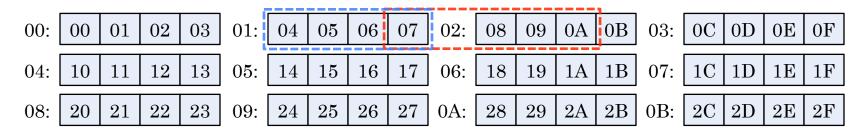
# CS24: Introduction to Computing Systems

Spring 2014 Lecture 8

#### LAST TIME

- Began examining explicit heap allocators
  - The program is responsible for releasing memory when it's no longer needed
- Allocator must deal with several challenges:
  - Avoiding or minimizing memory fragmentation
  - Coalescing adjacent blocks of free memory
  - Dealing with data alignment issues



## HEAP ALLOCATOR INTERFACE

• Common interface exposed by explicit allocators:

```
void * malloc(size t size)
```

- Allocates a block of memory of [at least] size bytes
- Returns a pointer to start of the block, or **NULL** if **size** bytes are not available

#### void free(void \*ptr)

- Releases a block of memory back to the heap
- Sometimes other operations as well:

```
void * realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)
```

- Attempts to change the size of an existing allocation
- If reallocation succeeds, original contents are copied to the new region, and original allocation is freed
- If reallocation fails, returns **NULL** and original allocation is left unchanged

#### Representing Memory Blocks

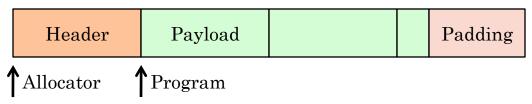
• Common way to represent blocks of memory on heap:

Header	Payload			Padding	
--------	---------	--	--	---------	--

- Header specifies:
  - Total block size in bytes, including all parts
  - "Allocated" / "free" flag
  - Since memory block is usually word-aligned, the block-size value won't actually use all bits
    - e.g. for aligning blocks on 8 bytes, bottom 3 bits of size will be 0
    - o Can use bottom-most bit(s) to store allocated/free flag
- Payload: area that the program gets to use
  - Payload's size is what the program requested
- Padding: any space necessary to make the block word-aligned (if necessary or desirable for platform)

# Representing Memory Blocks (2)

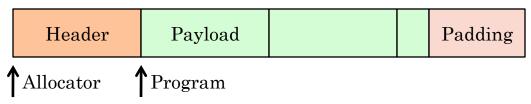
• Heap memory blocks:



- When a program requests memory:
  - Allocator works with block structure, creates/updates a block header to satisfy request
  - Allocator returns a pointer to start of the payload, not start of the header
- Abstraction:
  - Caller *doesn't care* how allocator manages the heap
  - Just wants some memory to use for their program!

# Representing Memory Blocks (3)

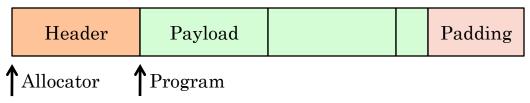
• Heap memory blocks:



- What can happen if program accidentally writes outside of the payload region?
  - e.g. due to a bug, the program writes past the end of its payload, or perhaps before the start
- In these cases, the heap can become corrupted
  - Can no longer keep track of heap's allocation state
- These bugs usually manifest at the *next* allocation or deallocation operation
  - This is when the allocator tries to use its state...

# Representing Memory Blocks (4)

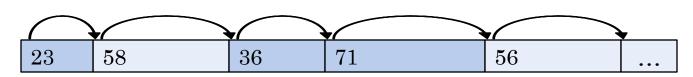
• Heap memory blocks:



- When program frees memory:
  - Program passes its pointer to start of the payload back to the allocator
  - Allocator must adjust pointer to gain access to the header

#### IMPLICIT FREE LIST

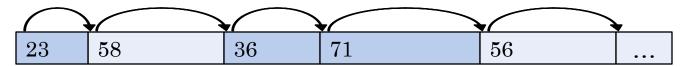
- Heap memory blocks form an implicit free list
  - Can determine start of next memory block by looking at size in header of current block



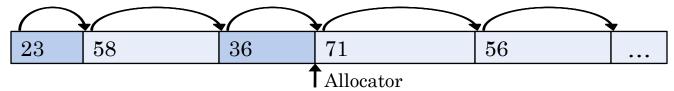
- When allocation request is made, allocator searches thru list of blocks to find a free block that can satisfy the request
- Several strategies for finding a suitable free block
  - <u>First fit</u> start at beginning of list, stop when first suitable free block is found
  - Next fit similar to first-fit, but remember where the last suitable free block was found, and start next search there
  - <u>Best fit</u> check *all* free blocks; choose the smallest free block that can satisfy the request

## COALESCING BLOCKS

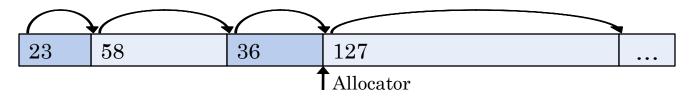
• When a block is freed, may need to coalesce it with adjacent free blocks



• Example: 4<sup>th</sup> block is freed by application

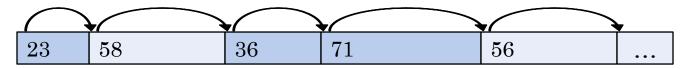


- Allocator checks if next block is also free
- If so, coalesce into a larger free block

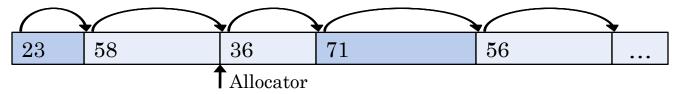


## Coalescing Previous Blocks

• This is only fast when coalescing with *next* block



• Example: 3<sup>rd</sup> block is freed by application



- How can we efficiently find the *previous* free block?!
- A simple solution: boundary tags (Knuth)
  - Give each block a footer as well as a header
    - (Footer is identical to header)
  - Can easily find prev. block size, and whether it's free

#### EXPLICIT FREE LISTS

- Implicit free list approach is simple, but not fast
  - Allocation requires a scan of *all* blocks, whether allocated or free
  - No point in looking at allocated blocks!
- Two observations:
  - Really only need to keep the *free* blocks in a list, since these are the ones we check during allocation
  - Since free blocks aren't used by the program, could even store free-list pointers within the block payloads
- For example:
  - Use a linked list to chain together free blocks
- Called an explicit free list approach
  - Explicitly arranging free blocks into a data structure

## Organizing Free Blocks

- Many strategies for organizing/selecting free blocks
- Example 1: Maintain free-list in *LIFO order* 
  - Newly freed blocks always go at front of free-list
  - Use first-fit policy for assigning new blocks
  - Even though free-list is in LIFO order, can use boundary tags on memory blocks to support constant-time coalescing with neighboring blocks
  - Very fast approach, but more susceptible to memory fragmentation
- Example 2: Maintain free-list in address order
  - Keep free blocks sorted by increasing address in free-list
  - Use first-fit policy for assigning new blocks
  - Slower due to linear-time insertion sort when freeing
  - Better memory utilization than LIFO-order free list

# ORGANIZING FREE BLOCKS (2)

- Other strategies maintain multiple free-lists
- Example: Segregated fits strategy
  - Each free-list is assigned a size class
    - e.g. {0-1024}, {1025-2048}, {2049-3072}, etc.
    - Each list contains free blocks of that size class
  - When allocating memory:
    - First-fit strategy, starting with appropriate size class
    - If no block is found, go to next larger size class
    - o If still no block found, request more memory from OS
    - Once available block is found, may optionally split block and put free part into free-list for corresponding size class
  - When freeing memory:
    - Coalesce with adjacent free blocks, then put result into free list of appropriate size class
- This approach frequently used by standard allocators
  - Fast: allocation searches target blocks of appropriate size
  - Efficient: approaches memory usage of best-fit strategies

#### Dynamic Memory Allocation

- Like branching instructions, a heap facility greatly expands the programs we can write
- Heap management is a hard problem to solve!
  - Don't force every program to solve it separately...
  - Provide a run-time facility that implements this capability
  - Programs can leverage this facility as needed
- Understanding how heaps are implemented will help you use them more effectively. For example:
  - Code that performs allocations and deallocations of varying sizes can suffer from memory fragmentation issues
  - Code that always allocates/deallocates blocks of the same size won't suffer from fragmentation
  - Allocating many small objects will tend to waste lots of time and memory, due to bookkeeping overhead

## STACK VS. HEAP: COMPARISON

- Stacks are much faster and simpler than heaps
  - Bookkeeping complexity/overhead of heaps is why we don't allocate each local variable on the heap!
  - Much faster to keep local variables and other temporaries on stack
- Heaps provide different capabilities than stacks
  - Enables different usage patterns, but also has additional costs
- Important to understand these distinctions so you use the right tool for the job

#### IMPORTANT OPTIMIZATION PRINCIPLES

• Two major optimization principles in systems:

#### Make the common case fast.

- Determine the most common behaviors of programs, and optimize hardware to execute these cases <u>fast</u>.
- (Will explore this principle in 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the term!)

#### Make the fast case common.

• If hardware is good at certain cases, arrange your computations to make them as frequent as possible!

## DATA ALIGNMENT AND OPTIMIZATION

- See this very clearly with data alignment:
  - "Make the fast case common."
  - Compiler and assembler adjust the layout of your code to align it with word boundaries for the CPU
- Accumulator code from lecture 5:

```
"amain.c"
int value;
                                  . text
                                  .p2align 4,,15
int accum(int n) {
                              .globl accum
    value += n;
                                  .type accum, @function
    return value;
                             accum:
                                  ... # code for accum()
                                  ret
int reset() {
                                         accum, .-accum
    int old = value;
                                  .p2align 4,,15
    value = 0;
                              .qlobl reset
    return old;
                                         reset, @function
                             reset:
                                  ... # code for reset()
```

Same thing also happens with data structures

## HETEROGENEOUS DATA STRUCTURES IN C

- C represents heterogeneous data structures with struct declarations
  - struct members can be different data types, if desired
  - Each member has its own name
  - Members can be primitive types, pointers, arrays, other structs, etc.

```
o Example: a linked-list node
    struct node {
        int number;
        char *string;
        struct node *next;
    };
```

• Using our struct:

```
struct node n;
n.number = 42;  /* Refer to members of struct. */
n.string = "answer";
n.next = NULL;
```

## C STRUCTURES IN IA32

- Compiler computes important details for each struct:
  - Relative offset of each member from start of struct
  - Size of each member's data type

Member	Offset	Size
int number	0	4 bytes
char *string	4	4 bytes
node *next	8	4 bytes

- When C code accesses struct members:
  - Compiler adds computed offsets to starting address of struct to access specific members

```
void init(struct node *n) {
                             init:
   n->number = 42;
                               pushl %ebp
   n->string = "answer";
                               movl %esp, %ebp
   n->next = NULL;
                                     8(%ebp), %eax # eax = n
                               movl
                               movl $42, (eax) # n->number
                               movl $.LCO, 4(%eax) # n->string
                                     $0, 8(%eax) # n->next
                               movl
                                     %ebp
                               popl
                               ret
```

#### STRUCTURES AND DATA ALIGNMENT

- Previous example had all 4-byte members
  - No data alignment issues
- Can use members that are less than a word

```
struct s1 {
   int i;
      char ch;
   int j;
};
```

- If compiler uses only one byte for **ch**, can't properly align **j** with word boundaries
- o Compiler pads the struct to properly align all members 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 0A 0B
  - ch is followed by 3 unused bytes, to properly align j

# STRUCTURES AND DATA ALIGNMENT (2)

• In this example:

• Accesses to **ch** use byte-width operations

```
void init(struct s1 *rec) {
                            init:
     rec->i = 1234;
                               pushl %ebp
     rec->ch = 'a';
                               movl
                                     %esp, %ebp
     rec->j = 5678;
                               movl
                                     8(\%ebp), \%eax # eax = rec
                               movl $1234, (%eax) # rec->i
                               movb $97, 4(%eax) # rec->ch
                                     $5678, 8(%eax) # rec->j
                               movl
o sizeof(s1) reports
                               popl
                                     %ebp
  12 bytes, not 9 bytes
                                ret
```

# STRUCTURES AND DATA ALIGNMENT (3)

• Some compilers support packing these structures into minimal space necessary (non-standard!)

```
• e.g. gcc supports a packed attribute
     struct s1 {
                                               04
                                                  05 \quad 06 \quad 07
                                  00 01 02 03
          int i;
          char ch;
          int j;
     } __attribute__((__packed )) ;
 void init(struct s1 *rec) {    init:
     rec->i = 1234;
                                pushl %ebp
     rec->ch = 'a';
                                movl %esp, %ebp
     rec->i = 5678;
                                mov1 8(%ebp), %eax # eax = rec
                                movl $1234, (%eax) # rec->i
                                movb $97, 4(%eax) # rec->ch
                                movl $5678, 5(%eax) # rec->j
o sizeof(s1) also
                                popl %ebp
 reports 9 bytes now
                                ret
```

# STRUCTURES AND DATA ALIGNMENT (4)

- Packed version of structure will be significantly slower to work with in memory
  - e.g. need multiple reads to access value of j

00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08
i				ch	j			

• If working with an array of **s1** values, *many* member accesses will not be word-aligned!

- Primarily useful for easily breaking apart packed values e.g. network packets, disk/file structures
  - In memory, work with properly word-aligned struct
  - For IO, use packed version of struct to easily convert to/from a byte-sequence

# STRUCTURES AND DATA ALIGNMENT (5)

• Even if small member is at end of structure, still need to pad to word boundary

```
struct s2 {
  int i;
  int j;
  char ch;
};
```

With local variables, don't want to affect other variables' word alignment

- If using in an array, want every element to be word-aligned struct s2 values[100];
  - **Note:** 25% of space is wasted on padding to word boundaries! Important to consider in data structure design.

## OPTIMIZATION AND DATA ALIGNMENT

- o Optimization: "Make the fast case common."
  - Computers are fastest when accessing data aligned on word boundaries...
  - ...so the compiler lays out instructions and data to be aligned on word boundaries.
- Wastes a certain amount of space, but yields a substantial performance improvement

## C Unions

};

• C also provides unions:

Unlike structs, all union members occupy the same

memory location

```
union value {
   int int_val;
   char *str_val;
   float float_val;
```

Member	Offset	Size
int int_val	0	4 bytes
char *str_val	0	4 bytes
float float_val	0	4 bytes

- All members are assigned same offset by the compiler
- Size of union is size of largest member
- Very useful for representing different, mutuallyexclusive kinds of values in a single structure
- Also can be bug-prone, since C type-system can't keep you from misinterpreting a value!

# C Unions (2)

- Unions normally used in concert with a tag field
  - Unlike structs, union members all occupy the same memory location

```
struct value {
    enum ValType type;
    union {
        int int_val;
        char *str_val;
        float float_val;
    };
};
```

• Code can use **type** to determine what union-member to access

```
if (v->type == IntValue)
    set_result(a * v->int_val);
```

## C Language Run-Time Facilities

- C is a relatively low-level language
  - Virtually all C abstractions translate easily to assembly language
    - Primitive data types, procedures, arrays and composite data types, flow-control statements
  - Not many run-time facilities for C programmers
- Example: array bounds checking
  - C does not stop you from indexing past an array's bounds!

```
int a;
int r[4];
int b;
...
r[4] = 12345;     /* Compiles! */
r[-1] = 67890;     /* Also compiles! */
```

• May affect **a** and/or **b**, depending on relative placement of the variables by the compiler

#### C Programs and Array Bounds

- Lack of array bounds-checking can cause problems
- Buffer overflows:

```
• Program includes a char buffer for receiving input data
   /* Buffer for reading in lines of input data. */
  char buf[100];
  gets(buf); /* Standard C function in stdio.h */

    An example implementation of gets ():

   char * gets(char *s) {
       int i = 0;
       int ch = getchar(); /* Get char from console */
       while (ch != EOF && ch != '\n') {
           s[i] = ch; ch = getchar(); i++;
       s[i] = 0; /* Zero-terminate the string. */
       return (ch == EOF && !feof(stdin)) ? NULL : s;
```

## C Programs and Array Bounds (2)

```
int i = 0;
int ch = getchar();
while (ch != EOF && ch != '\n') {
    s[i] = ch; ch = getchar(); i++;
}
s[i] = 0;    /* Zero-terminate the string. */
    return (ch == EOF && !feof(stdin)) ? NULL : s;
}
```

- o gets () is a common source of buffer overflows!
  - <u>NEVER</u> <u>EVER</u> use **gets()** in your C programs!
  - Much better to use:

```
char * fgets(char *s, int size, FILE *stream)
```

- Takes the buffer's size as an argument
- Function makes sure to stay within the buffer

## BUFFER OVERFLOW EXPLOITS

- Buffer overflows don't just cause your program to crash!
- They can frequently be leveraged to compromise system security
- Denial of service:
  - Cause the server program to crash unexpectedly when fed bad input
  - Example: Ping of Death
    - IP packets > 64KB in size are illegal
    - Many OSes had a packet buffer size of exactly 64KB
    - When sent a packet larger than 64KB, target machine would crash, hang, or otherwise freak out

# BUFFER OVERFLOW EXPLOITS (2)

• Modify program state:

```
• Example server code:
```

```
-4(\%ebp)
void handle_request() {
  int authorize = 0;
  char buf[100];
                                     -104(%ebp)
      /* Read request into buffer
  ... /* Verify user, etc.
                                     */
  if (authorize) {
     ... /* Request is allowed! Do it. */
```

• By overflowing the input buffer, can modify value of other local variables.

return addr

old ebp

authorize

buf[96..99]

buf[0..3]

ebp |

# Buffer Overflow Exploits (3)

• Executing arbitrary code:

- Instead of modifying state, exploit aims to change the actual *return address* on stack
  - Input includes malicious code loaded into the input buffer
  - Set return-address to jump into the buffer

old ebp

return addr

ebp |

buf[96..99]

•••

buf[0..3]

authorize

# Buffer Overflow Exploits (4)

- These examples store the buffer on the stack
- Heap-based buffer overflows are just as feasible
  - Overwrite jump-tables, function pointers, other code
- Details of these attacks depend very much on system details! For example:
  - Which direction the stack grows
  - Stack layout of function(s) being exploited
    - What local variables are present, and what effect they have
    - Where the return-address is stored
  - Heap layout of program being exploited
  - ...many other details of server being compromised...
- Nonetheless, a very large percentage of exploits use buffer overflows to compromise the system.

## AVOIDING BUFFER OVERFLOWS

- A simple solution to buffer overflows?
  - Build array bounds-checking into your language
  - All array indexes are verified before access occurs
  - Invalid indexes are flagged with some kind of error
- To support this, need to store more information about arrays
  - Add metadata to the array representation
- Example:

```
struct array_t {
    int length; /* Number of elements */
    struct value_t values[];
};
```

• Arrays include length information in their run-time representation

#### ARRAY BOUNDS-CHECKING

• New array representation:

```
struct array_t {
    int length; /* Number of elements */
    struct value_t values[];
};
```

- Last member of a struct can be an array with no size
- Supports variable-size arrays in structs

```
array_t *a = (array_t *)
    malloc(sizeof(array_t) + n * sizeof(value_t));
a->length = n;
```

- **values** is a pointer to start of variable-size array
- Memory layout:



# ARRAY BOUNDS-CHECKING (2)

 Can expose array length as a member for programs to reference

```
for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
    compute(a[i]);
}</pre>
```

- In language implementation, <u>all</u> array-indexing operations are bounds-checked against length
- Still need to further constrain our language!
- Close off other potential holes:
  - No more pointer manipulation and pointer arithmetic
  - Present a simplified, opaque "reference" abstraction for programmers to use
  - Need a clean way to report errors when they occur

## MEMORY LEAKS

- Another common issue: memory leaks
- Explicit allocators require program to inform allocator when memory is no longer used
- If the program fails to do this properly:
  - Program no longer has a pointer to allocated memory
  - But, allocator thinks memory block is still in use!
  - Cannot reclaim memory until program terminates
- Implicit allocators assume the responsibility for reclaiming unused memory
  - Garbage collection: reclaiming unused heap storage
  - Program no longer has to free memory itself
  - Memory-leak issues largely disappear

#### LOOKING FORWARD

- Languages like C don't make it very easy to write correct and bug-free programs!
  - Much easier than assembly language, but can easily have buffer overflows, memory leaks, exploits...
- Take another step up the abstraction hierarchy:
  - Programming languages that provide more powerful abstractions can mitigate <u>many</u> of these problems
- Will focus on three very common features:
  - Memory management: references, implicit allocators
  - Object-oriented programming and polymorphism
  - Another flow-control mechanism: exception handling