 0212 03b6 0004 b1
at java.lang.Class.getDeclaredMethods0(Native Method)
at java.lang.Class.privateGetDeclaredMethods(Class.java:2615)
at java.lang.Class.getMethod0(Class.java:2856)
at java.lang. Class.getMethod(Class.java:1668)
at sun.launcher.LauncherHelper.getMainMethod(LauncherHelper.java:494)
at sun.launcher. LauncherHelper.checkAndLoadMain(LauncherHelper.java:486)

Perhaps JVM has some other checks related to the stack maps.
OK, let's patch it differently by removing the call to nag():


Figure 4.3: IDA

0 is the opcode for NOP.
Now that works!

Another simple crackme example:
```

public class password
{
public static void main(String[] args)
{
System.out.println("Please enter the password");
String input = System.console().readLine();
if (input.equals("secret"))
System.out.println("password is correct");
else
System.out.println("password is not correct");
}
}

```

Let's load it in IDA:

Figure 4.4: IDA

We see here the ifeq instruction which does the job.
Its name stands for if equal, and this is misnomer, a better name would be ifz (if zero), i.e, if value at TOS is zero, then do the jump.

In our example, it jumps if the password is not correct (the equals method returns False, which is 0 ).
The very first idea is to patch this instruction.
There are two bytes in ifeq opcode, which encode the jump offset.
To make this instruction a NOP, we must set the 3rd byte to the value of 3 (because by adding 3 to the current address we will always jump to the next instruction, since the ifeq instruction's length is 3 bytes):
```

; Segment type: Pure code
.method public static main([Ljava/lang/String;)U
.limit stack 2
.limit locals 2
.line 3

```
        getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
```

        getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
        ldc "Please enter the password"
        ldc "Please enter the password"
        invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
        invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
    .line 4
    .line 4
        inuokestatic java/lang/System.console()Ljava/io/Console;
        inuokestatic java/lang/System.console()Ljava/io/Console;
        inuokevirtual java/io/Console.readLine()Ljava/lang/String;
        inuokevirtual java/io/Console.readLine()Ljava/lang/String;
        astore_1 ; met082_slot001
        astore_1 ; met082_slot001
    .line 5
    .line 5
        aload_1 ; met002_slot001
        aload_1 ; met002_slot001
        ldc "secret"
        ldc "secret"
        inuokevirtual java/lang/String.equals(Ljava/lang/object;)z
        inuokevirtual java/lang/String.equals(Ljava/lang/object;)z
        ifeq met002_24
        ifeq met002_24
    .line 6
    .line 6
    met002_24: ; CODE XREF: main+21îj
met002_24: ; CODE XREF: main+21îj
getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
ldc "'password is correct"'
ldc "'password is correct"'
invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
invokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
goto met@s2_43
goto met@s2_43
.line 8
.line 8
.stack use locals
.stack use locals
locals 0bject java/lang/String
locals 0bject java/lang/String
.end stack
.end stack
getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
ldc "'password is not correct"'
ldc "'password is not correct"'
inuokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
inuokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
.line 9

```
        .line 9
```

```
178 @勹巳 0.2
```

178 @勹巳 0.2
018 }00
018 }00
182 ตอง 094
182 ตอง 094
184 ఏ0] 005
184 ఏ0] 005
182 005 006
182 005 006
076
076
043
043
018 007
018 007
182 005 ต08
182 005 ต08
153 ตอย อ03
153 ตอย อ03
178 005 002
178 005 002
918 }06
918 }06
182 006 004
182 006 004
167 005 011
167 005 011
178 00! 002

```
    178 00! 002
```

Figure 4．5：IDA

That doesn＇t work（JRE 1．7）：

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.VerifyError: Expecting a stackmap frame at branch target }
        \zeta24
Exception Details:
    Location
        password.main([Ljava/lang/String;)V @21: ifeq
    Reason:
        Expected stackmap frame at this location.
    Bytecode
        0000000: b200 0212 03b6 0004 b800 05b6 0006 4c2b
        0000010: 1207 b600 0899 0003 b200 0212 09b6 0004
        0000020: a700 0bb2 0002 120a b600 04b1
    Stackmap Table:
        append frame(@35,0bject[#20])
        same_frame(@43)
            at java.lang.Class.getDeclaredMethods0(Native Method)
            at java.lang.Class.privateGetDeclaredMethods(Class.java:2615)
            at java.lang.Class.getMethod0(Class.java:2856)
            at java.lang.Class.getMethod(Class.java:1668)
            at sun.launcher.LauncherHelper.getMainMethod(LauncherHelper.java:494)
            at sun.launcher.LauncherHelper.checkAndLoadMain(LauncherHelper.java:486)
```

But it must be mentioned that it worked in JRE 1．6．
We can also try to replace to all 3 ifeq opcode bytes with zero bytes（NOP），and it still won＇t work．
Seems like there are more stack map checks in JRE 1．7．
OK，we＇ll replace the whole call to the equals method with the iconst＿1 instruction plus a pack of NOPs：
4.1. JAVA

```
; Segment type: Pure code
        .method public static main([Ljava/lang/String;)U
    .limit stack 2
    .limit locals 2
    .line 3
        getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
        ldc "'Please enter the password"'
        inuokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
        .line 4
        inuokestatic java/lang/System.console()Ljava/io/Console;
        inuokevirtual java/io/Console.readLine()Ljava/lang/String;
        astore_1 ; met@b2_slot@01
        .line 5
        iconst_1
        nop
        nop
        nop
        nop
        nop
        ifeq met002_35
    .line 6
        getstatic java/lang/System.out Ljava/io/PrintStream;
        ldc "password is correct"
        inuokevirtual java/io/PrintStream.println(Ljava/lang/String;)U
        goto met052_43
    .line 8
    met002_35: ; CODE XREF: main+21îj
178 ตฏ5 ต.2
        .stack use locals
            locals Object java/lang/String
        end stack
```

Figure 4.6: IDA

1 needs always to be in the TOS when the ifeq instruction is executed, so ifeq would never jump. This works.

### 4.1.18 Summary

What is missing in Java in comparison to $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ ?

- Structures: use classes.
- Unions: use class hierarchies.
- Unsigned data types. By the way, this makes cryptographic algorithms somewhat harder to implement in Java.
- Function pointers.


## Chapter 5

## Finding important/interesting stuff in the code

Minimalism it is not a prominent feature of modern software.
But not because the programmers are writing a lot, but because a lot of libraries are commonly linked statically to executable files. If all external libraries were shifted into an external DLL files, the world would be different. (Another reason for C++ are the STL and other template libraries.)
Thus, it is very important to determine the origin of a function, if it is from standard library or well-known library (like Boost ${ }^{1}$, libpng ${ }^{2}$ ), or if it is related to what we are trying to find in the code.
It is just absurd to rewrite all code in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ to find what we're looking for.
One of the primary tasks of a reverse engineer is to find quickly the code he/she needs.
The IDA disassembler allow us to search among text strings, byte sequences and constants. It is even possible to export the code to .Ist or .asm text files and then use grep, awk, etc.
When you try to understand what some code is doing, this easily could be some open-source library like libpng. So when you see some constants or text strings which look familiar, it is always worth to google them. And if you find the opensource project where they are used, then it's enough just to compare the functions. It may solve some part of the problem.
For example, if a program uses XML files, the first step may be determining which XML library is used for processing, since the standard (or well-known) libraries are usually used instead of self-made one.
For example, the author of these lines once tried to understand how the compression/decompression of network packets works in SAP 6.0. It is a huge software, but a detailed .PDB with debugging information is present, and that is convenient. He finally came to the idea that one of the functions, that was called CsDecomprLZC, was doing the decompression of network packets. Immediately he tried to google its name and he quickly found the function was used in MaxDB (it is an open-source SAP project) ${ }^{3}$.
http://www.google.com/search?q=CsDecomprLZC
Astoundingly, MaxDB and SAP 6.0 software shared likewise code for the compression/decompression of network packets.

### 5.1 Identification of executable files

### 5.1.1 Microsoft Visual C++

MSVC versions and DLLs that can be imported:

[^78]| Marketing ver. | Internal ver. | CL.EXE ver. | DLLs imported | Release date |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 6 | 6.0 | 12.00 | msvcrt.dII <br> msvcp60.dII | June 1998 |
| NET (2002) | 7.0 | 13.00 | msvcr70.dII <br> msvcp70.dII | February 13, 2002 |
| NET 2003 | 7.1 | 13.10 | msvcr71.dII <br> msvcp71.dII | April 24, 2003 |
| 2005 | 8.0 | 14.00 | msvcr80.dII <br> msvcp80.dII | November 7, 2005 |
| 2008 | 9.0 | 15.00 | msvcr90.dII <br> msvcp90.dII | November 19, 2007 |
| 2010 | 10.0 | 16.00 | msvcr100.dII <br> msvcp100.dII | April 12, 2010 |
| 2012 | 11.0 | 17.00 | msvcr110.dII <br> msvcp110.dII | September 12, 2012 |
| 2013 | 12.0 | 18.00 | msvcr120.dII <br> msvcp120.dII | October 17, 2013 |

msvcp*.dII has C++-related functions, so if it is imported, this is probably a C++ program.

## Name mangling

The names usually start with the ? symbol.
You can read more about MSVC's name mangling here: 3.18.1 on page 542.

### 5.1.2 GCC

Aside from *NIX targets, GCC is also present in the win32 environment, in the form of Cygwin and MinGW.

## Name mangling

Names usually start with the _Z symbols.
You can read more about GCC's name mangling here: 3.18.1 on page 542.

## Cygwin

cygwin1.dll is often imported.

## MinGW

msvcrt.dll may be imported.

### 5.1.3 Intel Fortran

libifcoremd.dII, libifportmd.dIl and libiomp5md.dII (OpenMP support) may be imported.
libifcoremd.dll has a lot of functions prefixed with for_, which means Fortran.

### 5.1.4 Watcom, OpenWatcom

## Name mangling

Names usually start with the W symbol.
For example, that is how the method named "method" of the class "class" that does not have any arguments and returns void is encoded:

### 5.1.5 Borland

Here is an example of Borland Delphi's and C++Builder's name mangling:
@TApplication@IdleAction\$qv
@TApplication@ProcessMDIAccels\$qp6tagMSG
@TModule@\$bctr\$qpcpvt1
@TModule@\$bdtr\$qv
@TModule@ValidWindow\$qp14TWindowsObject
@TrueColorTo8BitN\$qpviiiiiit1iiiiii
@TrueColorTo16BitN\$qpviiiiiit1iiiiii
@DIB24BitTo8BitBitmap\$qpviiiiiit1iiiii
@TrueBitmap@\$bctr\$qpcl
@TrueBitmap@\$bctr\$qpvl
@TrueBitmap@\$bctr\$qiilll
The names always start with the @ symbol, then we have the class name came, method name, and encoded the types of the arguments of the method.
These names can be in the .exe imports, .dll exports, debug data, etc.
Borland Visual Component Libraries (VCL) are stored in .bpl files instead of .dII ones, for example, vcl50.dII, rtl60.dII.

Another DLL that might be imported: BORLNDMM.DLL.

## Delphi

Almost all Delphi executables has the "Boolean" text string at the beginning of the code segment, along with other type names.
This is a very typical beginning of the CODE segment of a Delphi program, this block came right after the win32 PE file header:



The first 4 bytes of the data segment (DATA) can be 000000 00, $32138 B C 0$ or FF FF FF FF. This information can be useful when dealing with packed/encrypted Delphi executables.

### 5.1.6 Other known DLLs

- vcomp*.dll—Microsoft's implementation of OpenMP.


### 5.2 Communication with outer world (function level)

It's often advisable to track function arguments and return values in debugger or DBI. For example, the author once tried to understand meaning of some obscure function, which happens to be incorrectly implemented bubble sort ${ }^{4}$. (It worked correctly, but slower.) Meanwhile, watching inputs and outputs of this function helps instantly to understand what it does.

Often, when you see division by multiplication ( 3.9 on page 497), but forgot all details about its mechanics, you can just observe input and output and quickly find divisor.

### 5.3 Communication with the outer world (win32)

Sometimes it's enough to observe some function's inputs and outputs in order to understand what it does. That way you can save time.
Files and registry access: for the very basic analysis, Process Monitor ${ }^{5}$ utility from SysInternals can help. For the basic analysis of network accesses, Wireshark ${ }^{6}$ can be useful.

But then you will have to look inside anyway.
The first thing to look for is which functions from the OS's APIs and standard libraries are used.
If the program is divided into a main executable file and a group of DLL files, sometimes the names of the functions in these DLLs can help.

If we are interested in exactly what can lead to a call to MessageBox() with specific text, we can try to find this text in the data segment, find the references to it and find the points from which the control may be passed to the MessageBox() call we're interested in.

[^79]If we are talking about a video game and we're interested in which events are more or less random in it, we may try to find the rand () function or its replacements (like the Mersenne twister algorithm) and find the places from which those functions are called, and more importantly, how are the results used. One example: 8.2.
But if it is not a game, and rand() is still used, it is also interesting to know why. There are cases of unexpected rand() usage in data compression algorithms (for encryption imitation): blog.yurichev.com.

### 5.3.1 Often used functions in the Windows API

These functions may be among the imported. It is worth to note that not every function might be used in the code that was written by the programmer. A lot of functions might be called from library functions and CRT code.

Some functions may have the - A suffix for the ASCII version and $-W$ for the Unicode version.

- Registry access (advapi32.dII): RegEnumKeyEx, RegEnumValue, RegGetValue, RegOpenKeyEx, RegQueryValueEx.
- Access to text .ini-files (kernel32.dII): GetPrivateProfileString.
- Dialog boxes (user32.dII): MessageBox, MessageBoxEx, CreateDialog, SetDIgltemText, GetDIgltemText.
- Resources access ( 6.5.2 on page 763): (user32.dII): LoadMenu.
- TCP/IP networking (ws2_32.dII): WSARecv, WSASend.
- File access (kernel32.dII): CreateFile, ReadFile, ReadFileEx, WriteFile, WriteFileEx.
- High-level access to the Internet (wininet.dII): WinHttpOpen.
- Checking the digital signature of an executable file (wintrust.dII): WinVerifyTrust.
- The standard MSVC library (if it's linked dynamically) (msvcr*.dII): assert, itoa, Itoa, open, printf, read, strcmp, atol, atoi, fopen, fread, fwrite, memcmp, rand, strlen, strstr, strchr.


### 5.3.2 Extending trial period

Registry access functions are frequent targets for those who try to crack trial period of some software, which may save installation date/time into registry.
Another popular target are GetLocalTime() and GetSystemTime() functions: a trial software, at each startup, must check current date/time somehow anyway.

### 5.3.3 Removing nag dialog box

A popular way to find out what causing popping nag dialog box is intercepting MessageBox(), CreateDia$\log ()$ and CreateWindow() functions.

### 5.3.4 tracer: Intercepting all functions in specific module

There are INT3 breakpoints in the tracer, that are triggered only once, however, they can be set for all functions in a specific DLL.

```
--one-time-INT3-bp:somedll.dll!..*
```

Or, let's set INT3 breakpoints on all functions with the xml prefix in their name:

```
--one-time-INT3-bp:somedll.dll!xml.*
```

On the other side of the coin, such breakpoints are triggered only once. Tracer will show the call of a function, if it happens, but only once. Another drawback-it is impossible to see the function's arguments.
Nevertheless, this feature is very useful when you know that the program uses a DLL, but you do not know which functions are actually used. And there are a lot of functions.

For example, let's see, what does the uptime utility from cygwin use:
tracer -l:uptime.exe --one-time-INT3-bp:cygwin1.dll!.*
Thus we may see all that cygwin1.dll library functions that were called at least once, and where from:
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll! main (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x6d (0x40106d))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!_geteuid32 (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0xba3 (0x401ba3))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!_getuid32 (called from uptime.exe!OEP+0xbaa (0x401baa))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll! getegid32 (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0xcb7 (0x401cb7))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!_getgid32 (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0xcbe (0x401cbe))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!sysconf (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x735 (0x401735))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!setlocale (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x7b2 (0x4017b2))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!_open64 (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x994 (0x401994))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!_lseek64 (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x7ea (0x4017ea))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!read (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x809 (0x401809))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!sscanf (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x839 (0x401839))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!uname (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x139 (0x401139))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!time (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x22e (0x40122e))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!localtime (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x236 (0x401236))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!sprintf (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x25a (0x40125a))
One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!setutent (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x3b1 (0x4013b1)) One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!getutent (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x3c5 (0x4013c5)) One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!endutent (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x3e6 (0x4013e6)) One-time INT3 breakpoint: cygwin1.dll!puts (called from uptime.exe!0EP+0x4c3 (0x4014c3))

### 5.4 Strings

### 5.4.1 Text strings

## C/C++

The normal C strings are zero-terminated (ASCIIZ-strings).
The reason why the C string format is as it is (zero-terminated) is apparently historical. In [Dennis M. Ritchie, The Evolution of the Unix Time-sharing System, (1979)] we read:

A minor difference was that the unit of I/O was the word, not the byte, because the PDP-7 was a word-addressed machine. In practice this meant merely that all programs dealing with character streams ignored null characters, because null was used to pad a file to an even number of characters.

In Hiew or FAR Manager these strings looks like this:

```
int main()
{
    printf ("Hello, world!\n");
};
```



Figure 5.1: Hiew

## Borland Delphi

The string in Pascal and Borland Delphi is preceded by an 8－bit or 32－bit string length．
For example：
Listing 5．1：Delphi

| CODE：00518AC8 | dd 19h |
| :--- | :--- |
| CODE：00518ACC aLoading＿＿＿Plea db＇Loading．．．，please wait．＇, 0 |  |
| $\ldots$ |  |
| CODE：00518AFC  <br> CODE：00518B00 aPreparingRun＿＿db＇Preparing run．．．＇, 0  |  |

## Unicode

Often，what is called Unicode is a methods for encoding strings where each character occupies 2 bytes or 16 bits．This is a common terminological mistake．Unicode is a standard for assigning a number to each character in the many writing systems of the world，but does not describe the encoding method．
The most popular encoding methods are：UTF－8（is widespread in Internet and＊NIX systems）and UTF－16LE （is used in Windows）．

## UTF－8

UTF－8 is one of the most successful methods for encoding characters．All Latin symbols are encoded just like in ASCII，and the symbols beyond the ASCII table are encoded using several bytes． 0 is encoded as before，so all standard C string functions work with UTF－8 strings just like any other string．

Let＇s see how the symbols in various languages are encoded in UTF－8 and how it looks like in FAR，using the 437 codepage ${ }^{7}$ ：

```
How much? 100€?
(English) I can eat glass and it doesn't hurt me.
(Greek) Mпop\omegá v\alpha \varphi\alphá\omega \sigmaп\alpha\sigma\mu\varepsilońv\alpha \gammav\alpha\lambdaเ\alphá \chi\omega\rhoiç v\alpha n\alpháӨ\omega timot\alpha.
(Hungarian) Meg tudom enni az üveget, nem lesz tôle bajom.
(Icelandic) Ég get etiठ gler án pess aठ meiठa mig.
(Polish) Mogę jeść szkzo i mi nie szkodzi.
(Russian) Я молу есть стекло, оно мне не вредит.
(Arabic): (أ)
(Hebrew): ) ל ֶ ק
(Chinese) 我能吞下玻璃而不伤身体。
(Japanese) 私はガラスを食べられます。それは私を傷りけません。
(Hindi) मैं काँच खा सकता हूँ और मुझे उससे कोई चोट नहीं पहुंचती.
```

[^80]

Figure 5．2：FAR：UTF－8

As you can see，the English language string looks the same as it is in ASCII．
The Hungarian language uses some Latin symbols plus symbols with diacritic marks．
These symbols are encoded using several bytes，these are underscored with red．It＇s the same story with the Icelandic and Polish languages．

There is also the＂Euro＂currency symbol at the start，which is encoded with 3 bytes．
The rest of the writing systems here have no connection with Latin．
At least in Russian，Arabic，Hebrew and Hindi we can see some recurring bytes，and that is not surprise： all symbols from a writing system are usually located in the same Unicode table，so their code begins with the same numbers．

At the beginning，before the＂How much？＂string we see 3 bytes，which are in fact the BOM ${ }^{8}$ ．The BOM defines the encoding system to be used．

## UTF－16LE

Many win32 functions in Windows have the suffixes－A and－W．The first type of functions works with normal strings，the other with UTF－16LE strings（wide）．

In the second case，each symbol is usually stored in a 16－bit value of type short．
The Latin symbols in UTF－16 strings look in Hiew or FAR like they are interleaved with zero byte：

```
int wmain()
{
    wprintf (L"Hello, world!\n");
};
```

| 成Hiew：hw2．exe |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C：\Polygon\hw2．exe |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 比RO } \\ & \text { r@ 泪 } \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $\text { e } 1$ | $10$ |  | $0 \mathrm{r}$ | d! |  |  | 回 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | ® | ® |  | 回 | ® | ® | 回 |
| 回 | 回 | ® | ® | ！ | 5 | 回 | A |  | C | ® |

Figure 5．3：Hiew

[^81]| view ntoskrnl.exe - Far 2.0.1807 x64 Administrator |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \IDA\Windows 7 x64\ntoskrnl.ex |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| OV4 V S V ERSION_INFO - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| StringFileInfo \#e 0040904B0 L = - d |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ft Corporation N! ! ¢ Filedescript |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| yright й Microsoft Corporation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| d. B D © Originalfilenamentkrnlm |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| e Microsofto Windowso Operati |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| tVersion 6.1.7600.16385 D 0 V a |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| a t i o n *PADDINGXXPADDINGPADDINGXXPADDINGPADDINGXX |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 5.4: Hiew

Strings with characters that occupy exactly 2 bytes are called "Unicode" in IDA:

```
.data:0040E000 aHelloWorld:
.data:0040E000 unicode 0, <Hello, world!>
.data:0040E000
dw 0Ah, 0
```

Here is how the Russian language string is encoded in UTF-16LE:


Figure 5.5: Hiew: UTF-16LE

What we can easily spot is that the symbols are interleaved by the diamond character (which has the ASCII code of 4). Indeed, the Cyrillic symbols are located in the fourth Unicode plane ${ }^{9}$. Hence, all Cyrillic symbols in UTF-16LE are located in the $0 \times 400-0 \times 4 F F$ range.
Let's go back to the example with the string written in multiple languages. Here is how it looks like in UTF-16LE.

[^82]5.4. STRINGS


Figure 5.6: FAR: UTF-16LE

Here we can also see the BOM at the beginning. All Latin characters are interleaved with a zero byte. Some characters with diacritic marks (Hungarian and Icelandic languages) are also underscored in red.

## Base64

The base64 encoding is highly popular for the cases when you have to transfer binary data as a text string. In essence, this algorithm encodes 3 binary bytes into 4 printable characters: all 26 Latin letters (both lower and upper case), digits, plus sign ("+") and slash sign ("/"), 64 characters in total.
One distinctive feature of base64 strings is that they often (but not always) ends with 1 or 2 padding equality symbol(s) ("="), for example:
AVjbbVSVfcUMu1xvjaMgjNtueRwBbxnyJw8dpGnLW8ZW8aKG3v4Y0icuQT+qEJAp9lA0uWs=
WVjbbVSVfcUMu1xvjaMgjNtueRwBbxnyJw8dpGnLW8ZW8aKG3v4Y0icuQT+qEJAp9lA0uQ==

The equality sign (" $=$ ") is never encounter in the middle of base64-encoded strings.
Now example of manual encoding. Let's encode $0 \times 00,0 \times 11,0 \times 22,0 \times 33$ hexadecimal bytes into base64 string:

```
$ echo -n "\x00\x11\x22\x33" | base64
ABEiMw==
```

Let's put all 4 bytes in binary form, then regroup them into 6-bit groups:


Three first bytes ( $0 \times 00,0 \times 11,0 \times 22$ ) can be encoded into 4 base64 characters ("ABEi"), but the last one ( $0 \times 33$ ) - cannot be, so it's encoded using two characters ("Mw") and padding symbol ("=") is added twice to pad the last group to 4 characters. Hence, length of all correct base64 strings are always divisible by 4.

Base64 is often used when binary data needs to be stored in XML. "Armored" (i.e., in text form) PGP keys and signatures are encoded using base64.

Some people tries to use base64 to obfuscate strings: http://blog.sec-consult.com/2016/01/deliberately html ${ }^{10}$.

There are utilities for scanning an arbitrary binary files for base64 strings. One such utility is base64scanner ${ }^{11}$.
Another encoding system which was much more popular in UseNet and FidoNet is Uuencoding. Binary files are still encoded in Uuencode format in Phrack magazine. It offers mostly the same features, but is different from base64 in the sense that file name is also stored in header.

By the way: there is also close sibling to base64: base32, alphabet of which has 10 digits and 26 Latin characters. One well-known usage of it is onion addresses ${ }^{12}$, like: http://3g2upl4pq6kufc4m.onion/. URL can't have mixed-case Latin characters, so apparently, this is why Tor developers used base32.

### 5.4.2 Finding strings in binary

Actually, the best form of Unix documentation is frequently running the strings command over a program's object code. Using strings, you can get a complete list of the program's hard-coded file name, environment variables, undocumented options, obscure error messages, and so forth.

The Unix-Haters Handbook
The standard UNIX strings utility is quick-n-dirty way to see strings in file. For example, these are some strings from OpenSSH 7.2 sshd executable file:

```
..
0123
0123456789
0123456789abcdefABCDEF.:/
%02x
%.100s, line %lu: Bad permitopen specification <%.100s>
%.100s, line %lu: invalid criteria
%.100s, line %lu: invalid tun device
%.200s/.ssh/environment
2886173b9c9b6fdbdeda7a247cd636db38deaa.debug
$2a$06$r3.juUaHZDlIbQa02dS9FuYxL1W9M81R1Tc92PoSNmzvpEqLkLGrK
..
3des-cbc
Bind to port %s on %s.
Bind to port %s on %s failed: %.200s.
/bin/login
/bin/sh
/bin/sh /etc/ssh/sshrc
D$4PQWR1
D$4PUj
D$4PV
D$4PV j
D$4PW
D$4PWj
D$4X
D$4XZj
D$4Y
diffie-hellman-group-exchange-sha1
```

[^83]```
diffie-hellman-group-exchange-sha256
digests
D$iPV
direct-streamlocal
direct-streamlocal@openssh.com
FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFC90FDAA22168C234C4C6628B80DC1CD129024E088A6. . .
```

There are options, error messages, file paths, imported dynamic modules and functions, some other strange strings (keys?) There is also unreadable noise-x86 code sometimes has chunks consisting of printable ASCII characters, up to 8 characters.

Of course, OpenSSH is open-source program. But looking at readable strings inside of some unknown binary is often a first step of analysis.
grep can be applied as well.
Hiew has the same capability (Alt-F6), as well as Sysinternals ProcessMonitor.

### 5.4.3 Error/debug messages

Debugging messages are very helpful if present. In some sense, the debugging messages are reporting what's going on in the program right now. Often these are printf()-like functions, which write to log-files, or sometimes do not writing anything but the calls are still present since the build is not a debug one but release one.

If local or global variables are dumped in debug messages, it might be helpful as well since it is possible to get at least the variable names. For example, one of such function in Oracle RDBMS is ksdwrt().

Meaningful text strings are often helpful. The IDA disassembler may show from which function and from which point this specific string is used. Funny cases sometimes happen ${ }^{13}$.

The error messages may help us as well. In Oracle RDBMS, errors are reported using a group of functions. You can read more about them here: blog.yurichev.com.

It is possible to find quickly which functions report errors and in which conditions.
By the way, this is often the reason for copy-protection systems to inarticulate cryptic error messages or just error numbers. No one is happy when the software cracker quickly understand why the copyprotection is triggered just by the error message.

One example of encrypted error messages is here: 8.5.2 on page 822.

### 5.4.4 Suspicious magic strings

Some magic strings which are usually used in backdoors looks pretty suspicious.
For example, there was a backdoor in the TP-Link WR740 home router ${ }^{14}$. The backdoor can activated using the following URL:
http://192.168.0.1/userRpmNatDebugRpm26525557/start_art.html.

Indeed, the "userRpmNatDebugRpm26525557" string is present in the firmware.
This string was not googleable until the wide disclosure of information about the backdoor.
You would not find this in any RFC ${ }^{15}$.
You would not find any computer science algorithm which uses such strange byte sequences.
And it doesn't look like an error or debugging message.
So it's a good idea to inspect the usage of such weird strings.

[^84]Sometimes, such strings are encoded using base64.
So it's a good idea to decode them all and to scan them visually, even a glance should be enough.
More precise, this method of hiding backdoors is called "security through obscurity".

### 5.5 Calls to assert()

Sometimes the presence of the assert () macro is useful too: commonly this macro leaves source file name, line number and condition in the code.

The most useful information is contained in the assert's condition, we can deduce variable names or structure field names from it. Another useful piece of information are the file names-we can try to deduce what type of code is there. Also it is possible to recognize well-known open-source libraries by the file names.

Listing 5.2: Example of informative assert() calls

```
.text:107D4B29 mov dx, [ecx+42h]
.text:107D4B2D cmp edx, 1
.text:107D4B30 jz short loc_107D4B4A
.text:107D4B32 push 1ECh
.text:107D4B37 push offset aWrite_c ; "write.c"
.text:107D4B3C push offset aTdTd_planarcon ; "td->td_planarconfig == PLANARCONFIG_CON"...
.text:107D4B41 call ds: assert
. . .
.text:107D52CA mov edx, [ebp-4]
.text:107D52CD and edx, 3
.text:107D52D0 test edx, edx
.text:107D52D2 jz short loc_107D52E9
.text:107D52D4 push 58h
.text:107D52D6 push offset aDumpmode_c ; "dumpmode.c"
.text:107D52DB push offset aN30 ; "(n & 3) == 0"
.text:107D52E0 call ds: assert
...
.text:107D6759 mov cx, [eax+6]
.text:107D675D cmp ecx, 0Ch
.text:107D6760 jle short loc 107D677A
.text:107D6762 push 2D8h
.text:107D6767 push offset aLzw_c ; "lzw.c"
,text:107D676C push offset aSpLzw_nbitsBit ; "sp->lzw_nbits <= BITS MAX"
.text:107D6771 call ds:_assert
```

It is advisable to "google" both the conditions and file names, which can lead us to an open-source library. For example, if we "google" "sp->Izw_nbits <= BITS_MAX", this predictably gives us some open-source code that's related to the LZW compression.

### 5.6 Constants

Humans, including programmers, often use round numbers like 10, 100, 1000, in real life as well as in the code.

The practicing reverse engineer usually know them well in hexadecimal representation: $10=0 \times \mathrm{A}, 100=0 \times 64$, $1000=0 \times 3 E 8,10000=0 \times 2710$.

The constants 0xAAAAAAAA (Ob10101010101010101010101010101010) and $0 \times 55555555$ ( $0 b 01010101010101010101010101010101$ ) are also popular-those are composed of alternating bits.

That may help to distinguish some signal from a signal where all bits are turned on (0b1111 ...) or off ( $0 b 0000 \ldots$...). For example, the $0 \times 55$ AA constant is used at least in the boot sector, MBR ${ }^{16}$, and in the ROM of IBM-compatible extension cards.

Some algorithms, especially cryptographical ones use distinct constants, which are easy to find in code using IDA.

For example, the MD5 ${ }^{17}$ algorithm initializes its own internal variables like this:
var int h0 := 0x67452301
var int h1 := 0xEFCDAB89
var int h2 := 0x98BADCFE
var int h3 := 0x10325476
If you find these four constants used in the code in a row, it is highly probable that this function is related to MD5.

Another example are the CRC16/CRC32 algorithms, whose calculation algorithms often use precomputed tables like this one:

Listing 5.3: linux/lib/crc16.c
$/^{* *}$ CRC table for the CRC-16. The poly is $0 x 8005\left(x^{\wedge} 16+x^{\wedge} 15+x^{\wedge} 2+1\right)$ */
u16 const crc16_table[256] = \{
$0 x 0000,-0 x C 0 C 1, ~ 0 x C 181, ~ 0 x 0140, ~ 0 x C 301, ~ 0 x 03 C 0, ~ 0 x 0280, ~ 0 x C 241$, $0 x C 601, ~ 0 x 06 C 0, ~ 0 x 0780, ~ 0 x C 741, ~ 0 x 0500, ~ 0 x C 5 C 1, ~ 0 x C 481, ~ 0 x 0440$, $0 x C C 01,0 x 0 C C 0, ~ 0 x 0 D 80, ~ 0 x C D 41, ~ 0 x 0 F 00, ~ 0 x C F C 1, ~ 0 x C E 81, ~ 0 x 0 E 40$, ...

See also the precomputed table for CRC32: 3.5 on page 482.
In tableless CRC algorithms well-known polynomials are used, for example, 0xEDB88320 for CRC32.

### 5.6.1 Magic numbers

A lot of file formats define a standard file header where a magic number(s) ${ }^{18}$ is used, single one or even several.
For example, all Win32 and MS-DOS executables start with the two characters "MZ"19.
At the beginning of a MIDI file the "MThd" signature must be present. If we have a program which uses MIDI files for something, it's very likely that it must check the file for validity by checking at least the first 4 bytes.
This could be done like this: (buf points to the beginning of the loaded file in memory)

```
cmp [buf], 0x6468544D ; "MThd"
jnz _error_not_a_MIDI_file
```

...or by calling a function for comparing memory blocks like memcmp() or any other equivalent code up to a CMPSB (.1.6 on page 1032) instruction.
When you find such point you already can say where the loading of the MIDI file starts, also, we could see the location of the buffer with the contents of the MIDI file, what is used from the buffer, and how.

## Dates

Often, one may encounter number like $0 \times 19870116$, which is clearly looks like a date (year 1987, 1th month (January), 16th day). This may be someone's birthday (a programmer, his/her relative, child), or some other important date. The date may also be written in a reverse order, like $0 \times 16011987$. Americanstyle dates are also popular, like 0x01161987.
Well-known example is $0 \times 19540119$ (magic number used in UFS2 superblock structure), which is a birthday of Marshall Kirk McKusick, prominent FreeBSD contributor.

[^85]Stuxnet uses the number "19790509" (not as 32-bit number, but as string, though), and this led to speculation that the malware is connected to Israel ${ }^{20}$

Also, numbers like those are very popular in amateur-grade cryptography, for example, excerpt from the secret function internals from HASP3 dongle ${ }^{21}$ :

```
void xor_pwd(void)
{
    int i;
    pwd^=0x09071966;
    for(i=0;i<8;i++)
    {
        al_buf[i]= pwd & 7; pwd = pwd >> 3;
    }
};
void emulate_func2(unsigned short seed)
{
    int i, j;
    for(i=0;i<8;i++)
    {
        ch[i] = 0;
        for(j=0;j<8;j++)
        {
            seed *= 0x1989
            seed += 5;
            ch[i] |= (tab[(seed>>9)&0x3f]) << (7-j);
        }
    }
}
```


## DHCP

This applies to network protocols as well. For example, the DHCP protocol's network packets contains the so-called magic cookie: 0x63538263. Any code that generates DHCP packets somewhere must embed this constant into the packet. If we find it in the code we may find where this happens and, not only that. Any program which can receive DHCP packet must verify the magic cookie, comparing it with the constant.

For example, let's take the dhcpcore.dll file from Windows 7 x64 and search for the constant. And we can find it, twice: it seems that the constant is used in two functions with descriptive names DhcpExtractOptionsForValidation() and DhcpExtractFulloptions():

Listing 5.4: dhcpcore.dII (Windows 7 x64)

```
.rdata:000007FF6483CBE8 dword_7FF6483CBE8 dd 63538263h
    DhcpExtractOptionsForValidation+79
.rdata:000007FF6483CBEC dword 7FF6483CBEC dd 63538263h ; DATA XREF: \swarrow
    DhcpExtractFullOptions+97
```

And here are the places where these constants are accessed:
Listing 5.5: dhcpcore.dII (Windows $7 \times 64$ )

| .text:000007FF6480875F | mov | eax, [rsi] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:000007FF64808761 | cmp | eax, cs:dword_7FF6483CBE8 |
| .text:000007FF64808767 | jnz | loc_7FF64817179 |

And:
Listing 5.6: dhcpcore.dll (Windows 7 x64)

```
.text:000007FF648082C7 mov eax, [r12]
.text:000007FF648082CB cmp eax, cs:dword 7FF6483CBEC
.text:000007FF648082D1 jnz loc_7FF648173AF
```

[^86]
### 5.7. FINDING THE RIGHT INSTRUCTIONS

### 5.6.2 Specific constants

Sometimes, there is a specific constant for some type of code. For example, the author once dug into a code, where number 12 was encountered suspiciously often. Size of many arrays is 12 , or multiple of 12 ( 24, etc). As it turned out, that code takes 12 -channel audio file at input and process it.
And vice versa: for example, if a program works with text field which has length of 120 bytes, there has to be a constant 120 or 119 somewhere in the code. If UTF-16 is used, then $2 \cdot 120$. If a code works with network packets of fixed size, it's good idea to search for this constant in the code as well.

This is also true for amateur cryptography (license keys, etc). If encrypted block has size of $n$ bytes, you may want to try to find occurences of this number throughout the code. Also, if you see a piece of code which is been repeated $n$ times in loop during execution, this may be encryption/decryption routine.

### 5.6.3 Searching for constants

It is easy in IDA: Alt-B or Alt-I. And for searching for a constant in a big pile of files, or for searching in non-executable files, there is a small utility called binary grep ${ }^{22}$.

### 5.7 Finding the right instructions

If the program is utilizing FPU instructions and there are very few of them in the code, one can try to check each one manually with a debugger.

For example, we may be interested how Microsoft Excel calculates the formulae entered by user. For example, the division operation.
If we load excel.exe (from Office 2010) version 14.0.4756.1000 into IDA, make a full listing and to find every FDIV instruction (except the ones which use constants as a second operand-obviously, they do not suit us):

```
cat EXCEL.lst | grep fdiv | grep -v dbl_ > EXCEL.fdiv
```

...then we see that there are 144 of them.
We can enter a string like $=(1 / 3)$ in Excel and check each instruction.
By checking each instruction in a debugger or tracer (one may check 4 instruction at a time), we get lucky and the sought-for instruction is just the 14th:
.text:3011E919 DC 33 fdiv qword ptr [ebx]

```
PID=13944|TID=28744|(0) 0x2f64e919 (Excel.exe!BASE+0x11e919)
EAX=0x02088006 EBX=0x02088018 ECX=0x00000001 EDX=0x00000001
ESI=0x02088000 EDI=0x00544804 EBP=0x0274FA3C ESP=0x0274F9F8
EIP=0x2F64E919
FLAGS=PF IF
FPU ControlWord=IC RC=NEAR PC=64bits PM UM OM ZM DM IM
FPU StatusWord=
FPU ST(0): 1.000000
```

ST(0) holds the first argument (1) and second one is in [EBX].

The instruction after FDIV (FSTP) writes the result in memory:
.text:3011E91B DD 1E fstp qword ptr [esi]

If we set a breakpoint on it, we can see the result:

[^87]```
PID=32852|TID=36488|(0) 0x2f40e91b (Excel.exe!BASE+0x11e91b)
EAX=0x00598006 EBX=0x00598018 ECX=0x00000001 EDX=0x00000001
ESI=0x00598000 EDI=0x00294804 EBP=0x026CF93C ESP=0x026CF8F8
EIP=0x2F40E91B
FLAGS=PF IF
FPU ControlWord=IC RC=NEAR PC=64bits PM UM OM ZM DM IM
FPU StatusWord=C1 P
FPU ST(0): 0.333333
```

Also as a practical joke, we can modify it on the fly:

```
tracer -l:excel.exe bpx=excel.exe!BASE+0x11E91B,set(st0,666)
```

```
PID=36540|TID=24056|(0) 0x2f40e91b (Excel.exe!BASE+0x11e91b)
EAX=0x00680006 EBX=0x00680018 ECX=0x000000001 EDX=0x00000001
ESI=0x00680000 EDI=0x00395404 EBP=0x0290FD9C ESP=0x0290FD58
EIP=0x2F40E91B
FLAGS=PF IF
FPU ControlWord=IC RC=NEAR PC=64bits PM UM OM ZM DM IM
FPU StatusWord=C1 P
FPU ST(0): 0.333333
Set ST0 register to 666.000000
```

Excel shows 666 in the cell, finally convincing us that we have found the right point.


Figure 5.7: The practical joke worked

If we try the same Excel version, but in x64, we will find only 12 FDIV instructions there, and the one we looking for is the third one.

```
tracer.exe -l:excel.exe bpx=excel.exe!BASE+0x1B7FCC,set(st0,666)
```

It seems that a lot of division operations of float and double types, were replaced by the compiler with SSE instructions like DIVSD (DIVSD is present 268 times in total).

### 5.8 Suspicious code patterns

### 5.8.1 XOR instructions

Instructions like XOR op, op (for example, XOR EAX, EAX) are usually used for setting the register value to zero, but if the operands are different, the "exclusive or" operation is executed.

This operation is rare in common programming, but widespread in cryptography, including amateur one. It's especially suspicious if the second operand is a big number.

This may point to encrypting/decrypting, checksum computing, etc.

One exception to this observation worth noting is the "canary" ( 1.20 .3 on page 283). Its generation and checking are often done using the XOR instruction.

This AWK script can be used for processing IDA listing (.Ist) files:
gawk -e '\$2=="xor" \{ tmp=substr(\$3, 0, length(\$3)-1); if (tmp!=\$4) if(\$4!="esp") if (\$4!="ebp") r $\rightarrow$ \{ print \$1, \$2, tmp, ",", \$4 \} \}' filename.lst

It is also worth noting that this kind of script can also match incorrectly disassembled code ( 5.11 .1 on page 726).

### 5.8.2 Hand-written assembly code

Modern compilers do not emit the LOOP and RCL instructions. On the other hand, these instructions are well-known to coders who like to code directly in assembly language. If you spot these, it can be said that there is a high probability that this fragment of code was hand-written. Such instructions are marked as $(M)$ in the instructions list in this appendix: .1.6 on page 1026.

Also the function prologue/epilogue are not commonly present in hand-written assembly.
Commonly there is no fixed system for passing arguments to functions in the hand-written code.
Example from the Windows 2003 kernel (ntoskrnl.exe file):

```
MultiplyTest proc near cx cx CODE XREF: Get386Stepping
loc_620555: ; CODE XREF: MultiplyTest+E
    push cx
    call Multiply
    pop cx
    jb short locret_620563
    loop loc_620555
    clc
locret_620563: ; CODE XREF: MultiplyTest+C
retn
MultiplyTest endp
Multiply proc near ; CODE XREF: MultiplyTest+5
    mov ecx, 81h
    mov eax, 417A000h
    mul ecx
    cmp edx, 2
    stc
    jnz short locret 62057F
    cmp eax, 0FE7A000h
    stc
    jnz short locret_62057F
    clc
locret_62057F: ; CODE XREF: Multiply+10
                                Multiply+18
    retn
Multiply endp
```

Indeed, if we look in the WRK ${ }^{23}$ v1.2 source code, this code can be found easily in file WRK-v1.2|baselntos\keli386\cpu.asm.

[^88]
### 5.9 Using magic numbers while tracing

Often, our main goal is to understand how the program uses a value that has been either read from file or received via network. The manual tracing of a value is often a very labor-intensive task. One of the simplest techniques for this (although not 100\% reliable) is to use your own magic number.

This resembles $X$-ray computed tomography is some sense: a radiocontrast agent is injected into the patient's blood, which is then used to improve the visibility of the patient's internal structure in to the X-rays. It is well known how the blood of healthy humans percolates in the kidneys and if the agent is in the blood, it can be easily seen on tomography, how blood is percolating, and are there any stones or tumors.

We can take a 32-bit number like $0 x 0$ badf00d, or someone's birth date like $0 \times 11101979$ and write this 4-byte number to some point in a file used by the program we investigate.

Then, while tracing this program with tracer in code coverage mode, with the help of grep or just by searching in the text file (of tracing results), we can easily see where the value has been used and how.

Example of grepable tracer results in cc mode:

| 4) | 1 [MOV EBX, [EBP+8]] [EBP+8]=0xf59c934 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0x150bf69 (_kziaia+0x17), e= | 1 [MOV EDX, [69AEB08h]] [69AEB08h]=0 |
| 0x150bf6f (_kziaia+0x1d), e= | 1 [FS: MOV EAX, [2Ch]] |
| 0x150bf75 (_kziaia+0x23), e= | 1 [MOV ECX, [EAX+EDX*4]] [EAX+EDX*4]=0xflac36 |
| 0x150bf78 (_kziaia+0x26), e= | 1 [MOV [EBP-4], ECX] ECX=0xf1ac360 |

This can be used for network packets as well. It is important for the magic number to be unique and not to be present in the program's code.

Aside of the tracer, DosBox (MS-DOS emulator) in heavydebug mode is able to write information about all registers' states for each executed instruction of the program to a plain text file ${ }^{24}$, so this technique may be useful for DOS programs as well.

### 5.10 Loops

Whenever your program works with some kind of file, or buffer of some size, it has to be some kind of decrypting/processing loop inside of the code.

This is a real example of tracer tool output. There was a code which loads some kind of encryted file of 258 bytes. I run it with the intention to get each instruction counts (a DBI tool will serve much better these days). And I quickly found a piece of code, which executed 259/258 times:

```
...
0x45a6b5 e=
0x45a6bb e=
0x45a6c1 e=
0x45a6c7 e=
0x45a6cb e=
0x45a6d1 e=
0x45a6d5 e=
0x45a6d7 e=
0x45a6db e=
0x45a6e2 e=
0x45a6e4 e= 258 [MOV EDX, [EBP-18h]] [EBP-18h]=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a6e7 e= 258 [ADD EDX, 1] EDX=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a6ea e= 258 [MOV [EBP-18h], EDX] EDX=1..6 (248 items skipped) 0xfe..0x102
0x45a6ed e= 259 [MOV EAX, [EBP-254h]] [EBP-254h]=0x218fbd8
0x45a6f3 e= 259 [MOV ECX, [EBP-18h]] [EBP-18h]=0..5 (249 items skipped) 0xfe..0x102
0x45a6f6 e= 259 [CMP ECX, [EAX+14h]] ECX=0..5 (249 items skipped) 0xfe..0x102 [EAX+14h]=0x102
0x45a6f9 e= 259 [JNB 45A727h] CF=false,true
0x45a6fb e= 258 [MOV EDX, [EBP-254h]] [EBP-254h]=0x218fbd8
0x45a701 e= 258 [MOV EAX, [EDX+10h]] [EDX+10h]=0x21ee4c8
0x45a704 e= 258 [MOV ECX, [EBP-18h]] [EBP-18h]=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a707 e= 258 [ADD ECX, 1] ECX=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a70a e= 258 [IMUL ECX, ECX, 1Fh] ECX=1..6 (248 items skipped) 0xfe..0x102
```

[^89]```
0x45a70d e= 258 [MOV EDX, [EBP-18h]] [EBP-18h]=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a710 e= 258 [MOVZX EAX, [EAX+EDX]] [EAX+EDX]=1..6 (156 items skipped) 0xf3, 0xf8, 0xf9, 0r
    \zetaxfc, 0xfd
0x45a714 e= 258 [XOR EAX, ECX] EAX=1..6 (156 items skipped) 0xf3, 0xf8, 0xf9, 0xfc, 0xfd ECX=0&
    \zeta xlf, 0x3e, 0x5d, 0x7c, 0x9b (248 items skipped) 0x1ec2, 0x1ee1, 0x1f00, 0x1f1f, 0x1f3e
0x45a716 e= 258 [MOV ECX, [EBP-254h]] [EBP-254h]=0x218fbd8
0x45a71c e= 258 [MOV EDX, [ECX+10h]] [ECX+10h]=0x21ee4c8
0x45a71f e= 258 [MOV ECX, [EBP-18h]] [EBP-18h]=0..5 (248 items skipped) 0xfd..0x101
0x45a722 e= 258 [MOV [EDX+ECX], AL] AL=0..5 (77 items skipped) 0xe2, 0xee, 0xef, 0xf7, 0xfc
0x45a725 e= 258 [JMP 45A6E4h]
0x45a727 e= 1 [PUSH 5]
0x45a729 e= 1 [MOV ECX, [EBP-254h]] [EBP-254h]=0x218fbd8
0x45a72f e= 1 [CALL 45B500h]
0x45a734 e= 1 [MOV ECX, EAX] EAX=0x218fbd8
0x45a736 e= 1 [CALL 45B710h]
0x45a73b e= 1 [CMP EAX, 5] EAX=5
```

As it turns out, this is the decrypting loop.

### 5.10.1 Some binary file patterns

All examples here were prepared on the Windows with active code page $437{ }^{25}$ in console. Binary files internally may look visually different if another code page is set.

[^90]
## Arrays

Sometimes，we can clearly spot an array of $16 / 32 / 64$－bit values visually，in hex editor．
Here is an example of array of 16 －bit values．We see that the first byte in pair is 7 or 8 ，and the second looks random：

| \．．．3affacde09fe21c28＋1543db51145b | t h 1252 2175000 | Col 0 23\％ | 21：25 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 000007CA70：EF 07 C6 07 D6 072608 | $0 C 08$ CE 0724076007 |  |  |
| 000007CA80：CC 07 AA 07 A2 07 AC 07 | E9 07 BF 07 D6 07 2C 08 |  |  |
| 000007CA90： 0908 CA 073107 5E 07 | BC $079 \mathrm{9A} 0793079 \mathrm{l} 97$ | O－Ê•1•＾•1／4•š•＂•ž• |  |
| 000007CAA0：E6 07 BD 07 D8 07 2F 08 | 0608 CB 07 3E 07 5E 07 |  |  |
| 000007CAB0：B3 079107 8B 079707 | E1 07 BB 07 DB 073208 |  |  |
| 000007CAC0： 0308 CB 07 4C 076107 | AA 07890784079107 |  |  |
| 000007CAD0：E0 07 BB 07 DC 073308 | 0108 CC 0757076407 |  |  |
| 000007CAE0：A4 07840781079007 | DE 07 BB 07 DE 073408 |  |  |
| 000007CAF0：FF 07 CD 0765076907 | A0 078107 7F 079007 | $\ddot{\mathrm{y}} \cdot \mathrm{I} \bullet \mathrm{e} \bullet \mathrm{i} \bullet$ •回・ロ・回• |  |
| 000007CB00：DE 07 BC 07 DF 073308 | FF 07 CE 077007 6F 07 | $\mathrm{p} \bullet 1 / 4 \cdot \beta \cdot 3 \cdot \ddot{\mathrm{y}} \cdot \mathrm{I} \bullet p \bullet 0 \bullet$ |  |
| 000007CB10：9F 07820781079307 | DD 07 BC 07 E 0073408 |  |  |
| 000007CB20：FE 07 CE 07 7E 077807 | 9F 078840784079607 |  |  |
| 000007CB30：DE 07 BD 07 DF 073208 | FF 07 CE 078707 7F 07 | $\mathrm{p} \bullet 1 / 2 \bullet$ ¢ $2 \cdot \ddot{\mathrm{y}} \cdot \hat{\mathrm{I}} \bullet \ddagger \bullet$ • |  |
| 000007CB40：A1 07870788079 0 07 | E2 07 BF 07 DE 07 2F 08 | $\mathrm{i} \bullet \ddagger \bullet$ • $\bullet \bullet$ â•c•p•／• |  |
| 000007CB50： 0208 CF 0793078907 | A4 078807 8D 07 9F 07 |  |  |
| 000007CB60：E4 07 C0 07 DD 07 2D 08 | 0308 CF 079 C 079207 |  |  |
| 000007CB70：A9 0790079107 A3 07 | E6 07 C3 07 DD 07 2B 08 |  |  |
| 000007CB80： 0408 D0 07 A7 07 9C 07 | AE 0796079607 A7 07 |  |  |
| 000007CB90：E8 07 C7 07 DF 072908 | 0408 D3 07 B1 07 A7 07 |  |  |
| 000007CBA0：B4 079 B 079 C 07 AB 07 | E8 07 CA 07 E 1072708 | －＞•＞•«•èÊ•á•＇• |  |
| 000007CBB0： 0308 D5 07 BB 07 B3 07 | BB 07 A1 07 A0 07 AF 07 |  |  |
| 000007CBC0：EA 07 CD 07 E3 072508 | 0308 D8 07 C4 07 BD 07 |  |  |
| 000007CBD0：C1 07 A6 07 A5 07 B3 07 | EA 07 D1 07 E6 072208 |  |  |
| 000007CBE0： 0108 DC 07 CE 07 C8 07 | C8 07 AD 07 AA 07 B7 07 |  |  |
| 1Help 2Wrap 3Quit 4Text 5 | 6 dit 7Search 80EM | 9 10Quit |  |

Figure 5．8：FAR：array of 16－bit values

I used a file containing 12－channel signal digitized using 16－bit ADC ${ }^{26}$ ．

[^91]And here is an example of very typical MIPS code.
As we may recall, every MIPS (and also ARM in ARM mode or ARM64) instruction has size of 32 bits (or 4 bytes), so such code is array of 32-bit values.
By looking at this screenshot, we may see some kind of pattern.
Vertical red lines are added for clarity:


Figure 5.9: Hiew: very typical MIPS code

Another example of such pattern here is book: 9.5 on page 973.

## Sparse files

This is sparse file with data scattered amidst almost empty file. Each space character here is in fact zero byte (which is looks like space). This is a file to program FPGA (Altera Stratix GX device). Of course, files like these can be compressed easily, but formats like this one are very popular in scientific and engineering software where efficient access is important while compactness is not.


Figure 5.10: FAR: Sparse file

## Compressed file

This file is just some compressed archive. It has relatively high entropy and visually looks just chaotic. This is how compressed and/or encrypted files looks like.


Figure 5.11: FAR: Compressed file

OS installations are usually distributed as ISO files which are copies of CD/DVD discs. Filesystem used is named CDFS, here is you see file names mixed with some additional data. This can be file sizes, pointers to another directories, file attributes, etc. This is how typical filesystems may look internally.


Figure 5.12: FAR: ISO file: Ubuntu 15 installation $C D^{28}$

[^92]This is how 32-bit x86 executable code looks like. It has not very high entropy, because some bytes occurred more often than others.


Figure 5.13: FAR: Executable 32-bit x86 code

BMP files are not compressed, so each byte (or group of bytes) describes each pixel. I've found this picture somewhere inside my installed Windows 8.1:

# N <br> Microsoft ${ }^{\circ}$ .NET 

Figure 5.14: Example picture

You see that this picture has some pixels which unlikely can be compressed very good (around center), but there are long one-color lines at top and bottom. Indeed, lines like these also looks as lines during viewing the file:


Figure 5.15: BMP file fragment

### 5.10.2 Memory "snapshots" comparing

The technique of the straightforward comparison of two memory snapshots in order to see changes was often used to hack 8-bit computer games and for hacking "high score" files.

For example, if you had a loaded game on an 8-bit computer (there isn't much memory on these, but the game usually consumes even less memory) and you know that you have now, let's say, 100 bullets, you can do a "snapshot" of all memory and back it up to some place. Then shoot once, the bullet count goes to 99, do a second "snapshot" and then compare both: it must be a byte somewhere which has been 100 at the beginning, and now it is 99.

Considering the fact that these 8-bit games were often written in assembly language and such variables were global, it can be said for sure which address in memory has holding the bullet count. If you searched for all references to the address in the disassembled game code, it was not very hard to find a piece of code decrementing the bullet count, then to write a NOP instruction there, or a couple of NOP-s, and then have a game with 100 bullets forever. Games on these 8 -bit computers were commonly loaded at the constant address, also, there were not much different versions of each game (commonly just one version was popular for a long span of time), so enthusiastic gamers knew which bytes must be overwritten (using the BASIC's instruction POKE) at which address in order to hack it. This led to "cheat" lists that contained POKE instructions, published in magazines related to 8-bit games. See also: wikipedia.
Likewise, it is easy to modify "high score" files, this does not work with just 8-bit games. Notice your score count and back up the file somewhere. When the "high score" count gets different, just compare the two files, it can even be done with the DOS utility FC ${ }^{29}$ ("high score" files are often in binary form).

There will be a point where a couple of bytes are different and it is easy to see which ones are holding the score number. However, game developers are fully aware of such tricks and may defend the program against it.

Somewhat similar example in this book is: 9.3 on page 961.

## Windows registry

It is also possible to compare the Windows registry before and after a program installation.
It is a very popular method of finding which registry elements are used by the program. Perhaps, this is the reason why the "windows registry cleaner" shareware is so popular.

## Blink-comparator

Comparison of files or memory snapshots remind us blink-comparator ${ }^{30}$ : a device used by astronomers in past, intended to find moving celestial objects.

Blink-comparator allows to switch quickly between two photographies shot in different time, so astronomer would spot the difference visually.

By the way, Pluto was discovered by blink-comparator in 1930.

### 5.11 ISA detection

Often, you can deal with a binary file for an unknown ISA. Perhaps, easiest way to detect ISA is to try various ones in IDA, objdump or another disassembler.
To achieve this, one should understand a difference between incorrectly disassembled code and correctly one.

### 5.11.1 Incorrectly disassembled code

Practicing reverse engineers often have to deal with incorrectly disassembled code.

[^93]Unlike ARM and MIPS (where any instruction has a length of 2 or 4 bytes), x86 instructions have variable size, so any disassembler that starts in the middle of a x86 instruction may produce incorrect results.

As an example:

```
add [ebp-31F7Bh], cl
dec dword ptr [ecx-3277Bh]
dec dword ptr [ebp-2CF7Bh]
inc dword ptr [ebx-7A76F33Ch]
fdiv st(4), st
db 0FFh
dec dword ptr [ecx-21F7Bh]
dec dword ptr [ecx-22373h]
dec dword ptr [ecx-2276Bh]
dec dword ptr [ecx-22B63h]
dec dword ptr [ecx-22F4Bh]
dec dword ptr [ecx-23343h]
jmp dword ptr [esi-74h]
xchg eax, ebp
clc
std
db 0FFh
db 0FFh
mov word ptr [ebp-214h], cs ; <- disassembler finally found right track here
mov word ptr [ebp-238h], ds
mov word ptr [ebp-23Ch], es
mov word ptr [ebp-240h], fs
mov word ptr [ebp-244h], gs
pushf
pop dword ptr [ebp-210h]
mov eax, [ebp+4]
mov [ebp-218h], eax
lea eax, [ebp+4]
mov [ebp-20Ch], eax
mov dword ptr [ebp-2D0h], 10001h
mov eax, [eax-4]
mov [ebp-21Ch], eax
mov eax, [ebp+0Ch]
mov [ebp-320h], eax
mov eax, [ebp+10h]
mov [ebp-31Ch], eax
mov eax, [ebp+4]
mov [ebp-314h], eax
call ds:IsDebuggerPresent
mov edi, eax
lea eax, [ebp-328h]
push eax
call sub 407663
pop ecx
test eax, eax
jnz short loc_402D7B
```

There are incorrectly disassembled instructions at the beginning, but eventually the disassembler gets on the right track.

## How does random noise looks disassembled?

Common properties that can be spotted easily are:

- Unusually big instruction dispersion. The most frequent x86 instructions are PUSH, MOV, CALL, but here we see instructions from all instruction groups: FPU instructions, IN/OUT instructions, rare and system instructions, everything mixed up in one single place.
- Big and random values, offsets and immediates.
- Jumps having incorrect offsets, often jumping in the middle of another instructions.

| mov | bl, 0Ch |
| :---: | :---: |
| mov | ecx, 0D38558Dh |
| mov | eax, ds:2C869A86h |
| db | 67h |
| mov | dl, 0CCh |
| insb |  |
| movsb |  |
| push | eax |
| xor | [edx-53h], ah |
| fcom | qword ptr [edi-45A0EF72h] |
| pop | esp |
| pop | ss |
| in | eax, dx |
| dec | ebx |
| push | esp |
| lds | esp, [esi-41h] |
| retf |  |
| rcl | dword ptr [eax], cl |
| mov | cl, 9Ch |
| mov | ch, 0DFh |
| push | cs |
| insb |  |
| mov | esi, 0D9C65E4Dh |
| imul | ebp, [ecx], 66h |
| pushf |  |
| sal | dword ptr [ebp-64h], cl |
| sub | eax, 0AC433D64h |
| out | $8 \mathrm{Ch}, \mathrm{eax}$ |
| pop | ss |
| sbb | [eax], ebx |
| aas |  |
| xchg | cl, [ebx+ebx*4+14B31Eh] |
| jecxz | short near ptr loc_58+1 |
| xor | al, 0C6h |
| inc | edx |
| db | 36h |
| pusha |  |
| stosb |  |
| test | [ebx], ebx |
| sub | al, 0D3h ; 'L' |
| pop | eax |
| stosb |  |
| loc_58: ; | CODE XREF: seg000:0000004A |
| test | [esi], eax |
| inc | ebp |
| das |  |
| db | 64h |
| pop | ecx |
| das |  |
| hlt |  |
| pop | edx |
| out | 0B0h, al |
| lodsb |  |
| push | ebx |
| cdq |  |
| out | dx, al |
| sub | al, 0Ah |
| sti |  |
| outsd |  |
| add | dword ptr [edx], 96FCBE4Bh |
| and | eax, 0E537EE4Fh |
| inc | esp |
| stosd |  |
| cdq |  |
| push | ecx |
| in | al, 0CBh |
| mov | ds:0D114C45Ch, al |

Listing 5.8: random noise (x86-64)

```
    lea esi, [rax+rdx*4+43558D29h]
loc AF3: ; CODE XREF: seg000:00000000000000B46
    rcl byte ptr [rsi+rax*8+29BB423Ah], 1
    lea ecx, cs:0FFFFFFFFB2A6780Fh
    mov al, 96h
    mov ah, 0CEh
    push rsp
    lods byte ptr [esi]
    db 2Fh ; /
    pop rsp
    db 64h
    retf 0E993h
    cmp ah, [rax+4Ah]
    movzx rsi, dword ptr [rbp-25h]
    push 4Ah
    movzx rdi, dword ptr [rdi+rdx*8]
    db 9Ah
    rcr byte ptr [rax+1Dh], cl
    lodsd
    xor [rbp+6CF20173h], edx
    xor [rbp+66F8B593h], edx
    push rbx
    sbb ch, [rbx-0Fh]
    stosd
    int 87h
    db 46h, 4Ch
    out 33h, rax
    xchg eax, ebp
    test ecx, ebp
    movsd
    leave
    push rsp
    db 16h
    xchg eax, esi
    pop rdi
loc B3D: ; CODE XREF: seg000:00000000000000B5F
    mov ds:93CA685DF98A90F9h, eax
    jnz short near ptr loc_AF3+6
    out dx, eax
    cwde
    mov bh, 5Dh ; ']'
    movsb
    pop rbp
```

Listing 5.9: random noise (ARM (ARM mode))

| BLNE | $0 \times F E 16 A 9 D 8$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| BGE | $0 \times 1634 D 0 \mathrm{C}$ |
| SVCCS | $0 \times 450685$ |
| STRNVT | R5, [PC],\#-0x964 |
| LDCGE | p6, c14, [R0],\#0x168 |
| STCCSL | p9, c9, [LR],\#0x14C |
| CMNHIP | PC, R10, LSL\#22 |
| FLDMIADNV LR!, [D4\} |  |
| MCR | p5, 2, R2, c15,c6, 4 |
| BLGE | $0 \times 1139558$ |
| BLGT | $0 x F F 9146 E 4$ |

```
STRNEB R5, [R4],#0xCA2
STMNEIB R5, {R0,R4,R6,R7,R9-SP,PC}
STMIA R8, {R0,R2-R4,R7,R8,R10,SP,LR}^
STRB SP, [R8],PC,ROR#18
LDCCS p9, c13, [R6,#0x1BC]
LDRGE R8, [R9,#0x66E]
STRNEB R5, [R8],#-0x8C3
STCCSL p15, c9, [R7,#-0x84]
RSBLS LR, R2, R11,ASR LR
SVCGT 0x9B0362
SVCGT 0xA73173
STMNEDB R11!, {R0,R1,R4-R6,R8,R10,R11,SP}
STR R0, [R3],#-0xCE4
LDCGT p15, c8, [R1,#0x2CC]
LDRCCB R1, [R11],-R7,R0R#30
BLLT 0xFED9D58C
BL 0x13E60F4
LDMVSIB R3!, {R1,R4-R7}^
USATNE R10, #7, SP,LSL#11
LDRGEB LR, [R1],#0xE56
STRPLT R9, [LR],#0x567
LDRLT R11, [R1],#-0x29B
SVCNV 0x12DB29
MVNNVS R5, SP,LSL#25
LDCL p8, c14, [R12,#-0x288]
STCNEL p2, c6, [R6,#-0xBC]!
SVCNV 0x2E5A2F
BLX 0x1A8C97E
TEQGE R3, #0x1100000
STMLSIA R6, {R3,R6,R10,R11,SP}
BICPLS R12, R2, #0x5800
BNE 0x7CC408
TEQGE R2, R4,LSL#20
SUBS R1, R11, #0x28C
BICVS R3, R12, R7,ASR R0
LDRMI R7, [LR],R3,LSL#21
BLMI 0x1A79234
STMVCDB R6, {R0-R3,R6,R7,R10,R11}
EORMI R12, R6, #0xC5
MCRRCS p1, 0xF, R1,R3,c2
```

Listing 5.10: random noise (ARM (Thumb mode))

| LSRS | R3, R6, \#0x12 |
| :---: | :---: |
| LDRH | R1, [R7,\#0x2C] |
| SUBS | R0, \#0x55 ; 'U' |
| ADR | R1, loc_3C |
| LDR | R2, [SP,\#0x218] |
| CMP | R4, \#0x86 |
| SXTB | R7, R4 |
| LDR | R4, [R1,\#0x4C] |
| STR | R4, [R4,R2] |
| STR | R0, [R6,\#0x20] |
| BGT | 0xFFFFFF72 |
| LDRH | R7, [R2,\#0x34] |
| LDRSH | R0, [R2,R4] |
| LDRB | R2, [R7, R2] |
| DCB 0x17 |  |
| DCB 0xED |  |
| STRB | R3, [R1,R1] |
| STR | R5, [R0,\#0x6C] |
| LDMIA | R3, \{R0-R5,R7\} |
| ASRS | R3, R2, \#3 |
| LDR | R4, [SP,\#0x2C4] |
| SVC | 0xB5 |
| LDR | R6, [R1,\#0x40] |
| LDR | R5, $=0 \times B 2 C 5 C A 32$ |
| STMIA | R6, \{R1-R4,R6\} |

```
    LDR R1, [R3,\#0x3C]
    STR R1, [R5,\#0x60]
    BCC 0xFFFFFF70
    LDR R4, [SP,\#0x1D4]
    STR R5, [R5,\#0x40]
    ORRS R5, R7
loc_3C ; DATA XREF: ROM:00000006
    B 0xFFFFFF98
```

Listing 5.11: random noise (MIPS little endian)

```
lw $t9, 0xCB3($t5)
sb $t5, 0x3855($t0)
sltiu $a2, $a0, -0x657A
ldr $t4, -0x4D99($a2)
daddi $s0, $s1, 0x50A4
lw $s7, -0x2353($s4)
bgtzl $a1, 0x17C5C
.byte 0x17
.byte 0xED
.byte 0x4B # K
.byte 0x54 # T
lwc2 $31, 0x66C5($sp)
lwu $s1, 0x10D3($a1)
ldr $t6, -0x204B($zero)
lwc1 $f30, 0x4DBE($s2)
daddiu $t1, $s1, 0x6BD9
lwu $s5, -0x2C64($v1)
cop0 0x13D642D
bne $gp, $t4, 0xFFFF9EF0
lh $ra, 0x1819($s1)
sdl $fp, -0x6474($t8)
jal 0x78C0050
ori $v0, $s2, 0xC634
blez $gp, 0xFFFEA9D4
swl $t8, -0x2CD4($s2)
sltiu $a1, $k0, 0x685
sdc1 $f15, 0x5964($at)
sw $s0, -0x19A6($a1)
sltiu $t6, $a3, -0x66AD
lb $t7, -0x4F6($t3)
sd $fp, 0x4B02($a1)
```

It is also important to keep in mind that cleverly constructed unpacking and decryption code (including self-modifying) may looks like noise as well, but still execute correctly.

### 5.11.2 Correctly disassembled code

Each ISA has a dozen of a most used instructions, all the rest are used much less often.
As of $x 86$, it is interesting to know that the fact that function calls (PUSH/CALL/ADD) and MOV instructions are the most frequently executed pieces of code in almost all programs we use. In other words, CPU is very busy passing information between levels of abstractions, or, it can be said, it's very busy switching between these levels. Regardless type of ISA. This is a cost of splitting problems into several levels of abstractions (so humans could work with them easier).

### 5.12 Text strings right in the middle of compressed data

You can download Linux kernels and find English words right in the middle of compressed data:

[^94]```
% xxd -g 1 -seek 0x515c550 -l 0x30 linux-4.10.2.tar.gz
0515c550: c5 59 43 cf 41 27 85 54 35 4a 57 90 73 89 b7 6a .YC.A'.T5JW.s..j
0515c560: 15 af 03 db 20 df 6a 51 f9 56 49 52 55 53 3d da .... .jQ.VIRUS=.
0515c570: 0e b9 29 24 cc 6a 38 e2 78 66 09 33 72 aa 88 df ..)$.j8.xf.3r...
```

\% wget https://cdn.kernel.org/pub/linux/kernel/v2.3/linux-2.3.3.tar.bz2
\% xxd -g 1 -seek 0xa93086 -l 0x30 linux-2.3.3.tar.bz2

```
00a93086: 4d 45 54 41 4c cd 44 45 2d 2c 41 41 54 94 8b al METAL.DE-,AAT...
00a93096: 5d 2b d8 d0 bd d8 06 91 74 ab 41 a0 0a 8a 94 68 ]+......t.A....h
00a930a6: 66 56 86 81 68 0d 0e 25 6b b6 80 a4 28 la 00 a4 fV..h..%k...(...
```

One of Linux kernel patches in compressed form has the "Linux" word itself:

```
% wget https://cdn.kernel.org/pub/linux/kernel/v4.x/testing/patch-4.6-rc4.gz
% xxd -g 1 -seek 0x4d03f -l 0x30 patch-4.6-rc4.gz
0004d03f: c7 40 24 bd ae ef ee 03 2c 95 dc 65 eb 31 d3 f1 .@$.....,..e.1..
0004d04f: 4c 69 6e 75 78 f2 f3 70 3c 3a bd 3e bd f8 59 7e Linux..p<:.>..Y~
0004d05f: cd 76 55 74 2b cb d5 af 7a 35 56 d7 5e 07 5a 67 .vUt+...z5V.^.Zg
```

Other English words I've found in other compressed Linux kernel trees:
linux-4.6.2.tar.gz: [maybe] at 0x68e78ec
linux-4.10.14.tar.xz: [OCEAN] at 0x6bf0a8
linux-4.7.8.tar.gz: [FUNNY] at 0x29e6e20
linux-4.6.4.tar.gz: [DRINK] at 0x68dc314
linux-2.6.11.8.tar.bz2: [LUCKY] at 0x1ab5be7
linux-3.0.68.tar.gz: [BOOST] at $0 \times 11238 \mathrm{c} 7$
linux-3.0.16.tar.bz2: [APPLE] at 0x34c091
linux-3.0.26.tar.xz: [magic] at $0 \times 296 f 7 d 9$
linux-3.11.8.tar.bz2: [TRUTH] at 0xf635ba
linux-3.10.11.tar.bz2: [logic] at 0x4a7f794

There is a nice illustration of apophenia and pareidolia There is a nice illustration of apophenia and pareidolia (human's mind ability to see faces in clouds, etc) in Lurkmore, Russian counterpart of Encyclopedia Dramatica. As they wrote in the article about electronic voice phenomenon ${ }^{31}$, you can open any long enough compressed file in hex editor and find well-known 3-letter Russian obscene word, and you'll find it a lot: but that means nothing, just a mere coincidence.

And I was interested in calculation, how big compressed file must be to contain all possible 3-letter, 4letter, etc, words? In my naive calculations, I've got this: probability of the first specific byte in the middle of compressed data stream with maximal entropy is $\frac{1}{256}$, probability of the 2 nd is also $\frac{1}{256}$, and probability of specific byte pair is $\frac{1}{256 \cdot 256}=\frac{1}{256^{2}}$. Probabilty of specific triple is $\frac{1}{256^{3}}$. If the file has maximal entropy (which is almost unachievable, but ...) and we live in an ideal world, you've got to have a file of size just $256^{3}=16777216$, which is $16-17 \mathrm{MB}$. You can check: get any compressed file, and use rafind2 to search for any 3-letter word (not just that Russian obscene one).

It took $\approx 8-9$ GB of my downloaded movies/TV series files to find the word "beer" in them (case sensitive). Perhaps, these movies wasn't compressed good enough? This is also true for a well-known 4-letter English obscene word.

My approach is naive, so I googled for mathematically grounded one, and have find this question: "Time until a consecutive sequence of ones in a random bit sequence" ${ }^{32}$. The answer is: $\left(p^{-n}-1\right) /(1-p)$, where $p$ is probability of each event and $n$ is number of consecutive events. Plug $\frac{1}{256}$ and 3 and you'll get almost the same as my naive calculations.
So any 3-letter word can be found in the compressed file (with ideal entropy) of length $256^{3}=\approx 17 M B$, any 4-letter word $-256^{4}=4.7 G B$ (size of DVD). Any 5-letter word $-256^{5}=\approx 1 T B$.

For the piece of text you are reading now, I mirrored the whole kernel.org website (hopefully, sysadmins can forgive me), and it has $\approx 430 G B$ of compressed Linux Kernel source trees. It has enough compressed

[^95]data to contain these words, however, I cheated a bit: I searched for both lowercase and uppercase strings, thus compressed data set I need is almost halved.

This is quite interesting thing to think about: 1TB of compressed data with maximal entropy has all possible 5-byte chains, but the data is encoded not in chains itself, but in the order of chains (no matter of compression algorithm, etc).

Now the information for gamblers: one should throw a dice $\approx 42$ times to get a pair of six, but no one will tell you, when exactly this will happen. I don't remember, how many times coin was tossed in the "Rosencrantz \& Guildenstern Are Dead" movie, but one should toss it $\approx 2048$ times and at some point, you'll get 10 heads in a row, and at some other point, 10 tails in a row. Again, no one will tell you, when exactly this will happen.

Compressed data can also be treated as a stream of random data, so we can use the same mathematics to determine probabilities, etc.

If you can live with strings of mixed case, like "bEeR", probabilities and compressed data sets are much lower: $128^{3}=2 M B$ for all 3-letter words of mixed case, $128^{4}=268 M B$ for all 4-letter words, $128^{5}=34 G B$ for all 5-letter words, etc.

Moral of the story: whenever you search for some patterns, you can find it in the middle of compressed blob, but that means nothing else then coincidence. In philosophical sense, this is a case of selection/confirmation bias: you find what you search for in "The Library of Babel"33.

### 5.13 Other things

### 5.13.1 General idea

A reverse engineer should try to be in programmer's shoes as often as possible. To take his/her viewpoint and ask himself, how would one solve some task the specific case.

### 5.13.2 Order of functions in binary code

All functions located in a single .c or .cpp-file are compiled into corresponding object (.o) file. Later, linker puts all object files it needs together, not changing order or functions in them. As a consequence, if you see two or more consecutive functions, it means, that they were placed together in a single source code file (unless you're on border of two object files, of course.) This means these functions have something in common, that they are from the same API level, from same library, etc.

### 5.13.3 Tiny functions

Tiny functions like empty functions ( 1.3 on page 5) or function which returns just "true" (1) or "false" (0) ( 1.4 on page 7) are very common, and almost all decent compilers tend to put only one such function into resulting executable code even if there were several similar functions in source code. So, whenever you see a tiny function consisting just of mov eax, $1 /$ ret which is referenced (and can be called) from many places, which are seems unconnected to each other, this may be a result of such optimization.

### 5.13.4 C++

RTTI ( 3.18 .1 on page 557)-data may be also useful for $C++$ class identification.

[^96]
## Chapter 6

## OS-specific

### 6.1 Arguments passing methods (calling conventions)

### 6.1.1 cdecl

This is the most popular method for passing arguments to functions in the C/C++ languages.
The glscaller also must return the value of the stack pointer (ESP) to its initial state after the callee function exits.

Listing 6.1: cdecl

```
push arg3
push arg2
push arg1
call function
add esp, 12 ; returns ESP
```


### 6.1.2 stdcall

It's almost the same as cdecl, with the exception that the callee must set ESP to the initial state by executing the RET x instruction instead of RET,
where $x=$ arguments number $*$ sizeof(int) ${ }^{1}$. The caller is not adjusting the stack pointer, there are no add esp, x instruction.

Listing 6.2: stdcall

```
push arg3
push arg2
push arg1
call function
function:
... do something ...
ret }1
```

The method is ubiquitous in win32 standard libraries, but not in win64 (see below about win64).
For example, we can take the function from 1.86 on page 97 and change it slightly by adding the $\qquad$ stdcall modifier:

```
int __stdcall f2 (int a, int b, int c)
{
    return a*b+c;
};
```

It is to be compiled in almost the same way as 1.87 on page 97 , but you will see RET 12 instead of RET. SP is not updated in the caller.

[^97]As a consequence, the number of function arguments can be easily deduced from the RETN $n$ instruction: just divide $n$ by 4.

Listing 6.3: MSVC 2010

| a\$ = 8 |  | ; size = 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b\$ = 12 |  | ; size = 4 |
| c\$ $=16$ |  | ; size = 4 |
| f2@12 | PROC |  |
|  | push | ebp |
|  | mov | ebp, esp |
|  | mov | eax, DWORD PTR _a\$[ebp] |
|  | imul | eax, DWORD PTR _b\$[ebp] |
|  | add | eax, DWORD PTR _c\$[ebp] |
|  | pop | ebp |
|  | ret | 12 |
| f2@12 | ENDP |  |
| . . |  |  |
|  | push | 3 |
|  | push | 2 |
|  | push | 1 |
|  | call | _f2@12 |
|  | push | eax |
|  | push | OFFSET \$SG81369 |
|  | call | _printf |
|  | add | esp, 8 |

## Functions with variable number of arguments

printf()-like functions are, probably, the only case of functions with a variable number of arguments in C/C++, but it is easy to illustrate an important difference between cdecl and stdcall with their help. Let's start with the idea that the compiler knows the argument count of each printf() function call.
However, the called printf(), which is already compiled and located in MSVCRT.DLL (if we talk about Windows), does not have any information about how much arguments were passed, however it can determine it from the format string.

Thus, if printf() would be a stdcall function and restored stack pointer to its initial state by counting the number of arguments in the format string, this could be a dangerous situation, when one programmer's typo can provoke a sudden program crash. Thus it is not suitable for such functions to use stdcall, cdecl is better.

### 6.1.3 fastcall

That's the general naming for the method of passing some arguments via registers and the rest via the stack. It worked faster than cdecl/stdcall on older CPUs (because of smaller stack pressure). It may not help to gain any significant performance on latest (much more complex) CPUs, however.
It is not standardized, so the various compilers can do it differently. It's a well known caveat: if you have two DLLs and the one uses another one, and they are built by different compilers with different fastcall calling conventions, you can expect problems.

Both MSVC and GCC pass the first and second arguments via ECX and EDX and the rest of the arguments via the stack.

The stack pointer must be restored to its initial state by the callee (like in stdcall).
Listing 6.4: fastcall

```
push arg3
mov edx, arg2
mov ecx, argl
call function
function:
.. do something ..
ret 4
```

For example, we may take the function from 1.86 on page 97 and change it slightly by adding a fastcall modifier:

```
int __fastcall f3 (int a, int b, int c)
{
    return a*b+c;
};
```

Here is how it is to be compiled:
Listing 6.5: Optimizing MSVC 2010 /Ob0

```
c$ = 8 ; size = 4
@f3@12 PROC
; _a$ = ecx
; _b$ = edx
    mov eax, ecx
    imul eax, edx
    add eax, DWORD PTR c$[esp-4]
    ret 4
@f3@12 ENDP
; ...
    mov edx, 2
    push 3
    lea ecx, DWORD PTR [edx-1]
    call @f3@12
    push eax
    push OFFSET $SG81390
    call _printf
    add esp, 8
```

We see that the callee returns SP by using the RETN instruction with an operand.
Which implies that the number of arguments can be deduced easily here as well.

## GCC regparm

It is the evolution of fastcall ${ }^{2}$ in some sense. With the -mregparm option it is possible to set how many arguments are to be passed via registers ( 3 is the maximum). Thus, the EAX, EDX and ECX registers are to be used.

Of course, if the number the of arguments is less than 3 , not all 3 registers are to be used.
The caller restores the stack pointer to its initial state.
For example, see ( 1.22 .1 on page 306).

## Watcom/OpenWatcom

Here it is called "register calling convention". The first 4 arguments are passed via the EAX, EDX, EBX and ECX registers. All the rest-via the stack.

These functions has an underscore appended to the function name in order to distinguish them from those having a different calling convention.

### 6.1.4 thiscall

This is passing the object's this pointer to the function-method, in C++.
In MSVC, this is usually passed in the ECX register.
In GCC, the this pointer is passed as the first function-method argument. Thus it will be visible that all functions in assembly code have an extra argument, in comparison with the source code.

For an example, see ( 3.18 .1 on page 542).

[^98]
## $6.1 .5 \times 86-64$

## Windows $x 64$

The method of for passing arguments in Win64 somewhat resembles fastcall. The first 4 arguments are passed via RCX, RDX, R8 and R9, the rest-via the stack. The caller also must prepare space for 32 bytes or 464 -bit values, so then the callee can save there the first 4 arguments. Short functions may use the arguments' values just from the registers, but larger ones may save their values for further use.
The caller also must return the stack pointer into its initial state.
This calling convention is also used in Windows x86-64 system DLLs (instead of stdcall in win32).
Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
void fl(int a, int b, int c, int d, int e, int f, int g)
{
    printf ("%d %d %d %d %d %d %d\n", a, b, c, d, e, f, g);
};
int main()
{
    f1(1,2,3,4,5,6,7);
};
```

Listing 6.6: MSVC 2012 /0b

```
$SG2937 DB '%d %d %d %d %d %d %d', 0aH, 00H
main PROC
    sub rsp, 72
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+48], 7
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], 6
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], 5
    mov r9d, 4
    mov r8d, 3
    mov edx, 2
    mov ecx, 1
    call f1
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 72
    ret 0
main ENDP
a$ = 80
b$ = 88
c$ = 96
d$ = 104
e$ = 112
f$ = 120
g$ = 128
f1 PROC
$LN3:
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], r9d
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+24], r8d
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+16], edx
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], ecx
    sub rsp, 72
    mov eax, DWORD PTR g$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+56], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR f$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+48], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR e$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR d$[rsp]
```

|  | mov | DWORD PTR [rsp+32], eax |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | mov | r9d, DWORD PTR c\$[rsp] |
|  | mov | r8d, DWORD PTR b\$[rsp] |
|  | mov | edx, DWORD PTR a\$[rsp] |
|  | lea | rcx, OFFSET FLAT:\$SG2937 |
|  | call | printf |
|  | add | rsp, 72 |
|  | ret | 0 |
| f1 | ENDP |  |

Here we clearly see how 7 arguments are passed: 4 via registers and the remaining 3 via the stack.
The code of the f1() function's prologue saves the arguments in the "scratch space"-a space in the stack intended exactly for this purpose.

This is arranged so because the compiler cannot be sure that there will be enough registers to use without these 4 , which will otherwise be occupied by the arguments until the function's execution end.

The "scratch space" allocation in the stack is the caller's duty.
Listing 6.7: Optimizing MSVC 2012 /Ob

```
$SG2777 DB '%d %d %d %d %d %d %d', 0aH, 00H
a$ = 80
b$ = 88
c$ = 96
d$ = 104
e$ = 112
f$ = 120
g$ = 128
f1 PROC
$LN3:
    sub rsp, 72
    mov eax, DWORD PTR g$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+56], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR f$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+48], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR e$[rsp]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], eax
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], r9d
    mov r9d, r8d
    mov r8d, edx
    mov edx, ecx
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2777
    call printf
    add rsp, 72
    ret 0
    ENDP
    PROC
    sub rsp, 72
    mov edx, 2
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+48], 7
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+40], 6
    lea r9d, QWORD PTR [rdx+2]
    lea r8d, QWORD PTR [rdx+1]
    lea ecx, QWORD PTR [rdx-1]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+32], 5
    call f1
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 72
    ret 0
main ENDP
```

If we compile the example with optimizations, it is to be almost the same, but the "scratch space" will not be used, because it won't be needed.

Also take a look on how MSVC 2012 optimizes the loading of primitive values into registers by using LEA ( .1.6 on page 1028). MOV would be 1 byte longer here ( 5 instead of 4).
Another example of such thing is: 8.1.1 on page 797.

## Windows x64: Passing this (C/C++)

The this pointer is passed in RCX, the first argument of the method is in RDX, etc. For an example see: 3.18.1 on page 544.

## Linux $\times 64$

The way arguments are passed in Linux for $x 86-64$ is almost the same as in Windows, but 6 registers are used instead of 4 (RDI, RSI, RDX, RCX, R8, R9) and there is no "scratch space", although the callee may save the register values in the stack, if it needs/wants to.

Listing 6.8: Optimizing GCC 4.7.3

```
.LC0:
    .string "%d %d %d %d %d %d %d\n"
f1:
    sub rsp, 40
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [rsp+48]
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], r9d
    mov r9d, ecx
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp], r8d
    mov ecx, esi
    mov r8d, edx
    mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0
    mov edx, edi
    mov edi, 1
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+16], eax
    xor eax, eax
    call __printf_chk
    add \overline{rsp},40
    ret
main:
    sub rsp, 24
    mov r9d, 6
    mov r8d, 5
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp], 7
    mov ecx, 4
    mov edx, 3
    mov esi, 2
    mov edi, l
    call f1
    add rsp, 24
    ret
```

N.B.: here the values are written into the 32-bit parts of the registers (e.g., EAX) but not in the whole 64 -bit register (RAX). This is because each write to the low 32-bit part of a register automatically clears the high 32 bits. Supposedly, it was decided in AMD to do so to simplify porting code to $x 86-64$.

### 6.1.6 Return values of float and double type

In all conventions except in Win64, the values of type float or double are returned via the FPU register ST(0).

In Win64, the values of float and double types are returned in the low 32 or 64 bits of the XMM0 register.

### 6.1.7 Modifying arguments

Sometimes, C/C++ programmers (not limited to these PLs, though), may ask, what can happen if they modify the arguments?

The answer is simple: the arguments are stored in the stack, that is where the modification takes place. The calling functions is not using them after the callee's exit (the author of these lines has never seen any such case in his practice).

```
#include <stdio.h>
void f(int a, int b)
{
    a=a+b;
    printf ("%d\n", a);
};
```

Listing 6.9: MSVC 2012

```
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
b$ = 12 ; size = 4
-f PROC
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, DWORD PTR a$[ebp]
    add eax, DWORD PTR _b$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR _a$[ebp], eax
    mov ecx, DWORD ' PTR a$[ebp]
    push ecx
    push OFFSET $SG2938 ; '%d', 0aH
    call _printf
    add esp, 8
    pop ebp
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

So yes, one can modify the arguments easily. Of course, if it is not references in C++ ( 3.18 .3 on page 558), and if you don't modify data to which a pointer points to, then the effect will not propagate outside the current function.

Theoretically, after the callee's return, the caller could get the modified argument and use it somehow. Maybe if it is written directly in assembly language.

For example, code like this will be generated by usual $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ compiler:

| push | 456 | $;$ will be b |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| push | 123 | $;$ will be a |
| call | f | f() modifies its first argument |
| add | esp, $2 * 4$ |  |

We can rewrite this code like:

| push | 456 | ; will be b |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| push | 123 | ; will be a |
| call | $f$ | f() modifies its first argument |
| pop | eax |  |
| add | esp, 4 |  |
| ; EAX=1st argument of $f()$ modified in $f()$ |  |  |

Hard to imagine, why anyone would need this, but this is possible in practice. Nevertheless, the C/C++ languages standards don't offer any way to do so.

### 6.1.8 Taking a pointer to function argument

...even more than that, it's possible to take a pointer to the function's argument and pass it to another function:

```
#include <stdio.h>
// located in some other file
void modify_a (int *a);
void f (int a)
{
    modify_a (&a);
    printf ("%d\n", a);
};
```

It's hard to understand how it works until we can see the code:
Listing 6.10: Optimizing MSVC 2010

```
$SG2796 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
a$ = 8
-f PROC
eax, DWORD PTR _a$[esp-4] ; just get the address of value in local stack
    push eax ; and pass it to modify_a()
    call _modify_a
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _a$[esp] ; reload it from the local stack
    push ecx ; and pass it to printf()
    push OFFSET $SG2796 ; '%d'
    call _printf
    add esp, 12
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

The address of the place in the stack where $a$ has been passed is just passed to another function. It modifies the value addressed by the pointer and then printf() prints the modified value.
The observant reader might ask, what about calling conventions where the function's arguments are passed in registers?

That's a situation where the Shadow Space is used.
The input value is copied from the register to the Shadow Space in the local stack, and then this address is passed to the other function:

Listing 6.11: Optimizing MSVC 2012 x64

```
$SG2994 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
a$ = 48
f PROC
    mov DWORD PTR [rsp+8], ecx ; save input value in Shadow Space
    sub rsp,40
    lea rcx, QWORD PTR a$[rsp] ; get address of value and pass it to modify_a()
    call modify_a
    mov edx, DWWORD PTR a$[rsp] ; reload value from Shadow Space and pass it to printf_~
    G()
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG2994 ; '%d'
    call printf
    add rsp, 40
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

GCC also stores the input value in the local stack:
Listing 6.12: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 x64

| . LC0: |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| .string | "\%d\n" |
| sub | rsp, 24 |
| mov | DWORD PTR [rsp+12], edi ; store input value to the local stack |
| lea | rdi, [rsp+12] ; take an address of the value and pass it to modify_ar |
| $৬()$ call | modify a |

```
    mov
    edx, DWORD PTR [rsp+12] ; reload value from the local stack and pass it to \imath
    urintf()
    mov esi, OFFSET FLAT:.LC0 ; '%d'
    mov edi, 1
    xor eax, eax
    call _printf_chk
    add rsp, 24
    ret
```

GCC for ARM64 does the same, but this space is called Register Save Area here:
Listing 6.13: Optimizing GCC 4.9.1 ARM64

```
f:
    stp x29, x30, [sp, -32]!
    add x29, sp, 0 ; setup FP
    add x1, x29, 32 ; calculate address of variable in Register Save Area
    str w0, [x1,-4]! ; store input value there
    mov x0, x1 ; pass address of variable to the modify_a()
    bl modify a
    ldr w1, [x29,28] ; load value from the variable and pass it to printf()
    adrp x0, .LC0 ; '%d'
    add x0, x0, :lo12:.LC0
    bl printf ; call printf()
    ldp x29, x30, [sp], 32
    ret
.LC0:
    .string "%d\n"
```

By the way, a similar usage of the Shadow Space is also considered here: 3.14.1 on page 520.

### 6.2 Thread Local Storage

TLS is a data area, specific to each thread. Every thread can store what it needs there. One well-known example is the C standard global variable errno.
Multiple threads may simultaneously call functions which return an error code in errno, so a global variable will not work correctly here for multi-threaded programs, so errno must be stored in the TLS.

In the $C++11$ standard, a new thread_local modifier was added, showing that each thread has its own version of the variable, it can be initialized, and it is located in the TLS ${ }^{3}$ :

Listing 6.14: $\mathrm{C}++11$

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>
thread local int tmp=3;
int main()
{
};
```

Compiled in MinGW GCC 4.8.1, but not in MSVC 2012.
If we talk about PE files, in the resulting executable file, the $\operatorname{tmp}$ variable is to be allocated in the section devoted to the TLS.

### 6.2.1 Linear congruential generator revisited

The pseudorandom number generator we considered earlier 1.23 on page 338 has a flaw: it's not threadsafe, because it has an internal state variable which can be read and/or modified in different threads simultaneously.

[^99]
## Win32

## Uninitialized TLS data

One solution is to add __declspec ( thread ) modifier to the global variable, then it will be allocated in the TLS (line 9):

```
#include <stdint.h>
#include <windows.h>
#include <winnt.h>
// from the Numerical Recipes book:
#define RNG a 1664525
#define RNG_c 1013904223
    declspec( thread ) uint32_t rand_state;
void my_srand (uint32_t init)
{
    rand_state=init;
}
int my rand ()
{
    rand state=rand state*RNG a;
    rand_state=rand_state+RNG c;
    return rand_state & 0x7fff;
}
int main()
{
    my_srand(0x12345678);
    printf ("%d\n", my_rand());
};
```

Hiew shows us that there is a new PE section in the executable file: .tls.
Listing 6.15: Optimizing MSVC $2013 \times 86$

```
_TLS SEGMENT
rand state DD 01H DUP (?)
_TLS - ENDS
DATA SEGMENT
$SG84851 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
-TEXT SEGMENT
_init$ = 8 ; size = 4
my srand PROC
; F\overline{S}:0=address of TIB
        mov eax, DWORD PTR fs:__tls_array ; displayed in IDA as FS:2Ch
; EAX=address of TLS of process
        mov ecx, DWORD PTR __tls_index
        mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+ecx*4]
; ECX=current TLS segment
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _init$[esp-4]
    mov DWORD PTR _rand_state[ecx], eax
    ret 0
_my_srand ENDP
my rand PROC
; FS:0=address of TIB
        mov eax, DWORD PTR fs:__tls_array ; displayed in IDA as FS:2Ch
; EAX=address of TLS of process
        mov ecx, DWORD PTR __tls_index
        mov ecx, DWORD PTR [eax+ecx*4]
; ECX=current TLS segment
        imul eax, DWORD PTR _rand_state[ecx], 1664525
        add eax, 1013904223 ; 3c6ef35fH
```


rand_state is now in the TLS segment, and each thread has its own version of this variable.
Here is how it's accessed: load the address of the TIB from FS:2Ch, then add an additional index (if needed), then calculate the address of the TLS segment.

Then it's possible to access the rand_state variable through the ECX register, which points to an unique area in each thread.

The FS: selector is familiar to every reverse engineer, it is specially used to always point to TIB, so it would be fast to load the thread-specific data.

The GS: selector is used in Win64 and the address of the TLS is $0 \times 58$ :
Listing 6.16: Optimizing MSVC 2013 x64

```
TLS SEGMENT
/rand_state DD 01H DUP (?)
TLS ENDS
DATA SEGMENT
$SG85451 DB '%d', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
init$ = 8
my_srand PROC
    mov edx, DWORD PTR tls index
    mov rax, QWORD PTR gs:8\overline{8} ; 58h
    mov r8d, OFFSET FLAT:rand_state
    mov rax, QWORD PTR [rax+rdx*8]
    mov DWORD PTR [r8+rax], ecx
    ret 0
my_srand ENDP
my_rand PROC
    mov rax, QWORD PTR gs:88 ; 58h
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR tls index
    mov edx, OFFSET FLAT:rand_state
    mov rcx, QWORD PTR [rax+rcx*8]
    imul eax, DWORD PTR [rcx+rdx], 1664525 ; 0019660dH
    add eax, 1013904223 ; 3c6ef35fH
    mov DWORD PTR [rcx+rdx], eax
    and eax, 32767 ; 00007fffH
    ret 0
my_rand ENDP
    TEXT ENDS
```


## Initialized TLS data

Let's say, we want to set some fixed value to rand_state, so in case the programmer forgets to, the rand_state variable would be initialized to some constant anyway (line 9):

```
#include <stdint.h>
#include <windows.h>
#include <winnt.h>
// from the Numerical Recipes book:
#define RNG_a 1664525
#define RNG_c 1013904223
```

```
declspec( thread ) uint32_t rand_state=1234;
void my_srand (uint32_t init)
{
    rand_state=init;
}
int my_rand ()
{
    rand_state=rand_state*RNG a;
    rand_state=rand_state+RNG_c;
    return rand_state & 0x7fff;
}
int main()
{
    printf ("%d\n", my_rand());
};
```

The code is not different from what we already saw, but in IDA we see:

```
.tls:00404000 ; Segment type: Pure data
.tls:00404000 ; Segment permissions: Read/Write
.tls:00404000 _tls segment para public 'DATA' use32
.tls:00404000 assume cs:_tls
.tls:00404000 ;org 404000}\textrm{O
.tls:00404000 TlsStart db 0 ; DATA XREF: .rdata:TlsDirectory
.tls:00404001 db 0
.tls:00404002 db 0
.tls:00404003 db 0
.tls:00404004 dd 1234
.tls:00404008 TlsEnd db 0 ; DATA XREF: .rdata:TlsEnd_ptr
```

. .

1234 is there and every time a new thread starts, a new TLS is allocated for it, and all this data, including 1234, will be copied there.
This is a typical scenario:

- Thread A is started. A TLS is created for it, 1234 is copied to rand_state.
- The my_rand() function is called several times in thread A. rand_state is different from 1234.
- Thread B is started. A TLS is created for it, 1234 is copied to rand state, while thread A has a different value in the same variable.


## TLS callbacks

But what if the variables in the TLS have to be filled with some data that must be prepared in some unusual way?

Let's say, we've got the following task: the programmer can forget to call the my_srand() function to initialize the PRNG, but the generator has to be initialized at start with something truly random, instead of 1234 . This is a case in which TLS callbacks can be used.

The following code is not very portable due to the hack, but nevertheless, you get the idea.
What we do here is define a function (tls_callback()) which is to be called before the process and/or thread start.

The function initializes the PRNG with the value returned by GetTickCount() function.

```
#include <stdint.h>
#include <windows.h>
#include <winnt.h>
// from the Numerical Recipes book:
#define RNG_a 1664525
#define RNG_c 1013904223
```

```
declspec( thread ) uint32_t rand_state;
void my_srand (uint32_t init)
{
    rand_state=init;
}
void NTAPI tls_callback(PVOID a, DWORD dwReason, PVOID b)
{
    my_srand (GetTickCount());
}
#pragma data_seg(".CRT$XLB")
PIMAGE_TLS_CALLBACK p_thread_callback = tls_callback;
#pragmà dat̄a_seg()
int my_rand ()
{
    rand_state=rand_state*RNG_a;
    rand_state=rand_state+RNG_c;
    retu\overline{rn rand sta\overline{te & 0x7fff};};
}
int main()
{
    // rand_state is already initialized at the moment (using GetTickCount())
    printf ("%d\n", my_rand());
};
```

Let's see it in IDA:
Listing 6.17: Optimizing MSVC 2013

```
.text:00401020 TlsCallback 0 proc near ; DATA XREF: .rdata:TlsCallbacks
.text:00401020 call ds:GetTickCount
.text:00401026 push eax
.text:00401027 call my srand
.text:0040102C pop ecx
.text:0040102D retn 0Ch
.text:0040102D TlsCallback_0 endp
...
.rdata:004020C0 TlsCallbacks dd offset TlsCallback_0 ; DATA XREF: .rdata:TlsCallbacks_ptr
.rdata:00402118 TlsDirectory dd offset TlsStart
.rdata:0040211C TlsEnd ptr dd offset TlsEnd
.rdata:00402120 TlsIndex_ptr dd offset TlsIndex
.rdata:00402124 TlsCallbacks_ptr dd offset TlsCallbacks
.rdata:00402128 TlsSizeOfZeroFill dd 0
.rdata:0040212C TlsCharacteristics dd 300000h
```

TLS callback functions are sometimes used in unpacking routines to obscure their processing.
Some people may be confused and be in the dark that some code executed right before the OEP ${ }^{4}$.

## Linux

Here is how a thread-local global variable is declared in GCC:

```
thread uint32_t rand_state=1234;
```

This is not the standard $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ modifier, but a rather GCC-specific one ${ }^{5}$.

[^100]The GS: selector is also used to access the TLS, but in a somewhat different way:
Listing 6.18: Optimizing GCC $4.8 .1 \times 86$

| .text:08048460 my_srand | proc near |
| :--- | :--- |
| .text:08048460 |  |
| .text:08048460 arg_0 | = dword ptr 4 |
| .text:08048460 |  |
| .text:08048460 | mov eax, [esp+arg_0] |
| .text:08048464 | mov gs:0FFFFFFFCh, eax |
| .text:0804846A | retn |
| .text:0804846A my_srand | endp |
|  |  |
| .text:08048470 my_rand | proc near |
| .text:08048470 | imul eax, gs:0FFFFFFFCh, 19660Dh |
| .text:0804847B | add eax, 3C6EF35Fh |
| .text:08048480 | mov |
| .text:08048486 | and eax, 7FFFh |
| .text:0804848B | retn |
| .text:0804848B my_rand | endp |

More about it: [Ulrich Drepper, ELF Handling For Thread-Local Storage, (2013)] ${ }^{6}$.

### 6.3 System calls (syscall-s)

As we know, all running processes inside an OS are divided into two categories: those having full access to the hardware ("kernel space") and those that do not ("user space").

The OS kernel and usually the drivers are in the first category.
All applications are usually in the second category.
For example, Linux kernel is in kernel space, but Glibc in user space.
This separation is crucial for the safety of the OS: it is very important not to give to any process the possibility to screw up something in other processes or even in the OS kernel. On the other hand, a failing driver or error inside the OS's kernel usually leads to a kernel panic or BSOD ${ }^{7}$.

The protection in the x 86 processors allows to separate everything into 4 levels of protection (rings), but both in Linux and in Windows only two are used: ring0 ("kernel space") and ring3 ("user space").

System calls (syscall-s) are a point where these two areas are connected.
It can be said that this is the main API provided to applications.
As in Windows NT, the syscalls table resides in the SSDT ${ }^{8}$.
The usage of syscalls is very popular among shellcode and computer viruses authors, because it is hard to determine the addresses of needed functions in the system libraries, but it is easier to use syscalls. However, much more code has to be written due to the lower level of abstraction of the API.

It is also worth noting that the syscall numbers may be different in various OS versions.

### 6.3.1 Linux

In Linux, a syscall is usually called via int $0 x 80$. The call's number is passed in the EAX register, and any other parameters -in the other registers.

Listing 6.19: A simple example of the usage of two syscalls

```
section .text
global _start
start:
    mov edx,len ; buffer len
    mov ecx,msg ; buffer
```

[^101]

Compilation:

```
nasm -f elf32 1.s
ld 1.0
```

The full list of syscalls in Linux: http://go.yurichev. com/17319.
For system calls interception and tracing in Linux, strace( 7.2.3 on page 791) can be used.

### 6.3.2 Windows

Here they are called via int $0 x 2 e$ or using the special x86 instruction SYSENTER.
The full list of syscalls in Windows: http://go.yurichev. com/17320.
Further reading:
"Windows Syscall Shellcode" by Piotr Bania: http://go.yurichev.com/17321.

### 6.4 Linux

### 6.4.1 Position-independent code

While analyzing Linux shared (.so) libraries, one may frequently spot this code pattern:
Listing 6.20: libc-2.17.so x86


| . text:00057A04 | lea | eax, (aInvalidKindIn_ | 1AF000h)[ebx] ; "! \"invalid $\downarrow$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\rightarrow$ KIND in |  |  |  |
| . text:00057A0A | mov | [esp+0ACh+var_A4], 14Ah |  |
| . text:00057A12 | mov | [esp+0ACh+var_AC], eax |  |
| . text:00057A15 | call | __assert_fail |  |

All pointers to strings are corrected by some constants and the value in EBX, which is calculated at the beginning of each function.

This is the so-called PIC, it is intended to be executable if placed at any random point of memory, that is why it cannot contain any absolute memory addresses.

PIC was crucial in early computer systems and is still crucial today in embedded systems without virtual memory support (where all processes are placed in a single continuous memory block).

It is also still used in *NIX systems for shared libraries, since they are shared across many processes while loaded in memory only once. But all these processes can map the same shared library at different addresses, so that is why a shared library has to work correctly without using any absolute addresses.

Let's do a simple experiment:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int global_variable=123;
int fl(int var)
{
    int rt=global_variable+var;
    printf ("returning %d\n", rt);
    return rt;
};
```

Let's compile it in GCC 4.7.3 and see the resulting .so file in IDA:

```
gcc -fPIC -shared -03 -0 1.so 1.c
```

Listing 6.21: GCC 4.7.3

```
.text:00000440
.text:00000440
.text:00000440
.text:00000440
.text:00000443
.text:00000443
.text:00000570
.text:00000570 f1
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000570
.text:00000573
.text:00000577
.text:0000057C
.text:00000582
.text:00000586
.text:0000058C
.text:0000058E
.text:00000594
.text:00000598
text:0000059C
.text:000005A3
.text:000005A7
.text:000005AC
.text:000005AE
.text:000005B2
```

```
public x86 get pc thunk bx
```

public x86 get pc thunk bx
x86_get_pc_thunk_bx proc near ; CODE XREF: _init_proc+4
x86_get_pc_thunk_bx proc near ; CODE XREF: _init_proc+4
; deregister_tm_clones+4 ..
; deregister_tm_clones+4 ..
mov ebx, [esp+0]
mov ebx, [esp+0]
retn
retn
_x86_get_pc_thunk_bx endp
_x86_get_pc_thunk_bx endp
public f1
public f1
proc near
proc near
= dword ptr -1Ch
= dword ptr -1Ch
= dword ptr -18h
= dword ptr -18h
= dword ptr -14h
= dword ptr -14h
= dword ptr -8
= dword ptr -8
= dword ptr -4
= dword ptr -4
= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 4
sub esp, 1Ch
sub esp, 1Ch
mov [esp+1Ch+var 8], ebx
mov [esp+1Ch+var 8], ebx
call _ x86_get_pc_thunk_bx
call _ x86_get_pc_thunk_bx
add ebx, 1A84h
add ebx, 1A84h
mov [esp+1Ch+var 4], esi
mov [esp+1Ch+var 4], esi
mov eax, ds:(global_variable_ptr - 2000h)[ebx]
mov eax, ds:(global_variable_ptr - 2000h)[ebx]
mov esi, [eax]
mov esi, [eax]
lea eax, (aReturningD - 2000h)[ebx] ; "returning %d\n"
lea eax, (aReturningD - 2000h)[ebx] ; "returning %d\n"
add esi, [esp+1Ch+arg_0]
add esi, [esp+1Ch+arg_0]
mov [esp+1Ch+var_18], eax
mov [esp+1Ch+var_18], eax
mov [esp+1Ch+var 1C], 1
mov [esp+1Ch+var 1C], 1
mov [esp+1Ch+var_14], esi
mov [esp+1Ch+var_14], esi
call __printf_chk
call __printf_chk
mov eax, esi
mov eax, esi
mov ebx, [esp+1Ch+var_8]
mov ebx, [esp+1Ch+var_8]
mov esi, [esp+1Ch+var_4]

```
mov esi, [esp+1Ch+var_4]
```

| .text:000005B6 | add esp, 1Ch |
| :--- | :--- |
| .text:000005B9 | retn |
| .text:000005B9 f1 | endp |

That's it: the pointers to «returning \%dln» and global_variable are to be corrected at each function execution.

The __x86_get_pc_thunk_bx() function returns in EBX the address of the point after a call to itself ( $0 \times 57 \mathrm{C}$ here).

That's a simple way to get the value of the program counter (EIP) at some point. The 0x1A84 constant is related to the difference between this function's start and the so-called Global Offset Table Procedure Linkage Table (GOT PLT), the section right after the Global Offset Table (GOT), where the pointer to global_variable is. IDA shows these offsets in their processed form to make them easier to understand, but in fact the code is:

```
.text:00000577 call _x86_get_pc_thunk_bx
.text:0000057C add ebx, lA84h
.text:00000582 mov [esp+1Ch+var_4], esi
.text:00000586 mov eax, [ebx-0Ch]
.text:0000058C mov esi, [eax]
.text:0000058E lea eax, [ebx-1A30h]
```

Here EBX points to the GOT PLT section and to calculate a pointer to global_variable (which is stored in the GOT), $0 x C$ must be subtracted.

To calculate pointer to the «returning \%d|n» string, $0 \times 1 \mathrm{~A} 30$ must be subtracted.
By the way, that is the reason why the AMD64 instruction set supports RIP ${ }^{9}$-relative addressing - to simplify PIC-code.

Let's compile the same C code using the same GCC version, but for x64.
IDA would simplify the resulting code but would suppress the RIP-relative addressing details, so we are going to use objdump instead of IDA to see everything:

```
0000000000000720 <f1>:
    720: 48 8b 05 b9 08 20 00 mov rax,QWORD PTR [rip+0x2008b9] # 200fe0 <_DYNAMIC+0r
        4 x1d0>
    727: 53
    728: 89 fb p
    731: bf 01 00 00 00 mov edi,0x1
    736: 03 18 add ebx,DWORD PTR [rax]
    738: 31 c0 xor eax,eax
    73a: 89 da mov edx,ebx
    73c: e8 df fe ff ff call 620 <__printf_chk@plt>
    741: 89 d8 mov eax,ebx
    743: 5b pop rbx
    744: c3 ret
```

$0 x 2008 b 9$ is the difference between the address of the instruction at $0 \times 720$ and global_variable, and $0 \times 20$ is the difference between the address of the instruction at $0 \times 72 \mathrm{~A}$ and the «returning $\overline{\%} d \mid n »$ string.

As you might see, the need to recalculate addresses frequently makes execution slower (it is better in x64, though).

So it is probably better to link statically if you care about performance [see: Agner Fog, Optimizing software in C++ (2015)].

## Windows

The PIC mechanism is not used in Windows DLLs. If the Windows loader needs to load DLL on another base address, it "patches" the DLL in memory (at the FIXUP places) in order to correct all addresses.

This implies that several Windows processes cannot share an once loaded DLL at different addresses in different process' memory blocks - since each instance that's loaded in memory is fixed to work only at these addresses..

[^102]
### 6.4.2 LD_PRELOAD hack in Linux

This allows us to load our own dynamic libraries before others, even before system ones, like libc.so.6.
This, in turn, allows us to "substitute" our written functions before the original ones in the system libraries. For example, it is easy to intercept all calls to time(), read(), write(), etc.

Let's see if we can fool the uptime utility. As we know, it tells how long the computer has been working. With the help of strace( 7.2 .3 on page 791 ), it is possible to see that the utility takes this information the /proc/uptime file:

```
$ strace uptime
open("/proc/uptime", 0 RDONLY) = 3
lseek(3, 0, SEEK_SET) = 0
read(3, "416166.86 414629.38\n", 2047) = 20
...
```

It is not a real file on disk, it is a virtual one and its contents are generated on fly in the Linux kernel. There are just two numbers:

```
$ cat /proc/uptime
```

416690.91415152.03

What we can learn from Wikipedia ${ }^{10}$ :

The first number is the total number of seconds the system has been up. The second number is how much of that time the machine has spent idle, in seconds.

Let's try to write our own dynamic library with the open(), read(), close() functions working as we need.
At first, our open() will compare the name of the file to be opened with what we need and if it is so, it will write down the descriptor of the file opened.

Second, read(), if called for this file descriptor, will substitute the output, and in the rest of the cases will call the original read() from libc.so.6. And also close(), will note if the file we are currently following is to be closed.

We are going to use the dlopen() and dlsym() functions to determine the original function addresses in libc.so. 6 .

We need them because we must pass control to the "real" functions.
On the other hand, if we intercepted $\operatorname{strcmp}()$ and monitored each string comparisons in the program, then we would have to implement our version of strcmp(), and not use the original function ${ }^{11}$, that would be easier.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdarg.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdbool.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <dlfcn.h>
#include <string.h>
void *libc_handle = NULL;
int (*open_ptr)(const char *, int) = NULL;
int (*close_ptr)(int) = NULL;
ssize_t (*read_ptr)(int, void*, size_t) = NULL;
bool inited = false;
Noreturn void die (const char * fmt, ...)
\
    va_list va;
    va_start (va, fmt);
```

[^103]```
    vprintf (fmt, va);
    exit(0);
};
static void find_original_functions ()
{
    if (inited)
            return;
    libc handle = dlopen ("libc.so.6", RTLD LAZY);
    if (libc_handle==NULL)
    die ("can't open libc.so.6\n");
    open_ptr = dlsym (libc_handle, "open");
    if (open ptr==NULL)
                            die ("can't find open()\n");
    close ptr = dlsym (libc handle, "close");
    if (close ptr==NULL)
            die ("can't find close()\n");
    read ptr = dlsym (libc handle, "read");
    if (read_ptr==NULL)
    die ("can't find read()\n");
    inited = true;
}
static int opened_fd=0;
int open(const char *pathname, int flags)
{
    find_original_functions();
    int fd=(*open_ptr)(pathname, flags);
    if (strcmp(pathname, "/proc/uptime")==0)
            opened_fd=fd; // that's our file! record its file descriptor
    else
        opened_fd=0;
    return fd;
};
int close(int fd)
{
    find_original_functions();
    if (fd==opened_fd)
            opened fd=0; // the file is not opened anymore
    return (*close_ptr)(fd);
};
ssize_t read(int fd, void *buf, size_t count)
{
    find original functions();
    if (opened_fd!=0 && fd==opened_fd)
    {
            // that's our file!
            return snprintf (buf, count, "%d %d", 0x7fffffff, 0x7ffffffff)+1;
    };
    // not our file, go to real read() function
    return (*read_ptr)(fd, buf, count);
};
```

( Source code at GitHub )
Let's compile it as common dynamic library:
gcc -fpic -shared -Wall -o fool_uptime.so fool_uptime.c -ldl

Let's run uptime while loading our library before the others:

```
LD_PRELOAD=`pwd`/fool_uptime.so uptime
```

And we see:

```
01:23:02 up 24855 days, 3:14, 3 users, load average: 0.00, 0.01, 0.05
```

If the $L D$ _PRELOAD
environment variable always points to the filename and path of our library, it is to be loaded for all starting programs.

More examples:

- Very simple interception of the strcmp() (Yong Huang) http://go.yurichev.com/17143
- Kevin Pulo—Fun with LD_PRELOAD. A lot of examples and ideas. yurichev.com
- File functions interception for compression/decompression files on fly (zlibc). http://go.yurichev. com/17146


### 6.5 Windows NT

### 6.5.1 CRT (win32)

Does the program execution start right at the main() function? No, it does not.
If we would open any executable file in IDA or HIEW, we can see OEP pointing to some another code block.
This code is doing some maintenance and preparations before passing control flow to our code. It is called startup-code or CRT code (C RunTime).

The main() function takes an array of the arguments passed on the command line, and also one with environment variables. But in fact a generic string is passed to the program, the CRT code finds the spaces in it and cuts it in parts. The CRT code also prepares the environment variables array envp.

As for GUI ${ }^{13}$ win32 applications, WinMain is used instead of main(), having its own arguments:

```
int CALLBACK WinMain(
    In_ HINSTANCE hInstance,
    _In_ HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,
    _In_ LPSTR lpCmdLine,
    -In- int nCmdShow
);
```

The CRT code prepares them as well.
Also, the number returned by the main () function is the exit code.
It may be passed in CRT to the ExitProcess() function, which takes the exit code as an argument.
Usually, each compiler has its own CRT code.
Here is a typical CRT code for MSVC 2008.

```
tmainCRTStartup proc near
var_24 = dword ptr -24h
var 20 = dword ptr -20h
var_1C = dword ptr -1Ch
ms_exc = CPPEH_RECORD ptr -18h
    push 14h
    push offset stru_4092D0
    call __SEH_prolog4
    mov eax, \overline{5A4Dh}
```

[^104]| 12 | cmp | ds:400000h, ax |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13 | jnz | short loc_401096 |
| 14 | mov | eax, ds:40003Ch |
| 15 | cmp | dword ptr [eax+400000h], 4550h |
| 16 | jnz | short loc_401096 |
| 17 | mov | ecx, 10Bh |
| 18 | cmp | [eax+400018h], cx |
| 19 | jnz | short loc_401096 |
| 20 | cmp | dword ptr [eax+400074h], 0Eh |
| 21 | jbe | short loc_401096 |
| 22 | xor | ecx, ecx |
| 23 | cmp | [eax+4000E8h], ecx |
| 24 | setnz | cl |
| 25 | mov | [ebp+var_1C], ecx |
| 26 | jmp | short loc_ 40109 A |
| 27 |  |  |
| 28 |  |  |
| 29 | loc_401096: ; | CODE XREF: __tmainCRTStartup+18 |
| 30 |  | __tmainCRT $\overline{S t a r t u p+29 ~ . . . ~}$ |
| 31 | and | [ebp+var_1C], 0 |
| 32 |  |  |
| 33 | loc_40109A: ; | CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+50 |
| 34 | push | 1 |
| 35 | call | heap_init |
| 36 | pop | ecx |
| 37 | test | eax, eax |
| 38 | jnz | short loc_4010AE |
| 39 | push | 1Ch |
| 40 | call | _fast_error_exit |
| 41 | pop | ecx |
| 42 |  |  |
| 43 | loc_4010AE: ; | CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+60 |
| 44 | call | __mtinit |
| 45 | test | eax, eax |
| 46 | jnz | short loc_4010BF |
| 47 | push | 10h |
| 48 | call | _fast_error_exit |
| 49 | pop | ecx |
| 50 |  |  |
| 51 | loc_4010BF: ; | CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+71 |
| 52 | call | sub_401F2B |
| 53 | and | [ebp$+m s$ exc.disabled], 0 |
| 54 | call | ioinit |
| 55 | test | eax, eax |
| 56 | jge | short loc_4010D9 |
| 57 | push | 1Bh |
| 58 | call | __amsg_exit |
| 59 | pop | ecx |
| 60 |  |  |
| 61 | loc_4010D9: ; | CODE XREF: __tmainCRTStartup+8B |
| 62 | call | ds: GetCommandLineA |
| 63 | mov | dword_40B7F8, eax |
| 64 | call | __crṫGetEnvironmentStringsA |
| 65 | mov | dword_40AC60, eax |
| 66 | call | _setargv |
| 67 | test | eax, eax |
| 68 | jge | short loc_4010FF |
| 69 | push | 8 |
| 70 | call | _amsg_exit |
| 71 | pop | ecx |
| 72 |  |  |
| 73 | loc_4010FF: ; | CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+B1 |
| 74 | call | __setenvp |
| 75 | test | eax, eax |
| 76 | jge | short loc_401110 |
| 77 | push | 9 |
| 78 | call | _amsg_exit |
| 79 | pop | ecx |
| 80 |  |  |
| 81 | loc_401110: ; | CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+C2 |

push 1
call _cinit
pop ecx
test eax, eax
jz short loc_401123
push eax
call amsg_exit
pop ecx
loc_401123: ; CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+D6
mov eax, envp
mov dword_40AC80, eax
push eax - envp
push argv ; argv
push argc ; argc
call main
add esp, 0Ch
mov [ebp+var_20], eax
cmp [ebp+var_1C], 0
jnz short \$LN28
push eax ; uExitCode
call \$LN32
\$LN28: ; CODE XREF: ___tmainCRTStartup+105
call cexit
jmp short loc_401186
\$LN27: ; DATA XREF: .rdata:stru_4092D0
mov eax, [ebp+ms_exc.exc_ptr] ; Exception filter 0 for function 401044
mov ecx, [eax]
mov ecx, [ecx]
mov [ebp+var_24], ecx
push eax
push ecx
call _XcptFilter
pop ecx
pop ecx
\$LN24:
retn
\$LN14: ; DATA XREF: .rdata:stru_4092D0
mov esp, [ebp+ms_exc.old_esp] ; Exception handler 0 for function 401044
mov eax, [ebp+var_24]
mov [ebp+var_20], eax
cmp [ebp+var_1C], 0
jnz short $\$ \mathrm{~L} \overline{\mathrm{~N}} 29$
push eax ; int
call __exit
\$LN29: ; CODE XREF: __ tmainCRTStartup+135
call __c_exit
loc_401186: ; CODE XREF: _ tmainCRTStartup+112
mov [ebp+ms_exc.disabled], 0FFFFFFFEh
mov eax, [ebp+var_20]
call __SEH_epilog4
retn

```

Here we can see calls to GetCommandLineA() (line 62), then to setargv() (line 66) and setenvp() (line 74), which apparently fill the global variables argc, argv, envp.

Finally, main() is called with these arguments (line 97).
There are also calls to functions with self-describing names like heap_init () (line 35), ioinit () (line 54). The heap is indeed initialized in the CRT. If you try to use malloc() in a program without CRT, it will exit

Global object initializations in \(\mathrm{C}++\) is also occur in the CRT before the execution of main(): 3.18.4 on page 564.
The value that main() returns is passed to cexit(), or in \$LN32, which in turn calls doexit().
Is it possible to get rid of the CRT? Yes, if you know what you are doing.
The MSVC's linker has the /ENTRY option for setting an entry point.
```

\#include <windows.h>
int main()
{
MessageBox (NULL, "hello, world", "caption", MB_OK);
};

```

Let's compile it in MSVC 2008.
```

cl no_crt.c user32.lib /link /entry:main

```

We are getting a runnable .exe with size 2560 bytes, that has a PE header in it, instructions calling MessageBox, two strings in the data segment, the MessageBox function imported from user32.dll and nothing else.

This works, but you cannot write WinMain with its 4 arguments instead of main().
To be precise, you can, but the arguments are not prepared at the moment of execution.
By the way, it is possible to make the .exe even shorter by aligning the PE sections at less than the default 4096 bytes.
```

cl no_crt.c user32.lib /link /entry:main /align:16

```

Linker says:
```

LINK : warning LNK4108: /ALIGN specified without /DRIVER; image may not run

```

We get an .exe that's 720 bytes. It can be executed in Windows \(7 \times 86\), but not in x64 (an error message will be shown when you try to execute it).

With even more efforts, it is possible to make the executable even shorter, but as you can see, compatibility problems arise quickly.

\subsection*{6.5.2 Win32 PE}

PE is an executable file format used in Windows. The difference between .exe, .dIl and .sys is that .exe and .sys usually do not have exports, only imports.

A DLL \({ }^{14}\), just like any other PE-file, has an entry point (OEP) (the function DllMain() is located there) but this function usually does nothing. .sys is usually a device driver. As of drivers, Windows requires the checksum to be present in the PE file and for it to be correct \({ }^{15}\).

Starting at Windows Vista, a driver's files must also be signed with a digital signature. It will fail to load otherwise.

Every PE file begins with tiny DOS program that prints a message like "This program cannot be run in DOS mode."-if you run this program in DOS or Windows 3.1 (OS-es which are not aware of the PE format), this message will be printed.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{14}\) Dynamic-Link Library
\({ }^{15}\) For example, Hiew( 7.1 on page 789) can calculate it
}

\section*{Terminology}
- Module-a separate file, .exe or .dIl.
- Process-a program loaded into memory and currently running. Commonly consists of one .exe file and bunch of .dll files.
- Process memory-the memory a process works with. Each process has its own. There usually are loaded modules, memory of the stack, heap(s), etc.
- VA \({ }^{16}\)-an address which is to be used in program while runtime.
- Base address (of module)-the address within the process memory at which the module is to be loaded. OS loader may change it, if the base address is already occupied by another module just loaded before.
- RVA \({ }^{17}\)-the VA-address minus the base address.

Many addresses in PE-file tables use RVA-addresses.
- IAT \({ }^{18}\)-an array of addresses of imported symbols \({ }^{19}\). Sometimes, the IMAGE_DIRECTORY_ENTRY_IAT data directory points at the IAT. It is worth noting that IDA (as of 6.1 ) may allocate a pseudo-section named .idata for IAT, even if the IAT is a part of another section!
- \(\mathrm{INT}^{20}\)-an array of names of symbols to be imported \({ }^{21}\).

\section*{Base address}

The problem is that several module authors can prepare DLL files for others to use and it is not possible to reach an agreement which addresses is to be assigned to whose modules.
So that is why if two necessary DLLs for a process have the same base address, one of them will be loaded at this base address, and the other-at some other free space in process memory, and each virtual addresses in the second DLL will be corrected.
With MSVC the linker often generates the .exe files with a base address of \(0 \times 400000^{22}\), and with the code section starting at \(0 \times 401000\). This means that the RVA of the start of the code section is \(0 \times 1000\).
DLLs are often generated by MSVC's linker with a base address of \(0 \times 10000000{ }^{23}\).
There is also another reason to load modules at various base addresses, in this case random ones. It is ASLR \({ }^{24}\).

A shellcode trying to get executed on a compromised system must call system functions, hence, know their addresses.
In older OS (in Windows NT line: before Windows Vista), system DLL (like kernel32.dII, user32.dII) were always loaded at known addresses, and if we also recall that their versions rarely changed, the addresses of functions were fixed and shellcode could call them directly.
In order to avoid this, the ASLR method loads your program and all modules it needs at random base addresses, different every time.
ASLR support is denoted in a PE file by setting the flag
IMAGE_DLL_CHARACTERISTICS_DYNAMIC_BASE [see Mark Russinovich, Microsoft Windows Internals].

\section*{Subsystem}

There is also a subsystem field, usually it is:
- native \({ }^{25}\) (.sys-driver),

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{16}\) Virtual Address
\({ }^{17}\) Relative Virtual Address
\({ }^{18}\) Import Address Table
\({ }^{19}\) Matt Pietrek, An In-Depth Look into the Win32 Portable Executable File Format, (2002)]
\({ }^{20}\) Import Name Table
\({ }^{21}\) Matt Pietrek, An In-Depth Look into the Win32 Portable Executable File Format, (2002)]
\({ }^{22}\) The origin of this address choice is described here: MSDN
\({ }^{23}\) This can be changed by the /BASE linker option
\({ }^{24}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{25}\) Meaning, the module use Native API instead of Win32
}
- console (console application) or
- GUI (non-console).

\section*{OS version}

A PE file also specifies the minimal Windows version it needs in order to be loadable.
The table of version numbers stored in the PE file and corresponding Windows codenames is here \({ }^{26}\).
For example, MSVC 2005 compiles .exe files for running on Windows NT4 (version 4.00), but MSVC 2008 does not (the generated files have a version of 5.00, at least Windows 2000 is needed to run them).
MSVC 2012 generates .exe files of version 6.00 by default, targeting at least Windows Vista. However, by changing the compiler's options \({ }^{27}\), it is possible to force it to compile for Windows XP.

\section*{Sections}

Division in sections, as it seems, is present in all executable file formats.
It is devised in order to separate code from data, and data-from constant data.
- Either the IMAGE_SCN_CNT_CODE or IMAGE_SCN_MEM_EXECUTE flags will be set on the code sectionthis is executable code.
- On data section_IMAGE_SCN_CNT_INITIALIZED_DATA, IMAGE_SCN_MEM_READ and \(\overline{I M A G E} \bar{Z}_{-} S C N \_M E M \_\bar{W} I T E\) flags.
- On an empty section with uninitialized data-

IMAGE_SCN_CNT_UNINITIALIZED_DATA, IMAGE_SCN_MEM_READ
and IMAGE_SCN_MEM_WRITE.
- On a constant data section (one that's protected from writing), the flags IMAGE_SCN_CNT_INITIALIZED_DATA and IMAGE_SCN_MEM_READ can be set, but not \(I M A \bar{G} E_{-} S \bar{C} N_{-} M E M_{-} W R \bar{I} T E\). A process going to \(\overline{-}\) crash \(\overline{-}\) if it tries to write to this section.

Each section in PE-file may have a name, however, it is not very important. Often (but not always) the code section is named . text, the data section-. data, the constant data section - . rdata (readable data). Other popular section names are:
- .idata-imports section. IDA may create a pseudo-section named like this: 6.5.2 on the previous page.
- .edata—exports section (rare)
- . pdata-section holding all information about exceptions in Windows NT for MIPS, IA64 and x64: 6.5.3 on page 783
- . reloc—relocs section
- . bss—uninitialized data (BSS)
- .tls—thread local storage (TLS)
- . rsrc—resources
- .CRT—may present in binary files compiled by ancient MSVC versions

PE file packers/encryptors often garble section names or replace the names with their own.
MSVC allows you to declare data in arbitrarily named section \({ }^{28}\).
Some compilers and linkers can add a section with debugging symbols and other debugging information (MinGW for instance). However it is not so in latest versions of MSVC (separate PDB files are used there for this purpose).

That is how a PE section is described in the file:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{26}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{27}\) MSDN
\({ }^{28}\) MSDN
}
```

typedef struct IMAGE SECTION HEADER {
BYTE Name[IMAGE_SIZEOF_SHORT_NAME];
union {
DWORD PhysicalAddress;
DWORD VirtualSize;
} Misc;
DWORD VirtualAddress;
DWORD SizeOfRawData;
DWORD PointerToRawData;
DWORD PointerToRelocations;
DWORD PointerToLinenumbers;
WORD NumberOfRelocations;
WORD NumberOfLinenumbers;
DWORD Characteristics;
} IMAGE_SECTION_HEADER, *PIMAGE_SECTION_HEADER;

```

A word about terminology: PointerToRawData is called "Offset" in Hiew and VirtualAddress is called "RVA" there.

\section*{Data section}

Data section in file can be smaller than in memory. For example, some variables can be initialized, some are not. Compiler and linker will collect them all into one section, but the first part of it is initialized and allocated in file, while another is absent in file (of course, to make it smaller). VirtualSize will be equal to the size of section in memory, and SizeOfRawData - to size of section in file.

IDA can show the border between initialized and not initialized parts like that:
```

...
.data:10017FFA db 0
.data:10017FFB db 0
.data:10017FFC db 0
.data:10017FFD db 0
.data:10017FFE db 0
.data:10017FFF db 0
.data:10018000 db ? ;
.data:10018001 db ? ;
.data:10018002 db ? ;
.data:10018003 db ? ;
.data:10018004 db ? ;
.data:10018005 db ? ;

```

\section*{Relocations (relocs)}

AKA FIXUP-s (at least in Hiew).
They are also present in almost all executable file formats \({ }^{30}\). Exceptions are shared dynamic libraries compiled with PIC, or any other PIC-code.

What are they for?
Obviously, modules can be loaded on various base addresses, but how to deal with global variables, for example? They must be accessed by address. One solution is position-independent code ( 6.4.1 on page 748). But it is not always convenient.

That is why a relocations table is present. There the addresses of points that must be corrected are enumerated, in case of loading at a different base address.
For example, there is a global variable at address \(0 \times 410000\) and this is how it is accessed:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{29}\) MSDN
\({ }^{30}\) Even in .exe files for MS-DOS
}
```

A1 00 00 41 00 mov eax,[000410000]

```

The base address of the module is \(0 \times 400000\), the RVA of the global variable is \(0 \times 10000\).
If the module is loaded at base address \(0 \times 500000\), the real address of the global variable must be \(0 \times 510000\).
As we can see, the address of variable is encoded in the instruction MOV, after the byte 0xA1.
That is why the address of the 4 bytes after \(0 x A 1\), is written in the relocs table.
If the module is loaded at a different base address, the OS loader enumerates all addresses in the table,
finds each 32-bit word the address points to, subtracts the original base address from it (we get the RVA here), and adds the new base address to it.

If a module is loaded at its original base address, nothing happens.
All global variables can be treated like that.
Relocs may have various types, however, in Windows for x86 processors, the type is usually IMAGE_REL_BASED_HIGHLOW.

By the way, relocs are darkened in Hiew, for example: fig.1.21.
OllyDbg underlines the places in memory to which relocs are to be applied, for example: fig.1.52.

\section*{Exports and imports}

As we all know, any executable program must use the OS's services and other DLL-libraries somehow.
It can be said that functions from one module (usually DLL) must be connected somehow to the points of their calls in other modules (.exe-file or another DLL).

For this, each DLL has an "exports" table, which consists of functions plus their addresses in a module.
And every .exe file or DLL has "imports", a table of functions it needs for execution including list of DLL filenames.

After loading the main .exe-file, the OS loader processes imports table: it loads the additional DLL-files, finds function names among the DLL exports and writes their addresses down in the IAT of the main .exe-module.

As we can see, during loading the loader must compare a lot of function names, but string comparison is not a very fast procedure, so there is a support for "ordinals" or "hints", which are function numbers stored in the table, instead of their names.

That is how they can be located faster when loading a DLL. Ordinals are always present in the "export" table.

For example, a program using the MFC \({ }^{31}\) library usually loads mfc*.dll by ordinals, and in such programs there are no MFC function names in INT.

When loading such programs in IDA, it will ask for a path to the mfc*.dll files in order to determine the function names.

If you don't tell IDA the path to these DLLs, there will be mfc80_123 instead of function names.

\section*{Imports section}

Often a separate section is allocated for the imports table and everything related to it (with name like .idata), however, this is not a strict rule.

Imports are also a confusing subject because of the terminological mess. Let's try to collect all information in one place.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{31}\) Microsoft Foundation Classes
}


Figure 6.1: A scheme that unites all PE-file structures related to imports

The main structure is the array IMAGE_IMPORT_DESCRIPTOR. Each element for each DLL being imported. Each element holds the RVA address of the text string (DLL name) (Name).
OriginalFirstThunk is the RVA address of the INT table. This is an array of RVA addresses, each of which points to a text string with a function name. Each string is prefixed by a 16-bit integer ("hint")-"ordinal" of function.
While loading, if it is possible to find a function by ordinal, then the strings comparison will not occur. The array is terminated by zero.
There is also a pointer to the IAT table named FirstThunk, it is just the RVA address of the place where the loader writes the addresses of the resolved functions.

The points where the loader writes addresses are marked by IDA like this: _imp_CreateFileA, etc.
There are at least two ways to use the addresses written by the loader.
- The code will have instructions like call _imp_CreateFileA, and since the field with the address of
the imported function is a global variable in some sense, the address of the call instruction (plus 1 or 2 ) is to be added to the relocs table, for the case when the module is loaded at a different base address.
But, obviously, this may enlarge relocs table significantly.
Because there are might be a lot of calls to imported functions in the module.
Furthermore, large relocs table slows down the process of loading modules.
- For each imported function, there is only one jump allocated, using the JMP instruction plus a reloc to it. Such points are also called "thunks".
All calls to the imported functions are just CALL instructions to the corresponding "thunk". In this case, additional relocs are not necessary because these CALL-s have relative addresses and do not need to be corrected.
These two methods can be combined.
Possible, the linker creates individual "thunk"s if there are too many calls to the function, but not done by default.

By the way, the array of function addresses to which FirstThunk is pointing is not necessary to be located in the IAT section. For example, the author of these lines once wrote the PE_add_import \({ }^{32}\) utility for adding imports to an existing .exe-file.
Some time earlier, in the previous versions of the utility, at the place of the function you want to substitute with a call to another DLL, my utility wrote the following code:
```

MOV EAX, [yourdll.dll!function]
JMP EAX

```

FirstThunk points to the first instruction. In other words, when loading yourdll.dll, the loader writes the address of the function function right in the code.
It also worth noting that a code section is usually write-protected, so my utility adds the IMAGE_SCN_MEM_WRITE flag for code section. Otherwise, the program to crash while loading with error code 5 (accèss denied).

One might ask: what if I supply a program with a set of DLL files which is not supposed to change (including addresses of all DLL functions), is it possible to speed up the loading process?
Yes, it is possible to write the addresses of the functions to be imported into the FirstThunk arrays in advance. The Timestamp field is present in the
IMAGE_IMPORT_DESCRIPTOR structure.
If a value is present there, then the loader compares this value with the date-time of the DLL file.
If the values are equal, then the loader does not do anything, and the loading of the process can be faster. This is called "old-style binding" \({ }^{33}\).
The BIND.EXE utility in Windows SDK is for this. For speeding up the loading of your program, Matt Pietrek in Matt Pietrek, An In-Depth Look into the Win32 Portable Executable File Format, (2002) \({ }^{34}\), suggests to do the binding shortly after your program installation on the computer of the end user.

PE-files packers/encryptors may also compress/encrypt imports table.
In this case, the Windows loader, of course, will not load all necessary DLLs.
Therefore, the packer/encryptor does this on its own, with the help of LoadLibrary() and the GetProcAddress() functions.
That is why these two functions are often present in IAT in packed files.
In the standard DLLs from the Windows installation, IAT often is located right at the beginning of the PE file. Supposedly, it is made so for optimization.
While loading, the .exe file is not loaded into memory as a whole (recall huge install programs which are started suspiciously fast), it is "mapped", and loaded into memory in parts as they are accessed.

Probably, Microsoft developers decided it will be faster.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{32}\) yurichev.com
\({ }^{33}\) MSDN. There is also the "new-style binding".
\({ }^{34}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17318
}

\section*{Resources}

Resources in a PE file are just a set of icons, pictures, text strings, dialog descriptions.
Perhaps they were separated from the main code, so all these things could be multilingual, and it would be simpler to pick text or picture for the language that is currently set in the OS.

As a side effect, they can be edited easily and saved back to the executable file, even if one does not have special knowledge, by using the ResHack editor, for example (6.5.2).

\section*{.NET}
.NET programs are not compiled into machine code but into a special bytecode. Strictly speaking, there is bytecode instead of the usual x86 code in the .exe file, however, the entry point (OEP) points to this tiny fragment of \(\times 86\) code:
```

jmp mscoree.dll!_CorExeMain

```

The .NET loader is located in mscoree.dII, which processes the PE file.
It was so in all pre-Windows XP OSes. Starting from XP, the OS loader is able to detect the .NET file and run it without executing that JMP instruction \({ }^{35}\).

\section*{TLS}

This section holds initialized data for the TLS( 6.2 on page 742) (if needed). When a new thread start, its TLS data is initialized using the data from this section.

Aside from that, the PE file specification also provides initialization of the TLS section, the so-called TLS callbacks.

If they are present, they are to be called before the control is passed to the main entry point (OEP).
This is used widely in the PE file packers/encryptors.

\section*{Tools}
- objdump (present in cygwin) for dumping all PE-file structures.
- Hiew( 7.1 on page 789) as editor.
- pefile—Python-library for PE-file processing \({ }^{36}\).
- ResHack AKA Resource Hacker—resources editor \({ }^{37}\).
- PE_add_import \({ }^{38}\) - simple tool for adding symbol(s) to PE executable import table.
- PE_patcher \({ }^{39}\)-simple tool for patching PE executables.
- PE_search_str_refs \({ }^{40}\) —simple tool for searching for a function in PE executables which use some text string.

\section*{Further reading}
- Daniel Pistelli-The .NET File Format \({ }^{41}\)

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{35}\) MSDN
36 http://go.yurichev.com/17052
37 http://go.yurichev.com/17052
\({ }^{38}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17049
\({ }^{39}\) yurichev.com
\({ }^{40}\) yurichev.com
\({ }^{41}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17056
}

\subsection*{6.5.3 Windows SEH}

\section*{Let's forget about MSVC}

In Windows, the SEH is intended for exceptions handling, nevertheless, it is language-agnostic, not related to C++ or OOP in any way.

Here we are going to take a look at SEH in its isolated (from C++ and MSVC extensions) form.
Each running process has a chain of SEH handlers, each TIB has the address of the most recently defined handler.

When an exception occurs (division by zero, incorrect address access, user exception triggered by calling the RaiseException() function), the OS finds the last handler in the TIB and calls it, passing exception kind and all information about the CPU state (register values, etc.) at the moment of the exception.
The exception handler considering the exception, does it see something familiar? If so, it handles the exception.

If not, it signals to the OS that it cannot handle it and the OS calls the next handler in the chain, until a handler which is able to handle the exception is be found.
At the very end of the chain there a standard handler that shows the well-known dialog box, informing the user about a process crash, some technical information about the CPU state at the time of the crash, and offering to collect all information and send it to developers in Microsoft.

\section*{crash.eкe}
crash.exe has encountered a problem and needs to close. W/e are sorry for the inconvenience.

If you were in the middle of something, the information you were working on might be lost.

Please tell Microsoft about this problem.
We have created an error report that you can send to us. We will treat this report as confidential and anonymous.

To see what data this error report contains, click here.
\[
\text { Send Error Report } \quad \text { Don't Send }
\]

Figure 6.2: Windows XP


Figure 6.3: Windows XP


Figure 6.4: Windows 7

\section*{crash.exe has stopped working}

A problem caused the program to stop working correctly. Windows will close the program and notify you if a solution is available.

\section*{Close program}

Figure 6.5: Windows 8.1

Earlier, this handler was called Dr. Watson \({ }^{42}\).
By the way, some developers make their own handler that sends information about the program crash to themselves. It is registered with the help of SetUnhandledExceptionFilter() and to be called if the OS does not have any other way to handle the exception. An example is Oracle RDBMS—it saves huge dumps reporting all possible information about the CPU and memory state.

Let's write our own primitive exception handler. This example is based on the example from [Matt Pietrek, A Crash Course on the Depths of Win32 \({ }^{\text {TM }}\) Structured Exception Handling, (1997)] \({ }^{43}\). It must be compiled with the SAFESEH option: cl seh1.cpp /link /safeseh: no. More about SAFESEH here: MSDN.
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
DWORD new_value=1234;
EXCEPTION_DISPOSITION __cdecl except_handler(
struct _EXCEPTION_RECORD *ExceptionRecord,
void * EstablisherFrame,
struct CONTEXT *ContextRecord,
void * DispatcherContext )
{
unsigned i;
printf ("%s\n", __FUNCTION__);
printf ("ExceptionRecord->ExceptionCode=0x%p\n", ExceptionRecord->ExceptionCode);
printf ("ExceptionRecord->ExceptionFlags=0x%p\n", ExceptionRecord->ExceptionFlags);
printf ("ExceptionRecord->ExceptionAddress=0x%p\n", ExceptionRecord->ExceptionAddress);
if (ExceptionRecord->ExceptionCode==0xE1223344)
{
printf ("That's for us\n");
// yes, we "handled" the exception
return ExceptionContinueExecution;
}
else if (ExceptionRecord->ExceptionCode==EXCEPTION_ACCESS_VIOLATION)
{
printf ("ContextRecord->Eax=0x%08X\n", ContextRecord->Eax);
// will it be possible to 'fix' it?
printf ("Trying to fix wrong pointer address\n");
ContextRecord->Eax=(DWORD)\&new_value;
// yes, we "handled" the exception
return ExceptionContinueExecution;
}
else
{
printf ("We do not handle this\n");
// someone else's problem
return ExceptionContinueSearch;
};

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{42}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{43}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17293
}
```

}
int main()
{
DWORD handler = (DWORD)except_handler; // take a pointer to our handler
// install exception handler
asm
{ // make EXCEPTION REGISTRATION record:
push handler // address of hand\overline{ler function}
push FS:[0] // address of previous handler
mov FS:[0],ESP // add new EXECEPTION_REGISTRATION
}
RaiseException (0xE1223344, 0, 0, NULL);
// now do something very bad
int* ptr=NULL;
int val=0;
val=*ptr;
printf ("val=%d\n", val);
// deinstall exception handler
asm
{ // remove our EXECEPTION_REGISTRATION record
mov eax,[ESP] // get pointer to previous record
mov FS:[0], EAX // install previous record
add esp, 8 // clean our EXECEPTION_REGISTRATION off stack
}
return 0;
}

```

The FS: segment register is pointing to the TIB in win32.
The very first element in the TIB is a pointer to the last handler in the chain. We save it in the stack and store the address of our handler there. The structure is named _EXCEPTION_REGISTRATION, it is a simple singly-linked list and its elements are stored right in the stack.

Listing 6.22: MSVC/VC/crt/src/exsup.inc
```

EXCEPTION\_REGISTRATION struc
prev dd ?
handler dd ?
EXCEPTION\_REGISTRATION ends

```

So each "handler" field points to a handler and an each "prev" field points to the previous record in the chain of exception handlers. The last record has 0xFFFFFFFF (-1) in the "prev" field.


After our handler is installed, we call RaiseException ( ) \({ }^{44}\). This is an user exception. The handler checks the code. If the code is \(0 x E 1223344\), it returning ExceptionContinueExecution, which means that handler corrected the CPU state (it is usually a correction of the EIP/ESP registers) and the OS can resume the execution of the thread. If you alter slightly the code so the handler returns ExceptionContinueSearch,
then the OS will call the other handlers, and it's unlikely that one who can handle it will be found, since no one will have any information about it (rather about its code). You will see the standard Windows dialog about a process crash.
What is the difference between a system exceptions and a user one? Here are the system ones:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline as defined in WinBase.h & as defined in ntstatus.h & value \\
\hline EXCEPTION_ACCESS_VIOLATION & STATUS_ACCESS_VIOLATION & 0xC0000005 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_DATATYPE_MISALIGNMENT & STATUS_DATATYPE_MISALIGNMENT & 0x80000002 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_BREAKPOINT & STATUS_BREAKPOINT & 0x80000003 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_SINGLE_STEP & STATUS_SINGLE_STEP & 0x80000004 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_ARRAY_BOUNDS_EXCEEDED & STATUS_ARRAY_BOUNDS_EXCEEDED & 0xC000008C \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_DENORMAL_OPERAND & STATUS_FLOAT_DENORMAL_OPERAND & 0xC000008D \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO & STATUS_FLOAT_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO & 0xC000008E \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_INEXACT_RESULT & STATUS_FLOAT_INEXACT_RESULT & 0xC000008F \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_INVALID_OPERATION & STATUS_FLOAT_INVALID_OPERATION & 0xC0000090 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_OVERFLOW & STATUS_FLOAT_OVERFLOW & 0xC0000091 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_STACK_CHECK & STATUS_FLOAT_STACK_CHECK & 0xC0000092 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_FLT_UNDERFLOW & STATUS_FLOAT_UNDERFLOW & 0xC0000093 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_INT_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO & STATUS_INTEGER_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO & 0xC0000094 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_INT_OVERFLOW & STATUS_INTEGER_OVERFLOW & 0xC0000095 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_PRIV_INSTRUCTION & STATUS_PRIVILEGED_INSTRUCTION & 0xC0000096 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_IN_PAGE_ERROR & STATUS_IN_PAGE_ERROR & 0xC0000006 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_ILLEGAL_INSTRUCTION & STATUS_ILLEGAL_INSTRUCTION & 0xC000001D \\
\hline EXCEPTION_NONCONTINUABLE_EXCEPTION & STATUS_NONCONTINUABLE_EXCEPTION & 0xC0000025 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_STACK_OVERFLOW & STATUS_STACK_OVERFLOW & 0xC00000FD \\
\hline EXCEPTION_INVALID_DISPOSITION & STATUS_INVALID_DISPOSITION & 0xC0000026 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_GUARD_PAGE & STATUS_GUARD_PAGE_VIOLATION & 0x80000001 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_INVALID_HANDLE & STATUS_INVALID_HANDLE & 0xC0000008 \\
\hline EXCEPTION_POSSIBLE_DEADLOCK & STATUS_POSSIBLE_DEADLOCK & 0xC0000194 \\
\hline CONTROL_C_EXIT & STATUS_CONTROL_C_EXIT & 0xC000013A \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

That is how the code is defined:
\begin{tabular}{|c|l|l|l|l|l|}
\hline 29 & Facility code & \(\mathrm{U}^{27}\) & \({ }^{15}\) & Error code \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

S is a basic status code: 11—error; 10—warning; 01—informational; 00—success. U—whether the code is user code.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{44}\) MSDN
}

That is why we chose \(0 x E 1223344-\mathrm{E}_{16}\left(1110_{2}\right) 0 x E\) (1110b) means that it is 1 ) user exception; 2) error. But to be honest, this example works fine without these high bits.

Then we try to read a value from memory at address 0 .
Of course, there is nothing at this address in win32, so an exception is raised.
The very first handler is to be called-yours, and it will know about it first, by checking the code if it's equal to the EXCEPTION_ACCESS_VIOLATION constant.

The code that's reading from memory at address 0 is looks like this:
Listing 6.23: MSVC 2010


Will it be possible to fix this error "on the fly" and to continue with program execution?
Yes, our exception handler can fix the EAX value and let the OS execute this instruction once again. So that is what we do. printf() prints 1234, because after the execution of our handler EAX is not 0 , but contains the address of the global variable new_value. The execution will resume.

That is what is going on: the memory manager in the CPU signals about an error, the CPU suspends the thread, finds the exception handler in the Windows kernel, which, in turn, starts to call all handlers in the SEH chain, one by one.
We use MSVC 2010 here, but of course, there is no any guarantee that EAX will be used for this pointer.
This address replacement trick is showy, and we considering it here as an illustration of SEH's internals. Nevertheless, it's hard to recall any case where it is used for "on-the-fly" error fixing.

Why SEH-related records are stored right in the stack instead of some other place?
Supposedly because the OS is not needing to care about freeing this information, these records are simply disposed when the function finishes its execution. This is somewhat like alloca(): (1.7.2 on page 35).

\section*{Now let's get back to MSVC}

Supposedly, Microsoft programmers needed exceptions in C, but not in C++ (for use in Windows NT kernel, which is written in C), so they added a non-standard C extension to MSVC \({ }^{45}\). It is not related to \(\mathrm{C}++\mathrm{PL}\) exceptions.
```

try
{
}
except(filter code)
{
handler code
}

```
"Finally" block may be instead of handler code:
```

try
{
}
finally
{
}

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{45}\) MSDN
}
6.5. WINDOWS NT

The filter code is an expression, telling whether this handler code corresponds to the exception raised.
If your code is too big and cannot fit into one expression, a separate filter function can be defined.
There are a lot of such constructs in the Windows kernel. Here are a couple of examples from there (WRK):

Listing 6.24: WRK-v1.2/base/ntos/ob/obwait.c
```

try {
KeReleaseMutant( (PKMUTANT)SignalObject,
MUTANT_INCREMENT,
FALSE,
TRUE );
} except((GetExceptionCode () == STATUS_ABANDONED ||
GetExceptionCode () == STATUS_MUTANT_NOT_OWNED)?
EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER :
EXCEPTION_CONTINUE_SEARCH) {
Status = GetExceptionCode();
goto WaitExit;
}

```

Listing 6.25: WRK-v1.2/base/ntos/cache/cachesub.c
```

try {
RtlCopyBytes( (PVOID)((PCHAR)CacheBuffer + PageOffset),
UserBuffer,
MorePages ?
(PAGE SIZE - PageOffset) :
(ReceivedLength - PageOffset) );

```
\} except( CcCopyReadExceptionFilter( GetExceptionInformation(),
                                    \&Status ) ) \{

Here is also a filter code example:
Listing 6.26: WRK-v1.2/base/ntos/cache/copysup.c
```

LONG
CcCopyReadExceptionFilter(
IN PEXCEPTION_POINTERS ExceptionPointer,
IN PNTSTATUS E
)
/*++
Routine Description:
This routine serves as an exception filter and has the special job of extracting the "real" I/O error when Mm raises STATUS_IN_PAGE_ERROR beneath us.
Arguments:
ExceptionPointer - A pointer to the exception record that contains the real Io Status.
ExceptionCode - A pointer to an NTSTATUS that is to receive the real status.

```

Return Value:
EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER
```

    *ExceptionCode = ExceptionPointer->ExceptionRecord->ExceptionCode;
    if ( (*ExceptionCode == STATUS IN PAGE ERROR) \&\&
(ExceptionPointer->Exceptīon $\bar{R} e c o r \bar{d}->N u m b e r P a r a m e t e r s ~>=~ 3) ~) ~\{~$
*ExceptionCode = (NTSTATUS) ExceptionPointer->ExceptionRecord->ExceptionInformation[2];
\}
ASSERT( !NT_SUCCESS(*ExceptionCode) );
return EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER;
\}

```

Internally, SEH is an extension of the OS-supported exceptions. But the handler function is _except_handler3 (for SEH3) or _except_handler4 (for SEH4).
The code of this handler is MSVC-related, it is located in its libraries, or in msvcr*.dII. It is very important to know that SEH is a MSVC thing.

Other win32-compilers may offer something completely different.

\section*{SEH3}

SEH3 has _except_handler3 as a handler function, and extends the EXCEPTION_REGISTRATION table, adding a pointer to the scope table and previous try level variable. SEH4 extends the scope table by 4 values for buffer overflow protection.

The scope table is a table that consists of pointers to the filter and handler code blocks, for each nested level of try/except.


Again, it is very important to understand that the OS takes care only of the prev/handle fields, and nothing more.
It is the job of the _except_handler3 function to read the other fields and scope table, and decide which handler to execute and when.

The source code of the _except_handler3 function is closed.
However, Sanos OS, which has a win32 compatibility layer, has the same functions reimplemented, which are somewhat equivalent to those in Windows \({ }^{46}\). Another reimplementation is present in Wine \({ }^{47}\) and ReactOS \({ }^{48}\).

If the filter pointer is NULL, the handler pointer is the pointer to the finally code block.
During execution, the previous try level value in the stack changes, so _except_handler3 can get information about the current level of nestedness, in order to know which scope table entry to use.

\section*{SEH3: one try/except block example}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <windows.h>
\#include <excpt.h>
int main()
{
int* p = NULL;

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{46}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17058
\({ }^{47}\) GitHub
\({ }^{48}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17060
}
```

    try
    printf("hello #1!\n")
    *p = 13; // causes an access violation exception;
    printf("hello #2!\n");
    }
    except(GetExceptionCode()==EXCEPTION ACCESS VIOLATION ?
            EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER : EXC}EPETION_CONTINUE_SEARCH
    {
    printf("access violation, can't recover\n")
    }
    }

```

Listing 6.27: MSVC 2003
```

\$SG74605 DB 'hello \#1!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74606 DB 'hello \#2!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74608 DB 'access violation, can''t recover', 0aH, 00H
DATA ENDS
; scope table:
CONST SEGMENT
$T74622 DD 0ffffffffH ; previous try level
    DD FLAT:$L74617 ; filter
DD FLAT:\$L74618 ; handler
CONST ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
$T74621 = -32 ; size = 4
_p$ = -28 ; size = 4
$SEHRec$ = -24 ; size = 24
_main PROC NEAR
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push -1 ; previous try level
push OFFSET FLAT:\$T74622 ; scope table
push OFFSET FLAT: except handler3 ; handler
mov eax, DWORD PTR fs:__except_list
push eax ; prev
mov DWORD PTR fs: except list, esp
add esp, -16
; 3 registers to be saved:
push ebx
push esi
push edi
mov DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp], esp
mov DWORD PTR _p$[ebp], 0
        mov DWORD PTR __$SEHRec$[ebp+20], 0 ; previous try level
        push OFFSET FLAT:$SG74605 ; 'hello \#1!'
call _printf
add esp, 4
mov eax, DWORD PTR _p$[ebp]
        mov DWORD PTR [eax], 13
        push OFFSET FLAT:$SG74606 ; 'hello \#2!'
call printf
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR __$SEHRec$[ebp+20], -1 ; previous try level
jmp SHORT \$L74616
; filter code:
\$L74617:
$L74627:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR __$SEHRec\$[ebp+4]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
mov DWORD PTR \$T74621[ebp], eax
mov eax, DWORD PTR \$T74621[ebp]
sub eax, -1073741819; c0000005H
neg eax
sbb eax, eax

```
```

    inc eax
    \$L74619:
\$L74626:
ret 0
; handler code:
\$L74618:
mov esp, DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp]
push OFFSET FLAT:$SG74608 ; 'access violation, can''t recover'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    mov DWORD PTR __$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], -1 ; setting previous try level back to -1
$L74616:
    xor eax, eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR __$SEHRec\$[ebp+8]
mov DWORD PTR fs: \overline{except list, ecx}
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
esp, ebp
ebp
0
main ENDP
TEXT ENDS
END

```

Here we see how the SEH frame is constructed in the stack. The scope table is located in the CONST segment-indeed, these fields are not to be changed. An interesting thing is how the previous try level variable has changed. The initial value is 0xFFFFFFFF ( -1 ). The moment when the body of the try statement is opened is marked with an instruction that writes 0 to the variable. The moment when the body of the try statement is closed, -1 is written back to it. We also see the addresses of filter and handler code.
Thus we can easily see the structure of the try/except constructs in the function.
Since the SEH setup code in the function prologue may be shared between many functions, sometimes the compiler inserts a call to the SEH_prolog() function in the prologue, which does just that.
The SEH cleanup code is in the SEH_epilog() function.
Let's try to run this example in tracer:
```

tracer.exe -l:2.exe --dump-seh

```

Listing 6.28: tracer.exe output
```

EXCEPTION_ACCESS_VIOLATION at 2.exe!main+0x44 (0x401054) ExceptionInformation[0]=1
EAX=0x00000000 EBX=0x7efde000 ECX=0x0040cbc8 EDX=0x0008e3c8
ESI=0x00001db1 EDI=0x00000000 EBP=0x0018feac ESP=0x0018fe80
EIP=0x00401054
FLAGS=AF IF RF

* SEH frame at 0x18fe9c prev=0x18ff78 handler=0x401204 (2.exe!_except_handler3)
SEH3 frame. previous trylevel=0
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-1, filter=0x401070 (2.exe!main+0x60) handler=0x401088 \swarrow
(2.exe!main+0x78)
* SEH frame at 0x18ff78 prev=0x18ffc4 handler=0x401204 (2.exe!_except_handler3)
SEH3 frame. previous trylevel=0
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-1, filter=0x401531 (2.exe!mainCRTStartup+0x18d) \swarrow
\zeta handler=0x401545 (2.exe!mainCRTStartup+0x1al)
* SEH frame at 0x18ffc4 prev=0x18ffe4 handler=0x771f71f5 (ntdll.dll! except handler4)
SEH4 frame. previous trylevel=0
SEH4 header: GSCookieOffset=0xfffffffe GSCookieXOROffset=0x0
EHCookieOffset=0xffffffcc EHCookieXOROffset=0x0
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-2, filter=0x771f74d0 (ntdll.dll!\&
\zeta__safe_se_handler_table+0x20) handler=0x771f90eb (ntdll.dll!_TppTerminateProcess@4+0x43)
* SEH frame at 0xl8ffe4 prev=0xffffffff handler=0x77247428 (ntdll.d\overline{ll! FinalExceptionHandler@16r}
\)

```

We see that the SEH chain consists of 4 handlers.

The first two are located in our example. Two? But we made only one? Yes, another one has been set up in the CRT function mainCRTStartup (), and as it seems that it handles at least FPU exceptions. Its source code can be found in the MSVC installation: crt/src/winxfltr.c.

The third is the SEH4 one in ntdII.dII, and the fourth handler is not MSVC-related and is located in ntdII.dII, and has a self-describing function name.

As you can see, there are 3 types of handlers in one chain:
one is not related to MSVC at all (the last one) and two MSVC-related: SEH3 and SEH4.

\section*{SEH3: two try/except blocks example}
```

\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <windows.h>
\#include <excpt.h>
int filter user exceptions (unsigned int code, struct EXCEPTION POINTERS *ep)
{
printf("in filter. code=0x%08X\n", code);
if (code == 0x112233)
{
printf("yes, that is our exception\n");
return EXCEPTION EXECUTE HANDLER;
}
else
{
printf("not our exception\n");
return EXCEPTION_CONTINUE_SEARCH;
};
}
int main()
{
int* p = NULL;
try
{
_try
{
printf ("hello!\n");
RaiseException (0x112233, 0, 0, NULL);
printf ("0x112233 raised. now let's crash\n");
*p = 13; // causes an access violation exception;
}
except(GetExceptionCode()==EXCEPTION_ACCESS_VIOLATION ?
EXCEPTION_EXECUTE_HANDLER : EX\overline{CEPTION_CONTINUE_SEARCH)}
{
printf("access violation, can't recover\n");
}
}
except(filter_user_exceptions(GetExceptionCode(), GetExceptionInformation()))
{
// the filter_user_exceptions() function answering to the question
// "is this exception belongs to this block?"
// if yes, do the follow:
printf("user exception caught\n");
}
}

```

Now there are two try blocks. So the scope table now has two entries, one for each block. Previous try level changes as execution flow enters or exits the try block.

Listing 6.29: MSVC 2003
```

\$SG74606 DB 'in filter. code=0x%08X', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74608 DB 'yes, that is our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74610 DB 'not our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74617 DB 'hello!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG74619 DB '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash', 0aH, 00H

```

```

call DWORD PTR __imp__RaiseException@16
push OFFSET FLAT:\$SG74619 ; '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash'
call _printf
add esp, 4
mov eax, DWORD PTR _p\$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR [eax], 13
mov DWORD PTR __\$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], 0 ; inner try block exited. set previous try level $\prec$
$\leftrightarrows$ back to 0
jmp SHORT \$L74615

```
; inner block filter:
\$L74638:
\$L74650:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
    mov DWORD PTR \$T74643[ebp], eax
    mov eax, DWORD PTR \$T74643[ebp]
    sub eax, -1073741819; c0000005H
    neg eax
    sbb eax, eax
    inc eax
\$L74640:
\$L74648:
    ret 0
; inner block handler:
\$L74639:
    mov esp, DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp]
    push OFFSET FLAT:\$SG74621 ; 'access violation, can''t recover'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    mov DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], 0 ; inner try block exited. set previous try level 々
    \(\hookrightarrow\) back to 0
\$L74615:
    mov DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], -1 ; outer try block exited, set previous try level \(\downarrow\)
    b back to -1
    jmp SHORT \$L74633
; outer block filter:
\$L74634:
\$L74651:
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+4]
    mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
    mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
    mov DWORD PTR \$T74642[ebp], eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp+4]
    push ecx
    mov edx, DWORD PTR \$T74642[ebp]
    push edx
    call _filter_user_exceptions
    add esp, 8
\$L74636:
\$L74649:
    ret 0
; outer block handler:
\$L74635:
    mov esp, DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp]
    push OFFSET FLAT:\$SG74623 ; 'user exception caught'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    mov DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], -1 ; both try blocks exited. set previous try level \(\prec\)
    ५ back to -1
\$L74633:
    xor eax, eax
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR __\$SEHRec\$[ebp+8]
    mov DWORD PTR fs:__except_list, ecx
    pop edi
\begin{tabular}{cl}
\hline pop & esi \\
pop & ebx \\
mov & esp, ebp \\
pop & ebp \\
ret & 0 \\
main & ENDP
\end{tabular}

If we set a breakpoint on the printf() function, which is called from the handler, we can also see how yet another SEH handler is added.

Perhaps it's another machinery inside the SEH handling process. Here we also see our scope table consisting of 2 entries.
```

tracer.exe -l:3.exe bpx=3.exe!printf --dump-seh

```

Listing 6.30: tracer.exe output
```

(0) 3.exe!printf
EAX=0x0000001b EBX=0x000000000 ECX=0x0040cc58 EDX=0x0008e3c8
ESI=0x00000000 EDI=0x000000000 EBP=0x0018f840 ESP=0x0018f838
EIP=0x004011b6
FLAGS=PF ZF IF

* SEH frame at 0x18f88c prev=0x18fe9c handler=0x771db4ad (ntdll.dll!ExecuteHandler2@20+0x3a)
* SEH frame at 0x18fe9c prev=0x18ff78 handler=0x4012e0 (3.exe!_except_handler3)
SEH3 frame. previous trylevel=1
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-1, filter=0x401120 (3.exe!main+0xb0) handler=0x40113b 々
\ (3.exe!main+0xcb)
scopetable entry[1]. previous try level=0, filter=0x4010e8 (3.exe!main+0x78) handler=0x401100 々
(3.exe!main+0x90)
* SEH frame at 0x18ff78 prev=0x18ffc4 handler=0x4012e0 (3.exe!_except_handler3)
SEH3 frame. previous trylevel=0
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-1, filter=0x40160d (3.exe!mainCRTStartup+0x18d) \&
\zeta handler=0x401621 (3.exe!mainCRTStartup+0xla1)
* SEH frame at 0x18ffc4 prev=0x18ffe4 handler=0x771f71f5 (ntdll.dll! except handler4)
SEH4 frame. previous trylevel=0
SEH4 header: GSCookieOffset=0xfffffffe GSCookieXOROffset=0x0
EHCookieOffset=0xffffffcc EHCookieXOROffset=0x0
scopetable entry[0]. previous try level=-2, filter=0x771f74d0 (ntdll.dll!r
\zeta_safe_se_handler_table+0x20) handler=0x771f90eb (ntdll.dll!_TppTerminateProcess@4+0x43)
* SEH frame a\overline{t 0x}18ffe4 \overline{prev=0xffffffff handler=0x77247428 (ntdll.d\overline{l}l!_FinalExceptionHandler@16\&}
4)

```

\section*{SEH4}

During a buffer overflow (1.20.2 on page 275) attack, the address of the scope table can be rewritten, so starting from MSVC 2005, SEH3 was upgraded to SEH4 in order to have buffer overflow protection. The pointer to the scope table is now xored with a security cookie. The scope table was extended to have a header consisting of two pointers to security cookies.

Each element has an offset inside the stack of another value: the address of the stack frame (EBP) xored with the security_cookie, placed in the stack.

This value will be read during exception handling and checked for correctness. The security cookie in the stack is random each time, so hopefully a remote attacker can't predict it.

The initial previous try level is -2 in SEH4 instead of -1 .


Here are both examples compiled in MSVC 2012 with SEH4:
Listing 6.31: MSVC 2012: one try block example
```

\$SG85485 DB 'hello \#1!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85486 DB 'hello \#2!', 0aH, 00H
$SG85488 DB 'access violation, can''t recover', 0aH, 00H
; scope table:
xdata$x SEGMENT
sehtable$_main DD 0fffffffeH ; GS Cookie Offset
            DD 00H ; GS Cookie XOR Offset
            DD 0ffffffccH ; EH Cookie Offset
            DD 00H ; EH Cookie XOR Offset
            DD 0fffffffeH ; previous try level
            DD FLAT:$LN12@main ; filter
DD FLAT:$LN8@main ; handler
xdata$x ENDS
$T2 = -36 ; size = 4
p$ = -32 ; size = 4
tv68 = -28 ; size = 4
$SEHRec$ = -24 ; size = 24

```
```

_main PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push -2
push OFFSET __sehtable$_main
    push 0FFSET except handler4
    mov eax, DWORD PTR fs:0
    push eax
    add esp, -20
    push ebx
    push esi
    push edi
    mov eax, DWORD PTR security cookie
    xor DWORD PTR __$SEHRec$[ebp+1\overline{6}], eax ; xored pointer to scope table
    xor eax, ebp
    push eax ; ebp ^ security cookie
    lea eax, DWORD PTR __$SEHRec\$[ebp+8] ; pointer to VC_EXCEPTION_REGISTRATION_RECORD
mov DWORD PTR fs:0, eax
mov DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp], esp
mov DWORD PTR _p\$[ebp], 0
mov DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp+20], 0 ; previous try level
push OFFSET $SG85485 ; 'hello #l!'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    mov eax, DWORD PTR p$[ebp]
mov DWORD PTR [eax], 13
push OFFSET \$SG85486 ; 'hello \#2!'
call printf
add esp, 4
mov DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp+20], -2 ; previous try level
jmp SHORT \$LN6@main
; filter:
\$LN7@main:
\$LN12@main:
mov ecx, DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp+4]
mov edx, DWORD PTR [ecx]
mov eax, DWORD PTR [edx]
mov DWORD PTR \$T2[ebp], eax
cmp DWORD PTR \$T2[ebp], -1073741819 ; c0000005H
jne SHORT \$LN4@main
mov DWORD PTR tv68[ebp], l
jmp SHORT \$LN5@main
\$LN4@main:
mov DWORD PTR tv68[ebp], 0
\$LN5@main:
mov eax, DWORD PTR tv68[ebp]
\$LN9@main:
\$LN11@main:
ret 0
; handler:
\$LN8@main:
mov esp, DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp]
push OFFSET $SG85488 ; 'access violation, can''t recover'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    mov DWORD PTR __$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], -2 ; previous try level
\$LN6@main:
xor eax, eax
mov ecx, DWORD PTR $SEHRec$[ebp+8]
mov DWORD PTR fs:0, ecx
pop ecx
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP

```

Listing 6.32: MSVC 2012: two try blocks example
```

\$SG85486 DB 'in filter. code=0x%08X', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85488 DB 'yes, that is our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85490 DB 'not our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85497 DB 'hello!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85499 DB '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85501 DB 'access violation, can''t recover', 0aH, 00H
\$SG85503 DB 'user exception caught', 0aH, 00H

```
xdata\$x SEGMENT
sehtable\$ main DD 0fffffffeH ; GS Cookie Offset
DD 00H ; GS Cookie XOR Offset
DD 0ffffffciH ; EH Cookie Offset
DD 00H ; EH Cookie Offset
DD 0fffffffeh ; previous try level for outer block
DD FLAT:\$LN19@main ; outer block filter
DD FLAT:\$LN9@main ; outer block handler
DD 00H ; previous try level for inner block
DD FLAT:\$LN18@main ; inner block filter
DD FLAT:\$LN13@main ; inner block handler
xdata\$x ENDS
\$T2 = -40 ; size = 4
\$T3 = -36 \(\quad ;\) size \(=4\)
_p\$ = -32 ; size = 4
tv72 = -28 ; size = 4
    \$SEHRec\$ = -24 ; size = 24
main PROC
        push ebp
        mov ebp, esp
        push -2 ; initial previous try level
        push OFFSET sehtable\$ main
        push OFFSET __except_handler4
        mov eax, DWORD PTR fs:0
        push eax ; prev
        add esp, -24
        push ebx
        push esi
        push edi
        mov eax, DWORD PTR security_cookie
        xor DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp+16], eax ; xored pointer to scope table
        xor eax, ebp ; ebp ^ security_cookie
        push eax
        lea eax, DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp+8] ; pointer to \&
        \(\hookrightarrow\) VC_EXCEPTION_REGISTRATION_RECORD
    mov DWORD PTR fs:0, eax
    mov DWORD PTR \$SEHRec\$[ebp], esp
    mov DWORD PTR p\$[ebp], 0
    mov DWORD PTR __\$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], 0 ; entering outer try block, setting previous try \(\downarrow\)
    \(\longrightarrow\) level=0
    mov DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], 1 ; entering inner try block, setting previous try 々
    \(\rightarrow\) level=1
    push OFFSET \$SG85497 ; 'hello!'
    call _printf
    add esp, 4
    push 0
    push 0
    push 0
    push 1122867 ; 00112233H
    call DWORD PTR _imp__RaiseException@16
    push OFFSET \$SG85499 ; '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash'
    call printf
    add esp, 4
    mov eax, DWORD PTR _p\$[ebp]
    mov DWORD PTR [eax], 13
    mov DWORD PTR _ \$SEHRec\$[ebp+20], 0 ; exiting inner try block, set previous try level \&
        \(\rightarrow\) back to 0
        jmp SHORT \$LN2@main
; inner block filter:

\section*{\＄LN12＠main：}
\＄LN18＠main：
mov ecx，DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp＋4］
mov edx，DWORD PTR［ecx］
mov eax，DWORD PTR［edx］
mov DWORD PTR \＄T3［ebp］，eax
cmp DWORD PTR \＄T3［ebp］，－1073741819；c0000005H
jne SHORT \＄LN5＠main
mov DWORD PTR tv72［ebp］， 1
jmp SHORT \＄LN6＠main
\＄LN5＠main：
mov DWORD PTR tv72［ebp］， 0
\＄LN6＠main：
mov eax，DWORD PTR tv72［ebp］
\＄LN14＠main：
\＄LN16＠main：
ret 0
；inner block handler：
\＄LN13＠main：
mov esp，DWORD PTR＿＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp］
push OFFSET \＄SG85501 ；＇access violation，can＇＇t recover＇
call＿printf
add esp， 4
mov DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp＋20］， 0 ；exiting inner try block，setting previous try 々
\(\longrightarrow\) level back to 0
\＄LN2＠main：
mov DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp＋20］，－2 ；exiting both blocks，setting previous try level 々
\(\zeta\) back to－2
jmp SHORT \＄LN7＠main
；outer block filter：
\＄LN8＠main：
\＄LN19＠main：
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov & ecx，DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec \(\$[\mathrm{ebp+4]}\) \\
mov & edx，DWORD PTR［ecx］ \\
mov & eax，DWORD PTR［edx］ \\
mov & DWORD PTR \＄T2［ebp］，eax \\
mov & ecx，DWORD PTR \(\$\) SEHRec \(\$[\mathrm{ebp+4]}\) \\
push & ecx \\
mov & edx，DWORD PTR \＄T2［ebp］ \\
push & edx \\
call & filter＿user＿exceptions \\
add & esp， 8
\end{tabular}
\＄LN10＠main：
\＄LN17＠main：
ret 0
；outer block handler：
\＄LN9＠main：
mov esp，DWORD PTR＿＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp］
push OFFSET \＄SG85503 ；＇user exception caught＇
call＿printf
add esp， 4
mov DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp＋20］，－2 ；exiting both blocks，setting previous try level 々
〕 back to－2
\＄LN7＠main：
xor eax，eax
mov ecx，DWORD PTR＿\＄SEHRec\＄［ebp＋8］
mov DWORD PTR fs：0，ecx
pop ecx
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
mov esp，ebp
pop ebp
ret 0
main ENDP
＿code\＄＝ 8 ；size＝ 4
```

ep\$ = 12 ; size = 4
_filter_user_exceptions PROC
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov eax, DWORD PTR _code\$[ebp]
push eax
push OFFSET $SG85486 ; 'in filter. code=0x%08X'
    call _printf
    add esp, 8
    cmp DWORD PTR _code$[ebp], 1122867 ; 00112233H
jne SHORT \$LN2@filter_use
push OFFSET \$SG85488 ; 'yes, that is our exception'
call printf
add esp, 4
mov eax, 1
jmp SHORT \$LN3@filter use
jmp SHORT \$LN3@filter_use
\$LN2@filter_use:
push O
call _printf
add esp, 4
xor eax, eax
\$LN3@filter_use:
pop ebp
ret 0
filter_user_exceptions ENDP

```

Here is the meaning of the cookies: Cookie Offset is the difference between the address of the saved EBP value in the stack and the \(E B P \oplus\) security_cookie value in the stack. Cookie XOR Offset is an additional difference between the \(E B P \oplus\) security_cookie value and what is stored in the stack.
If this equation is not true, the process is to halt due to stack corruption:
security_cookie \(\oplus(\) CookieXOROffset + address_of_saved_EBP \()=\) stack[address_of_saved_EBP + CookieOffset]
If Cookie Offset is -2 , this implies that it is not present.
Cookies checking is also implemented in my tracer, see GitHub for details.
It is still possible to fall back to SEH3 in the compilers after (and including) MSVC 2005 by setting the /GS- option, however, the CRT code use SEH4 anyway.

\section*{Windows x64}

As you might think, it is not very fast to set up the SEH frame at each function prologue. Another performance problem is changing the previous try level value many times during the function's execution.

So things are changed completely in x64: now all pointers to try blocks, filter and handler functions are stored in another PE segment . pdata, and from there the OS's exception handler takes all the information.

Here are the two examples from the previous section compiled for x64:
Listing 6.33: MSVC 2012
```

\$SG86276 DB 'hello \#1!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86277 DB 'hello \#2!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86279 DB 'access violation, can''t recover', 0aH, 00H
pdata SEGMENT
$pdata$main DD imagerel \$LN9
DD imagerel \$LN9+61
DD imagerel $unwind$main
pdata ENDS
pdata SEGMENT
$pdata$main\$filt$0 DD imagerel main$filt$0
    DD imagerel main$filt\$0+32
DD imagerel $unwind$main\$filt\$0
pdata ENDS
xdata SEGMENT
$unwind$main DD 020609H

```
6.5. WINDOWS NT
```

DD 030023206H
DD imagerel __C_specific_handler
DD 01H
DD imagerel \$LN9+8
DD imagerel $LN9+40
    DD imagerel main$filt\$0
DD imagerel \$LN9+40
$unwind$main\$filt\$0 DD 020601H
DD 050023206H
xdata ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
main PROC
$LN9:
    push rbx
    sub rsp, 32
    xor ebx, ebx
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86276 ; 'hello \#1!'
call printf
mov DWORD PTR [rbx], 13
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:\$SG86277 ; 'hello \#2!'
call printf
jmp SHORT \$LN8@main
$LN6@main:
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86279 ; 'access violation, can''t recover'
call printf
npad 1 ; align next label
$LN8@main:
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 32
    pop rbx
    ret 0
main ENDP
_TEXT ENDS
text$x SEGMENT
main\$filt\$0 PROC
push rbp
sub rsp, 32
mov rbp, rdx
$LN5@main$filt\$:
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rcx]
xor ecx, ecx
cmp DWORD PTR [rax], -1073741819; c0000005H
sete cl
mov eax, ecx
$LN7@main$filt$:
    add rsp, 32
    pop rbp
    ret 0
    int 3
main$filt$0 ENDP
text$x ENDS

```

Listing 6.34: MSVC 2012
```

\$SG86277 DB 'in filter. code=0x%08X', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86279 DB 'yes, that is our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86281 DB 'not our exception', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86288 DB 'hello!', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86290 DB '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86292 DB 'access violation, can''t recover', 0aH, 00H
\$SG86294 DB 'user exception caught', 0aH, 00H
pdata SEGMENT
$pdata$filter_user_exceptions DD imagerel \$LN6
DD imagerel \$LN6+73
DD imagerel $unwind$filter_user_exceptions
$pdata$main DD imagerel \$LN14
DD imagerel \$LN14+95

```
```

pdata ENDS
pdata SEGMENT
$pdata$main\$filt$0 DD imagerel main$filt$0
    DD imagerel main$filt\$0+32
DD imagerel $unwind$main\$filt\$0
$pdata$main\$filt$1 DD imagerel main$filt$1
    DD imagerel main$filt\$1+30
DD imagerel $unwind$main\$filt\$1
pdata ENDS
xdata SEGMENT
$unwind$filter_user_exceptions DD 020601H
DD 030023206H
$unwind$main DD 020609H
DD 030023206H
DD imagerel __C_specific_handler
DD 02H
DD imagerel \$LN14+8
DD imagerel $LN14+59
    DD imagerel main$filt\$0
DD imagerel \$LN14+59
DD imagerel \$LN14+8
DD imagerel $LN14+74
    DD imagerel main$filt\$1
DD imagerel \$LN14+74
$unwind$main\$filt\$0 DD 020601H
DD 050023206H
$unwind$main\$filt\$1 DD 020601H
DD 050023206H
xdata ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
main PROC
$LN14:
    push rbx
    sub rsp, 32
    xor ebx, ebx
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86288 ; 'hello!'
call printf
xor r9d, r9d
xor r8d, r8d
xor edx, edx
mov ecx, 1122867 ; 00112233H
call QWORD PTR imp RaiseException
lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:\$SG86290 ; '0x112233 raised. now let''s crash'
call printf
mov DWORD PTR [rbx], 13
jmp SHORT \$LN13@main
$LN11@main
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86292 ; 'access violation, can''t recover'
call printf
npad 1 ; align next label
\$LN13@main:
jmp SHORT \$LN9@main
$LN7@main:
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86294 ; 'user exception caught'
call printf
npad 1 ; align next label
$LN9@main:
    xor eax, eax
    add rsp, 32
    pop rbx
    ret 0
main ENDP
text$x SEGMENT
main\$filt\$0 PROC
lush rlor

```
```

    mov rbp, rdx
    $LN10@main$filt\$:
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rcx]
xor ecx, ecx
cmp DWORD PTR [rax], -1073741819; c0000005H
sete cl
mov eax, ecx
$LN12@main$filt$:
    add rsp, 32
    pop rbp
    ret 0
    int 3
main$filt$0 ENDP
main$filt\$1 PROC
push rbp
sub rsp, 32
mov rbp, rdx
$LN6@main$filt\$:
mov rax, QWORD PTR [rcx]
mov rdx, rcx
mov ecx, DWORD PTR [rax]
call filter_user_exceptions
npad 1 ; align next label
$LN8@main$filt$:
    add rsp, 32
    pop rbp
    ret 0
    int 3
main$filt$1 ENDP
text$x ENDS
TEXT SEGMENT
-code\$ = 48
ep\$ = 56
filter_user_exceptions PROC
$LN6:
    push rbx
    sub rsp, 32
    mov ebx, ecx
    mov edx, ecx
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86277 ; 'in filter. code=0x%08X'
call printf
cmp ebx, 1122867; 00112233H
jne SHORT $LN2@filter_use
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86279 ; 'yes, that is our exception'
call printf
mov eax, 1
add rsp, 32
pop rbx
ret 0
$LN2@filter_use:
    lea rcx, OFFSET FLAT:$SG86281 ; 'not our exception'
call printf
xor eax, eax
add rsp, 32
pop rbx
ret 0
filter_user_exceptions ENDP
TEXT ENDS

```

Read [Igor Skochinsky, Compiler Internals: Exceptions and RTTI, (2012)] \({ }^{49}\) for more detailed information about this.

Aside from exception information, . pdata is a section that contains the addresses of almost all function starts and ends, hence it may be useful for a tools targeted at automated analysis.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{49}\) Also available as http://go. yurichev.com/17294
}

\section*{Read more about SEH}
[Matt Pietrek, A Crash Course on the Depths of Win32 \({ }^{\text {Tm }}\) Structured Exception Handling, (1997)] \({ }^{50}\), [Igor Skochinsky, Compiler Internals: Exceptions and RTTI, (2012)] \({ }^{51}\).

\subsection*{6.5.4 Windows NT: Critical section}

Critical sections in any OS are very important in multithreaded environment, mostly for giving a guarantee that only one thread can access some data in a single moment of time, while blocking other threads and interrupts.

That is how a CRITICAL_SECTION structure is declared in Windows NT line OS:
Listing 6.35: (Windows Research Kernel v1.2) public/sdk/inc/nturtl.h
```

typedef struct _RTL_CRITICAL_SECTION {
PRTL_CRITICA\overline{L_SE}CTION_DE\overline{B}UG DebugInfo;
//
// The following three fields control entering and exiting the critical
// section for the resource
//
LONG LockCount;
LONG RecursionCount;
HANDLE OwningThread; // from the thread's ClientId->UniqueThread
HANDLE LockSemaphore;
ULONG PTR SpinCount; // force size on 64-bit systems when packed
} RTL_CRIT\ICAL_SECTION, *PRTL_CRITICAL_SECTION;

```

That's is how EnterCriticalSection() function works:
Listing 6.36: Windows 2008/ntdII.dII/x86 (begin)
```

_RtlEnterCriticalSection@4
var_C = dword ptr -0Ch
var_8 = dword ptr -8
var_4 = dword ptr -4
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
mov edi, edi
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 0Ch
push esi
push edi
mov edi, [ebp+arg 0]
lea esi, [edi+4] ; LockCount
mov eax, esi
lock btr dword ptr [eax], 0
jnb wait ; jump if CF=0
loc 7DE922DD:
mov eax, large fs:18h
mov ecx, [eax+24h]
mov [edi+0Ch], ecx
mov dword ptr [edi+8], 1
pop edi
xor eax, eax
pop esi
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
retn 4

```
... skipped

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{50}\) Also available as http://go. yurichev.com/17293
\({ }^{51}\) Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17294
}
6.5. WINDOWS NT

The most important instruction in this code fragment is BTR (prefixed with LOCK):
the zeroth bit is stored in the CF flag and cleared in memory. This is an atomic operation,
blocking all other CPUs' access to this piece of memory (see the LOCK prefix before the BTR instruction). If the bit at LockCount is 1 ,
fine, reset it and return from the function: we are in a critical section.
If not-the critical section is already occupied by other thread, so wait.
The wait is performed there using WaitForSingleObject().
And here is how the LeaveCriticalSection() function works:
Listing 6.37: Windows 2008/ntdll.dll/x86 (begin)
```

_RtlLeaveCriticalSection@4 proc near
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
mov edi, edi
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
push esi
mov esi, [ebp+arg_0]
add dword ptr [esi+8], 0FFFFFFFFh ; RecursionCount
jnz short loc_7DE922B2
push ebx
push edi
lea edi, [esi+4] ; LockCount
mov dword ptr [esi+0Ch], 0
mov ebx, 1
mov eax, edi
lock xadd [eax], ebx
inc ebx
cmp ebx, 0FFFFFFFFh
jnz loc_7DEA8EB7
loc_7DE922B0:
pop edi
pop ebx
loc_7DE922B2:
xor eax, eax
pop esi
pop ebp
retn 4
... skipped

```

XADD is "exchange and add".
In this case, it adds 1 to LockCount, meanwhile saves initial value of LockCount in the EBX register. However, value in EBX is to incremented with a help of subsequent INC EBX, and it also will be equal to the updated value of LockCount.
This operation is atomic since it is prefixed by LOCK as well, meaning that all other CPUs or CPU cores in system are blocked from accessing this point in memory.

The LOCK prefix is very important:
without it two threads, each of which works on separate CPU or CPU core can try to enter a critical section and to modify the value in memory, which will result in non-deterministic behavior.

\section*{Chapter 7}

\section*{Tools}

> Now that Dennis Yurichev has made this book free (libre), it is a contribution to the world of free knowledge and free education. However, for our freedom's sake, we need free (libre) reverse engineering tools to replace the proprietary tools described in this book.

Richard M. Stallman

\subsection*{7.1 Binary analysis}

Tools you use when you don't run any process.
- (Free, open-source) ent \({ }^{1}\) : entropy analyzing tool. Read more about entropy: 9.2 on page 948.
- Hiew \({ }^{2}\) : for small modifications of code in binary files. Has assembler/disassembler.
- (Free, open-source) \(G H e x^{3}\) : simple hexadecimal editor for Linux.
- (Free, open-source) \(x x d\) and od: standard UNIX utilities for dumping.
- (Free, open-source) strings: *NIX tool for searching for ASCII strings in binary files, including executable ones. Sysinternals has alternative \({ }^{4}\) supporting wide char strings (UTF-16, widely used in Windows).
- (Free, open-source) Binwalk \({ }^{5}\) : analyzing firmware images.
- (Free, open-source) binary grep: a small utility for searching any byte sequence in a big pile of files, including non-executable ones: GitHub. There is also rafind2 in rada.re for the same purpose.

\subsection*{7.1.1 Disassemblers}
- IDA. An older freeware version is available for download \({ }^{6}\). Hot-keys cheatsheet: . 6.1 on page 1044
- Binary Ninja \({ }^{7}\)
- (Free, open-source) zynamics BinNavi \({ }^{8}\)
- (Free, open-source) objdump: simple command-line utility for dumping and disassembling.
- (Free, open-source) readelf \({ }^{9}\) : dump information about ELF file.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{1}\) http://www.fourmilab.ch/random/
\({ }^{2}\) hiew.ru
\({ }^{3}\) https://wiki.gnome.org/Apps/Ghex
\({ }^{4}\) https://technet.microsoft.com/en-us/sysinternals/strings
\({ }^{5}\) http://binwalk.org/
\({ }^{6}\) hex-rays.com/products/ida/support/download_freeware.shtml
\({ }^{7}\) http://binary.ninja/
8https://www.zynamics.com/binnavi.html
\({ }^{9}\) https://sourceware.org/binutils/docs/binutils/readelf.html
}

\subsection*{7.1.2 Decompilers}

There is only one known, publicly available, high-quality decompiler to C code: Hex-Rays: hex-rays.com/products/decompiler/

Read more about it: 11.8 on page 1006.

\subsection*{7.1.3 Patch comparison/diffing}

You may want to use it when you compare original version of some executable and patched one, in order to find what has been patched and why.
- (Free) zynamics BinDiff \({ }^{10}\)
- (Free, open-source) Diaphora \({ }^{11}\)

\subsection*{7.2 Live analysis}

Tools you use on a live system or during running of a process.

\subsection*{7.2.1 Debuggers}
- (Free) OllyDbg. Very popular user-mode win32 debugger \({ }^{12}\). Hot-keys cheatsheet: . 6.2 on page 1044
- (Free, open-source) GDB. Not quite popular debugger among reverse engineers, because it's intended mostly for programmers. Some commands: . 6.5 on page 1045 . There is a visual interface for GDB, "GDB dashboard"13.
- (Free, open-source) \(L L D B^{14}\).
- WinDbg \({ }^{15}\) : kernel debugger for Windows.
- IDA has internal debugger.
- (Free, open-source) Radare AKA rada.re AKA r2 \({ }^{16}\). A GUI also exists: ragui \({ }^{17}\).
- (Free, open-source) tracer. The author often uses tracer \({ }^{18}\) instead of a debugger.

The author of these lines stopped using a debugger eventually, since all he needs from it is to spot function arguments while executing, or registers state at some point. Loading a debugger each time is too much, so a small utility called tracer was born. It works from command line, allows intercepting function execution, setting breakpoints at arbitrary places, reading and changing registers state, etc.
N.B.: the tracer isn't evolving, because it was developed as a demonstration tool for this book, not as everyday tool.

\subsection*{7.2.2 Library calls tracing}

Itrace \({ }^{19}\).

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{10}\) https://www.zynamics.com/software.html
\({ }^{11}\) https://github.com/joxeankoret/diaphora
\({ }^{12}\) ollydbg.de
\({ }^{13}\) https://github.com/cyrus-and/gdb-dashboard
14http://lldb.llvm.org/
\({ }^{15}\) https://developer.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/hardware/windows-driver-kit
\({ }^{16}\) http://rada.re/r/
17http://radare.org/ragui/
\({ }^{18}\) yurichev.com
\({ }^{19}\) http://www.ltrace.org/
}

\subsection*{7.2.3 System calls tracing}

\section*{strace / dtruss}

It shows which system calls (syscalls( 6.3 on page 747)) are called by a process right now.
For example:
```


# strace df -h

...
access("/etc/ld.so.nohwcap", F_OK) = -1 ENOENT (No such file or directory)
open("/lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6", 0_RDONLY|O_CLOEXEC) = 3
read(3, "\177ELF\1\1\1\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\3\0\3\0\1\0\0\0\220\232\1\0004\0\0\0"..., 512) = 512
fstat64(3, {st mode=S IFREG|0755, st size=1770984, ...}) = 0
mmap2(NULL, 1780508, PROT_READ|PROT_EXEC, MAP_PRIVATE|MAP_DENYWRITE, 3, 0) = 0xb75b3000

```

Mac OS \(X\) has dtruss for doing the same.
Cygwin also has strace, but as far as it's known, it works only for .exe-files compiled for the cygwin environment itself.

\subsection*{7.2.4 Network sniffing}

Sniffing is intercepting some information you may be interested in. (Free, open-source) Wireshark \({ }^{20}\) for network sniffing. It has also capability for USB sniffing \({ }^{21}\). Wireshark has a younger (or older) brother tcpdump \({ }^{22}\), simpler command-line tool.

\subsection*{7.2.5 Sysinternals}
(Free) Sysinternals (developed by Mark Russinovich) \({ }^{23}\). At least these tools are important and worth studying: Process Explorer, Handle, VMMap, TCPView, Process Monitor.

\subsection*{7.2.6 Valgrind}
(Free, open-source) a powerful tool for detecting memory leaks: http://valgrind.org/. Due to its powerful JIT mechanism, Valgrind is used as a framework for other tools.

\subsection*{7.2.7 Emulators}
- (Free, open-source) QEMU \({ }^{24}\) : emulator for various CPUs and architectures.
- (Free, open-source) DosBox \({ }^{25}\) : MS-DOS emulator, mostly used for retrogaming.
- (Free, open-source) SimH \({ }^{26}\) : emulator of ancient computers, mainframes, etc.

\footnotetext{
20https://www.wireshark.org/
\({ }^{21}\) https://wiki.wireshark.org/CaptureSetup/USB
22http://www.tcpdump.org/
\({ }^{23}\) https://technet.microsoft.com/en-us/sysinternals/bb842062
\({ }^{24}\) http://qemu.org
\({ }^{25}\) https://www.dosbox.com/
26http://simh.trailing-edge.com/
}

\subsection*{7.3. OTHER TOOLS}

\subsection*{7.3 Other tools}

Microsoft Visual Studio Express \({ }^{27}\) : Stripped-down free version of Visual Studio, convenient for simple experiments.
Some useful options: .6.3 on page 1044.
There is a website named "Compiler Explorer", allowing to compile small code snippets and see output in various GCC versions and architectures (at least x86, ARM, MIPS): http://godbolt.org/-I would have used it myself for the book if I would know about it!

\subsection*{7.3.1 Calculators}

Good calculator for reverse engineer's needs should support at least decimal, hexadecimal and binary bases, as well as many important operations like XOR and shifts.
- IDA has built-in calculator ("?").
- rada.re has rax2.
- https://github.com/DennisYurichev/progcalc
- As a last resort, standard calculator in Windows has programmer's mode.

\subsection*{7.4 Do You Think Something Is Missing Here?}

If you know a great tool not listed here, please drop a note: dennis@yurichev.com.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{27}\) visualstudio.com/en-US/products/visual-studio-express-vs
}

\section*{Chapter 8}

\section*{Case studies}


Seibel: How do you tackle reading source code? Even reading something in a programming language you already know is a tricky problem.

Knuth: But it's really worth it for what it builds in your brain. So how do I do it? There was a machine called the Bunker Ramo 300 and somebody told me that the Fortran compiler for this machine was really amazingly fast, but nobody had any idea why it worked. I got a copy of the source-code listing for it. I didn't have a manual for the machine, so I wasn't even sure what the machine language was.

But I took it as an interesting challenge. I could figure out BEGIN and then I would start to decode. The operation codes had some two-letter mnemonics and so I could start to figure out "This probably was a load instruction, this probably was a branch." And I knew it was a Fortran compiler, so at some point it looked at column seven of a card, and that was where it would tell if it was a comment or not.

After three hours I had figured out a little bit about the machine. Then I found these big, branching tables. So it was a puzzle and I kept just making little charts like I'm working at a security agency trying to decode a secret code. But I knew it worked and I knew it was a Fortran compiler-it wasn't encrypted in the sense that it was intentionally obscure; it was only in code because I hadn't gotten the manual for the machine.

Eventually I was able to figure out why this compiler was so fast. Unfortunately it wasn't because the algorithms were brilliant; it was just because they had used unstructured programming and hand optimized the code to the hilt.

It was just basically the way you solve some kind of an unknown puzzle- make tables and charts and get a little more information here and make a hypothesis. In general when I'm reading a technical paper, it's the same challenge. I'm trying to get into the author's mind, trying to figure out what the concept is. The more you learn to read other people's stuff, the more able you are to invent your own in the future, it seems to me.
( Peter Seibel — Coders at Work: Reflections on the Craft of Programming )

\subsection*{8.1 Task manager practical joke (Windows Vista)}

Let's see if it's possible to hack Task Manager slightly so it would detect more CPU cores.
Let us first think, how does the Task Manager know the number of cores?
There is the GetSystemInfo() win32 function present in win32 userspace which can tell us this. But it's not imported in taskmgr.exe.

There is, however, another one in NTAPI, NtQuerySystemInformation(), which is used in taskmgr.exe in several places.
To get the number of cores, one has to call this function with the SystemBasicInformation constant as a first argument (which is zero \({ }^{1}\) ).

The second argument has to point to the buffer which is getting all the information.
So we have to find all calls to the
NtQuerySystemInformation(0, ?, ?, ?) function. Let's open taskmgr.exe in IDA.
What is always good about Microsoft executables is that IDA can download the corresponding PDB file for this executable and show all function names.

It is visible that Task Manager is written in \(C++\) and some of the function names and classes are really speaking for themselves. There are classes CAdapter, CNetPage, CPerfPage, CProcInfo, CProcPage, CSvcPage, CTaskPage, CUserPage.

Apparently, each class corresponds to each tab in Task Manager.
Let's visit each call and add comment with the value which is passed as the first function argument. We will write "not zero" at some places, because the value there was clearly not zero, but something really different (more about this in the second part of this chapter).

And we are looking for zero passed as argument, after all.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{1}\) MSDN
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{xrefs to __imp_NtQuerySystemInformation} & & \(\times\) \\
\hline Dire.. & T. & Address & Text & & \\
\hline \(4 \pm\) U & P & WWinMain+50E & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 0 & \\
\hline \(\square \pm\) U & P & WWinMain+542 & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 2 & \\
\hline  & P & CPerfPage::TimerE vent(void)+200 & call & cs:_imp_NtQuerySustemlnformation; not zero & \\
\hline L+ & P & InitPerflnfo(void)+2C & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 0 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & InitPerflnfo(void)+F0 & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 8 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CalcCpuTime(int) +5 F & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 8 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CalcCpuTime(int)+248 & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 2 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CPerfage::CalcPhysicallyem(unsigned ... & call & cs:_imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; not zero & \\
\hline \(L+\frac{1}{D}\) & P & CPerfPage::CalcPhysicallyem(unsigned ... & call & cs:_imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; not zero & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CProcPage::GetProcessinfo(void) +2 B & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 5 & \\
\hline \(L+\frac{1}{2}\) & P & CProcPage::UpdateProclnfoArray(void)+... & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 0 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CProcPage::UpdateProclnfoArray(void)+... & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 2 & \\
\hline \(L \pm D\) & P & CProcPage::Initialize(HWND__ \({ }^{\text {a }}+201\) & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 0 & \\
\hline \(L+\frac{1}{D}\) & P & CProcPage::GetTaskListEx(void)+3C & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySysteminformation; 5 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 8.1: IDA: cross references to NtQuerySystemInformation()

Yes, the names are really speaking for themselves.
When we closely investigate each place where
NtQuerySystemInformation(0, ?, ?, ?) is called, we quickly find what we need in the InitPerfInfo() function:

Listing 8.1: taskmgr.exe (Windows Vista)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:10000B4B3 & xor & r9d, r9d \\
\hline .text: 10000B4B6 & lea & rdx, [rsp+0C78h+var_C58] ; buffer \\
\hline .text: 10000B4BB & xor & ecx, ecx \\
\hline .text:10000B4BD & lea & ebp, [r9+40h] \\
\hline .text:10000B4C1 & mov & r8d, ebp \\
\hline .text:10000B4C4 & call & cs:__imp_NtQuerySystemInformation ; 0 \\
\hline .text:10000B4CA & xor & ebx, ebx \\
\hline .text:10000B4CC & cmp & eax, ebx \\
\hline .text:10000B4CE & jge & short loc_10000B4D7 \\
\hline .text:10000B4D0 & & \\
\hline .text:10000B4D0 & loc_10000B4D0: & ; CODE XREF: InitPerfInfo(void)+97 \\
\hline .text: 10000B4D0 & & ; InitPerfInfo(void)+AF \\
\hline .text: 10000B4D0 & xor & al, al \\
\hline .text:10000B4D2 & jmp & loc_10000B5EA \\
\hline .text:10000B4D7 & ; ---------- & \\
\hline .text:10000B4D7 & & \\
\hline .text:10000B4D7 & loc_10000B4D7: & ; CODE XREF: InitPerfInfo(void)+36 \\
\hline .text:10000B4D7 & mov & eax, [rsp+0C78h+var_C50] \\
\hline .text: 10000B4DB & mov & esi, ebx \\
\hline .text:10000B4DD & mov & r12d, 3E80h \\
\hline .text:10000B4E3 & mov & cs:?g_PageSize@@3KA, eax ; ulong g_PageSize \\
\hline .text:10000B4E9 & shr & eax, 0Ah \\
\hline .text:10000B4EC & lea & r13, __ImageBase \\
\hline .text:10000B4F3 & imul & eax, [rsp+0C78h+var_C4C] \\
\hline .text:10000B4F8 & cmp & [rsp+0C78h+var_C20], bpl \\
\hline .text: 10000B4FD & mov & Cs:?g_MEMMax@@3̄_JA, rax ; __int64 g_MEMMax \\
\hline .text:10000B504 & movzx & eax, [rsp+0C78h+var_C20] ; number of CPUs \\
\hline .text:10000B509 & cmova & eax, ebp \\
\hline .text:10000B50C & cmp & al, bl \\
\hline .text:10000B50E & mov & cs:?g_cProcessors@@3EA, al ; uchar g_cProcessors \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
g_cProcessors is a global variable, and this name has been assigned by IDA according to the PDB loaded from Microsoft's symbol server.

The byte is taken from var_C20. And var_C58 is passed to
NtQuerySystemInformation() as a pointer to the receiving buffer. The difference between 0xC20 and \(0 \times C 58\) is \(0 \times 38\) (56).

Let's take a look at format of the return structure, which we can find in MSDN:
```

typedef struct SYSTEM BASIC_INFORMATION {
BYTE Reservèd1[24];
PVOID Reserved2[4];
CCHAR NumberOfProcessors;
} SYSTEM_BASIC_INFORMATION;

```

This is a \(\times 64\) system, so each PVOID takes 8 bytes.
All reserved fields in the structure take \(24+4 * 8=56\) bytes.
Oh yes, this implies that var_C20 is the local stack is exactly the NumberOfProcessors field of the SYSTEM_BASIC_INFORMATION structure.
Let's check our guess. Copy taskmgr. exe from C: \Windows \System32 to some other folder (so the Windows Resource Protection will not try to restore the patched taskmgr.exe).
Let's open it in Hiew and find the place:


Figure 8.2: Hiew: find the place to be patched

Let's replace the MOVZX instruction with ours. Let's pretend we've got 64 CPU cores.
Add one additional NOP (because our instruction is shorter than the original one):


Figure 8.3: Hiew: patch it

And it works! Of course, the data in the graphs is not correct.
At times, Task Manager even shows an overall CPU load of more than \(100 \%\).


Figure 8.4: Fooled Windows Task Manager

The biggest number Task Manager does not crash with is 64.
Apparently, Task Manager in Windows Vista was not tested on computers with a large number of cores. So there are probably some static data structure(s) inside it limited to 64 cores.

\subsection*{8.1.1 Using LEA to load values}

Sometimes, LEA is used in taskmgr. exe instead of MOV to set the first argument of NtQuerySystemInformation():

Listing 8.2: taskmgr.exe (Windows Vista)

    mov rbp, [rsi+8]
    mov r8d, 20h
    lea r9, [rsp+98h+arg_0]
    lea rdx, [rsp+98h+var_78]
    lea ecx, [r8+2Fh] ; put \(0 \times 4 F\) to ECX
    mov [rsp+98h+var_60], ebx
    mov [rsp+98h+var_68], rbp
; ECX=SystemSuperfetchInformation
    call cs:__imp_NtQuerySystemInformation ; not zero

Perhaps MSVC did so because machine code of LEA is shorter than MOV REG, 5 (would be 5 instead of 4).
LEA with offset in \(-128 . .127\) range (offset will occupy 1 byte in opcode) with 32 -bit registers is even shorter (for lack of REX prefix) - 3 bytes.

Another example of such thing is: 6.1.5 on page 739.

\subsection*{8.2 Color Lines game practical joke}

This is a very popular game with several implementations in existence. We can take one of them, called BallTriX, from 1997, available freely at http://go. yurichev. com/17311 \({ }^{2}\). Here is how it looks:


Figure 8.5: This is how the game is usually looks like

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{2}\) Or at http://go.yurichev.com/17365 or http://go.yurichev.com/17366.
}

\subsection*{8.2. COLOR LINES GAME PRACTICAL JOKE}

So let's see, is it be possible to find the random generator and do some trick with it. IDA quickly recognize the standard _rand function in balltrix.exe at 0x00403DA0. IDA also shows that it is called only from one place:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ```
.text:00402C9C sub 402C9C
.text:00402C9C
``` & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{proc near} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { CODE XREF: sub_402ACA+52 } \\
& \text { sub_402ACA+64 ... }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline .text:00402C9C & & & \\
\hline .text:00402C9C arg_0 & = dword & ptr 8 & \\
\hline .text:00402C9C & & & \\
\hline .text:00402C9C & push & ebp & \\
\hline .text:00402C9D & mov & ebp, esp & \\
\hline .text:00402C9F & push & ebx & \\
\hline .text:00402CA0 & push & esi & \\
\hline .text:00402CA1 & push & edi & \\
\hline .text:00402CA2 & mov & eax, dword_40D430 & \\
\hline .text:00402CA7 & imul & eax, dword_40D440 & \\
\hline .text:00402CAE & add & eax, dword_40D5C8 & \\
\hline .text:00402CB4 & mov & ecx, 32000 & \\
\hline .text:00402CB9 & cdq & & \\
\hline .text:00402CBA & idiv & ecx & \\
\hline .text:00402CBC & mov & dword_40D440, edx & \\
\hline .text:00402CC2 & call & _rand & \\
\hline .text:00402CC7 & cdq & & \\
\hline .text:00402CC8 & idiv & [ebp+arg_0] & \\
\hline .text:00402CCB & mov & dword_40D430, edx & \\
\hline .text:00402CD1 & mov & eax, - dword_40D430 & \\
\hline .text:00402CD6 & jmp & \$+5 & \\
\hline .text:00402CDB & pop & edi & \\
\hline .text:00402CDC & pop & esi & \\
\hline .text:00402CDD & pop & ebx & \\
\hline .text:00402CDE & leave & & \\
\hline .text:00402CDF & retn & & \\
\hline .text:00402CDF sub_402C9C & endp & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

We'll call it "random". Let's not to dive into this function's code yet.
This function is referred from 3 places.
Here are the first two:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00402B16 & mov & eax, dword_40C03C ; 10 here \\
.text:00402B1B & push & eax \\
.text:00402B1C & call & random \\
.text:00402B21 & add & esp, 4 \\
.text:00402B24 & inc & eax \\
.text:00402B25 & mov & [ebp+var_C], eax \\
.text:00402B28 & mov & eax, dword_40C040 ; 10 here \\
.text:00402B2D & push & eax \\
.text:00402B2E & call & random \\
.text:00402B33 & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here is the third one:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00402BBB & mov & eax, dword_40C058 ; 5 here \\
.text:00402BC0 & push & eax \\
.text:00402BC1 & call & random \\
.text:00402BC6 & add & esp, 4 \\
.text:00402BC9 & inc & eax \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So the function has only one argument.
10 is passed in first two cases and 5 in third. We can also notice that the board has a size of 10*10 and there are 5 possible colors. This is it! The standard rand () function returns a number in the \(0 . .0 x 7 F F F\) range and this is often inconvenient, so many programmers implement their own random functions which returns a random number in a specified range. In our case, the range is \(0 . . n-1\) and \(n\) is passed as the sole argument of the function. We can quickly check this in any debugger.

So let's fix the third function call to always return zero. First, we will replace three instructions (PUSH/CALL/ADD) by NOPs. Then we'll add XOR EAX, EAX instruction, to clear the EAX register.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline . \(00402 \mathrm{BB} 8: 83 \mathrm{C} 410\) & add & esp,010 \\
\hline . 00402 BBB : A158C04000 & mov & eax, [00040C058] \\
\hline . 00402BC0: 31C0 & xor & eax, eax \\
\hline . 00402BC2: 90 & nop & \\
\hline .00402BC3: 90 & nop & \\
\hline . \(00402 \mathrm{BC} 4: 90\) & nop & \\
\hline . 00402BC5: 90 & nop & \\
\hline .00402BC6: 90 & nop & \\
\hline . \(00402 \mathrm{BC7}\) : 90 & nop & \\
\hline .00402BC8: 90 & nop & \\
\hline .00402BC9: 40 & inc & eax \\
\hline . 00402 BCA : 8B4DF8 & mov & ecx, [ebp][-8] \\
\hline . \(00402 \mathrm{BCD}: 8 \mathrm{8D} 0 \mathrm{C} 49\) & lea & ecx, [ecx][ecx]*2 \\
\hline . \(00402 \mathrm{BD} 0: 8 \mathrm{~B} 15 \mathrm{~F} 4 \mathrm{D} 4000\) & mov & edx, [00040D5F4] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So what we did is we replaced a call to the random() function by a code which always returns zero.

Let's run it now:


Figure 8.6: Practical joke works

Oh yes, it works \({ }^{3}\).
But why are the arguments to the random( ) functions global variables? That's just because it's possible to change the board size in the game's settings, so these values are not hardcoded. The 10 and 5 values are just defaults.

\subsection*{8.3 Minesweeper (Windows XP)}

For those who are not very good at playing Minesweeper, we could try to reveal the hidden mines in the debugger.

As we know, Minesweeper places mines randomly, so there has to be some kind of random number generator or a call to the standard rand() C-function.
What is really cool about reversing Microsoft products is that there are PDB file with symbols (function names, etc). When we load winmine. exe into IDA, it downloads the PDB file exactly for this executable and shows all names.

So here it is, the only call to rand () is this function:
```

.text:01003940 ; __stdcall Rnd(x)
.text:01003940 R\overline{nd@4 proc near ; CODE XREF: StartGame()+53}
.text:01003940 ; StartGame()+61
.text:01003940
.text:01003940 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:01003940
.text:01003940 call ds:__imp__rand
.text:01003946 cdq
.text:01003947 idiv [esp+arg_0]
.text:0100394B
.text:0100394D
.text:0100394D
Rnd@4
mov eax, edx
retn 4
endp

```

IDA named it so, and it was the name given to it by Minesweeper's developers.
The function is very simple:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{3}\) Author of this book once did this as a joke for his coworkers with the hope that they would stop playing. They didn't.
}
```

int Rnd(int limit)
{
return rand() % limit;
};

```
(There is no "limit" name in the PDB file; we manually named this argument like this.)
So it returns a random value from 0 to a specified limit.
Rnd() is called only from one place, a function called StartGame(), and as it seems, this is exactly the code which place the mines:


Minesweeper allows you to set the board size, so the \(X\) ( \(x\) BoxMac) and \(Y\) ( \(y\) BoxMac) of the board are global variables. They are passed to Rnd() and random coordinates are generated. A mine is placed by the OR instruction at \(0 \times 010036\) FA. And if it has been placed before (it's possible if the pair of Rnd () generates a coordinates pair which has been already generated), then TEST and JNZ at 0x010036E6 jumps to the generation routine again.
cBombStart is the global variable containing total number of mines. So this is loop.
The width of the array is 32 (we can conclude this by looking at the SHL instruction, which multiplies one of the coordinates by 32 ).

The size of the rgBlk global array can be easily determined by the difference between the rgBlk label in the data segment and the next known one. It is \(0 \times 360\) (864):

\(864 / 32=27\).
So the array size is \(27 * 32\) ? It is close to what we know: when we try to set board size to \(100 * 100\) in Minesweeper settings, it fallbacks to a board of size \(24 * 30\). So this is the maximal board size here. And the array has a fixed size for any board size.

So let's see all this in OllyDbg. We will ran Minesweeper, attaching OllyDbg to it and now we can see the memory dump at the address of the rgBlk array ( \(0 \times 01005340\) ) \({ }^{4}\).
So we got this memory dump of the array:


\footnotetext{
\({ }^{4}\) All addresses here are for Minesweeper for Windows XP SP3 English. They may differ for other service packs.
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 0053D0 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & F & & 0F| \\
\hline 010053E0 & 10 & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 10 & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 010053F0 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & 0 F & 0F|0F & F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 01005400 & 10 & 0F 0F & 8F|0F & 0F & 8F & 0F|0F & 0F & 10 & 0F|0F & F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 01005410 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0 F & 0F|0F & F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 01005420 & 10 & 8F 0F & 0F|8F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 10 & 0F|0F & 0F & Or & F 0F| \\
\hline 01005430 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & 0F & F 0F \\
\hline 01005440 & 10 & 8F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 8F & 0F|0F & 8 F & 10 & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & F 0FI \\
\hline 01005450 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0 F & 0F|0F & 0F & & F 0F \\
\hline 01005460 & 10 & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 8F & 0F & 0F|0F & 8F & 10 & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 01005470 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & F 0F \\
\hline 01005480 & 10 & 1010 & 10|10 & 10 & 10 & 10|10 & 10 & 10 & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F| \\
\hline 01005490 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & 0 F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & F 0FI \\
\hline 010054A0 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & 0F & 0F|0F & F & & 0F| \\
\hline 010054B0 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & 0F & F 0F| \\
\hline 010054C0 & 0F & 0F 0F & 0F|0F & 0 F & & 0F|0F & 0F & 0F & 0F|0F & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

OllyDbg, like any other hexadecimal editor, shows 16 bytes per line. So each 32-byte array row occupies exactly 2 lines here.

This is beginner level (9*9 board).
There is some square structure can be seen visually (0x10 bytes).
We will click "Run" in OllyDbg to unfreeze the Minesweeper process, then we'll clicked randomly at the Minesweeper window and trapped into mine, but now all mines are visible:


Figure 8.7: Mines

By comparing the mine places and the dump, we can conclude that \(0 \times 10\) stands for border, \(0 \times 0 \mathrm{~F}\)-empty block, \(0 \times 8 \mathrm{~F}-\mathrm{mine}\). Perhaps, \(0 \times 10\) is just a sentinel value.

Now we'll add comments and also enclose all 0x8F bytes into square brackets:
```

border:
01005340 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
01005350 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
line \#1:
01005360
01005370
line \#2:
01005380
01005390
line \#3:
010053A0
010053B0
line \#4:
010053C0 10 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 10 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F

```

010053D0 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F line \#5:
010053 E 010 0F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0F 0 F 0F 0 F 10 0F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 010053F0 0F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F
line \#6:
01005400
01005410
line \#7:
01005420
01005430
line \#8:
01005440 01005450
line \#9:
01005460
01005470
border:
\(0100548010101010101010101010100 F 0 F 0 F 0 F 0 F\)
\(01005490 \quad 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F} 0 \mathrm{~F}\)

Now we'll remove all border bytes ( \(0 \times 10\) ) and what's beyond those:
```

0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F[8F]0F
0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
0F 0F[8F]0F 0F[8F]0F 0F 0F
[8F]0F 0F[8F]0F 0F 0F 0F 0F
[8F]0F 0F 0F 0F[8F]0F 0F[8F]
0F 0F 0F 0F[8F]0F 0F 0F[8F]

```

Yes, these are mines, now it can be clearly seen and compared with the screenshot.

What is interesting is that we can modify the array right in OllyDbg. We can remove all mines by changing all \(0 \times 8 \mathrm{~F}\) bytes by \(0 \times 0 \mathrm{~F}\), and here is what we'll get in Minesweeper:


Figure 8.8: All mines are removed in debugger

We can also move all of them to the first line:


Figure 8.9: Mines set in debugger

Well, the debugger is not very convenient for eavesdropping (which is our goal anyway), so we'll write a small utility to dump the contents of the board:
```

// Windows XP MineSweeper cheater
// written by dennis(a)yurichev.com for http://beginners.re/ book
\#include <windows.h>
\#include <assert.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main (int argc, char * argv[])
{
int i, j;
HANDLE h;
DWORD PID, address, rd;
BYTE board[27][32];

```
```

if (argc!=3)
{
printf ("Usage: %s <PID> <address>\n", argv[0]);
return 0;
};
assert (argv[1]!=NULL);
assert (argv[2]!=NULL);
assert (sscanf (argv[1], "%d", \&PID)==1);
assert (sscanf (argv[2], "%x", \&address)==1);
h=OpenProcess (PROCESS_VM_OPERATION | PROCESS_VM_READ | PROCESS_VM_WRITE, FALSE, PID);
if (h==NULL)
{
DWORD e=GetLastError();
printf ("OpenProcess error: %08X\n", e);
return 0;
};
if (ReadProcessMemory (h, (LPVOID)address, board, sizeof(board), \&rd)!=TRUE)
{
printf ("ReadProcessMemory() failed\n");
return 0;
};
for (i=1; i<26; i++)
{
if (board[i][0]==0x10 \&\& board[i][1]==0x10)
break; // end of board
for (j=1; j<31; j++)
{
if (board[i][j]==0x10)
break; // board border
if (board[i][j]==0\times8F)
printf ("*");
else
printf (" ");
};
printf ("\n");
};
CloseHandle (h)

```
\};

Just set the PID \({ }^{5}\) and the address of the array ( \(0 \times 01005340\) for Windows XP SP3 English) and it will dump it \({ }^{7}\).

It attaches itself to a win32 process by PID and just reads process memory at the address.

\subsection*{8.3.1 Finding grid automatically}

This is kind of nuisance to set address each time when we run our utility. Also, various Minesweeper versions may have the array on different address. Knowing the fact that there is always a border (0x10 bytes), we can just find it in memory:
```

    // find frame to determine the address
    process_mem=(BYTE*)malloc(process_mem_size);
    assert (process_mem!=NULL);
    if (ReadProcessMemory (h, (LPVOID)start_addr, process_mem, process_mem_size, &rd)!=TRUE&
    4) 
```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{5}\) Program/process ID
\({ }^{6}\) PID it can be seen in Task Manager (enable it in "View \(\rightarrow\) Select Columns")
\({ }^{7}\) The compiled executable is here: beginners.re
}
```

    printf ("ReadProcessMemory() failed\n");
    return 0;
    };
    // for 9*9 grid.
    // FIXME: slow!
    for (i=0; i<process_mem_size; i++)
    {
    if (memcmp(process mem+i, "\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x10\x0F\x0F / 
    \zeta \x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x0F\x10", 32)\swarrow
\zeta==0)
{
// found
address=start_addr+i;
break;
};
};
if (address==0)
{
printf ("Can't determine address of frame (and grid)\n");
return 0;
}
else
{
printf ("Found frame and grid at 0x%x\n", address);
};

```

Full source code: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/examples/ minesweeper/minesweeper_cheater2.c.

\subsection*{8.3.2 Exercises}
- Why do the border bytes (or sentinel values) (0x10) exist in the array? What they are for if they are not visible in Minesweeper's interface? How could it work without them?
- As it turns out, there are more values possible (for open blocks, for flagged by user, etc). Try to find the meaning of each one.
- Modify my utility so it can remove all mines or set them in a fixed pattern that you want in the Minesweeper process currently running.

\subsection*{8.4 Hacking Windows clock}

Sometimes I do some kind of first April prank for my coworkers.
Let's find, if we could do something with Windows clock? Can we force to go clock hands backwards?
First of all, when you click on date/time in status bar,
a C:IWINDOWSISYSTEM32ITIMEDATE.CPL module gets executed, which is usual executable PE-file.
Let's see, how it draw hands? When I open the file (from Windows 7) in Resource Hacker, there are clock faces, but with no hands:


Figure 8.10: Resource Hacker

OK, what we know? How to draw a clock hand? All they are started at the middle of circle, ending with its border. Hence, we must calculate coordinates of a point on circle's border. From school-level mathematics we may recall that we have to use sine/cosine functions to draw circle, or at least square root. There are no such things in TIMEDATE.CPL, at least at first glance. But, thanks to Microsoft debugging PDB files, I can find a function named CAnalogClock::DrawHand(), which calls Gdiplus::Graphics::DrawLine() at least twice.

Here is its code:
```

```
.text:6EB9DBC7 ; private: enum Gdiplus::Status __thiscall CAnalogClock::_DrawHand(class \swarrow
```

```
.text:6EB9DBC7 ; private: enum Gdiplus::Status __thiscall CAnalogClock::_DrawHand(class \swarrow
    Gdiplus::Graphics *, int, struct ClockHand const &, class Gdiplus::Pen *)
    Gdiplus::Graphics *, int, struct ClockHand const &, class Gdiplus::Pen *)
.text:6EB9DBC7 ?_DrawHand@CAnalogClock@@AAE? &
.text:6EB9DBC7 ?_DrawHand@CAnalogClock@@AAE? &
     AW4Status@Ḡdiplus@@PAVGraphics@3@HABUClockHand@@PAVPen@3@@Z proc near
     AW4Status@Ḡdiplus@@PAVGraphics@3@HABUClockHand@@PAVPen@3@@Z proc near
. text: 6EB9DBC7 
. text: 6EB9DBC7 
                                    ; CODE XREF: CAnalogClock::_ClockPaint(\swarrow
                                    ; CODE XREF: CAnalogClock::_ClockPaint(\swarrow
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC7 var 10
.text:6EB9DBC7 var 10
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_C
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_C
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_8
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_8
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_4
.text:6EB9DBC7 var_4
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_0
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_0
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_4
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_4
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_8
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_8
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_C
.text:6EB9DBC7 arg_C
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC7
.text:6EB9DBC9
.text:6EB9DBC9
.text:6EB9DBCA
.text:6EB9DBCA
.text:6EB9DBCC
.text:6EB9DBCC
.text:6EB9DBCF
.text:6EB9DBCF
.text:6EB9DBD2
.text:6EB9DBD2
.text:6EB9DBD3
```

```
.text:6EB9DBD3
```

```
```

= dword ptr -10h

```
= dword ptr -10h
= dword ptr -0Ch
= dword ptr -0Ch
= dword ptr -8
= dword ptr -8
= dword ptr -4
= dword ptr -4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
= dword ptr 0Ch
= dword ptr 10h
= dword ptr 10h
= dword ptr 14h
= dword ptr 14h
mov edi, edi
mov edi, edi
push ebp
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 10h
sub esp, 10h
mov eax, [ebp+arg_4]
mov eax, [ebp+arg_4]
push ebx
push ebx
push esi
```

push esi

```

\subsection*{8.4. HACKING WINDOWS CLOCK}
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline .text:6EB9DBD4 & push & edi \\
.text:6EB9DBD5 & cdq & \\
.text:6EB9DBD6 & push & \(3 C h\) \\
.text:6EB9DBD8 & mov & esi, ecx \\
.text:6EB9DBDA & pop & ecx \\
.text:6EB9DBDB & idiv & ecx \\
.text:6EB9DBDD & push & 2 \\
.text:6EB9DBDF & lea & ebx, table[edx*8] \\
.text:6EB9DBE6 & lea & eax, [edx+1Eh] \\
.text:6EB9DBE9 & cdq & \\
.text:6EB9DBEA & idiv & ecx \\
.text:6EB9DBEC & mov & ecx, [ebp+arg_0] \\
.text:6EB9DBEF & mov & {\([\) ebp+var4], ebx } \\
.text:6EB9DBF2 & lea & eax, table[edx*8] \\
.text:6EB9DBF9 & mov & [ebp+arg_4], eax \\
.text:6EB9DBFC & call & ?SetInterpolationMode@Graphics@Gdiplus@@QAE?,\(~\)
\end{tabular}
\(५\) AW4Status@2@W4InterpolationMode@2@@Z ; Gdiplus::Graphics::SetInterpolationMode(Gdiplus:: \(/\)
\(\rightarrow\) InterpolationMode)
.text:6EB9DC01
mov eax, [esi+70h]
.text:6EB9DC04
.text:6EB9DC07
mov edi, [ebp+arg_8]
.text:6EB9DC0A
mov [ebp+var_10], eax
.text:6EB9DC0D
mov eax, [esi+74h]
.text:6EB9DC10
mov [ebp+var_C], eax
mov eax, [edi]
.text:6EB9DC12
.text:6EB9DC15
.text:6EB9DC1A
sub eax, [edi+8]
-tex.6EB9DC1a
push 8000 ; nDenominator
push eax ; nNumerator
.text:6EB9DC1B
push dword ptr [ebx+4] ; nNumber
.text:6EB9DC1E
mov ebx, ds:__imp__MulDiv@12 ; MulDiv(x,x,x)
call ebx ; MulDiv(x,x,x) ; MulDiv(x,x,x)
add eax, [esi+74h]
push 8000 ; nDenominator
mov [ebp+arg_8], eax
text:6EB9DC2E
mov eax, [edī] eax
sub eax, [edi+8]
push eax ; nNumerator
mov eax, [ebp+var_4]
push dword ptr [eax] ; nNumber
call ebx ; MulDiv(x,x,x) ; MulDiv(x,x,x)
add eax, [esi+70h]
mov ecx, [ebp+arg_0]
mov [ebp+var_8], eax
mov eax, [ebp+arg_8]
mov [ebp+var_4], eax
lea eax, [ebp+var_8]
push eax
lea eax, [ebp+var_10]
push eax
push [ebp+arg_C]
.text:6EB9DC58 call ?DrawLine@Graphics@Gdiplus@@QAE? \&
ᄂ AW4Status@2@PBVPen@2@ABVPoint@2@1@Z ; Gdiplus::Graphics::DrawLine(Gdiplus::Pen const *,
Gdiplus::Point const \&,Gdiplus::Point const \&)
.text:6EB9DC5D
.text:6EB9DC60
.text:6EB9DC62
.text:6EB9DC64
.text:6EB9DC66
.text:6EB9DC68
.text:6EB9DC6B
.text:6EB9DC70
.text:6EB9DC71
.text:6EB9DC74
.text:6EB9DC76
.text:6EB9DC79
.text:6EB9DC7E
.text:6EB9DC81
.text:6EB9DC84
.text:6EB9DC87
.text:6EB9DC89
mov ecx, [edi+8]
test ecx, ecx
jbe short loc 6EB9DCAA
test eax, eax
jnz short loc 6EB9DCAA
mov eax, [ebp+arg_4]
push 8000 ; nDenominator
push ecx ; nNumerator
push dword ptr [eax+4] ; nNumber
call ebx ; MulDiv(x,x,x) ; MulDiv(x,x,x)
add eax, [esi+74h]
push 8000 ; nDenominator
push dword ptr [edi+8] ; nNumerator
mov [ebp+arg 8], eax
mov eax, [ebp+arg_4]
push dword ptr [eax] ; nNumber
call ebx ; MulDiv(x,x,x) ; MulDiv(x,x,x)
add eax, [esi+70h]


We can see that DrawLine() arguments are dependent on result of MulDiv() function and a table[] table (name is mine), which has 8-byte elements (look at LEA's second operand).

What is inside of table[]?
```

.text:6EB87890 ; int table[]
.text:6EB87890 table 柤 dd 0
.text:6EB87890 table ll ld 0
.text:6EB87898
.text:6EB8789C
.text:6EB878A0
.text:6EB878A4
.text:6EB878A8
.text:6EB878AC
.text:6EB878B0
.text:6EB878B4
.text:6EB878B8
.text:6EB878BC
.text:6EB878C0
.text:6EB878C4
.text:6EB878C8
dd 344h
dd 0FFFFE0ECh
dd 67Fh
dd 0FFFFE16Fh
dd 9A8h
dd 0FFFFFE248h
dd 0CB5h
dd 0FFFFE374h
dd 0F9Fh
dd 0FFFFE4F0h
dd 125Eh
dd 0FFFFE6B8h
dd 14E9h

```

It's referenced only from DrawHand() function. It has 12032 -bit words or 6032 -bit pairs... wait, 60? Let's take a closer look at these values. First of all, I'll zap 6 pairs or 12 32-bit words with zeros, and then l'll put patched TIMEDATE.CPL into C:IWINDOWSISYSTEM32. (You may need to set owner of the *TIMEDATE.CPL* file to your primary user account (instead of TrustedInstaller), and also, boot in safe mode with command prompt so you can copy the file, which is usually locked.)


Figure 8.11: Attempt to run

Now when any hand is located at \(0 . .5\) seconds/minutes, it's invisible! However, opposite (shorter) part of second hand is visible and moving. When any hand is outside of this area, hand is visible as usual.
Let's take even closer look at the table in Mathematica. I have copypasted table from the TIMEDATE.CPL to a tbl file ( 480 bytes). We will take for granted the fact that these are signed values, because half of elements are below zero (0FFFFE0C1h, etc.). If these values would be unsigned, they would be suspiciously huge.
```

In[]:= tbl = BinaryReadList["~/.../tbl", "Integer32"]
Out[]= {0, -7999, 836, -7956, 1663, -7825, 2472, -7608, 3253, -7308, 3999, \
-6928, 4702, -6472, 5353, -5945, 5945, -5353, 6472, -4702, 6928, \
-4000, 7308, -3253, 7608, -2472, 7825, -1663, 7956, -836, 8000, 0, \
7956, 836, 7825, 1663, 7608, 2472, 7308, 3253, 6928, 4000, 6472, \
4702, 5945, 5353, 5353, 5945, 4702, 6472, 3999, 6928, 3253, 7308, \
2472, 7608, 1663, 7825, 836, 7956, 0, 7999, -836, 7956, -1663, 7825, \
-2472, 7608, -3253, 7308, -4000, 6928, -4702, 6472, -5353, 5945, \
-5945, 5353, -6472, 4702, -6928, 3999, -7308, 3253, -7608, 2472, \
-7825, 1663, -7956, 836, -7999, 0, -7956, -836, -7825, -1663, -7608, \
-2472, -7308, -3253, -6928, -4000, -6472, -4702, -5945, -5353, -5353, \
-5945, -4702, -6472, -3999, -6928, -3253, -7308, -2472, -7608, -1663, \
-7825, -836, -7956}
In[]:= Length[tbl]
Out[]= 120

```

Let's treat two consecutive 32-bit values as pair:
```

In[]:= pairs = Partition[tbl, 2]
Out[]= {{0, -7999}, {836, -7956}, {1663, -7825}, {2472, -7608}, \
{3253, -7308}, {3999, -6928}, {4702, -6472}, {5353, -5945}, {5945, \
-5353}, {6472, -4702}, {6928, -4000}, {7308, -3253}, {7608, -2472}, \
{7825, -1663}, {7956, -836}, {8000, 0}, {7956, 836}, {7825,
1663}, {7608, 2472}, {7308, 3253}, {6928, 4000}, {6472,
4702}, {5945, 5353}, {5353, 5945}, {4702, 6472}, {3999,
6928}, {3253, 7308}, {2472, 7608}, {1663, 7825}, {836, 7956}, {0,
7999}, {-836, 7956}, {-1663, 7825}, {-2472, 7608}, {-3253,
7308}, {-4000, 6928}, {-4702, 6472}, {-5353, 5945}, {-5945,
5353}, {-6472, 4702}, {-6928, 3999}, {-7308, 3253}, {-7608,
2472}, {-7825, 1663}, {-7956, 836}, {-7999,
0}, {-7956, -836}, {-7825, -1663}, {-7608, -2472}, {-7308, -3253}, \
{-6928, -4000}, {-6472, -4702}, {-5945, -5353}, {-5353, -5945}, \
{-4702, -6472}, {-3999, -6928}, {-3253, -7308}, {-2472, -7608}, \
{-1663, -7825}, {-836, -7956}}
In[]:= Length[pairs]

```

Let's try to treat each pair as X/Y coordinate and draw all 60 pairs, and also first 15 pairs:
```

    \(\ln [13]:=\) ListPlot[pairs, AspectRatio \(\rightarrow\) Full, ImageSize \(\rightarrow\{300,300\}]\)
    ```

```

    \(\operatorname{In}[27]:=\) ListPlot[pairs[[1; ; 15]], AspectRatio \(\rightarrow\) Full, ImageSize \(\rightarrow\{300,300\}]\)
    ```


Figure 8.12: Mathematica

Now this is something! Each pair is just coordinate. First 15 pairs are coordinates for \(\frac{1}{4}\) of circle.
Perhaps, Microsoft developers precalculated all coordinates and put them into table.
Now I can understand why when I zapped first 6 pairs, hands were invisible at that area: in fact, hands were drawn, they just had zero length, because hand started at 0:0 coordinate and ended there.

\section*{The prank (practical joke)}

Given all that, how would we force hands to go counterclockwise? In fact, this is simple, we need just to rotate the table, so each hand, instead of drawing at place of zeroth second, would be drawing at place of 59 th second.

I made the patcher a long time ago, at the very beginning of 2000s, for Windows 2000. Hard to believe, it still works for Windows 7, perhaps, the table hasn't been changed since then!

Patcher source code: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/random_notes/blob/master/timedate/ time_pt.c.
Now I can see all hands goes backwards:


Figure 8.13: Now it works

Well, there is no animation in this book, but if you look closer, you can see, that hands are in fact shows correct time, but the whole clock face is rotated vertically, like we see it from the inside of clock.

\section*{Windows 2000 leaked source code}

So I did the patcher and then Windows 2000 source code has been leaked (I can't force you to trust me, though). Let's take a look on source code if that function and table.
The file is win2k/private/shell/cpls/utc/clock.c:
```

//
// Array containing the sine and cosine values for hand positions.
//
POINT rCircleTable[] =
{
{ 0, -7999},
{ 836, -7956},
{ 1663, -7825},
{ 2472, -7608},
{ 3253, -7308},
{ -4702, -6472},
{ -3999, -6928},
{ -3253, -7308},
{ -2472, -7608},
{ -1663, -7825},
{ -836, -7956},
};
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
//
// DrawHand
//
// Draws the hands of the clock.
//
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

```
```

void DrawHand(
HDC hDC,
int pos,
HPEN hPen,
int scale,
int patMode,
PCLOCKSTR np)
{
LPPOINT lppt;
int radius;
MoveTo(hDC, np->clockCenter.x, np->clockCenter.y);
radius = MulDiv(np->clockRadius, scale, 100);
lppt = rCircleTable + pos;
SetROP2(hDC, patMode);
SelectObject(hDC, hPen);
LineTo( hDC,
np->clockCenter.x + MulDiv(lppt->x, radius, 8000),
np->clockCenter.y + MulDiv(lppt->y, radius, 8000) );
}

```

Now it's clear: coordinates has been precalculated as if clock face has height and width of \(2 \cdot 8000\), and then it's rescaled to current clock face radius using MulDiv() function.
POINT structure \({ }^{8}\) is a structure of two 32 -bit values, first is \(x\), second is \(y\).

\subsection*{8.5 Dongles}

The author of these lines, occasionally did software copy-protection dongle replacements, or "dongle emulators" and here are couple examples of how it's happening.

About one of the cases about Rocket and \(Z 3\) that is not present here, you can read here: http://yurichev. com/tmp/SAT_SMT_DRAFT.pdf.

\subsection*{8.5.1 Example \#1: MacOS Classic and PowerPC}

Here is an example of a program for MacOS Classic \({ }^{9}\), for PowerPC. The company who developed the software product has disappeared a long time ago, so the (legal) customer was afraid of physical dongle damage.

While running without a dongle connected, a message box with the text "Invalid Security Device" appeared.
Luckily, this text string could easily be found in the executable binary file.
Let's pretend we are not very familiar both with Mac OS Classic and PowerPC, but will try anyway.
IDA opened the executable file smoothly, reported its type as "PEF (Mac OS or Be OS executable)" (indeed, it is a standard Mac OS Classic file format).

By searching for the text string with the error message, we've got into this code fragment:
```

...
seg000:000C87FC 38 60 00 01 li %r3, 1
seg000:000C8800 48 03 93 41 bl check1
seg000:000C8804 60 00 00 00
seg000:000C8808 54 60 06 3F clrlwi. %r0, %r3, 24
seg000:000C880C 40 82 00 40 bne OK
seg000:000C8810 80 62 9F D8 lwz %r3, TC_aInvalidSecurityDevice

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{8}\) https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/desktop/dd162805(v=vs.85).aspx
\({ }^{9}\) pre-UNIX MacOS
}

Yes, this is PowerPC code.
The CPU is a very typical 32-bit RISC of 1990s era.
Each instruction occupies 4 bytes (just as in MIPS and ARM) and the names somewhat resemble MIPS instruction names.
check1() is a function name we'll give to it later. BL is Branch Link instruction, e.g., intended for calling subroutines.

The crucial point is the BNE instruction which jumps if the dongle protection check passes or not if an error occurs: then the address of the text string gets loaded into the r3 register for the subsequent passing into a message box routine.
From the [Steve Zucker, SunSoft and Kari Karhi, IBM, SYSTEM V APPLICATION BINARY INTERFACE: PowerPC Processor Supplement, (1995)] \({ }^{10}\) we will found out that the r3 register is used for return values (and r4, in case of 64-bit values).
Another yet unknown instruction is CLRLWI. From [PowerPC(tm) Microprocessor Family: The Programming Environments for 32-Bit Microprocessors, (2000) \({ }^{11}\) we'll learn that this instruction does both clearing and loading. In our case, it clears the 24 high bits from the value in r3 and puts them in r0, so it is analogical to MOVZX in x86 ( 1.17 .1 on page 202), but it also sets the flags, so BNE can check them afterwards.

Let's take a look into the check1() function:
```

seg000:00101B40
seg000:00101B40
seg000:00101B40
seg000:00101B40
seg000:00101B40
seg000:00101B40 7C 08 02 A6 mflr %r0
seg000:00101B44 90 01 00 08
seg000:00101B48 94 21 FF C0
seg000:00101B4C 48 01 6B 39
seg000:00101B50 60 00 00 00
seg000:00101B54 80 01 00 48
seg000:00101B58 38 21 00 40
seg000:00101B5C 7C 08 03 A6
seg000:00101B60 4E 80 00 20
seg000:00101B60

```
```

check1: \# CODE XREF: seg000:00063E7Cp

```
check1: # CODE XREF: seg000:00063E7Cp
    # sub_64070+160p ...
    # sub_64070+160p ...
.set arg_8, 8
.set arg_8, 8
    stw %r0, arg 8(%sp)
    stw %r0, arg 8(%sp)
    stwu %sp, -0x40(%sp)
    stwu %sp, -0x40(%sp)
    bl check2
    bl check2
    nop
    nop
    lwz %r0, 0x40+arg_8(%sp)
    lwz %r0, 0x40+arg_8(%sp)
    addi %sp, %sp, 0x40
    addi %sp, %sp, 0x40
    mtlr %r0
    mtlr %r0
    blr
    blr
# End of function check1
```


# End of function check1

```

As you can see in IDA, that function is called from many places in the program, but only the r3 register's value is checked after each call.

All this function does is to call the other function, so it is a thunk function: there are function prologue and epilogue, but the r3 register is not touched, so checkl () returns what check2() returns.
BLR \({ }^{12}\) looks like the return from the function, but since IDA does the function layout, we probably do not need to care about this.

Since it is a typical RISC, it seems that subroutines are called using a link register, just like in ARM.
The check2() function is more complex:
```

seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684
seg000:00118684 93 E1 FF FC
seg000:00118688 7C 08 02 A6
seg000:0011868C 83 E2 95 A8 lwz %r31, off_1485E8 \# dword_24B704
seg000:00118690
seg000:00118690 93 C1 FF F8
seg000:00118694 93 A1 FF F4
seg000:00118698 7C 7D 1B 78
seg000:0011869C 90 01 00 08 stw %r0, arg_8(%sp)
check2: \# CODE XREF: check1+Cp
.set var_18, -0x18
.set var_C, -0xC
.set var_8, -8
.set var_4, -4
.set arg_8, 8
stw %r31, var_4(%sp)
seg000:00118688 7C 08 02 A6 mflr %r0
lwz %r31, off_1485E8 \# dword_24B704
.using dword_24B70}4, %r3
stw %r30, var_8(%sp)
stw %r29, var-C(%sp)
mr %r29, %r3

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{10}\) Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/PowerPC/elfspec_ppc.pdf
\({ }^{11}\) Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/PowerPC/6xx_pem.pdf
\({ }^{12}\) (PowerPC) Branch to Link Register
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline seg000:001186A0 & 5460063 E & clrlwi & \%r0, \%r3, 24 \\
\hline seg000:001186A4 & 28000001 & cmplwi & \%r0, 1 \\
\hline seg000:001186A8 & 9421 FF B0 & stwu & \%sp, -0x50(\%sp) \\
\hline seg000:001186AC & 408200 0C & bne & loc_1186B8 \\
\hline seg000:001186B0 & 38600001 & li & \%r3, 1 \\
\hline seg000:001186B4 & \(4800006 C\) & b & exit \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{seg000:001186B8} \\
\hline seg000:001186B8 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_1186B8: \# CODE XREF: check2+28j} \\
\hline seg000:001186B8 & 480003 D5 & bl & sub_118A8C \\
\hline seg000:001186BC & 60000000 & nop & \\
\hline seg000:001186C0 & 3B C0 0000 & li & \%r30, 0 \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{seg000:001186C4} \\
\hline seg000:001186C4 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{skip: \# CODE XREF: check2+94j} \\
\hline seg000:001186C4 & \(57 \mathrm{C0} 06\) 3F & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{clrlwi. \%r0, \%r30, 24} \\
\hline seg000:001186C8 & 41820018 & \multicolumn{2}{|r|}{loc_1186E0} \\
\hline seg000:001186CC & 38610038 & addi & \%r3, \%sp, 0x50+var_18 \\
\hline seg000:001186D0 & 80 9F 0000 & lwz & \%r4, dword_24B704 \\
\hline seg000:001186D4 & 4800 C0 55 & bl & .RBEFINDNEX̄T \\
\hline seg000:001186D8 & 60000000 & nop & \\
\hline seg000:001186DC & 480000 1C & b & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{loc_1186F8} \\
\hline seg000:001186E0 & & & \\
\hline seg000:001186E0 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_1186E0: \# CODE XREF: check2+44j} \\
\hline seg000:001186E0 & 80 BF 0000 & lwz & \%r5, dword_24B704 \\
\hline seg000:001186E4 & 38810038 & addi & \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var_18 \\
\hline seg000:001186E8 & 386008 C2 & li & \%r3, 0x1234 \\
\hline seg000:001186EC & 4800 BF 99 & bl & .RBEFINDFIRST \\
\hline seg000:001186F0 & 60000000 & nop & \\
\hline seg000:001186F4 & 3B C0 0001 & li & \%r30, 1 \\
\hline seg000:001186F8 & & & \\
\hline seg000:001186F8 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_1186F8: \# CODE XREF: check2+58j} \\
\hline seg000:001186F8 & \(5460043 F\) & cl̄rlwi & \%r0, \%r3, 16 \\
\hline seg000:001186FC & 418200 0C & beq & must_jump \\
\hline seg000:00118700 & 38600000 & li & \%r3, 0 \# error \\
\hline seg000:00118704 & 480000 1C & b & exit \\
\hline seg000:00118708 & & & \\
\hline seg000:00118708 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{must_jump: \# CODE XREF: check2+78j} \\
\hline seg000:00118708 & 7F A3 EB 78 & mr & \%r3, \%r29 \\
\hline seg000:0011870C & 48000031 & bl & check3 \\
\hline seg000:00118710 & 60000000 & nop & \\
\hline seg000:00118714 & 546006 3F & clrlwi & \%r0, \%r3, 24 \\
\hline seg000:00118718 & 4182 FF AC & beq & skip \\
\hline seg000:0011871C & 38600001 & li & \%r3, 1 \\
\hline seg000:00118720 & & & \\
\hline seg000:00118720 & & exit: & \# CODE XREF: check2+30j \\
\hline seg000:00118720 & & \multicolumn{2}{|r|}{\# check2+80j} \\
\hline seg000:00118720 & 80010058 & lwz & \%r0, 0x50+arg_8(\%sp) \\
\hline seg000:00118724 & 38210050 & addi & \%sp, \%sp, 0x50 \\
\hline seg000:00118728 & 83 E1 FF FC & lwz & \%r31, var_4(\%sp) \\
\hline seg000:0011872C & 7C 0803 A6 & \(m t l r\) & \%r0 \\
\hline seg000:00118730 & 83 C1 FF F8 & lwz & \%r30, var_8(\%sp) \\
\hline seg000:00118734 & 83 A1 FF F4 & lwz & \%r29, \(\operatorname{var}_{-}{ }^{-}\)(\%sp) \\
\hline seg000:00118738 & 4E 800020 & blr & \\
\hline seg000:00118738 & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\# End of function check2} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

We are lucky again: some function names are left in the executable (debug symbols section?
Hard to say while we are not very familiar with the file format, maybe it is some kind of PE exports? ( 6.5.2 on page 760)),
like .RBEFINDNEXT() and .RBEFINDFIRST().
Eventually these functions call other functions with names like .GetNextDeviceViaUSB(), .USBSendPKT(), so these are clearly dealing with an USB device.

There is even a function named .GetNextEve3Device() -sounds familiar, there was a Sentinel Eve3 dongle for ADB port (present on Macs) in 1990s

Let's first take a look on how the r3 register is set before return, while ignoring everything else.
We know that a "good" r3 value has to be non-zero, zero r3 leads the execution flow to the message box with an error message.

There are two li \%r3, 1 instructions present in the function and one li \%r3, 0 (Load Immediate, i.e.,
loading a value into a register). The first instruction is at \(0 \times 001186 \mathrm{~B} 0\)-and frankly speaking, it's hard to say what it means.

What we see next is, however, easier to understand: .RBEFINDFIRST() is called: if it fails, 0 is written into r3 and we jump to exit, otherwise another function is called (check3())-if it fails too, .RBEFINDNEXT() is called, probably in order to look for another USB device.
N.B.: clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16 it is analogical to what we already saw, but it clears 16 bits, i.e., .RBEFINDFIRST() probably returns a 16 -bit value.
\(B\) (stands for branch) unconditional jump.
\(B E Q\) is the inverse instruction of BNE.
Let's see check3():
seg000: 0011873C
seg000:0011873C
seg000: 0011873C
seg000:0011873C
seg000:0011873C
seg000: 0011873C
seg000:0011873C
seg000:0011873C
seg000:0011873C 93 E1 FF FC
seg000:00118740 7C 0802 A6
seg000:00118744 38 A0 00 00 seg000:00118748 93 C1 FF F8 seg000:0011874C 83 C2 95 A8 seg000:00118750
seg000:00118750 93 A1 FF F4 seg000:00118754 3B A3 0000 seg000:00118758 38600000 seg000:0011875C 90010008 seg000:00118760 9421 FF B0 seg000:00118764 80 DE 0000 seg000:00118768 38810038 seg000:0011876C 4800 C0 5D seg000:00118770 60000000 seg000:00118774 546004 3F seg000:00118778 418200 0C seg000:0011877C 38600000 seg000:00118780 480002 F0 seg000:00118784
seg000: 00118784
seg000:00118784 A0 010038 seg000:00118788 280004 B2 seg000:0011878C 418200 0C seg000:00118790 38600000 seg000:00118794 480002 DC seg000:00118798 seg000: 00118798
seg000:00118798 80 DE 0000 seg000:0011879C 38810038 seg000:001187A0 38600001 seg000:001187A4 38 A0 00 00 seg000:001187A8 4800 C0 21 seg000:001187AC 60000000 seg000:001187B0 546064 3F seg000:001187B4 418200 0C seg000:001187B8 38600000 seg000:001187BC 480002 B4 seg000: 001187C0 seg000: 001187C0
seg000:001187C0 A0 010038 seg000:001187C4 280006 4B seg000:001187C8 418200 0C seg000:001187CC 38600000 seg000:001187D0 480002 A0 seg000: 001187D4 seg000: 001187D4 seg000:001187D4 4B F9 F3 D9
check3: \# CODE XREF: check2+88p
```

. set var_18, -0x18
. set var_C, -0xC
.set var_8, -8
. set var 4, -4
. set arg_8, 8
stw \%r31, var_4(\%sp)
$m f l r$ \%r0
li \%r5, 0
stw \%r30, var 8(\%sp)
lwz \%r30, off_1485E8 \# dword_24B704
. using dword 24B704, \%r30
stw \%r29, var_C(\%sp)
addi \%r29, \%r3, 0
li \%r3, 0
stw \%r0, arg_8(\%sp)
stwu $\quad$ sp, $-0 \times 50(\% s p)$
lwz \%r6, dword 24B704
addi $\% r 4, \% s p, \overline{0} \times 50+v a r \_18$
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_118784
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc 118784: \# CODE XREF: check3+3Cj
l̄̄z \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0x1100
beq loc 118798
li \%r3, 0
b exit

```
loc 118798: \# CODE XREF: check3+50j
    lwz \%r6, dword_24B704
    addi \(\% r 4, \% s p, 0 \times 50+v a r 18\)
    li \(\quad\) rr3, 1
    li \%r5, 0
    bl .RBEREAD
    nop
    clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
    beq loc 1187C0
    li \%r3, 0
    b exit
loc 1187C0: \# CODE XREF: check3+78j
    lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
    cmplwi \%r0, 0x09AB
    beq loc_1187D4
    li \%r3, 0
    b exit
loc_1187D4: \# CODE XREF: check3+8Cj
    bl sub B7BAC
seg000:001187D8 60000000 seg000:001187DC 546006 3E seg000:001187E0 2C 000005 seg000:001187E4 41820100 seg000:001187E8 40800010 seg000:001187EC 2C 000004 seg000:001187F0 40800058 seg000:001187F4 480001 8C seg000:001187F8 seg000:001187F8
seg000:001187F8 2C 0000 0B seg000:001187FC 41820008 seg000:00118800 48000180
seg000:00118804
seg000:00118804
seg000:00118804 80 DE 0000 seg000:00118808 38810038 seg000:0011880C 38600008 seg000:00118810 38 A0 0000 seg000:00118814 4800 BF B5 seg000:00118818 60000000 seg000:0011881C \(5460043 F\) seg000:00118820 418200 0C seg000:00118824 38600000 seg000:00118828 48000248 seg000:0011882C seg000:0011882C seg000:0011882C A0 010038 seg000:00118830 28001130 seg000:00118834 418200 0C seg000:00118838 38600000 seg000:0011883C 48000234 seg000:00118840 seg000:00118840
seg000:00118840 38600001 seg000:00118844 480002 2C seg000:00118848 seg000:00118848
seg000:00118848 80 DE 0000 seg000:0011884C 38810038 seg000:00118850 386000 0A seg000:00118854 38 A0 0000 seg000:00118858 4800 BF 71 seg000:0011885C 60000000 seg000:00118860 546004 3F seg000:00118864 418200 0C seg000:00118868 38600000 seg000:0011886C 48000204 seg000: 00118870
seg000:00118870
seg000:00118870 A0 010038 seg000:00118874 280003 F3 seg000:00118878 418200 0C seg000:0011887C 38600000 seg000:00118880 480001 F0 seg000:00118884 seg000: 00118884 seg000:00118884 57 BF 06 3E seg000:00118888 28 1F 0002 seg000:0011888C 408200 0C seg000:00118890 38600001 seg000:00118894 480001 DC seg000:00118898 seg000:00118898 seg000:00118898 80 DE 0000 seg000:0011889C 38810038 seg000:001188A0 386000 0B seg000:001188A4 38 A0 00 00 seg000:001188A8 4800 BF 21 seg000:001188AC 60000000
nop
clrlwi \%r0, \%r3, 24
cmpwi \%r0, 5
beq loc_1188E4
bge loc_1187F8
cmpwi \%r0, 4
bge loc_118848
b loc_118980
loc_1187F8: \# CODE XREF: check3+AC
cmpwi \%r0, 0xB
beq loc_118804
b loc_118980
loc_118804: \# CODE XREF: check3+C0j
lwz \%r6, dword 24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var_18
li \%r3, 8
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_11882C
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_11882C: \# CODE XREF: check3+E4j lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0xFEA0
beq loc 118840
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_118840: \# CODE XREF: check3+F8j li \(\quad\) or3, 1
b exit
loc_118848: \# CODE XREF: check3+B4j
lwz \%r6, dword 24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, \(\overline{0} \times 50+v a r \_18\)
li \(\quad\) or3, 0xA
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_118870
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_118870: \# CODE XREF: check3+128j
lhz \%r0, 0x50+var 18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0xA6E1
beq loc_118884
li \(\% r 3,0\)
b exit
loc 118884: \# CODE XREF: check3+13Cj
cl̄rlwi \%r31, \%r29, 24
cmplwi \%r31, 2
bne loc 118898
li \(\quad\) r3, 1
b exit
loc_118898: \# CODE XREF: check3+150j
lwz \%r6, dword_24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var 18
li \(\quad\) r3, \(0 x B\)
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
seg000:001188B0 546004 3F seg000:001188B4 418200 0C seg000:001188B8 38600000 seg000:001188BC 480001 B4 seg000:001188C0
seg000:001188C0
seg000:001188C0 A0 010038
seg000:001188C4 280023 1C seg000:001188C8 418200 0C seg000:001188CC 38600000 seg000:001188D0 480001 A0 seg000:001188D4 seg000: 001188D4 seg000:001188D4 28 1F 0003 seg000:001188D8 40820194 seg000:001188DC 38600001 seg000:001188E0 48000190 seg000:001188E4 seg000: 001188E4
seg000:001188E4 80 DE 0000 seg000:001188E8 38810038 seg000:001188EC 386000 0C seg000:001188F0 38 A0 0000 seg000:001188F4 4800 BE D5 seg000:001188F8 60000000 seg000:001188FC 546004 3F seg000:00118900 418200 0C seg000:00118904 38600000 seg000:00118908 48000168 seg000:0011890C seg000: 0011890C
seg000:0011890C A0 010038 seg000:00118910 2800 1F 40 seg000:00118914 418200 0C seg000:00118918 38600000 seg000:0011891C 48000154 seg000:00118920
seg000:00118920
seg000:00118920 57 BF 06 3E seg000:00118924 28 1F 0002 seg000:00118928 408200 0C seg000:0011892C 38600001 seg000:00118930 48000140 seg000:00118934
seg000:00118934
seg000:00118934 80 DE 0000 seg000:00118938 38810038 seg000:0011893C 386000 0D seg000:00118940 38 A0 0000 seg000:00118944 4800 BE 85 seg000:00118948 60000000 seg000:0011894C \(5460043 F\) seg000:00118950 418200 0C seg000:00118954 38600000 seg000:00118958 48000118 seg000:0011895C seg000:0011895C seg000:0011895C A0 010038 seg000:00118960 280007 CF seg000:00118964 418200 0C seg000:00118968 38600000 seg000:0011896C 48000104 seg000:00118970 seg000:00118970 seg000:00118970 28 1F 0003 seg000:00118974 408200 F8 seg000:00118978 38600001 seg000:0011897C 480000 F4 seg000: 00118980
seg000:00118980
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_1188C0
li \(\quad\) or3, 0
b exit
loc_1188C0: \# CODE XREF: check3+178j
lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0x1C20
beq loc 1188D4
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_1188D4: \# CODE XREF: check3+18Cj
cmplwi \%r31, 3
bne error
li \%r3, 1
b exit
loc_1188E4: \# CODE XREF: check3+A8j
lwz \%r6, dword_24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var 18
li \%r3, 0xC
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc 11890C
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc 11890C: \# CODE XREF: check3+1C4j lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp) cmplwi \%r0, 0x40FF
beq loc 118920
li \(\quad\) \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_118920: \# CODE XREF: check3+1D8j clrlwi \%r31, \%r29, 24
cmplwi \%r31, 2
bne loc_118934
li \(\quad\) r3, 1
b exit
loc 118934: \# CODE XREF: check3+1ECj
l̄̄z \%r6, dword 24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var_18
li \(\quad\) r3, 0xD
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_11895C
li \(\quad\) or3, 0
b exit
loc 11895C: \# CODE XREF: check3+214j
lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0xFC7
beq loc 118970
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc_118970: \# CODE XREF: check3+228j cmplwi \%r31, 3
bne error
li \(\quad\) r3, 1
b exit
loc_118980: \# CODE XREF: check3+B8j
seg000:00118980
seg000:00118980 80 DE 0000
seg000:00118984 38810038 seg000:00118988 3B E0 0000 seg000:0011898C 38600004 seg000:00118990 38 A0 00 00 seg000:00118994 4800 BE 35 seg000:00118998 60000000 seg000:0011899C 546004 3F seg000:001189A0 418200 0C seg000:001189A4 38600000 seg000:001189A8 480000 C8 seg000: 001189AC
seg000:001189AC
seg000:001189AC A0 010038 seg000:001189B0 2800 1D 6A seg000:001189B4 408200 0C seg000:001189B8 3B E0 00 01 seg000:001189BC 48000014 seg000:001189C0
seg000:001189C0 seg000:001189C0 28001828 seg000:001189C4 418200 0C seg000:001189C8 38600000 seg000:001189CC 4800 00 A4 seg000:001189D0 seg000:001189D0 seg000: 001189D0 seg000:001189D0 57 A0 06 3E seg000:001189D4 28000002 seg000:001189D8 40820020 seg000:001189DC 57 E0 06 3F seg000:001189E0 41820010 seg000:001189E4 4800 4C 69 seg000:001189E8 60000000 seg000:001189EC 48000084 seg000: 001189F0 seg000:001189F0
seg000:001189F0 38600001 seg000:001189F4 480000 7C seg000:001189F8 seg000:001189F8 seg000:001189F8 80 DE 0000 seg000:001189FC 38810038 seg000:00118A00 38600065 seg000:00118A04 38 A0 0000 seg000:00118A08 4800 BD C1 seg000:00118A0C 60000000 seg000:00118A10 546004 3F seg000:00118A14 418200 0C seg000:00118A18 38600000 seg000:00118A1C 48000054 seg000:00118A20 seg000:00118A20 seg000:00118A20 A0 010038 seg000:00118A24 280011 D3 seg000:00118A28 408200 0C seg000:00118A2C 3B E0 0001 seg000:00118A30 48000014 seg000:00118A34 seg000: 00118A34 seg000:00118A34 2800 1A EB seg000:00118A38 418200 0C seg000:00118A3C 38600000 seg000:00118A40 48000030 seg000:00118A44 seg000:00118A44 seg000:00118A44
seg000:00118A44 57 A0 06 3E seg000:00118A48 28000003
\# check3+C4j
lwz \%r6, dword_24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var 18
li \(\quad\) r31, 0
li \(\quad\) \%r3, 4
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_1189AC
li \%r3, 0
exit
loc_1189AC: \# CODE XREF: check3+264j
lhz \%r0, 0x50+var 18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0xAED0
bne loc_1189C0
li \(\quad\) r31, 1
b loc 1189D0
loc 1189C0: \# CODE XREF: check3+278j cmplwi \%r0, 0x2818
beq loc_1189D0
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc 1189D0: \# CODE XREF: check3+280j \# check3+288j
clrlwi \%r0, \%r29, 24
cmplwi \%r0, 2
bne loc 1189F8
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r31, 24
beq good2
bl sub_11D64C
nop
b exit
good2: \# CODE XREF: check3+2A4j
li \(\% r 3,1\)
exit
loc_1189F8: \# CODE XREF: check3+29Cj
l̄̄z \%r6, dword 24B704
addi \%r4, \%sp, 0x50+var_18
li \%r3, 5
li \%r5, 0
bl .RBEREAD
nop
clrlwi. \%r0, \%r3, 16
beq loc_118A20
li \%r3, 0
b exit
loc 118A20: \# CODE XREF: check3+2D8j
lhz \%r0, 0x50+var_18(\%sp)
cmplwi \%r0, 0xD300
bne loc 118A34
li \(\quad\) r3̄̄, 1
b good1
loc_118A34: \# CODE XREF: check3+2ECj
cmplwi \%r0, 0xEBA1
beq good1
li \(\quad\) or3, 0
b exit
good1: \# CODE XREF: check3+2F4j \# check3+2FCj
clrlwi \%r0, \%r29, 24
cmplwi \%r0, 3
```

seg000:00118A4C 40 82 00 20 bne error
seg000:00118A50 57 E0 06 3F clrlwi. %r0, %r31, 24
seg000:00118A54 41 82 00 10 beq good
seg000:00118A58 48 00 4B F5 bl sub_11D64C
seg000:00118A5C 60 00 00 00 nop
seg000:00118A60 48 00 00 10 b exit
seg000:00118A64
seg000:00118A64 good: \# CODE XREF: check3+318j
seg000:00118A64 38 60 00 01 li %r3, 1
seg000:00118A68 48 00 00 08 b exit
seg000:00118A6C
seg000:00118A6C error: \# CODE XREF: check3+19Cj
seg000:00118A6C
seg000:00118A6C 38 60 00 00
seg000:00118A70
seg000:00118A70
seg000:00118A70
seg000:00118A70 80 01 00 58
seg000:00118A74 38 21 00 50 addi %sp, %sp, 0x50
seg000:00118A78 83 E1 FF FC lwz %r31, var_4(%sp)
seg000:00118A7C 7C 08 03 A6 mtlr %r0
seg000:00118A80 83 C1 FF F8 lwz %r30, var_8(%sp)
seg000:00118A84 83 A1 FF F4 lwz %r29, var_C(%sp)
seg000:00118A88 4E 80 00 20
seg000:00118A88
\# check3+238j ...
li
%r3, 0
exit: \# CODE XREF: check3+44j
\# check3+58j ...
lwz %r0, 0x50+arg_8(%sp)
blr

```

There are a lot of calls to. RBEREAD ().
Perhaps, the function returns some values from the dongle, so they are compared here with some hardcoded variables using CMPLWI.
We also see that the r3 register is also filled before each call to . RBEREAD () with one of these values: 0 , \(1,8,0 \times A, 0 \times B, 0 \times C, 0 \times D, 4,5\). Probably a memory address or something like that?
Yes, indeed, by googling these function names it is easy to find the Sentinel Eve3 dongle manual!
Perhaps we don't even have to learn any other PowerPC instructions: all this function does is just call . RBEREAD ( ), compare its results with the constants and returns 1 if the comparisons are fine or 0 otherwise.
OK, all we've got is that checkl() has always to return 1 or any other non-zero value.
But since we are not very confident in our knowledge of PowerPC instructions, we are going to be careful: we will patch the jumps in check2() at \(0 \times 001186 \mathrm{FC}\) and \(0 \times 00118718\).
At \(0 \times 001186 \mathrm{FC}\) we'll write bytes \(0 \times 48\) and 0 thus converting the BEQ instruction in an B (unconditional jump): we can spot its opcode in the code without even referring to [PowerPC(tm) Microprocessor Family: The Programming Environments for 32-Bit Microprocessors, (2000) \(]^{13}\).
At \(0 \times 00118718\) we'll write \(0 \times 60\) and 3 zero bytes, thus converting it to a NOP instruction: Its opcode we could spot in the code too.
And now it all works without a dongle connected.
In summary, such small modifications can be done with IDA and minimal assembly language knowledge.

\subsection*{8.5.2 Example \#2: SCO OpenServer}

An ancient software for SCO OpenServer from 1997 developed by a company that disappeared a long time ago.
There is a special dongle driver to be installed in the system, that contains the following text strings: "Copyright 1989, Rainbow Technologies, Inc., Irvine, CA" and "Sentinel Integrated Driver Ver. 3.0 ".
After the installation of the driver in SCO OpenServer, these device files appear in the /dev filesystem:
```

/dev/rbsl8
/dev/rbsl9
/dev/rbsl10

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{13}\) Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/PowerPC/6xx_pem.pdf
}

The program reports an error without dongle connected, but the error string cannot be found in the executables.

Thanks to IDA, it is easy to load the COFF executable used in SCO OpenServer.
Let's also try to find "rbsl" string and indeed, found it in this code fragment:
.text:00022AB8 public SSQC
.text:00022AB8 SSQC proc near ; CODE XREF: SSQ+7p
.text:00022AB8
.text:00022AB8 var_44 = byte ptr -44 h
.text:00022AB8 var_29 = byte ptr -29h
.text:00022AB8 arg_0 = dword ptr 8
.text:00022AB8
.text:00022AB8
.text:00022AB9
.text:00022ABB
.text:00022ABE
.text:00022ABF
.text:00022AC4
.text:00022AC5
.text:00022AC8
.text:00022AC9
.text:00022ACA
.text:00022ACF
.text:00022AD2
.text:00022AD7
.text:00022ADD
.text:00022ADE
.text:00022AE1
.text:00022AE4
.text:00022AE9
.text:00022AEF
.text:00022AF4
.text:00022AFA
.text:00022AFF
.text:00022B01
.text:00022B04
.text:00022B07
.text:00022B0C
.text:00022B0E
.text:00022B0F
.text:00022B12
.text:00022B17
.text:00022B18
.text:00022B1D
.text:00022B1F
.text:00022B24
.text:00022B29
.text:00022B2C
.text:00022B31
.text:00022B33
.text:00022B36
.text:00022B37
.text:00022B3A
.text:00022B3F
.text:00022B40
.text:00022B45
.text:00022B48
.text:00022B48
.text:00022B48
.text:00022B4A
.text:00022B4C
.text:00022B4E
.text:00022B4F
.text:00022B54
.text:00022B57
.text:00022B57 loc_22B57: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+94j
.text:00022B57 push 2 ; int
.text:00022B59
.text:00022B5C

loc_22B48: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+79j
mov edx, [edi]
test edx, edx
jle short loc_22B57
push edx ; int
call _close
add esp, 4
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { push } \\ \text { lea } & \text { eax, }[\text {; } \\ \text { p }\end{array}\)
push eax ; char *
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
call \\
add \\
test \\
mov \\
jge
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
_open \\
esp, 8 \\
eax, eax \\
[edi], eax \\
short loc_22B78
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{loc_22B6B: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+47j} \\
\hline mov & eax, 0FFFFFFFFh \\
\hline pop & ebx \\
\hline pop & esi \\
\hline pop & edi \\
\hline mov & esp, ebp \\
\hline pop & ebp \\
\hline retn & \\
\hline loc_22B78: ; & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{```
CODE XREF: SSQC+B1j
    ebx
```} \\
\hline рор & \\
\hline рор & esi \\
\hline pop & edi \\
\hline xor & eax, eax \\
\hline mov & esp, ebp \\
\hline pop & ebp \\
\hline retn & \\
\hline loc_22B84: ; & CODE XREF: SSQC+31j \\
\hline mov & al, [esi] \\
\hline pop & ebx \\
\hline pop & esi \\
\hline pop & edi \\
\hline mov & ds:byte_407224, al \\
\hline mov & esp, ebp \\
\hline xor & eax, eax \\
\hline pop & ebp \\
\hline retn & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
.text:00022B93
.text:00022B94
.text:00022B94
.text:00022B94
.text:00022B96
.text:00022B97
.text:00022B98
.text:00022B99
.text:00022B9E
.text:00022BA0
.text:00022BA2
.text:00022BA3
.text:00022BA4
.text:00022BA4
.text:00022BA4
.text:00022BAB
.text:00022BAC
.text:00022BAD
.text:00022BB4
.text:00022BB5
.text:00022BB8
.text:00022BBD
.text:00022BBE
.text:00022BC3
.text:00022BC6
.text:00022BC7
.text:00022BCC
.text:00022BCF
.text:00022BD4
.text:00022BD6
.text:00022BDA
.text:00022BDA
.text:00022BDA
.text:00022BDD
.text:00022BDE
.text:00022BE3
.text:00022BE4
```

loc_22B94: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+3Cj
mov al, [esi]
pop ebx
pop esi
pop edi
mov ds:byte_407225, al
mov esp, ebp
xor eax, eax
pop ebp
retn
loc_22BA4: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+1Fj
movsx eax, ds:byte_407225
push esi
push eax
movsx eax, ds:byte_407224
push eax
lea eax, [ebp+var_44]
push offset a46CCS ; "46%C%C%s"
push eax
call nl_sprintf
lea eax, [ebp+var 44]
push eax
call strlen
add esp, 18h
cmp eax, 1Bh
jle short loc_22BDA
mov [ebp+var_29], 0
loc_22BDA: ; CODE XREF: SSQC+11Cj
lea eax, [ebp+var 44]
push eax
call strlen
push eax ; unsigned int
lea eax, [ebp+var_44]

```
8.5. DONGLES
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline .text:00022BE7 & push & eax \\
.text:00022BE8 & mov & eax, [edi] \\
.text:00022BEA & push & eax \\
.text:00022BEB & call & (write \\
.text:00022BF0 & add & esp, 10h \\
.text:00022BF3 & pop & ebx \\
.text:00022BF4 & pop & esi \\
.text:00022BF5 & pop & edi \\
.text:00022BF6 & mov & esp, ebp \\
.text:00022BF8 & pop & \\
.text:00022BF9 & retn & \\
.text:00022BFA & db 0Eh dup(90h) & \\
.text:00022BFA SSQC & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Yes, indeed, the program needs to communicate with the driver somehow.
The only place where the SSQC() function is called is the thunk function:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline .text:0000DBE8 & public SSQ \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 SSQ & proc near ; CODE XREF: sys_info+A9p \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 & ; sys_info+CBp \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 & \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 arg_0 & = dword ptr 8 \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 & \\
\hline .text:0000DBE8 & push ebp \\
\hline .text:0000DBE9 & mov ebp, esp \\
\hline .text:0000DBEB & mov edx, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline .text:0000DBEE & push edx \\
\hline .text:0000DBEF & call SSQC \\
\hline .text:0000DBF4 & add esp, 4 \\
\hline .text:0000DBF7 & mov esp, ebp \\
\hline .text:0000DBF9 & pop ebp \\
\hline .text:0000DBFA & retn \\
\hline .text:0000DBFB SSQ & endp \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SSQ() can be called from at least 2 functions.
One of these is:

.text:0000D66E
.text:0000D670
.text:0000D672
.text:0000D677
.text:0000D679
.text:0000D67B
.text:0000D67B
.text:0000D67B
.text:0000D682
.text:0000D683
.text:0000D688
.text:0000D68D
.text: 00000D692
.text:0000D697
.text:0000D69C
.text: 00000D69F
.text:0000D6A6
.text:0000D6A8
.text: 00000D6AA
.text:0000D6B1
.text:0000D6B3
.text: 00000D6B5
.text:0000D6BB
.text:0000D6BC
.text: 00000D6BE
.text:0000D6C0
.text:0000D6C0
.text:0000D6C0
.text:0000D6C6
.text:0000D6C8
.text:0000D6CD
.text:0000D6CF
.text:0000D6D1
.text:0000D6D1
.text:0000D6D1
.text:0000D6D1
.text:0000D6D4
.text:0000D6D5
.text: 00000D6D8
.text: 00000D6DB
text:0000D6E1
.text:0000D6E1
.text:0000D6E1
.text:0000D6E1
.text:0000D6E2
.text:0000D6E3
.text:0000D6E5
.text:0000D6E6
.text:0000D6E8
.text:0000D6E8
.text:0000D6E8
.text: 00000D6EE
.text:0000D6EF
.text: 00000D6F0
.text:0000D6F5
.text:0000D6F7
.text:0000D6F8
.text:00000D6F8 sys_info
jz short loc_D6D1
xor ebx, ebx
mov al, C and B
test al, àl
jz short loc_D6C0
loc_D67B: ; CODE XREF: sys_info+106j
mov eax, _3C_or_3E[ebx*4]
push eax
call SSQ
push offset a4g ; "4G"
call SSQ
push offset a0123456789 ; "0123456789"
call SSQ
add esp, 0Ch
mov edx, answers1[ebx*4]
cmp eax, edx
jz short OK
mov ecx, answers2[ebx*4]
cmp eax, ecx
jz short OK
mov al, byte_4016D1[ebx]
inc ebx
test al, al
jnz short loc_D67B
Loc_D6C0: ; CODE XREF: sys info+C1j
inc ds:ctl_port
xor eax, eax
mov al, ds:ctl_port
cmp eax, edi
jle short loc_D652
loc_D6D1: ; CODE XREF: sys_info+98j
; sys_info+B6j
mov edx, [ebp+var 8]
inc edx
mov [ebp+var_8], edx
cmp edx, 3
jle loc_D641
loc D6E1: ; CODE XREF: sys info+16j
; sys_info+51j ...
pop ebx
pop edi
mov esp, ebp
pop ebp
retn
; CODE XREF: sys_info+F0j
; sys_info+FBj
mov \(\mathrm{al}, \mathrm{C}\) and \(\mathrm{B}[\mathrm{ebx}]\)
pop ebx
pop edi
mov ds:ctl model, al
mov esp, eb̄p
pop ebp
retn
endp
"3C" and "3E" sound familiar: there was a Sentinel Pro dongle by Rainbow with no memory, providing only one crypto-hashing secret function.

You can read a short description of what hash function is here: 2.11 on page 466.
But let's get back to the program.
So the program can only check the presence or absence of a connected dongle.
No other information can be written to such dongle, as it has no memory. The two-character codes are commands (we can see how the commands are handled in the SSQC ( ) function) and all other strings are
hashed inside the dongle, being transformed into a 16 -bit number. The algorithm was secret, so it was not possible to write a driver replacement or to remake the dongle hardware that would emulate it perfectly.

However, it is always possible to intercept all accesses to it and to find what constants the hash function results are compared to.
But we need to say that it is possible to build a robust software copy protection scheme based on secret cryptographic hash-function: let it encrypt/decrypt the data files your software uses.

But let's get back to the code.
Codes 51/52/53 are used for LPT printer port selection. 3x/4x are used for "family" selection (that's how Sentinel Pro dongles are differentiated from each other: more than one dongle can be connected to a LPT port).

The only non-2-character string passed to the hashing function is "0123456789".
Then, the result is compared against the set of valid results.
If it is correct, \(0 \times C\) or \(0 \times B\) is to be written into the global variable ctl_model.
Another text string that gets passed is "PRESS ANY KEY TO CONTINUE: ", but the result is not checked. Hard to say why, probably by mistake \({ }^{14}\).
Let's see where the value from the global variable ctl_mode is used.
One such place is:
```

.text:0000D708 prep_sys proc near ; CODE XREF: init_sys+46Ap
.text:0000D708
.text:0000D708 var 14 = dword ptr -14h
.text:0000D708 var_10 = byte ptr -10h
.text:0000D708 var_8 = dword ptr -8
.text:0000D708 var_2 = word ptr -2
.text:0000D708
.text:0000D708 push ebp
.text:0000D709 mov eax, ds:net_env
.text:0000D70E mov ebp, esp
.text:0000D710 sub esp, 1Ch
.text:0000D713 test eax, eax
.text:0000D715 jnz short loc_D734
.text:0000D717 mov al, ds:ctl_model
.text:0000D71C test al, al
.text:0000D71E jnz short loc_D77E
.text:0000D720 mov [ebp+var_多], offset aIeCvulnvv0kgT_ ; "Ie-cvulnvV<br>\bOKG]T_"
.text:0000D727 mov edx, 7
.text:0000D72C jmp loc_D7E7

```
.text:0000D7E7 loc_D7E7: ; CODE XREF: prep_sys+24j
.text:0000D7E7 ; prep_sys+33j
.text:0000D7E7 push edx
.text:0000D7E8 mov edx, [ebp+var_8]
.text:0000D7EB push 20h
.text:0000D7ED push edx
.text:0000D7EE push 16h
.text:0000D7F0 call err_warn
.text:0000D7F5 push offset station_sem
.text:0000D7FA call ClosSem
.text:0000D7FF call startup_err

If it is 0 , an encrypted error message is passed to a decryption routine and printed.
The error string decryption routine seems a simple xoring:
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline\(. t e x t: 0000 A 43 C\) err_warn & proc near & ; CODE XREF: prep_sys+E8p \\
.text:0000A43C & & prep_sys2+2Fp... \\
.text:0000A43C & \(=\) byte ptr -55 h & \\
.text:0000A43C var_55 & \(=\) byte ptr -54 h & \\
.text:0000A43C var_54 & \(=\) dword ptr 8 &
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{14}\) What a strange feeling: to find bugs in such ancient software.
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:0000A43C arg_4 & = dword p & ptr 0Ch \\
\hline .text:0000A43C arg_8 & = dword p & ptr 10h \\
\hline .text:0000A43C arg_C & = dword p & ptr 14h \\
\hline .text:0000A43C & & \\
\hline .text:0000A43C & push & ebp \\
\hline .text:0000A43D & mov & ebp, esp \\
\hline .text:0000A43F & sub & esp, 54h \\
\hline .text:0000A442 & push & edi \\
\hline .text:0000A443 & mov & ecx, [ebp+arg_8] \\
\hline .text:0000A446 & xor & edi, edi \\
\hline .text:0000A448 & test & ecx, ecx \\
\hline .text:0000A44A & push & esi \\
\hline .text:0000A44B & jle & short loc_A466 \\
\hline .text:0000A44D & mov & esi, [ebp+arg_C] ; key \\
\hline .text:0000A450 & mov & edx, [ebp+arg_4] ; string \\
\hline .text:0000A453 & & \\
\hline .text:0000A453 loc_A453: & & ; CODE XREF: err_warn+28j \\
\hline .text:0000A453 & xor & eax, eax \\
\hline .text:0000A455 & mov & al, [edx+edi] \\
\hline .text:0000A458 & xor & eax, esi \\
\hline .text:0000A45A & add & esi, 3 \\
\hline .text:0000A45D & inc & edi \\
\hline . text:0000A45E & cmp & edi, ecx \\
\hline .text:0000A460 & mov & [ebp+edi+var_55], al \\
\hline .text:0000A464 & jl & short loc_A453 \\
\hline .text:0000A466 & & \\
\hline .text:0000A466 loc_A466: & & ; CODE XREF: err_warn+Fj \\
\hline .text:0000A466 & mov & [ebp+edi+var_54], 0 \\
\hline .text:0000A46B & mov & eax, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline .text:0000A46E & cmp & eax, 18h \\
\hline .text:0000A473 & jnz & short loc_A49C \\
\hline .text:0000A475 & lea & eax, [ebp+var_54] \\
\hline .text:0000A478 & push & eax \\
\hline .text:0000A479 & call & status_line \\
\hline .text:0000A47E & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline .text:0000A481 & & \\
\hline .text:0000A481 loc_A481: & & ; CODE XREF: err_warn+72j \\
\hline .text:0000A481 & push & 50h \\
\hline .text:0000A483 & push & 0 \\
\hline .text:0000A485 & lea & eax, [ebp+var_54] \\
\hline .text:0000A488 & push & eax \\
\hline .text:0000A489 & call & memset \\
\hline .text:0000A48E & call & pcv_refresh \\
\hline .text:0000A493 & add & esp, 0Ch \\
\hline .text:0000A496 & pop & esi \\
\hline .text:0000A497 & pop & edi \\
\hline .text:0000A498 & mov & esp, ebp \\
\hline .text:0000A49A & pop & ebp \\
\hline .text:0000A49B & retn & \\
\hline .text:0000A49C & & \\
\hline .text:0000A49C loc_A49C: & & ; CODE XREF: err_warn+37j \\
\hline .text:0000A49C & push & 0 \\
\hline .text:0000A49E & lea & eax, [ebp+var_54] \\
\hline .text:0000A4A1 & mov & edx, [ebp+arg_0] \\
\hline .text:0000A4A4 & push & edx \\
\hline .text:0000A4A5 & push & eax \\
\hline .text:0000A4A6 & call & pcv_lputs \\
\hline .text:0000A4AB & add & esp, 0Ch \\
\hline .text:0000A4AE & jmp & short loc_A481 \\
\hline .text:0000A4AE err_warn & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

有
text:0000A43C arg_C
0000A43C
text:0000A43D
.text:0000A43F
text:0000A442
text:0000A443
-text:0000A448


text:
text:0000A450
:0000A453
text:0000A453
.text:0000A455
text:0000A458
text:0000A45A
-text:0000A45D
-
-
text:
text:0000A466 loc A466
- 0000
text:0000A46E
.text:0000A473
.text:0000A475
text:0000A478
-text:0000A475
text:0000A481
.text:0000A481 loc_A481:

相
text:
text:0000A489
-text:0000A48E
text:0000A496
.text:0000A497
text:0000A498
text:0000A49A
.text:0000A49C
text:0000A49C loc A49C
-text:0000A49
-

text
text:0000A4A6
text:0000A4AE err warn
= dword ptr 0Ch
= dword ptr 10h
= dword ptr 14h
push ebp
ebp, esp
push edi
ecx, [ebp+arg_8]
xor edi, edi
push esi
jle short loc A466
mov esi, [ebp+arg_C] ; key
edx, [ebp+arg_4] ; string
; CODE XREF: err_warn+28j
xor eax, eax
xor
esi, 3
edi
edi, ecx
ebp+edi+var 55], al
; CODE XREF: err warn+Fj
mov [ebp+edi+var 54], 0
mov eax, [ebp+arg_0]
eax, 18h
jnz short loc A49C
lea eax, [ebp+var_54]
push eax
call status line
esp, 4
; CODE XREF: err_warn+72j
push 0
lea eax, [ebp+var 54]
call memset
call pcv_refresh
add esp, 0Ch
esi
mov esp, ebp
ebp
; CODE XREF: err warn+37j
lea eax, [ebp+var_54]
edx, [ebp+arg 0]
push eax
palv lputs
jmp short loc_A481
endp

That's why we were unable to find the error messages in the executable files, because they are encrypted (which is is popular practice).

Another call to the SSQ() hashing function passes the "offln" string to it and compares the result with \(0 \times F E 81\) and \(0 \times 12 \mathrm{~A} 9\).

If they don't match, it works with some timer() function (maybe waiting for a poorly connected dongle to be reconnected and check again?) and then decrypts another error message to dump.
.text:0000DA55 .text:0000DA55
.text:0000DA5A
.text:0000DA5F
.text:0000DA62
.text:0000DA64
.text:00000DA66
.text:0000DA69
.text:0000DA6B
.text:00000DA71
.text:0000DA77
.text:0000DA7D
.text:00000DA83
.text:00000DA83 loc_DA83:
.text:0000DA83
.text:0000DA85
.text:0000DA88
.text:0000DA8A
.text:0000DA90
.text:0000DA96
.text:0000DA99
.text:0000DA9F
.text:00000DA9F loc_DA9F:
.text:0000DA9F
.text:00000DAA2
.text:0000DAA4
.text:0000DAA6
.text:00000DAA8
.text:0000DAAD
.text:0000DAB0
.text:0000DAB0
.text:0000DAB0
.text:0000DAB1
.text:0000DAB4
.text:0000DAB6
.text: 00000DABB
.text: 00000DABD
loc_DA55:
loc_DA83:
loc_DAB0:
```

t

```
te
jz short loc_DAB0
push 24h
call timer
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { cald } & \text { timer } \\ \text { add }\end{array}\)
; CODE XREF: sync_sys+23Cj
inc edi
cmp edi, 3
jle short loc_DA55
mov eax, ds:net_env
test eax, eax
jz short error
; CODE XREF: sync_sys+220j
nov eax, [ebp+var_18]
exr
ax, eax
di
ax, ds:net_env
push offset aOffln ; "offln"
call SSQ
add esp, 4
mov dl, [ebx]
mov esi, eax
cmp dl, 0Bh
jnz short loc_DA83
cmp esi, 0FE81h
jz OK
cmp esi, 0FFFFF8EFh
jz OK
; CODE XREF: sync_sys+201j
mov cl, [ebx]
cmp cl, 0Ch
jnz short loc_DA9F
cmp esi, 12A9h
jz OK
cmp esi, 0FFFFFFF5h
jz OK
.text:0000DAF7 error:
.text:0000DAF7
.text:0000DAF7
.text:0000DAFE
.text:0000DB05
\begin{tabular}{rl} 
& ; CODE XREF: sync_sys+255j \\
& ; sync_sys+274j ... \\
mov & {\([\) [ebp+var_8], offset encrypted_error_message2 } \\
mov & {\([\) ebp+var_C], 17h; decrypting key } \\
jmp & \begin{tabular}{l} 
decrypt_end_print_message
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
; this name we gave to label:
.text:00000D9B6 decrypt_end_print_message: ; CODE XREF: sync_sys+29Dj
.text:00000D9B6
.text:0000D9B6
.text:0000D9B9
.text:0000D9BB
.text:00000D9BD
.text:0000D9C0
.text:0000D9C3
.text:0000D9C4
.text:0000D9C6
.text:0000D9C7
.text:00000D9C9
.text:0000D9CE
.text:0000D9D0
.text:00000D9D5
.text:0000D9DA
.text:00000D9E1
.text:00000D9E4
.text:0000D9E9
.text:0000D9EB
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
& \\
mov & eax, [ebp+var_18] sync_sys+2ABj \\
test & eax, eax \\
jnz & short loc_D9FB \\
mov & edx, [ebp+var_C] ; key \\
mov & ecx, [ebp+var_8] ; string \\
push & edx \\
push & \(20 h\) \\
push & ecx \\
push & \(18 h\) \\
call & err_warn \\
push & 0 Fh \\
push & \(190 h\) \\
call & sound \\
mov & [ebp+var_18], 1 \\
add & esp, 18h \\
call & pcv_kbhit \\
test & eax, eax \\
jz & short loc_D9FB
\end{tabular}
```

...
; this name we gave to label:
.data:00401736 encrypted_error_message2 db 74h, 72h, 78h, 43h, 48h, 6, 5Ah, 49h, 4Ch, 2 dup(47hr
)
.data:00401736 db 51h, 4Fh, 47h, 61h, 20h, 22h, 3Ch, 24h, 33h, 36h, 76h
.data:00401736 db 3Ah, 33h, 31h, 0Ch, 0, 0Bh, 1Fh, 7, 1Eh, 1Ah

```

Bypassing the dongle is pretty straightforward: just patch all jumps after the relevant CMP instructions.
Another option is to write our own SCO OpenServer driver, containing a table of questions and answers, all of those which present in the program.

\section*{Decrypting error messages}

By the way, we can also try to decrypt all error messages. The algorithm that is located in the err_warn() function is very simple, indeed:

Listing 8.3: Decryption function
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline. text:0000A44D & mov & esi, [ebp+arg_C] ; key \\
.text:0000A450 & mov & edx, [ebp+arg_4] ; string \\
.text:0000A453 loc_A453: & & \\
.text:0000A453 & xor & eax, eax \\
.text:0000A455 & mov & al, [edx+edi] ; load encrypted byte \\
.text:0000A458 & xor & eax, esi \(\quad\) decrypt it \\
.text:0000A45A & add change key for the next byte \\
.text:0000A45D & esi, 3 \\
.text:0000A45E & cmp & edi \\
.text:0000A460 & mov & [ebp+edi+var_55], al \\
.text:0000A464 & \(j l\) & short loc_A453
\end{tabular}

As we can see, not just string is supplied to the decryption function, but also the key:
```

.text:0000DAF7 error: ; CODE XREF: sync_sys+255j
.text:0000DAF7 ; sync_sys+274j ...
.text:0000DAF7 mov [ebp+var_8], offset encrypted_error_message2
.text:0000DAFE mov [ebp+var_C], 17h ; decrypting key
.text:0000DB05 jmp decrypt_end_print_message
; this name we gave to label manually:
.text:0000D9B6 decrypt_end_print_message: ; CODE XREF: sync_sys+29Dj
.text:0000D9B6 ; sync_sys+2ABj
.text:0000D9B6 mov eax, [ebp+var 18]
.text:0000D9B9 test eax, eax
.text:0000D9BB jnz short loc_D9FB
.text:0000D9BD mov edx, [ebp+var_C] ; key
.text:0000D9C0 mov ecx, [ebp+var_8] ; string
.text:0000D9C3
.text:0000D9C4
push edx
push 20h
push ecx
.text:0000D9C7 push 18h
.text:0000D9C9 call err_warn

```

The algorithm is a simple xoring: each byte is xored with a key, but the key is increased by 3 after the processing of each byte.

We can write a simple Python script to check our hypothesis:
Listing 8.4: Python 3.x
```

\#!/usr/bin/python
import sys
msg=[0x74, 0x72, 0x78, 0x43, 0x48, 0x6, 0x5A, 0x49, 0x4C, 0x47, 0x47,
0x51, 0x4F, 0x47, 0x61, 0x20, 0x22, 0x3C, 0x24, 0x33, 0x36, 0x76,
0x3A, 0x33, 0x31, 0x0C, 0x0, 0x0B, 0x1F, 0x7, 0x1E, 0x1A]

```
```

key=0x17
tmp=key
for i in msg:
sys.stdout.write ("%c" % (i^tmp))
tmp=tmp+3
sys.stdout.flush()

```

And it prints: "check security device connection". So yes, this is the decrypted message.
There are also other encrypted messages with their corresponding keys. But needless to say, it is possible to decrypt them without their keys. First, we can see that the key is in fact a byte. It is because the core decryption instruction (XOR) works on byte level. The key is located in the ESI register, but only one byte part of ESI is used. Hence, a key may be greater than 255 , but its value is always to be rounded.

As a consequence, we can just try brute-force, trying all possible keys in the \(0 . .255\) range. We are also going to skip the messages that has unprintable characters.

Listing 8.5: Python 3.x
```

\#!/usr/bin/python
import sys, curses.ascii
msgs=[
[0x74, 0x72, 0x78, 0x43, 0x48, 0x6, 0x5A, 0x49, 0x4C, 0x47, 0x47,
0x51, 0x4F, 0x47, 0x61, 0x20, 0x22, 0x3C, 0x24, 0x33, 0x36, 0x76,
0x3A, 0x33, 0x31, 0x0C, 0x0, 0x0B, 0x1F, 0x7, 0x1E, 0x1A],
[0x49, 0x65, 0x2D, 0x63, 0x76, 0x75, 0x6C, 0x6E, 0x76, 0x56, 0x5C,
8, 0x4F, 0x4B, 0x47, 0x5D, 0x54, 0x5F, 0x1D, 0x26, 0x2C, 0x33,
0x27, 0x28, 0x6F, 0x72, 0x75, 0x78, 0x7B, 0x7E, 0x41, 0x44],
[0x45, 0x61, 0x31, 0x67, 0x72, 0x79, 0x68, 0x52, 0x4A, 0x52, 0x50,
0x0C, 0x4B, 0x57, 0x43, 0x51, 0x58, 0x5B, 0x61, 0x37, 0x33, 0x2B,
0x39, 0x39, 0x3C, 0x38, 0x79, 0x3A, 0x30, 0x17, 0x0B, 0x0C],
[0x40, 0x64, 0x79, 0x75, 0x7F, 0x6F, 0x0, 0x4C, 0x40, 0x9, 0x4D, 0x5A,
0x46, 0x5D, 0x57, 0x49, 0x57, 0x3B, 0x21, 0x23, 0x6A, 0x38, 0x23,
0x36, 0x24, 0x2A, 0x7C, 0x3A, 0x1A, 0x6, 0x0D, 0x0E, 0x0A, 0x14,
0x10],
[0x72, 0x7C, 0x72, 0x79, 0x76, 0x0,
0x50, 0x43, 0x4A, 0x59, 0x5D, 0x5B, 0x41, 0x41, 0x1B, 0x5A,
0x24, 0x32, 0x2E, 0x29, 0x28, 0x70, 0x20, 0x22, 0x38, 0x28, 0x36,
0x0D, 0x0B, 0x48, 0x4B, 0x4E]]
def is_string_printable(s):
return all(list(map(lambda x: curses.ascii.isprint(x), s)))
cnt=1
for msg in msgs:
print ("message \#%d" % cnt)
for key in range(0,256):
result=[]
tmp=key
for i in msg:
result.append (i^tmp)
tmp=tmp+3
if is_string_printable (result):
print ("key=", key, "value=", "".join(list(map(chr, result))))
cnt=cnt+1

```

And we get:
Listing 8.6: Results

\section*{message \#1}
key= 20 value= `eb^h\%|``hudw|_af\{n~f\%ljmSbnwlpk
key= 21 value= ajc]i"\}cawtgv\{^bgto\}g"millcmvkqh
key= 22 value= bkd\j\#rbbvsfuz!cduh|d\#bhomdlujni
```

key= 23 value= check security device connection
key= 24 value= lifbl!pd|tqhsx\#ejwjbb!`nQofbshlo message #2 key= 7 value= No security device found key= 8 value= An#rbbvsVuz!cduhld#ghtme?!#!'!#! message #3 key= 7 value= Bk<waoqNUpu$`yreoa\wpmpusj,bkIjh
key= 8 value= Mj?vfnrOjqv%gxqd``_vwlstlk/clHii
key= 9 value= Lm>ugasLkvw\&fgpgag^uvcrwml.`mwhj key= 10 value= 0l!td`tMhwx'efwfbf!tubuvnm!anvok
key= 11 value= No security device station found
key= 12 value= In\#rjbvsnuz!{duhdd\#r{`whho#gPtme message #4 key= 14 value= Number of authorized users exceeded key= 15 value= Ovlmdq!hg#`juknuhydk!vrbsp!Zy`dbefe message #5 key= 17 value= check security device station key= 18 value= `ijbh!td`tmhwx'efwfbf!tubuVnm!'!

```

There is some garbage, but we can quickly find the English-language messages!
By the way, since the algorithm is a simple xoring encryption, the very same function can be used to encrypt messages. If needed, we can encrypt our own messages, and patch the program by inserting them.

\subsection*{8.5.3 Example \#3: MS-DOS}

Another very old software for MS-DOS from 1995 also developed by a company that disappeared a long time ago.
In the pre-DOS extenders era, all the software for MS-DOS mostly relied on 16 -bit 8086 or 80286 CPUs, so the code was 16 -bit en masse.

The 16 -bit code is mostly same as you already saw in this book, but all registers are 16-bit and there are less instructions available.
The MS-DOS environment has no system drivers, and any program can deal with the bare hardware via ports, so here you can see the OUT/IN instructions, which are present in mostly in drivers in our times (it is impossible to access ports directly in user mode on all modern OSes).

Given that, the MS-DOS program which works with a dongle has to access the LPT printer port directly.
So we can just search for such instructions. And yes, here they are:
```

seg030:0034 out_port proc far ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+22p
seg030:0034 ; sent_pro+2Ap ...
seg030:0034
seg030:0034
seg030:0034
seg030:0034 55
seg030:0035 8B EC
seg030:0037 8B 16 7E E7 mov dx, _out_port ; 0x378
seg030:003B 8A 46 06
seg030:003E EE
seg030:003F 5D
seg030:0040 CB
seg030:0040

```
```

arg_0 = byte ptr 6

```
arg_0 = byte ptr 6
    push bp
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    mov bp, sp
    mov al, [bp+arg_0]
    mov al, [bp+arg_0]
```

    mov dx, _out_port ; 0x378
    ```
    mov dx, _out_port ; 0x378
    out dx, al
    out dx, al
    pop bp
    pop bp
    retf
    retf
out_port endp
```

out_port endp

```
(All label names in this example were given by me).
out_port() is referenced only in one function:
```

seg030:0041
seg030:0041
seg030:0041
seg030:0041
seg030:0041
seg030:0041
seg030:0041 C8 04 00 00 enter 4, 0
seg030:0045 56

```
```

sent_pro proc far ; CODE XREF: check_dongle+34p

```
sent_pro proc far ; CODE XREF: check_dongle+34p
var_3 = byte ptr -3
var_3 = byte ptr -3
var_2 = word ptr -2
var_2 = word ptr -2
arg 0 = dword ptr 6
arg 0 = dword ptr 6
    push si
```

    push si
    ```
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline seg030:0046 57 & push & di \\
seg030:0047 8B 16 82 E7 & mov & dx, in_port_1 ; 0x37A \\
seg030:004B EC & in & al, dx \\
seg030:004C 8A D8 & mov & bl, al \\
seg030:004E 80 E3 FE & and & bl, 0FEh \\
seg030:0051 80 CB 04 & or & bl, 4 \\
seg030:0054 8A C3 & mov & al, bl \\
seg030:0056 88 46 FD & mov & [bp+var_3], al \\
seg030:0059 80 E3 1F & and & bl, 1Fh \\
seg030:005C 8A C3 & mov & al, bl \\
seg030:005E EE & out & dx, al \\
seg030:005F 68 FF 00 & push & 0FFh \\
seg030:0062 0E & push & cs \\
seg030:0063 E8 CE FF & call & near ptr out_port \\
seg030:0066 59 & pop & cx \\
seg030:0067 68 D3 00 & push & 0D3h \\
seg030:006A 0E & push & cs \\
seg030:006B E8 C6 FF & call & near ptr out_port \\
seg030:006E 59 & pop & cx \\
seg030:006F 33 F6 & xor & si, si \\
seg030:0071 EB 01 & jmp & short loc_359D4 \\
seg030:0073 & &
\end{tabular}
loc_359D3: ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+37j
inc Si
loc_359D4: ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+30j
cmp si, 96h
jl short loc_359D3
push 0C3h
push Cs
call near ptr out_port
pop cx
push 0C7h
push cs
call near ptr out_port
pop cX
push 0D3h
push cs
call near ptr out_port
pop cx
push 0C3h
push CS
call near ptr out_port
pop cx
push 0C7h
push cs
call near ptr out_port
pop cx
push 0D3h
push cs
call near ptr out_port
pop cx
mov di, 0FFFFh
jmp short loc_35A4F
loc_35A0F: ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+BDj
mov si, 4
loc_35A12: ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+ACj
shl di, 1
mov dx, _in_port_2 ; 0x379
in al, dx
seg030:00BB 7503
seg030:00BD 83 CF 01
seg030:00C0
seg030:00C0 loc_35A20: ; CODE XREF: sent_pro+7Aj
seg030:00C0 F7 46 FE 08+
seg030:00C5 7405
seg030:00C7 68 D7 00
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
test & {\([b p+\) var_2], 8} \\
jz & short loc 35A2C \\
push & 0D7h ; '+'
\end{tabular}
```

seg030:00CA EB 0B
seg030:00CC
seg030:00CC
seg030:00CC 68 C3 00
seg030:00CF 0E
seg030:00D0 E8 61 FF
seg030:00D3 59
seg030:00D4 68 C7 00
seg030:00D7
seg030:00D7
seg030:00D7 0E
seg030:00D8 E8 59 FF
seg030:00DB 59
seg030:00DC 68 D3 00
seg030:00DF 0E
seg030:00E0 E8 51 FF
seg030:00E3 59
seg030:00E4 8B 46 FE
seg030:00E7 D1 E0
seg030:00E9 89 46 FE
seg030:00EC 4E
seg030:00ED 75 C3
seg030:00EF
seg030:00EF
seg030:00EF C4 5E 06
seg030:00F2 FF 46 06
seg030:00F5 26 8A 07
seg030:00F8 98
seg030:00F9 89 46 FE
seg030:00FC 0B C0
seg030:00FE 75 AF
seg030:0100 68 FF 00
seg030:0103 0E
seg030:0104 E8 2D FF
seg030:0107 59
seg030:0108 8B 16 82 E7
seg030:010C EC
seg030:010D 8A C8
seg030:010F 80 E1 5F
seg030:0112 8A C1
seg030:0114 EE
seg030:0115 EC
seg030:0116 8A C8
seg030:0118 F6 C1 20
seg030:011B 74 08
seg030:011D 8A 5E FD
seg030:0120 80 E3 DF
seg030:0123 EB 03

```
seg030:0125
seg030:0125
seg030:0125 8A 5E FD
seg030:0128
seg030:0128
seg030:0128 F6 C1 80
seg030:012B 7403
seg030:012D 80 E3 7F
seg030:0130
seg030:0130
seg030:0130 8B 1682 E7
seg030:0134 8A C3
seg030:0136 EE
seg030:0137 8B C7
seg030:0139 5F
seg030:013A 5E
seg030:013B C9
seg030:013C CB
seg030:013C

This is again a Sentinel Pro "hashing" dongle as in the previous example. It is noticeably because text
strings are passed here, too, and 16 bit values are returned and compared with others.
So that is how Sentinel Pro is accessed via ports.
The output port address is usually \(0 \times 378\), i.e., the printer port, where the data to the old printers in pre-USB era was passed to.
The port is uni-directional, because when it was developed, no one imagined that someone will need to transfer information from the printer \({ }^{15}\).

The only way to get information from the printer is a status register on port \(0 \times 379\), which contains such bits as "paper out", "ack", "busy"-thus the printer may signal to the host computer if it is ready or not and if paper is present in it.
So the dongle returns information from one of these bits, one bit at each iteration.
_in_port_2 contains the address of the status word ( \(0 \times 379\) ) and _in_port_1 contains the control register address (0x37A).
It seems that the dongle returns information via the "busy" flag at seg030:00B9: each bit is stored in the DI register, which is returned at the end of the function.

What do all these bytes sent to output port mean? Hard to say. Perhaps, commands to the dongle.
But generally speaking, it is not necessary to know: it is easy to solve our task without that knowledge. Here is the dongle checking routine:
```

00000000 struct_0 struc ; (sizeof=0x1B)
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ~ f i e l d \_ 0 ~ d b ~ 2 5 ~ d u p ( ? ) ~ ; ~ s t r i n g ( C )
00000019 A dw ?
0000001B struct_0 ends
dseg:3CBC 61 63 72 75+_Q struct_0 <'hello', 01122h>
dseg:3CBC 6E 00 00 00+ ; ; DATA XREF: check_dongle+2Eo
... skipped ...
dseg:3E00 63 6F 66 66+
dseg:3E1B 64 6F 67 00+
dseg:3E36 63 61 74 00+
dseg:3E51 70 61 70 65+
dseg:3E6C 63 6F 6B 65+
dseg:3E87 63 6C 6F 63+
dseg:3EA2 64 69 72 00+
dseg:3EBD 63 6F 70 79+
struct_0 <'coffee', 7EB7h>
struct 0 <'dog', 0FFADh>
struct 0 <'cat', 0FF5Fh>
struct_0 <'paper', 0FFDFh>
struct 0 <'coke', 0F568h>
struct_0 <'clock', 55EAh>
struct_0 <'dir', 0FFAEh>
struct_0 <'copy', 0F557h>
seg030:0145 check_dongle proc far ; CODE XREF: sub_3771D+3EP
seg030:0145
seg030:0145
seg030:0145
seg030:0145
seg030:0145 C8 06 00 00
seg030:0149 56
seg030:014A 66 6A 00
seg030:014D 6A 00
seg030:014F 9A C1 18 00+
seg030:0154 52
seg030:0155 50
seg030:0156 66 58
seg030:0158 83 C4 06
seg030:015B 66 89 46 FA
seg030:015F 66 3B 06 D8+
var_6 = dword ptr -6
var_2 = word ptr -2
enter 6, 0
push si
push large 0 ; newtime
push 0 ; cmd
call biostime ;
push \overline{dx}
push ax
pop eax
add sp, 6
mov [bp+var_6], eax
cmp eax, expiration
jle short 'loc_35B0A
push 14h
nop
push cs
call near ptr get_rand
pop cx
mov si, ax
imul ax, 1Bh

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{15}\) If we consider Centronics only. The following IEEE 1284 standard allows the transfer of information from the printer.
}
```

seg030:0173 05 BC 3C add ax, offset _Q
seg030:0176 1E
seg030:0177 50
seg030:0178 0E
seg030:0179 E8 C5 FE
seg030:017C 83 C4 04
seg030:017F 89 46 FE
seg030:0182 8B C6
seg030:0184 6В C0 12
seg030:0187 66 0F BF C0
seg030:018B 66 8B 56 FA
seg030:018F 66 03 D0
seg030:0192 66 89 16 D8+
seg030:0197 8B DE
seg030:0199 6B DB 1B
seg030:019C 8B 87 D5 3C
seg030:01A0 3B 46 FE
seg030:01A3 74 05
seg030:01A5 B8 01 00
seg030:01A8 EB 02
seg030:01AA
seg030:01AA loc_35B0A: ; CODE XREF: check_dongle+1Fj
seg030:01AA
seg030:01AA 33 C0
seg030:01AC
seg030:01AC
seg030:01AC 5E
seg030:01AD C9
seg030:01AE CB
seg030:01AE
add ax, offset _Q
push ax
push cs
call near ptr sent_pro
add sp, 4
mov [bp+var_2], ax
mov ax, si
imul ax, 18
movsx eax, ax
mov edx, [bp+var_6]
add edx, eax
mov _expiration, edx
mov \overline{b}x, si
imul bx, 27
mov ax, Q.A[bx]
cmp ax, [bp+var_2]
jz short loc_35B0A
; check_dongle+5Ej
mov ax, 1
jmp short loc_35B0C
xor ax, ax
loc_35B0C: ; CODE XREF: check_dongle+63j
pop si
leave
retf
check_dongle endp

```

Since the routine can be called very frequently, e.g., before the execution of each important software feature, and accessing the dongle is generally slow (because of the slow printer port and also slow MCU in the dongle), they probably added a way to skip some dongle checks, by checking the current time in the biostime() function.

The get_rand () function uses the standard C function:
```

seg030:01BF get_rand proc far ; CODE XREF: check_dongle+25p
seg030:01BF
seg030:01BF arg_0 = word ptr 6
seg030:01BF
seg030:01BF 55
seg030:01C0 8B EC
seg030:01C2 9A 3D 21 00+
seg030:01C7 66 0F BF C0
seg030:01CB 66 0F BF 56+
seg030:01D0 66 0F AF C2
seg030:01D4 66 BB 00 80+
seg030:01DA 66 99
seg030:01DC 66 F7 FB
seg030:01DF 5D
seg030:01E0 CB
seg030:01E0 get_rand endp

```
```

arg_0 = word ptr 6

```
arg_0 = word ptr 6
    push bp
    push bp
    mov bp, sp
    mov bp, sp
    call _rand
    call _rand
    movsx ēax, ax
    movsx ēax, ax
    movsx edx, [bp+arg_0]
    movsx edx, [bp+arg_0]
    imul eax, edx
    imul eax, edx
    mov ebx, 8000h
    mov ebx, 8000h
    cdq
    cdq
    idiv ebx
    idiv ebx
    pop bp
    pop bp
    retf
```

    retf
    ```

So the text string is selected randomly, passed into the dongle, and then the result of the hashing is compared with the correct value.

The text strings seem to be constructed randomly as well, during software development.
And this is how the main dongle checking function is called:

\begin{tabular}{|llll}
\hline seg033:0893 1E & push & ds \\
seg033:0894 68 60 E9 & push & offset byte_6C7E0 ; dest \\
seg033:0897 9A 79 65 00+ & call & strcpy \\
seg033:089C 83 C4 08 & add & sp, 8 \\
seg033:089F 1E & & push & ds \\
seg033:08A0 68 42 44 & push & offset aPleaseContactA ; "Please Contact ..." \\
seg033:08A3 1E & push & ds \\
seg033:08A4 68 60 E9 & push & offset byte_6C7E0 ; dest \\
seg033:08A7 9A CD 64 00+ & call & _strcat
\end{tabular}

Bypassing the dongle is easy, just force the check_dongle() function to always return 0.
For example, by inserting this code at its beginning:
```

mov ax,0
retf

```

The observant reader might recall that the strcpy() C function usually requires two pointers in its arguments, but we see that 4 values are passed:
```

seg033:088F 1E
seg033:0890 68 22 44 push offset aTrupcRequiresA ; "This Software \swarrow
\Requires a Software Lock\n"
seg033:0893 1E
seg033:0894 68 60 E9
seg033:0897 9A 79 65 00+ call _strcpy
seg033:089C 83 C4 08

```
```

push ds

```
push ds
```

push ds

```
push ds
push offset byte_6C7E0 ; dest
push offset byte_6C7E0 ; dest
add sp, 8
```

add sp, 8

```

This is related to MS-DOS' memory model. You can read more about it here: 11.6 on page 1003.
So as you may see, strcpy () and any other function that take pointer(s) in arguments work with 16-bit pairs.

Let's get back to our example. DS is currently set to the data segment located in the executable, that is where the text string is stored.
In the sent pro() function, each byte of the string is loaded at
seg030:00EF: the LES instruction loads the ES:BX pair simultaneously from the passed argument.
The MOV at seg030: 00F5 loads the byte from the memory at which the ES:BX pair points.

\section*{8.6 "QR9": Rubik's cube inspired amateur crypto-algorithm}

Sometimes amateur cryptosystems appear to be pretty bizarre.
The author of this book was once asked to reverse engineer an amateur cryptoalgorithm of some data encryption utility, the source code for which was lost \({ }^{16}\).

Here is the listing exported from IDA for the original encryption utility:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline .text:00541000 set_bit & proc near ; CODE XREF: rotatel+42 \\
\hline .text:00541000 & ; rotate2+42 \\
\hline .text:00541000 & \\
\hline .text:00541000 arg_0 & \(=\) dword ptr 4 \\
\hline .text:00541000 arg_4 & = dword ptr 8 \\
\hline .text:00541000 arg_8 & = dword ptr 0Ch \\
\hline .text:00541000 arg_C & \(=\) byte ptr 10h \\
\hline .text:00541000 & \\
\hline .text:00541000 & mov al, [esp+arg_C] \\
\hline .text:00541004 & mov ecx, [esp+arg_8] \\
\hline .text:00541008 & push esi \\
\hline .text:00541009 & mov esi, [esp+4+arg_0] \\
\hline .text:0054100D & test al, al \\
\hline .text:0054100F & mov eax, [esp+4+arg_4] \\
\hline .text:00541013 & mov dl, 1 \\
\hline .text:00541015 & jz short loc_54102B \\
\hline .text:00541017 & shl dl, cl \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{16} \mathrm{He}\) also got permission from the customer to publish the algorithm's details
}

-text.00541067
.text:00541067
.text:00541068
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541070 internal_array_64= byte ptr -40h
.text:00541070 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:00541070
.text:00541070
.text:00541073
.text:00541074
.text:00541075
.text:00541079
.text:0054107A
.text:0054107B
.text:0054107D
.text:00541081
.text:00541081 first_loop1_begin
sub esp, 40h
push ebx
push ebp
mov ebp, [esp+48h+arg_0]
push esi
push edi
xor edi, edi ; EDI is loopl counter
lea ebx, [esp+50h+internal_array_64]
.text:00541081
.text:00541083
.text:00541083
.text:00541083
.text:00541084
.text:00541085
.text:00541086
.text:0054108B
.text:0054108E
.text:00541091
.text:00541092
.text:00541095
.text:00541097
; CODE XREF: rotatel+2E
esi, esi ; ESI is loop2 counter
xor esi, esi
; CODE XREF: rotate1+25
push ebp ; arg_0
push esi
push edi
call get_bit
add esp, 0Ch
mov [ebx+esi], al ; store to internal array
inc esi
cmp esi, 8
jl short first_loop2_begin
inc edi
.text:00541098
.text:0054109B
.text:0054109E
.text:005410A0
.text:005410A4
.text:005410A9
.text:005410A9
.text:005410A9
.text:005410AB
.text:005410AB
.text:005410AB
.text:005410AE
.text: 005410AF
.text:005410B0
.text:005410B1
.text:005410B2
.text:005410B7
.text: 005410BA
.text:005410BB
.text:005410BE
.text:005410C0
.text:005410C1
.text:005410C4
.text:005410C7
.text:005410C9
.text: 005410CA
.text:005410CB
.text:005410CC
.text:005410CD
.text:005410D0
.text:005410D0
.text:005410D0
.text:005410D1
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E3
.text:005410E4
.text:005410E5
.text:005410E9
.text:005410EA
.text:005410EB
.text:005410ED
.text:005410F1
.text:005410F1 loc_5410F1:
.text:005410F1
.text:005410F3
.text:005410F3 loc_5410F3:
.text:005410F3
.text:005410F4
.text:005410F5
.text:005410F6
.text:005410FB
.text:005410FE
.text:00541101
.text:00541102
.text:00541105
.text:00541107
.text:00541108
.text:0054110B
.text:0054110E
.text:00541110
.text:00541114
.text:005410E0 rotate2 proc near ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+7A
.text:005410E0 internal_array_64= byte ptr -40h
.text:005410E0 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
add ebx, 8
cmp edi, 8
jl short first_loop1_begin
lea ebx, [esp+50 \(\left.h+i n t e \bar{r} n a l \_a r r a y \_64\right]\)
mov edi, 7 ; EDI is loopl counter, initial state is 7
; CODE XREF: rotate1+57
esi, esi ; ESI is loop2 counter
; CODE XREF: rotatel+4E
mov al, [ebx+esi] ; value from internal array
push eax
push ebp ; arg_0
push edi
push esi
call set_bit
add esp, 10h
inc esi ; increment loop2 counter
cmp esi, 8
jl short second_loop2_begin
dec edi ; \(\bar{d} e c r e m e n t ~ l o o p 2 ~ c o u n t e r ~\)
add ebx, 8
cmp edi, 0FFFFFFFFh
jg short second_loop1_begin
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
add esp, 40h
retn
endp
align 10h
; =============== S U B R OUT I N E
sub esp, 40h
push ebx
push ebp
mov ebp, [esp+48h+arg_0]
push esi
push edi
xor edi, edi ; loopl counter
lea ebx, [esp+50h+internal_array_64]
; CODE XREF: rotate \(2+2 E\)
xor esi, esi ; loop2 counter
; CODE XREF: rotate2+25
push esi ; loop2
push edi ; loop1
push ebp ; arg_0
call get_bit
add esp, 0Ch
mov [ebx+esi], al ; store to internal array
inc esi ; increment loopl counter
cmp esi, 8
jl short loc 5410F3
inc edi ; increment loop2 counter
add ebx, 8
cmp edi, 8
jl short loc_5410F1
lea ebx, [esp+50h+internal_array_64]
mov edi, 7 ; loopl counter is ínitial state 7
.text:00541119
.text:00541119 loc_541119:
.text:00541119
.text:0054111B
.text:0054111B loc_54111B:
.text:0054111B
.text:0054111E
.text:0054111F
.text:00541120
.text:00541121
.text:00541122
.text:00541127
.text:0054112A
.text:0054112B
.text:0054112E
.text:00541130
.text:00541131
.text:00541134
.text:00541137
.text:00541139
.text:0054113A
.text:0054113B
.text:0054113C
.text:0054113D
.text:00541140
.text:00541140
.text:00541140
.text:00541141
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541150
.text:00541153
.text:00541154
.text:00541155
.text:00541159
.text: 0054115A
.text:0054115B
.text:0054115D
.text:00541161
.text:00541161 loc_541161:
.text:00541161
.text:00541163
.text:00541163
.text:00541163
.text:00541164
.text:00541165
.text:00541166
.text:0054116B
.text:0054116E
.text:00541171
.text:00541172
.text:00541175
.text:00541177
.text:00541178
.text:0054117B
.text:0054117E
.text:00541180
.text:00541182
.text:00541186
.text:00541186
.text:00541186
.text:0054118B
.text:0054118B loc_54118B:
xor esi, esi ; loop2 counter
; CODE XREF: rotate2+4E
mov al, [ebx+esi] ; get byte from internal array
push eax
push edi ; loop1 counter
push esi ; loop2 counter
push ebp ; arg_0
call set_bit
add esp, 10h
inc esi ; increment loop2 counter
cmp esi, 8
jl short loc_54111B
dec edi ; decrement loop2 counter
add ebx, 8
cmp edi, 0FFFFFFFFh
jg short loc_541119
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
add esp, 40h
retn
endp
align 10h
```

S U BROUTINE

```
proc near ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+66
\(=\) byte ptr -40h
= dword ptr 4
sub esp, 40h
push ebx
push ebp
mov ebp, [esp+48h+arg_0]
push esi
push edi
xor edi, edi
lea ebx, [esp+50h+var_40]
                            ; CODE XREF: rotate3+2E
xor esi, esí
                            ; CODE XREF: rotate3+25
push esi
push ebp
push edi
call get_bit
add esp, 0Ch
mov [ebx+esi], al
inc esi
cmp esi, 8
jl short loc_541163
inc edi
add ebx, 8
cmp edi, 8
jl short loc_541161
xor ebx, ebx
lea edi, [esp+50h+var_40]
                            ; CODE XREF: rotate3+54
mov esi, 7
; CODE XREF: rotate3+4E
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
.text:0054118B .text:0054118D
.text:0054118E
.text:0054118F
.text:00541190
.text:00541191
.text:00541196
.text:00541199
.text:0054119A
.text:0054119B
.text:0054119E
.text:005411A0
.text:005411A1
.text:005411A4
.text:005411A6
.text:005411A7
.text:005411A8
.text:005411A9
.text: 005411AA
.text:005411AD
.text:005411AD rotate3
.text:005411AD
.text:005411AE
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B4
.text:005411B5
.text:005411B7
.text:005411BA
.text:005411C0
.text:005411C1
.text:005411C5
.text:005411C6
.text:005411C7
.text:005411C7 loop_begin:
.text:005411C7
.text:005411CB
.text:005411CC
.text:005411D1
.text:005411D4
.text:005411D6
.text:005411D8
.text:005411DA
.text:005411DC
.text:005411DF
.text:005411E2
.text:005411E5
.text:005411E7
arg_0 \(\quad=\) dword ptr 4
arg_4 \(\quad=\) dword ptr 8
mov eax, [esp+arg_0]
push ebp
mov ebp, eax
cmp byte ptr [eax], 0
jz exit
push ebx
mov ebx, [esp+8+arg_4]
push esi
push edi
; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+9F
movsx eax, byte ptr [ebp+ \(\overline{0}\) ]
push eax ; C
call _tolower
add esp, 4
cmp al, 'a'
jl short next_character_in_password
cmp al, 'z'
jg short next_character_in_password
movsx ecx, al
sub ecx, 'a'
cmp ecx, 24
jle short skip_subtracting
sub ecx, 24
.text:005411EA
.text:005411EA skip_subtracting:
.text:005411EA
.text:005411EF
.text:005411F1
.text:005411F3
.text:005411F6
.text:005411F8
.text:005411FA
.text:005411FC
.text:00541201
.text:00541202
.text:00541204
; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+35
mov eax, 55555556h
imul ecx
mov eax, edx
shr eax, 1Fh
add edx, eax
mov eax, ecx
mov esi, edx
mov ecx, 3
cdq
idiv ecx
sub edx, 0
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:00541207 & jz & short call_rotatel \\
\hline .text:00541209 & dec & edx \\
\hline .text:0054120A & jz & short call_rotate2 \\
\hline .text:0054120C & dec & edx \\
\hline .text:0054120D & jnz & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:0054120F & test & ebx, ebx \\
\hline .text:00541211 & jle & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:00541213 & mov & edi, ebx \\
\hline .text:00541215 & & \\
\hline .text:00541215 call_rotate3: & & ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+6F \\
\hline .text:00541215 & push & esi \\
\hline .text:00541216 & call & rotate3 \\
\hline .text:0054121B & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline .text:0054121E & dec & edi \\
\hline .text:0054121F & jnz & short call_rotate3 \\
\hline .text:00541221 & jmp & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:00541223 & & \\
\hline .text:00541223 call_rotate2: & & ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+5A \\
\hline .text:00541223 & test & ebx, ebx \\
\hline .text:00541225 & jle & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:00541227 & mov & edi, ebx \\
\hline .text:00541229 & & \\
\hline .text:00541229 loc_541229: & & ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+83 \\
\hline .text:00541229 & push & esi \\
\hline .text:0054122A & call & rotate2 \\
\hline .text:0054122F & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline .text:00541232 & dec & edi \\
\hline .text:00541233 & jnz & short loc_541229 \\
\hline .text:00541235 & jmp & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:00541237 & & \\
\hline .text:00541237 call_rotatel: & & ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+57 \\
\hline .text:00541237 & test & ebx, ebx \\
\hline .text:00541239 & jle & short next_character_in_password \\
\hline .text:0054123B & mov & edi, ebx \\
\hline .text:0054123D & & \\
\hline .text:0054123D loc_54123D & & ; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+97 \\
\hline .text:0054123D & push & esi \\
\hline .text:0054123E & call & rotatel \\
\hline .text:00541243 & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline .text:00541246 & dec & edi \\
\hline .text:00541247 & jnz & short loc_54123D \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
text:00541249
.text:00541249
.text:00541249
.text:00541249
.text:0054124C
.text:0054124D
.text:0054124F
.text:00541255
.text:00541256
.text:00541257
.text:00541258
.text:00541258
.text:00541258
.text:00541259
.text:00541259
.text:00541259
.text:0054125A
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541260
.text:00541261
```

                ; rotate_all_with_password+2A ...
    ```
mov al, [ebp+1]
inc ebp
test al, al
jnz loop_begin
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
; CODE XREF: rotate_all_with_password+A
pop ebp
retn
rotate_all_with_password endp
align 10h
; =============== S U B R O U T I N E ===========================================1
proc near ; CODE XREF: crypt_file+8A
= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
push ebx
mov ebx, [esp+4+arg_0]
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
.text:00541265
.text:00541266
.text:00541267
.text:00541268
.text:0054126A
.text:0054126A loc_54126A:
.text:0054126A
.text:0054126E
.text:00541273
.text:00541275
.text:0054127A
.text:0054127C
.text:0054127D
.text:0054127F
.text:00541284
.text:00541288
.text:0054128A
.text:0054128D
.text:00541290
.text:00541295
.text:0054129A
.text:0054129D
.text:0054129F
.text:005412A1
.text:005412A3
.text:005412A4
.text:005412A5
.text:005412A6
.text:005412A7
.text:005412A7 crypt
.text: 005412A7
.text:005412A8
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0 ; int cdecl decrypt(int, int, void *Src)
.text:005412B0 decrypt proc near ; CODE XREF: decrypt_file+99
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0 arg_0
.text:005412B0 arg_4
.text:005412B0 Src
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B0
.text:005412B4
.text:005412B5
.text:005412B6
.text:005412B7
.text:005412B8
.text:005412B9
.text:005412BE
.text:005412BF
.text:005412C3
.text:005412C8
.text:005412CC
.text:005412CF
.text:005412D1
.text:005412D1 loc_5412D1:
.text:005412D1
.text:005412D6
.text:005412D8
.text:005412DD
.text:005412DF
.text:005412E1
.text:005412E5
.text:005412E6
.text:005412EB
.text:005412EF
.text:005412F1
.text:005412F4
push ebp
push esi
push edi
xor ebp, ebp
```

                                ; CODE XREF: crypt+41
    ```
mov eax, [esp+10h+arg_8]
mov ecx, 10h
mov esi, ebx
mov edi, offset cube64
push 1
push eax
rep movsd
call rotate_all_with_password
mov eax, [ \(\left.\bar{e} s p+\overline{1} 8 h+a \bar{r} g_{-} 4\right]\)
mov edi, ebx
add ebp, 40h
add esp, 8
mov ecx, 10h
mov esi, offset cube64
add ebx, 40h
cmp ebp, eax
rep movsd
jl short loc_54126A
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
retn
endp
align 10h

= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
mov eax, [esp+Src]
push ebx
push ebp
push esi
push edi
push eax ; Src
call push eax ; Str
mov [esp+18h+Src], eax
call __strrev
mov \(\overline{\mathrm{eb}} x, \quad[\mathrm{esp}+18 \mathrm{~h}+\mathrm{arg}\) _0]
add esp, 8
xor ebp, ebp
; CODE XREF: decrypt+58
mov ecx, 10h
mov esi, ebx
mov edi, offset cube64
push 3
rep movsd
mov ecx, [esp+14h+Src]
push ecx
call rotate_all_with_password
mov eax, [ēsp+1 \(8 \mathrm{~h}+\mathrm{a}_{\left.\bar{r} g \_4\right]}\)
mov edi, ebx
add ebp, 40h
add esp, 8
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
.text:005412F7
.text:005412FC
.text:00541301
.text:00541304
.text:00541306
.text:00541308
.text:0054130A
.text:0054130E
.text:0054130F
.text:00541314
.text:00541317
.text:00541318
.text:00541319
.text:0054131A
.text:0054131B
.text:0054131B decrypt
.text:0054131B
.text:0054131C
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541320 Str
.text:00541320 Filename
.text:00541320 password
.text:00541320
.text:00541320
.text:00541324
.text:00541325
.text:0054132A
.text:0054132B
.text:00541330
.text:00541332
.text:00541335
.text:00541337
.text:00541339
.text:0054133E
.text:00541343
.text:00541346
.text:00541347
.text:00541348
.text:00541348 loc_541348:
.text:00541348
.text:00541349
.text: 0054134A
.text:0054134B
.text:0054134D
.text:0054134F
.text:00541350
.text:00541355
.text:00541356
.text:0054135B
.text:0054135D
.text:0054135F
.text:00541360
.text:00541364
.text:00541369
.text:0054136D
.text:00541370
.text:00541373
.text:00541374
.text:00541379
.text:0054137B
.text:0054137D
.text:0054137F
.text:00541381
.text:00541383
mov ecx, 10h
mov esi, offset cube64
add ebx, 40h
cmp ebp, eax
rep movsd
jl short loc_5412D1
mov edx, [esp+10h+Src]
push edx ; Memory
call free
add ēsp, 4
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
retn
endp
align 10h
; ================SUBROUTINE
; int _cdecl crypt_file(int Str, char *Filename, int password)
crypt_file proc near ; CODE XREF: _main+42
= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
mov eax, [esp+Str]
push ebp
push offset Mode ; "rb"
push eax ; Filename
call fopen ; open file
mov ebp, eax
add esp, 8
test ebp, ebp
jnz short loc_541348
push offset Format ; "Cannot open input file! \n"
call _printf
add esp, 4
pop ebp
retn
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & & ; CODE XREF: crypt_file+17 \\
\hline push & ebx & \\
\hline push & esi & \\
\hline push & edi & \\
\hline push & 2 & ; Origin \\
\hline push & 0 & ; Offset \\
\hline push & ebp & ; File \\
\hline call & fseek & \\
\hline push & \(\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{p}\) p & ; File \\
\hline call & ftell & ; get file size \\
\hline push & \(\overline{0}\) & ; Origin \\
\hline push & 0 & ; Offset \\
\hline push & ebp & ; File \\
\hline mov & [esp+2Ch & ], eax \\
\hline call & fseek & ; rewind to start \\
\hline mov & esi, [esp & +Str] \\
\hline and & esi, 0FFF & C0h ; reset all lowest 6 bits \\
\hline add & esi, 40h & ; align size to 64-byte border \\
\hline push & esi & ; Size \\
\hline call & malloc & \\
\hline mov & ecx, esi & \\
\hline mov & ebx, eax & ; allocated buffer pointer -> to EBX \\
\hline mov & edx, ecx & \\
\hline xor & eax, eax & \\
\hline mov & edi, ebx & \\
\hline push & ebp & File \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
.text:00541384
.text:00541387
.text:00541389
.text:0054138B
.text:0054138D
.text:00541390
.text:00541392
.text:00541396
.text:00541397
.text:00541398
.text:0054139D
.text:0054139E
.text:005413A3
.text:005413A7
.text:005413A8
.text:005413A9
.text:005413AA
.text:005413AF
.text:005413B3
.text:005413B6
.text:005413BB
.text:005413BC
.text:005413C1
.text:005413C3
.text:005413C4
.text:005413C6
.text:005413C8
.text: 005413CD
.text:005413D2
.text:005413D3
.text:005413D5
.text:005413D9
.text:005413DB
.text:005413DC
.text:005413E1
.text:005413E2
.text:005413E4
.text:005413E5
.text:005413E6
.text:005413EB
.text:005413EC
.text:005413F1
.text:005413F2
.text:005413F7
.text:005413FA
.text:005413FB
.text:005413FC
.text:005413FD
.text:005413FE
.text:005413FE crypt_file
.text:005413FE
.text:005413FF
.text:00541400
.text:00541400
.text:00541400
.text:00541400
.text:00541400 ; int __cdecl decrypt_file(char *Filename, int, void *Src)
.text:00541400 decrypt_file proc near ; CODE XREF: _main+6E
.text:00541400
.text:00541400 Filename
.text:00541400 arg_4
.text:00541400 Src
.text:00541400
.text:00541400
.text:00541404
.text:00541405
.text:00541406
.text:00541407
.text:00541408
.text:0054140D
shr ecx, 2
rep stosd
mov ecx, edx
push 1 ; Count
and ecx, 3
rep stosb ; memset (buffer, 0, aligned_size)
mov eax, [esp+38h+Str]
push eax ; ElementSize
push ebx ; DstBuf
call fread ; read file
push èbp ; File
call fclose
mov \(\bar{e} c x, \quad[e s p+44 h+p a s s w o r d]\)
push ecx ; password
push esi ; aligned size
push ebx ; buffer
call crypt ; do crypt
mov edx, [esp+50h+Filename]
add esp, 40h
push offset aWb ; "wb"
push edx ; Filename
call fopen
mov edi, eax
push edi ; File
push 1 ; Count
push 3 ; Size
push offset aQr9 ; "QR9"
call fwrite ; write file signature
push edi ; File
push 1 ; Count
lea eax, [esp+30h+Str]
push 4 ; Size
push eax ; Str
call fwrite ; write original file size
push edi ; File
push 1 ; Count
push esi ; Size
push ebx ; Str
call _fwrite ; write encrypted file
push ēdi ; File
call _fclose
push èbx ; Memory
call free
add esp, 40h
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebx
pop ebp
retn
endp
align 10h
= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
mov eax, [esp+Filename]
push ebx
push ebp
push esi
push edi
push offset aRb ; "rb"
push eax ; "Filename
.text:0054140E
.text:00541413
.text:00541415
.text:00541418
.text:0054141A
.text:0054141C
.text:00541421
.text:00541426
.text:00541429
.text:0054142A
.text:0054142B
.text:0054142C
.text:0054142D
.text:0054142E
.text:0054142E loc_54142E:
.text:0054142E
.text:00541430
.text:00541432
.text:00541433
.text:00541438
.text:00541439
.text:0054143E
.text:00541440
.text:00541442
.text:00541443
.text:00541445
.text:0054144A
.text:0054144B
.text:00541450
.text:00541451
.text:00541453
.text:00541455
.text:00541456
.text:00541457
.text:0054145C
.text:0054145D
.text:00541462
.text:00541465
.text:0054146A
.text:0054146F
.text:00541471
.text:00541473
.text:00541475
.text:00541477
.text:0054147C
.text:00541481
.text:00541484
.text:00541485
.text:00541486
.text:00541487
.text:00541488
.text:00541489
.text:00541489 loc_541489:
.text:00541489
.text:0054148D
.text:00541490
.text:00541493
.text:00541496
.text:00541497
.text:00541498
.text:00541499
.text:0054149E
.text:005414A2
.text:005414A7
.text:005414A8
.text:005414AD
.text:005414AF
.text:005414B0
.text:005414B2
.text:005414B3
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { call } & \text { fopen } \\ \text { mov } & \text { esi, eax }\end{array}\)
add esp, 8
test esi, esi
jnz short loc_54142E
push offset aCannotOpenIn_0 ; "Cannot open input file!\n"
call _printf
add esp, 4
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
retn
; CODE XREF: decrypt_file+1A
push 2 ; Origin
push 0 ; Offset
push esi ; File
call fseek
push esi ; File
call ftell
push \(\overline{0}\); Origin
push 0 ; Offset
push esi ; File
mov ebp, eax
call fseek
push èbp ; Size
call malloc
push esi ; File
mov ebx, eax
push 1 ; Count
push ebp ; ElementSize
push ebx ; DstBuf
call fread
push esi ; File
call _fclose
add ésp, 34h
mov ecx, 3
mov edi, offset aQr9_0 ; "QR9"
mov esi, ebx
xor edx, edx
repe cmpsb
jz short loc 541489
push offset aFileIsNotCrypt ; "File is not encrypted!\n"
call _printf
add esp, 4
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
retn
; CODE XREF: decrypt_file+75
mov eax, [esp+10h+Src]
mov edi, [ebx+3]
add ebp, 0FFFFFFF9h
lea esi, [ebx+7]
push eax ; Src
push ebp ; int
push esi ; int
call decrypt
mov ecx, [esp+1Ch+arg_4]
push offset aWb 0 ; "wb"
push ecx ; Filename
call _fopen
mov ēbp, eax
push ebp ; File
push 1 ; Count
push edi ; Size
\(\begin{array}{lll}\text { push } \\ \text { push } & \text { esi } & \text {; Size } \\ \end{array}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\hline. text:005414B4 & call & fwrite & \\
.text:005414B9 & push & ebp & ; File \\
.text:005414BA & call & fclose & \\
.text:005414BF & push & ebx & ; Memory \\
.text:005414C0 & call & free & \\
.text:005414C5 & add & esp, 2 Ch & \\
.text:005414C8 & pop & edi & \\
.text:005414C9 & pop & esi & \\
.text:005414CA & pop & ebp & \\
.text:005414CB & pop & ebx & \\
.text:005414CC & retn & & \\
.text:005414CC decrypt_file & endp & &
\end{tabular}

All function and label names were given by me during the analysis.
Let's start from the top. Here is a function that takes two file names and password.
```

.text:00541320 ; int _cdecl crypt_file(int Str, char *Filename, int password)
.text:00541320 crypt_file proc near
.text:00541320
.text:00541320 Str = dword ptr 4
.text:00541320 Filename $=$ dword ptr 8
.text:00541320 password = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:00541320

```

Open the file and report if an error occurs:
```

.text:00541320
.text:00541324
.text:00541325
.text:0054132A
.text:0054132B
.text:00541330
.text:00541332
.text:00541335
.text:00541337
.text:00541339
.text:0054133E
.text:00541343
.text:00541346
.text:00541347
.text:00541348
.text:00541348 loc_541348:

```

Get the file size via fseek()/ftell():
```

.text:00541348 push ebx
.text:00541349 push esi
.text:0054134A push edi
.text:0054134B push 2 ; Origin
.text:0054134D push 0 ; Offset
.text:0054134F push ebp ; File
; move current file position to the end
.text:00541350 call fseek
.text:00541355 push ebp ; File
.text:00541356 call ftell ; get current file position
.text:0054135B push \overline{0}
.text:0054135D push 0 ; Offset
.text:0054135F push ebp ; File
.text:00541360 mov [esp+2Ch+Str], eax
; move current file position to the start
.text:00541364 call _fseek

```

This fragment of code calculates the file size aligned on a 64-byte boundary. This is because this cryptographic algorithm works only with 64-byte blocks. The operation is pretty straightforward: divide the file size by 64, forget about the remainder and add 1, then multiply by 64. The following code removes the remainder as if the value has already been divided by 64 and adds 64 . It is almost the same.
```

.text:00541369 mov esi, [esp+2Ch+Str]
; reset all lowest 6 bits
.text:0054136D and esi, 0FFFFFFC0h
; align size to 64-byte border
.text:00541370 add esi, 40h

```

Allocate buffer with aligned size:
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline .text:00541373 & push & esi & call \\
.text:00541374 & malloc & Size \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Call memset(), e.g., clear the allocated buffer \({ }^{17}\).


Read file via the standard C function fread ().
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline .text:00541392 & mov & eax, [esp+38h+Str] \\
.text:00541396 & push & eax & ; ElementSize \\
.text:00541397 & push & ebx & ; DstBuf \\
.text:00541398 & call & fread & ; read file \\
.text:0054139D & push & ebp & File \\
.text:0054139E & call & fclose & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Call crypt (). This function takes a buffer, buffer size (aligned) and a password string.
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline .text:005413A3 & mov & ecx, & {\([\) esp+44h+password] } \\
.text:005413A7 & push & ecx & ; password \\
.text:005413A8 & push & esi & ; aligned size \\
.text:005413A9 & push & ebx & buffer \\
.text:005413AA & call & crypt & ; do crypt \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Create the output file. By the way, the developer forgot to check if it has been created correctly! The file opening result is being checked, though.
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline .text:005413AF & mov & edx, [esp+50h+Filename] \\
.text:005413B3 & add & esp, 40h & \\
.text:005413B6 & push & offset aWb & ; wb" \\
.text:005413BB & push & edx & Filename \\
.text:005413BC & call & fopen & \\
.text:005413C1 & mov & edi, eax & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The newly created file handle is in the EDI register now. Write signature "QR9".
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline. text:005413C3 & push & edi \\
.text:005413C4 & push & 1 \\
.text:005413C6 & push & 3 \\
.text:005413C8 & push & offset aQr9 \\
.text:005413CD & call & ; Size \\
fwrite & "QR9" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Write the actual file size (not aligned):
\begin{tabular}{|llll|}
\hline. text:005413D2 & push & edi & ; File \\
.text:005413D3 & push & 1 & ; Count \\
.text:005413D5 & lea & eax, [esp+30h+Str] \\
.text:005413D9 & push & 4 & ; Size
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{17}\) malloc() + memset() could be replaced by calloc()
}
\begin{tabular}{|llll}
\hline .text:005413DB & push & eax & Str \\
.text:005413DC & call & fwrite & ; write original file size \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Write the encrypted buffer:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:005413E1 & push & edi \\
.text:005413E2 & push & 1 \\
.text:005413E4 & push & esi
\end{tabular}

Close the file and free the allocated buffer:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:005413EB & push & edi \\
.text:005413EC & call & fclose \\
.text:005413F1 & push & ebx \\
.text:005413F2 & call & free \\
.text:005413F7 & add & esp, 40h \\
.text:005413FA & pop & edi \\
.text:005413FB & pop & esi \\
.text:005413FC & pop & ebx \\
.text:005413FD & pop & ebp \\
.text:005413FE & retn & \\
.text:005413FE crypt_file & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here is the reconstructed C code:
```

void crypt_file(char *fin, char* fout, char *pw)
{
FILE *f;
int flen, flen_aligned;
BYTE *buf;
f=fopen(fin, "rb");
if (f==NULL)
{
printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
return;
};
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
flen=ftell (f);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
flen_aligned=(flen\&0xFFFFFFC0)+0x40;
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen_aligned);
memset (buf, 0, flen_aligned);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fclose (f);
crypt (buf, flen_aligned, pw);
f=fopen(fout, "wb");
fwrite ("QR9", 3, 1, f);
fwrite (\&flen, 4, 1, f);
fwrite (buf, flen_aligned, 1, f);
fclose (f);
free (buf);
};

```

The decryption procedure is almost the same:
```

.text:00541400 ; int __cdecl decrypt_file(char *Filename, int, void *Src)
.text:00541400 decrypt_file proc near
.text:00541400
.text:00541400 Filename
.text:00541400 arg_4
.text:00541400 Src
.text:00541400
.text:00541400
.text:00541404
.text:00541405
.text:00541406
.text:00541407
.text:00541408
.text:0054140D
.text:0054140E
.text:00541413
.text:00541415
.text:00541418
.text:0054141A
.text:0054141C
.text:00541421
.text:00541426
.text:00541429
.text:0054142A
.text:0054142B
.text:0054142C
.text:0054142D
.text:0054142E
.text:0054142E loc_54142E:
.text:0054142E
.text:00541432
.text:00541433
.text:00541438
.text:00541439
.text:0054143E
.text:00541440
.text:00541442
.text:00541443
.text:00541445
.text:0054144A
.text:0054144B
.text:00541450
.text:00541451
.text:00541453
.text:00541455
.text:00541456
.text:00541457
.text:0054145C
.text:0054145D
= dword ptr 4
= dword ptr 8
= dword ptr 0Ch
mov eax, [esp+Filename]
push ebx
push ebp
push esi
push edi
push offset aRb ; "rb"
push eax ; Filename
call _fopen
mov esi, eax
add esp, 8
test esi, esi
jnz short loc_54142E
push offset aCānnotOpenIn_0 ; "Cannot open input file!\n"
call _printf
add esp, 4
pop edi
pop esi
pop ebp
pop ebx
retn
push 2 ; Origin
push 0 ; Offset
push esi ; File
call _fseek
push ési ; File
call ftell ;
push 0} ; Origi
push 0 ; Offset
push esi ; File
mov ebp, eax
call fseek
push èbp ; Size
call malloc - ; Fish File
mov ebx, eax count
push 1 ; Count
push ebp ; ElementSize
push ebx ; DstBuf
call _fread
push ēsi ; File
call _fclose

```

Check signature (first 3 bytes):
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00541462 & add & esp, 34h \\
.text:00541465 & mov & ecx, 3 \\
.text:0054146A & mov & edi, offset aQr9_0 ; "QR9" \\
.text:0054146F & mov & esi, ebx \\
.text:00541471 & xor & edx, edx \\
.text:00541473 & repe cmpsb \\
.text:00541475 & jz & short loc_541489 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Report an error if the signature is absent:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00541477 & push & offset aFileIsNotCrypt ; "File is not encrypted! \(\backslash n "\) \\
.text:0054147C & call & printf \\
.text:00541481 & add & esp, 4 \\
.text:00541484 & pop & edi \\
.text:00541485 & pop & esi \\
.text:00541486 & pop & ebp
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline .text:00541487 & pop \\
.text:00541488 & retn \\
.text:00541489 & \\
.text:00541489 loc_541489: & \\
\end{tabular}

Call decrypt().
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:00541489 & mov & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{eax, [esp+10h+Src]} \\
\hline .text:0054148D & mov & edi, [ebx+3] & \\
\hline .text:00541490 & add & ebp, 0FFFFFFF9h & \\
\hline .text:00541493 & lea & esi, [ebx+7] & \\
\hline .text:00541496 & push & eax & ; Src \\
\hline .text:00541497 & push & ebp & ; int \\
\hline .text:00541498 & push & esi & ; int \\
\hline .text:00541499 & call & decrypt & \\
\hline .text:0054149E & mov & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{ecx, [esp+1Ch+arg_4]} \\
\hline .text:005414A2 & push & offset aWb_0 & ; "wb" \\
\hline .text:005414A7 & push & ecx & Filename \\
\hline .text:005414A8 & call & _fopen & \\
\hline .text:005414AD & mov & ebp, eax & \\
\hline .text:005414AF & push & ebp & ; File \\
\hline .text:005414B0 & push & 1 & ; Count \\
\hline .text:005414B2 & push & edi & ; Size \\
\hline .text:005414B3 & push & esi & Str \\
\hline .text:005414B4 & call & fwrite & \\
\hline .text:005414B9 & push & \(\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{p} \mathrm{p}\) & ; File \\
\hline .text:005414BA & call & fclose & \\
\hline .text:005414BF & push & \(\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{b} x\) & Memory \\
\hline .text:005414C0 & call & _free & \\
\hline .text:005414C5 & add & esp, 2Ch & \\
\hline .text:005414C8 & pop & edi & \\
\hline .text:005414C9 & pop & esi & \\
\hline .text:005414CA & pop & ebp & \\
\hline .text:005414CB & pop & ebx & \\
\hline .text:005414CC & retn & & \\
\hline .text:005414CC decrypt_file & endp & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here is the reconstructed C code:
```

void decrypt_file(char *fin, char* fout, char *pw)
{

```
```

FILE *f;

```
FILE *f;
int real flen, flen;
int real flen, flen;
BYTE *bu\overline{f}
BYTE *bu\overline{f}
f=fopen(fin, "rb");
f=fopen(fin, "rb");
if (f==NULL)
if (f==NULL)
{
{
    printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
    printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
    return;
    return;
};
};
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
flen=ftell (f);
flen=ftell (f);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen);
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fclose (f);
fclose (f);
if (memcmp (buf, "QR9", 3)!=0)
if (memcmp (buf, "QR9", 3)!=0)
{
{
    printf ("File is not encrypted!\n");
    printf ("File is not encrypted!\n");
    return;
    return;
};
};
memcpy (&real_flen, buf+3, 4);
```

memcpy (\&real_flen, buf+3, 4);

```
```

    decrypt (buf+(3+4), flen-(3+4), pw);
    f=fopen(fout, "wb");
    fwrite (buf+(3+4), real_flen, 1, f);
    fclose (f);
    free (buf);
    };

```

OK, now let's go deeper.
Function crypt():
```

.text:00541260 crypt
.text:00541260
.text:00541260 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:00541260 arg_4 = dword ptr 8
.text:00541260 arg_8 = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:00541260
.text:00541260 push ebx
.text:00541261 mov ebx, [esp+4+arg_0]
.text:00541265 push ebp
.text:00541266 push esi
.text:00541267 push edi
.text:00541268 xor ebp, ebp
.text:0054126A
.text:0054126A loc_54126A:

```
```

proc near

```
```

proc near

```

This fragment of code copies a part of the input buffer to an internal array we later name "cube64". The size is in the ECX register. MOVSD stands for move 32-bit dword, so, 16 32-bit dwords are exactly 64 bytes.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:0054126A & mov eax, [esp+10h+arg_8] \\
.text:0054126E & mov & ecx, 10h \\
.text:00541273 & mov & esi, ebx ; EBX is pointer within input buffer \\
.text:00541275 & mov & edi, offset cube64 \\
.text:0054127A & push 1 \\
.text:0054127C & push eax \\
text:0054127D & rep movsd
\end{tabular}

Call rotate_all_with_password():
.text:0054127F call rotate_all_with_password

Copy encrypted contents back from "cube64" to buffer:
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline .text:00541284 & mov & eax, [esp+18h+arg_4] \\
.text:00541288 & mov & edi, ebx \\
.text:0054128A & add & ebp, 40h \\
.text:0054128D & add & esp, 8 \\
.text:00541290 & mov & ecx, 10h \\
.text:00541295 & mov & esi, offset cube64 \\
.text:0054129A & add ebx, 40h ; add 64 to input buffer pointer \\
.text:0054129D & cmp ebp, eax ; EBP = amount of encrypted data. \\
.text:0054129F & rep movsd
\end{tabular}

If EBP is not bigger that the size input argument, then continue to the next block.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:005412A1 & jl & short loc_54126A \\
.text:005412A3 & pop & edi \\
.text:005412A4 & pop & esi \\
.text:005412A5 & pop & ebp \\
.text:005412A6 & retn & \\
.text:005412A7 & endp & \\
.text:005412A7 crypt & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Reconstructed crypt() function:
```

void crypt (BYTE *buf, int sz, char *pw)
{
int i=0;
do
{
memcpy (cube, buf+i, 8*8);
rotate_all (pw, 1);
memcpy (buf+i, cube, 8*8);
i+=64;
}
while (i<sz);
};

```

OK, now let's go deeper in function rotate_all_with_password(). It takes two arguments: password string and a number.

In crypt(), the number 1 is used, and in the decrypt() function (where rotate_all_with_password() function is called too), the number is 3 .
```

.text:005411B0 rotate_all_with_password proc near
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:005411B0 arg_4 = dword ptr 8
.text:005411B0
.text:005411B0 mov eax, [esp+arg_0]
.text:005411B4 push ebp
.text:005411B5 mov ebp, eax

```

Check the current character in the password. If it is zero, exit:
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline .text:005411B7 & cmp & byte ptr [eax], 0 \\
.text:005411BA & jz & exit \\
.text:005411C0 & push & ebx \\
.text:005411C1 & mov & ebx, [esp+8+arg_4] \\
.text:005411C5 & push & esi \\
.text:005411C6 & push & edi \\
.text:005411C7 & & \\
.text:005411C7 loop_begin: & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Call tolower(), a standard C function.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:005411C7 & movsx & eax, byte ptr [ebp+0] \\
.text:005411CB & push & eax \\
.text:005411CC & call & tolower \\
.text:005411D1 & add & esp, 4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Hmm, if the password has non-Latin character, it is skipped! Indeed, when we run the encryption utility and try non-Latin characters in the password, they seem to be ignored.
```

.text:005411D4 cmp al, 'a'
.text:005411D6 jl short next_character_in_password
.text:005411D8
.text:005411DA
.text:005411DC

```
```

cmp al, 'z'

```
cmp al, 'z'
jg short next_character_in_password
jg short next_character_in_password
movsx ecx, al
```

movsx ecx, al

```

Subtract the value of " a " (97) from the character.
.text:005411DF sub ecx, 'a' ; 97

After subtracting, we'll get 0 for "a" here, 1 for " \(b\) ", etc. And 25 for " \(z\) ".
\begin{tabular}{lll}
.text:005411E2 & cmp & ecx, 24 \\
.text:005411E5 & jle & short skip_subtracting \\
.text:005411E7 & sub & ecx, 24
\end{tabular}

It seems, " \(y\) " and " \(z\) " are exceptional characters too. After that fragment of code, " \(y\) " becomes 0 and " \(z\) " -1 . This implies that the 26 Latin alphabet symbols become values in the range of \(0 . .23\), ( 24 in total).

This is actually division via multiplication. You can read more about it in the "Division using multiplication" section ( 3.9 on page 497).

The code actually divides the password character's value by 3.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:005411EA & mov & eax, 55555556h \\
.text:005411EF & imul & ecx \\
.text:005411F1 & mov & eax, edx \\
.text:005411F3 & shr & eax, 1Fh \\
.text:005411F6 & add & edx, eax \\
.text:005411F8 & mov & eax, ecx \\
.text:005411FA & mov & esi, edx \\
.text:005411FC & mov & ecx, 3 \\
.text:00541201 & cdq & \\
.text:00541202 & idiv & ecx \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

EDX is the remainder of the division.
```

.text:00541204 sub edx, 0
.text:00541207 jz short call_rotatel ; if remainder is zero, go to rotatel
.text:00541209 dec edx
.text:0054120A jz short call_rotate2 ; .. if it is 1, go to rotate2
.text:0054120C dec edx
.text:0054120D jnz short next_character_in_password
.text:0054120F test ebx, ebx
.text:00541211 jle short next_character_in_password
.text:00541213 mov edi, ebx

```

If the remainder is 2 , call rotate3(). EDI is the second argument of the rotate_all_with_password() function. As we already noted, 1 is for the encryption operations and 3 is for the decryption. So, here is a loop. When encrypting, rotate \(1 / 2 / 3\) are to be called the same number of times as given in the first argument.
```

.text:00541215 call_rotate3:
.text:00541215
.text:00541216
.text:0054121B
.text:0054121E
.text:0054121F
.text:00541221
.text:00541223
.text:00541223
.text:00541223
.text:00541225
.text:00541227
.text:00541229
.text:00541229 loc_541229:
.text:00541229
.text:0054122A
.text:0054122F
.text:00541232
.text:00541233
.text:00541235
.text:00541237
.text:00541237 call_rotatel:
.text:00541237
.text:00541239
.text:0054123B
.text:0054123D
.text:0054123D
.text:0054123D
.text:0054123E
.text:00541243
.text:00541246
.text:00541247
.text:00541249

```
```

push esi

```
push esi
call rotate3
call rotate3
add esp, 4
add esp, 4
dec edi
dec edi
jnz short call_rotate3
jnz short call_rotate3
jmp short next_character_in_password
jmp short next_character_in_password
test ebx, ebx
test ebx, ebx
jle short next_character_in_password
jle short next_character_in_password
mov edi, ebx
mov edi, ebx
push esi
push esi
call rotate2
call rotate2
add esp, 4
add esp, 4
dec edi
dec edi
jnz short loc_541229
jnz short loc_541229
jmp short next_character_in_password
jmp short next_character_in_password
test ebx, ebx
test ebx, ebx
jle short next_character_in_password
jle short next_character_in_password
mov edi, ebx
mov edi, ebx
push esi
push esi
call rotatel
call rotatel
add esp, 4
add esp, 4
dec edi
dec edi
jnz short loc_54123D
```

jnz short loc_54123D

```

Fetch the next character from the password string.
```

.text:00541249 next_character_in_password:
.text:00541249 mov al, [ebp+1]

```

Increment the character pointer in the password string:
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline. text:0054124C & inc & ebp \\
.text:0054124D & test & al, al \\
.text:0054124F & jnz & loop_begin \\
.text:00541255 & pop & edi \\
.text:00541256 & pop & esi \\
.text:00541257 & pop & ebx \\
.text:00541258 & & \\
.text:00541258 exit: & pop & ebp \\
.text:00541258 & retn & \\
.text:00541259 & rext:00541259 & rotate_all_with_password endp \\
.text:00
\end{tabular}

Here is the reconstructed C code:
```

void rotate_all (char *pwd, int v)
{
char *p=pwd;
while (*p)
{
char c=*p;
int q;
c=tolower (c);
if (c>='a' \&\& c<='z')
{
q=c-'a';
if (q>24)
q-=24;
int quotient=q/3;
int remainder=q % 3;
switch (remainder)
{
case 0: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotatel (quotient); break;
case 1: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate2 (quotient); break;
case 2: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate3 (quotient); break;
};
};
p++;
};
};

```

Now let's go deeper and investigate the rotatel/2/3 functions. Each function calls another two functions. We eventually will name them set_bit() and get_bit().
Let's start with get_bit():
```

.text:00541050 get_bit proc near
.text:00541050
.text:00541050 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:00541050 arg_4 = dword ptr 8
.text:00541050 arg_4 = = dword ptr 8
.text:00541050
.text:00541050 mov eax, [esp+arg_4]
.text:00541054 mov ecx, [esp+arg_0]
.text:00541058
.text:0054105F
.text:00541063
.text:00541065
.text:00541067
.text:00541050 arg_4
mov al, cube64[eax+ecx*8]
mov cl, [esp+arg_8]
shr al, cl
and al, 1
retn

```
...in other words: calculate an index in the cube64 array: arg_4 + arg_0 * 8. Then shift a byte from the array by arg_8 bits right. Isolate the lowest bit and return it.

Let's see another function, set_bit():
```

.text:00541000 set bit
.text:00541000
.text:00541000 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:00541000 arg_4 = dword ptr 8
.text:00541000 arg_8 = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:00541000 arg_C = byte ptr 10h
.text:00541000
.text:00541000 mov al, [esp+arg_C]
.text:00541004 mov ecx, [esp+arg_8]
.text:00541008 push esi
.text:00541009 mov esi, [esp+4+arg_0]
.text:0054100D test al, al
.text:0054100F mov eax, [esp+4+arg_4]
.text:00541013 mov dl, 1
.text:00541015 jz short loc_54102B

```

The value in the DL is 1 here. It gets shifted left by arg_8. For example, if arg_8 is 4 , the value in the DL register is to be \(0 \times 10\) or 1000b in binary form.
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline. text:00541017 & shl & \(d l, ~ c l\) \\
.text:00541019 & mov & cl, cube64[eax+esi*8] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Get a bit from array and explicitly set it.
.text:00541020 or \(\mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{dl}\)

Store it back:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00541022 & mov & cube64[eax+esi*8], cl \\
.text:00541029 & pop & esi \\
.text:0054102A & retn & \\
.text:0054102B & & \\
.text:0054102B loc_54102B: & shl & dl, cl \\
.text:0054102B & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

If arg_C is not zero...
.text:0054102D mov cl, cube64[eax+esi*8]
...invert DL. For example, if DL's state after the shift is \(0 \times 10\) or 0 b1000, there is \(0 \times E F\) to be after the NOT instruction (or Ob11101111b).
. text:00541034 not \(\mathrm{dl} \quad\),

This instruction clears the bit, in other words, it saves all bits in CL which are also set in DL except those in DL which are cleared. This implies that if DL is 11101111 b in binary form, all bits are to be saved except the 5th (counting from lowest bit).
.text:00541036 and \(\mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{dl}\)

Store it back:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline .text:00541038 & mov & cube64[eax+esi*8], cl \\
.text:0054103F & pop & esi \\
.text:00541040 & retn & \\
.text:00541040 set_bit & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It is almost the same as get_bit (), except, if arg_C is zero, the function clears the specific bit in the array, or sets it otherwise.
We also know that the array's size is 64 . The first two arguments both in the set_bit() and get_bit() functions could be seen as 2D coordinates. Then the array is to be an \(8 * 8\) matrix.

Here is a C representation of what we know up to now:
```

\#define IS SET(flag, bit) ((flag) \& (bit))
\#define SET_BIT(var, bit) ((var) |= (bit))
\#define REMOVE_BIT(var, bit) ((var) \&= ~(bit))
static BYTE cube[8][8];
void set bit (int x, int y, int shift, int bit)
{
if (bit)
SET_BIT (cube[x][y], 1<<shift);
else
REMOVE_BIT (cube[x][y], 1<<shift);
};
bool get_bit (int x, int y, int shift)
{
if ((cube[x][y]>>shift)\&1==1)
return 1;
return 0;
};

```

Now let's get back to the rotatel/2/3 functions.
```

.text:00541070 rotate1 proc near
.text:00541070

```

Internal array allocation in the local stack, with size of 64 bytes:
```

.text:00541070 internal_array_64= byte ptr -40h
.text:00541070 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:00541070
.text:00541070 sub esp, 40h
.text:00541073
.text:00541074
.text:00541075
.text:00541079
.text:0054107A
.text:0054107B
push ebx
push ebp
mov ebp, [esp+48h+arg_0]
push esi
push edi
xor edi, edi ; EDI is loop1 counter

```

EBX is a pointer to the internal array:
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline .text:0054107D lea ebx, [esp+50h+internal_array_64] \\
.text:00541081 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here we have two nested loops:
```

.text:00541081 first_loop1 begin:
.text:00541081 xor esi, esi ; ESI is loop 2 counter
.text:00541083
.text:00541083
.text:00541083
.text:00541084
.text:00541085
.text:00541086
.text:0054108B
.text:0054108E
.text:00541091
.text:00541092
.text:00541095
.text:00541097
first_loop2_begin:
push ebp ; arg_0
push esi ; loop 1 counter
push edi ; loop 2 counter
call get_bit
add esp, 0Ch
mov [ebx+esi], al ; store to internal array
inc esi ; increment loop 1 counter
cmp esi, 8
jl short first_loop2_begin
inc edi ; increment loop 2 counter
; increment internal array pointer by 8 at each loop 1 iteration
.text:00541098 add ebx, 8
.text:0054109B cmp edi, 8
.text:0054109E jl short first_loop1_begin

```
...we see that both loops' counters are in the range of 0..7. Also they are used as the first and second argument for the get_bit() function. The third argument to get_bit() is the only argument of rotatel(). The return value from get_bit() is placed in the internal array.

Prepare a pointer to the internal array again:

...this code is placing the contents of the internal array to the cube global array via the set_bit () function, but in a different order! Now the counter of the first loop is in the range of 7 to 0 , decrementing at each iteration!

The C code representation looks like:
```

void rotatel (int v)
{
bool tmp[8][8]; // internal array
int i, j;
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
for (j=0; j<8; j++)
tmp[i][j]=get_bit (i, j, v);
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
for (j=0; j<8; j++)
set_bit (j, 7-i, v, tmp[x][y]);
};

```

Not very understandable, but if we take a look at rotate2() function:
```

.text:005410E0 rotate2 proc near
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0 internal_array_64 = byte ptr -40h
.text:005410E0 arg_0 = dword ptr 4
.text:005410E0
.text:005410E0 sub esp, 40h
.text:005410E3 push ebx
.text:005410E4 push ebp
.text:005410E5 mov ebp, [esp+48h+arg_0]
.text:005410E9
.text:005410EA
.text:005410EB
.text:005410ED
.text:005410F1
.text:005410F1 loc_5410F1:
.text:005410F1 xor esi, esi ; loop 2 counter
.text:005410F3
.text:005410F3 loc_5410F3:

```
8.6. "QR9": RUBIK'S CUBE INSPIRED AMATEUR CRYPTO-ALGORITHM
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:005410F3 & push & esi ; loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:005410F4 & push & edi ; loop 1 counter \\
\hline .text:005410F5 & push & ebp ; arg_0 \\
\hline .text:005410F6 & call & get_bit \\
\hline .text:005410FB & add & esp, 0Ch \\
\hline .text:005410FE & mov & [ebx+esi], al ; store to internal array \\
\hline .text:00541101 & inc & esi ; increment loop 1 counter \\
\hline .text:00541102 & cmp & esi, 8 \\
\hline .text:00541105 & jl & short loc_5410F3 \\
\hline .text:00541107 & inc & edi ; increment loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:00541108 & add & ebx, 8 \\
\hline .text:0054110B & cmp & edi, 8 \\
\hline .text:0054110E & jl & short loc_5410F1 \\
\hline .text:00541110 & lea & ebx, [esp+50h+internal_array_64] \\
\hline .text:00541114 & mov & edi, 7 ; loop 1 counter is initial state 7 \\
\hline .text:00541119 & & \\
\hline .text:00541119 & loc_541119: & \\
\hline .text:00541119 & xor & esi, esi ; loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:0054111B & & \\
\hline .text:0054111B & loc_54111B: & \\
\hline .text:0054111B & mov & al, [ebx+esi] ; get byte from internal array \\
\hline .text:0054111E & push & eax \\
\hline .text:0054111F & push & edi ; loop 1 counter \\
\hline .text:00541120 & push & esi ; loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:00541121 & push & ebp ; arg_0 \\
\hline .text:00541122 & call & set_bit \\
\hline .text:00541127 & add & esp, 10h \\
\hline .text:0054112A & inc & esi ; increment loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:0054112B & cmp & esi, 8 \\
\hline .text:0054112E & jl & short loc_54111B \\
\hline .text:00541130 & dec & edi ; decrement loop 2 counter \\
\hline .text:00541131 & add & ebx, 8 \\
\hline .text:00541134 & cmp & edi, 0FFFFFFFFh \\
\hline .text:00541137 & jg & short loc_541119 \\
\hline .text:00541139 & pop & edi \\
\hline .text:0054113A & pop & esi \\
\hline .text:0054113B & pop & ebp \\
\hline .text:0054113C & pop & ebx \\
\hline .text:0054113D & add & esp, 40h \\
\hline .text:00541140 & retn & \\
\hline .text:00541140 & rotate2 endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It is almost the same, except the order of the arguments of the get_bit() and set_bit() is different. Let's rewrite it in C-like code:
```

void rotate2 (int v)
{
bool tmp[8][8]; // internal array
int i, j;
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
for (j=0; j<8; j++)
tmp[i][j]=get_bit (v, i, j);
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
for (j=0; j<8; j++)
set_bit (v, j, 7-i, tmp[i][j]);
};

```

Let's also rewrite the rotate3() function:
```

void rotate3 (int v)
{
bool tmp[8][8];
int i, j;
for (i=0; i<8; i++)
for (j=0; j<8; j++)
tmp[i][j]=get_bit (i, v, j);

```
```

    for (i=0; i<8; i++)
    for (j=0; j<8; j++)
        set_bit (7-j, v, i, tmp[i][j]);
    \};

```

Well, now things are simpler. If we consider cube64 as a 3 D cube of size \(8 * 8 * 8\), where each element is a bit, get_bit() and set_bit() take just the coordinates of a bit as input.

The rotate \(1 / 2 / 3\) functions are in fact rotating all bits in a specific plane. These three functions are one for each cube side and the v argument sets the plane in the range of 0..7.

Maybe the algorithm's author was thinking of a \(8 * 8 * 8\) Rubik's cube \({ }^{18}\) ?!
Yes, indeed.
Let's look closer into the decrypt () function, here is its rewritten version:
```

void decrypt (BYTE *buf, int sz, char *pw)
{
char *p=strdup (pw);
strrev (p);
int i=0;
do
{
memcpy (cube, buf+i, 8*8);
rotate_all (p, 3);
memcpy (buf+i, cube, 8*8);
i+=64;
}
while (i<sz);
free (p);
};

```

It is almost the same as for crypt (), but the password string is reversed by the strrev() \({ }^{19}\) standard C function and rotate_all() is called with argument 3.
This implies that in case of decryption, each corresponding rotate1/2/3 call is to be performed thrice.
This is almost as in Rubik'c cube! If you want to get back, do the same in reverse order and direction! If you want to undo the effect of rotating one place in clockwise direction, rotate it once in counter-clockwise direction, or thrice in clockwise direction.
rotatel() is apparently for rotating the "front" plane. rotate2() is apparently for rotating the "top" plane. rotate3() is apparently for rotating the "left" plane.

Let's get back to the core of the rotate_all () function:
```

q=c-'a';
if (q>24)
q-=24;
int quotient=q/3; // in range 0..7
int remainder=q % 3;
switch (remainder)
{
case 0: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotatel (quotient); break; // front
case 1: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate2 (quotient); break; // top
case 2: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate3 (quotient); break; // left
};

```

Now it is much simpler to understand: each password character defines a side (one of three) and a plane (one of 8 ). \(3^{*} 8=24\), that is why two the last two characters of the Latin alphabet are remapped to fit an alphabet of exactly 24 elements.

The algorithm is clearly weak: in case of short passwords you can see that in the encrypted file there are the original bytes of the original file in a binary file editor.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{18}\) wikipedia
\({ }^{19}\) MSDN
}

Here is the whole source code reconstructed:
```

\#include <windows.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <assert.h>
\#define IS_SET(flag, bit) ((flag) \& (bit))
\#define SET_BIT(var, bit) ((var) |= (bit))
\#define REMOVE_BIT(var, bit) ((var) \&= ~(bit))
static BYTE cube[8][8];
void set_bit (int x, int y, int z, bool bit)
{
if (bit)
SET_BIT (cube[x][y], 1<<z);
else
REMOVE_BIT (cube[x][y], 1<<z);
};
bool get_bit (int x, int y, int z)
{
if ((cube[x][y]>>z)\&1==1)
return true;
return false;
};
void rotate_f (int row)
{
bool tmp[8][8];
int x, y;
for (x=0; x<8; x++)
for (y=0; y<8; y++)
tmp[x][y]=get_bit (x, y, row);
for (x=0; x<8; x++)
for (y=0; y<8; y++)
set_bit (y, 7-x, row, tmp[x][y]);
};
void rotate_t (int row)
{
bool tmp[8][8];
int y, z;
for (y=0; y<8; y++)
for (z=0; z<8; z++)
tmp[y][z]=get_bit (row, y, z);
for (y=0; y<8; y++)
for (z=0; z<8; z++)
set_bit (row, z, 7-y, tmp[y][z]);
};
void rotate_l (int row)
{
bool tmp[8][8];
int x, z;
for (x=0; x<8; x++)
for (z=0; z<8; z++)
tmp[x][z]=get_bit (x, row, z);
for (x=0; x<8; x++)
for (z=0; z<8; z++)
set_bit (7-z, row, x, tmp[x][z]);
};

```
```

void rotate_all (char *pwd, int v)
{
char *p=pwd;
while (*p)
{
char c=*p;
int q;
c=tolower (c);
if (c>='a' \&\& c<='z')
{
q=c-'a';
if (q>24)
q-=24;
int quotient=q/3;
int remainder=q % 3;
switch (remainder)
{
case 0: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate_f (quotient); break;
case 1: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate t (quotient); break;
case 2: for (int i=0; i<v; i++) rotate l l (quotient); break;
};
};
p++;
};
};
void crypt (BYTE *buf, int sz, char *pw)
{
int i=0;
do
{
memcpy (cube, buf+i, 8*8);
rotate all (pw, 1);
memcpy (buf+i, cube, 8*8);
i+=64;
}
while (i<sz);
};
void decrypt (BYTE *buf, int sz, char *pw)
{
char *p=strdup (pw)
strrev (p);
int i=0;
do
{
memcpy (cube, buf+i, 8*8);
rotate_all (p, 3);
memcpy (buf+i, cube, 8*8);
i+=64;
}
while (i<sz);
free (p);
};
void crypt_file(char *fin, char* fout, char *pw)
{
FILE *f;
int flen, flen_aligned;
BYTE *buf;

```
```

f=fopen(fin, "rb");
if (f==NULL)
{
printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
return;
};
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
flen=ftell (f);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
flen_aligned=(flen\&0xFFFFFFC0)+0x40;
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen_aligned);
memset (buf, 0, flen_aligned);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fclose (f);
crypt (buf, flen aligned, pw);
f=fopen(fout, "wb");
fwrite ("QR9", 3, 1, f);
fwrite (\&flen, 4, 1, f);
fwrite (buf, flen_aligned, 1, f);
fclose (f);
free (buf);
};
void decrypt_file(char *fin, char* fout, char *pw)
{

```
```

FILE *f;

```
FILE *f;
int real flen, flen;
int real flen, flen;
BYTE *buf;
BYTE *buf;
f=fopen(fin, "rb");
f=fopen(fin, "rb");
if (f==NULL)
if (f==NULL)
{
{
    printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
    printf ("Cannot open input file!\n");
    return;
    return;
};
};
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_END);
flen=ftell (f);
flen=ftell (f);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
fseek (f, 0, SEEK_SET);
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen);
buf=(BYTE*)malloc (flen);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fread (buf, flen, 1, f);
fclose (f);
fclose (f);
if (memcmp (buf, "QR9", 3)!=0)
if (memcmp (buf, "QR9", 3)!=0)
{
{
    printf ("File is not encrypted!\n");
    printf ("File is not encrypted!\n");
    return;
    return;
};
};
memcpy (&real_flen, buf+3, 4);
memcpy (&real_flen, buf+3, 4);
decrypt (buf+(3+4), flen-(3+4), pw);
decrypt (buf+(3+4), flen-(3+4), pw);
f=fopen(fout, "wb");
```

f=fopen(fout, "wb");

```
```

    fwrite (buf+(3+4), real_flen, 1, f);
    fclose (f);
    free (buf);
    };
// run: input output 0/1 password
// 0 for encrypt, 1 for decrypt
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
if (argc!=5)
{
printf ("Incorrect parameters!\n");
return 1;
};
if (strcmp (argv[3], "0")==0)
crypt_file (argv[1], argv[2], argv[4]);
else
if (strcmp (argv[3], "1")==0)
decrypt_file (argv[1], argv[2], argv[4]);
else
printf ("Wrong param %s\n", argv[3]);
return 0;
};

```

\subsection*{8.7 Encrypted database case \#1}
(This part has been first appeared in my blog at 26-Aug-2015. Some discussion: https://news. ycombinator. com/item?id=10128684.)

\subsection*{8.7.1 Base64 and entropy}

I've got the XML file containing some encrypted data. Perhaps, it's related to some orders and/or customers information.
```

<?xml version = "1.0" encoding = "UTF-8"?>
<Orders>
<Order>
<0rderID>1</0rderID>
<Data>yjmxhXUbhB/5MV45chPsXZWAJwIh1S0aD9lFn3XuJMSxJ3/E+UE3hsnH</Data>
</Order>
<0rder>
<OrderID>2</0rderID>
<Data>0KGe/wnypFBjsy+U0C2P9fC5nDZP3XDZLMPCRaiBw90jIk6Tu5U=</Data>
</Order>
<Order>
<OrderID>3</OrderID>
<Data>mqkXfdzvQKvEArdzh+zD9oETVGBFvcTBLs2ph1b5bYddExzp</Data>
</Order>
<0rder>
<OrderID>4</0rderID>
<Data>FCx6JhIDqnESyT3HAepyE1BJ3cJd7wCk+APCRUeuNtZdpCvQ2MR/7kLXtfUHuA==</Data>
</Order>

```
...

The file is available here.
This is clearly base64-encoded data, because all strings consisting of Latin characters, digits, plus (+) and slash (/) symbols. There can be 1 or 2 padding symbols (=), but they are never occurred in the middle of string. Keeping in mind these base64 properties, it's very easy to recognize them.

Let's decode them and calculate entropies ( 9.2 on page 948 ) of these blocks in Wolfram Mathematica:
```

In[]:= List0fBase64Strings =
Map[First[\#[[3]]] \&, Cases[Import["encrypted.xml"], XMLElement["Data", _, _], Infinity]];
In[]:= BinaryStrings =
Map[ImportString[\#, {"Base64", "String"}] \&, ListOfBase64Strings];
In[]:= Entropies = Map[N[Entropy[2, \#]] \&, BinaryStrings];
In[]:= Variance[Entropies]
Out[]= 0.0238614

```

Variance is low. This means the entropy values are not very different from each other. This is visible on graph:
```

In[]:= ListPlot[Entropies]

```


Most values are between 5.0 and 5.4. This is a sign that the data is compressed and/or encrypted.
To understand variance, let's calculate entropies of all lines in Conan Doyle's The Hound of the Baskervilles book:
```

In[]:= BaskervillesLines = Import["http://www.gutenberg.org/cache/epub/2852/pg2852.txt", "List/
৬"];
In[]:= EntropiesT = Map[N[Entropy[2, \#]] \&, BaskervillesLines];
In[]:= Variance[EntropiesT]
Out[]= 2.73883
In[]:= ListPlot[EntropiesT]

```


Most values are gathered around value of 4, but there are also values which are smaller, and they are influenced final variance value.

Perhaps, shortest strings has smaller entropy, let's take short string from the Conan Doyle's book:
```

In[]:= Entropy[2, "Yes, sir."] // N

```
Out [] = 2.9477

Let's try even shorter:
```

In[]:= Entropy[2, "Yes"] // N
Out[]= 1.58496
In[]:= Entropy[2, "No"] // N
Out[]= 1.

```

\subsection*{8.7.2 Is data compressed?}

OK, so our data is compressed and/or encrypted. Is it compressed? Almost all data compressors put some header at the start, signature, or something like that. As we can see, there are no consistent data at the start of each block. It's still possible that this is a handmade data compressor, but they are very rare. On the other hand, handmade cryptoalgorithms are much more popular, because it's very easy to make it work. Even primitive keyless cryptosystems like memfrob( \()^{20}\) and ROT13 works fine without errors. It's a serious challenge to write data compressor from scratch using only fantasy and imagination in a way so it will have no evident bugs. Some programmers implements data compression functions by reading textbooks, but this is also rare. The most popular two ways are: 1) just take open-source library like zlib; 2) copy\&paste something from somewhere. Open-source data compressions algorithms usually puts some kind of header, and so do algorithms from sites like http://www. codeproject.com/.

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{20}\) http://linux.die.net/man/3/memfrob
}

\subsection*{8.7.3 Is data encrypted?}

Major data encryption algorithms process data in blocks. DES-8 bytes, AES-16 bytes. If the input buffer is not divided evenly by block size, it's padded by zeroes (or something else), so encrypted data will be aligned by cryptoalgorithm's block size. This is not our case.
Using Wolfram Mathematica, I analyzed block's lengths:
```

In[]:= Counts[Map[StringLength[\#] \&, BinaryStrings]]
Out[]= <|42 -> 1858, 38 -> 1235, 36 -> 699, 46 -> 1151, 40 -> 1784,
44 -> 1558, 50 -> 366, 34 -> 291, 32 -> 74, 56 -> 15, 48 -> 716,
30 -> 13, 52 -> 156, 54 -> 71, 60 -> 3, 58 -> 6, 28 -> 4|>

```

1858 blocks has size of 42 bytes, 1235 blocks has size of 38 bytes, etc.
I made a graph:
```

ListPlot[Counts[Map[StringLength[\#] \&, BinaryStrings]]]

```


So, most blocks has size between \(\sim 36\) and \(\sim 48\). There is also another thing to notice: all block sizes are even. No single block with odd size.
There are, however, stream ciphers which can operate on byte level or even on bit level.

\subsection*{8.7.4 CryptoPP}

The program which can browse this encrypted database is written C\# and the .NET code is heavily obfuscated. Nevertheless, there is DLL with x86 code, which, after brief examination, has parts of the CryptoPP popular open-source library! (I just spotted "CryptoPP" strings inside.) Now it's very easy to find all functions inside of DLL because CryptoPP library is open-source.
CryptoPP library has a lot of crypto-functions, including AES (AKA Rijndael). Newer x86 CPUs has AES helper instructions like AESENC, AESDEC and AESKEYGENASSIST \({ }^{21}\). They are not performing encryption/decryption completely, but they do significant amount of job. And newer CryptoPP versions use them. For example, here: 1, 2. To my surprise, during decryption, AESENC gets executed, while AESDEC is not (I just

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{21}\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/AES instruction_set
}

\subsection*{8.7. ENCRYPTED DATABASE CASE \#1}
checked with my tracer utility, but any debugger can be used). I checked, if my CPU really supports AES instructions. Some Intel i3 CPUs are not. And if not, CryptoPP library falling back to AES functions implemented in old way \({ }^{22}\). But my CPU supports them. Why AESDEC is still not executed? Why the program use AES encryption in order to decrypt database?
OK, it's not a problem to find a function which encrypts block. It is called CryptoPP::Rijndael::Enc::ProcessAndXorB https://github. com/mmoss/cryptopp/blob/2772f7b57182b31a41659b48d5f35a7b6cedd34d/src/rijndael. cpp\#L349, and it can call from another function: Rijndael::Enc::AdvancedProcessBlocks()
https://github.com/mmoss/cryptopp/blob/2772f7b57182b31a41659b48d5f35a7b6cedd34d/src/rijndael. cpp\#L1179, which, in turn, can be call the two functions ( AESNI_Enc_Block and AESNI_Enc_4_Blocks ) which has AESENC instructions.

So, judging by CryptoPP internals,
CryptoPP::Rijndael::Enc::ProcessAndXorBlock() encrypts one 16-byte block. Let's set breakpoint on it and see, what happens during decryption. I use my simple tracer tool again. The software must decrypt first data block now. Oh, by the way, here is the first data block converted from base64 encoding to hexadecimal data, let's have it at hand:


These are also arguments of the function from CryptoPP source files:
size_t Rijndael: : Enc: :AdvancedProcessBlocks(const byte *inBlocks, const byte *xorBlocks, byte * \(\zeta\) outBlocks, size_t length, word32 flags);

So it has 5 arguments. Possible flags are:
```

enum {BT_InBlockIsCounter=1, BT_DontIncrementInOutPointers=2, BT_XorInput=4, \swarrow

```
    \(\leftrightarrows\) BT_ReverseDirection=8, BT_AllowParallel=16\} FlagsForAdvancedProcessBlocks;

OK, run tracer on ProcessAndXorBlock() function:
... tracer.exe -l:filename.exe bpf=filename.exe!0x4339a0,args:5,dump args:0x10
Warning: no tracer.cfg file.
PID=1984|New process software.exe
no module registered with image base \(0 \times 77320000\)
no module registered with image base \(0 x 76 e 20000\)
no module registered with image base \(0 x 77320000\)
no module registered with image base \(0 \times 77220000\)
Warning: unknown (to us) INT3 breakpoint at ntdll.dll!LdrVerifyImageMatchesChecksum+0x96c (0々 \(\zeta\) x776c103b)
(0) software.exe! \(0 \times 4339 a 0(0 x 38 b 920,0 \times 0,0 \times 38 b 978,0 \times 10,0 \times 0)(c a l l e d\) from software.exe!.text+0々 \(\zeta x 33 c 0 d(0 x 13 e 4 c 0 d))\)
Argument 1/5
0038B920: 01000000 FF FF FF FF-79 C1 69 0B 67 C1 04 7D ".........y.i.g..\}"
Argument 3/5
0038B978: CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD-CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD ".......................
(0) software.exe! \(0 \times 4339 a 0()\)-> \(0 x 0\)

Argument \(3 / 5\) difference
00000000: C7 39 4E 7B 33 1B D6 1F-B8 3110393913 A5 5D ".9N\{3....1.99..]"
(0) software.exe! \(0 \times 4339 a 0(0 x 38 a 828,0 x 38 a 838,0 \times 38 b b 40,0 \times 0,0 \times 8)(c a l l e d\) from software.exe!. \(\downarrow\) \(\zeta\) text+0x3a407 (0x13eb407))
Argument \(1 / 5\)
0038A828: 9580270221 D5 2D 1A-0F D9 45 9F 75 EE 24 C4 "..'.!.-...E.u.\$."
Argument 2/5
0038A838: B1 27 7F 84 FE 4137 86-C9 C0 00 CD CD CD CD CD ".'...A7.........."
Argument 3/5
0038BB40: CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD-CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD ".....................
(0) software.exe! \(0 \times 4339 a 0()\)-> \(0 x 0\)
 \(\rightarrow\) text+0x33c0d (0x13e4c0d))
Argument 1/5
0038B920: CA 39 B1 8575 1B 84 1F-F9 31 5E 397213 EC 5D ".9..u....1^9r..]"
Argument 2/5
0038A828: 9580270221 D5 2D 1A-0F D9 45 9F 75 EE 24 C4 "..'.!.-...E.u.\$."

\footnotetext{
22https://github.com/mmoss/cryptopp/blob/2772f7b57182b31a41659b48d5f35a7b6cedd34d/src/rijndael.cpp\#L355
}
```

Argument 3/5
0038BB30: CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD-CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD "...................
(0) software.exe!0x4339a0() -> 0x0
Argument 3/5 difference
00000000: 45 00 20 00 4A 00 4F 00-48 00 4E 00 53 00 00 00 "E. .J.O.H.N.S..."
(0) software.exe!0x4339a0(0x38b920, 0x0, 0x38b978, 0x10, 0x0) (called from software.exe!.text+0r
433c0d (0x13e4c0d))
Argument 1/5
0038B920: 95 80 27 02 21 D5 2D 1A-0F D9 45 9F 75 EE 24 C4 "..'.!.-...E.u.$."
Argument 3/5
0038B978: 95 80 27 02 21 D5 2D 1A-0F D9 45 9F 75 EE 24 C4 "..'.!.-...E.u.$."
(0) software.exe!0x4339a0() -> 0x0
Argument 3/5 difference
00000000: B1 27 7F E4 9F 01 E3 81-CF C6 12 FB B9 7C F1 BC ".'.............."
PID=1984|Process software.exe exited. ExitCode=0 (0x0)

```

Here we can see inputs to the ProcessAndXorBlock() function, and outputs from it.
This is output from the function during first call:
```

00000000: C7 39 4E 7B 33 1B D6 1F-B8 31 10 39 39 13 A5 5D ".9N{3....1.99..]"

```

Then the ProcessAndXorBlock() is called with zero-length block, but with 8 flag (BT_ReverseDirection). Second call:
```

00000000: 45 00 20 00 4A 00 4F 00-48 00 4E 00 53 00 00 00 "E. .J.O.H.N.S..."

```

Wow, there is some string familiar to us!
Third call:
```

00000000: B1 27 7F E4 9F 01 E3 81-CF C6 12 FB B9 7C F1 BC ".'..............."

```

The first output is very similar to the first 16 bytes of the encrypted buffer.
Output of the first call of ProcessAndXorBlock():
```

00000000: C7 39 4E 7B 33 1B D6 1F-B8 31 10 39 39 13 A5 5D ".9N{3....1.99..]"

```

First 16 bytes of encrypted buffer:
```

00000000: CA 39 B1 85 75 1B 84 1F F9 31 5E 39 72 13 EC 5D .9..u....1^9r..]

```

There are too much equal bytes! How come AES encryption result can be very similar to the encrypted buffer while this is not encryption but rather decryption?!

\subsection*{8.7.5 Cipher Feedback mode}

The answer is CFB \({ }^{23}\) : in this mode, AES algorithm used not as encryption algorithm, but as a device which generates cryptographically secure random data. The actual encryption is happening using simple XOR operation.

Here is encryption algorithm (images are taken from Wikipedia):

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{23}\) Cipher Feedback
}


\section*{Cipher Feedback (CFB) mode encryption}

And decryption:


\section*{Cipher Feedback (CFB) mode decryption}

Now let's see: AES encryption operation generates 16 bytes (or 128 bits) of random data to be used while XOR-ing, who forces us to use all 16 bytes? If at the last iteration we've got 1 byte of data, let's xor 1 byte of data with 1 byte of generated random data? This leads to important property of CFB mode: data can be not padded, data of arbitrary size can be encrypted and decrypted.
Oh, that's why all encrypted blocks are not padded. And that's why AESDEC instruction is never called.
Let's try to decrypt first block manually, using Python. CFB mode also use IV, as a seed for CSPRNG \({ }^{24}\). In our case, IV is the block which is encrypted at first iteration:
```

0038B920: 01 00 00 00 FF FF FF FF-79 C1 69 0B 67 C1 04 7D "........y.i.g..}"

```

Oh, and we also have to recover encryption key. There is AESKEYGENASSIST is DLL, and it is called, and it is used in the
Rijndael::Base::UncheckedSetKey() function:
https://github.com/mmoss/cryptopp/blob/2772f7b57182b31a41659b48d5f35a7b6cedd34d/src/rijndael. cpp\#L198 It's easy to find it in IDA and set breakpoint. Let's see:
```

... tracer.exe -l:filename.exe bpf=filename.exe!0x435c30,args:3,dump_args:0x10
Warning: no tracer.cfg file.
PID=2068|New process software.exe
no module registered with image base 0x77320000

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{24}\) Cryptographically Secure Pseudorandom Number Generator
}
```

no module registered with image base 0x76e20000
no module registered with image base 0x77320000
no module registered with image base 0x77220000
Warning: unknown (to us) INT3 breakpoint at ntdll.dll!LdrVerifyImageMatchesChecksum+0x96c (0\&
< x776c103b)
(0) software.exe!0x435c30(0x15e8000, 0x10, 0x14f808) (called from software.exe!.text+0x22fal (0r
< x13d3fa1))
Argument 1/3
015E8000: CD C5 7E AD 28 5F 6D E1-CE 8F CC 29 B1 21 88 8E "..~.(_m....).!.."
Argument 3/3
0014F808: 38 82 58 01 C8 B9 46 00-01 D1 3C 01 00 F8 14 00 "8.X...F...<....."
Argument 3/3 +0x0: software.exe!.rdata+0x5238
Argument 3/3 +0x8: software.exe!.text+0x1c101
(0) software.exe!0x435c30() -> 0x13c2801
PID=2068|Process software.exe exited. ExitCode=0 (0x0)

```

So this is the key: CD C5 7E AD 28 5F 6D E1-CE 8F CC 29 B1 \(21888 E\).
During manual decryption we've got this:
```

00000000: 0D 00 FF FE 46 00 52 00 41 00 4E 00 4B 00 49 00 ....F.R.A.N.K.I.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 4A 00 4F 00 48 00 4E 00 53 00 66 66 E. .J.O.H.N.S.ff
00000020: 66 66 66 9E 61 40 D4 07 06 01
fff.a@....

```

Now this is something readable! And now we can see why there were so many equal bytes at the first decryption iteration: because plaintext has so many zero bytes!

Let's decrypt the second block:
```

00000000: 17 98 D0 84 3A E9 72 4F DB 82 3F AD E9 3E 2A A8 ....:.r0..?..>*.
00000010: 41 00 52 00 52 00 4F 00 4E 00 CD CC CC CC CC CC A.R.R.O.N.......
00000020: 1B 40 D4 07 06 01
.@....

```

Third, fourth and fifth:
```

00000000: 5D 90 59 06 EF F4 96 B4 7C 33 A7 4A BE FF 66 AB ].Y.....|3.J..f.
00000010: 49 00 47 00 47 00 53 00 00 00 00 00 00 C0 65 40 I.G.G.S.......e@
00000020: D4 07 06 01

```



All blocks decrypted seems correctly except of first 16 bytes part.

\subsection*{8.7.6 Initializing Vector}

\section*{What can affect first 16 bytes?}

Let's back to CFB decryption algorithm again: 8.7.5 on the previous page.
We can see that IV can affect to first block decryption operation, but not the second, because during the second iteration, ciphertext from the first iteration is used, and in case of decryption, it's the same, no matter what IV has!

So probably, IV is different each time. Using my tracer, I'll take a look at the first input during decryption of the second block of XML file:

0038B920: 02000000 FE FF FF FF-79 C1 69 0B 67 C1 04 7D ".........y.i.g..\}"
...third:
0038B920: 03000000 FD FF FF FF-79 C1 69 0B 67 C1 04 7D ".........y.i.g..\}"

\subsection*{8.7. ENCRYPTED DATABASE CASE \#1}

It seems, first and fifth byte are changed each time. I finally concluded that the first 32 -bit integer is just OrderID from the XML file, and the second 32-bit integer is also OrderID, but negated. All other 8 bytes are same for each operation. Now I have decrypted the whole database: https://raw.githubusercontent. com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/master/examples/encrypted_DB1/decrypted.full.txt.
The Python script used for this is: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/ examples/encrypted_DB1/decrypt_blocks.py.

Perhaps, the author wanted each block encrypted differently, so he/she used OrderID as part of key. It would be also possible to make different AES key instead of IV.
So now we know that IV only affects first block during decryption in CFB mode, this is feature of it. All other blocks can be decrypted without knowledge IV, but using the key.

OK, so why CFB mode? Apparently, because the very first AES example on CryptoPP wiki uses CFB mode: http://www.cryptopp.com/wiki/Advanced_Encryption_Standard\#Encrypting_and_Decrypting_Using_ AES. Supposedly, developer choose it for simplicity: the example can encrypt/decrypt text strings with arbitrary lengths, without padding.
It is very likely, program's author(s) just copypasted the example from CryptoPP wiki page. Many programmers do so.

The only difference that IV is chosen randomly in CryptoPP wiki example, while this indeterminism wasn't allowable to programmers of the software we are dissecting now, so they choose to initialize IV using Order ID.

Now we can proceed to analyzing matter of each byte in the decrypted block.

\subsection*{8.7.7 Structure of the buffer}

Let's take first four decrypted blocks:


UTF-16 encoded text strings are clearly visible, these are names and surnames. The first byte (or 16-bit word) is seems string length, we can visually check it. FF FE is seems Unicode BOM.

There are 12 more bytes after each string.
Using this script (https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/examples/ encrypted_DB1/dump_buffer_rest.py) I've got random selection of the tails:
```

dennis@...:\$ python decrypt.py encrypted.xml | shuf | head -20
00000000: 48 E1 7A 14 AE 5F 62 40 DD 07 05 08 H.z.. b@....
00000000: 00 00 00 00 00 40 5A 40 DC 07 08 18 .....@QZ@....
00000000: 00 00 00 00 00 80 56 40 D7 07 0B 04 ......V@....
00000000: 00 00 00 00 00 60 61 40 D7 07 0C 1C ......a@....
00000
D9 07 05 18
00000000: 3D 0A D7 A3 70 FD 34 40 D7 07 07 11
00000000: 00 00 00 00 00 A0 63 40 D5 07 05 19
00000000: CD CC CC CC CC 3C 5C 40 D7 07 08 11
00000000: 66 66 66 66 66 FE 62 40 D4 07 06 05
00000000: 1F 85 EB 51 B8 FE 40 40 D6 07 09 1E
00000000: 00 00 00 00 00 40 5F 40 DC 07 02 18
00000000: 48 E1 7A 14 AE 9F 67 40 D8 07 05 12
00000000: CD CC CC CC CC 3C 5E 40 DC 07 01 07
H.z.. b@....
..... c@....
=...p.4@....
......c@....
............
fffff.b@....
...Q..@@.....
.....@ @....
.....@_@....
H.z...g@....

```


We first see the \(0 \times 40\) and \(0 \times 07\) bytes present in each tail. The very last byte s always in \(1 . .0 \times 1 \mathrm{~F}\) (1..31) range, l've checked. The penultimate byte is always in \(1 . .0 \times C\) (1..12) range. Wow, that looks like a date! Year can be represented as 16-bit value, and maybe last 4 bytes is date ( 16 bits for year, 8 bits for month and 8 more for day)? \(0 \times 7\) DD is 2013, \(0 x 7 D 5\) is 2005, etc. Seems fine. This is a date. There are 8 more bytes. Judging by the fact this is database named orders, maybe some kind of sum is present here? I made attempt to interpret it as double-precision IEEE 754 floating point and dump all values!

Some are:
```

71.0
134.0
51.95
53.0
121.99
96.95
98.95
15.95
85.95
184.99
94.95
29.95
85.0
36.0
130.99
115.95
87.99
127.95
114.0
150.95

```

Looks like real!
Now we can dump names, sums and dates.
```

plain:
00000000: 0D 00 FF FE 46 00 52 00 41 00 4E 00 4B 00 49 00 ....F.R.A.N.K.I.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 4A 00 4F 00 48 00 4E 00 53 00 66 66 E. .J.O.H.N.S.ff
00000020: 66 66 66 9E 61 40 D4 07 06 01
OrderID= 1 name= FRANKIE JOHNS sum= 140.95 date= 2004 / 6 / 1
plain:
00000000: 0B 00 FF FE 4C 00 4F 00 52 00 49 00 20 00 42 00 ....L.O.R.I. .B.
00000010: 41 00 52 00 52 00 4F 00 4E 00 CD CC CC CC CC CC A.R.R.O.N.......
00000020: 1B 40 D4 07 06 01
.@....
OrderID= 2 name= LORI BARRON sum= 6.95 date= 2004 / 6 / 1
plain:
00000000: 0A 00 FF FE 47 00 41 00 52 00 59 00 20 00 42 00 ....G.A.R.Y. .B.
00000010: 49 00 47 00 47 00 53 00 00 00 00 00 00 C0 65 40 I.G.G.S.......e@
00000020: D4 07 06 01
....
OrderID= 3 name= GARY BIGGS sum= 174.0 date= 2004 / 6 / 1
plain:
00000000: 0F 00 FF FE 4D 00 45 00 4C 00 49 00 4E 00 44 00 ....M.E.L.I.N.D.
00000010: 41 00 20 00 44 00 4F 00 48 00 45 00 52 00 54 00 A. .D.O.H.E.R.T.
00000020: 59 00 48 E1 7A 14 AE FF 68 40 D4 07 06 02 Y.H.z...h@....
OrderID= 4 name= MELINDA DOHERTY sum= 199.99 date= 2004 / 6 / 2
plain:
00000000: 0B 00 FF FE 4C 00 45 00 4E 00 41 00 20 00 4D 00 ....L.E.N.A. .M.
000000010: 41 00 52 00 43 00 55 00 53 00 00 00 00 00 00 60
00000020: 66 40 D4 07 06 03
A.R.C.U.S....'
f@....

```

See more: https://raw.githubusercontent.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/master/examples/ encrypted_DB1/decrypted.full.with_data.txt. Or filtered: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/ RE-for-beginners/blob/master/examples/encrypted_DB1/decrypted.short.txt. Seems correct.

This is some kind of OOP serialization, i.e., packing differently typed values into binary buffer for storing and/or transmitting.

\subsection*{8.7.8 Noise at the end}

The only question remaining is that sometimes, tail is bigger:
```

00000000: 0E 00 FF FE 54 00 48 00 45 00 52 00 45 00 53 00 ···...T.H.E.R.E.S.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 54 00 55 00 54 00 54 00 4C 00 45 00 E. .T.U.T.T.L.E.
00000020: 66 66 66 66 66 1E 63 40 D4 07 07 1A 00 07 07 19 fffff.c@.
OrderID= 172 name= THERESE TUTTLE sum= 152.95 date= 2004 / 7 / 26

```
(00 070719 bytes are not used and is ballast.)
```

00000000: 0C 00 FF FE 4D 00 45 00 4C 00 41 00 4E 00 49 00 ....M.E.L.A.N.I.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 4B 00 49 00 52 00 4B 00 00 00 00 00 E..K.I.R.K.....
00000020: 00 20 64 40 D4 07 09 02 00 02 .d@......
OrderID= 286 name= MELANIE KIRK sum= 161.0 date= 2004 / 9 / 2

```
(00 02 are not used.)
After close examination, we can see, that the noise at the end of tail is just left from previous encryption! Here are two subsequent buffers:
```

00000000: 10 00 FF FE 42 00 4F 00 4E 00 4E 00 49 00 45 00 ....B.O.N.N.I.E.
00000010: 20 00 47 00 4F 00 4C 00 44 00 53 00 54 00 45 00 .G.O.L.D.S.T.E.
00000020: 49 00 4E 00 9A 99 99 99 99 79 46 40 D4 07 07 19 I.N......yF@....
OrderID= 171 name= BONNIE GOLDSTEIN sum= 44.95 date= 2004 / 7 / 25
00000000: 0E 00 FF FE 54 00 48 00 45 00 52 00 45 00 53 00 ....T.H.E.R.E.S.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 54 00 55 00 54 00 54 00 4C 00 45 00 E..T.U.T.T.L.E.
00000020: 66 66 66 66 66 1E 63 40 D4 07 07 1A 00 07 07 19 fffff.c@........
OrderID= 172 name= THERESE TUTTLE sum= 152.95 date= 2004 / 7 / 26

```
(The last 070719 bytes are copied from the previous plaintext buffer.)
Another two subsequent buffers:
```

00000000: 0D 00 FF FE 4C 00 4F 00 52 00 45 00 4E 00 45 00 ....L.O.R.E.N.E.
00000010: 20 00 4F 00 54 00 4F 00 4F 00 4C 00 45 00 CD CC .O.T.O.O.L.E...
00000020: CC CC CC 3C 5E 40 D4 07 09 02
OrderID= 285 name= LORENE OTOOLE sum= 120.95 date= 2004 / 9 / 2
00000000: 0C 00 FF FE 4D 00 45 00 4C 00 41 00 4E 00 49 00 ....M.E.L.A.N.I.
00000010: 45 00 20 00 4B 00 49 00 52 00 4B 00 00 00 00 00 E. .K.I.R.K.....
00000020: 00 20 64 40 D4 07 09 02 00 02
d@......
OrderID= 286 name= MELANIE KIRK sum= 161.0 date= 2004 / 9 / 2

```

The last 02 byte has been copied from the previous plaintext buffer.
It's possible if the buffer used while encrypting is global and/or isn't clearing before each encryption. The final buffer size is also chaotic, nevertheless, the bug left uncaught because it doesn't affect decrypting process, which just ignores noise at the end. This is common mistake. It's been present in OpenSSL (Heartbleed bug).

\subsection*{8.7.9 Conclusion}

Summary: every practicing reverse engineer should be familiar with major crypto algorithms and also major cryptographical modes. Some books about it: 12.1.10 on page 1014 .

Encrypted database contents has been artificially constructed by me for the sake of demonstration. I've got most popular USA names and surnames from there: http://stackoverflow. com/questions/1803628/ raw-list-of-person-names, and combined them randomly. Dates and sums were also generated randomly.
All files used in this part are here: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/ master/examples/encrypted_DB1.

Nevertheless, many features like these l've observed in real-world software applications. This example is based on them.

\subsection*{8.7.10 Post Scriptum: brute-forcing IV}

The case you have just seen has been artificially constructed, but is based on a real application l've reverse engineered. When I've been working on it, I first noticed that IV has been generating using some 32-bit number, and I wasn't able to find a link between this value and OrderID. So I prepared to use brute-force, which is indeed possible here.

It's not a problem to enumerate all 32-bit values and try each as a base for IV. Then you decrypt the first 16-byte block and check for zero bytes, which are always at fixed places.

\subsection*{8.8 Overclocking Cointerra Bitcoin miner}

There was Cointerra Bitcoin miner, looking like that:


Figure 8.14: Board

And there was also (possibly leaked) utility \({ }^{25}\) which can set clock rate for the board. It runs on additional BeagleBone Linux ARM board (small board at bottom of the picture).

And the author was once asked, is it possible to hack this utility to see, which frequency can be set and which are not. And it is possible to tweak it?
The utility must be executed like that: ./cointool-overclock 00900 , where 900 is frequency in MHz . If the frequency is too high, utility will print "Error with arguments" and exit.

This is a fragment of code around reference to "Error with arguments" text string:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:0000ABC4 & STR & R3, [R11,\#var_28] \\
\hline .text:0000ABC8 & MOV & R3, \#optind \\
\hline .text:0000ABD0 & LDR & R3, [R3] \\
\hline .text:0000ABD4 & ADD & R3, R3, \#1 \\
\hline .text:0000ABD8 & MOV & R3, R3,LSL\#2 \\
\hline .text:0000ABDC & LDR & R2, [R11,\#argv] \\
\hline .text:0000ABE0 & ADD & R3, R2, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000ABE4 & LDR & R3, [R3] \\
\hline .text:0000ABE8 & MOV & R0, R3 ; nptr \\
\hline .text:0000ABEC & MOV & R1, \#0 ; endptr \\
\hline .text:0000ABF0 & MOV & R2, \#0 ; base \\
\hline .text:0000ABF4 & BL & strtoll \\
\hline .text:0000ABF8 & MOV & R2, R0 \\
\hline .text:0000ABFC & MOV & R3, R1 \\
\hline .text:0000AC00 & MOV & R3, R2 \\
\hline .text:0000AC04 & STR & R3, [R11,\#var_2C] \\
\hline .text:0000AC08 & MOV & R3, \#optind \\
\hline .text:0000AC10 & LDR & R3, [R3] \\
\hline .text:0000AC14 & ADD & R3, R3, \#2 \\
\hline .text:0000AC18 & MOV & R3, R3,LSL\#2 \\
\hline .text:0000AC1C & LDR & R2, [R11,\#argv] \\
\hline .text:0000AC20 & ADD & R3, R2, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000AC24 & LDR & R3, [R3] \\
\hline .text:0000AC28 & MOV & R0, R3 ; nptr \\
\hline .text:0000AC2C & MOV & R1, \#0 ; endptr \\
\hline .text:0000AC30 & MOV & R2, \#0 ; base \\
\hline .text:0000AC34 & BL & strtoll \\
\hline .text:0000AC38 & MOV & R2, R0 \\
\hline .text:0000AC3C & MOV & R3, R1 \\
\hline .text:0000AC40 & MOV & R3, R2 \\
\hline .text:0000AC44 & STR & R3, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
\hline .text:0000AC48 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_28] \\
\hline .text:0000AC4C & CMP & R3, \#0 \\
\hline .text:0000AC50 & BLT & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC54 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_28] \\
\hline .text:0000AC58 & CMP & R3, \#1 \\
\hline .text:0000AC5C & BGT & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC60 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_2C] \\
\hline .text:0000AC64 & CMP & R3, \#0 \\
\hline .text:0000AC68 & BLT & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC6C & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_2C] \\
\hline .text:0000AC70 & CMP & R3, \#3 \\
\hline .text:0000AC74 & BGT & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC78 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
\hline .text:0000AC7C & CMP & R3, \#0x31 \\
\hline .text:0000AC80 & BLE & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC84 & LDR & R2, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
\hline .text:0000AC88 & MOV & R3, \#950 \\
\hline .text:0000AC8C & CMP & R2, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000AC90 & BGT & errors_with_arguments \\
\hline .text:0000AC94 & LDR & R2, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
\hline .text:0000AC98 & MOV & R3, \#0x51EB851F \\
\hline .text:0000ACA0 & SMULL & R1, R3, R3, R2 \\
\hline .text:0000ACA4 & MOV & R1, R3, ASR\#4 \\
\hline .text:0000ACA8 & MOV & R3, R2,ASR\#31 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{25}\) Can be downloaded here: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/raw/master/examples/bitcoin miner/files/cointool-overclock
}
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
.text:00000ACAC & RSB & R3, R3, R1 \\
.text:0000ACB0 & MOV & R1, \#50 \\
.text:0000ACB4 & MUL & R3, R1, R3 \\
.text:0000ACB8 & RSB & R3, R3, R2 \\
.text:0000ACBC & CMP & R3, \#0 \\
.text:0000ACC0 & BEQ & loc_ACEC
\end{tabular}
-
t:0000ACC4
.text:0000ACC4 errors_with_arguments
.text:0000ACC4
.text:0000ACC4
.text:0000ACC8
.text:0000ACCC
.text:0000ACD0
.text:0000ACD4
.text:0000ACD8
.text:0000ACE0
.text:0000ACE4
.text:0000ACE8
LDR R3, [R11,\#argv]

LDR R3, [R3]
MOV R0, R3 ; path
BL \(\quad\) xpg_basename
MOV \(\overline{\mathrm{R} 3}, \mathrm{R} \overline{0}\)
MOV R0, \#aSErrorWithArgu ; format
MOV R1, R3
BL printf
B loc_ADD4
.text:0000ACEC ;
.text:0000ACEC
.text:0000ACEC loc_ACEC
.text:0000ACEC
.text:0000ACF0
.text:0000ACF4
.text:0000ACF8
.text:0000ACFC
.text:0000AD00
.text:0000AD04
.text:0000AD08
.text:0000AD08
.text:0000AD08
.text:0000AD08
.text:0000AD0C
.text:0000AD10
.text:0000AD14
.text:0000AD18
.text:0000AD1C
.text:0000AD20
.text:0000AD24
.text:0000AD24
.text:0000AD24 loc_AD24
; CODE XREF: main+6C0
.text:0000AD24
.text:0000AD28
.text:0000AD2C
.text:0000AD30
.text:0000AD34
.text:0000AD38
.text:0000AD3C
.text:0000AD40
.text:0000AD40
.text:0000AD40 loc_AD40
.text:0000AD40
.text:0000AD44
.text:0000AD48
.text:0000AD4C
.text:0000AD50
.text:0000AD54
.text:0000AD58
.text:0000AD5C
.text:0000AD5C
.text:0000AD5C loc_AD5C
.text:0000AD5C
.text:0000AD60
.text:0000AD64
.text:0000AD68
.text:0000AD6C
.text:0000AD70
.text:0000AD74
.text:0000AD74 jump_to_write_power
jump_to_write_power ; CODE XREF: main+6B0
.text:0000AD74
    loc_AD40 ; CODE XREF: main+6DC
    LDR R2, [R11,\#third_argument]
    MOV R3, \#999
    CMP R2, R3
    BGT loc_AD5C
    MOV R3, \#0x55
    STR R3, [R11,\#unk_constant]
    B jump_to_write_power
;
loc_AD5C
                                    ; CODE XREF: main+6F8
        LDR R2, [R11,\#third_argument]
        MOV R3, \#1099
        CMP R2, R3
        BGT jump_to_write_power
        MOV R3, \#0x50
        STR R3, [R11,\#unk constant]
            ; main+6CC ...
; CODE XREF: main+66C
R2, [R11,\#third_argument]
R3, \#499
R2, R3
loc_AD08
R3, \#0x64
R3, [R11,\#unk_constant]
jump_to_write_power
; CODE XREF: main+6A4
loc_AD08
LDR R2, [R11,\#third_argument]
MOV R3, \#799
CMP R2, R3
BGT loc_AD24
MOV R3, \#0x5F
STR R3, [R11,\#unk_constant]
B jump_to_write_power
loc_AD24 \(\quad\) CODE XREF: main
LDR
    MOV R3, \#899
    CMP R2, R3
    BGT loc_AD40
    MOV R3, \#0x5A
    STR R3, [R11,\#unk_constant]
    B jump_to_write_power

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:0000AD74 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_28] \\
\hline .text:0000AD78 & UXTB & R1, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000AD7C & LDR & R3, [R11,\#var_2C] \\
\hline .text:0000AD80 & UXTB & R2, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000AD84 & LDR & R3, [R11,\#unk_constant] \\
\hline .text:0000AD88 & UXTB & R3, R3 \\
\hline .text:0000AD8C & LDR & R0, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
\hline .text:0000AD90 & UXTH & R0, R0 \\
\hline .text:0000AD94 & STR & R0, [SP,\#0x44+var_44] \\
\hline .text:0000AD98 & LDR & R0, [R11,\#var_24] \\
\hline .text:0000AD9C & BL & write_power \\
\hline .text:0000ADA0 & LDR & R0, [ \(\left.\mathrm{R} 11, \# v a r \_24\right]\) \\
\hline .text:0000ADA4 & MOV & R1, \#0x5A \\
\hline .text:0000ADA8 & BL & read_loop \\
\hline .text:0000ADAC & B & loc_ADD4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Function names were present in debugging information of the original binary, like write_power, read_loop. But labels inside functions were named by me.
optind name looks familiar. It is from getopt *NIX library intended for command-line parsing-well, this is exactly what happens inside. Then, the 3rd argument (where frequency value is to be passed) is converted from a string to a number using a call to strtoll() function.

The value is then checked against various constants. At OxACEC, it's checked, if it is lesser or equal to 499 , and if it is so, \(0 \times 64\) is to be passed to write power() function (which sends a command through USB using send_msg()). If it is greater than 499, jump to 0xAD08 is occurred.

At \(0 \times A D 08\) it's checked, if it's lesser or equal to 799 . \(0 \times 5 \mathrm{~F}\) is then passed to write_power() function in case of success.

There are more checks: for 899 at \(0 \times A D 24\), for \(0 \times 999\) at \(0 \times A D 40\) and finally, for 1099 at \(0 x A D 5 C\). If the input frequency is lesser or equal to \(1099,0 \times 50\) will be passed (at \(0 \times A D 6 C\) ) to write power() function. And there is some kind of bug. If the value is still greater than 1099, the value itself is passed into write_power( ) function. Oh, it's not a bug, because we can't get here: value is checked first against 950 at 0xAC88, and if it is greater, error message will be displayed and the utility will finish.
Now the table between frequency in MHz and value passed to write_power() function:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline MHz & hexadecimal & decimal \\
\hline 499 MHz & \(0 \times 64\) & 100 \\
\hline 799 MHz & \(0 \times 5 \mathrm{f}\) & 95 \\
\hline 899 MHz & \(0 \times 5 \mathrm{a}\) & 90 \\
\hline 999 MHz & \(0 \times 55\) & 85 \\
\hline 1099 MHz & \(0 \times 50\) & 80 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

As it seems, a value passed to the board is gradually decreasing during frequency increasing.
Now we see that value of 950 MHz is a hardcoded limit, at least in this utility. Can we trick it?
Let's back to this piece of code:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
.text:0000AC84 & LDR & R2, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
.text:0000AC88 & MOV & R3, \#950 \\
.text:0000AC8C & CMP & R2, R3 \\
.text:0000AC90 & BGT & errors_with_arguments ; I've patched here to 00000000
\end{tabular}

We must disable BGT branch instruction at 0xAC90 somehow. And this is ARM in ARM mode, because, as we see, all addresses are increasing by 4 , i.e., each instruction has size of 4 bytes. NOP (no operation) instruction in ARM mode is just four zero bytes: 00000000 . So by writing four zeros at 0xAC90 address (or physical offset in file \(0 \times 2 \mathrm{C} 90\) ) we can disable the check.

Now it's possible to set frequencies up to 1050 MHz . Even more is possible, but due to the bug, if input value is greater than 1099, a value as is in MHz will be passed to the board, which is incorrect.

I didn't go further, but if I had to, I would try to decrease a value which is passed to write_power() function.

Now the scary piece of code which I skipped at first:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline. text:0000AC94 & LDR & R2, [R11,\#third_argument] \\
.text:0000AC98 & MOV & R3, \#0x51EB851F_- \\
.text:0000ACA0 & SMULL & R1, R3, R3, R2; R3=3rg_arg/3.125 \\
.text:0000ACA4 & MOV & R1, R3, ASR\#4; R1=R3/16=3rg_arg/50 \\
.text:0000ACA8 & MOV & R3, R2,ASR\#31; R3=MSB(3rg_arg) \\
.text:0000ACAC & RSB & R3, R3, R1; R3=3rd_arg/50 \\
.text:0000ACB0 & M0V & R1, \#50 \\
.text:0000ACB4 & MUL & R3, R1, R3 ; R3=50*(3rd_arg/50) \\
.text:0000ACB8 & RSB & R3, R3, R2 \\
.text:0000ACBC & CMP & R3, \#0 \\
.text:0000ACC0 & BEQ & loc_ACEC \\
.text:0000ACC4 & \\
.text:0000ACC4 errors_with_arguments
\end{tabular}

Division via multiplication is used here, and constant is \(0 \times 51 E B 851 F\). I wrote a simple programmer's calculator \({ }^{26}\) for myself. And I have there a feature to calculate modulo inverse.
```

modinv32(0x51EB851F)
Warning, result is not integer: 3.125000
(unsigned) dec: 3 hex: 0x3 bin: 11

```

That means that SMULL instruction at 0xACA0 is basically divides 3rd argument by 3.125 . In fact, all modinv32() function in my calculator does, is this:
\[
\frac{1}{\frac{\text { input }}{2^{32}}}=\frac{2^{32}}{i n p u t}
\]

Then there are additional shifts and now we see than \(3 r g\) argument is just divided by 50 . And then it's multiplied by 50 again. Why? This is simplest check, if the input value is can be divided by 50 evenly. If the value of this expression is non-zero, \(x\) can't be divided by 50 evenly:
\[
x-\left(\left(\frac{x}{50}\right) \cdot 50\right)
\]

This is in fact simple way to calculate remainder of division.
And then, if the remainder is non-zero, error message is displayed. So this utility takes frequency values in form like 850, 900, 950, 1000, etc., but not 855 or 911.

That's it! If you do something like that, please be warned that you may damage your board, just as in case of overclocking other devices like CPUs, GPU \({ }^{27}\) s, etc. If you have a Cointerra board, do this on your own risk!

\subsection*{8.9 Breaking simple executable cryptor}

I've got an executable file which is encrypted by relatively simple encryption. Here is it (only executable section is left here).

First, all encryption function does is just adds number of position in buffer to the byte. Here is how this can be encoded in Python:

Listing 8.7: Python script
```

\#!/usr/bin/env python
def e(i, k):
return chr ((ord(i)+k) % 256)

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{26}\) https://github.com/DennisYurichev/progcalc
\({ }^{27}\) Graphics Processing Unit
}
def encrypt(buf):
return e(buf[0], 0)+e(buf[1], 1)+e(buf[2], 2) +e(buf[3], 3)+e(buf[4], 4)+e(buf[5], 5)+ 2
\(\longrightarrow e(b u f[6], 6)+e(b u f[7], 7)+\) \(e(b u f[8], 8)+e(b u f[9], 9)+e(b u f[10], 10)+e(b u f[11], 11)+e(b u f[12], 12)+e(b u f \swarrow\)
\(\rightarrow[13], 13)+e(b u f[14], 14)+e(b u f[15], 15)\)
Hence, if you encrypt buffer with 16 zeros, you'll get \(0,1,2,3 \ldots 12,13,14,15\).
Propagating Cipher Block Chaining (PCBC) is also used, here is how it works:


\section*{Propagating Cipher Block Chaining (PCBC) mode encryption}

Figure 8.15: Propagating Cipher Block Chaining encryption (image is taken from Wikipedia article)

The problem is that it's too boring to recover IV (Initialization Vector) each time. Brute-force is also not an option, because IV is too long (16 bytes). Let's see, if it's possible to recover IV for arbitrary encrypted executable file?
Let's try simple frequency analysis. This is 32 -bit x86 executable code, so let's gather statistics about most frequent bytes and opcodes. I tried huge oracle.exe file from Oracle RDBMS version 11.2 for windows \(\times 86\) and l've found that the most frequent byte (no surprise) is zero ( \(10 \%\) ). The next most frequent byte is (again, no surprise) \(0 \times \mathrm{xFF}(5 \%)\). The next is \(0 \times 8 \mathrm{~B}\) ( \(5 \%\) ).
\(0 \times 8 \mathrm{~B}\) is opcode for MOV, this is indeed one of the most busy \(\times 86\) instructions. Now what about popularity of zero byte? If compiler needs to encode value bigger than 127, it has to use 32 -bit displacement instead of 8 -bit one, but large values are very rare, so it is padded by zeros. This is at least in LEA, MOV, PUSH, CALL.

For example:
\begin{tabular}{|llllllll|}
\hline \(8 D\) & B0 & 28 & 01 & 00 & 00 & lea & esi, \\
8D & BF & 40 & 38 & 00 & 00 & leax+128h] & edi, \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Displacements bigger than 127 are very popular, but they are rarely exceeds \(0 \times 10000\) (indeed, such large memory buffers/structures are also rare).
Same story with MOV, large constants are rare, the most heavily used are 0, 1, 10, 100, \(2^{n}\), and so on. Compiler has to pad small constants by zeros to represent them as 32-bit values:
\begin{tabular}{|llllll}
\hline BF 0200 & 00 & 00 & mov & edi, 2 \\
BF 01 & 00 & 00 & 00 & mov & edi, 1
\end{tabular}

Now about 00 and FF bytes combined: jumps (including conditional) and calls can pass execution flow forward or backwards, but very often, within the limits of the current executable module. If forward, displacement is not very big and also padded with zeros. If backwards, displacement is represented as negative value, so padded with FF bytes. For example, transfer execution flow forward:
\begin{tabular}{|lllllll}
\hline E8 & 43 & \(0 C\) & 00 & 00 & call & function1 \\
E8 5C 00 00 00 & call & -function2 \\
OF 84 F0 0A 00 00 & jz & loc_4F09A0
\end{tabular}
```

0F 84 EB 00 00 00 jz loc_4EFBB8

```

Backwards:
\begin{tabular}{|llllll|}
\hline E8 & 79 & \(0 C\) & FE FF & call & function1 \\
E8 & F4 & 16 & FF FF & call & function2 \\
\(0 F\) & 84 & F8 & FB FF FF & jz & loc_8212BC \\
\(0 F\) & 84 & 06 & FD FF FF & jz & loc_FF1E7D \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

FF byte is also very often occurred in negative displacements like these:
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline \(8 D 85\) & \(1 E\) & FF FF FF \\
\(8 D\) & lea & eax, \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So far so good. Now we have to try various 16-byte keys, decrypt executable section and measure how often 00, FF ad 8B bytes are occurred. Let's also keep in sight how PCBC decryption works:


\section*{Propagating Cipher Block Chaining (PCBC) mode decryption}

Figure 8.16: Propagating Cipher Block Chaining decryption (image is taken from Wikipedia article)

The good news is that we don't really have to decrypt whole piece of data, but only slice by slice, this is exactly how I did in my previous example: 9.1.5 on page 943.
Now I'm trying all possible bytes (0..255) for each byte in key and just pick the byte producing maximal amount of 00/FF/8B bytes in a decrypted slice:
```

\#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys, hexdump, array, string, operator
KEY_LEN=16
def chunks(l, n):
\# split n by l-byte chunks
\# http://stackoverflow.com/questions/312443/how-do-you-split-a-list-into-evenly-sized-\swarrow
chunks-in-python
n = max(1, n)
return [l[i:i + n] for i in range(0, len(l), n)]
def read_file(fname):
file=open(fname, mode='rb')
content=file.read()
file.close()
return content
def decrypt_byte (c, key):
return chr((ord(c)-key) % 256)
def XOR_PCBC_step (IV, buf, k):

```
```

    prev=IV
    rt=""
    for c in buf:
        new c=decrypt byte(c, k)
        plain=chr(ord(new_c)^ord(prev))
        prev=chr(ord(c)^ord(plain))
        rt=rt+plain
    return rt
    each_Nth_byte=[""]*KEY_LEN
content=read_file(sys.argv[1])

# split inpu\overline{t by 16-byte chunks:}

all_chunks=chunks(content, KEY_LEN)
for c in all chunks:
for i in range(KEY LEN):
each_Nth_byte[i]=each_Nth_byte[i] + c[i]

# try each byte of key

for N in range(KEY_LEN):
print "N=", N
stat={}
for i in range(256):
tmp_key=chr(i)
tmp=XOR PCBC step(tmp key,each Nth byte[N], N)
\# count 0, FFs and 8Bs in decrypted buffer:
important bytes=tmp.count('\x00')+tmp.count('\xFF')+tmp.count('\x8B')
stat[i]=important bytes
sorted_stat = sorted(stat.iteritems(), key=operator.itemgetter(1), reverse=True)
print sorted_stat[0]

```
(Source code can downloaded here.)
I run it and here is a key for which 00/FF/8B bytes presence in decrypted buffer is maximal:
```

N= 0
(147, 1224)
N= 1
(94, 1327)
N= 2
(252, 1223)
N= 3
(218, 1266)
N= 4
(38, 1209)
N= 5
(192, 1378)
N= 6
(199, 1204)
N= 7
(213, 1332)
N= 8
(225, 1251)
N= 9
(112, 1223)
N= 10
(143, 1177)
N= 11
(108, 1286)
N= 12
(10, 1164)
N= 13
(3, 1271)
N= 14
(128, 1253)
N= 15
(232, 1330)

```

Let's write decryption utility with the key we got:
```

\#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys, hexdump, array
def xor_strings(s,t):
\# https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XOR_cipher\#Example_implementation
"""xor two strings together"""
return "".join(chr(ord(a)^ord(b)) for a,b in zip(s,t))
IV=array.array('B', [147, 94, 252, 218, 38, 192, 199, 213, 225, 112, 143, 108, 10, 3, 128, २
\succ 232]).tostring()
def chunks(l, n):
n = max(1, n)
return [l[i:i + n] for i in range(0, len(l), n)]
def read_file(fname):
file=open(fname, mode='rb')
content=file.read()
file.close()
return content
def decrypt_byte(i, k):
return chr ((ord(i)-k) % 256)
def decrypt(buf):
return "".join(decrypt_byte(buf[i], i) for i in range(16))
fout=open(sys.argv[2], mode='wb')
prev=IV
content=read_file(sys.argv[1])
tmp=chunks(content, 16)
for c in tmp:
new_c=decrypt(c)
p=xōr_strings (new_c, prev)
prev=xor_strings(c, p)
fout.write(p)
fout.close()

```
(Source code can downloaded here.)
Let's check resulting file:
\$ objdump -b binary -m i386 -D decrypted.bin
...
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 5: & 8b ff & mov & \%edi, \%edi \\
\hline 7: & 55 & push & \%ebp \\
\hline \(8:\) & 8 b ec & mov & \%esp, \%ebp \\
\hline a: & 51 & push & \%ecx \\
\hline b: & 53 & push & \%ebx \\
\hline c: & 33 db & xor & \%ebx, \%ebx \\
\hline e: & 43 & inc & \%ebx \\
\hline f: & 84 1d a0 e2 0501 & test & \%bl, 0x105e2a0 \\
\hline 15: & 7509 & jne & \(0 \times 20\) \\
\hline 17: & ff 7508 & pushl & 0x8(\%ebp) \\
\hline 1a: & ff 15 b0 130001 & call & *0x10013b0 \\
\hline 20: & 6a 6c & push & \$0x6c \\
\hline 22: & ff 3554 d0 0101 & pushl & 0x101d054 \\
\hline 28: & ff 15 b4 130001 & call & *0x10013b4 \\
\hline 2e: & 8945 fc & mov & \%eax,-0x4 (\%ebp) \\
\hline 31: & 85 c0 & test & \%eax,\%eax \\
\hline 33: & 0f 84 d9 000000 & je & 0x112 \\
\hline 39: & 56 & push & \%esi \\
\hline 3a: & 57 & push & \%edi \\
\hline 3 b : & 6a 00 & push & \$0x0 \\
\hline 3d: & 50 & push & \%eax \\
\hline 3e: & ff 15 b8 130001 & call & *0x10013b8 \\
\hline 44 : & 8b 35 bc 130001 & mov & 0x10013bc,\%esi \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 4a: & 8b f8 & mov & \%eax,\%edi \\
\hline 4c: & al e0 e2 0501 & mov & \(0 \times 105 \mathrm{e} 2 \mathrm{e} 0\),\%eax \\
\hline 51: & 3 b 05 e4 e2 0501 & cmp & \(0 \times 105 \mathrm{e} 2 \mathrm{e} 4\),\%eax \\
\hline 57: & 7512 & jne & 0x6b \\
\hline 59: & 53 & push & \%ebx \\
\hline 5a: & 6a 03 & push & \$0x3 \\
\hline 5c: & 57 & push & \%edi \\
\hline 5d: & ff d6 & call & *\%esi \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Yes, this is seems correctly disassembled piece of x86 code. The whole dectyped file can be downloaded here.

In fact, this is text section from regedit.exe from Windows 7. But this example is based on a real case I encountered, so just executable is different (and key), algorithm is the same.

\subsection*{8.9.1 Other ideas to consider}

What if I would fail with such simple frequency analysis? There are other ideas on how to measure correctness of decrypted/decompressed x86 code:
- Many modern compilers aligns functions on \(0 x 10\) border. So the space left before is filled with NOPs (0x90) or other NOP instructions with known opcodes: .1.7 on page 1038.
- Perhaps, the most frequent pattern in any assembly language is function call:

PUSH chain / CALL / ADD ESP, X. This sequence can easily detected and found. I've even gathered statistics about average number of function arguments: 11.2 on page 999. (Hence, this is average length of PUSH chain.)

Read more about incorrectly/correctly disassembled code: 5.11 on page 726.

\subsection*{8.10 SAP}

\subsection*{8.10.1 About SAP client network traffic compression}
(Tracing the connection between the TDW_NOCOMPRESS SAPGUI \({ }^{28}\) environment variable and the pesky annoying pop-up window and the actual dāta compression routine.)

It is known that the network traffic between SAPGUI and SAP is not encrypted by default, but compressed (see here \({ }^{29}\) and here \({ }^{30}\) ).

It is also known that by setting the environment variable TDW_NOCOMPRESS to 1 , it is possible to turn the network packet compression off.

But you will see an annoying pop-up window that cannot be closed:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{28}\) SAP GUI client
\({ }^{29}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17221
\({ }^{30}\) blog.yurichev.com
}

\section*{■ SAP}


Figure 8.17: Screenshot

Let's see if we can remove the window somehow.
But before this, let's see what we already know.
First: we know that the environment variable TDW_NOCOMPRESS is checked somewhere inside the SAPGUI client.

Second: a string like "data compression switched off" must be present somewhere in it.
With the help of the FAR file manager \({ }^{31}\) we can found that both of these strings are stored in the SAPguilib.dII file.

So let's open SAPguilib.dII in IDA and search for the "TDW_NOCOMPRESS" string. Yes, it is present and there is only one reference to it.

We see the following fragment of code (all file offsets are valid for SAPGUI 720 win32, SAPguilib.dll file version 7200,1,0,9009):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:6440D51B & lea & eax, [ebp+2108h+var_211C] \\
\hline .text:6440D51E & push & eax ; int \\
\hline .text:6440D51F & push & offset aTdw_nocompress ; "TDW_NOCOMPRESS" \\
\hline .text:6440D524 & mov & byte ptr [edi+15h], 0 \\
\hline .text:6440D528 & call & chk_env \\
\hline .text:6440D52D & pop & ecx \\
\hline .text:6440D52E & pop & ecx \\
\hline .text:6440D52F & push & offset byte_64443AF8 \\
\hline .text:6440D534 & lea & ecx, [ebp+2108h+var_211C] \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; demangled name: int ATL::CStringT::Compare(char const *)const} \\
\hline .text:6440D537 & call & ds:mfc90_1603 \\
\hline .text:6440D53D & test & eax, eax \\
\hline .text:6440D53F & jz & short loc_6440D55A \\
\hline .text:6440D541 & lea & ecx, [ebp+2108h+var_211C] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; demangled name: const char* } \\
& \text {.text:6440D544 }
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { ATL: : C } \\
\text { call }
\end{gathered}
\] & mpleStringT: :operator PCXSTR ds:mfc90 910 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{31}\) http://go.yurichev.com/17347
}
\begin{tabular}{|lll|}
\hline. text:6440D54A & push & eax \\
.text:6440D54B & call & ds:atoi \\
.text:6440D551 & test & eax, eax \\
.text:6440D553 & setnz & al \\
.text:6440D556 & pop & ecx \\
.text:6440D557 & mov & [edi+15h], al \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The string returned by chk env() via its second argument is then handled by the MFC string functions and then atoi ( \()^{32}\) is called. After that, the numerical value is stored in edi+15h.

Also take a look at the chk_env() function (we gave this name to it manually):
```

.text:64413F20 ; int __cdecl chk_env(char *VarName, int)
.text:64413F20 chk env
.text:64413F20
.text:64413F20 DstSize = dword ptr -0Ch
.text:64413F20 var_8 = dword ptr -8
.text:64413F20 Dst\overline{Buf = dword ptr -4}
.text:64413F20 VarName = dword ptr 8
.text:64413F20 arg_4 = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:64413F20
.text:64413F20 push ebp
.text:64413F21 mov ebp, esp
.text:64413F23 sub esp, 0Ch
.text:64413F26 mov [ebp+DstSize], 0
.text:64413F2D mov [ebp+DstBuf], 0
.text:64413F34 push offset unk_6444C88C
.text:64413F39 mov ecx, [ebp+arg_4]

```
; (demangled name) ATL::CStringT::operator=(char const *)
.text:64413F3C call ds:mfc90_820
.text:64413F42 mov eax, [eb \(\bar{p}+\) VarName]
.text:64413F45 push eax ; VarName
.text:64413F46 mov ecx, [ebp+DstSize]
.text:64413F49 push ecx ; DstSize
.text:64413F4A
.text:64413F4D
mov edx, [ebp+DstBuf]
push edx ; DstBuf
lea eax, [ebp+DstSize]
.text:64413F4E
.text:64413F51
.text:64413F52
.text:64413F58
.text:64413F5B
.text:64413F5E
.text:64413F62
.text:64413F64
.text:64413F66
eax ; ReturnSize
call ds:getenv_s
add esp, 10h
mov [ebp+var_8], eax
cmp [ebp+var_8], 0
jz short loc_64413F68
xor eax, eax
jmp short loc_64413FBC
.text:64413F68
.text:64413F68 loc_64413F68:
.text:64413F68 cmp [ebp+DstSize], 0
.text:64413F6C jnz short loc_64413F72
.text:64413F6E
xor eax, eax
.text:64413F70 jmp short loc_64413FBC
.text:64413F72
.text:64413F72 loc_64413F72:
.text:64413F72 mov ecx, [ebp+DstSize]
.text:64413F75 push ecx
.text:64413F76 mov ecx, [ebp+arg_4]
; demangled name: ATL::CSimpleStringT<char, 1>::Preallocate(int)
.text:64413F79 call ds:mfc90_2691
.text:64413F7F mov [ebp+DstBuf], eax
.text:64413F82 mov edx, [ebp+VarName]
.text:64413F85 push edx ; VarName
.text:64413F86 mov eax, [ebp+DstSize]
.text:64413F89 push eax ; DstSize
.text:64413F8A
.text:64413F8D
mov ecx, [ebp+DstBuf]
push ecx ; DstBuf
.text:64413F8E
lea edx, [ebp+DstSize]
.text:64413F91 push edx ; ReturnSize

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{32}\) standard C library function that converts the digits in a string to a number
}
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\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:64413F92 & call & ds:getenv_s \\
\hline .text:64413F98 & add & esp, 10h \\
\hline .text:64413F9B & mov & [ebp+var_8], eax \\
\hline .text:64413F9E & push & 0FFFFFFFFh \\
\hline .text:64413FA0 & mov & ecx, [ebp+arg_4] \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{; demangled name: ATL::CSimpleStringT: ReleaseBuffer(int)} \\
\hline .text:64413FA3 & call & ds:mfc90_5835 \\
\hline .text:64413FA9 & cmp & [ebp+var_8], 0 \\
\hline .text:64413FAD & jz & short loç 64413FB3 \\
\hline .text:64413FAF & xor & eax, eax \\
\hline .text:64413FB1 & jmp & short loc_64413FBC \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.text:64413FB3} \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.text:64413FB3 loc_64413FB3:} \\
\hline .text:64413FB3 & mov & ecx, [ebp+arg_4] \\
\hline ; demangled name: const char* & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{ATL::CSimpleStringT::operator PCXSTR} \\
\hline .text:64413FB6 & call & ds:mfc90_910 \\
\hline .text:64413FBC & & \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{.text:64413FBC loc_64413FBC:} \\
\hline .text:64413FBC & & \\
\hline .text:64413FBC & mov & esp, ebp \\
\hline .text:64413FBE & pop & ebp \\
\hline .text:64413FBF & retn & \\
\hline .text:64413FBF chk_env & endp & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Yes. The getenv_s() \({ }^{33}\)
function is a Microsoft security-enhanced version of getenv( \()^{34}\).
There are also some MFC string manipulations.
Lots of other environment variables are checked as well. Here is a list of all variables that are being checked and what SAPGUI would write to its trace log when logging is turned on:
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline DPTRACE & "GUI-OPTION: Trace set to \%d" \\
TDW_HEXDUMP & "GUI-OPTION: Hexdump enabled" \\
TDW_WORKDIR & "GUI-OPTION: working directory "\%s" \\
TDW_SPLASHSRCEENOFF & "GUI-OPTION: Splash Screen Off" \\
& "GUI-OPTION: Splash Screen On" \\
TDW_REPLYTIMEOUT & "GUI-OPTION: reply timeout \%d milliseconds" \\
TDW_PLAYBACKTIMEOUT & "GUI-OPTION: PlaybackTimeout set to \%d milliseconds" \\
TDW_NOCOMPRESS & "GUI-OPTION: no compression read" \\
TDW_EXPERT & "GUI-OPTION: expert mode" \\
TDW_PLAYBACKPROGRESS & "GUI-OPTION: PlaybackProgress" \\
TDW_PLAYBACKNETTRAFFIC & "GUI-OPTION: PlaybackNetTraffic" \\
TDW_PLAYLOG & "GUI-OPTION: /PlayLog is YES, file \%s" \\
TDW_PLAYTIME & "GUI-OPTION: /PlayTime set to \%d milliseconds" \\
TDW_LOGFILE & "GUI-OPTION: TDW_LOGFILE ‘\%s"" \\
TDW_WAN & "GUI-OPTION: WAN- low speed connection enabled" \\
TDW_FULLMENU & "GUI-OPTION: FullMenu enabled" \\
SAP_CP / SAP_CODEPAGE & "GUI-OPTION: SAP_CODEPAGE ‘\%d" \\
UPDOWNLOAD_CP & "GUI-OPTION: UPDOWNLOAD_CP "\%d" \\
SNC_PARTNERNAME & "GUI-OPTION: SNC name "\%s" \\
SNC_QOP & "GUI-OPTION: SNC_QOP ‘\%s" \\
SNC_LIB & "GUI-OPTION: SNC is set to: \%s" \\
SAPGUI_INPLACE & "GUI-OPTION: environment variable SAPGUI_INPLACE is on" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The settings for each variable are written in the array via a pointer in the EDI register. EDI is set before the function call:
\begin{tabular}{|lll}
\hline .text:6440EE00 & lea & edi, [ebp+2884h+var_2884] ; options here like +0x15... \\
.text:6440EE03 & lea & ecx, [esi+24h] \\
.text:6440EE06 & call & load_command_line \\
.text:6440EE0B & mov & edi, eax \\
.text:6440EE0D & xor & ebx, ebx \\
.text:6440EE0F & cmp & edi, ebx \\
.text:6440EE11 & jz & short loc_6440EE42 \\
.text:6440EE13 & push & edi
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{33}\) MSDN
\({ }^{34}\) Standard C library returning environment variable
}
```

.text:6440EE14
push offset aSapguiStoppedA ; "Sapgui stopped after \swarrow
commandline interp"...
.text:6440EE19 push dword 644F93E8
.text:6440EE1F call FEWTräceError

```

Now, can we find the "data record mode switched on" string?
Yes, and the only reference is in
CDwsGui:: PrepareInfoWindow().
How do we get know the class/method names? There are a lot of special debugging calls that write to the log files, like:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:64405160 & push & dword ptr [esi+2854h] & \\
\hline .text:64405166 & push & offset aCdwsguiPrepare & "\nCDwsGui::PrepareInfoWindow: \\
\hline \(\checkmark\) sapgui env" & & & \\
\hline .text:6440516B & push & dword ptr [esi+2848h] & \\
\hline .text:64405171 & call & dbg & \\
\hline .text:64405176 & add & esp, 0Ch & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
...or:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline .text:6440237A & push & eax \\
\hline .text:6440237B & push & offset aCclientStart_6 ; "CClient::Start: set shortcut ح \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { buser to '\\
%"... } \\
& \text {.text:64402380 }
\end{aligned}
\] & push & dword ptr [edi+4] \\
\hline .text:64402383 & call & dbg \\
\hline .text:64402388 & add & esp, 0Ch \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It is very useful.
So let's see the contents of this pesky annoying pop-up window's function:
```

.text:64404F4F CDwsGui__PrepareInfoWindow proc near
.text:64404F4F
.text:64404F4F pvParam = byte ptr -3Ch
.text:64404F4F var_38 = dword ptr -38h
.text:64404F4F var_34 = dword ptr -34h
.text:64404F4F rc = tagRECT ptr -2Ch
.text:64404F4F cy = dword ptr -1Ch
.text:64404F4F h = dword ptr -18h
.text:64404F4F var_14 = dword ptr -14h
.text:64404F4F var_10 = dword ptr -10h
.text:64404F4F var_4 = dword ptr -4
.text:64404F4F
.text:64404F4F
.text:64404F51
.text:64404F56
.text:64404F5B
.text:64404F5D
.text:64404F5F
.text:64404F62
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT(void)
.text:64404F65 call ds:mfc90_316
.text:64404F6B mov [ebp+var_4], ebx
.text:64404F6E lea edi, [esi+2854h]
.text:64404F74 push offset aEnvironmentInf ; "Environment information:\n"
.text:64404F79 mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator=(char const *)
.text:64404F7B call ds:mfc90_820
.text:64404F81 cmp [esi+38h], ebx
.text:64404F84 mov ebx, ds:mfc90 2539
.text:64404F8A jbe short loc_64404FA9
.text:64404F8C push dword ptr [esi+34h]
.text:64404F8F
.text:64404F92
.text:64404F97
lea eax, [ebp+var_14]
push offset aWorkingDirecto ; "working directory: '\%s'\n"
push eax

```
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::Format(char const *,...)
.text:64404F98 call ebx ; mfc90_2539
.text:64404F9A
.text:64404F9D
.text:64404FA0
.text:64404FA1
add esp, 0Ch
lea eax, [ebp+var_14]
push eax
mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(class ATL::CSimpleStringT<char, 1> const \&)
.text:64404FA3 call ds:mfc90_941
.text:64404FA9
.text:64404FA9 loc_64404FA9:
.text:64404FA9 mov eax, [esi+38h]
.text:64404FAC test eax, eax
.text:64404FAE jbe short loc_64404FD3
.text:64404FB0
push eax
.text:64404FB1 lea eax, [ebp+var_14]
.text:64404FB4 push offset aTraceLevelDAct ; "trace level \\%d activated\n"
.text:64404FB9 push eax
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::Format(char const *,...)
.text:64404FBA call ebx ; mfc90_2539
.text:64404FBC add esp, 0Ch
.text:64404FBF lea eax, [ebp+var_14]
.text:64404FC2
push eax
mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(class ATL::CSimpleStringT<char, 1> const \&)
.text:64404FC5 call ds:mfc90_941
.text:64404FCB xor ebx, ebx
.text:64404FCD
inc ebx
.text:64404FCE mov [ebp+var_10], ebx
.text:64404FD1 jmp short loc_64404FD6
.text:64404FD3
.text:64404FD3 loc_64404FD3:
.text:64404FD3 xor ebx, ebx
.text:64404FD5 inc ebx
.text:64404FD6
.text:64404FD6 loc_64404FD6:
.text:64404FD6 cmp [esi+38h], ebx
.text:64404FD9 jbe short loc_64404FF1
.text:64404FDB cmp dword ptr [esi+2978h], 0
.text:64404FE2 jz short loc 64404FF1
.text:64404FE4 push offset aHexdumpInTrace ; "hexdump in trace activated \(\backslash n "\)
.text:64404FE9 mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(char const *)
.text:64404FEB call ds:mfc90_945
.text:64404FF1
.text:64404FF1 loc_64404FF1:
.text:64404FF1
.text:64404FF1 cmp byte ptr [esi+78h], 0
.text:64404FF5 jz short loc_64405007
.text:64404FF7 push offset aLōggingActivat ; "logging activated\n"
.text:64404FFC mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(char const *)
.text:64404FFE call ds:mfc90_945
.text:64405004 mov [ebp+var_10], ebx
.text:64405007
.text:64405007 loc_64405007:
.text:64405007 cmp byte ptr [esi+3Dh], 0
.text:6440500B
jz short bypass
.text:6440500D push offset aDataCompressio ; "data compression switched off \(\swarrow 2\)
\(\rightarrow \mathrm{n}\) "
.text:64405012 mov ecx, edi
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(char const *)
.text:64405014 call ds:mfc90_945
.text:6440501A mov [ebp+var_10], ebx
.text:6440501D
.text:6440501D bypass:

; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator+=(char const *)
.text:6440504A call ds:mfc90_945
.text:64405050
.text:64405052
.text:64405053
xor edi, edi
push edi ; fWinIni
lea eax, [ebp+pvParam]
push eax ; pvParam
push edi ; uiParam
push 30h ; uiAction
.text:64405057
.text:64405058
.text:6440505A
.text:64405060
call ds:SystemParametersInfoA
mov eax, [ebp+var_34]
cmp eax, 1600
jle short loc_64405072
.text:64405068
cda
cdq eax, edx
.text:6440506B
sub eax, edx
.text:6440506D
sar eax, 1
mov [ebp+var_34], eax
.text:64405072
loc_64405072:
.text:64405072 push edi ; hWnd
.text:64405073
mov [ebp+cy], 0A0h
.text:6440507A
call ds:GetDC
mov [ebp+var_10], eax
mov ebx, 12Ch
cmp eax, edi
jz loc_64405113
push 11h ; i
call ds:GetStockObject
mov edi, ds:Select0bject
push eax ; h
push [ebp+var_10] ; hdc
call edi ; SelectObject
and [ebp+rc.left], 0
and [ebp+rc.top], 0
mov [ebp+h], eax
push 401h ; format
lea eax, [ebp+rc]
push eax ; lprc
lea ecx, [esi+2854h]
mov [ebp+rc.right], ebx
mov [ebp+rc.bottom], 0B4h
-text:644050C1
; demangled name: ATL::CSimpleStringT::GetLength(void)
.text:644050C8 call ds:mfc90_3178
.text:644050CE push eax ; cchText
.text:644050CF lea ecx, [esi+2854h]
; demangled name: const char* ATL::CSimpleStringT::operator PCXSTR
.text:644050D5 call ds:mfc90_910
8.10. SAP
.text:644050DB
.text:644050DC
.text:644050DF
.text:644050E5
.text:644050E7
.text:644050ED
.text:644050F0
.text:644050F3
.text:644050F7
.text:644050FB
.text:644050FE
.text:64405100
.text:64405103
.text:64405106
.text:64405108
.text:64405108 loc_64405108:
.text:64405108
.text:6440510B
.text:6440510D
.text:64405113
.text:64405113 loc_64405113:
.text:64405113
.text:64405116
.text:6440511B
.text:6440511E
.text:6440511F
.text:64405120
.text:64405121
.text:64405124
.text:64405129
.text:6440512A
.text:6440512C
.text:6440512E
.text:6440512F
.text:64405131
.text:64405137
.text:6440513D
.text:6440513F
.text:64405140
.text:64405142
.text:64405142 loc_64405142:
.text:64405142
push eax ; lpchText
push [ebp+var_10] ; hdc
call ds:DrawTextA
push 4 ; nIndex
call ds:GetSystemMetrics
mov ecx, [ebp+rc.bottom]
sub ecx, [ebp+rc.top]
cmp [ebp+h], 0
lea eax, [eax+ecx+28h]
mov [ebp+cy], eax
jz short loc_64405108
push [ebp+h] ; h
push [ebp+var_10] ; hdc
call edi ; SelectObject
push [ebp+var_10] ; hDC
push 0 ; hWnd
call ds:ReleaseDC
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov eax, [ebp+var_38] \\
push & \\
80h
\end{tabular}
push [ebp+cy] ; cy
inc eax
push ebx ; cx
push eax ; Y
mov eax, [ebp+var_34]
add eax, 0FFFFFED4h
cdq
sub eax, edx
sar eax, 1
push eax ; X
push 0 ; hWndInsertAfter
push dword ptr [esi+285Ch] ; hWnd
call ds:SetWindowPos
xor ebx, ebx
inc ebx
jmp short loc_6440514D
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator=(char const *)
.text:64405147 call ds:mfc90_820
.text:6440514D
.text:6440514D loc_6440514D:
.text:6440514D
cmp dword_6450B970, ebx
jl short loc_64405188
call sub_6441C910
mov dwōrd 644F858C, ebx
push dword ptr [esi+2854h]
push offset aCdwsguiPrepare ; "\nCDwsGui::PrepareInfoWindow: ఒ
push dword ptr [esi+2848h]
call dbg
add esp, 0Ch
mov dword_644F858C, 2
call sub_6441C920
or [ebp+var_4], 0FFFFFFFFh
lea ecx, [eb \(\left.\bar{p}+v a r \_14\right]\)
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::~CStringT()
text: 6440518F
call ds:mfc90 601
.text:64405195 call __EH_epī̄og3
.text:6440519A
retn
.text:6440519A CDwsGui
PrepareInfoWindow endp

At the start of the function ECX has a pointer to the object (since it is a thiscall ( 3.18 .1 on page 542)-type of function). In our case, the object obviously has class type of CDwsGui. Depending on the option turned on in the object, a specific message part is to be concatenated with the resulting message.
If the value at address this+ \(0 \times 3 \mathrm{D}\) is not zero, the compression is off:


It is interesting that finally the var_10 variable state defines whether the message is to be shown at all:


Let's check our theory on practice.
JNZ at this line ...
.text:6440503F jnz exit ; bypass drawing
...replace it with just JMP, and we get SAPGUI working without the pesky annoying pop-up window appearing!
Now let's dig deeper and find a connection between the \(0 x 15\) offset in the load_command_line() (we gave it this name) function and the this+0x3D variable in CDwsGui::PrepareInfoWindow. Are we sure the value is the same?

We are starting to search for all occurrences of the \(0 \times 15\) value in code. For a small programs like SAPGUI, it sometimes works. Here is the first occurrence we've got:
.text:64404C19
.text:64404C19 arg 0 = dword ptr
.text:64404C19
.text:64404C19
.text: 64404C1A
.text:64404C1B
.text:64404C1C
.text:64404C1D
.text:64404C21
text:64404C23
.text:64404C25
.text:64404C27
.text:64404C2A
.text:64404C2D
.text:64404C30
.text:64404C33
.text:64404C36
.text:64404C37
= dword ptr 4
push ebx
push ebp
push esi
push edi
mov edi, [esp+10h+arg_0]
mov eax, [edi]
mov esi, ecx ; ESI/ECX are pointers to some unknown object.
mov [esi], eax
mov eax, [edi+4]
mov [esi+4], eax
mov eax, [edi+8]
mov [esi+8], eax
lea eax, [edi+0Ch]
push eax
lea ecx, [esi+0Ch]
; demangled name: ATL::CStringT::operator=(class ATL::CStringT ... \&)
.text:64404C3A
call ds:mfc90 817
mov eax, [ed \(\bar{i}+10 \mathrm{~h}]\)
mov [esi+10h], eax
mov al, [edi+14h]
mov [esi+14h], al
mov al, [edi+15h] ; copy byte from \(0 \times 15\) offset
mov [esi+15h], al ; to \(0 x 15\) offset in CDwsGui object
The function has been called from the function named CDwsGui::CopyOptions! And thanks again for debugging information.

But the real answer is in CDwsGui::Init():
```

.text:6440B0BF loc_6440B0BF:
.text:6440B0BF
.text:6440B0C2
.text:6440B0C5
.text:6440B0CB
.text:6440B0CE
.text:6440B0CF

```
```

mov eax, [ebp+arg_0]

```
mov eax, [ebp+arg_0]
    push [ebp+arg_4]
    push [ebp+arg_4]
    mov [esi+2844h], eax
    mov [esi+2844h], eax
    lea eax, [esi+28h] ; ESI is pointer to CDwsGui object
    lea eax, [esi+28h] ; ESI is pointer to CDwsGui object
    push eax
    push eax
    call CDwsGui__CopyOptions
```

    call CDwsGui__CopyOptions
    ```

Finally, we understand: the array filled in the load_command_line() function is actually placed in the CDwsGui class, but at address this+0x28. \(0 \times 15+0 \times 28\) is exactly \(0 x 3 D\). OK, we found the point where the value is copied to.

Let's also find the rest of the places where the \(0 \times 3 \mathrm{D}\) offset is used. Here is one of them in the CDwsGui::SapguiRun function (again, thanks to the debugging calls):
```

.text:64409D58
.text:64409D5B
cmp [esi+3Dh], bl ; ESI is pointer to CDwsGui object
lea ecx, [esi+2B8h]
.text:64409D61 setz al
text:64409D64 push eax ; arg_10 of CConnectionContext::\&
\zeta CreateNetwork
.text:64409D65
push dword ptr [esi+64h]
; demangled name: const char* ATL::CSimpleStringT::operator PCXSTR
.text:64409D68 call ds:mfc90_910
.text:64409D68 ; no arguments
.text:64409D6E
push eax
lea ecx, [esi+2BCh]
; demangled name: const char* ATL::CSimpleStringT::operator PCXSTR
.text:64409D75 call ds:mfc90_910
.text:64409D75
.text:64409D7B
.text:64409D7C
.text:64409D7D
.text:64409D80
; no arguments
push eax
push esi
lea ecx, [esi+8]
call CConnectionContext__CreateNetwork

```

Let's check our findings.
Replace the setz al here with the xor eax, eax / nop instructions, clear the TDW_NOCOMPRESS environment variable and run SAPGUI. Wow! There pesky annoying window is no more (just as expected, because the variable is not set) but in Wireshark we can see that the network packets are not compressed anymore! Obviously, this is the point where the compression flag is to be set in the CConnectionContext object.

So, the compression flag is passed in the 5th argument of CConnectionContext::CreateNetwork. Inside the function, another one is called:
```

...
.text:64403476 push [ebp+compression]
.text:64403479
.text:6440347C
.text:6440347F
.text:64403482
.text:64403485

| push | [ebp+compression] |
| :--- | :--- |
| push | [ebp+arg_C] |
| push | [ebp+arg_8] |
| push | [ebp+arg_4] |
| push | [ebp+arg_0] |
| call | CNetwork ${ }^{\text {CNetwork }}$ |

```

The compression flag is passed here in the 5th argument to the CNetwork::CNetwork constructor.
And here is how the CNetwork constructor sets the flag in the CNetwork object according to its 5th argument and another variable which probably could also affect network packets compression.
```

.text:64411DF1

```
.text:64411DF1
.text:64411DF7
.text:64411DF7
.text:64411DF9
.text:64411DF9
.text:64411DFC
.text:64411DFC
.text:64411DFE
.text:64411DFE
.text:64411E00
.text:64411E00
.text:64411E02
.text:64411E02
.text:64411E04
.text:64411E04
.text:64411E04 set_EAX_to_1:
.text:64411E04 set_EAX_to_1:
.text:64411E04
.text:64411E04
.text:64411E06
.text:64411E06
.text:64411E07
.text:64411E07
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E09 set_EAX to_0:
.text:64411E09 set_EAX to_0:
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E09
.text:64411E0B
.text:64411E0B
.text:64411E0B loc_64411E0B:
.text:64411E0B loc_64411E0B:
.text:64411E0B mov [ebx+3A4h], eax ; EBX is pointer to CNetwork object
.text:64411E0B mov [ebx+3A4h], eax ; EBX is pointer to CNetwork object
.text:64411E0B mov [ebx+3A4h], eax ; EBX is pointer to CNetwork object
.text:64411E04
.text:64411E04
- ext:6411E09
- ext:6411E09
cmp [ebp+compression], esi
cmp [ebp+compression], esi
cmp [ebp+compression], esi
jz short set EAX_to_0
jz short set EAX_to_0
jz short set EAX_to_0
mov al, [ebx+\overline{7}8\textrm{h}]
mov al, [ebx+\overline{7}8\textrm{h}]
mov al, [ebx+\overline{7}8\textrm{h}]
cmp al, '3'
cmp al, '3'
cmp al, '3'
jz short set_EAX_to_1
jz short set_EAX_to_1
jz short set_EAX_to_1
cmp al, '4'
cmp al, '4'
cmp al, '4'
jnz short set_EAX_to_0
jnz short set_EAX_to_0
jnz short set_EAX_to_0
xor eax, eax
xor eax, eax
xor eax, eax
inc eax ; EAX -> 1
inc eax ; EAX -> 1
inc eax ; EAX -> 1
jmp short loc_64411E0B
jmp short loc_64411E0B
jmp short loc_64411E0B
xor eax, eax ; EAX -> 0
```

xor eax, eax ; EAX -> 0

```
xor eax, eax ; EAX -> 0
```

At this point we know the compression flag is stored in the CNetwork class at address this+0x3A4.
Now let's dig through SAPguilib.dIl for the 0x3A4 value. And here is the second occurrence in CDwsGui::OnClientMessageWrite (endless thanks for the debugging information):

```
.text:64406F76 loc_64406F76:
.text:64406F76 mov ecx, [ebp+7728h+var_7794]
.text:64406F79
.text:64406F80
.text:64406F86
.text:64406F8A
.text:64406F8D
.text:64406F8F
.text:64406F91
.text:64406F93
.text:64406F96
.text:64406F99
.text:64406F99 loc_64406F99:
.text:64406F99
.text:64406F9F
.text:64406FA2
.text:64406FA3
.text:64406FA8
.text:64406FAB
.text:64406FAC
.text:64406FAD
.text:64406FAE
.text:64406FB4
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov & ecx, [ebp+7728h+var_7794] \\
cmp & dword ptr [ecx+3A4h], 1 \\
jnz & compression_flag_is_zero \\
mov & byte ptr [ebx+7], 1 \\
mov & eax, [esi+18h] \\
mov & ecx, eax \\
test & eax, eax \\
ja & short loc_64406FFF \\
mov & ecx, [esi+14h] \\
mov & eax, [esi+20h]
\end{tabular}
    push dword ptr [edi+2868h] ; int
    lea edx, [ebp+7728h+var_77A4]
    push edx ; in}
    push 30000 ; int
    lea edx, [ebp+7728h+Dst]
    push edx ; Dst
    push ecx ; int
    push eax ; Src
    push dword ptr [edi+28C0h] ; int
    call sub_644055C5 ; actual compression routine
```

| .text:64406FB9 | add | esp, 1Ch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| .text:64406FBC | cmp | eax, 0FFFFFFF6h |
| .text:64406FBF | jz | short loc_64407004 |
| .text:64406FC1 | cmp | eax, 1 |
| .text:64406FC4 | jz | loc_6440708C |
| .text:64406FCA | cmp | eax, 2 |
| .text:64406FCD | jz | short loc_64407004 |
| .text:64406FCF | push | eax |
| $\begin{aligned} & . \text { text: 64406FD0 } \\ & \quad \leftrightarrow \text { program wi"... } \end{aligned}$ | push | offset aCompressionErr ; "compression error [rc = |
| %d]- $\sim$ |  |  |
| .text:64406FD5 | push | offset aGui_err_compre ; "GUI_ERR_COMPRESS" |
| .text:64406FDA | push | dword ptr [ $\left.{ }^{\text {edi }}+\overline{2} 8 \mathrm{D} 0 \mathrm{~h}\right]$ |
| .text:64406FE0 | call | SapPcTxtRead |

Let's take a look in sub_644055C5. In it we can only see the call to memcpy() and another function named (by IDA) sub_64417440

And, let's take a look inside sub_64417440. What we see is:


Voilà! We've found the function that actually compresses the data. As it was shown in past ${ }^{35}$, this function is used in SAP and also the open-source MaxDB project. So it is available in source form. Doing the last check here:

| .text:64406F79 | cmp | dword ptr [ecx+3A4h], 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:64406F80 | jnz | compression_flag_is_zero |

Replace JNZ here for an unconditional JMP. Remove the environment variable TDW_NOCOMPRESS. Voilà! In Wireshark we see that the client messages are not compressed. The server responses, however, are compressed.

So we found exact connection between the environment variable and the point where data compression routine can be called or bypassed.

### 8.10.2 SAP 6.0 password checking functions

One time when the author of this book have returned again to his SAP 6.0 IDES installed in a VMware box, he figured out that he forgot the password for the SAP* account, then he have recalled it, but then he got this error message «Password logon no longer possible - too many failed attempts», since he've made all these attempts in attempt to recall it.

The first extremely good news was that the full disp+work.pdb PDB file is supplied with SAP, and it contain almost everything: function names, structures, types, local variable and argument names, etc. What a lavish gift!
There is TYPEINFODUMP ${ }^{36}$ utility for converting PDB files into something readable and grepable.
Here is an example of a function information + its arguments + its local variables:


[^105]Flags: d0
PARAMETER serverName
Address: Reg335+304 Size: 8 bytes Index: 60492 TypeIndex: 60493
Type: unsigned short*
Flags: d0
STATIC_LOCAL_VAR func
Address: 12274af0 Size: 8 bytes Index: 60495 TypeIndex: 60496
Type: wchar_t*
Flags: 80
LOCAL_VAR admhead
Address: Reg335+304 Size: 8 bytes Index: 60498 TypeIndex: 60499
Type: unsigned char*
Flags: 90
LOCAL_VAR record
Address: Reg335+64 Size: 204 bytes Index: 60501 TypeIndex: 60502
Type: AD RECORD
Flags: 90
LOCAL_VAR adlen Address: Reg335+296 Size: 4 bytes Index: 60508 TypeIndex: 60509 Type: int
Flags: 90

And here is an example of some structure:

```
STRUCT DBSL STMTID
Size: 120 Variables: 4 Functions: 0 Base classes: 0
MEMBER moduletype
    Type: DBSL_MODULETYPE
    Offset: - 0 Index: 3 TypeIndex: 38653
MEMBER module
    Type: wchar_t module[40]
    Offset: - 4 Index: 3 TypeIndex: }83
MEMBER stmtnum
    Type: long
    Offset: 84 Index: 3 TypeIndex: 440
MEMBER timestamp
    Type: wchar_t timestamp[15]
    Offset: - }88\mathrm{ Index: 3 TypeIndex: 6612
```

Wow!
Another good news: debugging calls (there are plenty of them) are very useful.
Here you can also notice the ct_level global variable ${ }^{37}$, that reflects the current trace level.
There are a lot of debugging inserts in the disp+work.exe file:

```
cmp cs:ct_level, 1
jl short loc_1400375DA
call DpLock
lea rcx, aDpxxtool4_c ; "dpxxtool4.c"
mov edx, 4Eh ; line
call CTrcSaveLocation
mov r8, cs:func_48
mov rcx, cs:hdl ; hdl
lea rdx, aSDpreadmemvalu ; "%s: DpReadMemValue (%d)"
mov r9d, ebx
call DpTrcErr
call DpUnlock
```

If the current trace level is bigger or equal to threshold defined in the code here, a debugging message is to be written to the log files like dev_w0, dev_disp, and other dev* files.
Let's try grepping in the file that we have got with the help of the TYPEINFODUMP utility:

```
cat "disp+work.pdb.d" | grep FUNCTION | grep -i password
```

We have got:

[^106]```
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::DiagISelection
FUNCTION ssf_password_encrypt
FUNCTION ssf_password_decrypt
FUNCTION password_logon disabled
FUNCTION dySignSkipUserPassword
FUNCTION migrate_password_history
FUNCTION password is initial
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::IsVisible
FUNCTION password_distance_ok
FUNCTION get password downwards_compatibility
FUNCTION dySignUnSkipUserPassword
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::GetTypeName
FUNCTION `rcui::AgiPassword::AgiPassword'::`1'::dtor$2
FUNCTION `rcui::AgiPassword::AgiPassword'::`1'::dtor$0
FUNCTION `rcui::AgiPassword::AgiPassword'::`1'::dtor$1
FUNCTION usm_set password
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::TraceTo
FUNCTION days_since_last_password_change
FUNCTION rsec\overline{grp generate random p}\mathrm{ password}
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::`scalar deleting destructor'
FUNCTION password_attempt_limit_exceeded
FUNCTION handle incorrect passwōrd
FUNCTION `rcui::AgiPassword::`scalar deleting destructor''::`1'::dtor$1
FUNCTION calculate_new_password_hash
FUNCTION shift_password_to_history
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPasswöd::GetType
FUNCTION found_password_in_history
FUNCTION `rcui::AgiPassword}::`scalar deleting destructor''::`1'::dtor$0
FUNCTION rcui::AgiObj::IsaPassword
FUNCTION password_idle_check
FUNCTION SlicHwPassword
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::IsaPassword
FUNCTION rcui::AgiPassword::AgiPassword
FUNCTION delete_user_password
FUNCTION usm_set_user_password
FUNCTION Password_API
FUNCTION get password change for SSO
FUNCTION password_in_USR40
FUNCTION rsec_agrp_abap_generate_random_password
```

Let's also try to search for debug messages which contain the words «password» and «locked». One of them is the string «user was locked by subsequently failed password logon attempts», referenced in function password_attempt_limit_exceeded().
Other strings that this function can write to a log file are: «password logon attempt will be rejected immediately (preventing dictionary attacks)», «failed-logon lock: expired (but not removed due to 'readonly' operation)», «failed-logon lock: expired => removed».
After playing for a little with this function, we noticed that the problem is exactly in it. It is called from the chckpass() function -one of the password checking functions.
First, we would like to make sure that we are at the correct point:
Run tracer:
tracer64.exe -a:disp+work.exe bpf=disp+work.exe!chckpass,args:3,unicode

```
PID=2236|TID=2248|(0) disp+work.exe!chckpass (0x202c770, L"Brewered1
    \zeta ", 0x41) (called from 0x1402f1060 (disp+work.exe!usrexist+0x3c0))
PID=2236|TID=2248|(0) disp+work.exe!chckpass -> 0x35
```

The call path is: syssigni() -> DyISigni() -> dychkusr() -> usrexist() -> chckpass().
The number $0 \times 35$ is an error returned in chckpass() at that point:

```
.text:00000001402ED567 loc_1402ED567: ; CODE XREF: chckpass+B4
.text:00000001402ED567 mov rcx, rbx ; usr02
.text:00000001402ED56A call password_idle_check
.text:00000001402ED56F
.text:000000001402ED572 jz loc 1402EDB4E
```

| .text:000000001402ED578 | cmp | eax, 36h |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:00000001402ED57B | jz | loc_1402EDB3D |
| .text:00000001402ED581 | xor | edx, edx $\quad$ usr02_readonly |
| .text:00000001402ED583 | mov | rcx, rbx |
| .text:00000001402ED586 | call | password_attempt_limit_exceeded |
| .text:00000001402ED58B | test | al, al |
| .text:00000001402ED58D | jz | short loc_1402ED5A0 |
| .text:00000001402ED58F | mov | eax, 35h |
| .text:00000001402ED594 | add | rsp, 60h |
| .text:00000001402ED598 | pop | r14 |
| .text:00000001402ED59A | pop | r12 |
| .text:00000001402ED59C | pop | rdi |
| .text:00000001402ED59D | pop | rsi |
| .text:00000001402ED59E | pop | rbx |
| .text:00000001402ED59F | retn |  |

Fine, let's check:

```
tracer64.exe -a:disp+work.exe bpf=disp+work.exe!password_attempt_limit_exceeded,args:4,unicode,\swarrow
    rt:0
```

```
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!password_attempt_limit_exceeded (0x202c770, 0, 0x257758, 0) 々
    (called from 0x1402ed58b (disp+work.exe!chckpass+0xeb))
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!password_attempt_limit_exceeded -> 1
PID=2744|TID=360|We modify return value (EAX/RAX) of this function to 0
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!password_attempt_limit_exceeded (0x202c770, 0, 0, 0) (called\Omega
     from 0x1402e9794 (disp+work.exe!chngpass+0xe4))
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!password attempt limit exceeded -> 1
PID=2744|TID=360|We modify return value (EAX/RAX) of this function to 0
```

Excellent! We can successfully login now.
By the way, we can pretend we forgot the password, fixing the chckpass() function to return a value of 0 is enough to bypass the check:

```
tracer64.exe -a:disp+work.exe bpf=disp+work.exe!chckpass,args:3,unicode,rt:0
```

```
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!chckpass (0x202c770, L"bogus
    \zeta ", 0x41) (called from 0x1402f1060 (disp+work.exe!usrexist+0x3c0))
PID=2744|TID=360|(0) disp+work.exe!chckpass -> 0x35
PID=2744|TID=360|We modify return value (EAX/RAX) of this function to 0
```

What also can be said while analyzing the
password_attempt_limit_exceeded() function is that at the very beginning of it, this call can be seen:

```
lea rcx, aLoginFailed_us ; "login/failed_user_auto_unlock"
call sapgparam
test rax, rax
jz short loc 1402E19DE
movzx eax, word ptr [rax]
cmp ax, 'N'
jz short loc_1402E19D4
cmp ax, 'n'
jz short loc_1402E19D4
cmp ax, '0'
jnz short loc_1402E19DE
```

Obviously, function sapgparam() is used to query the value of some configuration parameter. This function can be called from 1768 different places. It seems that with the help of this information, we can easily find the places in code, the control flow of which can be affected by specific configuration parameters.
It is really sweet. The function names are very clear, much clearer than in the Oracle RDBMS.
It seems that the disp+work process is written in $\mathrm{C}++$. Has it been rewritten some time ago?

### 8.11 Oracle RDBMS

### 8.11.1 V\$VERSION table in the Oracle RDBMS

Oracle RDBMS 11.2 is a huge program, its main module oracle. exe contain approx. 124,000 functions. For comparison, the Windows $7 \times 86$ kernel (ntoskrnl.exe) contains approx. 11,000 functions and the Linux 3.9.8 kernel (with default drivers compiled)-31,000 functions.

Let's start with an easy question. Where does Oracle RDBMS get all this information, when we execute this simple statement in SQL*Plus:

```
SQL> select * from V$VERSION;
```

And we get:

```
BANNER
Oracle Database 11g Enterprise Edition Release 11.2.0.1.0 - Production
PL/SQL Release 11.2.0.1.0 - Production
CORE 11.2.0.1.0 Production
TNS for 32-bit Windows: Version 11.2.0.1.0 - Production
NLSRTL Version 11.2.0.1.0 - Production
```

Let's start. Where in the Oracle RDBMS can we find the string V\$VERSION?
In the win32-version, oracle.exe file contains the string, it's easy to see. But we can also use the object (.o) files from the Linux version of Oracle RDBMS since, unlike the win32 version oracle. exe, the function names (and global variables as well) are preserved there.

So, the kqf. o file contains the V\$VERSION string. The object file is in the main Oracle-library libserver11.a. A reference to this text string can find in the kqfviw table stored in the same file, kqf.o:

Listing 8.8: kqf.o

```
```

.rodata:0800C4A0 kqfviw dd 0Bh ; DATA XREF: kqfchk:loc_8003A6D

```
```

.rodata:0800C4A0 kqfviw dd 0Bh ; DATA XREF: kqfchk:loc_8003A6D
.rodata:0800C4A0
.rodata:0800C4A0
. rodata:0800C4A4
. rodata:0800C4A4
. rodata:0800C4A8
. rodata:0800C4A8
.rodata:0800C4AC
.rodata:0800C4AC
. rodata:0800C4B0
. rodata:0800C4B0
. rodata:0800C4B4
. rodata:0800C4B4
. rodata:0800C4B8
. rodata:0800C4B8
. rodata:0800C4BC
. rodata:0800C4BC
. rodata:0800C4C0
. rodata:0800C4C0
.rodata:0800C4C4
.rodata:0800C4C4
. rodata:0800C4C8
. rodata:0800C4C8
. rodata:0800C4CC
. rodata:0800C4CC
.rodata:0800C4D0
.rodata:0800C4D0
. rodata:0800C4D4
. rodata:0800C4D4
. rodata:0800C4D8
. rodata:0800C4D8
.rodata:0800C4DC
.rodata:0800C4DC
. rodata:0800C4E0
. rodata:0800C4E0
. rodata:0800C4E4
. rodata:0800C4E4
.rodata:0800C4E8
.rodata:0800C4E8
. rodata:0800C4EC
. rodata:0800C4EC
. rodata:0800C4F0
. rodata:0800C4F0
. rodata:0800C4F4
. rodata:0800C4F4
. rodata:0800C4F8
. rodata:0800C4F8
. rodata:0800C4FC
. rodata:0800C4FC
.rodata:0800C500
.rodata:0800C500
. rodata:0800C504
. rodata:0800C504
. rodata:0800C508
. rodata:0800C508
.rodata:0800C50C
.rodata:0800C50C
. rodata:0800C510
. rodata:0800C510
. rodata:0800C514
. rodata:0800C514
.rodata:0800C518
.rodata:0800C518
. rodata:0800C51C
. rodata:0800C51C
.rodata:0800C520

```
.rodata:0800C520
```

```
    dd offset '2_STRING_10102_0 ; "GV$WAITSTAT"
```

    dd offset '2_STRING_10102_0 ; "GV$WAITSTAT"
    dd 4
    dd 4
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd 3
    dd 3
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 195h
    dd 195h
    dd 4
    dd 4
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 0FFFFC1CBh
    dd 0FFFFC1CBh
    dd 3
    dd 3
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 0Ah
    dd 0Ah
    dd offset _2__STRING_10104_0 ; "V$WAITSTAT"
    dd offset _2__STRING_10104_0 ; "V$WAITSTAT"
    dd 4
    dd 4
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd 3
    dd 3
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 4Eh
    dd 4Eh
    dd 3
    dd 3
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 0FFFFC003h
    dd 0FFFFC003h
    dd 4
    dd 4
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 5
    dd 5
    dd offset 2 STRING_10105 0 ; "GV$BH"
    dd offset 2 STRING_10105 0 ; "GV$BH"
    dd 4
    dd 4
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL"
    dd 3
    dd 3
    dd 0
    dd 0
    dd 269h
    dd 269h
    dd 15h
    dd 15h
    dd 0
    ```
    dd 0
```

| . rodata:0800C524 | dd 0FFFFC1EDh |
| :---: | :---: |
| . rodata:0800C528 | dd 8 |
| . rodata: 0800C52C | dd 0 |
| . rodata: 0800C530 | dd 4 |
| . rodata: 0800C534 | dd offset _2_STRING_10106_0 ; "V\$BH" |
| . rodata: 0800C538 | dd 4 |
| . rodata: 0800C53C | dd offset _2__STRING_10103_0 ; "NULL" |
| . rodata:0800C540 | dd 3 |
| . rodata:0800C544 | dd 0 |
| . rodata: 0800C548 | dd 0F5h |
| . rodata:0800C54C | dd 14h |
| . rodata: 0800C550 | dd 0 |
| . rodata:0800C554 | dd 0FFFFC1EEh |
| . rodata: 0800C558 | dd 5 |
| . rodata:0800C55C | dd 0 |

By the way, often, while analyzing Oracle RDBMS's internals, you may ask yourself, why are the names of the functions and global variable so weird.

Probably, because Oracle RDBMS is a very old product and was developed in C in the 1980s.
And that was a time when the C standard guaranteed that the function names/variables can support only up to 6 characters inclusive: «6 significant initial characters in an external identifier» ${ }^{38}$
Probably, the table kqfviw contains most (maybe even all) views prefixed with V\$, these are fixed views, present all the time. Superficially, by noticing the cyclic recurrence of data, we can easily see that each kqfviw table element has 1232 -bit fields. It is very simple to create a 12 -elements structure in IDA and apply it to all table elements. As of Oracle RDBMS version 11.2, there are 1023 table elements, i.e., in it are described 1023 of all possible fixed views.
We are going to return to this number later.
As we can see, there is not much information in these numbers in the fields. The first number is always equals to the name of the view (without the terminating zero. This is correct for each element. But this information is not very useful.
We also know that the information about all fixed views can be retrieved from a fixed view named V\$FIXED_VIEW_DEFINITION (by the way, the information for this view is also taken from the kqfviw and kqfvip tables.) By the way, there are 1023 elements in those too. Coincidence? No.

```
SQL> select * from V$FIXED_VIEW_DEFINITION where view_name='V$VERSION';
VIEW_NAME
VIEW DEFINITION
V$VERSION
select BANNER from GV$VERSION where inst_id = USERENV('Instance')
```

So, V\$VERSION is some kind of a thunk view for another view, named GV\$VERSION, which is, in turn:

```
SQL> select * from V$FIXED_VIEW DEFINITION where view_name='GV$VERSION';
VIEW NAME
VIEW DEFINITION
GV$VERSION
select inst_id, banner from x$version
```

The tables prefixed with $\mathrm{X} \$$ in the Oracle RDBMS are service tables too, undocumented, cannot be changed by the user and are refreshed dynamically.
If we search for the text

```
select BANNER from GV\$VERSION where inst\_id =
```

USERENV('Instance')

[^107]... in the kqf.o file, we find it in the kqfvip table:
Listing 8.9: kqf.o

```
.rodata:080185A0 kqfvip dd offset _2__STRING_11126_0 ; DATA XREF: kqfgvcn+18
.rodata:080185A0 - - - kqfgvt+F
.rodata:080185A0 ; "select inst_id,decode(indx,1,'data bloc"...
.rodata:080185A4 dd offset kqfv459_c_0
.rodata:080185A8 dd 0
.rodata:080185AC dd 0
.rodata:08019570 dd offset _2__STRING_11378_0 ; "select BANNER from GV$VERSION where in\imath
    ५"...
.rodata:08019574 dd offset kqfv133_c_0
.rodata:08019578 dd 0
.rodata:0801957C dd 0
.rodata:08019580
    4 ,0"...
.rodata:08019584
.rodata:08019588
.rodata:0801958C
.rodata:0801958C
.rodata...
.rodata:08019594
...
dd 0
dd offset _2__STRING_11379_0 ; "select inst_id,decode(bitand(cfflg,1)\swarrow
dd offset kqfv403_c_0
dd 0
dd 0
dd offset _2__STRING_11380_0 ; "select STATUS , NAME, IS_RECOVERY_DEST`
    dd offset kqfv199_c_0
```

The table appear to have 4 fields in each element. By the way, there are 1023 elements in it, again, the number we already know.
The second field points to another table that contains the table fields for this fixed view. As for V\$VERSION, this table has only two elements, the first is 6 and the second is the BANNER string (the number 6 is this string's length) and after, a terminating element that contains 0 and a null C string:

Listing 8.10: kqf.o

```
.rodata:080BBAC4 kqfv133_c_0 dd 6 ; DATA XREF: .rodata:08019574
.rodata:080BBAC8 - - dd offset _2__STRING_5017_0 ; "BANNER"
.rodata:080BBACC dd 0
.rodata:080BBAD0 dd offset _2__STRING_0_0
```

By joining data from both kqfviw and kqfvip tables, we can get the SQL statements which are executed when the user wants to query information from a specific fixed view.
So we can write an oracle tables ${ }^{39}$ program, to gather all this information from Oracle RDBMS for Linux's object files. For V\$VERSION, we find this:

Listing 8.11: Result of oracle tables
kqfviw element.viewname: [V\$VERSION] ?: 0x3 0x43 0x1 0xffffc085 0x4
kqfvip_element.statement: [select BANNER from GV\$VERSION where inst_id = USERENV('Instance')] kqfvip_element.params:
[BANNER]
And:
Listing 8.12: Result of oracle tables

```
kqfviw_element.viewname: [GV$VERSION] ?: 0x3 0x26 0x2 0xffffcc192 0x1
kqfvip_element.statement: [select inst_id, banner from x$version]
kqfvip element.params:
[INST_ID] [BANNER]
```

The GV\$VERSION fixed view is different from V\$VERSION only in that it has one more field with the identifier instance.
Anyway, we are going to stick with the X\$VERSION table. Just like any other X\$-table, it is undocumented, however, we can query it:

[^108]```
SQL> select * from x$version;
ADDR INDX INST_ID
BANNER
0DBAF574 0 1
Oracle Database 11g Enterprise Edition Release 11.2.0.1.0 - Production
```

...

This table has some additional fields, like ADDR and INDX.
While scrolling kqf.o in IDA we can spot another table that contains a pointer to the X\$VERSION string, this is kqftab:

Listing 8.13: kqf.o

| . rodata: 0803CAC0 | dd 9 ; element number 0x1f6 |
| :---: | :---: |
| . rodata: 0803CAC4 | dd offset _2__STRING_13113_0 ; "X\$VERSION" |
| . rodata:0803CAC8 | dd 4 |
| . rodata:0803CACC | dd offset _2__STRING_13114_0 ; "kqvt" |
| . rodata:0803CAD0 | dd 4 |
| . rodata: 0803CAD4 | dd 4 |
| . rodata:0803CAD8 | dd 0 |
| . rodata: 0803CADC | dd 4 |
| . rodata:0803CAE0 | dd 0Ch |
| . rodata: 0803CAE4 | dd 0FFFFC075h |
| . rodata:0803CAE8 | dd 3 |
| . rodata:0803CAEC | dd 0 |
| . rodata:0803CAF0 | dd 7 |
| . rodata:0803CAF4 | dd offset _2__STRING_13115_0 ; "X\$KQFSZ" |
| . rodata:0803CAF8 | dd 5 |
| . rodata:0803CAFC | dd offset _2__STRING_13116_0 ; "kqfsz" |
| . rodata: 0803CB00 | dd 1 |
| . rodata:0803CB04 | dd 38h |
| . rodata:0803CB08 | dd 0 |
| . rodata:0803CB0C | dd 7 |
| . rodata: 0803CB10 | dd 0 |
| . rodata:0803CB14 | dd 0FFFFC09Dh |
| . rodata: 0803CB18 | dd 2 |
| . rodata:0803CB1C | dd 0 |

There are a lot of references to the X\$-table names, apparently, to all Oracle RDBMS $11.2 \mathrm{X} \$$-tables. But again, we don't have enough information.
It's not clear what does the kqvt string stands for.
The kq prefix may mean kernel or query.
$v$ apparently stands for version and t-type? Hard to say.
A table with a similar name can be found in kqf.o:
Listing 8.14: kqf.o

```
.rodata:0808C360 kqvt_c_0 kqftap_param <4, offset _2_STRING_19_0, 917h, 0, 0, 0, 4, 0, 0>
.rodata:0808C360
. rodata:0808C360
.rodata:0808C384
    \INDX"
.rodata:0808C3A8
    \zeta INST_ID"
.rodata:080}8083C
    ५ ; "BANNER"
.rodata:0808C3F0
    ; \overline{DATA XREF}: .rodata:08042680
    ; "ADDR"
    kqftap_param <4, offset _2__STRING_20_0, 0B02h, 0, 0, 0, 4, 0, 0> ; "々
    kqftap_param <7, offset _2__STRING_21_0, 0B02h, 0, 0, 0, 4, 0, 0> ; "\swarrow
    kqftap_param <6, offset _2__STRING_5017_0, 601h, 0, 0, 0, 50h, 0, 0> \swarrow
    kqftap_param <0, offset _2__STRING_0_0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0>
```

It contains information about all fields in the X\$VERSION table. The only reference to this table is in the kqftap table:

```
.rodata:08042680
kqftap_element <0, offset kqvt_c_0, offset kqvrow, 0> ; \swarrow
     element 0x1f6
```

It is interesting that this element here is $0 \times 1 \mathrm{f} 6 \mathrm{th}$ ( 502 nd ), just like the pointer to the X\$VERSION string in the kqftab table.

Probably, the kqftap and kqftab tables complement each other, just like kqfvip and kqfviw.
We also see a pointer to the kqvrow() function. Finally, we got something useful!
So we will add these tables to our oracle tables ${ }^{40}$ utility too. For X\$VERSION we get:
Listing 8.16: Result of oracle tables

```
kqftab_element.name: [X$VERSION] ?: [kqvt] 0x4 0x4 0x4 0xc 0xffffc075 0x3
kqftap param.name=[ADDR] ?: 0x917 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[INDX] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[INST_ID] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap param.name=[BANNER] ?: 0x601 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x50 0x0 0x0
kqftap_element.fnl=kqvrow
kqftap_element.fn2=NULL
```

With the help of tracer, it is easy to check that this function is called 6 times in row (from the qerfxFetch() function) while querying the X\$VERSION table.
Let's run tracer in cc mode (it comments each executed instruction):
tracer -a:oracle.exe bpf=oracle.exe!_kqvrow,trace:cc

| kqvrow | proc |
| :---: | :---: |
| var_7C | $=$ byte ptr -7Ch |
| var_18 | = dword ptr -18h |
| var_14 | = dword ptr -14h |
| Dest | = dword ptr -10h |
| var_C | = dword ptr -0Ch |
| var_8 | = dword ptr -8 |
| var_4 | = dword ptr -4 |
| arg_8 | = dword ptr 10h |
| arg_C | = dword ptr 14h |
| arg_14 | = dword ptr 1Ch |
| arg_18 | = dword ptr 20h |

; FUNCTION CHUNK AT .text1:056C11A0 SIZE 00000049 BYTES

```
push ebp
mov ebp, esp
sub esp, 7Ch
mov eax, [ebp+arg_14] ; [EBP+1Ch]=1
mov ecx, TlsIndex ; [69AEB08h]=0
mov edx, large fs:2Ch
mov edx, [edx+ecx*4] ; [EDX+ECX*4]=0xc98c938
cmp eax, 2 ; EAX=1
mov eax, [ebp+arg_8] ; [EBP+10h]=0xcdfe554
jz loc_2CE1288
mov ecx, [eax] ; [EAX]=0..5
mov [ebp+var_4], edi ; EDI=0xc98c938
```

loc_2CE10F6: ; CODE XREF: _kqvrow_+10A
; kqvrow +1A $\overline{9}$
cmp - ecx, 5 ; ECX=0..5
ja loc_56C11C7
mov edi, [ebp+arg_18] ; [EBP+20h]=0
mov [ebp+var_14], edx ; EDX=0xc98c938
mov [ebp+var_8], ebx ; EBX=0
mov ebx, eax ; EAX=0xcdfe554
mov [ebp+var_C], esi ; ESI=0xcdfe248

[^109]loc＿2CE110D：；CODE XREF：＿kqvrow＋29E00E6
mov edx，ds：off＿628B09C［ecx＊4］；［ECX＊4＋628B09Ch］＝0x2ce1116，0x2ce11ac，0x2ce11db $\downarrow$
$\rightarrow, 0 x 2 c e 11 f 6,0 x 2 c e 1236,0 x 2 c e 127 a$
jmp edx ；EDX＝0x2ce1116，0x2ce11ac，0x2ce11db，0x2ce11f6，0x2ce1236，々
$\rightarrow 0 x 2 c e 127 a$
loc＿2CE1116：；DATA XREF：．rdata：off＿628B09C
push offset aXKqvvsnBuffer ；＂x\＄kqvvsn buffer＂
mov ecx，［ebp＋arg＿C］；［EBP＋14h］＝0x8a172b4
xor edx，edx
mov esi，［ebp＋var＿14］；［EBP－14h］＝0xc98c938
push edx ；EDX＝0
push edx ；EDX＝0
push 50h ；ECX＝0x8a172b4
push ecx
push dword ptr［esi＋10494h］；［ESI＋10494h］＝0xc98cd58
call＿kghalf ；tracing nested maximum level（1）reached，skipping this $\downarrow$
$\longrightarrow$ CALL
mov esi，ds：＿＿imp＿＿vsnnum ；［59771A8h］＝0x61bc49e0
mov［ebp＋Dest］，eax ；EAX＝0xce2ffb0
mov［ebx＋8］，eax ；EAX＝0xce2ffb0
mov［ebx＋4］，eax ；EAX＝0xce2ffb0
mov edi，［esi］；［ESI］＝0xb200100
mov esi，ds：＿＿imp＿＿vsnstr ；［597D6D4h］＝0x65852148，＂－Production＂
push esi－；ESI＝0x65852148，＂－Production＂
mov ebx，edi ；EDI＝0xb200100
shr ebx，18h ；EBX＝0xb200100
mov ecx，edi ；EDI＝0xb200100
shr ecx，14h ；ECX＝0xb200100
and ecx，0Fh ；ECX＝0xb2
mov edx，edi ；EDI＝0xb200100
shr edx，0Ch ；EDX＝0xb200100
movzx edx，dl ；DL＝0
mov eax，edi ；EDI＝0xb200100
shr eax， 8 ；EAX＝0xb200100
and eax，0Fh ；EAX＝0xb2001
and edi，0FFh ；EDI＝0xb200100
push edi ；EDI＝0
mov edi，［ebp＋arg＿18］；［EBP＋20h］＝0
push eax ；EAX＝1
mov eax，ds：＿＿imp＿＿vsnban ；［597D6D8h］＝0x65852100，＂Oracle Database 11g $\prec$
$\zeta$ Enterprise Edition Release \％d．\％d．\％d．\％d．\％d \％s＂
push edx ；EDX＝0
push ecx ；ECX＝2
push ebx ；EBX＝0xb
mov ebx，［ebp＋arg＿8］；［EBP＋10h］＝0xcdfe554
push eax ；EAX＝0x65852100，＂Oracle Database 11g Enterprise Edition \＆
$\zeta$ Release \％d．\％d．\％d．\％d．\％d \％s＂
mov eax，［ebp＋Dest］；［EBP－10h］＝0xce2ffb0
push eax ；EAX＝0xce2ffb0
call ds：＿＿imp＿＿sprintf ；opl＝MSVCR80．dll！sprintf tracing nested maximum level（1）飞
$\hookrightarrow$ reached，skipping this CALL
add esp，38h
mov dword ptr［ebx］， 1
loc＿2CE1192：；CODE XREF：＿kqvrow＿＋FB
kqvrow＋12 $\overline{8}$ ．．．
test ${ }^{-}$edi，edi ；EDI＝0
jnz＿＿VInfreq＿＿kqvrow
mov esi，［ebp＋var＿C］；［EBP－0Ch］＝0xcdfe248
mov edi，［ebp＋var＿4］；［EBP－4］＝0xc98c938
mov eax，ebx ；EBX＝0xcdfe554
mov ebx，［ebp＋var 8］；［EBP－8］＝0
lea eax，［eax＋4］；［EAX＋4］＝0xce2ffb0，＂NLSRTL Version 11．2．0．1．0－Production $\downarrow$ $\zeta$＂，＂Oracle Database 11g Enterprise Edition Release 11．2．0．1．0－Production＂，＂PL／SQL $\prec$
$\rightarrow$ Release 11．2．0．1．0－Production＂，＂TNS for 32－bit Windows：Version 11．2．0．1．0－々
$\hookrightarrow$ Production＂
loc＿2CE11A8：；CODE XREF：
mov


```
    push ecx ; ECX=0x50
    push esi ; ESI=0xce2ffb0, "TNS for 32-bit Windows: Version 11.2.0.1.0 \(\prec\)
    \(\zeta\) - Production"
    call _lxvers ; tracing nested maximum level (1) reached, skipping this 々
    \(\longrightarrow\) CALL
    add esp, 10h
    mov edx, [ebp+var_18] ; [EBP-18h]=0x50
    mov dword ptr [ebx], 5
    test edx, edx ; EDX=0x50
    jnz loc_2CE1192
    mov edx, [ebp+var_14]
    mov esi, [ebp+var_C]
    mov eax, ebx
    mov ebx, [ebp+var_8]
    mov ecx, 5
    jmp loc_2CE10F6
loc 2CE127A: ; DATA XREF: .rdata:0628B0B0
    mov edx, [ebp+var_14] ; [EBP-14h]=0xc98c938
    mov esi, [ebp+var_C] ; [EBP-0Ch]=0xcdfe248
    mov edi, [ebp+var 4] ; [EBP-4]=0xc98c938
    mov eax, ebx ; EBX=0xcdfe554
    mov ebx, [ebp+var_8] ; [EBP-8]=0
loc_2CE1288: ; CODE XREF: _kqvrow_+1F
    mov eax, [eax+8] ; [EAX+8]=0xce2ffb0, "NLSRTL Version 11.2.0.1.0 - Production"
    test eax, eax ; EAX=0xce2ffb0, "NLSRTL Version 11.2.0.1.0 - Production"
    jz short loc 2CE12A7
    push offset aXKqvvsnBuffer ; "x\$kqvvsn buffer"
    push eax ; EAX=0xce2ffb0, "NLSRTL Version 11.2.0.1.0 - Production"
    mov eax, [ebp+arg_C] ; [EBP+14h]=0x8a172b4
    push eax ; EAX=0x8a172b4
    push dword ptr [edx+10494h] ; [EDX+10494h]=0xc98cd58
    call _kghfrf ; tracing nested maximum level (1) reached, skipping this \(\downarrow\)
    \(\rightarrow\) CALL
    add esp, 10h
loc_2CE12A7: ; CODE XREF: _kqvrow_+1C1
    xor eax, eax
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    retn ; EAX=0
kqvrow endp
```

Now it is easy to see that the row number is passed from outside. The function returns the string, constructing it as follows:

| String 1 | Using vsnstr, vsnnum, vsnban global variables. <br> Calls sprintf(). <br> String 2 |
| :--- | :--- |
| Calls kkxvsn(). |  |
| String 3 | Calls lmxver(). |
| String 4 | Calls npinli(), nrtnsvrs(). |
| String 5 | Calls lxvers(). |

That's how the corresponding functions are called for determining each module's version.

### 8.11.2 X\$KSMLRU table in Oracle RDBMS

There is a mention of a special table in the Diagnosing and Resolving Error ORA-04031 on the Shared Pool or Other Memory Pools [Video] [ID 146599.1] note:

There is a fixed table called X\$KSMLRU that tracks allocations in the shared pool that cause other objects in the shared pool to be aged out. This fixed table can be used to identify what is causing the large allocation.

If many objects are being periodically flushed from the shared pool then this will cause response time problems and will likely cause library cache latch contention problems when
the objects are reloaded into the shared pool.
One unusual thing about the X\$KSMLRU fixed table is that the contents of the fixed table are erased whenever someone selects from the fixed table. This is done since the fixed table stores only the largest allocations that have occurred. The values are reset after being selected so that subsequent large allocations can be noted even if they were not quite as large as others that occurred previously. Because of this resetting, the output of selecting from this table should be carefully kept since it cannot be retrieved back after the query is issued.

However, as it can be easily checked, the contents of this table are cleared each time it's queried. Are we able to find why? Let's get back to tables we already know: kqftab and kqftap which were generated with oracle tables ${ }^{41}$ 's help, that has all information about the $\mathrm{X} \$$-tables. We can see here that the ksmlrs() function is called to prepare this table's elements:

Listing 8.17: Result of oracle tables

```
kqftab_element.name: [X$KSMLRU] ?: [ksmlr] 0x4 0x64 0x11 0xc 0xffffc0bb 0x5
kqftap param.name=[ADDR] ?: 0x917 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[INDX] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[INST_ID] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap param.name=[KSMLRIDX] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRDUR] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x4 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRSHRPOOL] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x8 0x0
kqftap param.name=[KSMLRCOM] ?: 0x501 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x14 0xc 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRSIZ] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x20 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRNUM] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x24 0x0
kqftap param.name=[KSMLRHON] ?: 0x501 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x20 0x28 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLROHV] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x48 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRSES] ?: 0x17 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x4c 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRADU] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x50 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRNID] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x54 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRNSD] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x58 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRNCD] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x5c 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[KSMLRNED] ?: 0x2 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x60 0x0
kqftap_element.fn1=ksmlrs
kqftap_element.fn2=NULL
```

Indeed, with tracer's help it is easy to see that this function is called each time we query the X\$KSMLRU table.

Here we see a references to the ksmsplu_sp() and ksmsplu_jp() functions, each of them calls the ksmsplu() at the end. At the end of the ksmsplu() function we see a call to memset ():

Listing 8.18: ksm.o

| .text:00434C50 | loc_434C50: | ; DATA XREF: .rdata:off_5E50EA8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| .text:00434C50 | mov | edx, [ebp-4] |
| .text:00434C53 | mov | [eax], esi |
| .text:00434C55 | mov | esi, [edi] |
| .text:00434C57 | mov | [eax+4], esi |
| .text:00434C5A | mov | [edi], eax |
| .text:00434C5C | add | edx, 1 |
| .text:00434C5F | mov | [ebp-4], edx |
| .text:00434C62 | jnz | loc_434B7D |
| .text:00434C68 | mov | ecx, [ebp+14h] |
| .text:00434C6B | mov | ebx, [ebp-10h] |
| .text:00434C6E | mov | esi, [ebp-0Ch] |
| .text:00434C71 | mov | edi, [ebp-8] |
| .text:00434C74 | lea | eax, [ecx+8Ch] |
| .text:00434C7A | push | 370h ; Size |
| .text:00434C7F | push | 0 ; Val |
| .text:00434C81 | push | eax ; Dst |
| .text:00434C82 | call | intel_fast_memset |
| .text:00434C87 | add | esp, 0Ch |
| .text:00434C8A | mov | esp, ebp |

[^110]| .text:00434C8C | pop | ebp |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:00434C8D | retn |  |
| .text:00434C8D _ksmsplu | endp |  |

Constructions like memset (block, 0, size) are often used just to zero memory block. What if we take a risk, block the memset() call and see what happens?

Let's run tracer with the following options: set breakpoint at $0 \times 434 C 7 A$ (the point where the arguments to memset ( ) are to be passed), so that tracer will set program counter EIP to the point where the arguments passed to memset () are to be cleared (at 0x434C8A) It can be said that we just simulate an unconditional jump from address $0 \times 434 C 7 A$ to $0 x 434 C 8 A$.

```
tracer -a:oracle.exe bpx=oracle.exe!0x00434C7A,set(eip,0x00434C8A)
```

(Important: all these addresses are valid only for the win32 version of Oracle RDBMS 11.2) Indeed, now we can query the $X \$ K S M L R U$ table as many times as we want and it is not being cleared anymore!

Do not try this at home ("MythBusters") Do not try this on your production servers.
It is probably not a very useful or desired system behavior, but as an experiment for locating a piece of code that we need, it perfectly suits our needs!

### 8.11.3 V\$TIMER table in Oracle RDBMS

V $\$$ TIMER is another fixed view that reflects a rapidly changing value:

V\$TIMER displays the elapsed time in hundredths of a second. Time is measured since the beginning of the epoch, which is operating system specific, and wraps around to 0 again whenever the value overflows four bytes (roughly 497 days).
(From Oracle RDBMS documentation ${ }^{42}$ )
It is interesting that the periods are different for Oracle for win32 and for Linux. Will we be able to find the function that generates this value?

As we can see, this information is finally taken from the X\$KSUTM table.

```
SQL> select * from V$FIXED_VIEW_DEFINITION where view_name='V$TIMER';
VIEW NAME
VIEW DEFINITION
V$TIMER
select HSECS from GV$TIMER where inst_id = USERENV('Instance')
SQL> select * from V$FIXED_VIEW_DEFINITION where view_name='GV$TIMER';
VIEW_NAME
VIEW_DEFINITION
GV$TIMER
select inst_id,ksutmtim from x$ksutm
```

Now we are stuck in a small problem, there are no references to value generating function(s) in the tables kqftab/kqftap:

Listing 8.19: Result of oracle tables

```
kqftab_element.name: [X$KSUTM] ?: [ksutm] 0x1 0x4 0x4 0x0 0xffffc09b 0x3
```

kqftap_param.name=[ADDR] ?: 0x10917 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0

[^111]kqftap_param.name=[INDX] ?: 0x20b02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap_param.name=[INST_ID] ?: 0xb02 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x0
kqftap param.name=[KSUTMTIM] ?: 0x1302 0x0 0x0 0x0 0x4 0x0 0x1e
kqftap_element.fn1=NULL
kqftap_element.fn2=NULL

When we try to find the string KSUTMTIM, we see it in this function:

```
kqfd_DRN_ksutm_c proc near ; DATA XREF: .rodata:0805B4E8
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
arg_8 = dword ptr 10h
arg_C = dword ptr 14h
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push [ebp+arg_C]
    push offset ksugtm
    push offset 2 STRING_1263_0 ; "KSUTMTIM"
    push [ebp+arg_
    push [ebp+arg_0]
    call kqfd_cfui_drain
    add esp, 14h
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    retn
kqfd_DRN_ksutm_c endp
```

The kqfd_DRN_ksutm_c() function is mentioned in the kqfd_tab_registry_0 table:

```
dd offset 2 STRING 62 0 ; "X$KSUTM"
dd offset kqfd_OPN ksutm_c
dd offset kqfd_tabl_fetch
dd 0
dd 0
dd offset kqfd_DRN_ksutm_c
```

There is a function ksugtm ( ) referenced here. Let's see what's in it (Linux x86):
Listing 8.20: ksu.o

```
ksugtm proc near
var_1C = byte ptr -1Ch
arg_4 = dword ptr 0Ch
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    sub esp, 1Ch
    lea eax, [ebp+var_1C]
    push eax
    call slgcs
    pop ecx
    mov edx, [ebp+arg 4]
    mov [edx], eax
    mov eax, 4
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    retn
ksugtm endp
```

The code in the win 32 version is almost the same.
Is this the function we are looking for? Let's see:

```
tracer -a:oracle.exe bpf=oracle.exe!_ksugtm,args:2,dump_args:0x4
```

Let's try again:

SQL> select * from V\$TIMER;
HSECS
27294929
SQL> select * from V\$TIMER;
HSECS
27295006
SQL> select * from V\$TIMER;
HSECS
27295167

Listing 8.21: tracer output

```
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe!_ksugtm (0x0, 0xd76c5f0) (called from oracle.exe!__VInfreq__qerfxFetch/
    4+0xfad (0x56bb6d5))
Argument 2/2
0D76C5F0: 38 C9
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe! ksugtm () -> 0x4 (0x4)
Argument 2/2 difference
00000000: D1 7C A0 01 ".|.. "
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe! ksugtm (0x0, 0xd76c5f0) (called from oracle.exe! _ VInfreq__qerfxFetch~
    >+0xfad (0x56bb6d5))
Argument 2/2
0D76C5F0: 38 C9 "8.
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe! ksugtm () -> 0x4 (0x4)
Argument 2/2 difference
00000000: 1E 7D A0 01 ".}.. "
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe!_ksugtm (0x0, 0xd76c5f0) (called from oracle.exe!__VInfreq__qerfxFetch/~
    +0xfad (0x56bb6d5))
Argument 2/2
0D76C5F0: 38 C9
TID=2428|(0) oracle.exe!_ksugtm () -> 0x4 (0x4)
Argument 2/2 difference
00000000: BF 7D A0 01
".}..
```

Indeed-the value is the same we see in SQL*Plus and it is returned via the second argument.
Let's see what is in slgcs() (Linux x86):

```
slgcs proc near
var_4 = dword ptr -4
arg_0 = dword ptr 8
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    push esi
    mov [ebp+var_4], ebx
    mov eax, [ebp+arg_0]
    call $+5
    pop ebx
    nop ; PIC mode
    mov ebx, offset _GLOBAL_OFFSET_TABLE
    mov dword ptr [eax], 0
    call sltrgatime64 ; PIC mode
    push 0
    push 0Ah
    push edx
    push eax
    call __udivdi3 ; PIC mode
    mov ebx, [ebp+var_4]
    add esp, 10h
    mov esp, ebp
```

$\square$
retn
slgcs endp
(it is just a call to sltrgatime64()
and division of its result by 10 ( 3.9 on page 497))
And win32-version:

```
_slgcs proc near ; CODE XREF: _dbgefgHtElResetCount+15
    ; dbgerRunActions+1528
    db 66h
    nop
    push ebp
    mov ebp, esp
    mov eax, [ebp+8]
    mov dword ptr [eax], 0
    call ds:__imp__GetTickCount@0 ; GetTickCount()
    mov edx, eax
    mov eax, 0CCCCCCCDh
    mul edx
    shr edx, 3
    mov eax, edx
    mov esp, ebp
    pop ebp
    retn
slgcs endp
```

It is just the result of GetTickCount ( ) ${ }^{43}$ divided by 10 ( 3.9 on page 497).
Voilà! That's why the win32 version and the Linux x86 version show different results, because they are generated by different OS functions.

Drain apparently implies connecting a specific table column to a specific function.
We will add support of the table kqfd_tab_registry_0 to oracle tables ${ }^{44}$, now we can see how the table column's variables are connected to $\bar{a}$ spēific functions:
[X\$KSUTM] [kqfd OPN ksutm c] [kqfd tabl fetch] [NULL] [NULL] [kqfd DRN ksutm c] [X\$KSUSGIF] [kqfd_OPN_ksusg_c] [kqfd_tabl_fetch] [NULL] [NULL] [kqfd_DRN_ksusg_c]

OPN, apparently stands for, open, and DRN, apparently, for drain.

### 8.12 Handwritten assembly code

### 8.12.1 EICAR test file

This .COM-file is intended for testing antivirus software, it is possible to run in in MS-DOS and it prints this string: "EICAR-STANDARD-ANTIVIRUS-TEST-FILE!" ${ }^{45}$.

Its important property is that it's consists entirely of printable ASCII-symbols, which, in turn, makes it possible to create it in any text editor:

```
X50!P%@AP[4\PZX54(P^)7CC)7}$EICAR-STANDARD-ANTIVIRUS-TEST-FILE!$H+H*
```

Let's decompile it:

```
; initial conditions: SP=0FFFEh, SS:[SP]=0
0100 58 pop ax
; AX=0, SP=0
0101 35 4F 21 xor ax, 214Fh
; AX = 214Fh and SP = 0
0104 50 push ax
```

[^112]```
; AX = 214Fh, SP = FFFEh and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
0105 25 40 41 and ax, 4140h
; AX = 140h, SP = FFFEh and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
0108 50 push ax
; AX = 140h, SP = FFFCh, SS:[FFFC] = 140h and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
0109 5B pop bx
; AX = 140h, BX = 140h, SP = FFFEh and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
010A 34 5C xor al, 5Ch
; AX = 11Ch, BX = 140h, SP = FFFEh and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
010C 50 push ax
010D 5A pop dx
; AX = 11Ch, BX = 140h, DX = 11Ch, SP = FFFEh and SS:[FFFE] = 214Fh
010E 58 pop ax
; AX = 214Fh, BX = 140h, DX = 11Ch and SP = 0
010F 35 34 28 xor ax, 2834h
; AX = 97Bh, BX = 140h, DX = 11Ch and SP = 0
0112 50 push ax
0113 5E pop si
; AX = 97Bh, BX = 140h, DX = 11Ch, SI = 97Bh and SP = 0
0114 29 37 sub [bx], si
0116 43 inc bx
011743 inc bx
0118 29 37 sub [bx], si
011A 7D 24 jge short near ptr word_10140
011C 45 49 43 ... db 'EICAR-STANDARD-ANTIVIRUS}-TEST-FILE!$'
0140 48 2B word_10140 dw 2B48h ; CD 21 (INT 21) will be here
0142 48 2A dw 2A48h ; CD 20 (INT 20) will be here
0144 0D db 0Dh
0145 0A db 0Ah
```

We will add comments about the registers and stack after each instruction.
Essentially, all these instructions are here only to execute this code:

```
B4 09 MOV AH, 9
BA 1C 01 MOV DX, 11Ch
CD 21 INT 21h
CD 20 INT 20h
```

INT 21h with 9th function (passed in AH) just prints a string, the address of which is passed in DS:DX. By the way, the string has to be terminated with the '\$' sign. Apparently, it's inherited from CP/M and this function was left in DOS for compatibility. INT 20h exits to DOS.

But as we can see, these instruction's opcodes are not strictly printable. So the main part of EICAR file is:

- preparing the register (AH and DX) values that we need;
- preparing INT 21 and INT 20 opcodes in memory;
- executing INT 21 and INT 20.

By the way, this technique is widely used in shellcode construction, when one have to pass x86 code in string form.
Here is also a list of all x86 instructions which have printable opcodes: .1.6 on page 1037.

### 8.13 Demos

Demos (or demomaking) were an excellent exercise in mathematics, computer graphics programming and very tight $x 86$ hand coding.

### 8.13.1 10 PRINT CHR\$(205.5+RND(1)); : GOTO 10

All examples here are MS-DOS .COM files.
In [Nick Montfort et al, 10 PRINT CHR\$(205.5+RND(1)); : GOTO 10, (The MIT Press:2012)] ${ }^{46}$

[^113]we can read about one of the most simple possible random maze generators.
It just prints a slash or backslash characters randomly and endlessly, resulting in something like this:


There are a few known implementations for 16-bit x86.

## Trixter's 42 byte version

The listing was taken from his website ${ }^{47}$, but the comments are mine.


The pseudo-random value here is in fact the time that has passed from the system's boot, taken from the 8253 time chip, the value increases by one 18.2 times per second.
By writing zero to port 43h, we send the command "select counter 0 ", "counter latch", "binary counter" (not a BCD value).

[^114]The interrupts are enabled back with the POPF instruction, which restores the IF flag as well. It is not possible to use the IN instruction with registers other than AL, hence the shuffing.

## My attempt to reduce Trixter's version: 27 bytes

We can say that since we use the timer not to get a precise time value, but a pseudo-random one, we do not need to spend time (and code) to disable the interrupts.
Another thing we can say is that we need only one bit from the low 8 -bit part, so let's read only it.
We can reduced the code slightly and we've got 27 bytes:

| 00000000: B9D007 | mov | cx,007D0 | limit output to 2000 characters |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00000003: 31C0 | xor | ax,ax | command to timer chip |
| 00000005: E643 | out | 043, al |  |
| 00000007: E440 | in | al,040 | read 8-bit of timer |
| 00000009: D1E8 | shr | ax,1 | get second bit to CF flag |
| 0000000B: D1E8 | shr | ax,1 |  |
| 0000000D: B05C | mov | al,05C | prepare '\' |
| 0000000F: 7202 | jc | 000000013 |  |
| 00000011: B02F | mov | al, 02F | ; prepare '/' |
| ; output character | to s | een |  |
| 00000013: B40E | mov | ah, 00E |  |
| 00000015: CD10 | int | 010 |  |
| 00000017: E2EA | loop | 000000003 |  |
| ; exit to DOS |  |  |  |
| 00000019: CD20 | int | 020 |  |

## Taking random memory garbage as a source of randomness

Since it is MS-DOS, there is no memory protection at all, we can read from whatever address we want. Even more than that: a simple LODSB instruction reads a byte from the DS:SI address, but it's not a problem if the registers' values are not set up, let it read 1) random bytes; 2) from a random place in memory!
It is suggested in Trixter's webpage ${ }^{48}$ to use LODSB without any setup.
It is also suggested that the SCASB
instruction can be used instead, because it sets a flag according to the byte it reads.
Another idea to minimize the code is to use the INT 29h DOS syscall, which just prints the character stored in the AL register.
That is what Peter Ferrie and Andrey "herm1t" Baranovich did (11 and 10 bytes) ${ }^{49}$ :
Listing 8.22: Andrey "herm1t" Baranovich: 11 bytes

```
00000000: B05C mov al,05C ;'\'
; read AL byte from random place of memory
00000002: AE scasb
; PF = parity (AL - random_memory_byte) = parity (5Ch - random_memory_byte)
00000003: 7A02 jp 000000007
00000005: B02F mov al,02F ;'/'
00000007: CD29 int 029 ; output AL to screen
00000009: EBF5 jmp 000000000 ; loop endlessly
```

SCASB also uses the value in the AL register, it subtract a random memory byte's value from the 5Ch value in AL. JP is a rare instruction, here it used for checking the parity flag (PF), which is generated by the formulae in the listing. As a consequence, the output character is determined not by some bit in a random memory byte, but by a sum of bits, this (hopefully) makes the result more distributed.
It is possible to make this even shorter by using the undocumented $x 86$ instruction SALC (AKA SETALC) ("Set AL CF"). It was introduced in the NEC V20 CPU and sets AL to 0xFF if CF is 1 or to 0 if otherwise.

[^115]```
; AL is random at this point
00000000: AE scasb
; CF is set according subtracting random memory byte from AL.
; so it is somewhat random at this point
00000001: D6 setalc
; AL is set to 0xFF if CF=1 or to 0 if otherwise
00000002: 242D and al,02D ;'-'
; AL here is 0x2D or 0
00000004: 042F add al,02F ;'/'
; AL here is 0x5C or 0x2F
00000006: CD29 int 029 ; output AL to screen
00000008: EBF6 jmps 000000000 ; loop endlessly
```

So it is possible to get rid of conditional jumps at all. The ASCII code of backslash ("\") is $0 \times 5 \mathrm{C}$ and $0 \times 2 \mathrm{~F}$ for slash ("I"). So we have to convert one (pseudo-random) bit in the CF flag to a value of $0 \times 5 \mathrm{C}$ or $0 \times 2 \mathrm{~F}$.
This is done easily: by AND-ing all bits in AL (where all 8 bits are set or cleared) with $0 \times 2 \mathrm{D}$ we have just 0 or $0 \times 2 \mathrm{D}$.

By adding $0 \times 2 \mathrm{~F}$ to this value, we get $0 \times 5 \mathrm{C}$ or $0 \times 2 \mathrm{~F}$.
Then we just output it to the screen.

## Conclusion

It is also worth mentioning that the result may be different in DOSBox, Windows NT and even MS-DOS, due to different conditions: the timer chip can be emulated differently and the initial register contents may be different as well.

You know, if you magnify the coastline, it still looks like a coastline, and a lot of other things have this property. Nature has recursive algorithms that it uses to generate clouds and Swiss cheese and things like that.

Donald Knuth, interview (1993)
Mandelbrot set is a fractal, which exhibits self-similarity.
When you increase scale, you see that this characteristic pattern repeating infinitely.
Here is a demo ${ }^{50}$ written by "Sir_Lagsalot" in 2009, that draws the Mandelbrot set, which is just a x86 program with executable file size of only 64 bytes. There are only 30 16-bit x86 instructions.
Here it is what it draws:


Let's try to understand how it works.

## Theory

## A word about complex numbers

A complex number is a number that consists of two parts—real (Re) and imaginary (Im).
The complex plane is a two-dimensional plane where any complex number can be placed: the real part is one coordinate and the imaginary part is the other.
Some basic rules we have to keep in mind:

- Addition: $(a+b i)+(c+d i)=(a+c)+(b+d) i$

In other words:

[^116]$\operatorname{Re}(s u m)=\operatorname{Re}(a)+\operatorname{Re}(b)$
$\operatorname{Im}($ sum $)=\operatorname{Im}(a)+\operatorname{Im}(b)$

- Multiplication: $(a+b i)(c+d i)=(a c-b d)+(b c+a d) i$

In other words:
$\operatorname{Re}($ product $)=\operatorname{Re}(a) \cdot \operatorname{Re}(c)-\operatorname{Re}(b) \cdot \operatorname{Re}(d)$
$\operatorname{Im}($ product $)=\operatorname{Im}(b) \cdot \operatorname{Im}(c)+\operatorname{Im}(a) \cdot \operatorname{Im}(d)$

- Square: $(a+b i)^{2}=(a+b i)(a+b i)=\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right)+(2 a b) i$

In other words:
$\operatorname{Re}($ square $)=\operatorname{Re}(a)^{2}-\operatorname{Im}(a)^{2}$
$\operatorname{Im}($ square $)=2 \cdot \operatorname{Re}(a) \cdot \operatorname{Im}(a)$

## How to draw the Mandelbrot set

The Mandelbrot set is a set of points for which the $z_{n+1}=z_{n}{ }^{2}+c$ recursive sequence (where $z$ and $c$ are complex numbers and $c$ is the starting value) does not approach infinity.

In plain English language:

- Enumerate all points on screen.
- Check if the specific point is in the Mandelbrot set.
- Here is how to check it:
- Represent the point as a complex number.
- Calculate the square of it.
- Add the starting value of the point to it.
- Does it go off limits? If yes, break.
- Move the point to the new place at the coordinates we just calculated.
- Repeat all this for some reasonable number of iterations.
- The point is still in limits? Then draw the point.
- The point has eventually gone off limits?
- (For a black-white image) do not draw anything.
- (For a colored image) transform the number of iterations to some color. So the color shows the speed with which point has gone off limits.
Here is Pythonesque algorithm for both complex and integer number representations:
Listing 8.24: For complex numbers

```
def check_if_is_in_set(P):
    P start=P
    iterations=0
    while True:
        if (P>bounds):
            break
        P=P^2+P start
        if iterations > max_iterations:
                break
        iterations++
    return iterations
# black-white
for each point on screen P:
    if check_if_is_in_set (P) < max_iterations:
        draw poinnt
```

for each point on screen P:
iterations = if check_if_is_in_set (P)
map iterations to color
draw color point

The integer version is where the operations on complex numbers are replaced with integer operations according to the rules which were explained above.

Listing 8.25: For integer numbers

```
def check_if_is_in_set(X, Y):
    X_start=X
    Y start=Y
    iterations=0
    while True:
        if (X^2 + Y^2 > bounds):
            break
        new_X=X^2 - Y^2 + X_start
        new }\mp@subsup{}{}{-}=2=2*X*Y + Y sta\overline{r}
        if íterations > max_iterations:
            break
        iterations++
    return iterations
# black-white
for X = min_X to max_X:
    for Y = min_Y to max_Y:
        if check_if_is_in_set (X,Y) < max_iterations:
            draw point at X, Y
# colored
for X = min_X to max X:
    for Y = min_Y to max_Y:
        iterations = if check_if_is_in_set (X,Y)
        map iterations to color
        draw color point at X,Y
```

Here is also a C\# source which is present in the Wikipedia article ${ }^{51}$, but we'll modify it so it will print the iteration numbers instead of some symbol ${ }^{52}$ :

```
using System;
using System.Collections.Generic;
using System.Linq;
using System.Text;
namespace Mnoj
{
    class Program
    {
        static void Main(string[] args)
        {
            double realCoord, imagCoord;
            double realTemp, imagTemp, realTemp2, arg;
            int iterations;
            for (imagCoord = 1.2; imagCoord >= -1.2; imagCoord -= 0.05)
            {
                for (realCoord = -0.6; realCoord <= 1.77; realCoord += 0.03)
                {
                    iterations = 0;
                realTemp = realCoord;
                imagTemp = imagCoord;
                arg = (realCoord * realCoord) + (imagCoord * imagCoord);
                while ((arg < 2*2) && (iterations < 40))
                    {
```

[^117]```
                realTemp2 = (realTemp * realTemp) - (imagTemp * imagTemp) - realCoord;
                imagTemp = (2 * realTemp * imagTemp) - imagCoord;
                realTemp = realTemp2;
                arg = (realTemp * realTemp) + (imagTemp * imagTemp);
                iterations += 1;
                }
                Console.Write("{0,2:D} ", iterations);
            }
            Console.Write("\n");
            }
            Console.ReadKey();
        }
    }
}
```

Here is the resulting file, which is too wide to be included here:
beginners.re.
The maximal number of iterations is 40 , so when you see 40 in this dump, it means that this point has been wandering for 40 iterations but never got off limits.

A number $n$ less than 40 means that point remained inside the bounds only for $n$ iterations, then it went outside them.

There is a cool demo available at http://go.yurichev.com/17309, which shows visually how the point moves on the plane at each iteration for some specific point. Here are two screenshots.

First, we've clicked inside the yellow area and saw that the trajectory (green line) eventually swirls at some point inside:


Figure 8.18: Click inside yellow area

This implies that the point we've clicked belongs to the Mandelbrot set.

Then we've clicked outside the yellow area and saw a much more chaotic point movement, which quickly went off bounds:


Figure 8.19: Click outside yellow area

This means the point doesn't belong to Mandelbrot set.
Another good demo is available here: http://go.yurichev.com/17310.

The demo, although very tiny (just 64 bytes or 30 instructions), implements the common algorithm described here, but using some coding tricks.

The source code is easily downloadable, so here is it, but let's also add comments:
Listing 8.26: Commented source code

```
; X is column on screen
; Y is row on screen
; X=0, Y=0 X=319, Y=0
; +------------------------------>
; I
; |
; |
; 1
; v
; X=0, Y=199 X=319, Y=199
; switch to VGA 320*200*256 graphics mode
mov al,13h
int 10h
; initial BX is 0
; initial DI is 0xFFFE
; DS:BX (or DS:0) is pointing to Program Segment Prefix at this moment
; ... first 4 bytes of which are CD 20 FF 9F
les ax,[bx]
; ES:AX=9FFF:20CD
FillLoop:
; set DX to 0. CWD works as: DX:AX = sign_extend(AX).
; AX here 0x20CD (at startup) or less then 320 (when getting back after loop),
; so DX will always be 0.
cwd
mov ax,di
; AX is current pointer within VGA buffer
; divide current pointer by 320
mov cx,320
div cx
; DX (start_X) - remainder (column: 0..319); AX - result (row: 0..199)
sub ax,100
; AX=AX-100, so AX (start_Y) now is in range -100..99
; DX is in range 0..319 or 0x0000..0x013F
dec dh
; DX now is in range 0xFF00..0x003F (-256..63)
xor bx,bx
xor si,si
; BX (temp_X)=0; SI (temp_Y)=0
; get maximal number of iterations
; CX is still 320 here, so this is also maximal number of iteration
MandelLoop:
mov bp,si ; BP = temp Y
imul si,bx ; SI = temp_X*temp_Y
add si,si ; SI = SI*2 = (temp_X*temp_Y)*2
imul bx,bx ; BX = BX^2 = temp X^2
jo MandelBreak ; overflow?
imul bp,bp ; BP = BP^2 = temp_Y^2
jo MandelBreak ; overflow?
add bx,bp ; BX = BX+BP = temp_X^2 + temp_Y^2
jo MandelBreak ; overflow?
sub bx,bp ; BX = BX-BP = temp_ X^2 + temp_ Y^2 - temp_ Y^2 = temp_ X^2
sub bx,bp ; BX = BX-BP = temp_X^2 - temp_Y^2
```

```
; correct scale:
sar bx,6 ; BX=BX/64
add bx,dx ; BX=BX+start X
; now temp X = temp X^2 - temp_ Y^2 + start X
sar si,6 ; SI=SI/64
add si,ax ; SI=SI+start Y
; now temp_Y = (temp_X*temp_\overline{Y})*2 + start_Y
loop MandelLoop
MandelBreak:
; CX=iterations
xchg ax,cx
; AX=iterations. store AL to VGA buffer at ES:[DI]
stosb
; stosb also increments DI, so DI now points to the next point in VGA buffer
; jump always, so this is eternal loop here
jmp FillLoop
```

Algorithm:

- Switch to $320 * 200$ VGA video mode, 256 colors. $320 * 200=64000$ ( $0 x F A 00$ ).

Each pixel is encoded by one byte, so the buffer size is 0xFA00 bytes. It is addressed using the ES:DI registers pair.

ES must be 0xA000 here, because this is the segment address of the VGA video buffer, but storing OxA000 to ES requires at least 4 bytes (PUSH 0A000h / POP ES). You can read more about the 16-bit MS-DOS memory model here: 11.6 on page 1003.

Assuming that $B X$ is zero here, and the Program Segment Prefix is at the zeroth address, the 2-byte LES AX, [BX] instruction stores $0 \times 20 \mathrm{CD}$ to $A X$ and $0 x 9 F F F$ to ES.

So the program starts to draw 16 pixels (or bytes) before the actual video buffer. But this is MS-DOS, there is no memory protection, so a write happens into the very end of conventional memory, and usually, there is nothing important. That's why you see a red strip 16 pixels wide at the right side. The whole picture is shifted left by 16 pixels. This is the price of saving 2 bytes.

- An infinite loop processes each pixel.

Probably, the most common way to enumerate all pixels on the screen is with two loops: one for the $X$ coordinate, another for the $Y$ coordinate. But then you'll need to multiply the coordinates to address a byte in the VGA video buffer.

The author of this demo decided to do it otherwise: enumerate all bytes in the video buffer by using one single loop instead of two, and get the coordinates of the current point using division. The resulting coordinates are: $X$ in the range of $-256 . .63$ and $Y$ in the range of $-100 . .99$. You can see on the screenshot that the picture is somewhat shifted to the right part of screen.

That's because the biggest heart-shaped black hole usually appears on coordinates 0,0 and these are shifted here to right. Could the author just subtract 160 from the value to get $X$ in the range of $-160 . .159$ ? Yes, but the instruction SUB DX, 160 takes 4 bytes, while DEC DH-2 bytes (which subtracts $0 \times 100$ (256) from DX). So the whole picture is shifted for the cost of another 2 bytes of saved space.

- Check, if the current point is inside the Mandelbrot set. The algorithm is the one that has been described here.
- The loop is organized using the LOOP instruction, which uses the CX register as counter.

The author could set the number of iterations to some specific number, but he didn't: 320 is already present in CX (has been set at line 35), and this is good maximal iteration number anyway. We save here some space by not the reloading CX register with another value.

- IMUL is used here instead of MUL, because we work with signed values: keep in mind that the 0,0 coordinates has to be somewhere near the center of the screen.

It's the same with SAR (arithmetic shift for signed values): it's used instead of SHR.

- Another idea is to simplify the bounds check. We must check a coordinate pair, i.e., two variables. What the author does is to checks thrice for overflow: two squaring operations and one addition.

Indeed, we use 16-bit registers, which hold signed values in the range of $-32768 . .32767$, so if any of the coordinates is greater than 32767 during the signed multiplication, this point is definitely out of bounds: we jump to the MandelBreak label.

- There is also a division by 64 (SAR instruction). 64 sets scale.

Try to increase the value and you can get a closer look, or to decrease if for a more distant look.

- We are at the MandelBreak label, there are two ways of getting here: the loop ended with CX=0 ( the point is inside the Mandelbrot set); or because an overflow has happened (CX still holds some value). Now we write the low 8-bit part of CX (CL) to the video buffer.

The default palette is rough, nevertheless, 0 is black: hence we see black holes in the places where the points are in the Mandelbrot set. The palette can be initialized at the program's start, but keep in mind, this is only a 64 bytes program!

- The program runs in an infinite loop, because an additional check where to stop, or any user interface will result in additional instructions.

Some other optimization tricks:

- The 1-byte CWD is used here for clearing DX instead of the 2-byte XOR DX, DX or even the 3-byte MOV DX, 0.
- The 1-byte XCHG AX, CX is used instead of the 2-byte MOV AX,CX. The current value of AX is not needed here anyway.
- DI (position in video buffer) is not initialized, and it is 0xFFFE at the start ${ }^{53}$.

That's OK, because the program works for all DI in the range of 0..0xFFFF eternally, and the user can't notice that it is started off the screen (the last pixel of a $320 * 200$ video buffer is at address $0 x F 9 F F)$. So some work is actually done off the limits of the screen.

Otherwise, you'll need an additional instructions to set DI to 0 and check for the video buffer's end.

## My "fixed" version

Listing 8.27: My "fixed" version

```
org 100h
mov al,13h
int 10h
; set palette
mov dx, 3c8h
mov al, 0
out dx, al
mov cx, 100h
inc dx
l00:
mov al, cl
shl ax, 2
out dx, al ; red
out dx, al ; green
out dx, al ; blue
loop l00
push 0a000h
pop es
xor di, di
FillLoop:
cwd
mov ax,di
mov cx,320
div cx
sub ax,100
sub dx,160
```

[^118]```
xor bx,bx
xor si,si
MandelLoop:
mov bp,si
imul si,bx
add si,si
imul bx,bx
jo MandelBreak
imul bp,bp
jo MandelBreak
add bx,bp
jo MandelBreak
sub bx,bp
sub bx,bp
sar bx,6
add bx,dx
sar si,6
add si,ax
loop MandelLoop
MandelBreak:
xchg ax,cx
stosb
cmp di, 0FA00h
jb FillLoop
; wait for keypress
xor ax,ax
int 16h
; set text video mode
mov ax, 3
int 10h
; exit
int 20h
```

The author of these lines made an attempt to fix all these oddities: now the palette is smooth grayscale, the video buffer is at the correct place (lines 19..20), the picture is drawn on center of the screen (line 30), the program eventually ends and waits for the user's keypress (lines 58..68).
But now it's much bigger: 105 bytes (or 54 instructions) ${ }^{54}$.

[^119]

Figure 8.20: My "fixed" version

### 8.14 Other examples

An example about Z3 and manual decompilation was here. It is (temporarily) moved there: http:// yurichev.com/tmp/SAT_SMT_DRAFT.pdf.

## Chapter 9

## Examples of reversing proprietary file formats

### 9.1 Primitive XOR-encryption

### 9.1.1 Simplest ever XOR encryption

I once saw a software where all debugging messages has been encrypted using XOR by value of 3 . In other words, two lowest bits of all characters has been flipped.
"Hello, world" would become "Kfool/\#tlqog":

```
#!/usr/bin/python
msg="Hello, world!"
print "".join(map(lambda x: chr(ord(x)^3), msg))
```

This is quite interesting encryption (or rather obfuscation), because it has two important properties: 1) single function for encryption/decryption, just apply it again; 2) resulting characters are also printable, so the whole string can be used in source code without escaping characters.
The second property exploits the fact that all printable characters organized in rows: $0 \times 2 x-0 x 7 x$, and when you flip two lowest bits, character moving 1 or 3 characters left or right, but never moved to another (maybe non-printable) row:


Figure 9.1: 7-bit ASCII table in Emacs
...with a single exception of $0 \times 7$ F character.
For example, let's encrypt characters in A-Z range:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
msg="@ABCDEFGHIJKLMNO"
print "".join(map(lambda x: chr(ord(x)^3), msg))
```

It's like "@" and "C" characters has been swapped, and so are " $B$ " and "a".
Yet again, this is interesting example of exploiting XOR properties, rather than encryption: the very same effect of preserving printableness can be achieved while flipping any of lowest 4 bits, in any combination.

### 9.1. PRIMITIVE XOR-ENCRYPTION

### 9.1.2 Norton Guide: simplest possible 1-byte XOR encryption

Norton Guide ${ }^{1}$ was popular in the epoch of MS-DOS, it was a resident program that worked as a hypertext reference manual.

Norton Guide's databases are files with the extension .ng, the contents of which look encrypted:


Figure 9.2: Very typical look

Why did we think that it's encrypted but not compressed?
We see that the $0 \times 1$ A byte (looking like " $\rightarrow$ ") occurs often, it would not be possible in a compressed file. We also see long parts that consist only of Latin letters, and they look like strings in an unknown language.

[^120]Since the 0x1A byte occurs so often, we can try to decrypt the file, assuming that it's encrypted by the simplest XOR-encryption.

If we apply XOR with the $0 \times 1 \mathrm{~A}$ constant to each byte in Hiew, we can see familiar English text strings:


Figure 9.3: Hiew XORing with $0 \times 1 \mathrm{~A}$

XOR encryption with one single constant byte is the simplest possible encryption method, which is, nevertheless, encountered sometimes.

Now we understand why the $0 \times 1 \mathrm{~A}$ byte is occurring so often: because there are so many zero bytes and they were replaced by $0 \times 1 \mathrm{~A}$ in encrypted form.

But the constant might be different. In this case, we could try every constant in the $0 . .255$ range and look for something familiar in the decrypted file. 256 is not so much.

More about Norton Guide’s file format: http://go. yurichev.com/17317.

## Entropy

A very important property of such primitive encryption systems is that the information entropy of the encrypted/decrypted block is the same.

Here is my analysis in Wolfram Mathematica 10.

## Listing 9.1: Wolfram Mathematica 10

```
In[1]:= input = BinaryReadList["X86.NG"];
In[2]:= Entropy[2, input] // N
Out[2]= 5.62724
In[3]:= decrypted = Map[BitXor[#, 16^^1A] &, input];
In[4]:= Export["X86_decrypted.NG", decrypted, "Binary"];
In[5]:= Entropy[2, decrypted] // N
Out[5]= 5.62724
In[6]:= Entropy[2, ExampleData[{"Text", "ShakespearesSonnets"}]] // N
Out[6]= 4.42366
```

What we do here is load the file, get its entropy, decrypt it, save it and get the entropy again (the same!). Mathematica also offers some well-known English language texts for analysis.

So we also get the entropy of Shakespeare's sonnets, and it is close to the entropy of the file we just analyzed.
The file we analyzed consists of English language sentences, which are close to the language of Shakespeare.

And the XOR-ed bitwise English language text has the same entropy.
However, this is not true when the file is XOR-ed with a pattern larger than one byte.
The file we analyzed can be downloaded here: http://go.yurichev.com/17350.

## One more word about base of entropy

Wolfram Mathematica calculates entropy with base of $e$ (base of the natural logarithm), and the UNIX ent utility ${ }^{2}$ uses base 2 .

So we set base 2 explicitly in Entropy command, so Mathematica will give us the same results as the ent utility.

[^121]
### 9.1. PRIMITIVE XOR-ENCRYPTION

### 9.1.3 Simplest possible 4-byte XOR encryption

If a longer pattern was used for XOR-encryption, for example a 4 byte pattern, it's easy to spot as well.
For example, here is the beginning of the kernel32.dll file (32-bit version from Windows Server 2008):


Figure 9.4: Original file


Figure 9.5: "Encrypted" file

It's very easy to spot the recurring 4 symbols.
Indeed, the header of a PE-file has a lot of long zero areas, which are the reason for the key to become visible.


Figure 9.6: PE-header

Here it is "encrypted":


## Figure 9.7: "Encrypted" PE-header

It's easy to spot that the key is the following 4 bytes: 8C 61 D2 63.
With this information, it's easy to decrypt the whole file.
So it is important to keep in mind these properties of PE-files: 1) PE-header has many zero-filled areas; 2) all PE-sections are padded with zeros at a page boundary (4096 bytes), so long zero areas are usually present after each section.

Some other file formats may contain long zero areas.
It's typical for files used by scientific and engineering software.
For those who want to inspect these files on their own, they are downloadable here: http://go. yurichev. com/17352.

## Exercise

[^122]
### 9.1. PRIMITIVE XOR-ENCRYPTION

### 9.1.4 Simple encryption using XOR mask

I've found an old interactive fiction game while diving deep into if-archive ${ }^{3}$ :

```
The New Castle v3.5 - Text/Adventure Game
in the style of the original Infocom (tm)
type games, Zork, Collosal Cave (Adventure),
etc. Can you solve the mystery of the
abandoned castle?
Shareware from Software Customization.
Software Customization [ASP] Version 3.5 Feb. 2000
```

It's downloadable here: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/ff/ XOR/mask_1/files/newcastle.tgz.
There is a file inside (named castle.dbf) which is clearly encrypted, but not by a real crypto algorithm, nor it's compressed, this is something rather simpler. I wouldn't even measure entropy level ( 9.2 on page 948) of the file, because I'm sure it's low. Here is how it looks like in Midnight Commander:


Figure 9.8: Encrypted file in Midnight Commander

The encrypted file can be downloaded here: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/ blob/master/ff/XOR/mask_1/files/castle.dbf.bz2.

Will it be possible to decrypt it without accessing to the program, using just this file?
There is a clearly visible pattern of repeating string. If a simple encryption by XOR mask was applied, such repeating strings is a prominent signature, because, probably, there were a long lacunas ${ }^{4}$ of zero bytes, which, in turn, are present in many executable files as well as in binary data files.

Here I'll dump the file's beginning using $x x d$ UNIX utility:

${ }^{3}$ http://www.ifarchive.org/
${ }^{4}$ As in https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lacuna_(manuscripts)


Let's stick at visible repeating iubgv string. By looking at this dump, we can clearly see that the period of the string occurrence is $0 \times 51$ or 81 . Probably, 81 is size of block? The size of the file is 1658961 , and it can be divided evenly by 81 (and there are 20481 blocks then).

Now I'll use Mathematica to analyze, are there repeating 81-byte blocks in the file? I'll split input file by 81-byte blocks and then I'll use Tally[] ${ }^{5}$ function which just counts, how many times some item has been occurred in the input list. Tally's output is not sorted, so I also add Sort[] function to sort it by number of occurrences in descending order.

```
input = BinaryReadList["/home/dennis/.../castle.dbf"];
blocks = Partition[input, 81];
stat = Sort[Tally[blocks], #1[[2]] > #2[[2]] &]
```

And here is output:

```
\(\{\{\{80,103,2,116,113,102,118,25,99,8,19,23,116,125,107\),
    \(25,99,109,114,102,14,121,115,31,9,117,113,111,5,4\),
    127, 28, 122, 101, 8, 110, 14, 18, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, 8,
    \(109,26,106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117,98,103,118\),
    \(1,126,29,97,122,17,15,114,110,3,5,125,125,99,126\),
    \(119,102,30,122,2,117\}, 1739\}\),
\(\{\{80,100,2,116,113,102,118,25,99,8,19,23,116\),
    \(125,107,25,99,109,114,102,14,121,115,31,9,117,113\),
    \(111,5,4,127,28,122,101,8,110,14,18,124,106,16,20\),
    \(104,119,8,109,26,106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117\),
    98, 103, 118, 1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125,
    \(125,99,126,119,102,30,122,2,117\}, 1422\}\),
\(\{\{80,101,2,116,113,102,118,25,99,8,19,23,116\),
    \(125,107,25,99,109,114,102,14,121,115,31,9,117,113\),
    \(111,5,4,127,28,122,101,8,110,14,18,124,106,16,20\),
    \(104,119,8,109,26,106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117\),
    98, 103, 118, 1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125,
    \(125,99,126,119,102,30,122,2,117\}, 1012\}\),
\(\{\{80,120,2,116,113,102,118,25,99,8,19,23,116\),
    \(125,107,25,99,109,114,102,14,121,115,31,9,117,113\),
    \(111,5,4,127,28,122,101,8,110,14,18,124,106,16,20\),
    104, 119, \(8,109,26,106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117\),
    98, 103, 118, 1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125,
    \(125,99,126,119,102,30,122,2,117\}, 377\}\),
```

$\{\{80,2,74,49,113,21,62,88,39,71,68,23,63,51,36,78,48$, $108,114,102,14,121,115,31,9,117,113,111,5,4,127,28$, 122, 101, 8, 110, 14, 18, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, 8, 109, 26, $106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117,98,103,118,1,126$,

[^123]```
    29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125, 125, 99, 126, 119, 102,
    30, 122, 2, 117\}, 1\},
\(\{\{80,1,74,59,113,45,56,86,52,91,19,64,60,60,63\),
    \(25,38,59,59,42,14,53,38,77,66,38,113,38,75,4,43,84\),
        \(63,101,64,43,79,64,40,57,16,91,46,119,69,40,84,117\),
        9, 97, 13, 99, 15, 119, 20, 105, 117, 98, 103, 118, 1, 126, 29,
    \(97,122,17,15,114,110,3,5,125,125,99,126,119,102,30\),
    \(122,2,117\}, 1\}\),
\(\{\{80,2,74,49,113,49,51,92,39,8,92,81,116,62,57\),
    \(80,46,40,114,36,75,56,33,76,9,55,56,59,81,65,45,28\),
        60, 55, 93, 39, 90, 28, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, 8, 109, 26,
    \(106,9,97,13,99,15,119,20,105,117,98,103,118,1,126\),
    \(29,97,122,17,15,114,110,3,5,125,125,99,126,119,102\),
    \(30,122,2,117\}, 1\}\}\)
```

Tally's output is a list of pairs, each pair has 81-byte block and number of times it has been occurred in the file. We see that the most frequent block is the first, it has been occurred 1739 times. The second one has been occurred 1422 times. There are others: 1012 times, 377 times, etc. 81-byte blocks which has been occurred just once are at the end of output.

Let's try to compare these blocks. The first and the second. Is there a function in Mathematica which compares lists/arrays? Certainly is, but for educational purposes, I'll use XOR operation for comparison. Indeed: if bytes in two input arrays are identical, XOR result is 0 . If they are non-equal, result will be non-zero.

Let's compare first block (occurred 1739 times) and the second (occurred 1422 times):

```
In[]:= BitXor[stat[[1]][[1]], stat[[2]][[1]]]
Out[]= {0, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}
```

They are differ only in the second byte.
Let's compare the second block (occurred 1422 times) and the third (occurred 1012 times):

```
In[]:= BitXor[stat[[2]][[1]], stat[[3]][[1]]]
Out[]= {0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}
```

They are also differ only in the second byte.
Anyway, let's try to use the most occurred block as a XOR key and try to decrypt four first 81-byte blocks in the file:

```
In[]:= key = stat[[1]][[1]]
Out[]= {80, 103, 2, 116, 113, 102, 118, 25, 99, 8, 19, 23, 116, \
125, 107, 25, 99, 109, 114, 102, 14, 121, 115, 31, 9, 117, 113, 111, \
5, 4, 127, 28, 122, 101, 8, 110, 14, 18, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, \
8, 109, 26, 106, 9, 97, 13, 99, 15, 119, 20, 105, 117, 98, 103, 118, \
1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125, 125, 99, 126, 119, \
102, 30, 122, 2, 117}
In[]:= ToASCII[val_] := If[val == 0, " ", FromCharacterCode[val, "PrintableASCII"]]
In[]:= DecryptBlockASCII[blk_] := Map[ToASCII[#] &, BitXor[key, blk]]
In[]:= DecryptBlockASCII[blocks[[1]]]
```



```
In[]:= DecryptBlockASCII[blocks[[2]]]
Out[]= {" ", "e", "H", "E", " ", "W", "E", "E", "D", " ", "0", \
"F", " ", "C", "R", "I", "M", "E", " ", "B", "E", "A", "R", "S", " ", \
```


(I've replaced unprintable characters by "?".)
So we see that the first and the third blocks are empty (or almost empty), but the second and the fourth has clearly visible English language words/phrases. It seems that our assumption about key is correct (at least partially). This means that the most occurred 81-byte block in the file can be found at places of lacunas of zero bytes or something like that.

Let's try to decrypt the whole file:

```
DecryptBlock[blk_] := BitXor[key, blk]
decrypted = Map[DecryptBlock[#] &, blocks];
BinaryWrite["/home/dennis/.../tmp", Flatten[decrypted]]
Close["/home/dennis/.../tmp"]
```



Figure 9.9: Decrypted file in Midnight Commander, 1st attempt

Looks like some kind of English phrases from some game, but something wrong. First of all, cases are inverted: phrases and some words are started with lowercase characters, while other characters are in upper case. Also, some phrases started with wrong letters. Take a look at the very first phrase: "eHE WEED OF CRIME BEARS BITTER FRUIT". What is "eHE"? Isn't "tHE" have to be here? Is it possible that our decryption key has wrong byte at this place?

Let's look again at the second block in the file, at key and at decryption result:

```
In[]:= blocks[[2]]
Out[]= {80, 2, 74, 49, 113, 49, 51, 92, 39, 8, 92, 81, 116, 62, \
57, 80, 46, 40, 114, 36, 75, 56, 33, 76, 9, 55, 56, 59, 81, 65, 45, \
28, 60, 55, 93, 39, 90, 28, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, 8, 109, 26, \
106, 9, 97, 13, 99, 15, 119, 20, 105, 117, 98, 103, 118, 1, 126, 29, \
97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125, 125, 99, 126, 119, 102, 30, \
122, 2, 117}
In[]:= key
Out[]= {80, 103, 2, 116, 113, 102, 118, 25, 99, 8, 19, 23, 116, \
125, 107, 25, 99, 109, 114, 102, 14, 121, 115, 31, 9, 117, 113, 111, \
5, 4, 127, 28, 122, 101, 8, 110, 14, 18, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, \
8, 109, 26, 106, 9, 97, 13, 99, 15, 119, 20, 105, 117, 98, 103, 118, \
1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125, 125, 99, 126, 119, \
102, 30, 122, 2, 117}
In[]:= BitXor[key, blocks[[2]]]
Out[]= {0, 101, 72, 69, 0, 87, 69, 69, 68, 0, 79, 70, 0, 67, 82, \
73, 77, 69, 0, 66, 69, 65, 82, 83, 0, 66, 73, 84, 84, 69, 82, 0, 70, \
82, 85, 73, 84, 14, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \
0, 0, 0, 0}
```


### 9.1. PRIMITIVE XOR-ENCRYPTION

Encrypted byte is 2, the byte from the key is $103,2 \oplus 103=101$ and 101 is ASCII code for "e" character. What byte of a key must be equal to, so the resulting ASCII code will be 116 (for " t " character)? $2 \oplus 116=118$, let's put 118 in key at the second byte ...

```
key = {80, 118, 2, 116, 113, 102, 118, 25, 99, 8, 19, 23, 116, 125,
    107, 25, 99, 109, 114, 102, 14, 121, 115, 31, 9, 117, 113, 111, 5,
    4, 127, 28, 122, 101, 8, 110, 14, 18, 124, 106, 16, 20, 104, 119, 8,
    109, 26, 106, 9, 97, 13, 99, 15, 119, 20, 105, 117, 98, 103, 118,
    1, 126, 29, 97, 122, 17, 15, 114, 110, 3, 5, 125, 125, 99, 126, 119,
    102, 30, 122, 2, 117}
```

...and decrypt the whole file again.


Figure 9.10: Decrypted file in Midnight Commander, 2nd attempt

Wow, now the grammar is correct, all phrases started with correct letters. But still, case inversion is suspicious. Why would game's developer write them in such a manner? Maybe our key is still incorrect?
While observing ASCII table we can notice that uppercase and lowercase letter's ASCII codes are differ in just one bit (6th bit starting at 1st, 0b100000):


Figure 9.11: 7-bit ASCII table in Emacs

6th bit set in a zero byte has decimal form of 32 . But 32 is ASCII code for space!

Indeed, one can switch case just by XOR-ing ASCII character code with 32 (more about it: 3.16 .3 on page 537).
It is possible that the empty lacunas in the file are not zero bytes, but rather spaces? Let's modify XOR key one more time (I'll XOR each byte of key by 32):

```
(* "32" is scalar and "key" is vector, but that's OK *)
In[]:= key3 = BitXor[32, key]
Out[]= \{112, 86, 34, 84, 81, 70, 86, 57, 67, 40, 51, 55, 84, 93, 75, \}
57, 67, 77, 82, 70, 46, 89, 83, 63, 41, \(85,81,79,37,36,95,60, \\)
90, 69, 40, 78, 46, 50, 92, 74, 48, 52, 72, 87, 40, 77, 58, 74, 41, \}
\(65,45,67,47,87,52,73,85,66,71,86,33,94,61,65,90,49, \\)
\(47,82,78,35,37,93,93,67,94,87,70,62,90,34,85\}\)
In []:= DecryptBlock[blk_] := BitXor[key3, blk]
```

Let's decrypt the input file again:


Figure 9.12: Decrypted file in Midnight Commander, final attempt
(Decrypted file is available here: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/blob/master/ ff/XOR/mask_1/files/decrypted.dat.bz2.)
This is undoubtedly a correct source file. Oh, and we see numbers at the start of each block. It has to be a source of our erroneous XOR key. As it seems, the most occurred 81-byte block in the file is a block filled with spaces and containing " 1 " character at the place of second byte. Indeed, somehow, many blocks here are interleaved with this one. Maybe it's some kind of padding for short phrases/messages? Other frequently occurred 81-byte blocks are also space-filled blocks, but with different digit, hence, they are differ only at the second byte.
That's all! Now we can write an utility to encrypt the file back, and maybe modify it before.

Mathematica notebook file is downloadable here：https：／／github．com／DennisYurichev／RE－for－beginners／ blob／master／ff／XOR／mask＿1／files／XOR＿mask＿1．nb．

Summary：XOR encryption like that is not robust at all．It has been intended by game＇s developer（s），prob－ ably，just to prevent gamer（s）to peek into internals of game，nothing else more serious．Still，encryption like that is extremely popular due to its simplicity and many reverse engineers are usually familiar with it．

## 9．1．5 Simple encryption using XOR mask，case II

I＇ve got another encrypted file，which is clearly encrypted by something simple，like XOR－ing：

| ／home／dennis／tmp／ciph |  |  |  | 9000日 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1С E7 9E 80 | E9 EC AC 3D | 615 A 1595 |  |
| 30090010 5C F5 D3 日D | 7038 E7 94 | DF F2 E2 BC | 763461 | p8 v4a． |
|  | 0126 2A FD | 82 DF E9 E2 | BB 336178 | ．\＆＊3a\｛ |
| 3000083014 D9 45 F8 | C5 01 3D 20 | FD 9596 EB | E4 BC 7A 61 | E ．$=$ za |
| 30080840 61188554 | 90 AR 5420 | $20 \mathrm{E1} \mathrm{DB} \mathrm{8B}$ | ED EC BC | a． |
| 3000085061701580 | 11 F9 CE 47 | 22 2A FE 8E | 9A EB F7 | al．．G＂＊ |
| 90000060 39227118 | 8 A 58 FF CE | 527038 E7 | 9 g 91 月5 | 9＂q．X Rp8胆 |
| 300コロ070 AR 763673 | 09 D9 44 E0 | 80403023 | AF 9596 | v6s．D＠＜\＃ |
| 90000080 EB BB 7月 61 | 65 1B 8A 11 | E3 C5 4024 | 2A EB F6 | ＊＊ |
| 30000890 E4 F7 EF 22 | 2977 5A 9B | 43 F5 C1 4A | 362 FFC 8 F | ）w2 C J6． |
| 300008R0 DF F1 E2 AD | 3A 24 3C 5月 | B0 11 E3 D4 | 4E 3F 2B AF | ¢ $<$＜ ．N？＋ |
| 300008B0 8E 8F EA ED | EF 222977 | 5A 9154 F1 | D2 5538 | ） $\begin{aligned} & \text { a } \\ & \text { T U8b }\end{aligned}$ |
| 30000日C0 FD $8 \mathrm{E} 98 \mathrm{A5}$ | E2 A1 3261 | 6213 9A 5A | F5 C4 01 | 2ab． $2 . \%$ |
|  | E0 8E C5 25 | 35781992 | 11 E7 C8 48 | ？\％5 |
| 300日geed 3327 AF 94 | 8 F F7 A3 B9 | $3 F 32$ 7B 日E | 9643 B0 | 3＇？2 |
| 300008F $40346 F$ E3 | 9 g 9 F 1 A3 | AD 3329 7B | 149 l 11 | ＠40辰 |
| 30000100 C9 4C 70 3B | E7 9E DF EB | EA A8 3E 35 | 3218 9C 57 | Lp；＞52．W |
| 30000110 FF D2 447 E | 6 C C6 8F DF | F2 E2 BC 76 | 20157097 | D ${ }^{\text {ob }}$ |
| 90000120 58 FE C5 DD | 703 B E7 92 | 9 CE A3 BF | $3 F 2471$ 1F | X ．p；猫 П ？${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ¢． |
| 30000130 D9 5E F6 80 | 56 3F 20 EB | D7 DF E7 F6 | A3 342 L 67 |  |
| 3000014009 D4 59 F5 | C1 4535 2B | A3 DB 90 E3 | A3 BB 3E 24 | Y E5＋s 杀＞${ }_{\text {S }}$ |
| 3000015032099643 | E4 805638 | 26 EC 93 DF | EC FO EF | 2．C V8\＆ |
| $300001602 F 7 D$ 0D 97 | 11 F1 D3 2C | 5A 2E AF D9 | AF EO ED | 1 \} |
| 3000017038263216 | 9846 E9 C5 | 537 ED FF | B1 8R F6 | 8\＆2．F $\mathrm{S}^{\sim} \mathrm{m}$ |
| 30000180 EF $232 F 76$ | $1 F 8811$ E4 | C8 447027 | EA 9月 9B | \＃／v．Dp＇ |
| 30000190 F4 AE 2561 | 73 5月 9B 43 | FF C1 4570 | 3С E6 9789 | \％asZ C Ep＜需 |
| 300001月0 E0 F1 EF 34 | 207 C 1 E D9 | 5F F5 C1 53 | 3C 3682 | S＜6 |
| 30000180 9E EB A3 A6 | 3822 7月 5月 | 9852 E 2 CF | 522361 fF | 륲 8＂zZR R\＃a |
| 300001C0 D9 AB EA A3 | 8537 2C 77 | 09 D9 7C FF | D2 5539 | 7．w．I U9＂ |
| 300001D0 EA 89 D3 A5 | CE E1 046 F | 5154 AR 1F | BC 804722 | OQT ．G＂ |
| 300001E0 20 E2 DB 97 | EC FO EF 30 | 337 B 1F 97 | 55 E3 80 4E | 3 ¢，U N |
| 300001F0 366 FFB 93 | 9 9 8889 8C | 78 －2 3C 32 | D7 1D B2 80 | $60 \quad \times .<2$ |

Figure 9．13：Encrypted file in Midnight Commander

The encrypted file can be downloaded here．
ent Linux utility reports about $\sim 7.5$ bits per byte，and this is high level of entropy（ 9.2 on page 948 ），close to compressed or properly encrypted file．But still，we clearly see some pattern，there are some blocks with size of 17 bytes，and you can see some kind of ladder，shifting by 1 byte at each 16 －byte line．
It＇s also known that the plain text is just English language text．
Now let＇s assume that this piece of text is encrypted by simple XOR－ing with 17－byte key．
I tried to find some repeating 17－byte blocks using Mathematica，like I did before in my previous example （ 9．1．4 on page 936）：

```
In[]:=input = BinaryReadList["/home/dennis/tmp/cipher.txt"];
In[]:=blocks = Partition[input, 17];
In[]:=Sort[Tally[blocks], #1[[2]] > #2[[2]] &]
Out[]:={{{248,128,88,63,58,175,159,154,232,226,161,50,97,127,3,217,80},1},
{{226,207,67,60,42,226,219,150,246,163,166,56,97,101,18,144,82},1},
{{228,128,79,49,59,250,137,154,165,236,169,118,53,122,31,217,65},1},
{{252,217,1,39,39,238,143,223,241,235,170,91,75,119,2,152,82},1},
{{244,204, 88, 112,59, 234,151,147,165,238,170,118,49,126,27,144,95},1},
{{241,196,78,112,54,224,142,223,242,236,186,58,37,50,17,144,95},1},
{{176,201,71,112,56,230,143,151,234,246,187,118,44,125,8,156,17},1},
{{255,206,82,112,56,231,158,145,165,235,170,118,54,115,9,217,68},1},
{{249,206,71,34,42,254,142,154,235,247,239,57,34,113,27,138,88},1},
{{157,170, 84,32,32,225,219,139,237,236,188,51,97,124,21,141,17},1},
{{248,197,1,61,32,253,149,150,235,228,188,122,97,97,27,143,84},1},
{{252,217,1,38,42,253,130,223,233,226,187,51,97,123,20,217,69},1},
{{245,211,13,112,56,231,148,223,242,226,188,118,52,97,15,152,93},1},
{{221,210,15,112,28,231,158,141,233,236,172,61,97,90,21,149,92},1}}
```

No luck, each 17-byte block is unique within the file and occurred only once. Perhaps, there are no 17-byte zero lacunas, or lacunas containing only spaces. It is possible indeed: such long space indentation and padding may be absent in tightly typeset text.

The first idea is to try all possible 17-byte keys and find those, which will result in readable text after decryption. Bruteforce is not an option, because there are $256^{17}$ possible keys ( $\sim 10^{40}$ ), that's too much. But there are good news: who said we have to test 17-byte key as a whole, why can't we test each byte of key separately? It is possible indeed.

Now the algorithm is:

- try all 256 bytes for 1st byte of key;
- decrypt 1st byte of each 17-byte blocks in the file;
- are all decrypted bytes we got are printable? keep tabs on it;
- do so for all 17 bytes of key.

I've written the following Python script to check this idea:
Listing 9.3: Python script

```
each Nth_byte=[""]*KEY LEN
content=read_file(sys.argv[1])
# split inpū}\mathrm{ by 17-byte chunks:
all_chunks=chunks(content, KEY_LEN)
for c in all chunks:
    for i in range(KEY LEN):
        each_Nth_byte[i]=each_Nth_byte[i] + c[i]
# try each byte of key
for N in range(KEY_LEN):
    print "N=", N
    possible_keys=[]
    for i in range(256):
        tmp_key=chr(i)*len(each_Nth_byte[N])
        tmp=xor_strings(tmp_key,each_Nth_byte[N])
        # are all characters in tmp[] are printable?
        if is_string_printable(tmp)==False:
            continue
        possible_keys.append(i)
    print possible_keys, "len=", len(possible_keys)
```

(Full version of the source code is here.)
Here is its output:
$\mathrm{N}=0$
[144, 145, 151] len= 3

```
N= 1
[160, 161] len= 2
N= 2
[32, 33, 38] len= 3
N= 3
[80, 81, 87] len= 3
N=4
[78, 79] len= 2
N= 5
[142, 143] len= 2
N= 6
[250, 251] len= 2
N= 7
[254, 255] len= 2
N= 8
[130, 132, 133] len= 3
N= 9
[130, 131] len= 2
N= 10
[206, 207] len= 2
N= 11
[81, 86, 87] len= 3
N= 12
[64, 65] len= 2
N= 13
[18, 19] len= 2
N= 14
[122, 123] len= 2
N= 15
[248, 249] len= 2
N= 16
[48, 49] len= 2
```

So there are 2 or 3 possible bytes for each byte of 17-byte key. This is much better than 256 possible bytes for each byte, but still too much. There are up to 1 million of possible keys:

Listing 9.4: Mathematica
In []:= $3 * 2 * 3 * 3 * 2 * 2 * 2 * 2 * 3 * 2 * 2 * 3 * 2 * 2 * 2 * 2 * 2$
Out[]= 995328

It's possible to check all of them, but then we must check visually, if the decrypted text is looks like English language text.

Let's also take into consideration the fact that we deal with 1) natural language; 2) English language. Natural languages has some prominent statistical features. First of all, punctuation and word lengths. What is average word length in English language? Let's just count spaces in some well-known English language texts using Mathematica.

Here is "The Complete Works of William Shakespeare" text file from Gutenberg Library:
Listing 9.5: Mathematica

```
In[]:= input = BinaryReadList["/home/dennis/tmp/pg100.txt"];
In[]:= Tally[input]
Out[]= {{239, 1}, {187, 1}, {191, 1}, {84, 39878}, {104,
    218875}, {101, 406157}, {32, 1285884}, {80, 12038}, {114,
    209907}, {111, 282560}, {106, 2788}, {99, 67194}, {116,
    291243}, {71, 11261}, {117, 115225}, {110, 216805}, {98,
    46768}, {103, 57328}, {69, 42703}, {66, 15450}, {107, 29345}, {102,
    69103}, {67, 21526}, {109, 95890}, {112, 46849}, {108, 146532}, {87,
        16508}, {115, 215605}, {105, 199130}, {97, 245509}, {83,
    34082}, {44, 83315}, {121, 85549}, {13, 124787}, {10, 124787}, {119,
        73155}, {100, 134216}, {118, 34077}, {46, 78216}, {89, 9128}, {45,
    8150}, {76, 23919}, {42, 73}, {79, 33268}, {82, 29040}, {73,
    55893}, {72, 18486}, {68, 15726}, {58, 1843}, {65, 44560}, {49,
    982}, {50, 373}, {48, 325}, {91, 2076}, {35, 3}, {93, 2068}, {74,
    2071}, {57, 966}, {52, 107}, {70, 11770}, {85, 14169}, {78,
    27393}, {75, 6206}, {77, 15887}, {120, 4681}, {33, 8840}, {60,
    468}, {86, 3587}, {51, 343}, {88, 608}, {40, 643}, {41, 644}, {62,
```

```
    440\}, \{39, 31077\}, \(\{34,488\},\{59,17199\},\{126,1\},\{95,71\},\{113\),
    2414\}, \(\{81,1179\},\{63,10476\},\{47,48\},\{55,45\},\{54,73\},\{64\),
    \(3\},\{53,94\},\{56,47\},\{122,1098\},\{90,532\},\{124,33\},\{38\),
    \(21\},\{96,1\},\{125,2\},\{37,1\},\{36,2\}\}\)
In[]:= Length[input]/1285884 // N
Out[]= 4.34712
```

There are 1285884 spaces in the whole file, and the frequency of space occurrence is 1 space per $\sim 4.3$ characters.

Now here is Alice's Adventures in Wonderland, by Lewis Carroll from the same library:

## Listing 9.6: Mathematica

```
In[]:= input = BinaryReadList["/home/dennis/tmp/pg11.txt"];
In[]:= Tally[input]
Out[]= {{239, 1}, {187, 1}, {191, 1}, {80, 172}, {114, 6398}, {111,
    9243}, {106, 222}, {101, 15082}, {99, 2815}, {116, 11629}, {32,
    27964}, {71, 193}, {117, 3867}, {110, 7869}, {98, 1621}, {103,
    2750}, {39, 2885}, {115, 6980}, {65, 721}, {108, 5053}, {105,
    7802}, {100, 5227}, {118, 911}, {87, 256}, {97, 9081}, {44,
    2566}, {121, 2442}, {76, 158}, {119, 2696}, {67, 185}, {13,
    3735}, {10, 3735}, {84, 571}, {104, 7580}, {66, 125}, {107,
    1202}, {102, 2248}, {109, 2245}, {46, 1206}, {89, 142}, {112,
    1796}, {45, 744}, {58, 255}, {68, 242}, {74, 13}, {50, 12}, {53,
    13}, {48, 22}, {56, 10}, {91, 4}, {69, 313}, {35, 1}, {49, 68}, {93,
        4}, {82, 212}, {77, 222}, {57, 11}, {52, 10}, {42, 88}, {83,
    288}, {79, 234}, {70, 134}, {72, 309}, {73, 831}, {85, 111}, {78,
    182}, {75, 88}, {86, 52}, {51, 13}, {63, 202}, {40, 76}, {41,
    76}, {59, 194}, {33, 451}, {113, 135}, {120, 170}, {90, 1}, {122,
    79}, {34, 135}, {95, 4}, {81, 85}, {88, 6}, {47, 24}, {55, 6}, {54,
    7}, {37, 1}, {64, 2}, {36, 2}}
```

In[]:= Length[input]/27964 // N
Out [] $=5.99049$

The result is different probably because of different formatting of these texts (maybe indentation and/or padding).

OK, so let's assume the average frequency of space in English language is 1 space per $4 . .7$ characters.
Now the good news again: we can measure frequency of spaces while decrypting our file gradually. Now I count spaces in each slice and throw away 1-byte keys which produce results with too small number of spaces (or too large, but this is almost impossible given so short key):

Listing 9.7: Python script

```
each_Nth_byte=[""]*KEY_LEN
content=read_file(sys.argv[1])
# split input by 17-byte chunks:
all_chunks=chunks(content, KEY_LEN)
for c in all_chunks:
    for i in range(KEY_LEN):
        each_Nth_byte[i]=each_Nth_byte[i] + c[i]
# try each byte of key
for N in range(KEY_LEN):
    print "N=", N
    possible_keys=[]
    for i in range(256):
            tmp_key=chr(i)*len(each_Nth_byte[N])
            tmp=xor_strings(tmp_key,each_Nth_byte[N])
            # are a\overline{l}l characters in tmp[\overline{] are printable?}
            if is_string_printable(tmp)==False:
                continue
        # count spaces in decrypted buffer:
        spaces=tmp.count(' ')
        if spaces==0:
```


## continue

spaces_ratio=len(tmp)/spaces
if spaces ratio<4:
continue
if spaces_ratio>7:
continue
possible_keys.append(i)
print possible_keys, "len=", len(possible_keys)
(Full version of the source code is here.)
This reports just one single possible byte for each byte of key:

```
N= 0
[144] len= 1
N= 1
[160] len= 1
N= 2
[33] len= 1
N= 3
[80] len= 1
N=4
[79] len= 1
N= 5
[143] len= 1
N= 6
[251] len= 1
N= 7
[255] len= 1
N= 8
[133] len= 1
N= 9
[131] len= 1
N= 10
[207] len= 1
N= 11
[86] len= 1
N= 12
[65] len= 1
N= 13
[18] len= 1
N= 14
[122] len= 1
N= 15
[249] len= 1
N= 16
[49] len= 1
```

Let's check this key in Mathematica:

## Listing 9.8: Mathematica

```
In[]:= input = BinaryReadList["/home/dennis/tmp/cipher.txt"];
In[]:= blocks = Partition[input, 17];
In[]:= key = {144, 160, 33, 80, 79, 143, 251, 255, 133, 131, 207, 86, 65, 18, 122, 249, 49};
In[]:= EncryptBlock[blk_] := BitXor[key, blk]
In[]:= encrypted = Map[EncryptBlock[#] &, blocks];
In[]:= BinaryWrite["/home/dennis/tmp/plain2.txt", Flatten[encrypted]]
In[]:= Close["/home/dennis/tmp/plain2.txt"]
```

And the plain text is:

```
Mr. Sherlock Holmes, who was usually very late in the mornings, save
upon those not infrequent occasions when he was up all night, was seated
at the breakfast table. I stood upon the hearth-rug and picked up the
```

"Well, Watson, what do you make of it?"
Holmes was sitting with his back to me, and I had given him no sign of my occupation.
...
(Full version of the text is here.)
The text looks correct. Yes, I made up this example and choose well-known text of Conan Doyle, but it's very close to what I had in my practice some time ago.

## Other ideas to consider

If we would fail with space counting, there are other ideas to try:

- Take into consideration the fact that lowercase letters are much more frequent than uppercase ones.
- Frequency analysis.
- There is also a good technique to detect language of a text: trigrams. Each language has some very frequent letter triplets, these may be "the" and "tha" for English. Read more about it: N-Gram-Based Text Categorization, http://code.activestate.com/recipes/326576/. Interestingly enough, trigrams detection can be used when you decrypt a ciphertext gradually, like in this example (you just have to test 3 adjacent decrypted characters).
For non-Latin writing systems encoded in UTF-8, things may be easier. For example, Russian text encoded in UTF-8 has each byte interleaved with 0xD0/0xD1 byte. It is because Cyrillic characters are placed in 4th block of Unicode table. Other writing systems has their own blocks.


### 9.2 Information entropy

For the sake of simplification, I would say, information entropy is a measure, how tightly some piece of data can be compressed. For example, it is usually not possible to compress already compressed archive file, so it has high entropy. On the other hand, 1 MiB of zero bytes can be compressed to a tiny output file. Indeed, in plain English language, one million of zeros can be described just as "resulting file is one million zero bytes". Compressed files are usually a list of instructions to decompressor, like this: "put 1000 zeros, then $0 \times 23$ byte, then $0 \times 45$ byte, then put a block of size 10 bytes which we've seen 500 bytes back, etc."

Texts written in natural languages are also can be compressed tightly, because natural languages has a lot of redundancy (otherwise, a tiny typo will always lead to misunderstanding, like any toggled bit in compressed archive make decompression nearly impossible), some words are used very often, etc. In everyday speech, it's possible to drop up to half of words and it still be recognizable.

Code for CPUs is also can be compressed, because some ISA instructions are used much more often than others. In x86, most used instructions are MOV/PUSH/CALL ( 5.11 .2 on page 731).
Data compressors and ciphers tend to produce very high entropy results. Good PRNG also produce data which cannot be compressed (it is possible to measure their quality by this sign).

So, in other words, entropy is a measure which can help to probe contents of unknown data block.

### 9.2.1 Analyzing entropy in Mathematica

(This part has been first appeared in my blog at 13-May-2015. Some discussion: https://news.ycombinator. com/item?id=9545276.)

It is possible to slice a file by blocks, calculate entropy of each and draw a graph. I did this in Wolfram Mathematica for demonstration and here is a source code (Mathematica 10):

```
(* loading the file *)
input=BinaryReadList["file.bin"];
(* setting block sizes *)
BlockSize=4096;BlockSizeToShow=256;
(* slice blocks by 4k *)
blocks=Partition[input,BlockSize];
(* how many blocks we've got? *)
Length[blocks]
(* calculate entropy for each block. 2 in Entropy[] (base) is set with the intention so Entropyr
    G []
function will produce the same results as Linux ent utility does *)
entropies=Map[N[Entropy[2,#]]&,blocks];
(* helper functions *)
fBlockToShow[input_,offset_]:=Take[input,{1+offset,1+offset+BlockSizeToShow}]
fToASCII[val ]:=FromCharacterCode[val,"PrintableASCII"]
fToHex[val_]:=IntegerString[val,16]
fPutASCIIWindow[data_]:=Framed[Grid[Partition[Map[fToASCII,data],16]]]
fPutHexWindow[data ]:=Framed[Grid[Partition[Map[fToHex,data],16],Alignment->Right]]
(* that will be the main knob here *)
{Slider[Dynamic[offset],{0,Length[input]-BlockSize,BlockSize}],Dynamic[BaseForm[offset,16]]}
(* main UI part *)
Dynamic[{ListLinePlot[entropies,GridLines->{{-1,offset/BlockSize,1}},Filling->Axis,AxesLabel /
    \zeta ->{"offset","entropy"}],
CurrentBlock=fBlockToShow[input,offset];
fPutHexWindow[CurrentBlock],
fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock]}]
```


## GeoIP ISP database

Let's start with the GeoIP file (which assigns ISP to the block of IP addresses). This binary file GeolPISP.dat has some tables (which are IP address ranges perhaps) plus some text blob at the end of the file (containing ISP names).

When I load it to Mathematica, I see this:
$\ln [68]:=$ ( $*$ that will be the main knob here *)
\{Slider[Dynamic[offset], \{0, Length[imput] - BlockSize, BlockSize\}]

$\ln [59]:=$ (* main [UI part *)
Dynamic[\{ListLinePlot[entropies, GridLines $\rightarrow\{\{-1$, offset/BlockSiz
CurrentBlock = fBlockToShow[input, offset];
fPutHexWindow [CurrentBlock], fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock] \}]




There are two parts in graph: first is somewhat chaotic, second is more steady.
0 in horizontal axis in graph means lowest entropy (the data which can be compressed very tightly, ordered in other words) and 8 is highest (cannot be compressed at all, chaotic or random in other words). Why 0 and 8 ? 0 means 0 bits per byte (byte as a container is not filled at all) and 8 means 8 bits per byte, i.e., the whole byte container is filled with the information tightly.

So I put slider to point in the middle of the first block, and I clearly see some array of 32-bit integers. Now I put slider in the middle of the second block and I see English text:
$\ln [68]:=$ (* that will be the main knob here *)
\{Slider[Dynamic[offset], \{0, Length[imput] - BlockSize, BlockSize\}]
Out $[68]=\{\square, 26 \mathrm{dOOO} 16\}$
$\ln [59]:=$ (* main UI part *)
Dynamic[\{ListLinePlot[entropies, GridLines $\rightarrow$ \{\{-1, offset/BlockSiz
CurrentBlock $=$ fBlockToShow [input, offset];
fPutHexWindow [CurrentBlock], fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock] \}]


| 6 c | 69 | 73 | 68 | 69 | 6 e | 67 | 20 | 43 | 6 f | 6 d | 70 | 61 | 6 e | 79 | 0 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 43 | 61 | 6 e | 76 | 61 | 73 | 20 | 54 | 65 | 63 | 68 | 6 e | 6 f | 6 c | 6 f | 67 |
| 79 | 0 | 43 | 6 f | 6 c | 75 | 6 d | 62 | 75 | 73 | 20 | 4 d | 69 | 64 | 64 | 6 c |
| 65 | 20 | 53 | 63 | 68 | 6 f | 6 f | 6 c | 0 | 43 | 6 f | 61 | 73 | 74 | 61 | 6 c |
| 20 | 57 | 69 | 72 | 65 | 20 | 26 | 20 | 43 | 61 | 62 | 6 c | 65 | 0 | 43 | 75 |
| 72 | 72 | 65 | 6 e | 65 | 78 | 0 | 41 | 75 | 67 | 75 | 73 | 74 | 20 | 53 | 6 f |
| 66 | 74 | 77 | 61 | 72 | 65 | 20 | 43 | 6 f | 72 | 70 | 6 f | 72 | 61 | 74 | 69 |
| 6 f | 6 e | 0 | 41 | 6 d | 65 | 72 | 69 | 63 | 61 | 6 e | 20 | 41 | 75 | 74 | 6 f |
| 6 d | 6 f | 62 | 69 | 6 c | 65 | 20 | 41 | 73 | 73 | 6 f | 63 | 69 | 61 | 74 | 69 |
| 6 f | 6 e | 20 | 4 e | 61 | 74 | 6 f | 69 | 6 e | 61 | 6 c | 20 | 4 f | 66 | 66 | 69 |
| 63 | 65 | 0 | 41 | 63 | 75 | 72 | 65 | 78 | 20 | 45 | 6 e | 76 | 69 | 72 | 6 f |
| 6 e | 6 d | 65 | 6 e | 74 | 61 | 6 c | 20 | 43 | 6 f | 72 | 70 | 2 e | 0 | 50 | 72 |
| 69 | 6 e | 63 | 65 | 20 | 43 | 6 f | 72 | 70 | 6 f | 72 | 61 | 74 | 69 | 6 f | 6 e |
| 0 | 47 | 6 f | 32 | 74 | 65 | 6 c | 2 e | 63 | 6 f | 6 d | 0 | 45 | 6 d | 70 | 6 c |
| 6 f | 79 | 6 d | 65 | 6 e | 74 | 20 | 53 | 65 | 63 | 75 | 72 | 69 | 74 | 79 | 20 |
| 43 | 6 f | 6 d | 6 d | 69 | 73 | 73 | 69 | 6 f | 6 e | 0 | 47 | 6 c | 6 f | 62 | 61 |


|  |
| :---: |

Indeed, this are names of ISPs. So, entropy of English text is 4.5-5.5 bits per byte? Yes, something like this. Wolfram Mathematica has some well-known English literature corpus embedded, and we can see entropy of Shakespeare's sonnets:

In[]:= Entropy[2,ExampleData[\{"Text", "ShakespearesSonnets"\}]]//N
Out [] $=4.42366$
4.4 is close to what we've got (4.7-5.3). Of course, classic English literature texts are somewhat different from ISP names and other English texts we can find in binary files (debugging/logging/error messages), but this value is close.

## TP-Link WR941 firmware

Next example. I've got firmware for TP-Link WR941 router:


We see here 3 blocks with empty lacunas. Then the first block with high entropy (started at address 0 ) is small, second (address somewhere at $0 \times 22000$ ) is bigger and third (address $0 \times 123000$ ) is biggest. I can't be sure about exact entropy of the first block, but 2nd and 3rd has very high entropy, meaning that these blocks are either compressed and/or encrypted.
I tried binwalk for this firmware file:


Indeed: there are some stuff at the beginning, but two large LZMA compressed blocks are started at $0 \times 20400$ and $0 \times 120200$. These are roughly addresses we have seen in Mathematica. Oh, and by the way, binwalk can show entropy information as well (-E option):

| DECIMAL | HEXADECIMAL | ENTROPY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0x0 | Falling entropy edge (0.419187) |
| 16384 | $0 \times 4000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.988639) |
| 51200 | 0xC800 | Falling entropy edge (0.000000) |
| 133120 | 0x20800 | Rising entropy edge (0.987596) |
| 968704 | 0xEC800 | Falling entropy edge (0.508720) |
| 1181696 | $0 \times 120800$ | Rising entropy edge (0.989615) |
| 3727360 | 0x38E000 | Falling entropy edge (0.732390) |

Rising edges are corresponding to rising edges of block on our graph. Falling edges are the points where empty lacunas are started.

Binwalk can also generate PNG graphs (-E -J):


What can we say about lacunas? By looking in hex editor, we see that these are just filled with 0xFF bytes. Why developers put them? Perhaps, because they weren't able to calculate precise compressed blocks sizes, so they allocated space for them with some reserve.

## Notepad

Another example is notepad.exe l've picked in Windows 8.1:
$\operatorname{In}[72]:=$ (* that will be the main knob here *)
\{Slider[Dynamic[offset], \{0, Length[input]-BlockSize, BlockSize\}]

$\ln [59]:=$ ( $*$ main UI part *)
Dynamic[\{ListLinePlot[entropies, GridLines $\rightarrow\{\{-1$, offset/BlockSiz
CurrentBlock $=$ fBlockToShow [input, offset];
fPutHexWindow[CurrentBlock], fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock] \}]



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There is cavity at $\approx 0 x 19000$ (absolute file offset). I've opened the executable file in hex editor and found imports table there (which has lower entropy than $\times 86-64$ code in the first half of graph).

There are also high entropy block started at $\approx 0 x 20000$ :
$\ln [72]:=$ ( $*$ that will be the main knob here *)
\{Slider[Dynamic[offset], \{0, Length[input] - BlockSize, BlockSize\}]

$\operatorname{In}[59]:=$ ( $*$ main UI part *)
Dynamic[\{ListLinePlot[entropies, GridLines $\rightarrow\{\{-1$, offset/BlockSiz CurrentBlock $=$ fBlockToShow [imput, offset]; fPutHexWindow[CurrentBlock], fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock] \}]



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In hex editor I can see PNG file here, embedded in the PE file resource section (it is a large image of notepad icon). PNG files are compressed, indeed.

## Unnamed dashcam

Now the most advanced example in this part is the firmware of some unnamed dashcam l've received from friend:

```
    In[63]:= (* that will be the main knob here *)
    {Slider[Dynamic[offset], {0, Length[input] - BlockSize, BlockSize}],
    Out[63]={-\square,}3\textrm{dOOO
    sort reverse @ 嗉 目
    In[59]:= (* main UI part *)
            Dynamic[{ListLinePlot[entropies, GridLines }->\mathrm{ {{-1, offset/BlockSiz'
            CurrentBlock = fBlockToShow[input, offset];
            fPutHexWindow[CurrentBlock], fPutASCIIWindow[CurrentBlock] }]
```



| 44 | $5 \pm 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | 5f | 46 | 57 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4d | 49 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | 5f | 46 | 57 | 33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4 d | 49 |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | $5 f$ | 50 | 53 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4 d | 49 |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | $5 f$ | 50 | 53 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4d | 49 |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | $5 f$ | 50 | 53 | 33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4d | 49 |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | $5 f$ | 46 | 41 | 54 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4d | 49 |
| 44 | $5 f 5$ | 53 | 50 | 49 | 5 f | 46 | 41 | 54 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 45 | 4d | 49 |
| 44 | 5f 5 | 53 | 50 | 49 | 5 f | 46 | 41 | 54 | 33 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 52 | 25 | 73 |
| 3 a | 3 a 2 | 25 | 73 | 28 | 29 | 3a | 25 | 64 | 2d | 45 | 52 | 52 | 3 a | 20 | 25 |
| 73 | 3 a 2 | 20 | 53 | 65 | 6e | 4d | $6 \pm$ | 64 | 65 | 28 | 25 | 64 | 29 | 20 | $6 \pm$ |
| 75 | 742 | 20 | $6 \pm$ | 66 | 20 | 72 | 61 | 6 e | 67 | 65 | 21 | 21 | 21 |  | a |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 41 | 52 | 30 | 33 | 33 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 52 | 25 | 73 |
| 3 a | 3 a | 25 | 73 | 28 | 29 | 3 a | 25 | 64 | 2d | 45 | 52 | 52 | 3 a | 20 | 45 |
| 72 | 726 | 6 f | 72 | 20 | 74 | 72 | 61 | 6 e | 73 | 6d | 69 | 74 | 20 | 64 | 61 |
| 74 | 612 | 20 | 28 | 77 | 72 | 69 | 74 | 65 | 20 | 61 | 64 | 64 | 72 | 29 | 21 |
| 21 | d | a | 0 | 5 e | 52 | 25 | 73 | 3a | 3 a | 25 | 73 | 28 | 29 | 3 a | 25 |


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The cavity at the very beginning is an English text: debugging messages. I checked various ISAs and I found that the first third of the whole file (with the text segment inside) is in fact MIPS (little-endian) code.

For instance, this is very distinctive MIPS function epilogue:

| ROM:000013B0 | move | $\$ s p, \$ f p$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ROM:000013B4 | lw | $\$ r a, 0 \times 1 C(\$ s p)$ |
| ROM:000013B8 | $l w$ | $\$ f p, 0 \times 18(\$ s p)$ |
| ROM:000013BC | lw | $\$ s 1,0 \times 14(\$ s p)$ |
| ROM:000013C0 | lw | $\$ s 0,0 \times 10(\$ s p)$ |
| ROM:000013C4 | jr | $\$ r a$ |
| ROM:000013C8 | addiu | $\$ s p, 0 \times 20$ |

From our graph we can see that MIPS code has entropy of 5-6 bits per byte. Indeed, I once measured various ISAs entropy and I've got these values:

- x86: .text section of ntoskrnl.exe file from Windows 2003: 6.6
- x64: .text section of ntoskrnl.exe file from Windows 7 x64: 6.5
- ARM (thumb mode), Angry Birds Classic: 7.05
- ARM (ARM mode) Linux Kernel 3.8.0: 6.03
- MIPS (little endian), .text section of user32.dII from Windows NT 4: 6.09

So the entropy of executable code is higher than of English text, but still can be compressed.
Now the second third is started at 0xF5000. I don't know what this is. I tried different ISAs but without success. The entropy of the block is looks even steadier than for executable one. Maybe some kind of data?

There is also a spike at $\approx 0 x 213000$. I checked it in hex editor and I found JPEG file there (which, of course, compressed)! I also don't know what is at the end. Let's try Binwalk for this file:

| \% binwalk FW96650A.bin |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DECIMAL | HEXADECIMAL | DESCRIPTION |
| 167698 | $0 \times 28 F 12$ | Unix path: /15/20/24/25/30/60/120/240fps can be served. |
| $\underset{\longrightarrow C o}{280286}$ | $0 \times 446 \mathrm{DE}$ | Copyright string: "Copyright (c) 2012 Novatek Microelectronic $\downarrow$ |
| 2169199 | 0x21196F | JPEG image data, JFIF standard 1.01 |
| 2300847 | $0 \times 231 B A F$ | MySQL MISAM compressed data file Version 3 |
| \% binwalk -E FW96650A.bin |  |  |
| DECIMAL | HEXADECIMAL | ENTROPY |
| 0 | 0x0 | Falling entropy edge (0.579792) |
| 2170880 | $0 \times 212000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.967373) |
| 2267136 | $0 \times 229800$ | Falling entropy edge (0.802974) |
| 2426880 | 0x250800 | Falling entropy edge (0.846639) |
| 2490368 | $0 \times 260000$ | Falling entropy edge (0.849804) |
| 2560000 | $0 \times 271000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.974340) |
| 2574336 | $0 \times 274800$ | Rising entropy edge (0.970958) |
| 2588672 | $0 \times 278000$ | Falling entropy edge (0.763507) |
| 2592768 | $0 \times 279000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.951883) |
| 2596864 | $0 \times 274000$ | Falling entropy edge (0.712814) |
| 2600960 | $0 \times 27 \mathrm{~B} 000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.968167) |
| 2607104 | $0 \times 27 \mathrm{C800}$ | Rising entropy edge (0.958582) |
| 2609152 | 0x27D000 | Falling entropy edge (0.760989) |
| 2654208 | $0 \times 288000$ | Rising entropy edge (0.954127) |
| 2670592 | 0x28C000 | Rising entropy edge (0.967883) |
| 2676736 | 0x28D800 | Rising entropy edge (0.975779) |
| 2684928 | 0x28F800 | Falling entropy edge (0.744369) |

Yes, it found JPEG file and even MySQL data! But I'm not sure if it's true—l didn't check it yet.
It's also interesting to try clusterization in Mathematica:
$\ln [64]:=$ (* let also take a look on clustering attempt of Mathematica *)
ListPlot[FindClusters[entropies]]


Here is an example of how Mathematica grouped various entropy values into distinctive groups. Indeed, there is something credible. Blue dots in range of 5.0-5.5 are supposedly related to English text. Yellow dots in 5.5-6 are MIPS code. A lot of green dots in 6.0-6.5 is the unknown second third. Orange dots close to 8.0 are related to compressed JPEG file. Other orange dots are supposedly related to the end of the firmware (unknown to us data).

## Links

Binary files used in this part: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/ ff/entropy/files. Wolfram Mathematica notebook file: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-begir blob/master/ff/entropy/files/binary_file_entropy.nb (all cells must be evaluated to start things working).

### 9.2.2 Conclusion

Information entropy can be used as a quick-n-dirty method for inspecting unknown binary files. In particular, it is a very quick way to find compressed/encrypted pieces of data. Someone say it's possible to find RSA $^{6}$ (and other asymmetric cryptographic algorithms) public/private keys in executable code (keys has high entropy as well), but I didn't try this myself.

### 9.2.3 Tools

Handy Linux ent utility to measure entropy of a file ${ }^{7}$.
There is a great online entropy visualizer made by Aldo Cortesi, which I tried to mimic using Mathematica: http://binvis.io. His articles about entropy visualization are worth reading: http://corte.si/posts/ visualisation/entropy/index.html, http://corte.si/posts/visualisation/malware/index.html, http://corte.si/posts/visualisation/binvis/index.html.
radare2 framework has \#entropy command for this.
A tool for IDA: IDAtropy ${ }^{8}$.

[^124]
### 9.2.4 A word about primitive encryption like XORing

It's interesting that simple XOR encryption doesn't affect entropy of data. I've shown this in Norton Guide example in the book ( 9.1 .2 on page 929).

Generalizing: encryption by substitution cipher also doesn't affect entropy of data (and XOR can be viewed as substitution cipher). The reason of that is because entropy calculation algorithm view data on bytelevel. On the other hand, the data encrypted by 2 or 4 -byte XOR pattern will result in another level of entropy.

Nevertheless, low entropy is usually a good sign of weak amateur cryptography (which is also used in license keys/files, etc.).

### 9.2.5 More about entropy of executable code

It is quickly noticeable that probably a biggest source of high-entropy in executable code are relative offsets encoded in opcodes. For example, these two consequent instructions will have different relative offsets in their opcodes, while they are in fact pointing to the same function:

```
function proc
function endp
...
CALL function
CALL function
```

Ideal executable code compressor would encode information like this: there is a CALL to a "function" at address $X$ and the same CALL at address $Y$ without necessity to encode address of the function twice.

To deal with this, executable compressors are sometimes able to reduce entropy here. One example is UPX: http://sourceforge.net/p/upx/code/ci/default/tree/doc/filter.txt.

### 9.2.6 PRNG

When I run GnuPG to generate new private (secret) key, it asking for some entropy ...

```
We need to generate a lot of random bytes. It is a good idea to perform
some other action (type on the keyboard, move the mouse, utilize the
disks) during the prime generation; this gives the random number
generator a better chance to gain enough entropy.
Not enough random bytes available. Please do some other work to give
the OS a chance to collect more entropy! (Need 169 more bytes)
```

This means that good a PRNG produces long high-entropy results, and this is what the secret asymmetrical cryptographical key needs. But CPRNG ${ }^{9}$ is tricky (because computer is highly deterministic device itself), so the GnuPG asking for some additional randomness from the user.

### 9.2.7 More examples

Here is a case where I try to calculate entropy of some blocks with unknown contents: 8.7 on page 864.

### 9.2.8 Entropy of various files

Entropy of random data is close to 8:

```
% dd bs=1M count=1 if=/dev/urandom | ent
Entropy = 7.999803 bits per byte.
```

[^125]This means, almost all available space inside of byte is filled with information.
256 bytes in range of $0 . .255$ gives exact value of 8 :

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys
for i in range(256):
    sys.stdout.write(chr(i))
```

```
% python 1.py | ent
Entropy = 8.000000 bits per byte.
```

Order of bytes doesn't matter. This means, all available space inside of byte is filled.
Entropy of any block filled with zero bytes is 0 :

```
% dd bs=1M count=1 if=/dev/zero | ent
Entropy = 0.000000 bits per byte.
```

Entropy of a string constisting of a single (any) byte is 0 :

```
% echo -n "aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa" | ent
Entropy = 0.000000 bits per byte.
```

Entropy of base64 string is the same as entropy of source data, but multiplied by $\frac{3}{4}$. This is because base64 encoding uses 64 symbols instead of 256.

```
% dd bs=1M count=1 if=/dev/urandom | base64 | ent
Entropy = 6.022068 bits per byte.
```

Perhaps, 6.02 not that close to 6 because padding symbols (=) spoils our statistics for a little.
Uuencode also uses 64 symbols:

```
% dd bs=1M count=1 if=/dev/urandom | uuencode - | ent
Entropy = 6.013162 bits per byte.
```

This means, any base64 and Uuencode strings can be transmitted using 6-bit bytes or characters.
Any random information in hexadecimal form has entropy of 4 bits per byte:

```
% openssl rand -hex $\$$(( 2**16 )) | ent
```

Entropy $=4.000013$ bits per byte.

Entropy of randomly picked English language text from Gutenberg library has entropy $\approx 4.5$. The reason of this is because English texts uses mostly 26 symbols, and $\log _{2}(26)=\approx 4.7$, i.e., you would need 5 -bit bytes to transmit uncompressed English texts, that would be enough (it was indeed so in teletype era).
Randomly chosen Russian language text from http://lib. ru library is F.M.Dostoevsky "Idiot" ${ }^{10}$, internally encoded in CP1251 encoding.

And this file has entropy of $\approx 4.98$. Russian language has 33 characters, and $\log _{2}(33)=\approx 5.04$. But it has unpopular and rare "ë" character. And $\log _{2}(32)=5$ (Russian alphabet without this rare character)-now this close to what we've got.
However, the text we studying uses "ë" letter, but, probably, it's still rarely used there.
The very same file transcoded from CP1251 to UTF-8 gave entropy of $\approx 4.23$. Each Cyrillic character encoded in UTF-8 is usually encoded as a pair, and the first byte is always one of: 0xD0 or 0xD1. Perhaps, this caused bias.
Let's generate random bits and output them as " T " and " F " characters:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import random, sys
rt=""
for i in range(102400):
    if random.randint(0,1)==1:
```

[^126]```
    rt=rt+"T"
    else:
    rt=rt+"F"
print rt
```

Sample: . . .TTTFTFTTTFFFTTTFTTTTTTFTTFFTTTFTFTTFTTFFFFFF....
Entropy is very close to 1 (i.e., 1 bit per byte).
Let's generate random decimal digits:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import random, sys
rt=""
for i in range(102400):
    rt=rt+"%d" % random.randint(0,9)
print rt
```

Sample: . . . 52203466119390328807552582367031963888032 . . .
Entropy will be close to 3.32 , indeed, this is $\log _{2}(10)$.

### 9.2.9 Making lower level of entropy

The author of these lines once saw a software which stored each byte of encrypted data in 3 bytes: each has $\approx \frac{b y t e}{3}$ value, so reconstructing encrypted byte back involving summing up 3 consecutive bytes. Looks absurdly.
But some people say this was done in order to conceal the very fact the data has something encrypted inside: measuring entropy of such block will show much lower level of it.

### 9.3 Millenium game save file

The "Millenium Return to Earth" is an ancient DOS game (1991), that allows you to mine resources, build ships, equip them and send them on other planets, and so on ${ }^{11}$.

Like many other games, it allows you to save all game state into a file.
Let's see if we can find something in it.

[^127]So there is a mine in the game. Mines at some planets work faster, or slower on others. The set of resources is also different.
Here we can see what resources are mined at the time:


Figure 9.14: Mine: state 1

Let's save a game state. This is a file of size 9538 bytes.
Let's wait some "days" here in the game, and now we've got more resources from the mine:


Figure 9.15: Mine: state 2

Let's save game state again.
Now let's try to just do binary comparison of the save files using the simple DOS/Windows FC utility:

```
00000016: 0D 04
00000017: 03 04
0000001C: 1F 1E
00000146: 27 3B
00000BDA: 0E 16
00000BDC: 66 9B
00000BDE: 0E 16
00000BE0: 0E 16
00000BE6: DB 4C
00000BE7: 00 01
00000BE8: 99 E8
00000BEC: A1 F3
00000BEE: 83 C7
00000BFB: A8 28
00000BFD: 98 18
00000BFF: A8 28
00000C01: A8 28
00000C07: D8 58
00000C09: E4 A4
00000C0D: 38 B8
00000C0F: E8 68
```

...> FC /b 2200save.i.v1 2200SAVE.I.V2
Comparing files 2200save.i.v1 and 2200SAVE.I.V2

The output is incomplete here, there are more differences, but we will cut result to show the most interesting.

In the first state, we have 14 "units" of hydrogen and 102 "units" of oxygen.

We have 22 and 155 "units" respectively in the second state. If these values are saved into the save file, we would see this in the difference. And indeed we do. There is $0 \times 0 \mathrm{E}$ (14) at position 0xBDA and this value is $0 \times 16$ (22) in the new version of the file. This is probably hydrogen. There is $0 \times 66$ (102) at position $0 x B D C$ in the old version and $0 x 9 B$ (155) in the new version of the file. This seems to be the oxygen.

Both files are available on the website for those who wants to inspect them (or experiment) more: beginners.re.

Here is the new version of file opened in Hiew, we marked the values related to the resources mined in the game:


Figure 9.16: Hiew: state 1

Let's check each of them.
These are clearly 16-bit values: not a strange thing for 16 -bit DOS software where the int type has 16-bit width.
9.3. MILLENIUM GAME SAVE FILE

Let's check our assumptions. We will write the 1234 (0x4D2) value at the first position (this must be hydrogen):


Figure 9.17: Hiew: let's write 1234 ( $0 \times 4 \mathrm{D} 2$ ) there

Then we will load the changed file in the game and took a look at mine statistics:


Figure 9.18: Let's check for hydrogen value

So yes, this is it.


Figure 9.19: Hiew: let's set maximal values

0xFFFF is 65535, so yes, we now have a lot of resources:


Figure 9.20: All resources are 65535 (0xFFFF) indeed

Let's skip some "days" in the game and oops! We have a lower amount of some resources:


Figure 9.21: Resource variables overflow

That's just overflow.
The game's developer supposedly didn't think about such high amounts of resources, so there are probably no overflow checks, but the mine is "working" in the game, resources are added, hence the overflows. Apparently, it is a bad idea to be that greedy.

There are probably a lot of more values saved in this file.
So this is very simple method of cheating in games. High score files often can be easily patched like that.
More about files and memory snapshots comparing: 5.10.2 on page 725 .

## 9.4 fortune program indexing file

(This part was first appeared in my blog at 25-Apr-2015.)
fortune is well-known UNIX program which shows random phrase from a collection. Some geeks are often set up their system in such way, so fortune can be called after logging on. fortune takes phrases from the text files laying in /usr/share/games/fortunes (as of Ubuntu Linux). Here is example ("fortunes" text file):

```
A day for firm decisions!!!!! Or is it?
%
A few hours grace before the madness begins again.
%
A gift of a flower will soon be made to you.
%
A long-forgotten loved one will appear soon.
Buy the negatives at any price.
%
```

A tall, dark stranger will have more fun than you.
\%

So it is just phrases, sometimes multiline ones, divided by percent sign. The task of fortune program is to find random phrase and to print it. In order to achieve this, it must scan the whole text file, count phrases, choose random and print it. But the text file can get bigger, and even on modern computers, this naive algorithm is a bit uneconomical to computer resources. The straightforward way is to keep binary index file containing offset of each phrase in text file. With index file, fortune program can work much faster: just to choose random index element, take offset from there, set offset in text file and read phrase from it. This is actually done in fortune program. Let's inspect what is in its index file inside (these are .dat files in the same directory) in hexadecimal editor. This program is open-source of course, but intentionally, I will not peek into its source code.

```
% od -t x1 --address-radix=x fortunes.dat
000000 00 00 00 02 00 00 01 af 00 00 00 bb 00 00 00 0f
000010 00 00 00 00 25 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 2b
000020 00 00 00 60 00 00 00 8f 00 00 00 df 00 00 01 14
000030 00 00 01 48 00 00 01 7c 00 00 01 ab 00 00 01 e6
000040 00 00 02 20 00 00 02 3b 00 00 02 7a 00 00 02 c5
000050 00 00 03 04 00 00 03 3d 00 00 03 68 00 00 03 a7
000060 00 00 03 el 00 00 04 19 00 00 04 2d 00 00 04 7f
000070 00 00 04 ad 00 00 04 d5 00 00 05 05 00 00 05 3b
000080 00 00 05 64 00 00 05 82 00 00 05 ad 00 00 05 ce
000090 00 00 05 f7 00 00 06 1c 00 00 06 61 00 00 06 7a
0000a0 00 00 06 dl 00 00 07 0a 00 00 07 53 00 00 07 9a
0000b0 00 00 07 f8 00 00 08 27 00 00 08 59 00 00 08 8b
0000c0 00 00 08 a0 00 00 08 c4 00 00 08 el 00 00 08 f9
0000d0 00 00 09 27 00 00 09 43 00 00 09 79 00 00 09 a3
0000e0 00 00 09 e3 00 00 0a 15 00 00 0a 4d 00 00 0a 5e
0000f0 00 00 0a 8a 00 00 0a a6 00 00 0a bf 00 00 0a ef
000100 00 00 0b 18 00 00 0b 43 00 00 0b 61 00 00 0b 8e
000110 00 00 0b cf 00 00 0b fa 00 00 0c 3b 00 00 0c 66
000120 00 00 0c 85 00 00 0c b9 00 00 0c d2 00 00 0d 02
000130 00 00 0d 3b 00 00 0d 67 00 00 0d ac 00 00 0d e0
000140 00 00 0e le 00 00 0e 67 00 00 0e a5 00 00 0e da
000150 00 00 0e ff 00 00 0f 43 00 00 0f 8a 00 00 0f bc
000160 00 00 0f e5 00 00 10 le 00 00 10 63 00 00 10 9d
000170 00 00 10 e3 00 00 11 10 00 00 11 46 00 00 11 6c
000180 00 00 11 99 00 00 11 cb 00 00 11 f5 00 00 12 32
000190 00 00 12 61 00 00 12 8c 00 00 12 ca 00 00 13 87
0001a0 00 00 13 c4 00 00 13 fc 00 00 14 la 00 00 14 6f
0001b0 00 00 14 ae 00 00 14 de 00 00 15 1b 00 00 15 55
0001c0 00 00 15 a6 00 00 15 d8 00 00 16 0f 00 00 16 4e
```

...

Without any special aid we could see that there are four 4 -byte elements on each 16 -byte line. Perhaps, it's our index array. I'm trying to load the whole file in Wolfram Mathematica as 32-bit integer array:

```
In[]:= BinaryReadList["c:/tmpl/fortunes.dat", "UnsignedInteger32"]
Out[]= {33554432, 2936078336, 3137339392, 251658240, 0, 37, 0, \
721420288, 1610612736, 2399141888, 3741319168, 335609856, 1208025088, \
2080440320, 2868969472, 3858825216, 537001984, 989986816, 2046951424, \
3305242624, 67305472, 1023606784, 1745027072, 2801991680, 3775070208, \
419692544, 755236864, 2130968576, 2902720512, 3573809152, 84213760, \
990183424, 1678049280, 2181365760, 2902786048, 3456434176, \
4144300032, 470155264, 1627783168, 2047213568, 3506831360, 168230912, \
1392967680, 2584150016, 4161208320, 654835712, 1493696512, \
2332557312, 2684878848, 3288858624, 3775397888, 4178051072, \
```

Nope, something wrong. Numbers are suspiciously big. But let's back to od output: each 4-byte element has two zero bytes and two non-zero bytes, so the offsets (at least at the beginning of the file) are 16bit at maximum. Probably different endianness is used in the file? Default endiannes in Mathematica is little-endian, as used in Intel CPUs. Now I'm changing it to big-endian:

```
In[]:= BinaryReadList["c:/tmp1/fortunes.dat", "UnsignedInteger32",
    ByteOrdering -> 1]
```

```
Out[]= {2, 431, 187, 15, 0, 620756992, 0, 43, 96, 143, 223, 276, \
328, 380, 427, 486, 544, 571, 634, 709, 772, 829, 872, 935, 993, \
1049, 1069, 1151, 1197, 1237, 1285, 1339, 1380, 1410, 1453, 1486, \
1527, 1564, 1633, 1658, 1745, 1802, 1875, 1946, 2040, 2087, 2137, \
2187, 2208, 2244, 2273, 2297, 2343, 2371, 2425, 2467, 2531, 2581, \
2637, 2654, 2698, 2726, 2751, 2799, 2840, 2883, 2913, 2958, 3023, \
3066, 3131, 3174, 3205, 3257, 3282, 3330, 3387, 3431, 3500, 3552, \
```

Yes, this is something readable. I choose random element (3066) which is 0xBFA in hexadecimal form. I'm opening 'fortunes' text file in hex editor, I'm setting 0xBFA as offset and I see this phrase:

| \% od -t | x1 |  |  | -by |  | xbf |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 000bfa | 44 | $6 f$ | 20 | 77 | 68 | 61 | 74 | 20 | 63 | $6 f$ | 6d | 65 | 73 | 20 | 6 e | 61 |
|  | D | 0 |  | w | h | a | t |  | c | 0 | m | e | S |  | n | a |
| 000c0a | 74 | 75 | 72 | 61 | 6 c | 6 c | 79 | 2e | 20 | 20 | 53 | 65 | 65 | 74 | 68 | 65 |
|  | t | u | $r$ | a | 1 | 1 | y |  |  |  | S | e | e | t | h | e |
| 000c1a | 20 | 61 | 6 e | 64 | 20 | 66 | 75 | 6d | 65 | 20 | 61 | 6 e | 64 | 20 | 74 | 68 |
|  |  | a | n | d |  | f | u | m | e |  | a | n | d |  | t | h |

Or:
Do what comes naturally. Seethe and fume and throw a tantrum.
\%

Other offset are also can be checked, yes, they are valid offsets.
I can also check in Mathematica that each subsequent element is bigger than previous. I.e., elements of array are ascending. In mathematics lingo, this is called strictly increasing monotonic function.

```
In[]:= Differences[input]
Out[]= {429, -244, -172, -15, 620756992, -620756992, 43, 53, 47, \
80, 53, 52, 52, 47, 59, 58, 27, 63, 75, 63, 57, 43, 63, 58, 56, 20, \
82, 46, 40, 48, 54, 41, 30, 43, 33, 41, 37, 69, 25, 87, 57, 73, 71, \
94, 47, 50, 50, 21, 36, 29, 24, 46, 28, 54, 42, 64, 50, 56, 17, 44, \
28, 25, 48, 41, 43, 30, 45, 65, 43, 65, 43, 31, 52, 25, 48, 57, 44, \
69, 52, 62, 73, 62, 53, 37, 68, 71, 50, 41, 57, 69, 58, 70, 45, 54, \
38, 45, 50, 42, 61, 47, 43, 62, 189, 61, 56, 30, 85, 63, 48, 61, 58, \
81, 50, 55, 63, 83, 80, 49, 42, 94, 54, 67, 81, 52, 57, 68, 43, 28, \
120, 64, 53, 81, 33, 82, 88, 29, 61, 32, 75, 63, 70, 47, 101, 60, 79, \
33, 48, 65, 35, 59, 47, 55, 22, 43, 35, 102, 53, 80, 65, 45, 31, 29, \
69, 32, 25, 38, 34, 35, 49, 59, 39, 41, 18, 43, 41, 83, 37, 31, 34, \
59, 72, 72, 81, 77, 53, 53, 50, 51, 45, 53, 39, 70, 54, 103, 33, 70, \
51, 95, 67, 54, 55, 65, 61, 54, 54, 53, 45, 100, 63, 48, 65, 71, 23, \
28, 43, 51, 61, 101, 65, 39, 78, 66, 43, 36, 56, 40, 67, 92, 65, 61, \
31, 45, 52, 94, 82, 82, 91, 46, 76, 55, 19, 58, 68, 41, 75, 30, 67, \
92, 54, 52, 108, 60, 56, 76, 41, 79, 54, 65, 74, 112, 76, 47, 53, 61, \
66, 53, 28, 41, 81, 75, 69, 89, 63, 60, 18, 18, 50, 79, 92, 37, 63, \
88, 52, 81, 60, 80, 26, 46, 80, 64, 78, 70, 75, 46, 91, 22, 63, 46, \
34, 81, 75, 59, 62, 66, 74, 76, 111, 55, 73, 40, 61, 55, 38, 56, 47, \
78, 81, 62, 37, 41, 60, 68, 40, 33, 54, 34, 41, 36, 49, 44, 68, 51, \
50, 52, 36, 53, 66, 46, 41, 45, 51, 44, 44, 33, 72, 40, 71, 57, 55, \
39, 66, 40, 56, 68, 43, 88, 78, 30, 54, 64, 36, 55, 35, 88, 45, 56, \
76, 61, 66, 29, 76, 53, 96, 36, 46, 54, 28, 51, 82, 53, 60, 77, 21, \
84, 53, 43, 104, 85, 50, 47, 39, 66, 78, 81, 94, 70, 49, 67, 61, 37, \
51, 91, 99, 58, 51, 49, 46, 68, 72, 40, 56, 63, 65, 41, 62, 47, 41, \
43, 30, 43, 67, 78, 80, 101, 61, 73, 70, 41, 82, 69, 45, 65, 38, 41, \
57, 82, 66}
```

As we can see, except of the very first 6 values (which is probably belongs to index file header), all numbers are in fact length of all text phrases (offset of the next phrase minus offset of the current phrase is in fact length of the current phrase).

It's very important to keep in mind that bit-endiannes can be confused with incorrect array start. Indeed, from od output we see that each element started with two zeros. But when shifted by two bytes in either side, we can interpret this array as little-endian:

```
% od -t x1 --address-radix=x --skip-bytes=0x32 fortunes.dat
00003201 48 00 00 01 7c 00 00 01 ab 00 00 01 e6 00 00
000042 02 20 00 00 02 3b 00 00 02 7a 00 00 02 c5 00 00
00005203 04 00 00 03 3d 00 00 03 68 00 00 03 a7 00 00
0 0 0 0 6 2 0 3 ~ e l ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 4 ~ 1 9 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 4 ~ 2 d ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 4 ~ 7 f ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~
000072 04 ad 00 00 04 d5 00 00 05 05 00 00 05 3b 00 00
00008205 64 00 00 05 82 00 00 05 ad 00 00 05 ce 00 00
000092 05 f7 00 00 06 1c 00 00 06 61 00 00 06 7a 00 00
0000a2 06 d1 00 00 07 0a 00 00 07 53 00 00 07 9a 00 00
0000b2 07 f8 00 00 08 27 00 00 08 59 00 00 08 8b 00 00
0000c2 08 a0 00 00 08 c4 00 00 08 e1 00 00 08 f9 00 00
0000d2 09 27 00 00 09 43 00 00 09 79 00 00 09 a3 00 00
0000e2 09 e3 00 00 0a 15 00 00 0a 4d 00 00 0a 5e 00 00
```

If we would interpret this array as little-endian, the first element is $0 \times 4801$, second is $0 \times 7 \mathrm{C} 01$, etc. High 8 -bit part of each of these 16 -bit values are seems random to us, and the lowest 8 -bit part is seems ascending.
But I'm sure that this is big-endian array, because the very last 32-bit element of the file is big-endian (00 $005 f$ c4 here):

```
% od -t xl --address-radix=x fortunes.dat
000660 00 00 59 0d 00 00 59 55 00 00 59 7d 00 00 59 b5
0 0 0 6 7 0 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 5 9 ~ f 4 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 5 a ~ 3 5 ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 5 a ~ 5 e ~ 0 0 ~ 0 0 ~ 5 a ~ 9 c ~
000680 00 00 5a cb 00 00 5a f4 00 00 5b 1f 00 00 5b 3d
000690 00 00 5b 68 00 00 5b ab 00 00 5b f9 00 00 5c 49
0006a0 00 00 5c ae 00 00 5c eb 00 00 5d 34 00 00 5d 7a
0006b0 00 00 5d a3 00 00 5d f5 00 00 5e 3a 00 00 5e 67
0006c0 00 00 5e a8 00 00 5e ce 00 00 5e f7 00 00 5f 30
0006d0 00 00 5f 82 00 00 5f c4
0006d8
```

Perhaps, fortune program developer had big-endian computer or maybe it was ported from something like it.

OK, so the array is big-endian, and, judging by common sense, the very first phrase in the text file must be started at zeroth offset. So zero value should be present in the array somewhere at the very beginning. We've got couple of zero elements at the beginning. But the second is most appealing: 43 is going right after it and 43 is valid offset to valid English phrase in the text file.

The last array element is 0x5FC4, and there are no such byte at this offset in the text file. So the last array element is pointing behind the end of file. It's supposedly done because phrase length is calculated as difference between offset to the current phrase and offset to the next phrase. This can be faster than traversing phrase string for percent character. But this wouldn't work for the last element. So the dummy element is also added at the end of array.

So the first 632 -bit integer values are supposedly some kind of header.
Oh, I forgot to count phrases in text file:

```
% cat fortunes | grep % | wc -l
```

432

The number of phrases can be present in index, but may be not. In case of very simple index files, number of elements can be easily deduced from index file size. Anyway, there are 432 phrases in the text file. And we see something very familiar at the second element (value 431). I've checked other files (literature.dat and riddles.dat in Ubuntu Linux) and yes, the second 32-bit element is indeed number of phrases minus 1. Why minus 1 ? Perhaps, this is not number of phrases, but rather the number of the last phrase (starting at zero)?

And there are some other elements in the header. In Mathematica, I'm loading each of three available files and I'm taking a look on the header:

```
    In[14]:= input = BinaryReadList["c:/tmp1/fortunes.dat", "UnsignedInteger32",
        ByteOrdering }->\mathrm{ 1];
    In[18]:= BaseForm[Take[input, {1, 6}], 16]
Out[18]//BaseForm=
    {216, 1af
    In[19]:= input = BinaryReadList["c:/tmp1/literature.dat", "UnsignedInteger32",
                ByteOrdering }->\mathrm{ 1];
    In[20]:= BaseForm[Take[input, {1, 6}], 16]
Out[20]/BaseForm=
    {2 16, 106 16, 983 (16, 1a (a 16, 0
    ln[21]:= input = BinaryReadList["c:/tmp1/riddles.dat", "UnsignedInteger32", ByteOrdering }->\mathrm{ 1];
    ln[22]:= BaseForm[Take[input, {1, 6}], 16]
Out[22]/BaseForm=
    {216, 80 16, 7f2 (16, 24 16, O O ( 
```

I have no idea what other values mean, except the size of index file. Some fields are the same for all files, some are not. From my own experience, there could be:

- file signature;
- file version;
- checksum;
- some flags;
- maybe even text language identifier;
- text file timestamp, so the fortune program will regenerate index file if a user modified text file.

For example, Oracle .SYM files ( 9.5 on the following page) which contain symbols table for DLL files, also contain timestamp of corresponding DLL file, so to be sure it is still valid.
On the other hand, text file and index file timestamps can gone out of sync after archiving/unarchiving/installing/deploying/etc.
But there are no timestamp, in my opinion. The most compact way of representing date and time is UNIX time value, which is big 32 -bit number. We don't see any of such here. Other ways of representation are even less compact.
So here is algorithm, how fortune supposedly works:

- take number of last phrase from the second element;
- generate random number in range of $0 . . n u m b e r \_o f$ _last_phrase;
- find corresponding element in array of offsets, take also following offset;
- output to stdout all characters from the text file starting at the offset until the next offset minus 2 (so to ignore terminating percent sign and character of the following phrase).


### 9.4.1 Hacking

Let's try to check some of our assumptions. I will create this text file under the path and name /usr/share/games/fortunes/fortunes:

```
Phrase one.
%
Phrase two.
%
```

Then this fortunes.dat file. I take header from the original fortunes.dat, I changed second field (count of all phrases) to zero and I left two elements in the array: 0 and $0 \times 1 \mathrm{c}$, because the whole length of the text fortunes file is 28 ( $0 \times 1 \mathrm{c}$ ) bytes:

```
% od -t x1 --address-radix=x fortunes.dat
000000 00 00 00 02 00 00 0% 00 00 00 00 bb 00 00 00 0f
000010}0000000 00 25 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 1c
```

Now I run it:
\% /usr/games/fortune
fortune: no fortune found

Something wrong. Let's change the second field to 1 :

```
% od -t xl --address-radix=x fortunes.dat
000000 00 00 00 02 00 00 00 01 00 00 00 bb 00 00 00 0f
000010 00 00 00 00 25 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 1c
```

Now it works. It's always shows only the first phrase:
\% /usr/games/fortune
Phrase one.

Hmmm. Let's leave only one element in array (0) without terminating one:

```
% od -t x1 --address-radix=x fortunes.dat
000000 00 00 00 02 00 00 00 01 00 00 00 bb 00 00 00 0f
000010 00 00 00 00 25 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00001c
```

Fortune program always shows only first phrase.
From this experiment we got to know that percent sign in text file is parsed and the size is not calculated as I deduced before, perhaps, even terminal array element is not used. However, it still can be used. And probably it was used in past?

### 9.4.2 The files

For the sake of demonstration, I still didn't take a look in fortune source code. If you want to try to understand meaning of other values in index file header, you may try to achieve it without looking into source code as well. Files I took from Ubuntu Linux 14.04 are here: http://beginners.re/examples/ fortune/, hacked files are also here.

Oh, and I took the files from x64 version of Ubuntu, but array elements are still has size of 32 bit. It is because fortune text files are probably never exceeds $4 \mathrm{GiB}^{12}$ size. But if it will, all elements must have size of 64 bit so to be able to store offset to the text file larger than 4GiB.

For impatient readers, the source code of fortune is here: https://launchpad.net/ubuntu/+source/ fortune-mod/1:1.99.1-3.1ubuntu4.

### 9.5 Oracle RDBMS: .SYM-files

When an Oracle RDBMS process experiences some kind of crash, it writes a lot of information into log files, including stack trace, like this:

| ---- Call Stack Trace ----- |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| calling | call | entry | argument values in hex |
| location | type | point | (? means dubious value) |

[^128]| opiodr()+1248 | CALLreg | 00000000 | 5E 1C EB1F0A0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ttcpip()+1051 | CALLreg | 00000000 | 5E 1C EB1F0A0 0 |
| opitsk()+1404 | CALL??? | 00000000 | C96C040 5E EB1F0A0 0 EB1ED30 |
|  |  |  | EB1F1CC 53E52E 0 EB1F1F8 |
| _opiino()+980 | CALLrel | opitsk() | 00 |
| -opiodr ()+1248 | CALLreg | -00000000 | 3C 4 EB1FBF4 |
| -opidrv()+1201 | CALLrel | _opiodr() | 3C 4 EB1FBF4 0 |
| _sou2o()+55 | CALLrel | _opidrv() | 3C 4 EB1FBF4 |
| _opimai_real()+124 | CALLrel | _sou2o() | EB1FC04 3C 4 EB1FBF4 |
| _opimai()+125 | CALLrel | _opimai_real() | 2 EB1FC2C |
| OracleThreadStart@ | CALLrel | _opimai() | 2 EB1FF6C 7C88A7F4 EB1FC34 0 |
| 4 ( ) +830 |  |  | EB1FD04 |
| 77E6481C | CALLreg | 00000000 | E41FF9C 00 E41FF9C 0 EB1FFC4 |
| 00000000 | CALL??? | 00000000 |  |

But of course, Oracle RDBMS's executables must have some kind of debug information or map files with symbol information included or something like that.
Windows NT Oracle RDBMS has symbol information in files with .SYM extension, but the format is proprietary. (Plain text files are good, but needs additional parsing, hence offer slower access.)

Let's see if we can understand its format.
We will pick the shortest orawtc8.sym file that comes with the orawtc8.dll file in Oracle 8.1.7 ${ }^{13}$.

[^129]

Figure 9.22: The whole file in Hiew

By comparing the file with other .SYM files, we can quickly see that OSYM is always header (and footer), so this is maybe the file's signature.

We also see that basically, the file format is: OSYM + some binary data + zero delimited text strings + OSYM. The strings are, obviously, function and global variable names.

We will mark the OSYM signatures and strings here:


Figure 9.23: OSYM signature and text strings

Well, let's see. In Hiew, we will mark the whole strings block (except the trailing OSYM signatures) and put it into a separate file. Then we run UNIX strings and wc utilities to count the text strings:

```
strings strings_block | wc -l
66
```

So there are 66 text strings. Please note that number.
We can say, in general, as a rule, the number of anything is often stored separately in binary files.
It's indeed so, we can find the 66 value $(0 \times 42)$ at the file's start, right after the OSYM signature:

| \$ hexdump |  | orawt | . sy |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00000000 |  | 5359 | 4d 4 | 420 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 10 |  | 00 | 10 | 80 |  | 10 | 00 |  | \| OSYMB |
| 00000010 |  | 1000 | 105 | 50 | 11 | 00 | 10 | 60 | 11 | 10 | 00 | 10 | c0 |  | 11 | 00 | 10 | \| ....P |
| 00000020 |  | 1100 | 107 | 701 | 13 | 00 | 10 | 40 | 15 | 50 | 00 | 10 | 50 | 01 | 15 | 00 |  |  |
| 00000030 |  | 1500 | 108 | 80 | 15 | 00 | 10 | a0 | 15 | 50 | 00 | 10 | a6 | 61 |  | 00 | 10 |  |

Of course, $0 \times 42$ here is not a byte, but most likely a 32 -bit value packed as little-endian, hence we see $0 \times 42$ and then at least 3 zero bytes.

Why do we believe it's 32-bit? Because, Oracle RDBMS's symbol files may be pretty big.
The oracle.sym file for the main oracle.exe (version 10.2.0.4) executable contains $0 \times 3 \mathrm{~A} 38 \mathrm{E}$ (238478) symbols. A 16-bit value isn't enough here.
We can check other .SYM files like this and it proves our guess: the value after the 32-bit OSYM signature always reflects the number of text strings in the file.
9.5. ORACLE RDBMS: .SYM-FILES

It's a general feature of almost all binary files: a header with a signature plus some other information about the file.

Now let's investigate closer what this binary block is.
Using Hiew again, we put the block starting at address 8 (i.e., after the 32-bit count value) ending at the strings block, into a separate binary file.


Figure 9.24: Binary block

There is a clear pattern in it.


Figure 9.25: Binary block patterns

Hiew, like almost any other hexadecimal editor, shows 16 bytes per line. So the pattern is clearly visible: there are 4 32-bit values per line.

The pattern is visually visible because some values here (till address $0 x 104$ ) are always in $0 x 1000 x x x x$ form, started with $0 \times 10$ and zero bytes.

Other values (starting at $0 \times 108$ ) are in $0 \times 0000 x x x x$ form, so always started with two zero bytes.
Let's dump the block as an array of 32-bit values:
Listing 9.9: first column is address

```
$ od -v -t x4 binary_block
0000000 10001000 10001080 100010f0 10001150
0000020 10001160 100011c0 100011d0 10001370
0000040 10001540 10001550 10001560 10001580
0000060 100015a0 100015a6 100015ac 100015b2
0000100 100015b8 100015be 100015c4 100015ca
0000120 100015d0 100015e0 100016b0 10001760
0000140 10001766 1000176c 10001780 100017b0
0000160 100017d0 100017e0 10001810 10001816
0000200 10002000 10002004 10002008 1000200c
0000220 10002010 10002014 10002018 1000201c
```

9.5. ORACLE RDBMS: .SYM-FILES

```
0000240 10002020 10002024 10002028 1000202c
0000260 10002030 10002034 10002038 1000203c
0000300 10002040 10002044 10002048 1000204c
0000320 10002050 100020d0 100020e4 100020f8
0000340 1000210c 10002120 10003000 10003004
0000360 10003008 1000300c 10003098 1000309c
0000400 100030a0 100030a4 000000000 00000008
0000420 00000012 0000001b 00000025 0000002e
0000440 00000038 00000040 00000048 00000051
0000460 0000005a 00000064 0000006ee 0000007a
0000500 00000088 00000096 0000000a4 000000ae
0000520 000000b6 000000c0 000000d2 000000e2
0000540 000000f0 00000107 000000110 00000116
0000560 00000121 0000012a 00000132 0000013a
0000600 00000146 00000153 00000170 00000186
0000620 000001a9 000001c1 000001de 000001ed
0000640 000001fb 00000207 0000021b 0000022a
0000660 0000023d 0000024e 00000269 00000277
0000700 00000287 00000297 000002b6 000002ca
0000720 000002dc 000002f0 00000304 00000321
0000740 0000033e 0000035d 0000037a 00000395
0000760 000003ae 000003b6 000003be 000003c6
0001000 000003ce 000003dc 000003e9 000003f8
0001020
```

There are 132 values, that's 66*2. Probably, there are two 32-bit values for each symbol, but maybe there are two arrays? Let's see.
Values starting with $0 \times 1000$ may be addresses.
This is a .SYM file for a DLL after all, and the default base address of win32 DLLs is $0 \times 10000000$, and the code usually starts at $0 \times 10001000$.
When we open the orawtc8.dII file in IDA, the base address is different, but nevertheless, the first function is:

```
.text:60351000 sub_60351000 proc near
.text:60351000
.text:60351000 arg_0 = dword ptr 8
.text:60351000 arg_4 = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:60351000 arg_8 = dword ptr 10h
.text:60351000
.text:60351000
.text:60351001
.text:60351003
.text:60351008
.text:6035100B
.text:6035100D
.text:60351013
.text:60351015
.text:60351018
.text:6035101D
.text:6035101F
.text:60351024
.text:60351026
.text:6035102B
.text:60351031
.text:60351031 loc_60351031: ; CODE XREF: sub_60351000+1D
.text:60351031 test ecx, ecx
.text:60351033 jbe short loc_6035104F
.text:60351035 push offset ProcName ; "ax_reg"
.text:6035103A push ecx ; hModule
.text:6035103B call ds:GetProcAddress
```

Wow, "ax_reg" string sounds familiar.
It's indeed the first string in the strings block! So the name of this function seems to be "ax_reg".
The second function is:

```
.text:60351080 sub_60351080 proc near
.text:60351080
.text:60351080 arg_0 = dword ptr 8
.text:60351080 arg_4 = dword ptr 0Ch
.text:60351080
.text:60351080 push ebp
.text:60351081 mov ebp, esp
.text:60351083 mov eax, dword_60353018
.text:60351088 cmp eax, 0FFFFFFFFh
.text:6035108B jnz short loc_603510CF
.text:6035108D mov ecx, hModüle
.text:60351093 xor eax, eax
.text:60351095 cmp ecx, 0FFFFFFFFFh
.text:60351098 mov dword_60353018, eax
.text:6035109D jnz short loc_603510B1
.text:6035109F call sub_603510 F0
.text:603510A4 mov ecx, eax
.text:603510A6 mov eax, dword_60353018
.text:603510AB mov hModule, ecx
.text:603510B1
.text:603510B1 loc_603510B1: ; CODE XREF: sub_60351080+1D
.text:603510B1 - test ecx, ecx
.text:603510B3 jbe short loc_603510CF
.text:603510B5 push offset aAx_unreg ; "ax_unreg"
.text:603510BA push ecx ; hModule
.text:603510BB call ds:GetProcAddress
```

The "ax_unreg" string is also the second string in the strings block!
The starting address of the second function is $0 \times 60351080$, and the second value in the binary block is 10001080. So this is the address, but for a DLL with the default base address.

We can quickly check and be sure that the first 66 values in the array (i.e., the first half of the array) are just function addresses in the DLL, including some labels, etc. Well, what's the other part of array then? The other 66 values that start with $0 \times 0000$ ? These seem to be in range [0...0x3F8]. And they do not look like bitfields: the series of numbers is increasing.
The last hexadecimal digit seems to be random, so, it's unlikely the address of something (it would be divisible by 4 or maybe 8 or $0 \times 10$ otherwise).
Let's ask ourselves: what else Oracle RDBMS's developers would save here, in this file?
Quick wild guess: it could be the address of the text string (function name).
It can be quickly checked, and yes, each number is just the position of the first character in the strings block.
This is it! All done.
We will write an utility to convert these .SYM files into IDA script, so we can load the .idc script and it sets the function names:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
#include <io.h>
#include <assert.h>
#include <malloc.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <string.h>
int main (int argc, char *argv[])
{
```

```
        uint32_t sig, cnt, offset;
```

        uint32_t sig, cnt, offset;
        uint32 t *d1, *d2;
        uint32 t *d1, *d2;
        int h, i, remain, file_len;
        int h, i, remain, file_len;
        char *d3;
        char *d3;
        uint32_t array_size_in_bytes;
        uint32_t array_size_in_bytes;
        assert (argv[1]); // file name
        assert (argv[1]); // file name
        assert (argv[2]); // additional offset (if needed)
    ```
        assert (argv[2]); // additional offset (if needed)
```

```
// additional offset
assert (sscanf (argv[2], "%X", &offset)==1);
// get file length
assert ((h=open (argv[1], _0 RDONLY | 0 BINARY, 0))!=-1);
assert ((file len=lseek (h, \overline{0, SEEK END))!=-1);}
assert (lseek (h, 0, SEEK_SET)!=-1);
// read signature
assert (read (h, &sig, 4)==4);
// read count
assert (read (h, &cnt, 4)==4);
assert (sig==0x4D59534F); // OSYM
// skip timedatestamp (for 11g)
//_lseek (h, 4, 1);
array_size_in_bytes=cnt*sizeof(uint32_t);
// load symbol addresses array
d1=(uint32_t*)malloc (array_size_in_bytes);
assert (d1);
assert (read (h, d1, array_size_in_bytes)==array_size_in_bytes);
// load string offsets array
d2=(uint32_t*)malloc (array_size_in_bytes);
assert (d2);
assert (read (h, d2, array_size_in_bytes)==array_size_in_bytes);
// calculate strings block size
remain=file_len-(8+4)-(cnt*8);
// load strings block
assert (d3=(char*)malloc (remain));
assert (read (h, d3, remain)==remain);
printf ("#include <idc.idc>\n\n");
printf ("static main() {\n");
for (i=0; i<cnt; i++)
    printf ("\tMakeName(0x%08X, \"%s\");\n", offset + d1[i], &d3[d2[i]]);
printf ("}\n");
close (h);
free (d1); free (d2); free (d3);
```

\};

Here is an example of its work:

```
#include <idc.idc>
static main() {
    MakeName(0x60351000, "_ax_reg");
    MakeName(0x60351080, "_ax_unreg");
    MakeName(0x603510F0, "-loàddll");
    MakeName(0x60351150, "_wtcsrin0");
    MakeName(0x60351160, "_wtcsrin");
    MakeName(0x603511C0, "_wtcsrfre");
    MakeName(0x603511D0, "_wtclkm");
    MakeName(0x60351370, "_wtcstu");
}
```

The example files were used in this example are here: beginners.re.

Oh, let's also try Oracle RDBMS for win64. There has to be 64-bit addresses instead, right?
The 8-byte pattern is visible even easier here:


Figure 9.26: .SYM-file example from Oracle RDBMS for win64

So yes, all tables now have 64-bit elements, even string offsets!
The signature is now 0SYMAM64, to distinguish the target platform, apparently.
This is it!
Here is also library which has functions to access Oracle RDBMS.SYM-files: GitHub.

### 9.6 Oracle RDBMS: .MSB-files

When working toward the solution of a problem, it always helps if you know the answer.

This is a binary file that contains error messages with their corresponding numbers. Let's try to understand its format and find a way to unpack it.
9.6. ORACLE RDBMS: .MSB-FILES

There are Oracle RDBMS error message files in text form, so we can compare the text and packed binary files ${ }^{14}$.

This is the beginning of the ORAUS.MSG text file with some irrelevant comments stripped:
Listing 9.10: Beginning of ORAUS.MSG file without comments

```
00000, 00000, "normal, successful completion"
00001, 00000, "unique constraint (%s.%s) violated"
00017, 00000, "session requested to set trace event"
00018, 00000, "maximum number of sessions exceeded"
00019, 00000, "maximum number of session licenses exceeded"
00020, 00000, "maximum number of processes (%s) exceeded"
00021, 00000, "session attached to some other process; cannot switch session"
00022, 00000, "invalid session ID; access denied"
00023, 00000, "session references process private memory; cannot detach session"
00024, 00000, "logins from more than one process not allowed in single-process mode"
00025, 00000, "failed to allocate %s"
00026, 00000, "missing or invalid session ID"
00027, 00000, "cannot kill current session"
00028, 00000, "your session has been killed"
00029, 00000, "session is not a user session"
00030, 00000, "User session ID does not exist."
00031, 00000, "session marked for kill"
```

The first number is the error code. The second is perhaps maybe some additional flags.

[^130]

Figure 9.27: Hiew: first block

We see the text strings (including those from the beginning of the ORAUS.MSG file) interleaved with some binary values. By quick investigation, we can see that main part of the binary file is divided by blocks of size 0x200 (512) bytes.

Let's see the contents of the first block:


Figure 9.28: Hiew: first block

Here we see the texts of the first messages errors. What we also see is that there are no zero bytes between the error messages. This implies that these are not null-terminated $C$ strings. As a consequence, the length of each error message must be encoded somehow. Let's also try to find the error numbers. The ORAUS.MSG files starts with these: $0,1,17$ ( $0 \times 11$ ), 18 ( $0 \times 12$ ), 19 ( $0 \times 13$ ), 20 ( $0 \times 14$ ), 21 ( $0 \times 15$ ), 22 ( $0 \times 16$ ) , 23 ( $0 \times 17$ ), 24 ( $0 \times 18$ )... We will find these numbers at the beginning of the block and mark them with red lines. The period between error codes is 6 bytes.

This implies that there are probably 6 bytes of information allocated for each error message.
The first 16-bit value (0xA here or 10) means the number of messages in each block: this can be checked by investigating other blocks. Indeed: the error messages have arbitrary size. Some are longer, some are shorter. But block size is always fixed, hence, you never know how many text messages can be packed in each block.

As we already noted, since these are not null-terminated $C$ strings, their size must be encoded somewhere. The size of the first string "normal, successful completion" is 29 (0x1D) bytes. The size of the second string "unique constraint (\%s. \%s) violated" is $34(0 \times 22)$ bytes. We can't find these values ( $0 \times 1 \mathrm{D}$ or/and $0 \times 22$ ) in the block.

There is also another thing. Oracle RDBMS has to determine the position of the string it needs to load in the block, right? The first string "normal, successful completion" starts at position $0 \times 1444$ (if we count starting at the beginning of the file) or at $0 \times 44$ (from the block's start). The second string "unique constraint
(\%s. \%s) violated" starts at position $0 \times 1461$ (from the file's start) or at $0 \times 61$ (from the at the block's start). These numbers ( $0 \times 44$ and $0 \times 61$ ) are familiar somehow! We can clearly see them at the start of the block.
So, each 6-byte block is:

- 16-bit error number;
- 16-bit zero (maybe additional flags);
- 16-bit starting position of the text string within the current block.

We can quickly check the other values and be sure our guess is correct. And there is also the last "dummy" 6-byte block with an error number of zero and starting position beyond the last error message's last character. Probably that's how text message length is determined? We just enumerate 6-byte blocks to find the error number we need, then we get the text string's position, then we get the position of the text string by looking at the next 6-byte block! This way we determine the string's boundaries! This method allows to save some space by not saving the text string's size in the file!
It's not possible to say it saves a lot of space, but it's a clever trick.


Figure 9.29: Hiew: file header

Now we can quickly find the number of blocks in the file (marked by red). We can checked other .MSB-files and we see that it's true for all of them.

There are a lot of other values, but we will not investigate them, since our job (an unpacking utility) is done.

If we have to write a .MSB file packer, we would probably have to understand the meaning of the other values.

There is also a table that came after the header which probably contains 16－bit values：

| Hiew：oraus．msb |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C：\tmp\oraus．msb |  |  | ［FR0 |  |  |  |  |  | 00000800 |
| 00000800 ： | 833 34 | 8F 34 | 9B 34 | AA 34 | BE 34 | C7 34 | D1 34 | DA 34 | 「4П4ы4к4－4｜－4〒4 ¢ 4 |
| 00000810 ： | E3 34 | EB 34 | 2435 | 2C 35 | 3235 | 3935 | －41 35 | 4735 | y4b4\＄5，52595A5G5 |
| 00000820 ： | 4 E 35 | 5635 | 5D 35 | 8435 | 8A 35 | 8F 35 | ．95 35 | BA 35 | N5V5］5Д5K5П5X5｜［5 |
| 00000830 ： | C6 35 | CE 35 | D8 35 | E4 35 | 0436 | 0F 36 | 1 B 36 | 2436 |  |
| 00000840： | 2C 36 | 5236 | 5B 36 | 9436 | A2 36 | B4 36 | －BF 36 | C6 36 | ，6R6［606s6－ 676 |
| 00000850： | CE 36 | D7 36 | DF 36 | E7 36 | ED 36 | F5 36 | FC 36 | 0437 |  |
| 00000860 ： | OC 37 | 1337 | 1 A 37 | 2137 | 2937 | 3137 | 3937 | 4637 |  |
| 00000870 ： | 4E 37 | $55 \quad 37$ | 5E 37 | $68 \quad 37$ | 6E 37 | $75 \quad 37$ | 7 C 7 | 8437 | N7U7＾7h7n7u7\}7Д7 |
| 00000880： | A2 37 | AF 37 | B7 37 | BD 37 | C5 37 | CC 37 | D2 37 | D8 37 | B7п7ㄲㄱㄱㄱㄱㄱ객T구7 |
| 00000890 ： | E0 37 | E8 37 | F2 37 | F9 37 | 4538 | 73 38 | 7A 38 | A8 38 | p7ш7€7－7E8s8z8и8 |
| 000008A0： | B1 38 | B7 38 | BC 38 | C6 38 | 0A 39 | OF 39 | 1439 | 1 B 39 |  |
| $000008 \mathrm{B0}$ ： | $23 \quad 39$ | 2939 | 2F 39 | 3539 | 3E 39 | 4639 | 7039 | A6 39 | \＃9）9／959＞9F9p9w9 |
| 00008C0： | AE 39 | 9A 3A | A5 3A | B1 3A | BC 3A | C7 3A | D2 3A | DC 3A | o9b：e：旁：』：$\\|$ ：п！п： |
| 000008D0： | E5 3A | F4 3A | 00 3B | 0B 3B | 15 3B | 2E 3B | 39 3B | 47 3B |  |
| 000008E0： | 51 3B | 5E 3B | 68 3В | 74 3B | 84 3B | 8E 3B | B4 3B | 5B 3C | Q；＾；h；t；A；0；－［［＜ |
| 00008F0： | 65 3C | 6E 3C | 77 3C | 8F 3C | 96 3C | C0 3C | C6 3C | CC 3C | $e<n<w<\Pi<L<L<L^{2}<L^{2}$ |
| 00000900 ： | F5 3C | 53 3D | 88 3E | 90 3E | 96 3E | 9E 3E | －A7 3E | B0 3E |  |
| 00000910 ： | BA 3E | C4 3E | CF 3E | D9 3E | E1 3E | EA 3E | F5 3E | FE 3E |  |
| 00000920： | 07 3F | 12 3F | 1 B 3F | 23 3F | 2B 3F | 34 3F | －3B 3F | 44 3F | ？回？回？\＃？＋？4？；？ |
| 00000930： | 4D 3F | 56 3F | 61 3F | 6C 3F | 78 3F | 80 3F | 88 3F | 91 3F | M？V？a？l？x？A？И？C？ |
| 00000940 ： | 99 3F | 1640 | 1F 40 | 2640 | 2F 40 | 8040 | 8D 40 | 9C 40 | แア『＠E＠\＆＠／＠A＠H＠Ь＠ |
| 00000950： | AA 40 | B6 40 | C0 40 | CA 40 | D4 40 | DC 40 | E8 40 | F2 40 | к＠＠＠－¢＠u＠E＠ |
| 00000960： | FA 40 | 0241 | 0B 41 | 1541 | 1D 41 | 4441 | －4E 41 | 5741 | －＠EAEAEAEADANAWA |
| 00000970： | 5F 41 | 6641 | 6E 41 | 7 B 41 | 8641 | 8D 41 | ．96 41 | 9F 41 | ＿AfAnA\｛AWAHALAGA |
| 00000980： | A7 41 | AF 41 | B7 41 | BD 41 | 3B 42 | 6044 | CB 44 | D3 44 |  |
| 00000990 ： | DD 44 | 5546 | 5 E 46 | 42 4A | 4E 4A | 56 4A | 5F 4A | 9F 4A | ｜DUF＾FBJNJVJ JgJ |
| 000009A0： | AA 4A | B3 4A | B7 4A | BB 4A | BD 4A | BF 4A |  | C3 4A |  |
| 00000980： | C6 4A | CA 4A． | CD 4A | D1 4A | DA 4A | E0 4A． | E9 4A |  |  |
| 1Global 2F | B1k | CryB1k | 4 ReLoa | ad 5 |  | String | 7 Direc | ct 8 Tabl | 9 10Leave |

Figure 9．30：Hiew：last＿errnos table

Their size can be determined visually（red lines are drawn here）．
While dumping these values，we have found that each 16－bit number is the last error code for each block． So that＇s how Oracle RDBMS quickly finds the error message：
－load a table we will call last＿errnos（that contains the last error number for each block）；
－find a block that contains the error code we need，assuming all error codes increase across each block and across the file as well；
－load the specific block；
－enumerate the 6－byte structures until the specific error number is found；
－get the position of the first character from the current 6－byte block；
－get the position of the last character from the next 6－byte block；
－load all characters of the message in this range．
This is C program that we wrote which unpacks ．MSB－files：beginners．re．
There are also the two files which were used in the example（Oracle RDBMS 11．1．0．6）：beginners．re， beginners．re．

### 9.7. EXERCISES

### 9.6.1 Summary

The method is probably too old-school for modern computers. Supposedly, this file format was developed in the mid-80's by someone who also coded for big iron with memory/disk space economy in mind. Nevertheless, it has been an interesting and yet easy task to understand a proprietary file format without looking into Oracle RDBMS's code.

### 9.7 Exercises

Try to reverse engineer of any binary files of your favorite game, including high-score files, resources, etc.
There are also binary files with known structure: utmp/wtmp files, try to understand its structure without documentation.

The EXIF header in JPEG file is documented, but you can try to understand its structure without help, just shoot photos at various date/time, places, and try to find date/time and GPS location in EXIF. Try to patch GPS location, upload JPEG file to Facebook and see, how it will put your picture on the map.
Try to patch any information in MP3 file and see how your favorite MP3-player will react.

### 9.8 Further reading

Pierre Capillon - Black-box cryptanalysis of home-made encryption algorithms: a practical case study.

## Chapter 10

## Dynamic binary instrumentation

DBI tools can be viewed as highly advanced and fast debuggers.

### 10.1 Using PIN DBI for XOR interception

PIN from Intel is a DBI tool. That means, it takes compiled binary and inserts your instructions in it, where you want.

Let's try to intercept all XOR instructions. These are heavily used in cryptography, and we can try to run WinRAR archiver in encryption mode with a hope that some XOR instruction is indeed is used while encryption.

Here is the source code of my PIN tool: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/ tree/master/DBI/XOR/files/XOR_ins.cpp.
The code is almost self-explanatory: it scans input executable file for all XOR/PXOR instructions and inserts a call to our function before each. log_info() function first checks, if operands are different (since XOR is often used just to clear register, like XOR EAX, EAX), and if they are different, it increments a counter at this EIP/RIP, so the statistics will be gathered.

I have prepared two files for test: test1.bin (30720 bytes) and test2.bin (5547752 bytes), I'll compress them by RAR with password and see difference in statistics.
You'll also need to turn off ASLR ${ }^{1}$, so the PIN tool will report the same RIPs as in RAR executable.
Now let's run it:
c:\pin-3.2-81205-msvc-windows $\backslash$ pin.exe -t XOR_ins.dll -- rar a -pLongPassword tmp.rar test1.bin
c:\pin-3.2-81205-msvc-windows $\backslash$ pin.exe -t XOR_ins.dll -- rar a -pLongPassword tmp.rar test2.bin

Now here is statistics for the testl.bin:
https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/XOR/files/XOR_ins.out. test1. ... and for test2.bin:
https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/XOR/files/XOR_ins.out.
test2. So far, you can ignore all addresses other than ip=0x1400xxxxx, which are in other DLLs.
Now let's see a difference: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/ DBI/XOR/files/XOR ins.diff.

Some XOR instructions executed more often for test2.bin (which is bigger) than for test1.bin (which is smaller). So these are clearly related to file size!
The first block of differences is:

```
< ip=0x140017b21 count=0xd84
< ip=0x140017b48 count=0x81f
< ip=0x140017b59 count=0x858
< ip=0x140017b6a count=0xc13
< ip=0x140017b7b count=0xefc
< ip=0x140017b8a count=0xefd
< ip=0x140017b92 count=0xb86
```

[^131]```
< ip=0x140017ba1 count=0xf01
---
> ip=0x140017b21 count=0x9eab5
> ip=0x140017b48 count=0x79863
> ip=0x140017b59 count=0x862e8
> ip=0x140017b6a count=0x99495
> ip=0x140017b7b count=0xa891c
> ip=0x140017b8a count=0xa89f4
> ip=0x140017b92 count=0x8ed72
> ip=0x140017bal count=0xa8a8a
```

This is indeed some kind of loop inside of RAR.EXE:
.text:0000000140017B21 loc_140017B21:
.text:0000000140017B21
.text:0000000140017B24
.text:0000000140017B28
.text:0000000140017B2C
.text:0000000140017B2F
.text:0000000140017B32
.text:0000000140017B35
.text:0000000140017B38
.text:0000000140017B3B
.text:0000000140017B3E
.text:0000000140017B41
.text:0000000140017B44
.text:0000000140017B48
.text:0000000140017B50
.text:0000000140017B53
.text:0000000140017B56
.text:0000000140017B59
.text:0000000140017B61
.text:0000000140017B64
.text:0000000140017B67
.text:0000000140017B6A
.text:0000000140017B72
.text:0000000140017B75
.text:0000000140017B78
.text:0000000140017B7B
.text:0000000140017B83
.text:0000000140017B86
.text:0000000140017B8A
.text:0000000140017B92
.text:0000000140017B9A
.text:0000000140017B9E
.text:0000000140017BA1
.text:0000000140017BA9
.text:0000000140017BAD

```
xor r11d, [rbx]
mov r9d, [rbx+4]
add rbx, 8
mov eax, r9d
shr eax, 18h
movzx edx, al
mov eax, r9d
shr eax, 10h
movzx ecx, al
mov eax, r9d
shr eax, 8
mov r8d, [rsi+rdx*4]
xor r8d, [rsi+rcx*4+400h]
movzx ecx, al
mov eax, r11d
shr eax, 18h
xor r8d, [rsi+rcx*4+800h]
movzx ecx, al
mov eax, rlld
shr eax, 10h
xor r8d, [rsi+rcx*4+1000h]
movzx ecx, al
mov eax, rlld
shr eax, 8
xor r8d, [rsi+rcx*4+1400h]
movzx ecx, al
movzx eax, r9b
xor r8d, [rsi+rcx*4+1800h]
xor r8d, [rsi+rax*4+0C00h]
movzx eax, rllb
mov r11d, r8d
xor rlld, [rsi+rax*4+1C00h]
sub rdi, 1
jnz loc_140017B21
```

What does it do? No idea yet.
The next:

```
< ip=0x14002c4f1 count=0x4fce
---
> ip=0x14002c4f1 count=0x4463be
```

$0 \times 4$ fce is 20430, which is close to size of test1.bin (30720 bytes). $0 \times 4463$ be is 4481982 which is close to size of test2.bin ( 5547752 bytes). Not equal, but close.
This is a piece of code with that XOR instruction:
.text:000000014002C4EA loc_14002C4EA:
.text:000000014002C4EA
.text: 0000000014002C4EE
.text:000000014002C4F1
.text:000000014002C4F3
.text:000000014002C4F9
.text: 0000000014002C4FD
.text:000000014002C4FF
movzx eax, byte ptr [r8]
shl ecx, 5
xor ecx, eax
and ecx, 7FFFh
cmp [r11+rcx*4], esi
jb short loc_14002C507
cmp [r11+rcx*4], r10d
10.1. USING PIN DBI FOR XOR INTERCEPTION

| .text:0000000014002C503 | ja | short loc_14002C507 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:000000014002C505 | inc | ebx |

Loop body can be written as:

```
state = input_byte ^ (state<<5) & 0x7FFF}.
```

state is then used as index in some table. Is this some kind of CRC²? I don't know, but this could be a checksumming routine. Or maybe optimized CRC routine? Any ideas?
The next block:

```
< ip=0x14004104a count=0x367
< ip=0x140041057 count=0x367
> ip=0x14004104a count=0x24193
> ip=0x140041057 count=0x24193
```

.text:0000000140041039 loc_140041039:
.text:0000000140041039 mov rax, r10
.text:000000014004103C
.text:0000000140041040
.text: 0000000140041044
.text: 0000000140041048
.text:0000000140041044
.text: 0000000014004104A
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { mov } & \text { rax, r10 } \\ \text { add } & \text { r10, 10h }\end{array}$
cmp byte ptr [rcx+1], 0
movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [rax]
jz short loc 14004104E
pxor xmm0, xmm $\overline{1}$
.text:000000014004104E
.text:000000014004104E loc 14004104E:
.text:000000014004104E
.text:0000000140041053
.text:0000000140041057
.text:000000014004105B
.text: 0000000014004105F
.text:0000000140041061
.text:0000000140041065
.text:0000000140041069
.text:0000000140041069 loc_140041069:
.text:00000000140041069
.text: 0000000014004106D
.text:0000000140041071
.text:0000000140041076
.text:000000014004107A
.text:000000014004107C
movdqu xmm1, xmmword ptr [rcx+18h]
movsxd r8, dword ptr [rcx+4]
pxor xmm1, xmm0
cmp r8d, 1
jle short loc_14004107C
lea $r d x,[r c x+28 h]$
lea r9d, [r8-1]
movdqu xmm0, xmmword ptr [rdx]
lea $\quad$ dx, [rdx+10h]
aesenc xmm1, xmm0
sub r9, 1
jnz short loc_140041069

This piece has both PXOR and AESENC instructions (the last is AES ${ }^{3}$ encryption instruction). So yes, we found encryption function, RAR uses AES.
There is also another big block of almost contiguous XOR instructions:

```
< ip=0x140043e10 count=0x23006
--
> ip=0x140043e10 count=0x23004
499c510
< ip=0x140043e56 count=0x22ffd
---
> ip=0x140043e56 count=0x23002
```

But, its count is not very different during compressing/encrypting test1.bin/test2.bin. What is on these addresses?
.text: 00000000140043 E 07
.text: 0000000140043 E 0 A
.text: 0000000140043 E 0 D
.text: 0000000140043 E 10
.text: 0000000140043 E 13
.text:0000000140043E16
.text:0000000140043E18
.text:0000000140043E1C

| xor | ecx, r9d |
| :--- | :--- |
| mov | r11d, eax |
| and | ecx, r10d |
| xor | ecx, r8d |
| rol | eax, 8 |
| and | eax, esi |
| ror | r11d, 8 |
| add | edx, 5A827999h |

[^132]| .text:0000000140043E22 | ror | r10d, 2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| .text:0000000140043E26 | add | r8d, 5A827999h |
| .text:0000000140043E2D | and | r11d, r12d |
| .text:0000000140043E30 | or | r11d, eax |
| .text:0000000140043E33 | mov | eax, ebx |

Let's google 5A827999h constant... this looks like SHA-1! But why would RAR use SHA-1 during encryption?

Here is the answer:

```
In comparison, WinRAR uses its own key derivation scheme that requires (password length * 2 + \swarrow
    \11)*4096 SHA-1 transformations. 'Thats why it takes longer to brute-force attack \swarrow
    encrypted WinRAR archives.
```

( http://www.tomshardware.com/reviews/password-recovery-gpu, 2945-8.html )
This is key scheduling: input password hashed many times and the hash is then used as AES key. This is why we see the count of XOR instruction is almost unchanged during we switched to bigger test file.

This is it, it took couple of hours for me to write this tool and to get at least 3 points: 1) probably checksumming; 2) AES encryption; 3) SHA-1 calculation. The first function is still unknown for me.
Still, this is impressive, because I didn't dig into RAR code (which is proprietary, of course). I didn't even peek into UnRAR source code (which is available).
The files, including test files and RAR executable I've used (win64, 5.40): https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/XOR/files.

### 10.2 Cracking Minesweeper with PIN

In this book, I wrote about cracking Minesweeper for Windows XP: 8.3 on page 802.
The Minesweeper in Windows Vista and 7 is different: probably it was (re)written to C++, and a cell information is now stored not in global array, but rather in malloc'ed heap blocks.
This is a case when we can try PIN DBI tool.

### 10.2.1 Intercepting all rand() calls

First, since Minesweeper places mines randomly, it has to call rand() or similar function. Let's intercept all rand() calls: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/minesweeper/ minesweeper1.cpp.
Now we can run it:
c: \pin-3.2-81205-msvc-windows $\backslash$ pin.exe -t minesweeper1.dll -- C:\PATH

During startup, PIN searches for all calls to rand() function and adds a hook right after each call. The hook is the RandAfter() function we defined: it is logging about return value and also about return address. Here is a log I got during run of standard $9 * 9$ configuration (10 mines): https://github.com/DennisYurichev/ RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/minesweeper/minesweeper1.out.10mines. The rand() function was called many times from several places, but was called from 0x10002770d just 10 times. I switched Minesweeper to $16 * 16$ configuration ( 40 mines) and rand() was called from 0x10002770d 40 times. So yes, this is our point. When I load minesweeper.exe (from Windows 7) into IDA and PDB from Microsoft website is fetched, the function which calls rand() at 0x10002770d called Board::placeMines().

### 10.2.2 Replacing rand() calls with our function

Let's now try to replace rand() function with our version, let it always return zero: https://github. com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/minesweeper/minesweeper2.cpp. During startup, PIN replaces all calls to rand() to calls to our function, which writes to log and returns zero. OK, I run it, and clicked on leftmost/topmost cell:


Yes, unlike Minesweeper from Windows XP, mines are places randomly after user's click on cell, so to guarantee there is no mine at the cell user first clicked. So Minesweeper placed cells on cells other than leftmost/topmost (where I clicked).

Now I clicked on rightmost/topmost cell:


This can be some kind of practical joke? I don't know.
I clicked on 5th cell (right at the middle) at the 1st row:


This is nice, because Minesweeper can do some correct placement even with such a broken PRNG!

### 10.2.3 Peeking into placement of mines

How can we get information about where mines are placed? rand()'s result is seems to be useless: it returned zero all the time, but Minesweeper somehow managed to place mines in different cells, though, lined up.

This Minesweeper also written in C++ tradition, so it has no global arrays.
Let us put ourselves in the position of programmer. It has to be loop like:

```
for (int i; i<mines_total; i++)
{
    // get coordinates using rand()
    // put a cell: in other words, modify a block allocated in heap
};
```

How can we get information about heap block which gets modified at the 2 nd step? What we need to do: 1) track all heap allocations by intercepting malloc()/realloc()/free(). 2) track all memory writes (slow). 3) intercept calls to rand().

Now the algorithm: 1) mark all heap blocks gets modified between 1st and 2 nd call to rand() from $0 \times 10002770 \mathrm{~d} ; 2$ ) whenever heap block gets freed, dump its contents.

Tracking all memory writes is slow, but after 2 nd call to rand(), we don't need to track it (since we've got already a list of blocks of interest at this point), so we turn it off.
Now the code: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/minesweeper/ minesweeper3.cpp.

As it turns out, only 4 heap blocks gets modified between first two rand() calls, this is how they looks like:

```
free(0x20aa6360)
free(): we have this block in our records, size=0x28
0x20AA6360: 36 00 00 00 4E 00 00 00-2D 00 00 00 29 00 00 00 "6...N...-...)..."
0x20AA6370: 06 00 00 00 37 00 00 00-35 00 00 00 19 00 00 00 "....7...5......."
0x20AA6380: 46 00 00 00 0B 00 00 00-
...
free(0x20af9d10)
free(): we have this block in our records, size=0x18
0x20AF9D10: 0A 00 00 00 0A 00 00 00-0A 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ".................."
0x20AF9D20: 60 63 AA 20 00 00 00 00- "`c. ....
...
free(0x20b28b20)
free(): we have this block in our records, size=0x140
0x20B28B20: 02 00 00 00 03 00 00 00-04 00 00 00 05 00 00 00
0x20B28B30: 07 00 00 00 08 00 00 00-0C 00 00 00 0D 00 00 00 "..................."
0x20B28B40: 0E 00 00 00 0F 00 00 00-10 00 00 00 11 00 00 00 ".................."
0x20B28B50: 12 00 00 00 13 00 00 00-14 00 00 00 15 00 00 00 ".................."
0x20B28B60: 16 00 00 00 17 00 00 00-18 00 00 00 1A 00 00 00 ".................."
0x20B28B70: 1B 00 00 00 1C 00 00 00-1D 00 00 00 1E 00 00 00 "................."
0x20B28B80: 1F 00 00 00 20 00 00 00-21 00 00 00 22 00 00 00 "........!..."..."
0x20B28B90: 23 00 00 00 24 00 00 00-25 00 00 00 26 00 00 00 "#...$...%...&..."
0x20B28BA0: 27 00 00 00 28 00 00 00-2A 00 00 00 2B 00 00 00 "'...(...*...+..."
0x20B28BB0: 2C 00 00 00 2E 00 00 00-2F 00 00 00 30 00 00 00 ",......./...0..."
0x20B28BC0: 31 00 00 00 32 00 00 00-33 00 00 00 34 00 00 00 "1...2...3...4..."
0x20B28BD0: 38 00 00 00 39 00 00 00-3A 00 00 00 3B 00 00 00 "8...9...:...;..."
0x20B28BE0: 3C 00 00 00 3D 00 00 00-3E 00 00 00 3F 00 00 00 "<...=...>...?..."
0x20B28BF0: 40 00 00 00 41 00 00 00-42 00 00 00 43 00 00 00 "@...A...B...C..."
0x20B28C00: 44 00 00 00 45 00 00 00-47 00 00 00 48 00 00 00 "D...E...G...H..."
0x20B28C10: 49 00 00 00 4A 00 00 00-4B 00 00 00 4C 00 00 00 "I...J...K...L..."
0x20B28C20: 4D 00 00 00 4F 00 00 00-50 00 00 00 50 00 00 00 "M...0...P...P..."
0x20B28C30: 50 00 00 00 50 00 00 00-50 00 00 00 50 00 00 00 "P...P...P...P..."
0x20B28C40: 50 00 00 00 50 00 00 00-50 00 00 00 50 00 00 00 "P...P...P...P..."
0x20B28C50: 50 00 00 00 00 00 00 00-00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 "P................."
```

```
free(0x20af9cf0)
free(): we have this block in our records, size=0x18
0x20AF9CF0: 43 00 00 00 50 00 00 00-10 00 00 00 20 00 74 00 "C...P....... .t."
0x20AF9D00: 20 8B B2 20 00 00 00 00- " .. ....
```

We can easily see that the biggest blocks (with size $0 \times 28$ and $0 \times 140$ ) are just arrays of values up to $\approx$ $0 \times 50$. Wait... $0 \times 50$ is 80 in decimal representation. And $9 * 9=81$ (standard minesweeper configuration).

After quick investigation, I've found that each 32-bit element is indeed cell coordinate. A cell is represented using a single number, it's a number inside of 2D-array. Row and column of each mine is decoded like that: row=n / WIDTH; col=n \% HEIGHT;

So when I tried to decode these two biggest blocks, I've got these cell maps:

```
try_to_dump_cells(). unique elements=0xa
......*..
..*......
.......*.
.....*...
* . . . ...*
**. . . . . . .
.......*.
......*..
try_to_dump_cells(). unique elements=0x44
*.****.**
...******
*******.*
*********
*****,***
.*******.
..*******
*******.*
******,**
```

It seems that the first block is just a list of mines placed, while the second block is a list of free cells, but, the second is somewhat out of sync with the first one, and it's negative version of the first one coincides only partially. Nevertheless, the first map is correct - we can peek into it in log file when Minesweeper is still loaded and almost all cells are hidden, and click safely on cells marked as dots here.

So it seems, when user first clicked somewhere, Minesweeper places 10 mines, than destroys the block with a list of it (perhaps, it copies all the data to another block before?), so we can see it during free() call.
Another fact: the method Array<NodeType>::Add(NodeType) modifies blocks we observed, and is called from various places, including Board::placeMines(). But what is cool: I never got into its details, everything has been resolved using just PIN.

The files: https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/tree/master/DBI/minesweeper.

### 10.2.4 Exercise

Try to understand how rand()'s result being converted into coordinate(s). As a practical joke, make rand() to output such results, so mines will be placed in shape of some symbol or figure.

### 10.3 Why "instrumentation"?

Perhaps, this is term of code profiling. There are at least two methods: 1) "sampling": you break into running code as many times as possible (hundreds per second), and see, where it is executed at the moment; 2) "instrumentation": compiled code is interleaved with other code, which can increment counters, etc.

Perhaps, DBI tools inherited the term?

## Chapter 11

## Other things

### 11.1 Executable files patching

### 11.1.1 Text strings

The $C$ strings are the thing that is the easiest to patch (unless they are encrypted) in any hex editor. This technique is available even for those who are not aware of machine code and executable file formats. The new string has not to be bigger than the old one, because there's a risk of overwriting another value or code there.

Using this method, a lot of software was localized in the MS-DOS era, at least in the ex-USSR countries in 80 's and 90 's. It was the reason why some weird abbreviations were present in the localized software: there was no room for longer strings.

As for Delphi strings, the string's size must also be corrected, if needed.

## $11.1 .2 \times 86$ code

Frequent patching tasks are:

- One of the most frequent jobs is to disable some instruction. It is often done by filling it using byte $0 \times 90$ (NOP).
- Conditional jumps, which have an opcode like 74 xx (JZ), can be filled with two NOPs. It is also possible to disable a conditional jump by writing 0 at the second byte (jump offset).
- Another frequent job is to make a conditional jump to always trigger: this can be done by writing $0 x E B$ instead of the opcode, which stands for JMP.
- A function's execution can be disabled by writing RETN (0xC3) at its beginning. This is true for all functions excluding stdcall ( 6.1 .2 on page 734). While patching stdcall functions, one has to determine the number of arguments (for example, by finding RETN in this function), and use RETN with a 16-bit argument ( $0 \times \mathrm{C} 2$ ).
- Sometimes, a disabled functions has to return 0 or 1 . This can be done by MOV EAX, 0 or MOV EAX, 1, but it's slightly verbose.
A better way is XOR EAX, EAX (2 bytes $0 x 310 x C 0)$ or XOR EAX, EAX / INC EAX (3 bytes $0 x 310 x C 0$ $0 \times 40$ ).
A software may be protected against modifications.
This protection is often done by reading the executable code and calculating a checksum. Therefore, the code must be read before protection is triggered.

This can be determined by setting a breakpoint on reading memory. tracer has the BPM option for this.

PE executable file relocs ( 6.5 .2 on page 759) must not to be touched while patching, because the Windows loader may overwrite your new code. (They are grayed in Hiew, for example: fig.1.21).

As a last resort, it is possible to write jumps that circumvent the relocs, or you will have to edit the relocs table.

### 11.2 Function arguments number statistics

I've always been interesting in what is average number of function arguments.
I've analyzed many Windows 7 32-bit DLLs
(crypt32.dII, mfc71.dII, msvcr100.dII, shell32.dII, user32.dII, d3d11.dII, mshtml.dII, msxml6.dll, sqlncli11.dII, wininet.dII, mfc120.dII, msvbvm60.dII, ole32.dII, themeui.dII, wmp.dII) (because they use stdcall convention, and so it is easy to grep disassembly output just by RETN X).

- no arguments: $\approx 29 \%$
- 1 argument: $\approx 23 \%$
- 2 arguments: $\approx 20 \%$
- 3 arguments: $\approx 11 \%$
- 4 arguments: $\approx 7 \%$
- 5 arguments: $\approx 3 \%$
- 6 arguments: $\approx 2 \%$
- 7 arguments: $\approx 1 \%$


Figure 11.1: Function arguments number statistics

This is heavily dependent on programming style and may be very different for other software products.

### 11.3 Compiler intrinsic

A function specific to a compiler which is not an usual library function. The compiler generates a specific machine code instead of a call to it. It is often a pseudofunction for specific CPU instruction.

For example, there are no cyclic shift operations in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ languages, but they are present in most CPUs.

For programmer's convenience, at least MSVC has pseudofunctions _rotl() and _rotr() ${ }^{1}$ which are translated by the compiler directly to the ROL/ROR x86 instructions.

Another example are functions to generate SSE-instructions right in the code.
Full list of MSVC intrinsics: MSDN.

### 11.4 Compiler's anomalies

### 11.4.1 Oracle RDBMS $\mathbf{1 1 . 2}$ and Intel C++ $\mathbf{1 0 . 1}$

Intel C++ 10.1, which was used for Oracle RDBMS 11.2 Linux86 compilation, may emit two JZ in row, and there are no references to the second JZ. The second JZ is thus meaningless.

Listing 11.1: kdli.o from libserver11.a

| .text:08114CF1 | loc_8114CF1: ; CODE XREF: _PG0SF539_kdlimemSer+89A |
| :---: | :---: |
| .text:08114CF1 | ; __PGOSF539_kdlimemSer+3994 |
| .text:08114CF1 8B 4508 | mov eax, [ebp+arg_0] |
| .text:08114CF4 0F B6 5014 | movzx edx, byte ptr [eax+14h] |
| .text:08114CF8 F6 C2 01 | test dl, 1 |
| .text:08114CFB 0F 8517080000 | jnz loc_8115518 |
| .text:08114D01 85 C9 | test ecx, ecx |
| .text:08114D03 0F 84 8A 000000 | jz loc_8114D93 |
| .text:08114D09 0F 8409080000 | $j z ~ l o c<8115518$ |
| .text:08114D0F 8B 5308 | mov edx, [ebx+8] |
| .text:08114D12 8955 FC | mov [ebp+var_4], edx |
| . text:08114D15 31 C0 | xor eax, eax |
| .text:08114D17 $8945 \mathrm{F4}$ | mov [ebp+var_C], eax |
| .text:08114D1A 50 | push eax |
| .text:08114D1B 52 | push edx |
| .text:08114D1C E8 03540000 | call len2nbytes |
| .text:08114D21 83 C4 08 | add esp, 8 |

Listing 11.2: from the same code

| . text:0811A2A5 | $\begin{aligned} \text { loc_811A2A5: } & ; \text { CODE XREF: kdliSerLengths+11C } \\ & ; \text { kdliSerLengths+1C1 } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| .text:0811A2A5 8B 7D 08 | mov edi, [ebp+arg_0] |
| .text:0811A2A8 8B 7F 10 | mov edi, [edi+10h] |
| .text:0811A2AB 0F B6 5714 | movzx edx, byte ptr [edi+14h] |
| .text:0811A2AF F6 C2 01 | test dl, 1 |
| .text:0811A2B2 75 3E | jnz short loc_811A2F2 |
| .text:0811A2B4 83 E0 01 | and eax, 1 |
| .text:0811A2B7 74 1F | jz short loc_811A2D8 |
| .text:0811A2B9 7437 | jz short loc_811A2F2 |
| .text:0811A2BB 6A 00 | push 0 |
| .text:0811A2BD FF 7108 | push dword ptr [ecx+8] |
| .text:0811A2C0 E8 5F FE FF FF | call len2nbytes |

It is supposedly a code generator bug that was not found by tests, because resulting code works correctly anyway.

### 11.4.2 MSVC 6.0

Just found in some old code:

| fabs |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| fild | [esp+50h+var_34] |
| fabs |  |
| fxch st(1) ; first instruction |  |
| fxch | st(1) ; second instruction |
| faddp | st(1), st |

${ }^{1}$ MSDN

| fcomp | [esp+50h+var_3C] |
| :--- | :--- |
| fnstsw | ax |
| test | ah, 41h |
| jz | short loc_100040B7 |

The first FXCH instruction swaps ST(0) and ST(1), the second do the same, so both do nothing. This is a program uses MFC42.dII, so it could be MSVC 6.0, 5.0 or maybe even MSVC 4.2 from 1990s.

This pair do nothing, so it probably wasn't caught by MSVC compiler tests. Or maybe I wrong?

### 11.4.3 Summary

Other compiler anomalies here in this book: 1.22 .2 on page $315,3.7 .3$ on page $493,3.15 .7$ on page $532,1.20 .7$ on page 302, 1.14.4 on page 147, 1.22.5 on page 332.

Such cases are demonstrated here in this book, to show that such compilers errors are possible and sometimes one should not to rack one's brain while thinking why did the compiler generate such strange code.

### 11.5 Itanium

Although almost failed, Intel Itanium (IA64) is a very interesting architecture.
While OOE CPUs decides how to rearrange their instructions and execute them in parallel, EPIC ${ }^{2}$ was an attempt to shift these decisions to the compiler: to let it group the instructions at the compile stage.

This resulted in notoriously complex compilers.
Here is one sample of IA64 code: simple cryptographic algorithm from the Linux kernel:
Listing 11.3: Linux kernel 3.2.0.4

```
#define TEA ROUNDS 32
#define TEA_DELTA 0x9e3779b9
static void tea_encrypt(struct crypto_tfm *tfm, u8 *dst, const u8 *src)
{
    u32 y, z, n, sum = 0;
    u32 k0, k1, k2, k3;
    struct tea_ctx *ctx = crypto_tfm_ctx(tfm);
    const __le32 *in = (const __le32 *)src;
    _le32 *out = (__le32 *)dst;
    y = le32_to_cpu(in[0]);
    z = le32_to_cpu(in[1]);
    k0 = ctx->KEY[0];
    k1 = ctx->KEY[1];
    k2 = ctx->KEY[2];
    k3 = ctx->KEY[3];
    n = TEA_ROUNDS;
    while (n-- > 0) {
        sum += TEA_DELTA;
        y += ((z<< 4) + k0) ^ (z + sum) ^ ((z >> 5) + k1);
        z += ((y << 4) + k2) ^ (y + sum) ^ ((y >> 5) + k3);
    }
    out[0] = cpu_to_le32(y);
    out[1] = cpu_to_le32(z);
}
```

Here is how it was compiled:

[^133]| 0090\| |  | tea_encrypt: |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0090\|08 | 088080410021 | adds r16 = 96, r32 | // ptr to ctx->KEY[2] |
| 0096\|80 | 80 C0 82004200 | adds r8 = 88, r32 | // ptr to ctx->KEY[0] |
| 009C\|00 | 00000400 | nop.i 0 |  |
| 00A0\|09 | 091870410021 | adds r3 $=92$, r32 | // ptr to ctx->KEY[1] |
| 00A6\|F | F0 2088202800 | ld4 r15 = [r34], 4 | // load z |
| 00AC\|4 | 44060184 | adds r32 = 100, r32; | // ptr to ctx->KEY[3] |
| 00B0\|08 | 089800201010 | ld4 r19 = [r16] | // r19=k2 |
| 00B6\|00 | 000100004240 | mov r16 = r0 | // r0 always contain zero |
| 00BC\|00 | 0088 CA 00 | mov.i r2 = ar.lc | // save lc register |
| 00C0\|0 | 057000441010 |  |  |
|  | 9E FF FF FF 7F 20 | ld4 r14 = [r34] | // load y |
| 00CC\|92 | 92 F3 CE 6B | movl r17 = 0xFFFFFFFF9E3779B9; | // TEA_DELTA |
| 00D0\|08 | 080000000100 | nop.m 0 |  |
| 00D6\|5 | 500120202000 | ld4 r21 = [r8] | // r21=k0 |
| 00DC\| | F0 09 2A 00 | mov.i ar.lc $=31$ | // TEA_ROUNDS is 32 |
| 00E0\|0A | 0A A0 00061010 | ld4 r20 = [r3]; | // r20=k1 |
| 00E6\|20 | 200180202000 | ld4 r18 = [r32] | // r18=k3 |
| 00EC\|00 | 00000400 | nop.i 0 |  |
| 00F0\| |  |  |  |
| 00F0\| |  | loc_F0: |  |
| 00F0\|09 | 098040220020 | add r16 = r16, r17 | // r16=sum, r17=TEA_DELTA |
| 00F6\|D | D0 7154264080 | shladd r29 = r14, 4, r21 | // r14=y, r21=k0 |
| 00FC\| | A3 706852 | extr.u r28 = r14, 5, 27; |  |
| 0100\|03 | 03 F0 40 1C 0020 | add r30 = r16, r14 |  |
| 0106\| | B0 E1 50 00 4040 | add r27 = r28, r20; | // r20=k1 |
| 010C\|D | D3 F1 3C 80 | xor r26 = r29, r30; |  |
| 0110\|0 | 0B C8 6C 34 0F 20 | xor r25 = r27, r26; |  |
| 0116\|F0 | F0 7864004000 | add r15 = r15, r25 | // r15=z |
| 011C\|00 | 00000400 | nop.i 0; |  |
| 0120\|00 | 000000000100 | nop.m 0 |  |
| 0126\|80 | 8051 3C 342960 | extr.u r24 = r15, 5, 27 |  |
| 012C\|F | F1 98 4C 80 | shladd r11 = r15, 4, r19 | // r19=k2 |
| 0130\|0 | 0B B8 3C 200020 | add r23 = r15, r16; |  |
| 0136\| | A0 C0 48004000 | add r10 = r24, r18 | // r18=k3 |
| 013C\|00 | 00000400 | nop.i 0; |  |
| 0140\|0 | 0B 482816 0F 20 | xor r9 = r10, r11; |  |
| 0146\|60 | 60 B9 24 1E 4000 | xor r22 = r23, r9 |  |
| 014C\|00 | 00000400 | nop.i 0; |  |
| 0150\| | 110000000100 | nop.m 0 |  |
| 0156\| | E0 70580040 A0 | add r14 = r14, r22 |  |
| 015C\| | A0 FF FF 48 | br.cloop.sptk.few loc_F0; |  |
| 0160\|09 | 0920 3C 429015 | st4 [r33] = r15, 4 | // store z |
| 0166\|00 | 000000020000 | nop.m 0 |  |
| 016C\|20 | 2088 AA 00 | mov.i ar.lc = r2; | // restore lc register |
| 0170\| | 110038429011 | st4 [r33] = r14 | // store y |
| 0176\|00 | 000000020080 | nop.i 0 |  |
| 017C\|08 | 08008400 | br.ret.sptk.many b0; |  |

First of all, all IA64 instructions are grouped into 3-instruction bundles.
Each bundle has a size of 16 bytes (128 bits) and consists of template code ( 5 bits) +3 instructions (41 bits for each).

IDA shows the bundles as $6+6+4$ bytes - you can easily spot the pattern.
All 3 instructions from each bundle usually executes simultaneously, unless one of instructions has a "stop bit".

Supposedly, Intel and HP engineers gathered statistics on most frequent instruction patterns and decided to bring bundle types (AKA "templates"): a bundle code defines the instruction types in the bundle. There are 12 of them.

For example, the zeroth bundle type is MII, which implies the first instruction is Memory (load or store), the second and third ones are I (integer instructions).
Another example is the bundle of type $0 x 1 \mathrm{~d}$ : MFB: the first instruction is Memory (load or store), the second one is Float (FPU instruction), and the third is Branch (branch instruction).

If the compiler cannot pick a suitable instruction for the relevant bundle slot, it may insert a NOP: you
can see here the nop.i instructions (NOP at the place where the integer instruction might be) or nop.m (a memory instruction might be at this slot).

NOPs are inserted automatically when one uses assembly language manually.
And that is not all. Bundles are also grouped.
Each bundle may have a "stop bit", so all the consecutive bundles with a terminating bundle which has the "stop bit" can be executed simultaneously.

In practice, Itanium 2 can execute 2 bundles at once, resulting in the execution of 6 instructions at once.
So all instructions inside a bundle and a bundle group cannot interfere with each other (i.e., must not have data hazards).

If they do, the results are to be undefined.
Each stop bit is marked in assembly language as two semicolons (; ; ) after the instruction.
So, the instructions at [90-ac] may be executed simultaneously: they do not interfere. The next group is [b0-cc].

We also see a stop bit at 10c. The next instruction at 110 has a stop bit too.
This implies that these instructions must be executed isolated from all others (as in CISC).
Indeed: the next instruction at 110 uses the result from the previous one (the value in register r 26 ), so they cannot be executed at the same time.

Apparently, the compiler was not able to find a better way to parallelize the instructions, in other words, to load CPU as much as possible, hence too much stop bits and NOPs.
Manual assembly programming is a tedious job as well: the programmer has to group the instructions manually.

The programmer is still able to add stop bits to each instructions, but this will degrade the performance that Itanium was made for.

An interesting examples of manual IA64 assembly code can be found in the Linux kernel's sources:
http://go.yurichev.com/17322.
Another introductory paper on Itanium assembly: [Mike Burrell, Writing Efficient Itanium 2 Assembly Code (2010)] ${ }^{3}$, [papasutra of haquebright, WRITING SHELLCODE FOR IA-64 (2001)] ${ }^{4}$.

Another very interesting Itanium feature is the speculative execution and the NaT ("not a thing") bit, somewhat resembling NaN numbers:
MSDN.

### 11.68086 memory model

When dealing with 16-bit programs for MS-DOS or Win16 ( 8.5 .3 on page 832 or 3.29 .5 on page 654), we can see that the pointers consist of two 16 -bit values. What do they mean? Oh yes, that is another weird MS-DOS and 8086 artifact.

8086/8088 was a 16-bit CPU, but was able to address 20-bit address in RAM (thus being able to access 1MB of external memory).
The external memory address space was divided between RAM (640KB max), ROM, windows for video memory, EMS cards, etc.

Let's also recall that 8086/8088 was in fact an inheritor of the 8-bit 8080 CPU.
The 8080 has a 16-bit memory space, i.e., it was able to address only 64 KB .
And probably because of reason of old software porting ${ }^{5}, 8086$ can support many 64 KB windows simultaneously, placed within the 1MB address space.

This is some kind of a toy-level virtualization.

[^134]All 8086 registers are 16-bit, so to address more, special segment registers (CS, DS, ES, SS) were introduced.

Each 20-bit pointer is calculated using the values from a segment register and an address register pair (e.g. DS:BX) as follows:

$$
\text { real_address }=(\text { segment_register } \ll 4)+\text { address_register }
$$

For example, the graphics (EGA, $\mathrm{VGA}^{7}$ ) video RAM window on old IBM PC-compatibles has a size of 64 KB . To access it, a value of 0xA000 has to be stored in one of the segment registers, e.g. into DS.
Then DS:0 will address the first byte of video RAM and DS:0xFFFF - the last byte of RAM.
The real address on the 20-bit address bus, however, will range from 0xA0000 to 0xAFFFF.
The program may contain hard-coded addresses like $0 \times 1234$, but the OS may need to load the program at arbitrary addresses, so it recalculates the segment register values in a way that the program does not have to care where it's placed in the RAM.
So, any pointer in the old MS-DOS environment in fact consisted of the segment address and the address inside segment, i.e., two 16 -bit values. 20 -bit was enough for that, though, but we needed to recalculate the addresses very often: passing more information on the stack seemed a better space/convenience balance.
By the way, because of all this it was not possible to allocate a memory block larger than 64KB.
The segment registers were reused at 80286 as selectors, serving a different function.
When the 80386 CPU and computers with bigger RAM were introduced, MS-DOS was still popular, so the DOS extenders emerged: these were in fact a step toward a "serious" OS, switching the CPU in protected mode and providing much better memory APIs for the programs which still needed to run under MS-DOS. Widely popular examples include DOS/4GW (the DOOM video game was compiled for it), Phar Lap, PMODE. By the way, the same way of addressing memory was used in the 16 -bit line of Windows $3 . x$, before Win32.

### 11.7 Basic blocks reordering

### 11.7.1 Profile-guided optimization

This optimization method can move some basic blocks to another section of the executable binary file.
Obviously, there are parts of a function which are executed more frequently (e.g., loop bodies) and less often (e.g., error reporting code, exception handlers).

The compiler adds instrumentation code into the executable, then the developer runs it with a lot of tests to collect statistics.
Then the compiler, with the help of the statistics gathered, prepares final the executable file with all infrequently executed code moved into another section.
As a result, all frequently executed function code is compacted, and that is very important for execution speed and cache usage.
An example from Oracle RDBMS code, which was compiled with Intel C++:
Listing 11.5: orageneric11.dII (win32)


[^135]

The distance of addresses between these two code fragments is almost 9 MB .
All infrequently executed code was placed at the end of the code section of the DLL file, among all function parts.

This part of the function was marked by the Intel C++ compiler with the VInfreq prefix.
Here we see that a part of the function that writes to a log file (presumably in case of error or warning or something like that) which was probably not executed very often when Oracle's developers gathered statistics (if it was executed at all).

The writing to log basic block eventually returns the control flow to the "hot" part of the function.
Another "infrequent" part is the basic block returning error code 27050.
In Linux ELF files, all infrequently executed code is moved by Intel C++ into the separate text. unlikely section, leaving all "hot" code in the text. hot section.

From a reverse engineer's perspective, this information may help to split the function into its core and error handling parts.

### 11.8 My experience with Hex-Rays 2.2.0

### 11.8.1 Bugs

There are couple of bugs.
First of all, Hex-Rays is getting lost when FPU instructions are interleaved (by compiler codegenerator) with others.

For example, this:

| f | proc | near |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | lea | eax, [esp+4] |
|  | fild | dword ptr [eax] |
|  | lea | eax, [esp+8] |
|  | fild | dword ptr [eax] |
|  | fabs |  |
|  | fcompp |  |
|  | fnstsw | ax |
|  | test | ah, 1 |
|  | jz | 101 |
|  | mov | eax, 1 |
|  | retn |  |
| 101: |  |  |
|  | mov | eax, 2 |
|  | retn |  |
| f | endp |  |

...will be correcly decompiled to:

```
signed int __cdecl f(signed int a1, signed int a2)
{
    signed int result; // eax@2
    if ( fabs((double)a2) >= (double)a1 )
        result = 2;
    else
        result = 1;
    return result;
}
```

But let's comment one of the instructions at the end:
i01.

```
;mov eax, 2
retn
```

...
...we getting an obvious bug:

```
void __cdecl f(char a1, char a2)
{
    fabs((double)a2);
}
```

This is another bug:

```
extrn f1:dword
extrn f2:dword
f proc near
    fld dword ptr [esp+4]
    fadd dword ptr [esp+8]
    fst dword ptr [esp+12]
```



Result:

```
int cdecl f(float a1, float a2, float a3, float a4)
{
    double v5; // st7@1
    char v6; // c0@1
    int result; // eax@2
    v5 = a4;
    if ( v6 )
        result = f2(v5);
    else
        result = f1(v5);
    return result;
}
```

v6 variable has char type and if you'll try to compile this code, compiler will warn you about variable usage before assignment.

Another bug: FPATAN instruction is correctly decompiled into atan2(), but arguments are swapped.

### 11.8.2 Odd peculiarities

Hex-Rays too often promotes 32-bit int to 64-bit one. Here is example:

```
f proc near
    mov eax, [esp+4]
    cdq
    xor eax, edx
    sub eax, edx
    ; EAX=abs(a1)
    sub eax, [esp+8]
    ; EAX=EAX-a2
    ; EAX at this point somehow gets promoted to 64-bit (RAX)
    cdq
    xor eax, edx
    sub eax, edx
    ; EAX=abs(abs(a1)-a2)
    retn
    endp
```

Result:

```
int _cdecl f(int a1, int a2)
{
    _int64 v2; // rax@1
    v2 = abs(a1) - a2;
    return (HIDWORD(v2) ^ v2) - HIDWORD(v2);
}
```

Perhaps, this is result of CDQ instruction? I'm not sure. Anyway, whenever you see $\qquad$ int64 type in 32-bit code, pay attention.

This is also weird:

| f | proc | near |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mov | esi, [esp+4] |  |
| lea | ebx, [esi+10h] |  |
|  | cmp | esi, ebx |
| jge | short 100 |  |
|  | cmp | esi, 1000 |
|  | jg | short 100 |
|  | mov | eax, 2 |
|  | retn |  |

100:
mov eax, 1
retn
endp

Result:

```
signed int
```

$\qquad$

``` cdecl f(signed int al)
{
    signed int result; // eax@3
    if ( __OFSUB__(a1, al + 16) ^ 1 && al <= 1000 )
        result = 2;
    else
        result = 1;
    return result;
}
```

The code is correct, but needs manual intervention.
Sometimes, Hex-Rays doesn't fold (or reduce) division by multiplication code:

| $f$ | proc |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | near |
|  | mov |
| mov | eax, [esp+4] |
| imul | edx, 2AAAAAABh |
| mov | eax, edx |
|  | retn |
| f endp |  |

## Result:

```
int __cdecl f(int al)
{
    return (unsigned _int64)(715827883i64 * al) >> 32;
}
```

This can be folded (rewritten) manually.
11.8. MY EXPERIENCE WITH HEX-RAYS 2.2.0

Many of these peculiarities can be solved by manual reordering of instructions, recompiling assembly code, and then feeding it to Hex-Rays again.

### 11.8.3 Silence



Result:

```
int __cdecl f(int a1, int a2)
{
    int v2; // ecx@1
    some func(a2);
    return v2;
}
```

v2 variable (from ECX) is lost ...Yes, this code is incorrect (ECX value doesn't saved during call to another function), but it would be good for Hex-Rays to give a warning.
Another one:


## Result:

```
signed int f()
{
    char v0; // zf@1
    signed int result; // eax@2
    some_func();
    if ( v0 )
        result = 1;
    else
        result = 2;
    return result;
}
```

Again, warning would be great.
Anyway, whenever you see variable of char type, or variable which is used without initialization, this is clear sign that something went wrong and needs manual intervention.

### 11.8.4 Comma

Comma in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ has a bad fame, because it can lead to a confusing code.
Quick quiz, what does this $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ function returns?

```
int f()
{
    return 1, 2;
};
```

It's 2: when compiler encounters comma-expression, it generates code which executes all sub-expressions, and returns value of the last sub-expression.
I've seen something like that in production code:

```
if (cond)
else
    return global_var=789, 321; // 321 is returned
```

Apparently, programmer wanted to make code slightly shorter without additional curly brackets. In other words, comma allows to pack couple of expressions into one, without forming statement/code block inside of curly brackets.

Comma in C/C++ is close to begin in Scheme/Racket: https://docs.racket-lang.org/guide/begin. html.

Perhaps, the only widely accepted usage of comma is in for() statements:

```
char *s="hello, world";
for(int i=0; *s; s++, i++);
; i = string lenght
```

Both $s++$ and $i++$ are executed at each loop iteration.
Read more: http://stackoverflow.com/questions/52550/what-does-the-comma-operator-do-in-c. I'm writing all this because Hex-Rays produces (at least in my case) code which is rich with both commas and short-circuit expressions. For example, this is real output from Hex-Rays:

```
if ( a >= b || (c = a, (d[a] - e) >> 2 > f) )
    {
```

This is correct, it compiles and works, and let god help you to understand it. Here is it rewritten:

```
if (cond1 || (comma_expr, cond2))
```

\{

Short-circuit is effective here: first cond1 is checked, if it's true, if() body is executed, the rest of if() expression is ignored completely. If cond1 is false, comma_expr is executed (in the previous example, a gets copied to $c$ ), then cond2 is checked. If cond2 is true, if() body gets executed, or not. In other words, if() body gets executed if cond1 is true or cond2 is true, but if the latter is true, comma_expr is also executed.

Now you can see why comma is so notorious.
A word about short-circuit. A common beginner's misconception is that sub-conditions are checked in some unspecified order, which is not true. In a \| b | c expression, $a, b$ and $c$ gets evaluated in unspecified order, so that is why || has also been added to $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$, to apply short-circuit explicitly.

### 11.8.5 Data types

Data types is a problem for decompilers.
Hex-Rays can be blind to arrays in local stack, if they weren't set correctly before decompilation. Same story about global arrays.
Another problem is too big functions, where a single slot in local stack can be used by several variables across function's execution. It's not a rare case when a slot is used for int-variable, then for pointer, then for float-variable. Hex-Rays correctly decompiles it: it creates a variable with some type, then cast it to another type in various parts of functions. This problem has been solved by me by manual splitting big function into several smaller. Just make local variables as global ones, etc, etc. And don't forget about tests.

### 11.8.6 Long and messed expressions

Sometimes, during rewriting, you can end up with long and hard to understand expressions in if() constructs, like:

```
if ((! (v38 && v30 <= 5 && v27 != -1)) && ((! (v38 && v30 <= 5) && v27 != - 1) || (v24 >= 5 || ん
    ५ v26)) && v25)
{
`
```

Wolfram Mathematica can minimize some of them, using BooleanMinimize[] function:

```
In[1]:= BooleanMinimize[(! (v38 && v30 <= 5 && v27 != -1)) && v38 && v30 <= 5 && v25 == 0]
Out[1]:= v38 && v25 == 0 && v27 == -1 && v30 <= 5
```

There is even better way, to find common subexpressions:

```
In[2]:= Experimental`OptimizeExpression[(! (v38 && v30 <= 5 &&
    v27 != -1)) && ((! (v38 && v30 <= 5) &&
    v27 != -1) || (v24 >= 5 || v26)) && v25]
Out[2]= Experimental`OptimizedExpression[
    Block[{Compile`$1, Compile`$2}, Compile`$1 = v30 <= 5;
    Compile`$2 =
        v27 != -1; ! (v38 && Compile`$1 &&
            Compile`$2) && ((! (v38 && Compile`$1) && Compile`$2) ||
            v24 >= 5 || v26) && v25]]
```

Mathematica adds two new variables: Compile` \(\$ 1\) and Compile` $\$ 2$, values of which will be used several times in expression. So we can add two additional variables.

### 11.8.7 My plan

- Split big functions (and don't forget about tests). Sometimes it's very helpful to form new functions out of big loop bodies.
- Check/set data type of variables, arrays, etc.
- If you see odd result, dangling variable (which used before initialization), try to swap instructions manually, recompile it and feed to Hex-Rays again.


### 11.8.8 Summary

Nevertheless, quality of Hex-Rays 2.2 .0 is very, very good. It makes life way easier.

## Chapter 12

## Books/blogs worth reading

### 12.1 Books and other materials

### 12.1.1 Reverse Engineering

- Eldad Eilam, Reversing: Secrets of Reverse Engineering, (2005)
- Bruce Dang, Alexandre Gazet, Elias Bachaalany, Sebastien Josse, Practical Reverse Engineering: x86, x64, ARM, Windows Kernel, Reversing Tools, and Obfuscation, (2014)
- Michael Sikorski, Andrew Honig, Practical Malware Analysis: The Hands-On Guide to Dissecting Malicious Software, (2012)
- Chris Eagle, IDA Pro Book, (2011)

Also, Kris Kaspersky’s books.

### 12.1.2 Windows

- Mark Russinovich, Microsoft Windows Internals

Blogs:

- Microsoft: Raymond Chen
- nynaeve.net


### 12.1.3 C/C++

- Brian W. Kernighan, Dennis M. Ritchie, The C Programming Language, 2ed, (1988)
- ISO/IEC 9899:TC3 (C C99 standard), (2007)¹
- Bjarne Stroustrup, The C++ Programming Language, 4th Edition, (2013)
- C++11 standard ${ }^{2}$
- Agner Fog, Optimizing software in C++ (2015) ${ }^{3}$
- Marshall Cline, $C++F A Q^{4}$
- Dennis Yurichev, $C / C++$ programming language notes ${ }^{5}$
- JPL Institutional Coding Standard for the C Programming Language ${ }^{6}$

[^136]
### 12.1.4 $\times 86 / \times 86-64$

- Intel manuals ${ }^{7}$
- AMD manuals ${ }^{8}$
- Agner Fog, The microarchitecture of Intel, AMD and VIA CPUs, (2016) ${ }^{9}$
- Agner Fog, Calling conventions (2015) ${ }^{10}$
- [Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Optimization Reference Manual, (2014)]
- [Software Optimization Guide for AMD Family 16h Processors, (2013)]

Somewhat outdated, but still interesting to read:
Michael Abrash, Graphics Programming Black Book, $1997^{11}$ (he is known for his work on low-level optimization for such projects as Windows NT 3.1 and id Quake).

### 12.1.5 ARM

- ARM manuals ${ }^{12}$
- $\operatorname{ARM}(R)$ Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R edition, (2012)
- [ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv8, for ARMv8-A architecture profile, (2013)] ${ }^{13}$
- Advanced RISC Machines Ltd, The ARM Cookbook, (1994) ${ }^{14}$


### 12.1.6 Assembly language

Richard Blum - Professional Assembly Language.

### 12.1.7 Java

[Tim Lindholm, Frank Yellin, Gilad Bracha, Alex Buckley, The Java(R) Virtual Machine Specification / Java SE 7 Edition] ${ }^{15}$.

### 12.1.8 UNIX

Eric S. Raymond, The Art of UNIX Programming, (2003)

### 12.1.9 Programming in general

- Brian W. Kernighan, Rob Pike, Practice of Programming, (1999)
- Henry S. Warren, Hacker's Delight, (2002). Some people say tricks and hacks from the book are not relevant today because they were good only for RISC CPUs, where branching instructions are expensive. Nevertheless, these can help immensely to understand boolean algebra and what all the mathematics near it.

[^137]- (For hard-core geeks with computer science and mathematical background) Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming. Some people arguing, if it worth for mediocre programmer to try hard to read these quite hard fundamental books. I would say, it's worth just to skim them, to learn what CS! ${ }^{16}$ consists of.


### 12.1.10 Cryptography

- Bruce Schneier, Applied Cryptography, (John Wiley \& Sons, 1994)
- (Free) Ivh, Crypto $101^{17}$
- (Free) Dan Boneh, Victor Shoup, A Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography ${ }^{18}$.


### 12.1.11 Dedication

As the first page of this book says, "This book is dedicated to Robert Jourdain, John Socha, Ralf Brown and Peter Abel". These are authors of well-known assembly language related books and references from 1980's and 1990's:

- Robert Jourdain - Programmer's problem solver for the IBM PC, XT, \& AT (1986)
- Peter Norton and John Socha - The Peter Norton Programmer's Guide to the IBM PC (1985), Peter Norton's Assembly Language Book for the IBM PC (1989). In fact, John Socha is a real author of these books, it can be said, he was ghostwriter. He is also the author of Norton Commander.
- Ralph Brown was known for "Ralf Brown's Interrupt List"19.
- Peter Abel - IBM PC assembly language and programming (1991)

These are outdated books, of course. But maybe someone will recall "those times".

[^138]
## Chapter 13

## Communities

There are two excellent RE ${ }^{1}$-related subreddits on reddit.com: reddit.com/r/ReverseEngineering/ and reddit.com $/ \mathrm{r} / \mathrm{remath}$ (on the topics for the intersection of RE and mathematics).
There is also a RE part of the Stack Exchange website: reverseengineering.stackexchange.com.
On IRC there's a \#\#re channel on FreeNode ${ }^{2}$.

[^139]${ }^{2}$ freenode.net

## Afterword

### 13.1. QUESTIONS?

### 13.1 Questions?

Do not hesitate to mail any questions to the author:
[dennis@yurichev.com](mailto:dennis@yurichev.com). Do you have any suggestion on new content for to the book? Please do not hesitate to send any corrections (including grammar (you see how horrible my English is?)), etc.
The author is working on the book a lot, so the page and listing numbers, etc., are changing very rapidly. Please do not refer to page and listing numbers in your emails to me. There is a much simpler method: make a screenshot of the page, in a graphics editor underline the place where you see the error, and send it to the author. He'll fix it much faster. And if you familiar with git and $\underline{L T}_{E} X$ you can fix the error right in the source code:
GitHub.
Do not worry to bother me while writing me about any petty mistakes you found, even if you are not very confident. I'm writing for beginners, after all, so beginners' opinions and comments are crucial for my job.

## Appendix

## .1.1 Terminology

Common for 16-bit (8086/80286), 32-bit (80386, etc.), 64-bit.
byte 8-bit. The DB assembly directive is used for defining variables and arrays of bytes. Bytes are passed in the 8-bit part of registers: AL/BL/CL/DL/AH/BH/CH/DH/SIL/DIL/R*L.
word 16-bit. DW assembly directive -"-. Words are passed in the 16-bit part of the registers: AX/BX/CX/DX/SI/DI/R*W.
double word ("dword") 32-bit. DD assembly directive -"-. Double words are passed in registers (x86) or in the 32-bit part of registers (x64). In 16-bit code, double words are passed in 16-bit register pairs.
quad word ("qword") 64-bit. DQ assembly directive -"-. In 32-bit environment, quad words are passed in 32-bit register pairs.
tbyte (10 bytes) 80-bit or 10 bytes (used for IEEE 754 FPU registers).
paragraph (16 bytes)-term was popular in MS-DOS environment.
Data types of the same width (BYTE, WORD, DWORD) are also the same in Windows API.

## .1.2 General purpose registers

It is possible to access many registers by byte or 16-bit word parts. .
It is all inheritance from older Intel CPUs (up to the 8-bit 8080) still supported for backward compatibility. Older 8-bit CPUs (8080) had 16-bit registers divided by two.
Programs written for 8080 could access the low byte part of 16-bit registers, high byte part or the whole 16-bit register.

Perhaps, this feature was left in 8086 as a helper for easier porting.
This feature is usually not present in RISC CPUs.
Registers prefixed with R-appeared in x86-64, and those prefixed with E--in 80386.
Thus, R-registers are 64-bit, and E-registers-32-bit.
8 more GPR's were added in x86-86: R8-R15. .
N.B.: In the Intel manuals the byte parts of these registers are prefixed by $L$, e.g.: R8L, but IDA names these registers by adding the $B$ suffix, e.g.: $R 8 B$.

## RAX/EAX/AX/AL

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RAX ${ }^{\text {64 }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EAX |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | AX |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | AH | AL |

AKA accumulator. The result of a function is usually returned via this register.

## RBX/EBX/BX/BL

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RBX ${ }^{\text {64 }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EBX |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | BX |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | BH | BL |


| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RCX ${ }^{\text {x64 }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | ECX |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | CX |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | CH | CL |

AKA counter: in this role it is used in REP prefixed instructions and also in shift instructions (SHL/SHR/RxL/RxR).

## RDX/EDX/DX/DL

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RDX ${ }^{64}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EDX |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | DX |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | DH | DL |

## RSI/ESI/SI/SIL

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RSI ${ }^{64}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | ESI |  |  |  |
| SI ${ }_{\text {SIL }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

AKA "source index". Used as source in the instructions REP MOVSx, REP CMPSx.

## RDI/EDI/DI/DIL



AKA "destination index". Used as a pointer to the destination in the instructions REP MOVSx, REP STOSx.

## R8/R8D/R8W/R8L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| R8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R8D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R8W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R8L |

## R9/R9D/R9W/R9L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| R9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R9D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R9W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R9L |


| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| R10 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R10D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R10W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R10L |

## R11/R11D/R11W/R11L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | Oth |
| R11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  R11D <br>  R11W |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R11L |

## R12/R12D/R12W/R12L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| R12 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R12D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R12W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R12L |

## R13/R13D/R13W/R13L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| R13 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R13D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R13W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R13L |

## R14/R14D/R14W/R14L



## R15/R15D/R15W/R15L

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | Oth |
| R15 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | R15D |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | R15W |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | R15L |



AKA stack pointer. Usually points to the current stack except in those cases when it is not yet initialized.

## RBP/EBP/BP/BPL

| Byte number: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7th | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | 1st | 0th |
| RBP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EBP |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | BP |  |

AKA frame pointer. Usually used for local variables and accessing the arguments of the function. More about it: ( 1.9.1 on page 67).

## RIP/EIP/IP



AKA "instruction pointer" ${ }^{3}$. Usually always points to the instruction to be executed right now. Cannot be modified, however, it is possible to do this (which is equivalent):

```
MOV EAX, ...
JMP EAX
```

Or:
PUSH value
RET

## CS/DS/ES/SS/FS/GS

16-bit registers containing code selector (CS), data selector (DS), stack selector (SS).
FS in win32 points to TLS, GS took this role in Linux. It is made so for faster access to the TLS and other structures like the TIB.
In the past, these registers were used as segment registers ( 11.6 on page 1003).

## Flags register

AKA EFLAGS.

[^140]| Bit (mask) | Abbreviation (meaning) | Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 (1) | CF (Carry) | The CLC/STC/CMC instructions are used for setting/resetting/toggling this flag |
| 2 (4) | PF (Parity) | ( 1.19 .7 on page 234). |
| 4 (0x10) | AF (Adjust) | Exist solely for work with BCD-numbers |
| 6 (0x40) | ZF (Zero) | Setting to 0 if the last operation's result is equal to 0 . |
| 7 (0x80) | SF (Sign) |  |
| 8 (0x100) | TF (Trap) | Used for debugging. If turned on, an exception is to be generated after each instruction's execution. |
| 9 (0x200) | IF (Interrupt enable) | Are interrupts enabled. The CLI/STI instructions are used for setting/resetting the flag |
| 10 (0x400) | DF (Direction) | A directions is set for the REP MOVSx/CMPSx/LODSx/SCASx instructions. The CLD/STD instructions are used for setting/resetting the flag See also: 3.24 on page 636. |
| 11 (0x800) | OF (Overflow) |  |
| 12, 13 (0x3000) | IOPL (I/O privilege level) ${ }^{\text {i286 }}$ |  |
| 14 (0x4000) | NT (Nested task) ${ }^{1286}$ |  |
| 16 (0x10000) | RF (Resume) ${ }^{\text {i386 }}$ | Used for debugging. <br> The CPU ignores the hardware breakpoint in DRx if the flag is set. |
| 17 (0x20000) | VM (Virtual 8086 mode) ${ }^{1386}$ |  |
| 18 (0x40000) | AC (Alignment check) ${ }^{\text {i486 }}$ |  |
| 19 (0x80000) | VIF (Virtual interrupt) ${ }^{1586}$ |  |
| 20 (0x100000) | VIP (Virtual interrupt pending) ${ }^{1586}$ |  |
| 21 (0x200000) | ID (Identification) ${ }^{\text {i586 }}$ |  |

All the rest flags are reserved.

## .1.3 FPU registers

8 80-bit registers working as a stack: ST(0)-ST(7). N.B.: IDA calls $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ as just ST . Numbers are stored in the IEEE 754 format.
long double value format:

( S—sign, I-integer part )

## Control Word

Register controlling the behavior of the FPU.

| Bit | Abbreviation (meaning) | Description |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | IM (Invalid operation Mask) |  |
| 1 | DM (Denormalized operand Mask) |  |
| 2 | ZM (Zero divide Mask) |  |
| 3 | OM (Overflow Mask) |  |
| 4 | UM (Underflow Mask) |  |
| 5 | PM (Precision Mask) | Exceptions enabling, 1 by default (disabled) |
| 7 | IEM (Interrupt Enable Mask) | $00-24$ bits (REAL4) |
| 8,9 | PC (Precision Control) | $10-53$ bits (REAL8) |
|  |  | $11-64$ bits (REAL10) |
|  |  | $00-$ (by default) round to nearest |
|  |  | $01-$ round toward $-\infty$ |
| 10,11 | RC (Rounding Control) | $10-$ round toward $+\infty$ |
|  |  | $11-$ round toward 0 |
|  |  | $0-$ (by default) treat $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ as unsigned |
|  |  | $1-$ respect both $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ |
| 12 | IC (Infinity Control) |  |
|  |  |  |

The PM, UM, OM, ZM, DM, IM flags define if to generate exception in the case of a corresponding error.

## Status Word

Read-only register.

| Bit | Abbreviation (meaning) | Description |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 15 | B (Busy) | Is FPU do something (1) or results are ready (0) |
| 14 | C3 |  |
| $13,12,11$ | TOP | points to the currently zeroth register |
| 10 | C2 |  |
| 9 | C1 |  |
| 8 | C0 |  |
| 7 | IR (Interrupt Request) |  |
| 6 | SF (Stack Fault) |  |
| 5 | P (Precision) |  |
| 4 | U (Underflow) |  |
| 3 | O (Overflow) |  |
| 2 | Z (Zero) |  |
| 1 | D (Denormalized) |  |
| 0 | I (Invalid operation) |  |

The SF, P, U, O, Z, D, I bits signal about exceptions.
About the C3, C2, C1, C0 you can read more here: ( 1.19 .7 on page 234).
N.B.: When $\mathrm{ST}(\mathrm{x})$ is used, the FPU adds $x$ to TOP (by modulo 8) and that is how it gets the internal register's number.

## Tag Word

The register has current information about the usage of numbers registers.

| Bit | Abbreviation (meaning) |
| :--- | :--- |
| 15,14 | $\operatorname{Tag}(7)$ |
| 13,12 | $\operatorname{Tag}(6)$ |
| 11,10 | $\operatorname{Tag}(5)$ |
| 9,8 | $\operatorname{Tag}(4)$ |
| 7,6 | $\operatorname{Tag}(3)$ |
| 5,4 | $\operatorname{Tag}(2)$ |
| 3,2 | $\operatorname{Tag}(1)$ |
| 1,0 | $\operatorname{Tag}(0)$ |

Each tag contains information about a physical FPU register ( $R(x)$ ), not logical (ST(x)).
For each tag:

- 00 - The register contains a non-zero value
- 01 - The register contains 0
- 10 - The register contains a special value (NAN ${ }^{4}$, $\infty$, or denormal)
- 11 - The register is empty


## .1.4 SIMD registers

## MMX registers

8 64-bit registers: MM0..MM7.

## SSE and AVX registers

SSE: 8 128-bit registers: XMM0..XMM7. In the x86-64 8 more registers were added: XMM8..XMM15.
AVX is the extension of all these registers to 256 bits ist eine Erweiterung all Register auf 256 Bit.

## .1.5 Debugging registers

Used for hardware breakpoints control.

- DRO - address of breakpoint \#1
- DR1 - address of breakpoint \#2
- DR2 - address of breakpoint \#3
- DR3 - address of breakpoint \#4
- DR6 - a cause of break is reflected here
- DR7 - breakpoint types are set here


## DR6

| Bit (mask) | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0(1)$ | B0 - breakpoint \#1 has been triggered |
| $1(2)$ | B1 - breakpoint \#2 has been triggered |
| $2(4)$ | B2 - breakpoint \#3 has been triggered |
| $3(8)$ | B3 - breakpoint \#4 has been triggered |
| $13(0 \times 2000)$ | BD - modification attempt of one of the DRx registers. <br> may be raised if GD is enabled |
| $14(0 \times 4000)$ | BS - single step breakpoint (TF flag has been set in EFLAGS). <br> Highest priority. Other bits may also be set. |
| $15(0 \times 8000)$ | BT (task switch flag) |

N.B. A single step breakpoint is a breakpoint which occurs after each instruction. It can be enabled by setting TF in EFLAGS (.1.2 on page 1022).

## DR 7

Breakpoint types are set here.

[^141]| Bit (mask) | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0(1)$ | L0 - enable breakpoint \#1 for the current task |
| $1(2)$ | G0 - enable breakpoint \#1 for all tasks |
| $2(4)$ | L1 - enable breakpoint \#2 for the current task |
| $3(8)$ | G1 - enable breakpoint \#2 for all tasks |
| $4(0 \times 10)$ | L2 - enable breakpoint \#3 for the current task |
| $5(0 \times 20)$ | G2 - enable breakpoint \#3 for all tasks |
| $6(0 \times 40)$ | L3 - enable breakpoint \#4 for the current task |
| $7(0 \times 80)$ | G3 - enable breakpoint \#4 for all tasks |
| $8(0 \times 100)$ | LE - not supported since P6 |
| $9(0 \times 200)$ | GE - not supported since P6 |
| $13(0 \times 2000)$ | GD - exception is to be raised if any MOV instruction <br> tries to modify one of the DRx registers |
| $16,17(0 \times 30000)$ | breakpoint \#1: R/W - type |
| $18,19(0 \times C 0000)$ | breakpoint \#1: LEN - length |
| $20,21(0 \times 300000)$ | breakpoint \#2: R/W - type |
| $22,23(0 \times C 00000)$ | breakpoint \#2: LEN - length |
| $24,25(0 \times 3000000)$ | breakpoint \#3: R/W - type |
| $26,27(0 \times C 000000)$ | breakpoint \#3: LEN - length |
| $28,29(0 \times 30000000)$ | breakpoint \#4: R/W - type |
| $30,31(0 \times C 0000000)$ | breakpoint \#4: LEN - length |

The breakpoint type is to be set as follows (R/W):

- 00 - instruction execution
- 01 - data writes
- 10 - I/O reads or writes (not available in user-mode)
- 11 - on data reads or writes
N.B.: breakpoint type for data reads is absent, indeed.

Breakpoint length is to be set as follows (LEN):

- 00 - one-byte
- 01 - two-byte
- 10 - undefined for 32-bit mode, eight-byte in 64-bit mode
- 11 - four-byte


## .1.6 Instructions

Instructions marked as (M) are not usually generated by the compiler: if you see one of them, it is probably a hand-written piece of assembly code, or a compiler intrinsic ( 11.3 on page 999).
Only the most frequently used instructions are listed here. You can read 12.1.4 on page 1013 for a full documentation.

Do you have to know all instruction's opcodes by heart? No, only those which are used for code patching ( 11.1.2 on page 998). All the rest of the opcodes don't need to be memorized.

## Prefixes

LOCK forces CPU to make exclusive access to the RAM in multiprocessor environment. For the sake of simplification, it can be said that when an instruction with this prefix is executed, all other CPUs in a multiprocessor system are stopped. Most often it is used for critical sections, semaphores, mutexes. Commonly used with ADD, AND, BTR, BTS, CMPXCHG, OR, XADD, XOR. You can read more about critical sections here ( 6.5.4 on page 787).
REP is used with the MOVSx and STOSx instructions: execute the instruction in a loop, the counter is located in the CX/ECX/RCX register. For a detailed description, read more about the MOVSx (.1.6 on page 1029) and STOSx (.1.6 on page 1030) instructions.

The instructions prefixed by REP are sensitive to the DF flag, which is used to set the direction.

REPE/REPNE (AKA REPZ/REPNZ) used with CMPSx and SCASx instructions: execute the last instruction in a loop, the count is set in the CX/ECX/RCX register. It terminates prematurely if ZF is 0 (REPE) or if ZF is 1 (REPNE).
For a detailed description, you can read more about the CMPSx ( .1.6 on page 1032) and SCASx ( .1.6 on page 1030) instructions.
Instructions prefixed by REPE/REPNE are sensitive to the DF flag, which is used to set the direction.

## Most frequently used instructions

These can be memorized in the first place.
ADC (add with carry) add values, increment the result if the CF flag is set. ADC is often used for the addition of large values, for example, to add two 64 -bit values in a 32 -bit environment using two ADD and ADC instructions. For example:

```
; work with 64-bit values: add vall to val2.
; .lo means lowest 32 bits, .hi means highest.
ADD val1.lo, val2.lo
ADC vall.hi, val2.hi ; use CF set or cleared at the previous instruction
```

One more example: 1.28 on page 396.
ADD add two values
AND logical "and"
CALL call another function:
PUSH address_after_CALL_instruction; JMP label
CMP compare values and set flags, the same as SUB but without writing the result
DEC decrement.Unlike other arithmetic instructions, DEC doesn't modify CF flag.
IMUL signed multiply IMUL often used instead of MUL, read more about it: 2.2.1.
INC increment.Unlike other arithmetic instructions, INC doesn't modify CF flag.
JCXZ, JECXZ, JRCXZ (M) jump if CX/ECX/RCX=0
JMP jump to another address. The opcode has a jump offset.
Jcc (where cc-condition code)
A lot of these instructions have synonyms (denoted with AKA), this was done for convenience. Synonymous instructions are translated into the same opcode. The opcode has a jump offset.

JAE AKA JNC: jump if above or equal (unsigned): $C F=0$
JA AKA JNBE: jump if greater (unsigned): $\mathrm{CF}=0$ and $\mathrm{ZF}=0$
JBE jump if lesser or equal (unsigned): $\mathrm{CF}=1$ or $\mathrm{ZF}=1$
JB AKA JC: jump if below (unsigned): CF=1
JC AKA JB: jump if $\mathrm{CF}=1$
JE AKA JZ: jump if equal or zero: $Z F=1$
JGE jump if greater or equal (signed): $\mathrm{SF}=\mathrm{OF}$
JG jump if greater (signed): $\mathrm{ZF}=0$ and $\mathrm{SF}=\mathrm{OF}$
JLE jump if lesser or equal (signed): $\mathrm{ZF}=1$ or $\mathrm{SF} \neq \mathrm{OF}$
JL jump if lesser (signed): SF $\neq 0 \mathrm{~F}$
JNAE AKA JC: jump if not above or equal (unsigned) $\mathrm{CF}=1$
JNA jump if not above (unsigned) $\mathrm{CF}=1$ and $\mathrm{ZF}=1$
JNBE jump if not below or equal (unsigned): $\mathrm{CF}=0$ and $\mathrm{ZF}=0$
JNB AKA JNC: jump if not below (unsigned): $\mathrm{CF}=0$
JNC AKA JAE: jump CF=0 synonymous to JNB.

JNE AKA JNZ: jump if not equal or not zero: $\mathbf{Z F}=0$
JNGE jump if not greater or equal (signed): $\mathrm{SF} \neq \mathrm{OF}$
JNG jump if not greater (signed): $\mathrm{ZF}=1$ or $\mathrm{SF} \neq \mathrm{OF}$
JNLE jump if not lesser (signed): $\mathrm{ZF}=0$ and $\mathrm{SF}=\mathrm{OF}$
JNL jump if not lesser (signed): $\mathrm{SF}=\mathrm{OF}$
JNO jump if not overflow: OF=0
JNS jump if SF flag is cleared
JNZ AKA JNE: jump if not equal or not zero: $\mathbf{Z F}=0$
JO jump if overflow: OF=1
JPO jump if PF flag is cleared (Jump Parity Odd)
JP AKA JPE: jump if PF flag is set
JS jump if SF flag is set
JZ AKA JE: jump if equal or zero: $\mathbf{Z F}=1$
LAHF copy some flag bits to AH:


This instruction is often used in FPU-related code.
LEAVE equivalent of the MOV ESP, EBP and POP EBP instruction pair-in other words, this instruction sets the stack pointer (ESP) back and restores the EBP register to its initial state.

LEA (Load Effective Address) form an address
This instruction was intended not for summing values and multiplication but for forming an address, e.g., for calculating the address of an array element by adding the array address, element index, with multiplication of element size ${ }^{5}$.

So, the difference between MOV and LEA is that MOV forms a memory address and loads a value from memory or stores it there, but LEA just forms an address.
But nevertheless, it is can be used for any other calculations.
LEA is convenient because the computations performed by it does not alter CPU flags. This may be very important for OOE processors (to create less data dependencies).
Aside from this, starting at least at Pentium, LEA instruction is executed in 1 cycle.

```
int f(int a, int b)
{
return a*8+b;
};
```

Listing 1: Optimizing MSVC 2010

```
a$ = 8 ; size = 4
-b$ = 12 ; size = 4
f PROC
    mov eax, DWORD PTR b$[esp-4]
    mov ecx, DWORD PTR a$[esp-4]
    lea eax, DWORD PTR [eax+ecx*8]
    ret 0
f ENDP
```

Intel C++ uses LEA even more:

```
int fl(int a)
{
    return a*13;
};
```

[^142]| $-f 1$ | PROC NEAR |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | mov | ecx, DWORD PTR [4+esp] | $;$ ecx $=a$ |
|  | lea | edx, DWORD PTR [ecx+ecx*8] | $;$ edx $=a * 9$ |
|  | lea | eax, DWORD PTR [edx+ecx*4] | $;$ eax $=a * 9+a * 4=a * 13$ |

These two instructions performs faster than one IMUL.
MOVSB/MOVSW/MOVSD/MOVSQ copy byte/ 16-bit word/ 32-bit word/ 64-bit word from the address which is in $\mathrm{SI} / E S I / R S I$ into the address which is in DI/EDI/RDI.
Together with the REP prefix, it is to be repeated in a loop, the count is to be stored in the CX/ECX/RCX register: it works like memcpy () in C. If the block size is known to the compiler in the compile stage, memcpy() is often inlined into a short code fragment using REP MOVSx, sometimes even as several instructions.

The memcpy(EDI, ESI, 15) equivalent is:

```
; copy 15 bytes from ESI to EDI
CLD ; set direction to forward
MOV ECX, 3
REP MOVSD ; copy 12 bytes
MOVSW ; copy 2 more bytes
MOVSB ; copy remaining byte
```

( Supposedly, it works faster than copying 15 bytes using just one REP MOVSB).
MOVSX load with sign extension see also: ( 1.17 .1 on page 201)
MOVZX load and clear all other bits see also: ( 1.17 .1 on page 202)
MOV load value. this instruction name is misnomer, resulting in some confusion (data is not moved but copied), in other architectures the same instructions is usually named "LOAD" and/or "STORE" or something like that.
One important thing: if you set the low 16-bit part of a 32 -bit register in 32 -bit mode, the high 16 bits remains as they were. But if you modify the low 32-bit part of the register in 64-bit mode, the high 32 bits of the register will be cleared.

Supposedly, it was done to simplify porting code to x86-64.
MUL unsigned multiply. IMUL often used instead of MUL, read more about it: 2.2.1.
NEG negation: $o p=-o p$ Same as NOT op / ADD op, 1.
NOP NOP. Its opcode is $0 \times 90$, it is in fact the XCHG EAX, EAX idle instruction. This implies that $x 86$ does not have a dedicated NOP instruction (as in many RISC). This book has at least one listing where GDB shows NOP as 16-bit XCHG instruction: 1.8.1 on page 48.
More examples of such operations: ( .1.7 on page 1038).
NOP may be generated by the compiler for aligning labels on a 16-byte boundary. Another very popular usage of NOP is to replace manually (patch) some instruction like a conditional jump to NOP in order to disable its execution.

NOT op1: op $1=\neg o p 1$. logical inversion Important feature—the instruction doesn't change flags.
OR logical "or"
POP get a value from the stack: value=SS: [ESP]; ESP=ESP+4 (or 8)
PUSH push a value into the stack: ESP=ESP-4 (or 8); SS: [ESP]=value
RET return from subroutine: POP tmp; JMP tmp.
In fact, RET is an assembly language macro, in Windows and *NIX environment it is translated into RETN ("return near") or, in MS-DOS times, where the memory was addressed differently ( 11.6 on page 1003), into RETF ("return far").
RET can have an operand. Then it works like this:
POP tmp; ADD ESP op1; JMP tmp. RET with an operand usually ends functions in the stdcall calling convention, see also: 6.1.2 on page 734.

SAHF copy bits from AH to CPU flags:


This instruction is often used in FPU-related code.
SBB (subtraction with borrow) subtract values, decrement the result if the CF flag is set. SBB is often used for subtraction of large values, for example, to subtract two 64-bit values in 32-bit environment using two SUB and SBB instructions. For example:
; work with 64-bit values: subtract val2 from vall.
; .lo means lowest 32 bits, .hi means highest.
SUB val1.lo, val2.lo
SBB vall.hi, val2.hi ; use CF set or cleared at the previous instruction
One more example: 1.28 on page 396.
SCASB/SCASW/SCASD/SCASQ (M) compare byte/ 16-bit word/ 32-bit word/ 64-bit word that's stored in AX/EAX/RAX with a variable whose address is in DI/EDI/RDI. Set flags as CMP does.

This instruction is often used with the REPNE prefix: continue to scan the buffer until a special value stored in AX/EAX/RAX is found. Hence "NE" in REPNE: continue to scan while the compared values are not equal and stop when equal.
It is often used like the strlen() C standard function, to determine an ASCIIZ string's length:
Example:

```
lea edi, string
mov ecx, 0FFFFFFFFh ; scan 2 2 -1 bytes, i.e., almost infinitely
xor eax, eax ; 0 is the terminator
repne scasb
add edi, 0FFFFFFFFh ; correct it
; now EDI points to the last character of the ASCIIZ string.
; lets determine string length
; current ECX = -1-strlen
not ecx
dec ecx
; now ECX contain string length
```

If we use a different $A X / E A X / R A X$ value, the function acts like the memchr() standard $C$ function, i.e., it finds a specific byte.

SHL shift value left
SHR shift value right:


These instructions are frequently used for multiplication and division by $2^{n}$. Another very frequent application is processing bit fields: 1.22 on page 304.
SHRD op1, op2, op3: shift value in op2 right by op3 bits, taking bits from op1.
Example: 1.28 on page 396.
STOSB/STOSW/STOSD/STOSQ store byte/ 16-bit word/ 32-bit word/ 64-bit word from AX/EAX/RAX into the address which is in DI/EDI/RDI.

Together with the REP prefix, it is to be repeated in a loop, the counter is in the CX/ECX/RCX register: it works like memset() in C. If the block size is known to the compiler on compile stage, memset() is often inlined into a short code fragment using REP MOVSx, sometimes even as several instructions.
memset(EDI, 0xAA, 15) equivalent is:

```
; store 15 0xAA bytes to EDI
CLD ; set direction to forward
MOV EAX, 0AAAAAAAAh
MOV ECX, 3
REP STOSD ; write 12 bytes
STOSW ; write 2 more bytes
STOSB ; write remaining byte
```

( Supposedly, it works faster than storing 15 bytes using just one REP STOSB).
SUB subtract values. A frequently occurring pattern is SUB reg, reg, which implies zeroing of reg.
TEST same as AND but without saving the result, see also: 1.22 on page 304
XOR op1, op2: XOR ${ }^{6}$ values. op $1=o p 1 \oplus o p 2$. A frequently occurring pattern is XOR reg, reg, which implies zeroing of reg. See also: 2.6 on page 461.

## Less frequently used instructions

BSF bit scan forward, see also: 1.29.2 on page 419
BSR bit scan reverse
BSWAP (byte swap), change value endianness.
BTC bit test and complement
BTR bit test and reset
BTS bit test and set
BT bit test
CBW/CWD/CWDE/CDQ/CDQE Sign-extend value:
CBW convert byte in AL to word in AX
CWD convert word in AX to doubleword in DX:AX
CWDE convert word in AX to doubleword in EAX
CDQ convert doubleword in EAX to quadword in EDX:EAX
CDQE (x64) convert doubleword in EAX to quadword in RAX
These instructions consider the value's sign, extending it to high part of the newly constructed value. See also: 1.28 .5 on page 405.
Interestingly to know these instructions was initially named as SEX (Sign EXtend), as Stephen P. Morse (one of Intel 8086 CPU designers) wrote in [Stephen P. Morse, The 8086 Primer, (1980)]]:

The process of stretching numbers by extending the sign bit is called sign extension. The 8086 provides instructions (Fig. 3.29) to facilitate the task of sign extension. These instructions were initially named SEX (sign extend) but were later renamed to the more conservative CBW (convert byte to word) and CWD (convert word to double word).

CLD clear DF flag.
CLI (M) clear IF flag
CMC (M) toggle CF flag
CMOVcc conditional MOV: load if the condition is true. The condition codes are the same as in the Jcc instructions ( .1.6 on page 1027).

[^143]CMPSB/CMPSW/CMPSD/CMPSQ (M) compare byte/ 16 -bit word/ 32-bit word/ 64 -bit word from the address which is in SI/ESI/RSI with the variable at the address stored in DI/EDI/RDI. Set flags as CMP does.

Together with the REP prefix, it is to be repeated in a loop, the counter is stored in the CX/ECX/RCX register, the process will run until the ZF flag is zero (e.g., until the compared values are equal to each other, hence " $E$ " in REPE).

It works like memcmp() in C.
Example from the Windows NT kernel (WRK v1.2):
Listing 3: base\ntos\rt/li386\movemem.asm

```
; ULONG
RtlCompareMemory (
    IN PVOID Source1,
    IN PVOID Source2,
    IN ULONG Length
    )
Routine Description:
    This function compares two blocks of memory and returns the number
    of bytes that compared equal.
Arguments:
        Source1 (esp+4) - Supplies a pointer to the first block of memory to
        compare.
        Source2 (esp+8) - Supplies a pointer to the second block of memory to
        compare.
        Length (esp+12) - Supplies the Length, in bytes, of the memory to be
        compared.
Return Value:
    The number of bytes that compared equal is returned as the function
    value. If all bytes compared equal, then the length of the original
    block of memory is returned.
; --
RcmSource1 equ [esp+12]
RcmSource2 equ [esp+16]
RcmLength equ [esp+20]
CODE ALIGNMENT
cPublicProc _RtlCompareMemory,3
cPublicFpo 3,0
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
push & esi & ; save registers \\
push & edi & ; clear direction \\
cld & & ; (esi) -> first block to compare \\
mov & esi,RcmSource1 & ; (edi) -> second block to compare \\
mov & edi,RcmSource2 &
\end{tabular}
;
    Compare dwords, if any.
rcm10: mov ecx,RcmLength ; (ecx) = length in bytes
    shr ecx,2 ; (ecx) = length in dwords
    jz rcm20 ; no dwords, try bytes
    repe cmpsd ; compare dwords
    jnz rcm40 ; mismatch, go find byte
;
    Compare residual bytes, if any.
```

```
rcm20: mov ecx,RcmLength ; (ecx) = length in bytes
and ecx,3 ; (ecx) = length mod 4
jz rcm30 ; 0 odd bytes, go do dwords
repe cmpsb ; compare odd bytes
jnz rcm50 ; mismatch, go report how far we got
;
    All bytes in the block match.
rcm30: mov eax,RcmLength ; set number of matching bytes
    pop edi ; restore registers
    pop esi ;
    stdRET _RtlCompareMemory
When we come to rcm40, esi (and edi) points to the dword after the
one which caused the mismatch. Back up 1 dword and find the byte.
Since we know the dword didn't match, we can assume one byte won't.
rcm40: sub esi,4 ; back up
sub edi,4 ; back up
mov ecx,5 ; ensure that ecx doesn't count out
repe cmpsb ; find mismatch byte
```

```
; When we come to rcm50, esi points to the byte after the one that
```

; When we come to rcm50, esi points to the byte after the one that
did not match, which is TWO after the last byte that did match.
did not match, which is TWO after the last byte that did match.
;
;
rcm50: dec esi ; back up
rcm50: dec esi ; back up
sub esi,RcmSource1 ; compute bytes that matched
sub esi,RcmSource1 ; compute bytes that matched
mov eax,esi ;
mov eax,esi ;
pop edi ; restore registers
pop edi ; restore registers
pop esi ;
pop esi ;
stdRET _RtlCompareMemory
stdRET _RtlCompareMemory
stdENDP _RtlCompareMemory

```
stdENDP _RtlCompareMemory
```

N.B.: this function uses a 32-bit word comparison (CMPSD) if the block size is a multiple of 4, or per-byte comparison (CMPSB) otherwise.

CPUID get information about the CPU's features. see also: ( 1.24 .6 on page 369).
DIV unsigned division
IDIV signed division
INT (M): INT $x$ is analogous to PUSHF; CALL dword ptr [ $x * 4$ ] in 16-bit environment. It was widely used in MS-DOS, functioning as a syscall vector. The registers $A X / B X / C X / D X / S I / D I$ were filled with the arguments and then the flow jumped to the address in the Interrupt Vector Table (located at the beginning of the address space). It was popular because INT has a short opcode (2 bytes) and the program which needs some MS-DOS services is not bother to determine the address of the service's entry point. The interrupt handler returns the control flow to caller using the IRET instruction.

The most busy MS-DOS interrupt number was 0x21, serving a huge part of its API. See also: [Ralf Brown Ralf Brown's Interrupt List], for the most comprehensive interrupt lists and other MS-DOS information.

In the post-MS-DOS era, this instruction was still used as syscall both in Linux and Windows ( 6.3 on page 747), but was later replaced by the SYSENTER or SYSCALL instructions.

INT 3 (M): this instruction is somewhat close to INT, it has its own 1-byte opcode ( $0 x C C$ ), and is actively used while debugging. Often, the debuggers just write the 0xCC byte at the address of the breakpoint to be set, and when an exception is raised, the original byte is restored and the original instruction at this address is re-executed.
As of Windows NT, an EXCEPTION_BREAKPOINT exception is to be raised when the CPU executes this instruction. This debugging event may be intercepted and handled by a host debugger, if one is
loaded. If it is not loaded, Windows offers to run one of the registered system debuggers. If MSVS ${ }^{8}$ is installed, its debugger may be loaded and connected to the process. In order to protect from reverse engineering, a lot of anti-debugging methods check integrity of the loaded code.
MSVC has compiler intrinsic for the instruction: $\qquad$ debugbreak() ${ }^{9}$.
There is also a win32 function in kernel32. dll named DebugBreak( ) ${ }^{10}$, which also executes INT 3.
IN (M) input data from port. The instruction usually can be seen in OS drivers or in old MS-DOS code, for example ( 8.5.3 on page 832).
IRET : was used in the MS-DOS environment for returning from an interrupt handler after it was called by the INT instruction. Equivalent to POP tmp; POPF; JMP tmp.
LOOP (M) decrement CX/ECX/RCX, jump if it is still not zero.
LOOP instruction was often used in DOS-code which works with external devices. To add small delay, this was done:

```
LABEL: MOOP CX, nnnn
```

Drawback is obvious: length of delay depends on CPU speed.
OUT (M) output data to port. The instruction usually can be seen in OS drivers or in old MS-DOS code, for example ( 8.5.3 on page 832).
POPA (M) restores values of (R|E)DI, (R|E)SI, (R|E)BP, (R|E)BX, (R|E)DX, (R|E)CX, (R|E)AX registers from the stack.

POPCNT population count. Counts the number of 1 bits in the value.
See: 2.7 on page 463.
POPF restore flags from the stack (AKA EFLAGS register)
PUSHA (M) pushes the values of the (R|E)AX, (R|E)CX, (R|E)DX, (R|E)BX, (R|E)BP, (R|E)SI, (R|E)DI registers to the stack.
PUSHF push flags (AKA EFLAGS register)
RCL (M) rotate left via CF flag:

$\mathbf{R C R}$ (M) rotate right via CF flag:


ROL/ROR (M) cyclic shift
ROL: rotate left:


ROR: rotate right:

[^144]

Despite the fact that almost all CPUs have these instructions, there are no corresponding operations in C/C++, so the compilers of these PLs usually do not generate these instructions.

For the programmer's convenience, at least MSVC has the pseudofunctions (compiler intrinsics) _rotl() and _rotr() $)^{11}$, which are translated by the compiler directly to these instructions.

SAL Arithmetic shift left, synonymous to SHL
SAR Arithmetic shift right


Hence, the sign bit always stays at the place of the MSB.
SETCC op: load 1 to operand (byte only) if the condition is true or zero otherwise. The condition codes are the same as in the Jcc instructions (.1.6 on page 1027).

STC (M) set CF flag
STD (M) set DF flag. This instruction is not generated by compilers and generally rare. For example, it can be found in the ntoskrnl. exe Windows kernel file, in the hand-written memory copy routines.

STI (M) set IF flag
SYSCALL (AMD) call syscall ( 6.3 on page 747)
SYSENTER (Intel) call syscall ( 6.3 on page 747)
UD2 (M) undefined instruction, raises exception. Used for testing.
XCHG (M) exchange the values in the operands
This instruction is rare: compilers don't generate it, because starting at Pentium, XCHG with address in memory in operand executes as if it has LOCK prefix ([Michael Abrash, Graphics Programming Black Book, 1997chapter 19]). Perhaps, Intel engineers did so for compatibility with synchronizing primitives. Hence, XCHG starting at Pentium can be slow. On the other hand, XCHG was very popular in assembly language programmers. So if you see XCHG in code, it can be a sign that this piece of code is written manually. However, at least Borland Delphi compiler generates this instruction.

## FPU instructions

-R suffix in the mnemonic usually implies that the operands are reversed, - P suffix implies that one element is popped from the stack after the instruction's execution, - PP suffix implies that two elements are popped.
-P instructions are often useful when we do not need the value in the FPU stack to be present anymore after the operation.

FABS replace value in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ by absolute value in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$
FADD op: $\mathrm{ST}(0)=o p+\mathrm{ST}(0)$
FADD ST(0), $\mathrm{ST}(\mathrm{i}): \mathrm{ST}(0)=\mathrm{ST}(0)+\mathrm{ST}(\mathrm{i})$
FADDP $\mathrm{ST}(1)=\mathrm{ST}(0)+\mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop one element from the stack, i.e., the values in the stack are replaced by their sum

FCHS ST(0)=-ST(0)
FCOM compare ST(0) with ST(1)
FCOM op: compare ST(0) with op
FCOMP compare $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ with $\mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop one element from the stack

[^145]FCOMPP compare ST(0) with ST(1); pop two elements from the stack
FDIVR op: ST(0)=op/ST(0)
FDIVR ST(i), ST(j): ST(i)=ST(j)/ST(i)
FDIVRP op: $\operatorname{ST}(0)=o p / S T(0)$; pop one element from the stack
FDIVRP ST(i), ST(j): ST(i)=ST(j)/ST(i); pop one element from the stack
FDIV op: $\mathrm{ST}(0)=\mathrm{ST}(0) / \mathrm{op}$
FDIV ST(i), ST(j): ST(i)=ST(i)/ST(j)
FDIVP $\operatorname{ST}(1)=\mathrm{ST}(0) / \mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop one element from the stack, i.e., the dividend and divisor values in the stack are replaced by quotient

FILD op: convert integer and push it to the stack.
FIST op: convert ST(0) to integer op
FISTP op: convert ST(0) to integer op; pop one element from the stack
FLD1 push 1 to stack
FLDCW op: load FPU control word (.1.3 on page 1023) from 16-bit op.
FLDZ push zero to stack
FLD op: push op to the stack.
FMUL op: $\mathrm{ST}(0)=\mathrm{ST}(0) * o p$
FMUL ST(i), ST(j): ST(i)=ST(i)*ST(j)
FMULP op: ST(0)=ST(0)*op; pop one element from the stack
FMULP ST(i), ST(j): ST(i)=ST(i)*ST(j); pop one element from the stack
FSINCOS : tmp=ST(0); ST(1)=sin(tmp); ST(0)=cos(tmp)
FSQRT : $S T(0)=\sqrt{S T(0)}$
FSTCW op: store FPU control word ( .1.3 on page 1023) into 16 -bit op after checking for pending exceptions.

FNSTCW op: store FPU control word ( . 1.3 on page 1023) into 16 -bit op.
FSTSW op: store FPU status word ( .1.3 on page 1024) into 16 -bit op after checking for pending exceptions.
FNSTSW op: store FPU status word ( . 1.3 on page 1024) into 16 -bit op.
FST op: copy ST(0) to op
FSTP op: copy ST(0) to op; pop one element from the stack
FSUBR op: ST(0)=op-ST(0)
FSUBR ST(0), ST(i): ST(0)=ST(i)-ST(0)
FSUBRP $\operatorname{ST}(1)=\mathrm{ST}(0)-\mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop one element from the stack, i.e., the value in the stack is replaced by the difference

FSUB op: ST(0)=ST(0)-op
FSUB ST(0), ST(i): ST(0)=ST(0)-ST(i)
FSUBP $\operatorname{ST}(1)=\mathrm{ST}(1)-\mathrm{ST}(0)$; pop one element from the stack, i.e., the value in the stack is replaced by the difference

FUCOM ST(i): compare ST(0) and ST(i)
FUCOM compare ST(0) and ST(1)
FUCOMP compare $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ and $\mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop one element from stack.
FUCOMPP compare $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ and $\mathrm{ST}(1)$; pop two elements from stack.
The instructions perform just like FCOM, but an exception is raised only if one of the operands is SNaN , while QNaN numbers are processed smoothly.
FXCH ST(i) exchange values in $\mathrm{ST}(0)$ and $\mathrm{ST}(\mathrm{i})$

## Instructions having printable ASCII opcode

(In 32-bit mode).
These can be suitable for shellcode construction. See also: 8.12.1 on page 911.

| ASClI character | hexadecimal code | x86 instruction |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 30 | XOR |
| 1 | 31 | XOR |
| 2 | 32 | XOR |
| 3 | 33 | XOR |
| 4 | 34 | XOR |
| 5 | 35 | XOR |
| 7 | 37 | AAA |
| 8 | 38 | CMP |
| 9 | 39 | CMP |
| : | 3 a | CMP |
| ; | 3b | CMP |
| < | 3 c | CMP |
| $=$ | 3d | CMP |
| ? | 3 f | AAS |
| @ | 40 | INC |
| A | 41 | INC |
| B | 42 | INC |
| C | 43 | INC |
| D | 44 | INC |
| E | 45 | INC |
| F | 46 | INC |
| G | 47 | INC |
| H | 48 | DEC |
| I | 49 | DEC |
| J | 4 a | DEC |
| K | 4b | DEC |
| L | 4c | DEC |
| M | 4d | DEC |
| N | 4 e | DEC |
| O | 4f | DEC |
| P | 50 | PUSH |
| Q | 51 | PUSH |
| R | 52 | PUSH |
| S | 53 | PUSH |
| T | 54 | PUSH |
| U | 55 | PUSH |
| v | 56 | PUSH |
| w | 57 | PUSH |
| X | 58 | POP |
| Y | 59 | POP |
| Z | 5a | POP |
| [ | 5b | POP |
| 1 | 5c | POP |
| ] | 5d | POP |
| $\wedge$ | 5 e | POP |
|  | $5 f$ | POP |
| - | 60 | PUSHA |
| a | 61 | POPA |
| f | 66 | (in 32-bit mode) switch to 16-bit operand size |
| g | 67 | in 32-bit mode) switch to 16-bit address size |
| h | 68 | PUSH |
| i | 69 | IMUL |
| j | 6a | PUSH |

.1. X86

| k | 6 b | IMUL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| p | 70 | JO |
| q | 71 | JNO |
| r | 72 | JB |
| s | 73 | JAE |
| t | 74 | JE |
| u | 75 | JNE |
| v | 76 | JBE |
| w | 77 | JA |
| x | 78 | JS |
| y | 79 | JNS |
| $z$ | $7 a$ | JP |

In summary: AAA, AAS, CMP, DEC, IMUL, INC, JA, JAE, JB, JBE, JE, JNE, JNO, JNS, JO, JP, JS, POP, POPA, PUSH, PUSHA, XOR.

## .1.7 npad

It is an assembly language macro for aligning labels on a specific boundary.
That's often needed for the busy labels to where the control flow is often passed, e.g., loop body starts. So the CPU can load the data or code from the memory effectively, through the memory bus, cache lines, etc.
Taken from listing.inc (MSVC):
By the way, it is a curious example of the different NOP variations. All these instructions have no effects whatsoever, but have a different size.

Having a single idle instruction instead of couple of NOP-s, is accepted to be better for CPU performance.

```
;; LISTING.INC
;;
; This file contains assembler macros and is included by the files created
;; with the -FA compiler switch to be assembled by MASM (Microsoft Macro
; Assembler).
;;; Copyright (c) 1993-2003, Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.
;; non destructive nops
npad macro size
if size eq 1
    nop
else
if size eq 2
    mov edi, edi
else
    if size eq 3
        ; lea ecx, [ecx+00]
        DB 8DH, 49H, 00H
        else
        if size eq 4
            ; lea esp, [esp+00]
        DB 8DH, 64H, 24H, 00H
        else
        if size eq 5
            add eax, DWORD PTR 0
        else
        if size eq 6
            ; lea ebx, [ebx+00000000]
            DB 8DH, 9BH, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
        else
                if size eq 7
                    ; lea esp, [esp+00000000]
                    DB 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
                else
```

.2. $A R M$

```
    if size eq 8
        ; jmp .+8; .npad 6
        DB 0EBH, 06H, 8DH, 9BH, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
            else
                if size eq 9
                ; jmp .+9; .npad 7
                DB 0EBH, 07H, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
            else
                if size eq 10
                ; jmp .+A; .npad 7; .npad 1
                DB 0EBH, 08H, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 90H
                else
                if size eq 11
                ; jmp .+B; .npad 7; .npad 2
                DB 0EBH, 09H, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 8BH, 0FFH
                else
                if size eq 12
                    ; jmp .+C; .npad 7; .npad 3
                    DB 0EBH, 0AH, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 8DH, 49H, 00H
                else
                    if size eq 13
                            ; jmp .+D; .npad 7; .npad 4
                            DB 0EBH, 0BH, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 8DH, 64H, 24H, 00H
                    else
                    if size eq 14
                    ; jmp .+E; .npad 7; .npad 5
                    DB 0EBH, 0CH, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 05H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
                    else
                    if size eq 15
                    ; jmp .+F; .npad 7; .npad 6
                    DB 0EBH, 0DH, 8DH, 0A4H, 24H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H, 8DH, 9BH, 00H, 00H, 00H, 00H
                    else
                        %out error: unsupported npad size
                        .err
                    endif
                    endif
                    endif
                endif
                endif
            endif
            endif
            endif
            endif
            endif
        endif
        endif
    endif
endif
endif
endm
```


## . 2 ARM

## .2.1 Terminology

ARM was initially developed as 32-bit CPU, so that's why a word here, unlike x86, is 32-bit.
byte 8-bit. The DB assembly directive is used for defining variables and arrays of bytes.
halfword 16-bit. DCW assembly directive -"-.
word 32-bit. DCD assembly directive -"-.
doubleword 64-bit.
quadword 128-bit.

## .2.2 Versions

- ARMv4: Thumb mode introduced.
- ARMv6: used in iPhone 1st gen., iPhone 3G (Samsung 32-bit RISC ARM 1176JZ(F)-S that supports Thumb-2)
- ARMv7: Thumb-2 was added (2003). was used in iPhone 3GS, iPhone 4, iPad 1st gen. (ARM CortexA8), iPad 2 (Cortex-A9), iPad 3rd gen.
- ARMv7s: New instructions added. Was used in iPhone 5, iPhone 5c, iPad 4th gen. (Apple A6).
- ARMv8: 64-bit CPU, AKA ARM64 AKA AArch64. Was used in iPhone 5S, iPad Air (Apple A7). There is no Thumb mode in 64-bit mode, only ARM (4-byte instructions).


## . 2.3 32-bit ARM (AArch32)

## General purpose registers

- RO— function result is usually returned using R0
- R1...R12-GPRs
- R13-AKA SP (stack pointer)
- R14-AKA LR (link register)
- R15-AKA PC (program counter)

R0-R3 are also called "scratch registers": the function's arguments are usually passed in them, and the values in them are not required to be restored upon the function's exit.

## Current Program Status Register (CPSR)

| Bit | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0 . .4$ | M-processor mode |
| 5 | T-Thumb state |
| 6 | F-FIQ disable |
| 7 | I-IRQ disable |
| 8 | A-imprecise data abort disable |
| 9 | E-data endianness |
| $10 . .15,25,26$ | IT-if-then state |
| $16 . .19$ | GE-greater-than-or-equal-to |
| $20 . .23$ | DNM-do not modify |
| 24 | J-Java state |
| 27 | Q--sticky overflow |
| 28 | V-overflow |
| 29 | C-carry/borrow/extend |
| 30 | Z-zero bit |
| 31 | N-negative/less than |

## VFP (floating point) and NEON registers

| $0 . .31^{\text {bits }}$ | $32 . .64$ | $65 . .96$ | $97 . .127$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{QO}^{128}$ bits |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{DO}^{64 \text { bits }}$ |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{SO}^{32 \text { bits }}$ | S 1 | S 2 | S 3 |

S-registers are 32 -bit, used for the storage of single precision numbers.
D-registers are 64-bit ones, used for the storage of double precision numbers.
D- and S-registers share the same physical space in the CPU-it is possible to access a D-register via the S -registers (it is senseless though).
.2. ARM
Likewise, the NEON Q-registers are 128-bit ones and share the same physical space in the CPU with the other floating point registers.

In VFP 32 S-registers are present: S0..S31.
In VFPv2 there 16 D-registers are added, which in fact occupy the same space as S0..S31.
In VFPv3 (NEON or "Advanced SIMD") there are 16 more D-registers, D0..D31, but the D16..D31 registers are not sharing space with any other S-registers.

In NEON or "Advanced SIMD" another 16 128-bit Q-registers were added, which share the same space as D0..D31.

## . 2.4 64-bit ARM (AArch64)

## General purpose registers

The number of registers was doubled since AArch32.

- X0- function result is usually returned using X0
- X0...X7-Function arguments are passed here.
- X8
- X9...X15-are temporary registers, the callee function can use and not restore them.
- X16
- X17
- X18
- X19...X29-callee function can use them, but must restore them upon exit.
- X29-used as FP (at least GCC)
- X30-"Procedure Link Register" AKA LR (link register).
- X31-register always contains zero AKA XZR or "Zero Register". It's 32-bit part is called WZR.
- SP, not a general purpose register anymore.

See also: [Procedure Call Standard for the ARM 64-bit Architecture (AArch64), (2013)] ${ }^{12}$.
The 32-bit part of each X-register is also accessible via W-registers (W0, W1, etc.).

| High 32-bit part | low 32-bit part |
| :---: | :---: |
| X0 |  |
|  | W0 |

## .2.5 Instructions

There is a -S suffix for some instructions in ARM, indicating that the instruction sets the flags according to the result. Instructions which lacks this suffix are not modify flags. For example ADD unlike ADDS will add two numbers, but the flags will not be touched. Such instructions are convenient to use between CMP where the flags are set and, e.g. conditional jumps, where the flags are used. They are also better in terms of data dependency analysis (because less number of registers are modified during execution).

[^146]
## Conditional codes table

\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{|l|l|l|}\hline \text { Code } & \text { Description } & \text { Flags } \\
\hline \text { EQ } & \text { Equal } & \mathrm{Z}==1 \\
\hline \text { NE } & \text { Not equal } & \mathrm{Z}==0 \\
\hline \text { CS AKA HS (Higher or Same) } & \text { Carry set / Unsigned, Greater than, equal } & \mathrm{C}==1 \\
\hline \text { CC AKA LO (LOwer) } & \text { Carry clear / Unsigned, Less than } & \mathrm{C}==0 \\
\hline \text { MI } & \text { Minus, negative / Less than } & \mathrm{N}==1 \\
\hline \text { PL } & \text { Plus, positive or zero / Greater than, equal } & \mathrm{N}==0 \\
\hline \text { VS } & \text { Overflow } & \mathrm{V}==1 \\
\hline \text { VC } & \text { No overflow } & \mathrm{V}==0 \\
\hline \text { HI } & \text { Unsigned higher / Greater than } & \begin{array}{l}\mathrm{C}==1 \text { and } \\
\mathrm{Z}==0\end{array} \\
\hline \text { LS } & \text { Unsigned lower or same / Less than or equal } & \begin{array}{l}\mathrm{C}==0 \\
\mathrm{Z}==1\end{array}
$$ <br>
\hline GE \& Signed greater than or equal / Greater than or equal \& \mathrm{N}==\mathrm{V} <br>
\hline LT \& Signed less than / Less than \& \mathrm{N}!=\mathrm{V} <br>
\hline GT \& Signed greater than / Greater than \& \mathrm{Z}==0 and <br>

\& \& \mathrm{N}==\mathrm{V}\end{array}\right]\)| $\mathrm{Z}==1$ or |
| :--- |
| LE |

## . 3 MIPS

## .3.1 Registers

( O32 calling convention)

## General purpose registers GPR

| Number | Pseudoname | Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \$0 | \$ZERO | Always zero. Writing to this register is like NOP. |
| \$1 | \$AT | Used as a temporary register for assembly macros and pseudo instructions. |
| \$2 ...\$3 | \$V0 ...\$V1 | Function result is returned here. |
| \$4...\$7 | \$A0 ...\$A3 | Function arguments. |
| \$8 ... ${ }^{\text {d }}$ 15 | \$T0 ... \$T7 | Used for temporary data. |
| \$16 ... ${ }^{\text {2 }}$ 23 | \$S0 ...\$S7 | Used for temporary data*. |
| \$24 ... ${ }^{\text {2 }}$ 25 | \$T8 ... \$T9 | Used for temporary data. |
| \$26 ... ${ }^{\text {2 }}$ 27 | \$K0 ... ${ }^{\text {K }}$ 1 | Reserved for OS kernel. |
| \$28 | \$GP | Global Pointer**. |
| \$29 | \$SP | SP*. |
| \$30 | \$FP | FP*. |
| \$31 | \$RA | RA. |
| n/a | PC | PC. |
| n/a | HI | high 32 bit of multiplication or division remainder***. |
| n/a | LO | low 32 bit of multiplication and division remainder ${ }^{* * *}$. |

## Floating-point registers

| Name | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| \$F0..\$F1 | Function result returned here. |
| \$F2..\$F3 | Not used. |
| \$F4..\$F11 | Used for temporary data. |
| \$F12..\$F15 | First two function arguments. |
| \$F16..\$F19 | Used for temporary data. |
| \$F20..\$F31 | Used for temporary data*. |

*-Callee must preserve the value.
**-Callee must preserve the value ( except in PIC code).
*** -accessible using the MFHI and MFLO instructions.

## .3.2 Instructions

There are 3 kinds of instructions:

- R-type: those which have 3 registers. R-instruction usually have the following form:

```
instruction destination, source1, source2
```

One important thing to keep in mind is that when the first and second register are the same, IDA may show the instruction in its shorter form:

```
instruction destination/source1, source2
```

That somewhat reminds us of the Intel syntax for x86 assembly language.

- I-type: those which have 2 registers and a 16-bit immediate value.
- J-type: jump/branch instructions, have 26 bits for encoding the offset.


## Jump instructions

What is the difference between B- instructions (BEQ, B, etc.) and J- ones (JAL, JALR, etc.)?
The B-instructions have an I-type, hence, the B-instructions' offset is encoded as a 16-bit immediate. JR and JALR are R-type and jump to an absolute address specified in a register. J and JAL are J-type, hence the offset is encoded as a 26-bit immediate.

In short, B-instructions can encode a condition (B is in fact pseudo instruction for BEQ \$ZERO, \$ZERO, LABEL), while J-instructions can't.

## . 4 Some GCC library functions

| name | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| divdi3 | signed division |
| moddi3 | getting remainder (modulo) of signed division |
| _udivdi3 | unsigned division |
| _umoddi3 | getting remainder (modulo) of unsigned division |

## . 5 Some MSVC library functions

$l l$ in function name stands for "long long", e.g., a 64-bit data type.

| name | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\ldots$ alldiv | signed division |
| allmul | multiplication |
| __allrem | remainder of signed division |
| allshl | shift left |
| $\ldots$ allshr | signed shift right |
| __alldiv | unsigned division |
| _aullrem | remainder of unsigned division |
| $\ldots$ aullshr | unsigned shift right |

Multiplication and shift left procedures are the same for both signed and unsigned numbers, hence there is only one function for each operation here. .

The source code of these function can be found in the installed MSVS, in VC/crt/src/intel/*.asm VC/crt/src/intel/*.asm.

## . 6 Cheatsheets

## .6.1 IDA

Hot-keys cheatsheet:

| key | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| Space | switch listing and graph view |
| C | convert to code |
| D | convert to data |
| A | convert to string |
| * | convert to array |
| U | undefine |
| O | make offset of operand |
| H | make decimal number |
| R | make char |
| B | make binary number |
| Q | make hexadecimal number |
| N | rename identifier |
| $?$ | calculator |
| G | jump to address |
| : | add comment |
| Ctrl-X | show references to the current function, label, variable |
| X | (incl. in local stack) |
| Alt-I | show references to the function, label, variable, etc. |
| Ctrl-I | search for constant |
| Alt-B | search for byte next occurrence of constant |
| Ctrl-B | search for the next occurrence of byte sequence |
| Alt-T | search for text (including instructions, etc.) Text suchen (inkl. Anweisungen, usw.) |
| Ctrl-T | search for the next occurrence of text |
| Alt-P | edit current function |
| Enter | jump to function, variable, etc. |
| Esc | get back |
| Num - | fold function or selected area |
| Num + | unhide function or area |

Function/area folding may be useful for hiding function parts when you realize what they do. . this is used in my script ${ }^{13}$ for hiding some often used patterns of inline code. .

## .6.2 OllyDbg

Hot-keys cheatsheet:

| hot-key | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| F7 | trace into |
| F8 | step over |
| F9 | run |
| Ctrl-F2 | restart |

## .6.3 MSVC

Some useful options which were used through this book. .

[^147]| option | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| /O1 | minimize space |
| /Ob0 | no inline expansion |
| /Ox | maximum optimizations |
| /GS- | disable security checks (buffer overflows) |
| /Fa(file) | generate assembly listing |
| /Zi | enable debugging information |
| /Zp(n) | pack structs on $n$-byte boundary |
| /MD | produced executable will use MSVCR*.DLL MSVCR*.DLL |

Some information about MSVC versions: 5.1.1 on page 699.

## .6.4 GCC

Some useful options which were used through this book.

| option | meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| - Os | code size optimization |
| -O3 | maximum optimization |
| -regparm $=$ | how many arguments are to be passed in registers |
| -o file | set name of output file |
| -g | produce debugging information in resulting executable |
| - -S | generate assembly listing file |
| - masm=intel | produce listing in Intel syntax |
| -fno-inline | do not inline functions |

## .6.5 GDB

Some of commands we used in this book:

| option | meaning |
| :---: | :---: |
| break filename.c:number | set a breakpoint on line number in source code |
| break function | set a breakpoint on function |
| break *address | set a breakpoint on address |
| b | -"- |
| $p$ variable | print value of variable |
| run | run |
| r | -"- |
| cont | continue execution |
| c | -"- |
| bt | print stack |
| set disassembly-flavor intel | set Intel syntax |
| disas | disassemble current function |
| disas function | disassemble function |
| disas function,+50 | disassemble portion |
| disas \$eip,+0x10 | -"- |
| disas/r | disassemble with opcodes |
| info registers | print all registers |
| info float | print FPU-registers |
| info locals | dump local variables (if known) |
| x/w ... | dump memory as 32-bit word |
| x/w \$rdi | dump memory as 32-bit word at address in RDI |
| x/10w ... | dump 10 memory words |
| x/s ... | dump memory as string |
| x/i ... | dump memory as code |
| x/10c ... | dump 10 characters |
| x/b ... | dump bytes |
| x/h ... | dump 16-bit halfwords |
| $x / \mathrm{g} \ldots$ | dump giant (64-bit) words |
| finish | execute till the end of function |
| next | next instruction (don't dive into functions) |
| step | next instruction (dive into functions) |
| set step-mode on frame n | do not use line number information while stepping switch stack frame |
| info break | list of breakpoints |
| del $n$ | delete breakpoint |
| set args ... | set command-line arguments |

## Acronyms used

6. CHEATSHEETS
OS Operating System ..... XVi
OOP Object-Oriented Programming ..... 542
PL Programming Language ..... xiv
PRNG Pseudorandom Number Generator ..... ix
ROM Read-Only Memory ..... 81
ALU Arithmetic Logic Unit ..... 26
PID Program/process ID ..... 807
LF Line Feed (10 or ' n ' in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ ) ..... 525
CR Carriage Return (13 or ' 1 r' in C/C++) ..... 525
LIFO Last In First Out ..... 30
MSB Most Significant Bit ..... 317
LSB Least Significant Bit
NSA National Security Agency ..... 464
CFB Cipher Feedback ..... 869
CSPRNG Cryptographically Secure Pseudorandom Number Generator ..... 870
SICP Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs ..... xvii
ABI Application Binary Interface ..... 15
RA Return Address ..... 22
PE Portable Executable ..... 5
SP stack pointer. SP/ESP/RSP in x86/x64. SP in ARM ..... 19
DLL Dynamic-Link Library ..... 756
PC Program Counter. IP/EIP/RIP in x86/64. PC in ARM ..... 20
LR Link Register ..... 6
IDA Interactive Disassembler and Debugger developed by Hex-Rays ..... 6
IAT Import Address Table ..... 757
INT Import Name Table ..... 757
.6. CHEATSHEETS
RVA Relative Virtual Address ..... 757
VA Virtual Address ..... 757
OEP Original Entry Point ..... 746
MSVC Microsoft Visual C++
MSVS Microsoft Visual Studio ..... 1034
ASLR Address Space Layout Randomization ..... 622
MFC Microsoft Foundation Classes ..... 760
TLS Thread Local Storage ..... 284
AKA Also Known As ..... 30
CRT C Runtime library ..... 10
CPU Central Processing Unit ..... xvi
GPU Graphics Processing Unit ..... 879
FPU Floating-Point Unit ..... v
CISC Complex Instruction Set Computing ..... 20
RISC Reduced Instruction Set Computing ..... 2
GUI Graphical User Interface ..... 753
RTTI Run-Time Type Information ..... 557
BSS Block Started by Symbol ..... 25
SIMD Single Instruction, Multiple Data ..... 195
BSOD Blue Screen of Death ..... 747
DBMS Database Management Systems ..... xiv
ISA Instruction Set Architecture .....
HPC High-Performance Computing ..... 517
SEH Structured Exception Handling ..... 37
ELF Executable File format widely used in *NIX systems including Linux ..... 79
TIB Thread Information Block ..... 284
7. CHEATSHEETS
PIC Position Independent Code ..... 539
NAN Not a Number ..... 1025
NOP No Operation ..... 6
BEQ (PowerPC, ARM) Branch if Equal ..... 95
BNE (PowerPC, ARM) Branch if Not Equal ..... 209
BLR (PowerPC) Branch to Link Register ..... 816
XOR eXclusive OR ..... 1031
MCU Microcontroller Unit ..... 495
RAM Random-Access Memory ..... 3
GCC GNU Compiler Collection ..... 4
EGA Enhanced Graphics Adapter ..... 1004
VGA Video Graphics Array ..... 1004
API Application Programming Interface ..... 631
ASCII American Standard Code for Information Interchange ..... 294
ASCIIZ ASCII Zero (null-terminated ASCII string) ..... 92
IA64 Intel Architecture 64 (Itanium) ..... 465
EPIC Explicitly Parallel Instruction Computing ..... 1001
OOE Out-of-Order Execution ..... 466
MSDN Microsoft Developer Network ..... 624
STL (C++) Standard Template Library ..... 564
PODT (C++) Plain Old Data Type ..... 575
HDD Hard Disk Drive ..... 587
VM Virtual Memory
WRK Windows Research Kernel ..... 716
GPR General Purpose Registers ..... 2
SSDT System Service Dispatch Table ..... 747
8. CHEATSHEETSRE Reverse Engineering1015
RAID Redundant Array of Independent Disks ..... vii
BCD Binary-Coded Decimal ..... 447
BOM Byte Order Mark ..... 706
GDB GNU Debugger ..... 48
FP Frame Pointer ..... 24
MBR Master Boot Record ..... 712
JPE Jump Parity Even (x86 instruction) ..... 239
CIDR Classless Inter-Domain Routing ..... 485
STMFD Store Multiple Full Descending (ARM instruction)
LDMFD Load Multiple Full Descending (ARM instruction)
STMED Store Multiple Empty Descending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
LDMED Load Multiple Empty Descending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
STMFA Store Multiple Full Ascending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
LDMFA Load Multiple Full Ascending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
STMEA Store Multiple Empty Ascending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
LDMEA Load Multiple Empty Ascending (ARM instruction) ..... 30
APSR (ARM) Application Program Status Register ..... 262
FPSCR (ARM) Floating-Point Status and Control Register ..... 262
RFC Request for Comments ..... 710
TOS Top of Stack ..... 662
LVA (Java) Local Variable Array ..... 668
JVM Java Virtual Machine ..... ix
JIT Just-In-Time compilation ..... 661
CDFS Compact Disc File System ..... 723CD Compact Disc
.6. CHEATSHEETS
ADC Analog-to-Digital Converter ..... 719
EOF End of File ..... 85
DIY Do It Yourself ..... 627
MMU Memory Management Unit ..... 621
DES Data Encryption Standard ..... 448
MIME Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions ..... 448
DBI Dynamic Binary Instrumentation ..... 524
XML Extensible Markup Language ..... 635
JSON JavaScript Object Notation ..... 635
URL Uniform Resource Locator ..... 4
IV Initialization Vector ..... xi
RSA Rivest Shamir Adleman ..... 958
CPRNG Cryptographically secure PseudoRandom Number Generator ..... 959
GiB Gibibyte ..... 973
CRC Cyclic redundancy check ..... 993
AES Advanced Encryption Standard ..... 993

## Glossary

heap usually, a big chunk of memory provided by the OS so that applications can divide it by themselves as they wish. malloc()/free() work with the heap . $30,348,560,562,563,575,577,592,593,636$, 755, 757
real number numbers which may contain a dot. this is float and double in $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$. 218
decrement Decrease by 1 . 19, 184, 203, 440, 726, 858, 1027, 1030, 1034
increment Increase by $1.16,20,184,188,203,209,326,329,440,855,1027$
integral data type usual numbers, but not a real ones. may be used for passing variables of boolean data type and enumerations . 232
product Multiplication result . 97, 224, 227, 407, 431, 454
arithmetic mean a sum of all values divided by their count . 519
stack pointer A register pointing to a place in the stack. 10, 11, 20, 30, 35, 42, 54, 55, 73, 99, 544, 651, 734-737, 1022, 1028, 1040, 1048
tail call It is when the compiler (or interpreter) transforms the recursion (with which it is possible: tail recursion) into an iteration for efficiency : wikipedia . 481
quotient Division result . 218, 220, 222, 223, 227, 430, 497, 520
anti-pattern Generally considered as bad practice . 32, 76, 465
 to be interrupted by other threads . 646, 788
basic block a group of instructions that do not have jump/branch instructions, and also don't have jumps inside the block from the outside. In IDA it looks just like as a list of instructions without empty lines . 691, 1004, 1005
callee A function being called by another . 32, 33, 46, 66, 86, 97, 99, 101, 420, 465, 544, 651, 734-737, 739, 740, 1042
caller A function calling another . $6,8,10,30,46,86,97,98,100,108,154,420,469,544,734,736$, 737, 740
compiler intrinsic A function specific to a compiler which is not an usual library function. The compiler generates a specific machine code instead of a call to it. Often, it's a pseudofunction for a specific CPU instruction. Read more: ( 11.3 on page 999) . 1034
CP/M Control Program for Microcomputers: a very basic disk OS used before MS-DOS. 912
dongle Dongle is a small piece of hardware connected to LPT printer port (in past) or to USB. Its function was similar to a security token, it has some memory and, sometimes, a secret (crypto-)hashing algorithmi . 815
endianness Byte order: 2.8 on page 464. 22, 78, 346, 1031

GiB Gibibyte: $2^{30}$ or 1024 mebibytes or 1073741824 bytes . 15
jump offset a part of the JMP or Jcc instruction's opcode, to be added to the address of the next instruction, and this is how the new PC is calculated. May be negative as well . 93, 133, 1027
kernel mode A restrictions-free CPU mode in which the OS kernel and drivers execute. cf. user mode. 1054
leaf function A function which does not call any other function . 28, 32
link register (RISC) A register where the return address is usually stored. This makes it possible to call leaf functions without using the stack, i.e., faster . 32, 816, 1040, 1041
loop unwinding It is when a compiler, instead of generating loop code for $n$ iterations, generates just $n$ copies of the loop body, in order to get rid of the instructions for loop maintenance . 186
name mangling used at least in $\mathrm{C}++$, where the compiler needs to encode the name of class, method and argument types in one string, which will become the internal name of the function. You can read more about it here : 3.18.1 on page 542. 542, 700, 701
$\mathbf{N a N}$ not a number: a special cases for floating point numbers, usually signaling about errors . 235, 257, 1003

NEON AKA "Advanced SIMD"—SIMD from ARM. 1041
NOP "no operation", idle instruction . 726
NTAPI API available only in the Windows NT line. Largely not documented by Microsoft . 794
padding Padding in English language means to stuff a pillow with something to give it a desired (bigger) form. In computer science, padding means to add more bytes to a block so it will have desired size, like $2^{n}$ bytes. . 708
PDB (Win32) Debugging information file, usually just function names, but sometimes also function arguments and local variables names . 699, 758, 794, 795, 802, 803, 895

POKE BASIC language instruction for writing a byte at a specific address . 726
register allocator The part of the compiler that assigns CPU registers to local variables . 202, 307, 420
reverse engineering act of understanding how the thing works, sometimes in order to clone it . iv, 1034
security cookie A random value, different at each execution. You can read more about it here : 1.20.3 on page 283. 778
stack frame A part of the stack that contains information specific to the current function: local variables, function arguments, RA, etc. . 67, 68, 97, 98, 477, 778
stdout standard output. 22, 35, 154
thunk function Tiny function with a single role: call another function . 23, 393, 816, 825
tracer My own simple debugging tool. You can read more about it here : 7.2.1 on page 790. 189-191, $703,714,717,774,783,897,903,907,908,910,998$
user mode A restricted CPU mode in which it all application software code is executed. cf. kernel mode. 832, 1054

Windows NT Windows NT, 2000, XP, Vista, 7, 8, 10. 293, 418, 649, 707, 747, 757, 787, 915, 1033
word data type fitting in GPR. In the computers older than PCs, the memory size was often measured in words rather than bytes . 447-450, 455, 566, 637
xoring often used in the English language, which implying applying the XOR operation . 778, 827, 830

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Floating-Point Unit

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Redundant Array of Independent Disks

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Java Virtual Machine
    ${ }^{4}$ Pseudorandom Number Generator

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ Instruction Set Architecture

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ Initialization Vector

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ Database Management Systems
    ${ }^{8}$ Programming Language
    ${ }^{9}$ twitter.com/daniel bilar/status/436578617221742593
    ${ }^{10}$ twitter.com/petefinnigan/status/400551705797869568

[^6]:    ${ }^{11}$ reddit
    ${ }^{12}$ twitter.com/sergeybratus/status/505590326560833536
    ${ }^{13}$ twitter.com/TanelPoder/status/524668104065159169
    ${ }^{14}$ https://github.com/pixjuan
    ${ }^{15}$ https://github.com/73696e65
    ${ }^{16}$ https://github.com/TheRenaissance
    ${ }^{17}$ https://github.com/pinkrab
    18https://github.com/paolostivanin
    19https://github.com/besnardf
    ${ }^{20}$ https://github.com/mremy
    ${ }^{21}$ https://github.com/T30rix
    ${ }^{22}$ https://github.com/BlueSkeye
    ${ }^{23}$ https://github.com/DSiekmeier
    ${ }^{24}$ https://github.com/JAngres
    ${ }^{25}$ https://github.com/PolymathMonkey
    ${ }^{26}$ https://github.com/shmz
    27https://vasil.ludost.net/

[^7]:    ${ }^{28}$ https://github.com/DennisYurichev/RE-for-beginners/graphs/contributors
    ${ }^{29}$ Operating System
    ${ }^{30}$ A very good text on this topic: [Agner Fog, The microarchitecture of Intel, AMD and VIA CPUs, (2016)]
    ${ }^{31}$ Central Processing Unit

[^8]:    ${ }^{32}$ reddit.com/r/ReverseEngineering/
    ${ }^{33}$ Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs

[^9]:    ${ }^{34}$ http://rada.re/get/radare2book-persian.pdf
    35http://goo.gl/2Tzx0H

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ In fact, he still does this when he can't understand what a particular bit of code does.

[^11]:    ${ }^{2}$ General Purpose Registers
    ${ }^{3}$ Old-school Russian literature also uses the term "translator".
    ${ }^{4}$ Reduced Instruction Set Computing
    ${ }^{5}$ Fixed-length instructions are handy because one can calculate the next (or previous) instruction address without effort. This feature will be discussed in the switch() operator ( 1.15 .2 on page 173) section.
    ${ }^{6}$ e.g. MOV/PUSH/CALL/Jcc

[^12]:    ${ }^{7}$ Random-Access Memory
    ${ }^{8}$ About numeric system evolution, see [Donald E. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 2, 3rd ed., (1997), 195-213.]

[^13]:    ${ }^{9}$ GNU Compiler Collection
    ${ }^{10}$ https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Binary-constants.html
    ${ }^{11}$ Uniform Resource Locator

[^14]:    ${ }^{12}$ Portable Executable

[^15]:    13 Interactive Disassembler and Debugger developed by Hex-Rays
    ${ }^{14}$ Link Register
    ${ }^{15}$ No Operation

[^16]:    ${ }^{16}$ You can read more about it in the section about function prologues and epilogues ( 1.6 on page 29).

[^17]:    ${ }^{17}$ CPU flags, however, are modified
    ${ }^{18}$ Wikipedia
    ${ }^{19} \mathrm{C}$ Runtime library
    ${ }^{20}$ We could also have GCC produce assembly listings in Intel-syntax by applying the options -S -masm=intel.

[^18]:    ${ }^{21}$ Wikipedia: Data structure alignment

[^19]:    ${ }^{22}$ This GCC option can be used to eliminate "unnecessary" macros: -fno-asynchronous-unwind-tables
    ${ }^{23}$ By the way, in some C standard functions (e.g., memcpy(), strcpy()) the arguments are listed in the same way as in Intel-syntax: first the pointer to the destination memory block, and then the pointer to the source memory block.

[^20]:    ${ }^{24}$ Also available as https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/article/402129/mpx-linux64-abi.pdf
    ${ }^{25}$ This must be enabled in Options $\rightarrow$ Disassembly $\rightarrow$ Number of opcode bytes
    ${ }^{26}$ Application Binary Interface

[^21]:    ${ }^{27}$ It is indeed so: Apple Xcode 4.6.3 uses open-source GCC as front-end compiler and LLVM code generator
    ${ }^{28}$ e.g. ARM mode lacks PUSH/POP instructions
    ${ }^{29}$ STMFD ${ }^{30}$
    ${ }^{31}$ stack pointer. SP/ESP/RSP in $x 86 / x 64$. SP in ARM.

[^22]:    ${ }^{32}$ Program Counter. IP/EIP/RIP in x86/64. PC in ARM.
    ${ }^{33}$ Read more about it in relevant section ( 6.4 .1 on page 748 )
    ${ }^{34}$ Branch with Link
    ${ }^{35}$ Complex Instruction Set Computing
    ${ }^{36}$ Meaning MOVe
    ${ }^{37}$ LDMFD ${ }^{38}$ is an inverse instruction of STMFD

[^23]:    ${ }^{39}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17276
    ${ }^{40}$ It has also to be noted the puts () does not require a ' n ' new line symbol at the end of a string, so we do not see it here.

[^24]:    ${ }^{41}$ ciselant.de/projects/gcc_printf/gcc_printf.html
    ${ }^{42}$ Return Address

[^25]:    ${ }^{43}$ Frame Pointer

[^26]:    ${ }^{45}$ The MIPS registers table is available in appendix .3.1 on page 1042
    ${ }^{46}$ Arithmetic Logic Unit

[^27]:    ${ }^{47}$ Apparently, functions generating listings are not so critical to GCC users, so some unfixed errors may still exist.

[^28]:    ${ }^{48}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Call_stack
    49 Also Known As
    ${ }^{50}$ Last In First Out
    ${ }^{51}$ Store Multiple Empty Descending (ARM instruction)
    ${ }^{52}$ Load Multiple Empty Descending (ARM instruction)
    ${ }^{53}$ Store Multiple Full Ascending (ARM instruction)
    ${ }^{54}$ Load Multiple Full Ascending (ARM instruction)
    ${ }^{55}$ Store Multiple Empty Ascending (ARM instruction)
    ${ }^{56}$ Load Multiple Empty Ascending (ARM instruction)

[^29]:    ${ }^{57}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17270

[^30]:    ${ }^{58}$ irony here
    ${ }^{59}$ infocenter.arm.com/help/index.jsp?topic=/com.arm.doc.faqs/ka13785.html
    ${ }^{60}$ Some time ago, on PDP-11 and VAX, the CALL instruction (calling other functions) was expensive; up to $50 \%$ of execution time might be spent on it, so it was considered that having a big number of small functions is an anti-pattern [Eric S. Raymond, The Art of UNIX Programming, (2003)Chapter 4, Part II].

[^31]:    ${ }^{61}$ Not random in strict sense, but rather unpredictable: 1.7.4 on page 37
    ${ }^{62}$ Correctly implemented, each thread would have its own stack with its own arguments/variables.

[^32]:    ${ }^{63}$ In MSVC, the function implementation can be found in allocal6. asm and chkstk.asm in
    C:\Program Files (x86) \Microsoft Visual Studio 10.0\VC\crt\src\intel

[^33]:    ${ }^{64}$ It is because alloca() is rather a compiler intrinsic ( 11.3 on page 999) than a normal function. One of the reasons we need a separate function instead of just a couple of instructions in the code, is because the MSVC ${ }^{65}$ alloca() implementation also has code which reads from the memory just allocated, in order to let the OS map physical memory to this $\mathrm{VM}^{66}$ region. After the alloca() call, ESP points to the block of 600 bytes and we can use it as memory for the buf array.

[^34]:    ${ }^{67}$ Structured Exception Handling

[^35]:    ${ }^{68}$ GNU Debugger

[^36]:    ${ }^{72}$ That is how a VM behaves

[^37]:    73 Executable File format widely used in *NIX systems including Linux

[^38]:    ${ }^{74}$ Read-Only Memory

[^39]:    ${ }^{75}$ scanf, wscanf: MSDN
    ${ }^{76}$ End of File

[^40]:    ${ }^{77}$ x86 flags, see also: wikipedia.

[^41]:    ${ }^{78}$ that's what also called "dynamic linking"
    ${ }^{79}$ ASCII Zero (null-terminated ASCII string )

[^42]:    ${ }^{80}$ (PowerPC, ARM) Branch if Equal

[^43]:    ${ }^{81}$ MSDN
    ${ }^{82}$ MSDN

[^44]:    ${ }^{83}$ Also available as https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/article/402129/mpx-linux64-abi.pdf

[^45]:    ${ }^{84}$ wikipedia

[^46]:    ${ }^{85}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17287

[^47]:    ${ }^{86}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17326
    ${ }^{87}$ See also: MSDN: Return Values (C++): MSDN

[^48]:    ${ }^{88}$ http://yurichev.com/mirrors/Dijkstra68.pdf
    ${ }^{89}$ http://yurichev.com/mirrors/KnuthStructuredProgrammingGoTo.pdf
    ${ }^{90}$ [Dennis Yurichev, $C / C++$ programming language notes] also has some examples.

[^49]:    ${ }^{91}$ LDMFD

[^50]:    ${ }^{92}$ Local variables in stack are prefixed with tv-that's how MSVC names internal variables for its needs
    ${ }^{93}$ wikipedia

[^51]:    ${ }^{94}$ The whole method was once called computed GOTO in early versions of Fortran: wikipedia. Not quite relevant these days, but what a term!

[^52]:    ${ }^{95}$ They are underlined by OllyDbg because these are also FIXUPs: 6.5.2 on page 759, we are going to come back to them later
    ${ }^{96}$ About indexing, see also: 3.19.3

[^53]:    ${ }^{97}$ ADD—addition

[^54]:    ${ }^{98}$ Copypasted from https://github.com/azonalon/prgraas/blob/master/progllib/lecture examples/is whitespace.c
    ${ }^{99}$ Copypasted from https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/master/drivers/media/dvb-frontends/lgdt3306a.c

[^55]:    ${ }^{100}$ A very good article about it: [Ulrich Drepper, What Every Programmer Should Know About Memory, (2007)] ${ }^{101}$. Another recommendations about loop unrolling from Intel are here: [[Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Optimization Reference Manual, (2014)]3.4.1.7].

[^56]:    ${ }^{102}$ Single Instruction, Multiple Data

[^57]:    ${ }^{103}$ counting the characters in a string in the C language

[^58]:    ${ }^{104}$ The Keil compiler treats the char type as signed, just like MSVC and GCC.
    ${ }^{105}$ (PowerPC, ARM) Branch if Not Equal

[^59]:    ${ }^{106}$ MoVe Not

[^60]:    107 NOR is called "universal gate"

[^61]:    TEXT SEGMENT
    a\$ $=8 \quad ;$ size $=4$
    PROC

[^62]:    ${ }^{108}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack_machine
    ${ }^{109}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Forth_(programming_language)
    ${ }^{110}$ For example, John Carmack used fixed-point arithmetic (wikipedia.org/wiki/Fixed-point_arithmetic) values in his Doom video game, stored in 32-bit GPR registers (16 bit for integral part and another 16 bit for fractional part), so Doom could work on 32-bit computers without FPU, i.e., 80386 and 80486 SX.

[^63]:    ${ }^{111}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/IEEE_floating_point
    ${ }^{112}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Single-precision_floating-point_format
    ${ }^{113}$ the single precision floating point number format is also addressed in the Handling float data type as a structure ( 1.24 .6 on page 373) section
    ${ }^{114}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Double-precision_floating-point_format
    ${ }^{115}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Extended_precision

[^64]:    ${ }^{116}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Forth_(programming_language)
    ${ }^{117}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack_machine

[^65]:    ${ }^{118}$ Starting at 0.

[^66]:    ${ }^{119}$ dennis@yurichev.com

[^67]:    ${ }^{120}$ a standard C function, raises a number to the given power (exponentiation)

[^68]:    ${ }^{121}$ Intel P6 is Pentium Pro, Pentium II, etc.
    $1225=101 b$

[^69]:    ${ }^{123}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/Parity_flag

[^70]:    ${ }^{124}$ Jump Parity Even (x86 instruction)

[^71]:    ${ }^{125}$ wikipedia.org/wiki/NaN

[^72]:    ${ }^{126}$ cc is condition code

[^73]:    ${ }^{127}$ Starting at Pentium Pro, Pentium-II, etc.

[^74]:    ${ }^{1}$ For example, JAD: http://varaneckas.com/jad/
    ${ }^{2}$ Just-In-Time compilation
    ${ }^{3}$ Full list: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_JVM_languages
    ${ }^{4}$ Also available as https://docs.oracle.com/javase/specs/jvms/se7/jvms7.pdf; http://docs.oracle.com/javase/specs/ jvms/se7/html/

[^75]:    ${ }^{5}$ Just like in MIPS, where a separate register for zero constant exists: 1.5.5 on page 26.
    ${ }^{6}$ Top of Stack

[^76]:    ${ }^{7}$ (Java) Local Variable Array

[^77]:    ${ }^{8}$ About difference in pointers and reference's in C++ see: 3.18.3 on page 558.

[^78]:    ${ }^{1}$ http://go.yurichev. com/17036
    ${ }^{2}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17037
    ${ }^{3}$ More about it in relevant section ( 8.10 .1 on page 884 )

[^79]:    ${ }^{4}$ https://yurichev.com/blog/weird sort/
    ${ }^{5}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17301
    ${ }^{6}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17303

[^80]:    ${ }^{7}$ The example and translations was taken from here：http：／／go．yurichev．com／17304

[^81]:    ${ }^{8}$ Byte Order Mark

[^82]:    ${ }^{9}$ wikipedia

[^83]:    ${ }^{10}$ http://archive.is/nDCas
    ${ }^{11}$ https://github.com/DennisYurichev/base64scanner
    ${ }^{12}$ https://trac.torproject.org/projects/tor/wiki/doc/HiddenServiceNames

[^84]:    ${ }^{13}$ blog.yurichev.com
    ${ }^{14}$ http://sekurak.pl/tp-link-httptftp-backdoor/
    ${ }^{15}$ Request for Comments

[^85]:    ${ }^{16}$ Master Boot Record
    ${ }^{17}$ wikipedia
    ${ }^{18}$ wikipedia
    ${ }^{19}$ wikipedia

[^86]:    ${ }^{20}$ This is a date of execution of Habib Elghanian, persian jew.
    ${ }^{21}$ https://web.archive.org/web/20160311231616/http://www.woodmann.com/fravia/bayu3.htm

[^87]:    ${ }^{22}$ GitHub

[^88]:    ${ }^{23}$ Windows Research Kernel

[^89]:    ${ }^{24}$ See also my blog post about this DosBox feature: blog.yurichev.com

[^90]:    ${ }^{25}$ https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Code_page_437

[^91]:    ${ }^{26}$ Analog－to－Digital Converter

[^92]:    ${ }^{27}$ Compact Disc File System

[^93]:    ${ }^{29}$ MS-DOS utility for comparing binary files
    ${ }^{30}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17348

[^94]:    wget https://www.kernel.org/pub/linux/kernel/v4.x/linux-4.10.2.tar.gz

[^95]:    ${ }^{31}$ http://archive.is/gYnFL
    32 http://math.stackexchange.com/questions/27989/time-until-a-consecutive-sequence-of-ones-in-a-random-bit-sequence, 27991\#27991

[^96]:    ${ }^{33}$ Short story by Jorge Luis Borges

[^97]:    ${ }^{1}$ The size of an int type variable is 4 in $x 86$ systems and 8 in $x 64$ systems

[^98]:    ²http://go.yurichev.com/17040

[^99]:    ${ }^{3}$ C11 also has thread support, optional though

[^100]:    ${ }^{4}$ Original Entry Point
    ${ }^{5}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17062

[^101]:    ${ }^{6}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17272
    ${ }^{7}$ Blue Screen of Death
    ${ }^{8}$ System Service Dispatch Table

[^102]:    ${ }^{9}$ program counter in AMD64

[^103]:    ${ }^{10}$ wikipedia
    ${ }^{11}$ For example, here is how simple strcmp() interception works in this article ${ }^{12}$ written by Yong Huang

[^104]:    ${ }^{13}$ Graphical User Interface

[^105]:    ${ }^{35}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17312
    ${ }^{36}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17038

[^106]:    ${ }^{37}$ More about trace level: http://go.yurichev.com/17039

[^107]:    ${ }^{38}$ Draft ANSI C Standard (ANSI X3J11/88-090) (May 13, 1988) (yurichev.com)

[^108]:    ${ }^{39}$ yurichev.com

[^109]:    ${ }^{40}$ yurichev.com

[^110]:    ${ }^{41}$ yurichev.com

[^111]:    42http://go.yurichev.com/17088

[^112]:    ${ }^{43}$ MSDN
    ${ }^{44}$ yurichev.com
    ${ }^{45}$ wikipedia

[^113]:    ${ }^{46}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17286

[^114]:    47http://go.yurichev.com/17305

[^115]:    48http://go.yurichev.com/17305
    ${ }^{49}$ http://go.yurichev.com/17087

[^116]:    ${ }^{50}$ Download it here,

[^117]:    ${ }^{51}$ wikipedia
    ${ }^{52}$ Here is also the executable file: beginners.re

[^118]:    ${ }^{53}$ More information about initial register values: http://go.yurichev.com/17004

[^119]:    ${ }^{54}$ You can experiment by yourself: get DosBox and NASM and compile it as: nasm fiole.asm -fbin -o file.com

[^120]:    ${ }^{1}$ wikipedia

[^121]:    ²http://www.fourmilab.ch/random/

[^122]:    - http://challenges.re/50

[^123]:    ${ }^{5}$ https://reference.wolfram.com/language/ref/Tally.html

[^124]:    ${ }^{6}$ Rivest Shamir Adleman
    ${ }^{7}$ http://www.fourmilab.ch/random/
    ${ }^{8}$ https://github.com/danigargu/IDAtropy

[^125]:    ${ }^{9}$ Cryptographically secure PseudoRandom Number Generator

[^126]:    ${ }^{10}$ http://az.lib.ru/d/dostoewskij f m/text 0070.shtml

[^127]:    ${ }^{11}$ It can be downloaded for free here

[^128]:    ${ }^{12}$ Gibibyte

[^129]:    ${ }^{13}$ We can chose an ancient Oracle RDBMS version intentionally due to the smaller size of its modules

[^130]:    ${ }^{14}$ Open-source text files don't exist in Oracle RDBMS for every .MSB file, so that's why we will work on their file format

[^131]:    ${ }^{1}$ https://stackoverflow.com/questions/9560993/how-do-you-disable-aslr-address-space-layout-randomization-on-windows

[^132]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cyclic redundancy check
    ${ }^{3}$ Advanced Encryption Standard

[^133]:    ${ }^{2}$ Explicitly Parallel Instruction Computing

[^134]:    ${ }^{3}$ Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/RE/itanium.pdf
    ${ }^{4}$ Also available as http://phrack.org/issues/57/5.html
    ${ }^{5}$ The author is not $100 \%$ sure here

[^135]:    ${ }^{6}$ Enhanced Graphics Adapter
    ${ }^{7}$ Video Graphics Array

[^136]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev. com/17274
    ${ }^{2}$ Also available as http://www. open-std. org/jtc1/sc22/wg21/docs/papers/2013/n3690.pdf.
    ${ }^{3}$ Also available as http://agner. org/optimize/optimizing_cpp.pdf.
    ${ }^{4}$ Also available as http://go. yurichev.com/17291
    ${ }^{5}$ Also available as http://yurichev. com/C-book.html
    ${ }^{6}$ Also available as https://yurichev.com/mirrors/C/JPL_Coding_Standard_C.pdf

[^137]:    ${ }^{7}$ Also available as http://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/processors/architectures-software-developer-manuals. html
    ${ }^{8}$ Also available as http://developer.amd.com/resources/developer-guides-manuals/
    ${ }^{9}$ Also available as http://agner.org/optimize/microarchitecture.pdf
    ${ }^{10}$ Also available as http://www.agner.org/optimize/calling_conventions.pdf
    ${ }^{11}$ Also available as https://github.com/jagregory/abrash-black-book
    ${ }^{12}$ Also available as http://infocenter.arm.com/help/index.jsp?topic=/com.arm.doc.subset.architecture.reference/ index.html
    ${ }^{13}$ Also available as http://yurichev.com/mirrors/ARMv8-A_Architecture_Reference_Manual_(Issue_A.a).pdf
    ${ }^{14}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17273
    ${ }^{15}$ Also available as https://docs.oracle.com/javase/specs/jvms/se7/jvms7.pdf; http://docs.oracle.com/javase/specs/ jvms/se7/html/

[^138]:    ${ }^{16}$ CS!
    ${ }^{17}$ Also available as https://www.crypto101.io/
    ${ }^{18}$ Also available as https://crypto.stanford.edu/~dabo/cryptobook/
    19http://www.ctyme.com/rbrown.htm

[^139]:    ${ }^{1}$ Reverse Engineering

[^140]:    3 Sometimes also called "program counter"

[^141]:    ${ }^{4}$ Not a Number

[^142]:    ${ }^{5}$ See also: wikipedia

[^143]:    ${ }^{6}$ eXclusive OR
    ${ }^{7}$ Also available as https://archive.org/details/The8086Primer

[^144]:    ${ }^{8}$ Microsoft Visual Studio
    ${ }^{9}$ MSDN
    ${ }^{10}$ MSDN

[^145]:    ${ }^{11}$ MSDN

[^146]:    ${ }^{12}$ Also available as http://go.yurichev.com/17287

[^147]:    ${ }^{13}$ GitHub

