

Recap

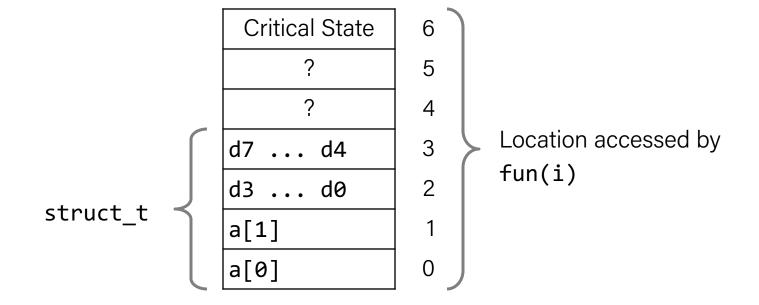
- Structures and Alignment
- Floating Point
- Memory Layout
- Buffer Overflow

Recap: Memory Referencing Bug Example

```
typedef struct {
  int a[2];
  double d;
} struct_t;
```

```
fun(0) → 3.14
fun(1) → 3.14
fun(2) → 3.1399998664856
fun(3) → 2.00000061035156
fun(4) → 3.14
fun(6) → Segmentation fault
```

Explanation:



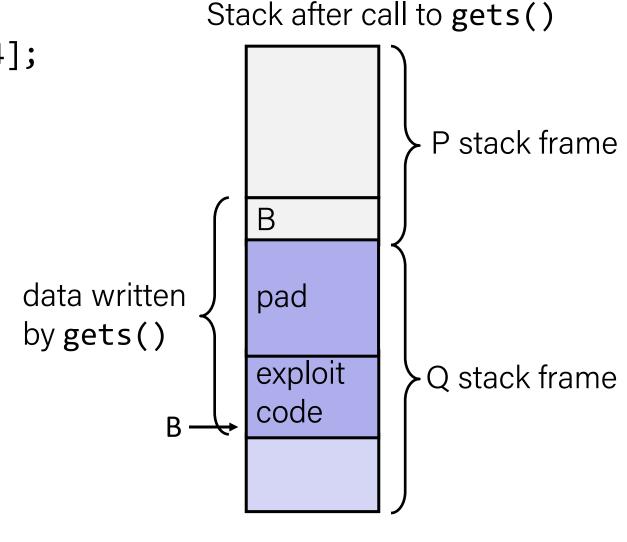
Recap: Code Injection Attacks

```
void P(){
   Q();
   return
   address
}

A

int Q() {
   char buf[64];
   gets(buf);
   return
   return ...;
}
```

- Input string contains byte representation of executable code
- Overwrite return address A with address of buffer B
- When Q executes ret, will jump to exploit code



Plan for Today

- Buffer overflow attacks and what to do about them
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

Disclaimer: Slides for this lecture were borrowed from

—Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaroni's CMU 15-213 class

Lecture Plan

- Buffer overflow attacks and what to do about them
- Storage technologies and trends

Exploits Based on Buffer Overflows

- Buffer overflow bugs can allow remote machines to execute arbitrary code on victim machines
- Distressingly common in real programs
 - Programmers keep making the same mistakes
 - Recent measures make these attacks much more difficult
- Examples across the decades
 - Original "Internet worm" (1988)
 - "IM wars" (1999)
 - Twilight hack on Wii (2000s)
 - ... and many, many more
- You will learn some of the tricks in Assignment 5
 - Hopefully to convince you to never leave such holes in your programs!!

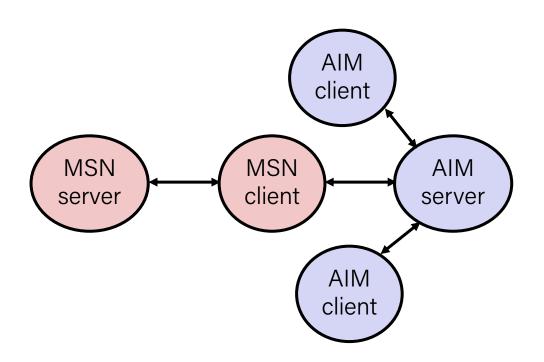
Example: the original Internet worm (1988)

- Exploited a few vulnerabilities to spread
 - Early versions of the finger server (fingerd) used **gets()** to read the argument sent by the client:
 - finger droh@linuxpool.ku.edu.tr
 - Worm attacked fingerd server by sending phony argument:
 - finger "exploit-code padding new-return-address"
 - exploit code: executed a root shell on the victim machine with a direct TCP connection to the attacker.
- Once on a machine, scanned for other machines to attack
 - invaded ~6000 computers in hours (10% of the Internet (9))
 - see June 1989 article in Comm. of the ACM
 - the young author of the worm was prosecuted...
 - and CERT was formed... homed at CMU

Example 2: IM War

July 1999:

- Microsoft launches MSN
 Messenger (instant messaging system).
- Messenger clients can access popular AOL Instant Messaging Service (AIM) servers



IM War (cont.)

August 1999:

- Mysteriously, Messenger clients can no longer access AIM servers
- Microsoft and AOL begin the IM war:
 - AOL changes server to disallow Messenger clients
 - Microsoft makes changes to clients to defeat AOL changes
 - At least 13 such skirmishes
- What was really happening?
 - AOL had discovered a buffer overflow bug in their own AIM clients
 - They exploited it to detect and block Microsoft: the exploit code returned a 4byte signature (the bytes at some location in the AIM client) to server
 - When Microsoft changed code to match signature, AOL changed signature location

Date: Wed, 11 Aug 1999 11:30:57 -0700 (PDT) From: Phil Bucking <philbucking@yahoo.com>

Subject: AOL exploiting buffer overrun bug in their own software!

To: rms@pharlap.com

Mr. Smith,

I am writing you because I have discovered something that I think you might find interesting because you are an Internet security expert with experience in this area. I have also tried to contact AOL but received no response.

I am a developer who has been working on a revolutionary new instant messaging client that should be released later this year.

. . .

It appears that the AIM client has a buffer overrun bug. By itself this might not be the end of the world, as MS surely has had its share. But AOL is now *exploiting their own buffer overrun bug* to help in its efforts to block MS Instant Messenger.

. . . .

Since you have significant credibility with the press I hope that you can use this information to help inform people that behind AOL's friendly exterior they are nefariously compromising peoples' security.

Sincerely,
Phil Bucking
Founder, Bucking Consulting
philbucking@yahoo.com

It was later determined that this email originated from within Microsoft!

Aside: Worms and Viruses

- Worm: A program that
 - Can run by itself
 - Can propagate a fully working version of itself to other computers

- Virus: Code that
 - Adds itself to other programs
 - Does not run independently
- Both are (usually) designed to spread among computers and to wreak havoc

OK, what to do about buffer overflow attacks

- Avoid overflow vulnerabilities
- Employ system-level protections
- Have compiler use "stack canaries"

1. Avoid Overflow Vulnerabilities in Code (!)

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
    fgets(buf, 4, stdin);
    puts(buf);
}
```

For example, use library routines that limit string lengths

- fgets instead of gets
- 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

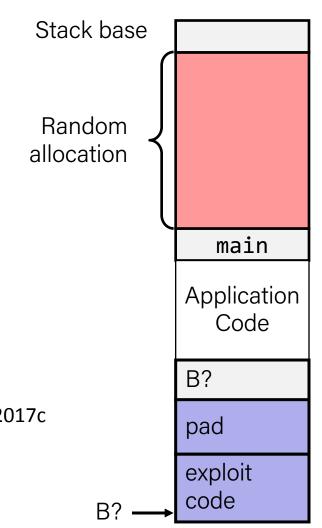
2. System-Level Protections can help

Randomized stack offsets

- At start of program, allocate random amount of space on stack
- Shifts stack addresses for entire program
- Makes it difficult for hacker to predict beginning of inserted code
- E.g.: 5 executions of memory allocation code

local 0x7ffe4d3be87c 0x7fff75a4f9fc 0x7ffeadb7c80c 0x7ffeaea2fdac 0x7ffcd452017c

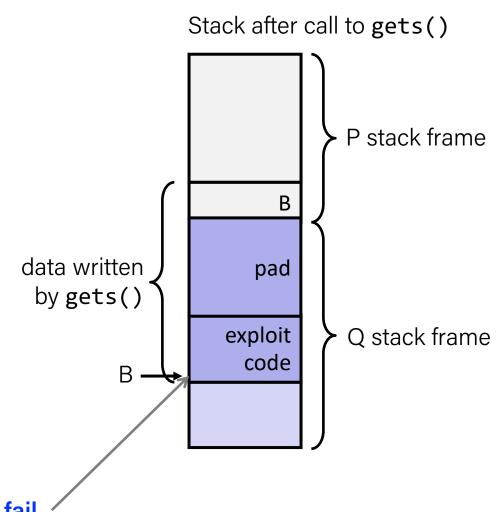
Stack repositioned each time program executes



2. System-Level Protections can help

Nonexecutable 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



Any attempt to execute this code will fail

3. Stack Canaries can help

Idea:

- Place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
- Check for corruption before exiting function

GCC Implementation

- -fstack-protector
- Now the default (disabled earlier)

```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:
0123456
0123456
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:
01234567
*** stack smashing detected ***
```

Protected Buffer Disassembly

echo: \$0x18,%rsp 40072f: sub %fs:0x28,%rax 400733: mov %rax,0x8(%rsp) 40073c: mov 400741: xor %eax,%eax %rsp,%rdi 400743: mov 400746: callq 4006e0 <gets> %rsp,%rdi 40074b: mov 400570 <puts@plt> 40074e: callq 0x8(%rsp),%rax 400753: mov %fs:0x28,%rax 400758: xor 400761: je 400768 <echo+0x39> 400580 <__stack_chk fail@plt> 400763: callq \$0x18,%rsp 400768: add 40076c: retq

Setting Up Canary

Before call to gets

Stack Frame for call_echo

Return Address (8 bytes)

Canary (8 bytes)

```
[3] [2] [1] [0]
```

```
/* Echo Line */
    void echo()
        char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
        gets(buf);
        puts(buf);
    echo:
       movq %fs:40, %rax # Get canary
               %rax, 8(%rsp) # Place on stack
       movq
       xorl
               %eax, %eax # Erase canary
buf ⁴
```

Checking Canary

After call to gets

```
Stack Frame
 for call echo
 Return Address
    (8 bytes)
    Canary
    (8 bytes)
00
    36
         35
              34
              30
33
    32
         31
```

```
/* Echo Line */
    void echo()
        char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
        gets(buf);
        puts(buf);
            Input: 0123456
    echo:
       movq 8(%rsp), %rax # Retrieve from stack
              %fs:40, %rax
       xorq
                               # Compare to canary
       je
                                # If same, OK
               .L6
       call ___stack_chk_fail
                                # FAIL
    .L6:
        %rsp
buf ◀
```

Demo: Stack Canaries



bufdemo.c

Return-Oriented Programming Attacks

- Challenge (for hackers)
 - Stack randomization makes it hard to predict buffer location
 - Marking stack nonexecutable makes it hard to insert binary code
- Alternative Strategy
 - Use existing code
 - E.g., library code from stdlib
 - String together fragments to achieve overall desired outcome
 - Does not overcome stack canaries
- Construct program from gadgets
 - Sequence of instructions ending in ret
 - Encoded by single byte 0xc3
 - Code positions fixed from run to run
 - Code is executable

Gadget Example #1

```
long ab plus c
  (long a, long b, long c) {
  return a*b + c;
00000000004004d0 <ab_plus_c>:
 4004d0: 48 Of af fe imul %rsi,%rdi
                       lea (%rdi,%rdx,1),%rax
 4004d4: 48 8d 04 17
 4004d8:
                        retq
          с3
                            rax ← rdi + rdx
                            Gadget address = 0x4004d4
```

Use tail end of existing functions

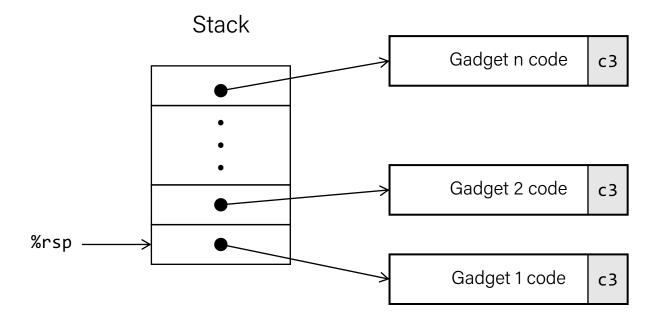
Gadget Example #2

```
void setval(unsigned *p) {
    *p = 3347663060u;
                                       Encodes movq %rax, %rdi
<setval>:
          c7 07 d4 48 89 c7
                              movl $0xc78948d4,(%rdi)
  4004d9:
  4004df:
          c3
                               retq
                                rdi ← rax
                                Gadget address = 0x4004dc
```

Repurpose byte codes

ROP Execution

- Trigger with ret instruction
 - Will start executing Gadget 1
- Final ret in each gadget will start next one



COMP201 Topic 7: How does the memory system is organized as a hierarchy of different storage devices with unique capacities?

Lecture Plan

- Buffer overflow attacks and what to do about them
- Storage technologies and trends

Random-Access Memory (RAM)

- Key features
 - RAM is traditionally packaged as a chip.
 - Basic storage unit is normally a cell (one bit per cell).
 - Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

- RAM comes in two varieties:
 - SRAM (Static RAM)
 - DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Need EDC?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	Maybe	100X	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

Nonvolatile Memories

DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

Lose information if powered off.

Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

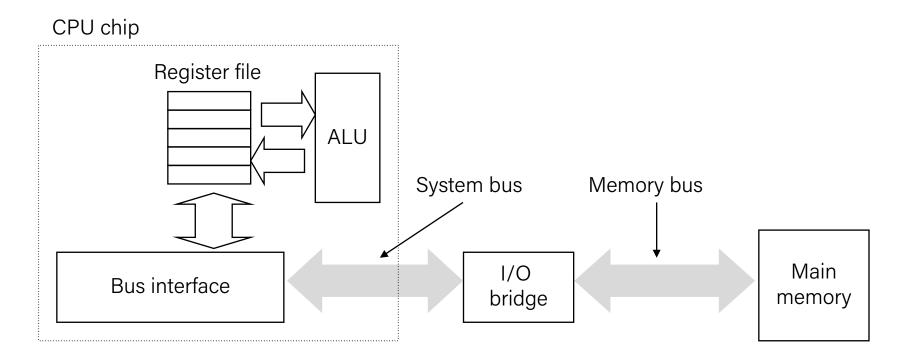
- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Eraseable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
- Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
 - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings

Uses for Nonvolatile Memories

- Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
- Solid state disks (replace rotating disks in thumb drives, smart phones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops,...)
- Disk caches

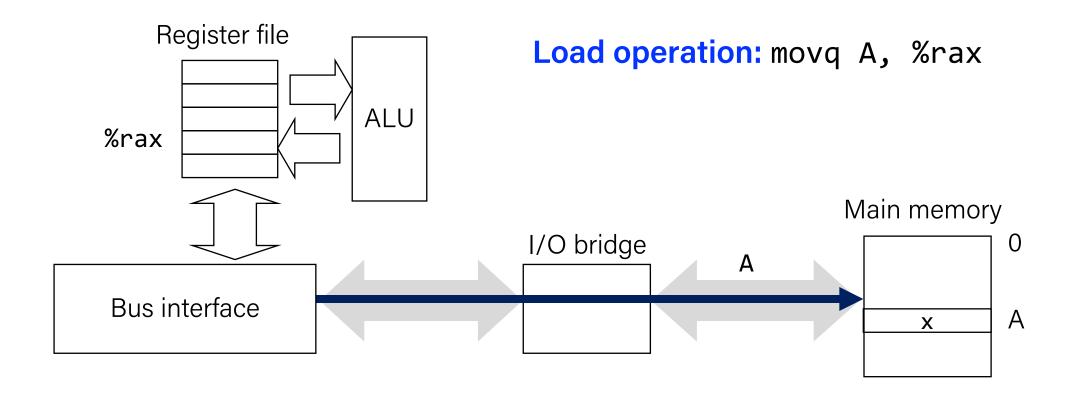
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A bus is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



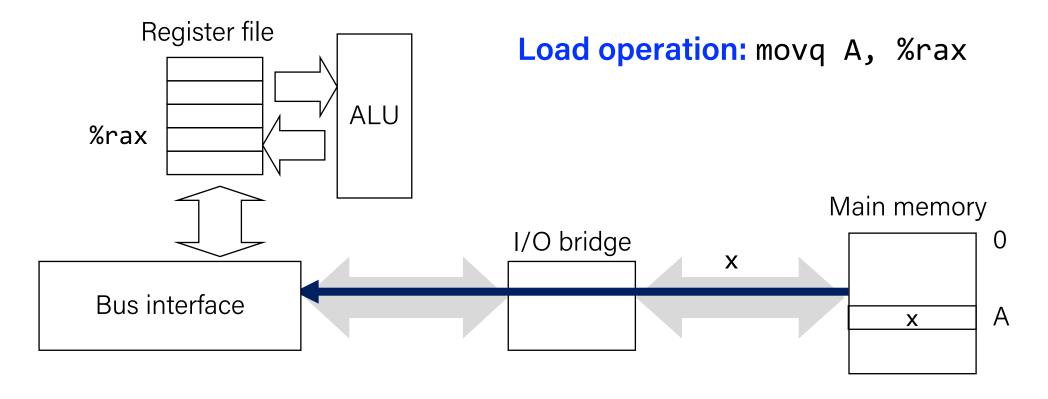
Memory Read Transaction (1)

• CPU places address A on the memory bus.



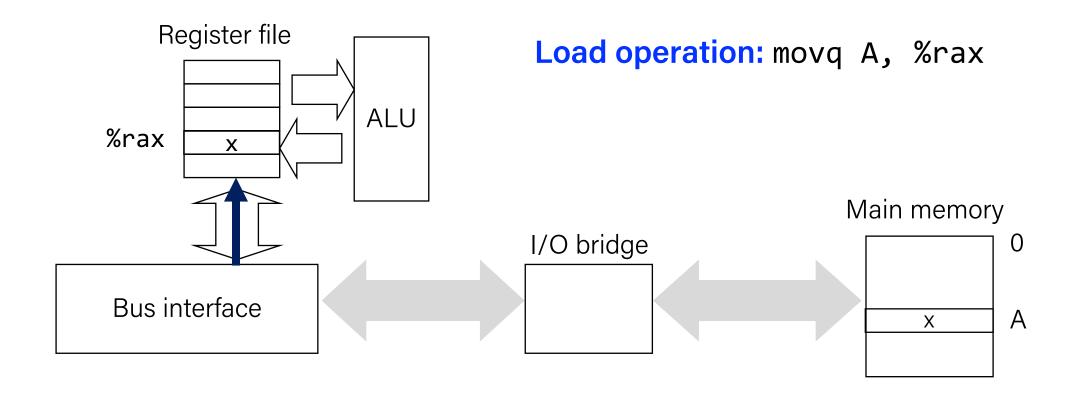
Memory Read Transaction (2)

• Main memory reads A from the memory bus, retrieves word x, and places it on the bus.



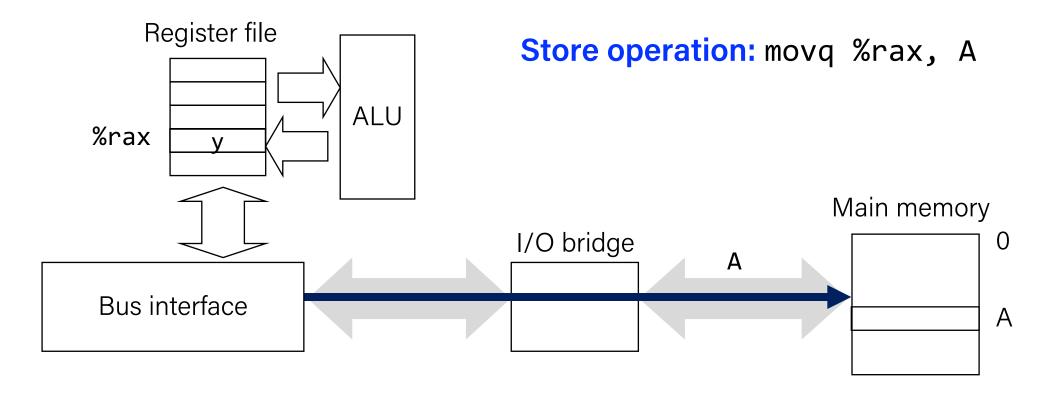
Memory Read Transaction (3)

• CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register %rax.



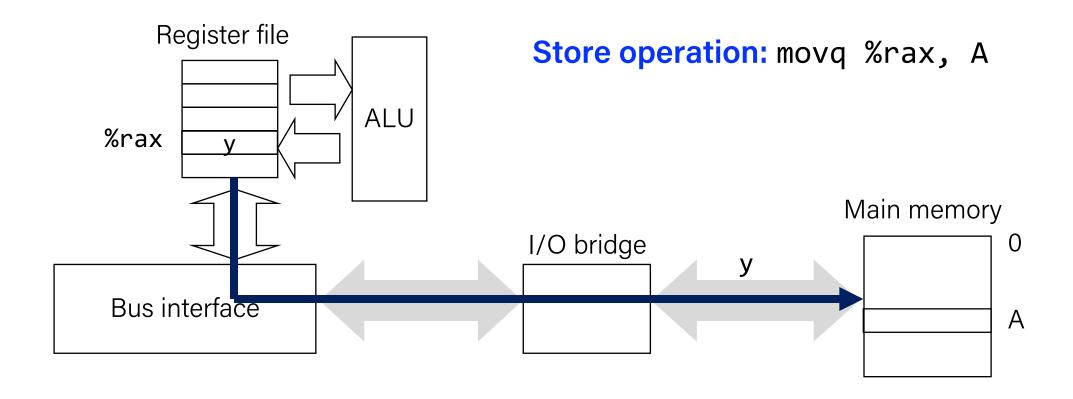
Memory Write Transaction (1)

• CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



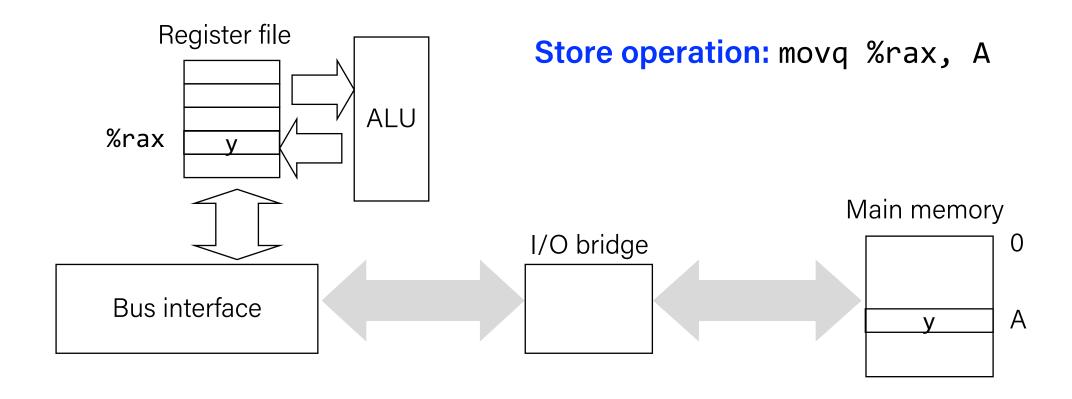
Memory Write Transaction (2)

CPU places data word y on the bus.

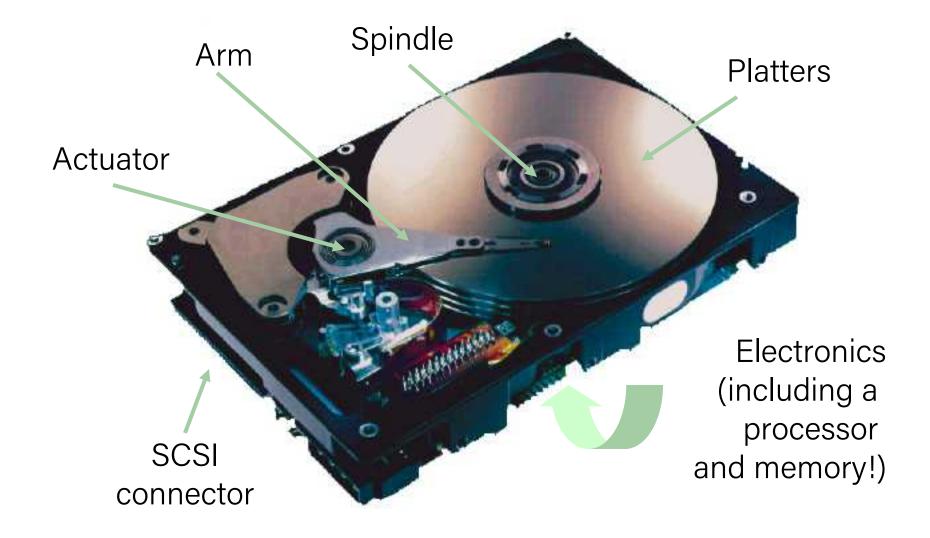


Memory Write Transaction (3)

• Main memory reads data word y from the bus and stores it at address A.

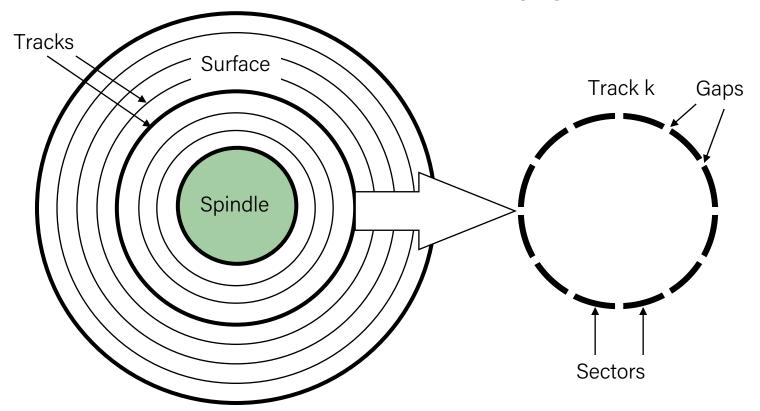


What's Inside A Disk Drive?



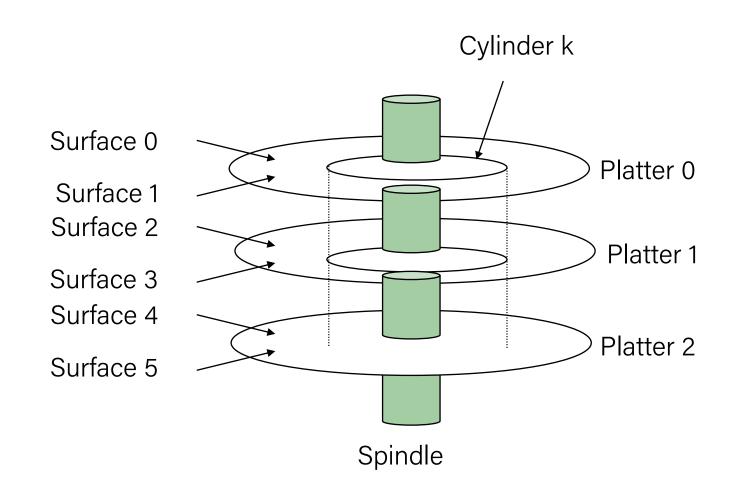
Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called tracks.
- Each track consists of sectors separated by gaps.



Disk Geometry (Muliple-Platter View)

Aligned tracks form a cylinder.

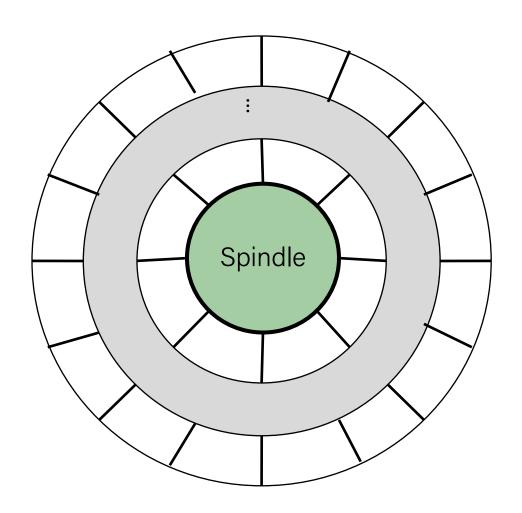


Disk Capacity

- Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.
 - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where 1 GB = 109 bytes.
- Capacity is determined by these technology factors:
 - Recording density (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1-inch segment of a track.
 - Track density (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1-inch radial segment.
 - Areal density (bits/in2): product of recording and track density.

Recording zones

- Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called recording zones
 - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
 - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track, outer zones have more sectors/track than inner zones.
 - So we use average number of sectors/track when computing capacity.



Computing Disk Capacity

```
Capacity = (# bytes/sector) × (avg. # sectors/track) × (# tracks/surface) × (# surfaces/platter) × (# platters/disk)
```

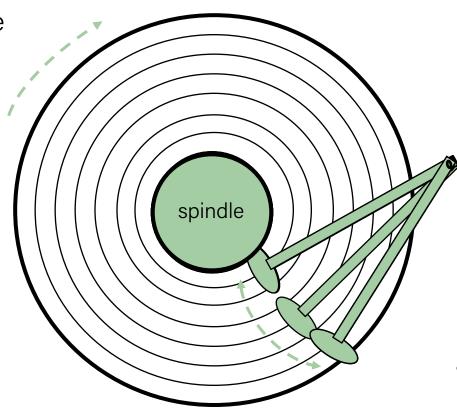
Example:

- 512 bytes/sector
- 300 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

```
Capacity = 512 \times 300 \times 20000 \times 2 \times 5
= 30,720,000,000
= 30.72 GB
```

Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

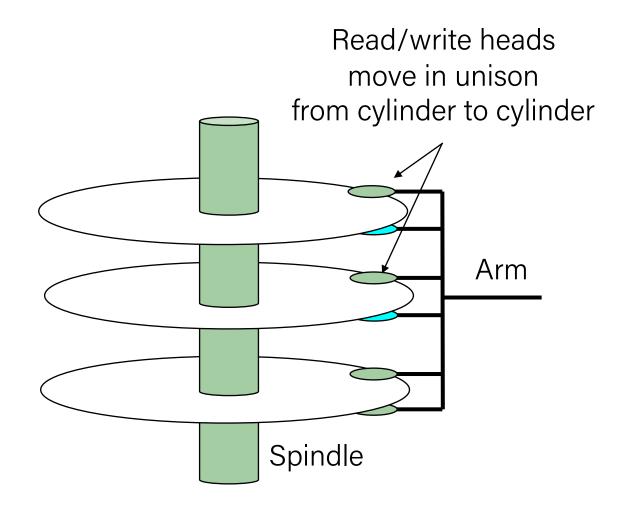
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



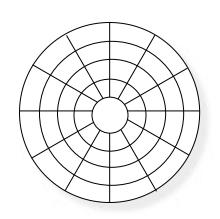
The read/write head is attached to the end of the arm and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



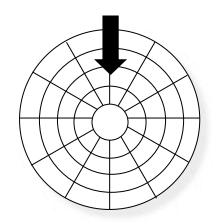
Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

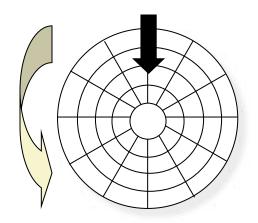
Tracks divided into sectors

Disk Access

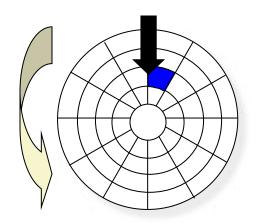


Head in position above a track

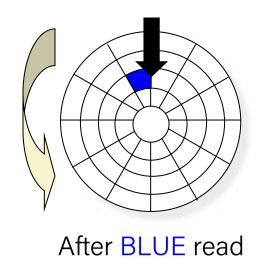
Disk Access



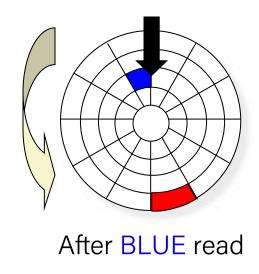
Rotation is counter-clockwise



About to read blue sector

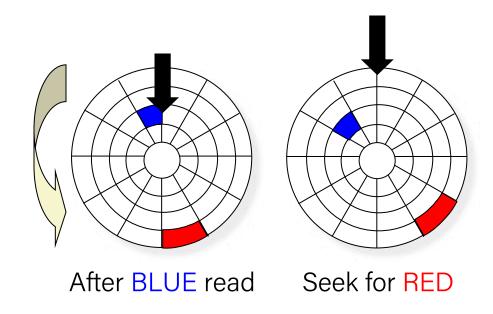


After reading blue sector



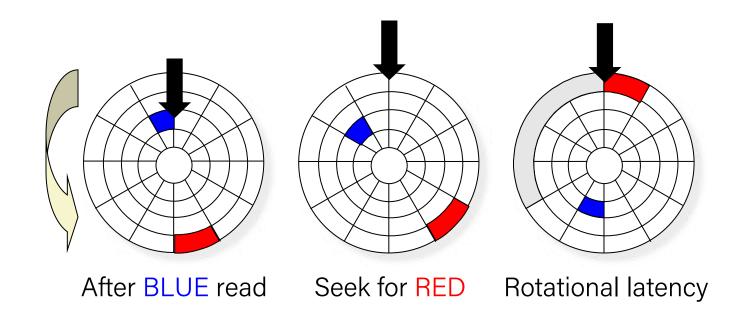
Red request scheduled next

Disk Access – Seek

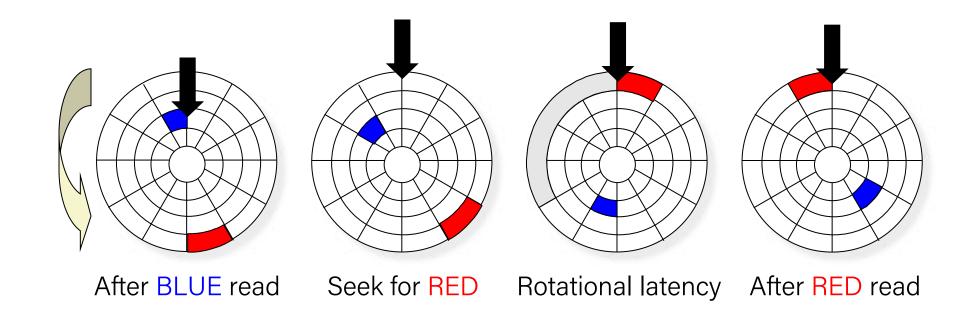


Seek to red's track

Disk Access - Rotational Latency

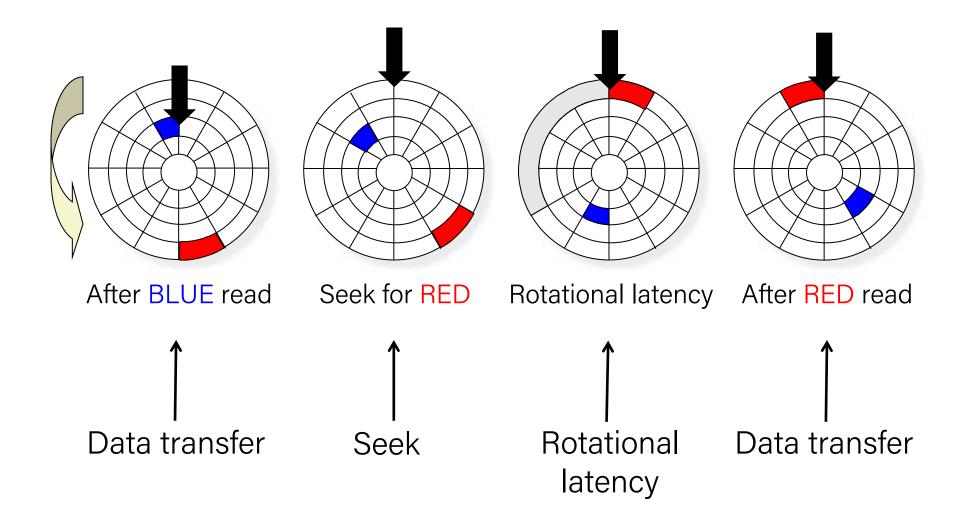


Wait for red sector to rotate around



Complete read of red

Disk Access - Service Time Components



Disk Access Time

- Average time to access some target sector approximated by:
 - Taccess = Tavg seek + Tavg rotation + Tavg transfer
- Seek time (Tavg seek)
 - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
 - Typical Tavg seek is 3—9 ms
- Rotational latency (Tavg rotation)
 - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
 - Tavg rotation = $1/2 \times 1/RPMs \times 60 sec/1 min$
 - Typical Tavg rotation = 7200 RPMs
- Transfer time (Tavg transfer)
 - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
 - Tavg transfer = $1/RPM \times 1/(avg \# sectors/track) \times 60 secs/1 min.$

Disk Access Time Example

Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms.
- Avg # sectors/track = 400.

Derived:

- Tavg rotation = $1/2 \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM}) \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 4 \text{ ms.}$
- Tavg transfer = $60/7200 \text{ RPM} \times 1/400 \text{ secs/track} \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 0.02 \text{ ms}$
- Taccess = 9 ms + 4 ms + 0.02 ms

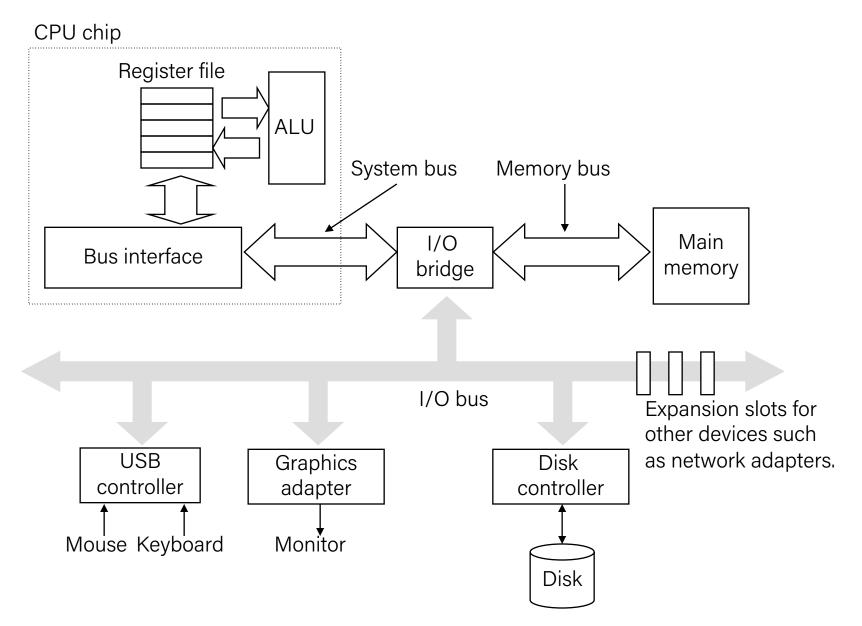
Important points:

- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
 - Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,
 - 2,500 times slower then DRAM.

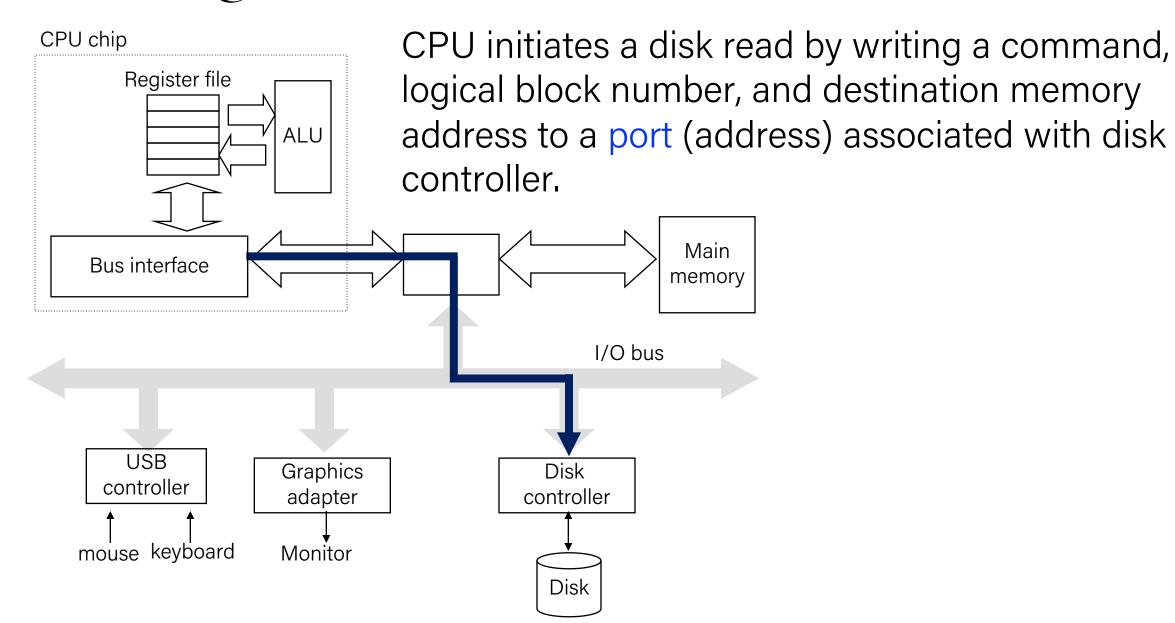
Logical Disk Blocks

- Modern disks present a simpler abstract view of the complex sector geometry:
 - The set of available sectors is modeled as a sequence of b-sized **logical blocks** (0, 1, 2, ...)
- Mapping between logical blocks and actual (physical) sectors
 - Maintained by hardware/firmware device called disk controller.
 - Converts requests for logical blocks into (surface,track,sector) triples.
- Allows controller to set aside spare cylinders for each zone.
 - · Accounts for the difference in "formatted capacity" and "maximum capacity".

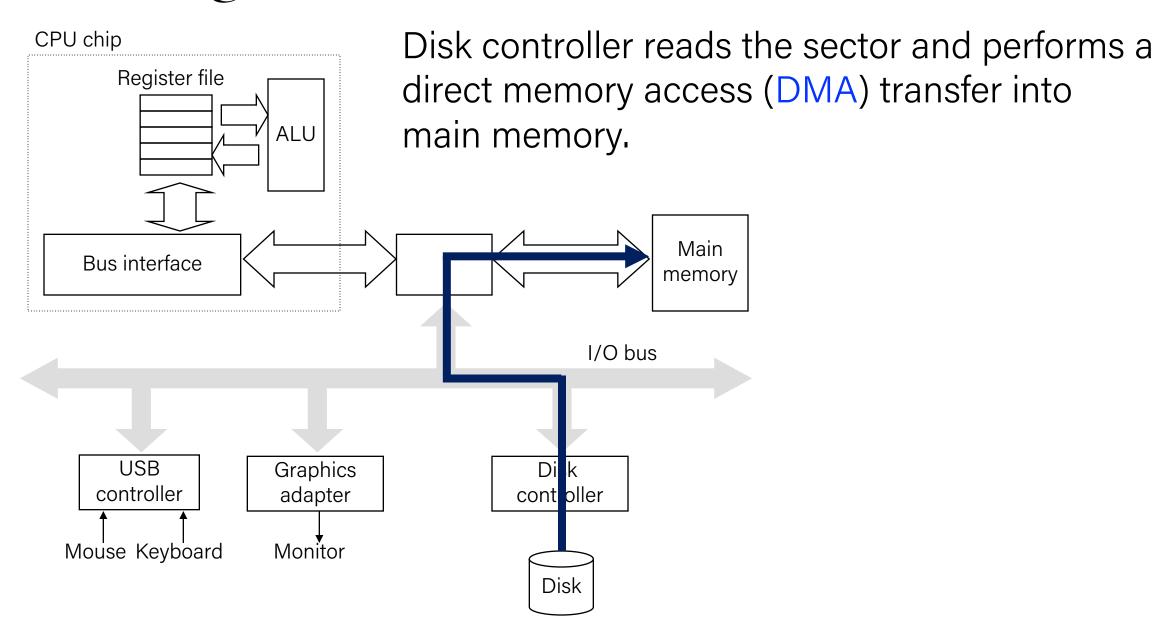
I/O Bus



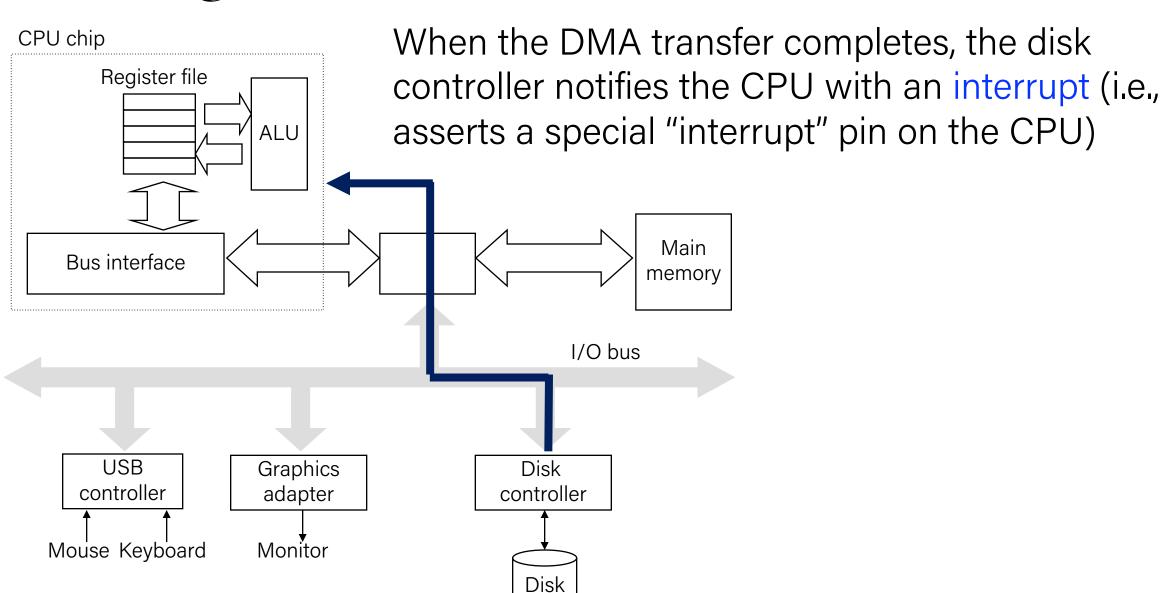
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



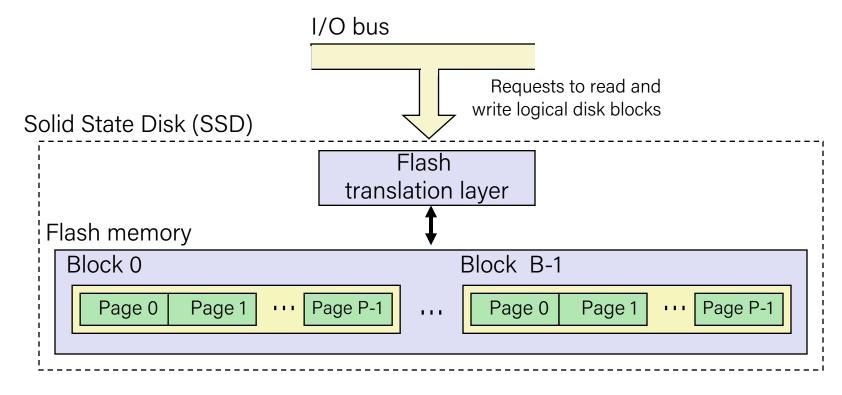
Reading a Disk Sector (2)



Reading a Disk Sector (3)



Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages
- Data read/written in units of pages.
- Page can be written only after its block has been erased
- A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.

SSD Performance Characteristics

Sequential read tput	550 MB/s	Sequential write tput	470 MB/s
Random read tput	365 MB/s	Random write tput	303 MB/s
Avg seq read time	50 us	Avg seq write time	60 us

- Sequential access faster than random access
 - Common theme in the memory hierarchy
- Random writes are somewhat slower
 - Erasing a block takes a long time (~1 ms)
 - Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
 - In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

Advantages

No moving parts

faster, less power, more rugged

Disadvantages

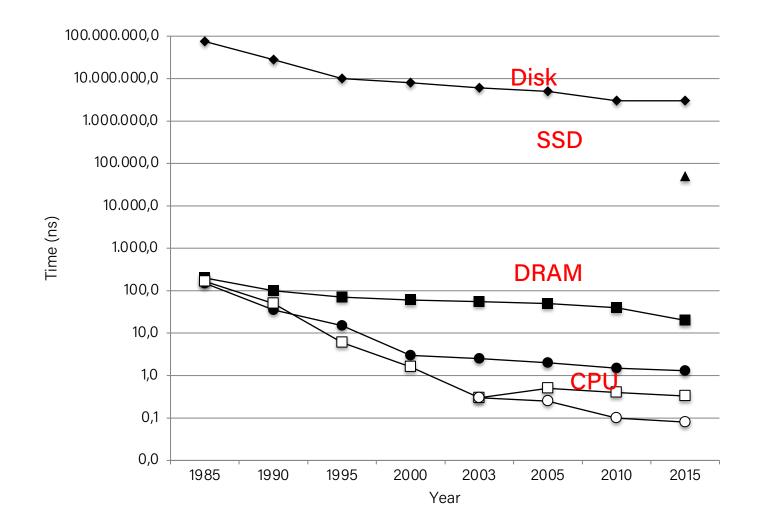
- Have the potential to wear out
 - Mitigated by "wear leveling logic" in flash translation layer
 - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte (128 x 1015 bytes) of writes before they wear out
- In 2015, about 30 times more expensive per byte

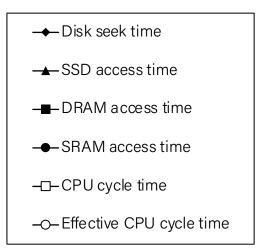
Applications

- MP3 players, smart phones, laptops
- Beginning to appear in desktops and servers

The CPU-Memory Gap

The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.





Locality to the Rescue!

 The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as locality

Recap

- Buffer overflow attacks and what to do about them
- Storage technologies and trends

Next: More on the memory hierarchy