

COSC 458-647

Application Software Security

Today

- Memory layout of C program
 - Code, Data, BSS, Stack and Heap Segments
- Assembly language basis
 - Introduction
 - First program on Linux

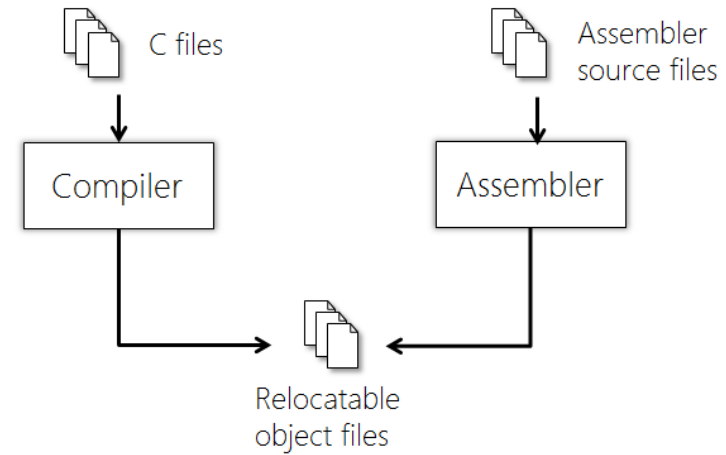
Memory layout of C program

First look

- *Compiler driver*

- Invokes the language preprocessor, compiler, assembler, and linker, as needed on behalf of the user
 - Can generate *three types of object files* depending upon the options supplied to the compiler driver.
- Technically an object file is *a sequence of bytes stored* on disk in a file

Object files



- Relocatable object files

- Are static library files
- Static linkers (such as ld program) take collection of relocatable object files, command line arguments & generate a fully linked executable object file that can be loaded into memory and run.
- Contain binary code and data in a form that can be combined with other relocatable object files at compile time to create an executable object file

- Executable object files

- Contain binary code and data in a form that can be copied directly into memory and executed

- Shared object files

- Special type of relocatable object files
- Are loaded into memory and linked dynamically, at either load time or run time.

Object files (cont'd)

- Object files usually have a specific format
- This format may vary from system to system.
- Some most prevalent formats are
 - **.coff** (Common Object File Format),
 - **.pe** (Portable Executable),
 - **elf** (Executable and Linkable Format).

Segments of a compiled C program

1. Code or Text Segment

(.text)

Low addresses

2. Data Segment

- Initialized Data Segments

(.data)

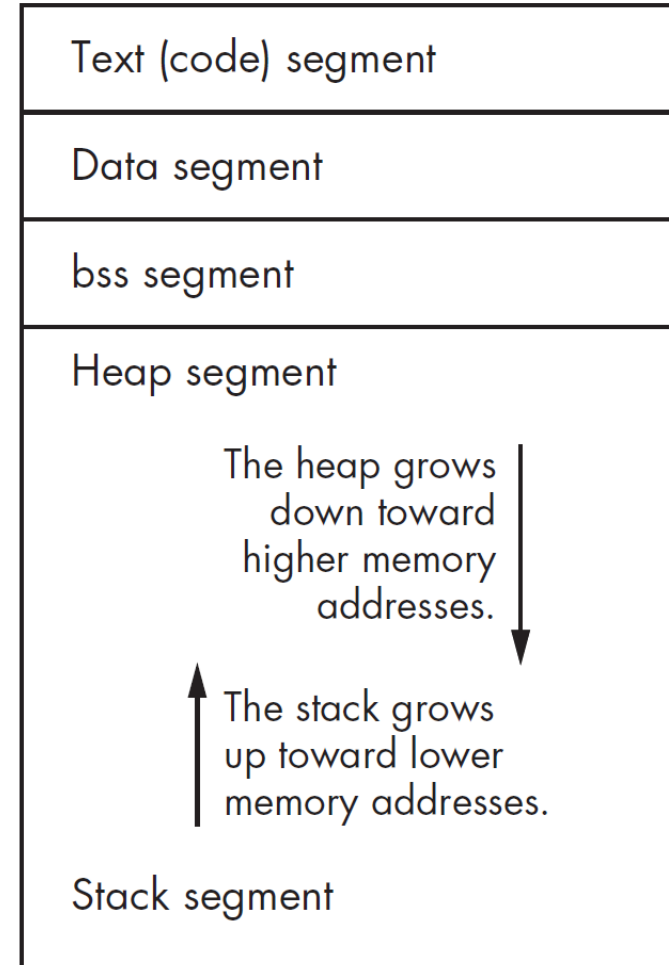
- Uninitialized Data Segments

(.bss)

- Stack Segment

- Heap Segment

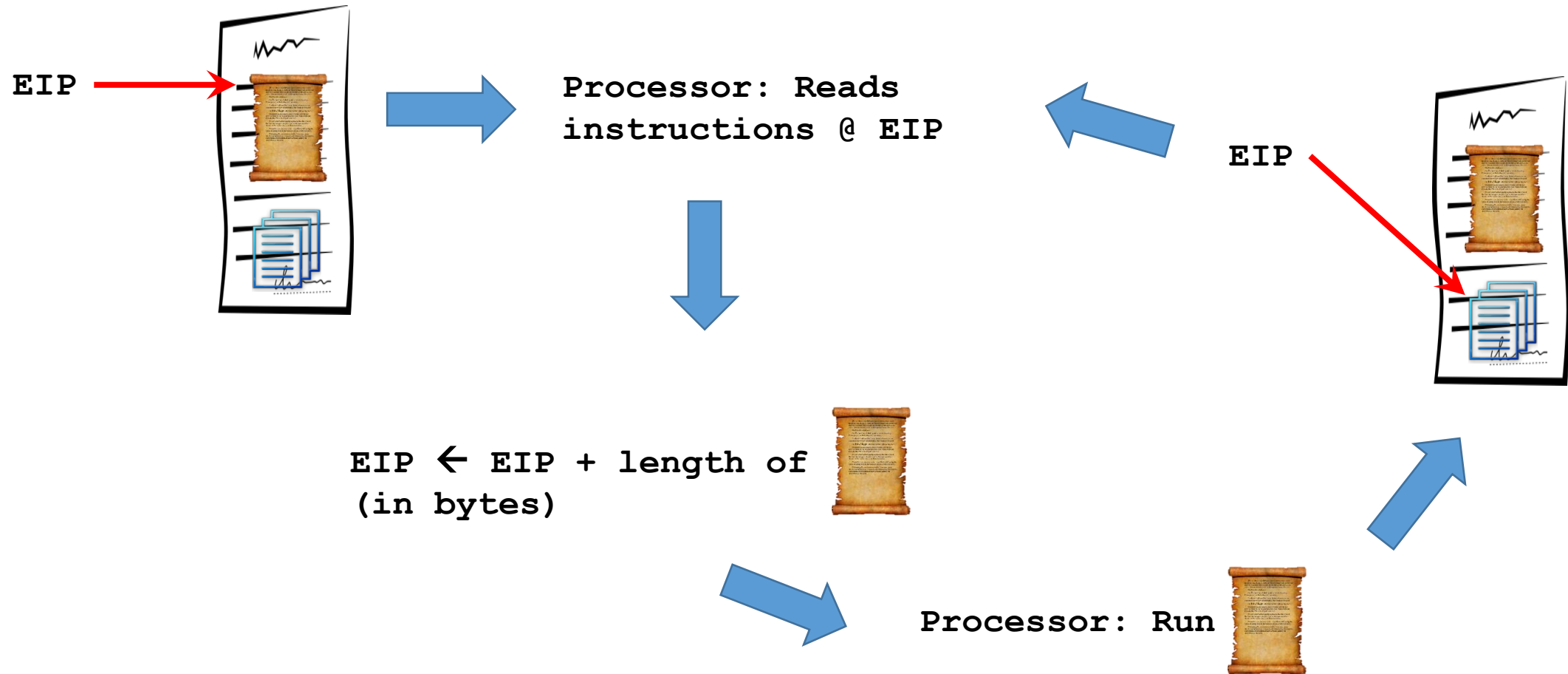
High addresses



Code segment

- Contains *machine code of the compiled program*
- Is often **read-only**
 - Prevents the program from being accidentally modified
 - Alert user and terminate the program if there is a Write attempt
 - Can be shared among different copies of the program
 - Allow multiple executions of the program at the same time
- Execution of instructions in the Code Segment is **NON-LINEAR**
 - Due to the high level of control structures & functions
 - Due to branching, i.e. jump, call, etc
- Has a **fixed size** after the program is compiled

Code segment (cont'd)



Initialized data segment

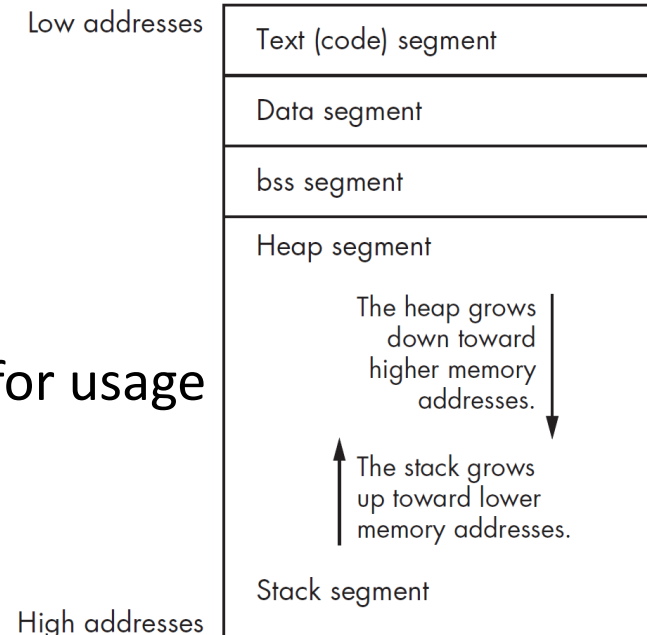
- `.data` segment
- Stores all `global`, `static`, constant, and `external variables` (declared with `extern` keyword) that are initialized beforehand.
 - `int x = 2; double y = 3; extern z = 10;`
- Is *writable*
- Has a fixed size

Uninitialized data segment

- **.bss** segment
 - “Block Storage Start” instruction from the IBM 704 assembly language (circa 1957)
- Stores all **uninitialized global**, **static**, and **external variables** which by default initialized to **zero**.
 - `int x; double z, extern z;`
- Is **Writable**
- Has a fixed size
- This section occupies **no actual space** in the object file; it is merely a place holder
 - Object file formats distinguish between initialized and uninitialized variables for space efficiency;
 - Uninitialized variables do not have to occupy any actual disk space in the object file.

Heap Segment

- A segment of memory a programmer can **directly control**
- Blocks of memory in this segment can be used/allocated for *whatever the programmer needs*
- **Does not have a fixed size** (Why?)
 - Memory allocation/deallocation
 - Who manage memory allocation/deallocation?
- Is **dynamic**
 - Grows and shrinks depending on how much memory is reserved for usage

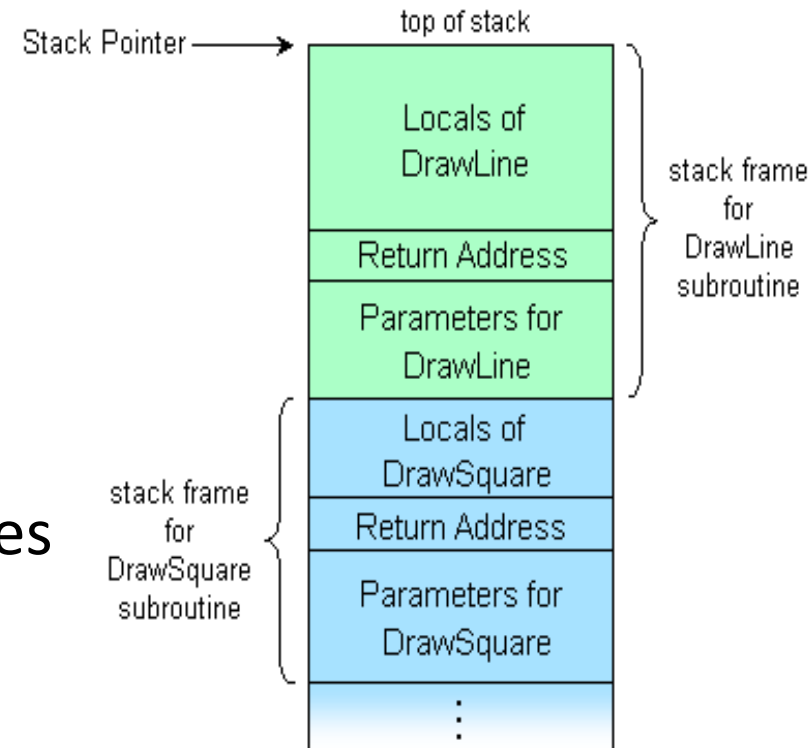


Stack Segment

- Is used as a temporary scratch pad to store local function variables and context during function call
 - This is where the debugger's trace back commands look at
- Does not have a fixed size
- When the program calls a functions, that function will have its own set of passed variables
 - The function code is, still, at a different location in the code segment
- Stack is used to remember
 - All passed variables
 - The location EIP should return to (return address)
 - All local variables used by the function

Stack segment

- Stack is **FILO**
 - Push & Pop
- Stack grows from **HIGHER** → **lower** memory addresses
- Is a stack data structure containing **stack frames**
- When a function is called, several things are put into a stack frame
 - EBP register (or frame pointer FP, or local base LB pointer)
 - Parameters to the function
 - Its local variables
 - Saved Frame Pointer (to restore EBP)
 - Return address pointer (to restore EIP)

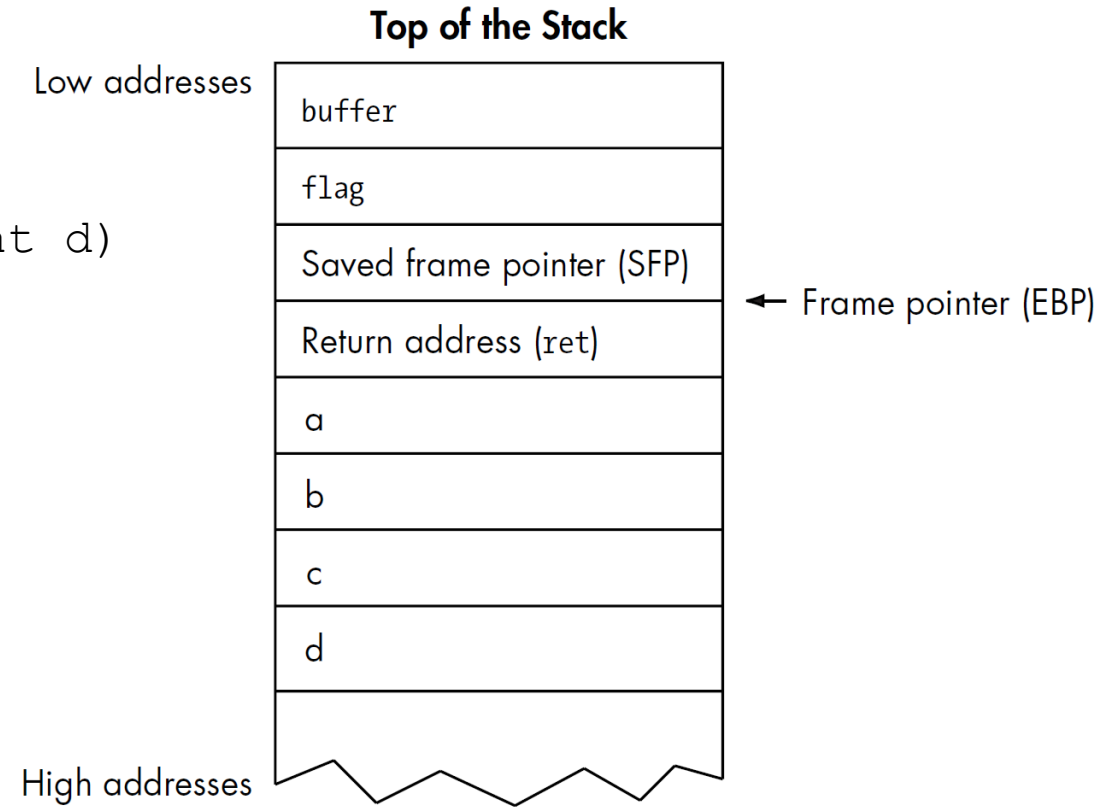


Stack example

`stack_example.c`

```
void test_function(int a, int b, int c, int d)
{
    int flag;
    char buffer[10];
    flag = 31337;
    buffer[0] = 'A';
}

int main() {
    test_function(1, 2, 3, 4);
}
```



Basic Assembly Programming

We will be using the `nasm` assembler
other assemblers: `masm`, `as`, `gas`, etc

Writing a useful program with nasm

- References
- Platform: Linux
- What do we need
 - GCC
 - NASM
 - Text editor
- Write the first program
 - [helloWorld_C_ver1.asm](#)
 - Improve the above program: [helloWorld_C_ver2.asm](#)

At a glance

- There are in general three types of usages for assembly language
 - In use with a borrowed C function
 - In use with NO borrowed C functions (pure Assembly Language)
 - In use as a subfunction of a C program (for speed).

In use with a C function: helloWorld_C_ver1.asm

;; These externals are all from the standard C library:

extern printf ; Notify linker that we're calling printf from C

section .data ; Section containing initialised data

msg db "Hello, world!", 0xa, 0 ; our dear string

section .text

global main ; Required so linker can find entry point for C

main:

```
    push    msg           ; push the message on top of the stack
    call    printf        ; call printf function from C
    add     esp, byte 4    ; clean up stack after printf call
                        ; what if we add less/more than 4 bytes?
```

return:

```
    mov     eax, 0
    ret                     ; Return control to Linux
```

Compiling ...

1. Build helloWorld.o from helloWorld.asm

```
nasm -f elf helloWorld.asm
```



`-f` Option: Specifying the Output File Format

2. Build binary file helloWorld from helloWorld.o

```
gcc -o helloWorld_C_ver1 helloWorld.o
```



Name of the executable file

3. Run the file

```
./helloWorld_C_ver1
```

In use with a C function: helloWorld_C_ver2.asm

1. **nasm** -f elf helloWorld_C_ver2.asm
2. **gcc** -o helloWorld_C_ver2 helloWorld_C_ver2.o

```
extern printf
section .data
```

```
    msg db "Hello, world!", 0xa, 0    ;our dear string
```

```
section .text
```

```
    global main
```

```
main:
```

1. **push** **ebp** ; save ebp by pushing it on top of the stack
2. **mov** **ebp, esp** ; ebp and esp are pointing to the same place
3. **push** **dword msg** ; push msg on top of the stack
4. **call** **printf** ; call printf function
5. **add** **esp, byte 4** ; move esp down by 4 bytes.
; **Is line 5 necessary in our program?**

```
return:
```

6. **mov** **esp, ebp** ; destroy stack frame before returning
7. **pop** **ebp** ; restore saved ebp
8. **mov** **eax, 0** ; call return function
9. **ret**

Notes

- In msg db “Hello World”, 0xa, 0: 0xa (or 0x10, or 10) stands for a new line, 0 stand for NULL (string termination)
- Assembly language is not CaSe SeNsitive
- The global label `main` is used in conjunction with C function only
- Initialized and uninitialized data and code are defined within sections `.data`, `.bss` and `.text`

Pure Assembly Language: helloWorld_ASM

- Assembly language usually uses interrupts to execute a system call
- Use libc wrappers
 - Ex: read, write etc;
 - Works **indirectly** with assembly code to execute system calls;
- Directly use assembly code
 - System call via software interrupts, for example `int 0x80;`

In Linux, a shell code uses `int 0x80` to raise system calls.

Executing a system call

- The *specific system call* is loaded into **EAX**.
- Arguments to the system call function are placed in other registers.
EBX, ECX, EDX

- The Instruction **int 0x80** is executed;

- The CPU switches to Kernel mode;

- The system call function is executed.

```
main() {  
    exit(0);  
}
```

eax	Name	ebx	ecx	edx	esx
1	sys_exit	int	-	-	-
2	sys_fork	struct pt regs	-	-	-
3	sys_read	unsigned int	char *	size_t	-
4	sys_write	unsigned int	const char *	size_t	-
5	sys_open	const char *	int	int	-
6	sys_close	unsigned int	-	-	-

Write a shell code for `exit()`

- The shell code should do the following:
 - Store the value of 0 into EBX;
 - Store the value of 1 into EAX;
 - Execute `int 0x80` instruction
- First, we write ASM codes (`exit.asm`) as follows:

Section .text

global _start

_start:

mov ebx, 0

mov eax, 1

int 0x80

exit(0) example

- nasm -f elf exit.asm
- ld -o exit_1 exit.o
- objdump -d exit_1
- Disassembly of section .text:

08048060 <_start>:

8048060:	bb 00 00 00 00	mov	ebx, 0x0
8048065:	b8 01 00 00 00	mov	eax, 0x1
804806a:	cd 80	int	0x80

Red words can be used as the shell code.

Pure Assembly Language: helloWorld_ASM

```
section .data
    msg db "hello world ASM", 0xa, 0
    len equ $-msg                ; the length of the string

section .text
    global _start ; *** pure ASM uses _start, not main ***

_start:
; "write" syscall = 4 (eax), stdout = 1 (ebx), string addr (ecx), length (edx)
    mov     eax, 0x04            ; move syscall ID #4 to eax
    mov     ebx, 0x01            ; move stdout ID #1 to ebx
    mov     ecx, msg             ; move the msg pointer to ecx
    mov     edx, len             ; move the length to edx
    int     0x80                 ; call interrupt 80

; "exit" syscall = 0 (eax), success = 0 (ebx)
    mov     eax, 0x01
    mov     ebx, 0x00
    int     0x80
```

Notes

- This version of helloWorld program works by raising interrupt **0x80** in order to call a **system function**
- When an interrupt is raised, the system function will be identified by the ID in **eax** register, and consequently by **ebx, ecx and edx, etc.**
- Example

eax	Name	Source	ebx	ecx	edx	esx	edi
1	sys_exit	kernel/exit.c	int	-	-	-	-
2	sys_fork	arch/i386/kernel/process.c	struct pt_regs	-	-	-	-
3	sys_read	fs/read_write.c	unsigned int	char *	size_t	-	-
4	sys_write	fs/read_write.c	unsigned int	const char *	size_t	-	-
5	sys_open	fs/open.c	const char *	int	int	-	-
6	sys_close	fs/open.c	unsigned int	-	-	-	-

In use as a subfunction of a C program

```
/*
 * callmaxofthree.c
 *
 * Illustrates how to call the maxofthree function we wrote in assembly
 * language.
 */

#include <stdio.h>

int maxofthree(int, int, int);

int main() {
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(1, -4, -7));
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(2, -6, 1));
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(2, 3, 1));
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(-2, 4, 3));
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(2, -6, 5));
    printf("%d\n", maxofthree(2, 4, 6));
    return 0;
}
```

```
-----
; maxofthree.asm
;
; NASM implementation of a function that returns the maximum value of its
; three integer parameters. The function has prototype:
;
;     int maxofthree(int x, int y, int z)
;
; Note that only eax, ecx, and edx were used so no registers had to be saved
; and restored.
; -----
```

```
global maxofthree

section .text
maxofthree:
    mov     eax, [esp+4]
    mov     ecx, [esp+8]
    mov     edx, [esp+12]

    cmp     eax, ecx
    cmovl   eax, ecx
    cmp     eax, edx
    cmovl   eax, edx
    ret
```

Assembly files: Five simple things

- **Labels**
 - Variables are declared as labels pointing to specific memory locations
 - Labels mark the start of subroutines or locations to jump to in your code
- **Instructions** – cause machine code to be generated
- **Directives** – affect the operation of the assembler
- **Comments**
- **Data**

Comments, comments, comments!

```
; Comments are denoted by semi-colons.  
; Please comment your code thoroughly.  
; It helps me figure out what you were doing  
; It also helps you figure out what you were  
;   doing when you look back at code you  
;   wrote more than two minutes ago.
```

```
; everything from the semi-colon to the end  
; of the line is ignored.
```

Labels

- ; Labels are local to your file/module
- ; unless you direct otherwise, the colon
- ; identifies a label (an address!)

MyLabel:

- ; to make it global we say

global MyLabel

- ; And now the linker will see it

Example with simple instructions

```
var1    dd    0FFh
str1    db    "my dog has fleas",10
var2    dd    0
```

; Here are some simple instructions

```
mov     eax, [var1] ; notice the brackets
mov     edx, str1   ; notice the not brackets
call    dspmsg
jmp     done
mov     ebx, [var2] ; this will never happen
cmp     ecx, 0x8    ; this also will never happen
```

```
done:   nop
```

Directives

- A directive is an artifact of the assembler not the CPU.
- They are generally used to either **instruct the assembler to do something** or **inform the assembler of something**.
- *They are not translated into machine code.*
- Common uses of directives are:
 - + Define constants
 - + Define memory to store data into
 - + Group memory into segments
 - + Conditionally include source code
 - + Include other files
- NASM's preprocessor directives start with a **%** instead of a **#** as in C.

The **equ** directive

- The **equ** directive can be used to define a symbol. Symbols are named constants that can be used in the assembly program. The format is

symbol equ value

- Example:

```
msg db  "hello world ASM", 0xa, 0
len equ $-msg
```

- Symbol can not be redefined later

The `%define` directive

- Similar to C's `#define` directive. It is mostly used to define constant macros just in C

```
%define SIZE 100  
move     eax, SIZE
```

- Macros are more flexible than symbols in two ways
 - They can be redefined
 - Can be more than simple constant numbers

Data directives

- Used in data segments to define room for memory.
- There are two ways memory can be reserved.
 - 1. Only defines room for data
 - 2. Defines room for data with an initial value
- Common structures

Unit	Letter
byte	B
word	W
double word	D
quad word	Q
ten bytes	T

Table 1.3: Letters for RESX and DX Directives

1. `data_label resX #of_units`
2. `data_label dX init_value`

Data Directive

L1	db	0	; byte labeled L1 with initial value 0
L2	dw	1000	; word labeled L2 with initial value 1000
L3	db	110101b	; byte initialized to binary 110101 (53 in decimal)
L4	db	12h	; byte initialized to hex 12 (18 in decimal)
L5	db	17o	; byte initialized to octal 17 (15 in decimal)
L6	dd	1A92h	; double word initialized to hex 1A92
L7	resb	1	; 1 uninitialized byte
L8	db	"A"	; byte initialized to ASCII code for A (65)

- Double and single quote are treated the same.
- Consecutive data definitions are stores sequentially in the memory
 - L2 is stored right after L1 in the memory

Data directives

- Sequences of memory may also be defined.

```
L9      db      0, 1, 2, 3                ; defines 4 bytes
L10     db      "w", "o", "r", 'd', 0    ; defines a C string = "word"
L11     db      'word', 0                 ; same as L10
```

- For large sequence, **times** is normally used

```
L12     times 100 db 0                    ; equivalent to 100 (db 0)'s
L13     resw    100                       ; reserves room for 100 words
```

Declaring static variables

.DATA

`var DB 64` ; Declare a byte, referred to as location var, containing the value 64.

`var2 DB ?` ; Declare an uninitialized byte, referred to as location var2

`DB 10` ; Declare a byte with no label, containing the value 10. Its location is var2 + 1.

`X DW ?` ; Declare a 2-byte uninitialized value, referred to as location X.

`Y DD 30000` ; Declare a 4-byte value, referred to as location Y, initialized to 30000.

Declaring array

- `bytes DB 10 DUP(?)` ; Declare 10 uninitialized bytes starting at the address “bytes”.
- `arr DD 100 DUP(0)` ; Declare 100 4 bytes words, all initialized to 0,
; starting at memory location “arr”.
- `str DB 'hello',0` ; Declare 5 bytes starting at the address “str”
; initialized to the ASCII character values for
; the characters ‘h’, ‘e’, ‘l’, ‘l’, ‘o’, and
; ‘\0’(NULL), respectively.

Labels usages

- Labels can be used to refer to data in code.
- There are two ways that a label can be used
 - If a plain label is used, it is interpreted as the address (or offset) of the data
 - If a label is placed inside square brackets ([]), it is interpreted as the data at the address
- Label should be thought of as **pointers**.

```
mov    al, [L1]        ; copy byte at L1 into AL
mov    eax, L1          ; EAX = address of byte at L1
mov    [L1], ah         ; copy AH into byte at L1
mov    eax, [L6]        ; copy double word at L6 into EAX
add    eax, [L6]        ; EAX = EAX + double word at L6
add    [L6], eax        ; double word at L6 += EAX
mov    al, [L6]        ; copy first byte of double word at L6 into AL
```

Example