CS 370: INTRODUCTION TO SECURITY O5.25: SOFTWARE SECURITY PRELIM.

Tu/Th 4:00 - 5:50 PM

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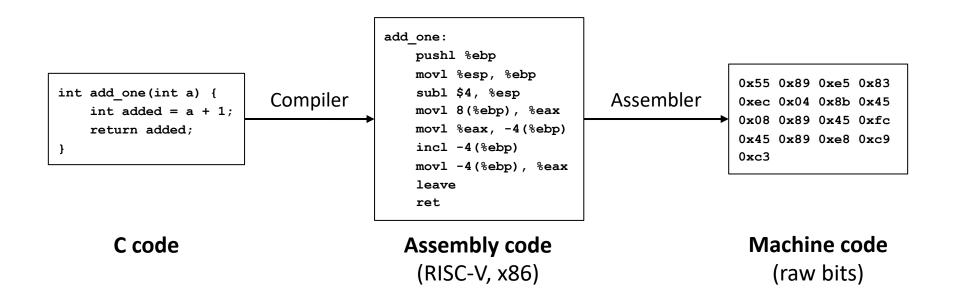


TOPICS FOR TODAY

- Preliminaries (x86 assembly and call stack)
 - C program
 - Memory layout
 - x86 architecture
 - Stack layout
 - Calling convention
 - x86 calling convention design
 - x86 calling convention example



RUNNING A C PROGRAM: COMPILER AND ASSEMBLER





RUNNING A C PROGRAM: LINKER AND LOADER

• To run a C program:

- Compiler: Converts C code into assembly code (RISC-V, x86)

- Assembler: Converts assembly code into machine code (raw bits)

- Linker : Deals with dependencies and libraries (learn more in CS444)

- Loader : Sets up memory space and runs the machine code



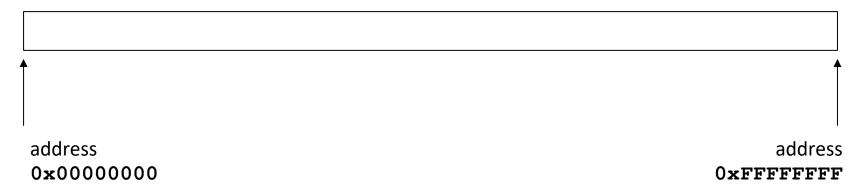
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MEMORY LAYOUT

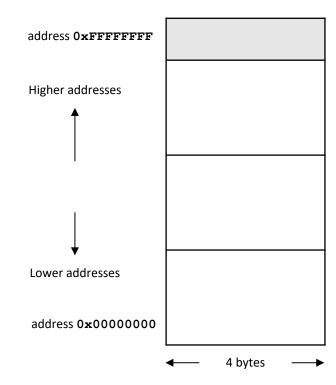
- C memory layout
 - At runtime, the loader tells an OS to give your program a big blob of memory
 - On a 32-bit system, the memory has 32-bit addresses
 - On a 64-bit system, the memory has 64-bit addresses
 - ex. the "solve" server is the 64-bit system
 - In this lecture slides, we consider a 32-bit system
 - Each address refers to 1 byte, which means you have 2³² bytes of memory





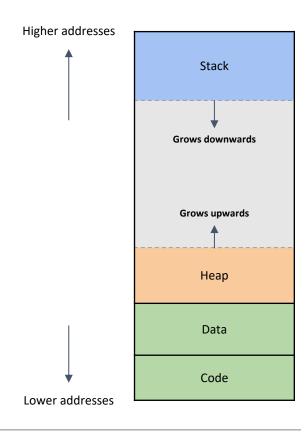
MEMORY LAYOUT

- C memory layout
 - Drawn vertically for ease of drawing
 - But memory is just a long array of bytes



MEMORY LAYOUT: X86

- Process has 4 segments
 - Code (or text)
 - The program code itself
 - Data
 - Static variables
 - Allocated when the program is started
 - Heap
 - Dynamically allocated memory using malloc and free
 - Heap grows upwards
 - Stack:
 - Local variables and stack frames
 - Stack grows downwards

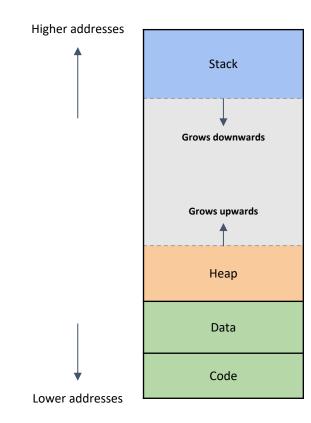




MEMORY LAYOUT: X86

Registers

- A quickly accessible location on the CPU
- Use names (ebp, esp, eip), not addresses
 - Memory: addresses are 32-bit numbers
- This is different from the memory layout





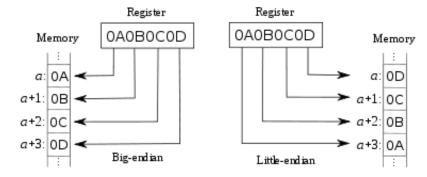
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x86 ARCHITECTURE: PRELIMINARIES

- x86 architecture
 - Most commonly used architecture
 - Use little-endian
 - The LSB is placed at the first/lowest memory address



- Support variable-length instructions
 - If assembled into machine code, instructions can be anywhere from 1 to 16 bytes long
 - Some other architectures could support fixed-length instructions (e.g., RISC-V; 4-byte)



x86 ARCHITECTURE: REGISTERS

- x86 registers
 - A quickly accessible location (separately) on the CPU
 - 8 main general-purpose registers:
 - EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI: General-purpose
 - ESP: Stack pointer
 - EBP: Base pointer
 - Instruction pointer register: EIP



x86 ARCHITECTURE: REGISTERS

x86 registers

- A quickly accessible location (separately) on the CPU
- 8 main general-purpose registers:
 - EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI: General-purpose
 - ESP: Stack pointer
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- Instruction pointer register: EIP

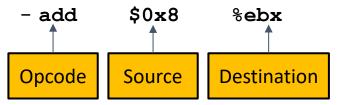
Syntax

- Register references are preceded with a percent sign % (e.g., %eax, %esp, %edi)
- Immediates are preceded with a dollar sign \$ (e.g., \$1, \$161, \$0x4)
- Memory references use parentheses and can have immediate offsets
 - e.g., 8(%esp) dereferences memory 8 bytes above the address contained in ESP



x86 ARCHITECTURE: ASSEMBLY

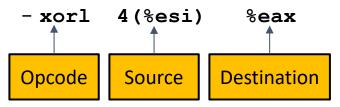
- x86 assembly
 - Instructions are composed of an opcode and zero or more operands.



- Pseudocode: EBX = EBX + 0x8
- The destination comes last
- The add instruction has two operands; and the destination is an input
- This instruction uses a register and an immediate

x86 ARCHITECTURE: ASSEMBLY

- x86 assembly
 - Instructions are composed of an opcode and zero or more operands.



- Pseudocode: EAX = EAX ^ *(ESI + 4)
- This is a memory reference:
 - The value at 4 bytes above the address in ESI is dereferenced
 - XOR'd with EAX
 - Stored back into EAX

TOPICS FOR TODAY

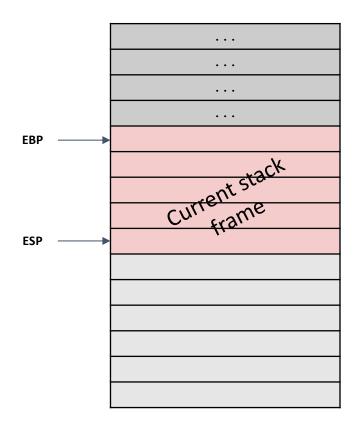
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- Stack frames
 - If code calls a function:
 - Memory space is made on the stack for local variables
 - The space is known as the stack frame for the function
 - The stack frame will be free-ed once the function returns
 - The stack makes extra space by growing down
 - The stack starts at higher addresses
 - Every time your code calls a function, it grows down
 - Note:
 - Data on the stack, e.g., a string, is still stored from lowest address to highest address.
 - "Growing down" only happens when extra memory needs to be allocated.

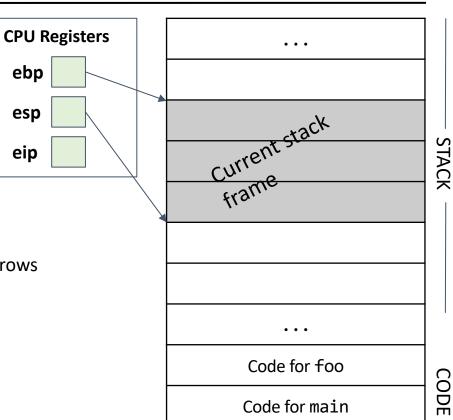


- Stack frames
 - To keep track of the current stack frame
 - Store two pointers in registers
 - The EBP (base pointer) points to the top of the current stack frame
 - The ESP (stack pointer) points to the bottom of the current stack frame

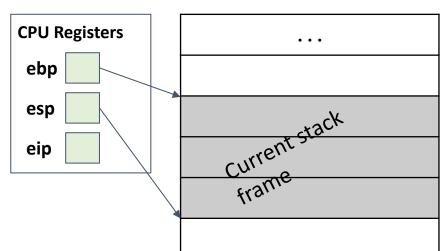




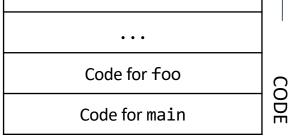
- Stack frames
 - To keep track of the current stack frame
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 - Store
 - The **ebp** and **esp** registers are drawn as arrows



- Stack frames
 - To keep track of the current stack frame
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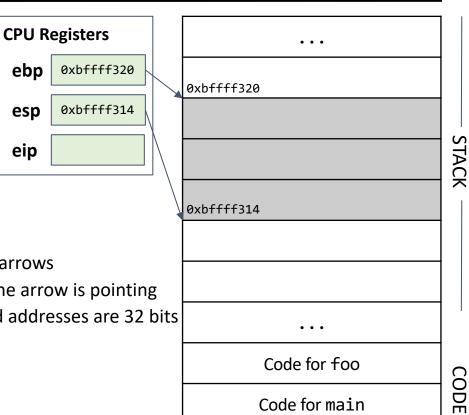
- Store (pointers)
 - The **ebp** and **esp** registers are drawn as arrows
 - They are storing the address of where the arrow is pointing
 - This works as registers store 32 bits, and addresses are 32 bits



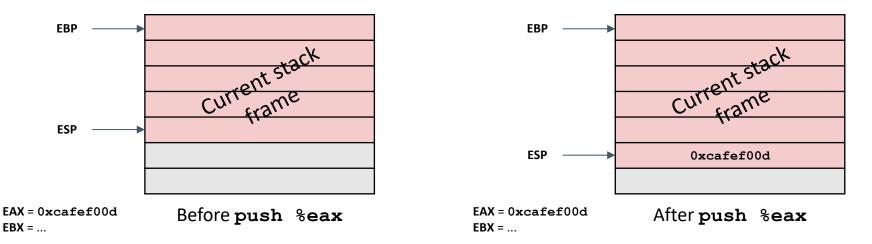


STACK

- Stack frames
 - To keep track of the current stack frame
 - Store two pointers in registers
 - The EBP (base pointer) points to the top of the current stack frame
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 - Store (pointers)
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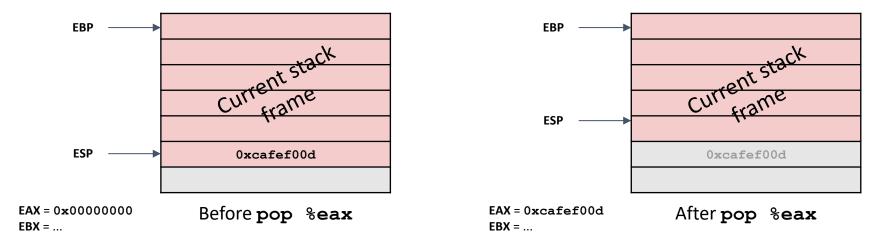


- Push and pop
 - The **push** instruction adds an element to the stack
 - Decrement ESP to allocate more memory on the stack
 - Save the new value on the lowest value address of the stack





- Push and pop
 - The **pop** instruction removes an element from the stack
 - Load the value from the lowest value address on the stack and store it in a register
 - Increment ESP to deallocate the memory on the stack





Storing convention

- Local variables are always allocated on the stack
- Individual variables within a stack frame are stored with the first variable at the highest address
- Members of a struct are stored with the first member at the lowest address
- Global variables (not on the stack) are stored with the first variable at the lowest address

Storing convention

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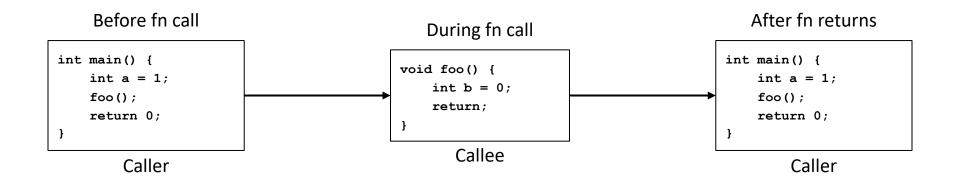
```
Higher addresses
                                                              а
struct foo {
    long long f1; // 8 bytes
                                                             b.f3
    int f2; // 4 bytes
    int f3; // 4 bytes
                                                             b.f2
};
                                                             b.f1
void func(void) {
                  // 4 bytes
    int a;
                                                             b.f1
    struct foo b;
    int c; // 4 bytes
                                                               C
                                          Lower addresses
                                                             4 bytes
```

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CALLING CONVENTION: FUNCTION CALLS



The caller function (main) calls the callee function (foo)

The callee function executes and then returns control to the caller function

CALLING CONVENTION

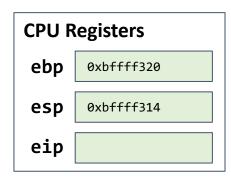
- x86 convention
 - A way for functions to call other functions
 (i.e., know what state the processor will return in)
 - How to pass arguments
 - Arguments are pushed onto the stack in reverse order
 - func(val1, val2, val3) will place val3 at the highest memory address, then val2, then val1
 - How to receive return values
 - Return values are passed in EAX
 - Which registers are caller-saved or callee-saved
 - Callee-saved: The callee must not change the value of the register when it returns
 - Caller-saved: The callee may overwrite the register without saving or restoring it



CALLING CONVENTION

x86 convention

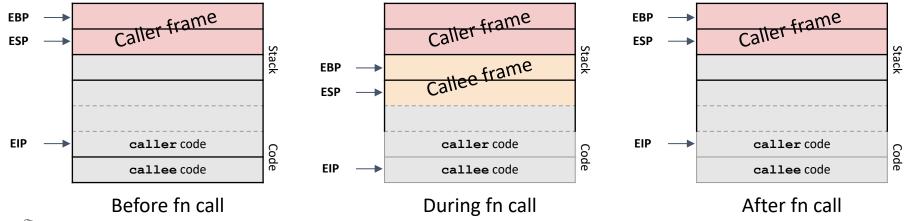
- The values in the caller-saved registers to stay unchanged when calling a function (i.e., If the function returns, the value in these registers should stay the same)
- What if the function wants to change the values in these registers?
 - Before calling the function: write these values on the stack
 - After the function returns: move the values from the stack back to the registers



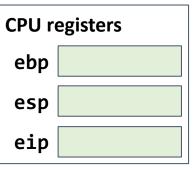


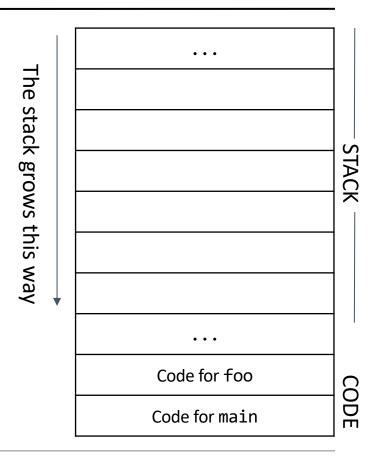
CALLING CONVENTION

- Calling a function in x86
 - Call:
 - The ESP and EBP need to shift to create a new stack frame
 - The EIP must move to the callee's code
 - Return:
 - The ESP, EBP, and EIP must return to their old values



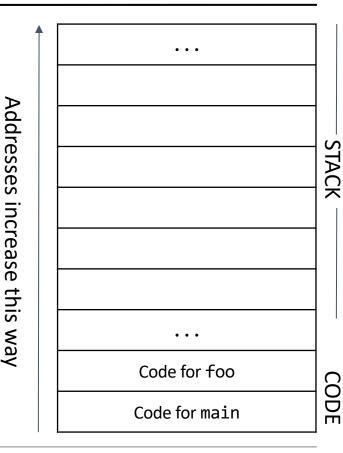
- Stack and registers
 - If code calls a function, space is made on the stack for local variables
 - The space goes away once the function returns
 - The stack starts at higher addresses and grows down
 - Registers are 32-bit (or 4-byte, 1-word) units of memory located on CPU





- Word and code segment
 - The code segment contains raw bytes that represent assembly instructions
 - Each row of the diagram is 1 word = 4 bytes = 32 bits
 - Addresses increase as you move up the diagram

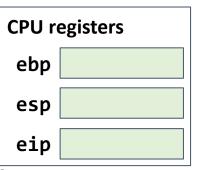
CPU registers	
ebp	
esp	
eip	

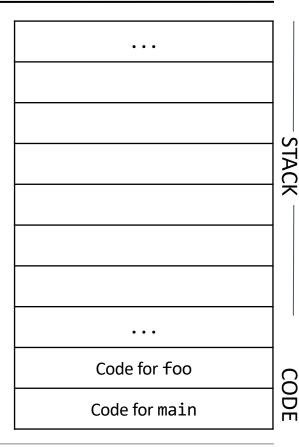


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Stack frames

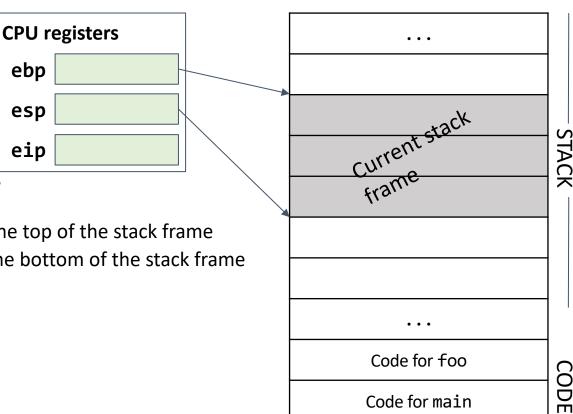
- Use two pointers to tell us which part of the stack is being used by the current function
- This is called a stack frame
- One stack frame corresponds
 to one function being called





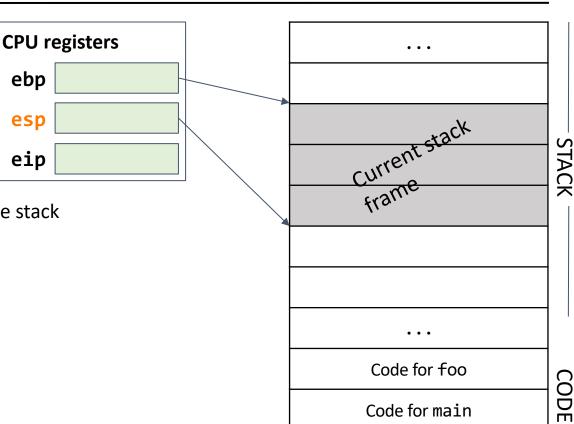
Stack frames

- Use two pointers to tell us which part of the stack is being used by the current function
- This is called a stack frame
- One stack frame corresponds to one function being called
- The **ebp** register is used for the top of the stack frame
- The **esp** register is used for the bottom of the stack frame



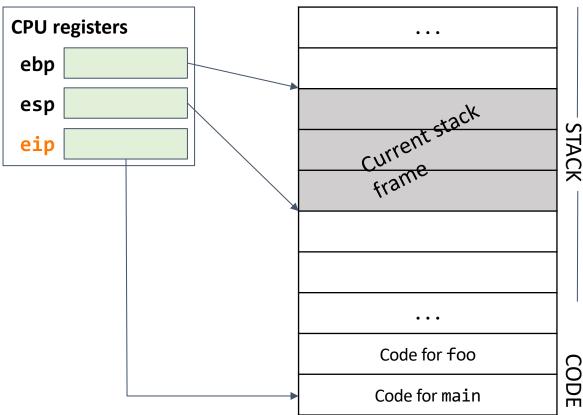
ESP

- esp also denotes the current lowest value on the stack
- Everything below esp is undefined
- If we push a value onto the stack, esp must adjust to
 match the lowest value on the stack



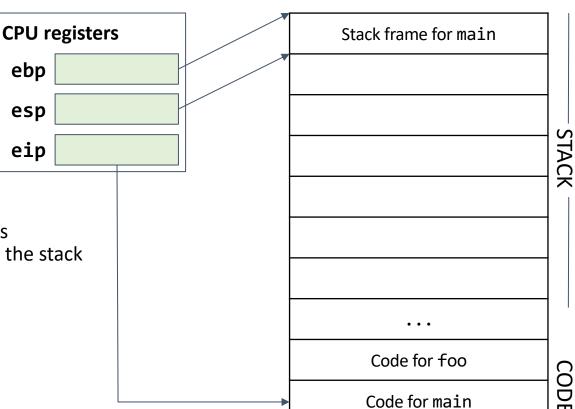
• EIP

- To keep track of what step we're at in the instructions
- Use the eip register to store a pointer to the current instruction

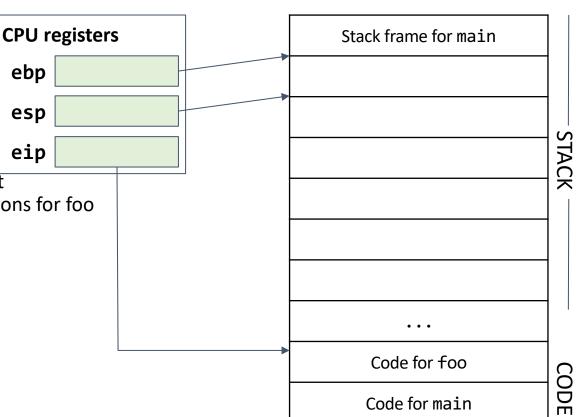


Stack design

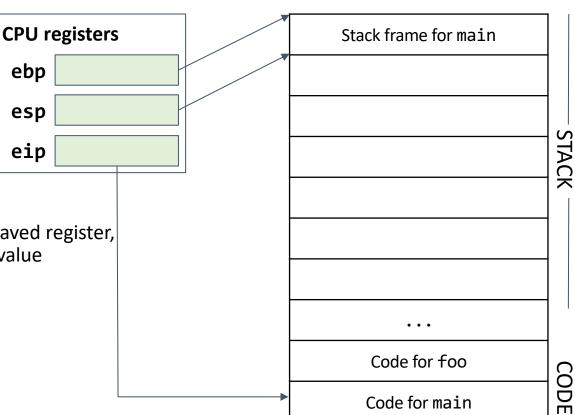
- Every time we call a func.,
 a new stack frame must be created
- If the func returns, the stack frame must be discarded
- Each stack frame needs to have space for local variables
- Require to design how to pass arguments to functions using the stack



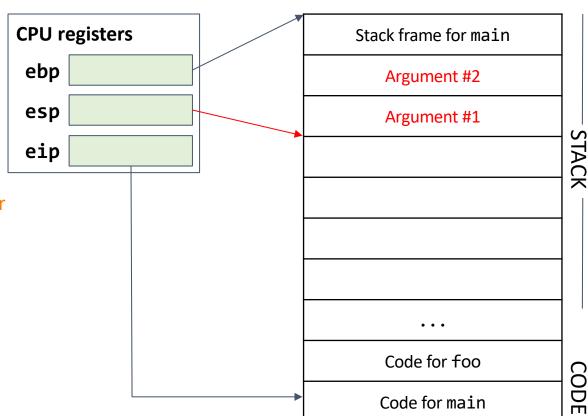
- Stack design
 - Example: **foo** called
 - The ebp and esp registers should adjust to give us a stack frame for foo with the correct size
 - The eip register should adjust to let us execute the instructions for foo



- Stack design
 - Example: foo returns
 - The stack should look exactly like it did before foo was called
 - Require to design how to pass arguments to functions using the stack
 - Rule: if we ever overwrite a saved register, we should remember its old value by putting it on the stack

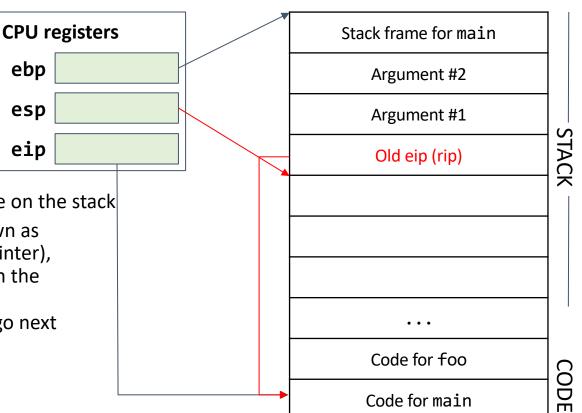


- Store arguments
 - Push the arguments onto the stack
 - Remember to adjust esp to point to the new lowest value on the stack
 - Arguments are added to the stack in reverse order



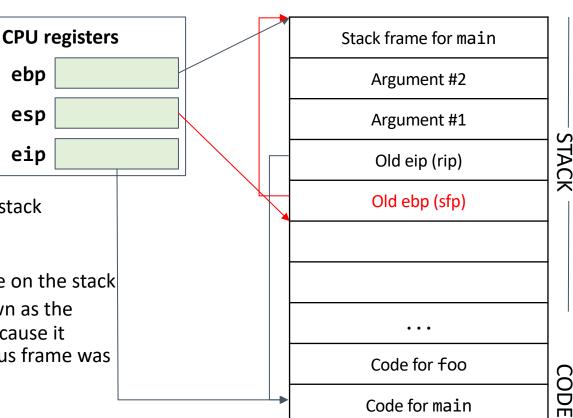
Remember eip

- Push the current value of eip on the stack
- This tells us what code to execute next after the function returns
- Remember to adjust esp to point to the new lowest value on the stack
- This value is sometimes known as the rip (return instruction pointer), because if we're finished with the function, this pointer tells us where in the instructions to go next

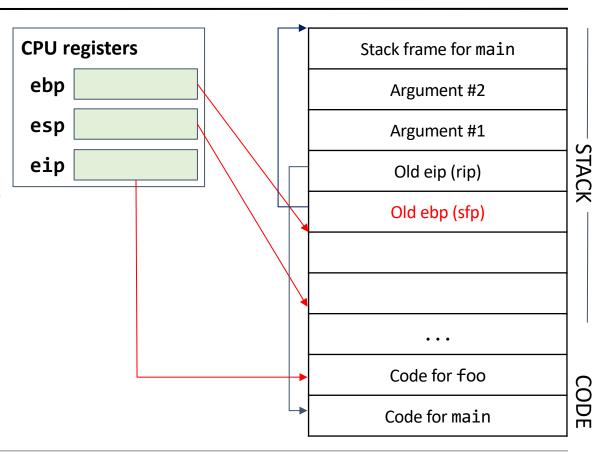


Remember ebp

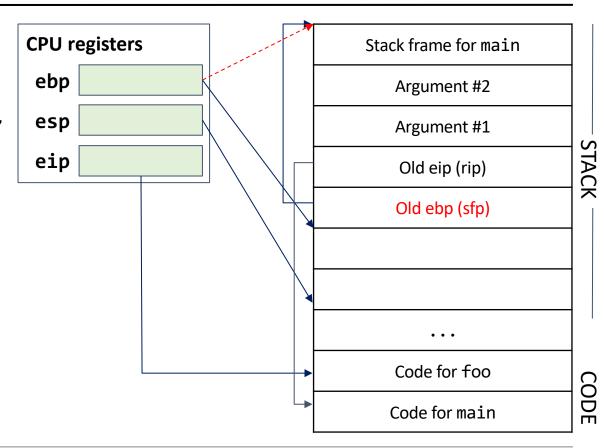
- Push the current value of ebp on the stack.
- This will let us restore the top of the previous stack frame when we return
- Note: ebp is a saved register;
 we store its old value on the stack
 before overwriting it
- Remember to adjust esp to point to the new lowest value on the stack
- This value is sometimes known as the sfp (saved frame pointer), because it reminds us where the previous frame was



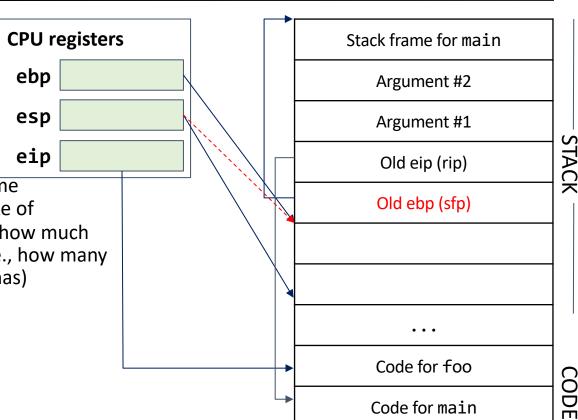
- Adjust the stack frame
 - Update all 3 registers
 - We can safely do this as we've just saved the old values of ebp and eip
 - Note: esp will always be the bottom of the stack, so there's no need to save it



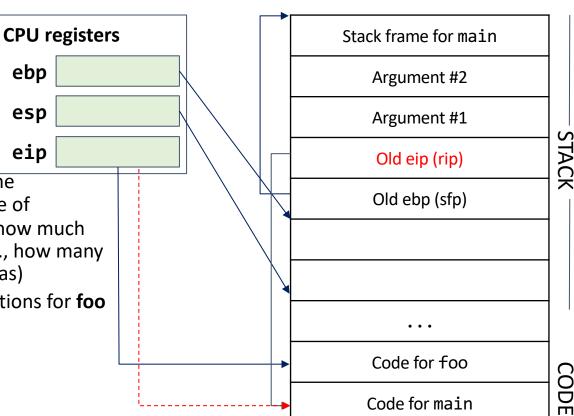
- Adjust the stack frame
 - Update all 3 registers
 - ebp now points to the top of the current stack frame, which is always the sfp



- Adjust the stack frame
 - Update all 3 registers
 - ebp now points to the top of the current stack frame, which is always the sfp
 - **esp** now points to the bottom of the current stack frame (the compiler decides the size of the stack frame by checking how much space the function needs, i.e., how many local variables the function has)

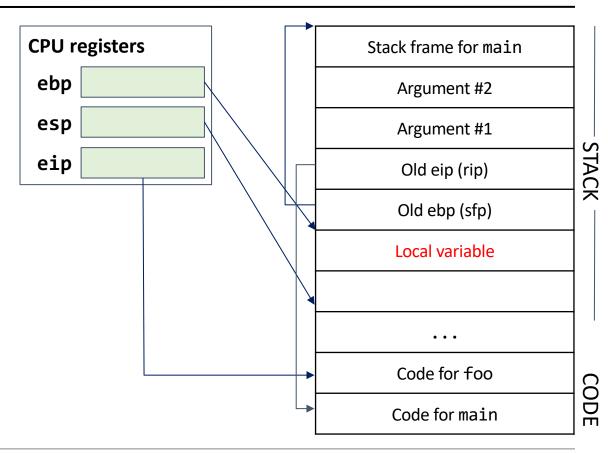


- Adjust the stack frame
 - Update all 3 registers
 - ebp now points to the top of the current stack frame, which is always the sfp
 - **esp** now points to the bottom of the current stack frame (the compiler decides the size of the stack frame by checking how much space the function needs, i.e., how many local variables the function has)
 - eip now points to the instructions for foo

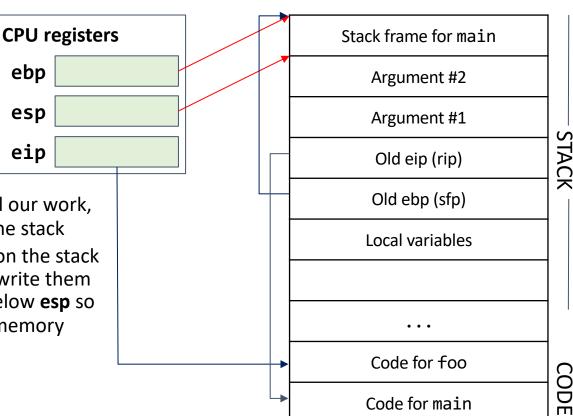


Run the function

- Now the stack frame is ready to do whatever the function instructions are
- Any local variables will be stored to the stack now



- Return from the function
 - Put all 3 registers back where they were before
 - Use the addresses stored in rip and sfp to restore eip and ebp to their old values
 - esp naturally moves back to its old place as we undo all our work, which is popping values off the stack
 - Note: the values we pushed on the stack are still there (we don't overwrite them to save time), but they are below esp so they cannot be accessed by memory



- Steps of a function call
 - Push arguments on the stack
 - Push old eip (rip) on the stack
 - Push old ebp (sfp) on the stack
 - Adjust the stack frame
 - Execute the function
 - Restore everything

 Push arguments on the stack main Push old eip (rip) on the stack Move eip - Push old ebp (sfp) on the stack Move ebp Move esp foo Execute the function Move esp Restore old ebp (sfp) Restore old eip (rip) main Remove arguments from stack



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```
void caller(void) {
    callee(1, 2);
}
```

- Illustration
 - The code above snippets are the C functions
 - On the right, the code compiled into x86 assembly

```
int callee(int a, int b) {
    int local;
   return 42;
caller:
     push $2
     push $1
     call callee
     add $8, %esp
     . . .
callee:
     push %ebp
     mov %esp, %ebp
     sub $4, %esp
     mov $42, %eax
     mov %ebp, %esp
     pop %ebp
     ret
```



```
void caller(void) {
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- Illustration
 - The code above snippets are the C functions
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 - The instruction just executed in red
 - The EIP points to the address of the next instruction

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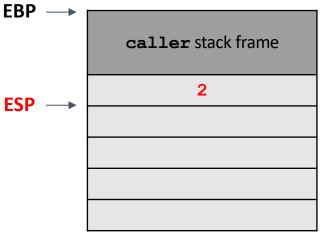
Illustration

- The code above snippets are the C functions
- On the right, the code compiled into x86 assembly
- The instruction just executed in red
- The **EIP** points to the address of the next instruction
- The below is the diagram of the stack (each row represents a word, 4-byte)

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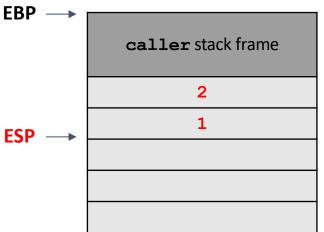
- Illustration
 - Push the arguments to the stack
 - The push instruction decrements the ESP to make space on the stack
 - The arguments are pushed in reverse order



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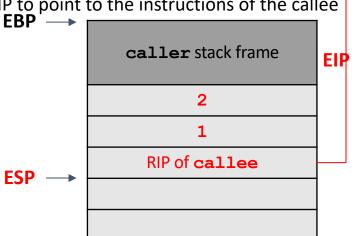
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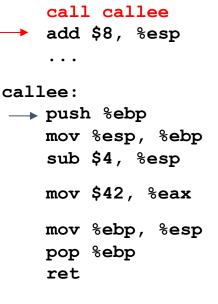
push \$2

push \$1

caller:

- Illustration
 - Push old EIP (RIP) on the stack
 - Move EIP
 - The call instruction does 2 things
 - It first pushes the current value of EIP on the stack
 - The saved EIP value on the stack is called the RIP
 - It also changes EIP to point to the instructions of the callee



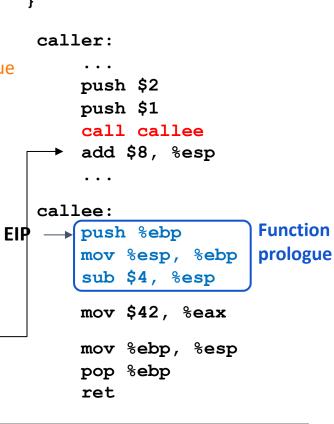


```
void caller(void) {
    callee(1, 2);
}
```

Illustration

Oregon State

- The next 3 steps set up a stack frame for the callee function
- These instructions are sometimes called the function prologue because they appear at the start of every function



int callee(int a, int b) {

int local;

return 42;

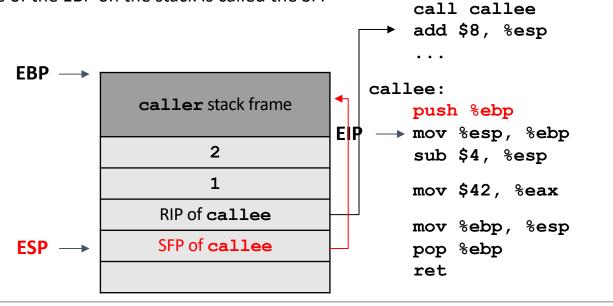
- void caller(void) { callee(1, 2);
- int callee(int a, int b) { int local; return 42;

caller:

push \$2

push \$1

- Illustration
 - Push old EBP (SFP) on the stack
 - Restore the value of the EBP when returning, so we push the current value of the EBP on the stack
 - The saved value of the EBP on the stack is called the SFP



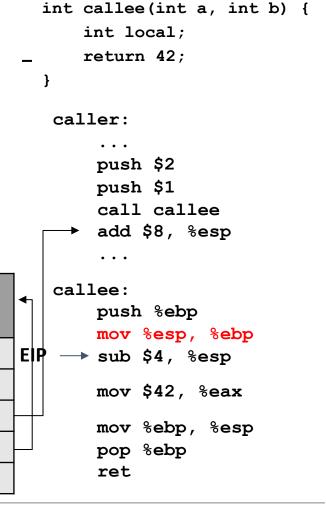
void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

caller stack frame

RIP of callee

SFP of callee

- Illustration
 - Move EBP
 - The instruction moves the EBP down to where ESP is



EBP ESP →

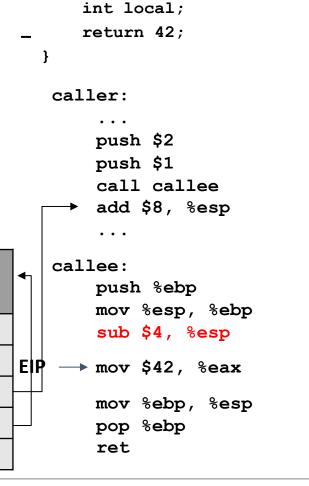
void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

caller stack frame

RIP of callee

SFP of callee

- Illustration
 - Move ESP
 - The instruction moves the ESP down to create a new stack frame

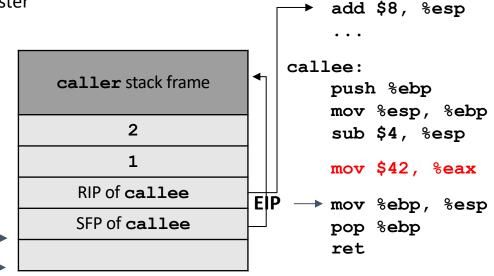


int callee(int a, int b) {

EBP →

void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

- Illustration
 - Run the function
 - The stack frame is set up
 - The function can run
 - This function just returns 42, so we put 42 in the EAX register



EBP

ESP

int callee(int a, int b) {

int local;

return 42;

push \$2

push \$1

call callee

caller:

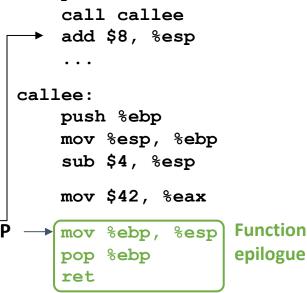
- void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
 }
- int callee(int a, int b) {
 int local;
 return 42;

caller:

push \$2

push \$1

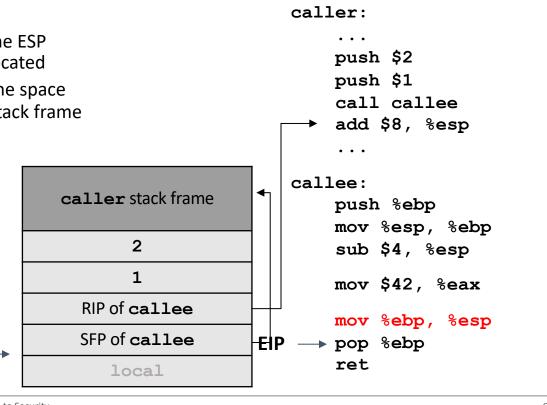
- Illustration
 - The next 3 steps restore the caller's stack frame
 - These instructions are sometimes called the function epilogue, because they appear at the end of every function
 - Sometimes the mov and pop instructions are replaced with the leave and ret instruction



caller stack frame

void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

- Illustration
 - Move ESP
 - This instruction moves the ESP up to where the EBP is located
 - This effectively deletes the space allocated for the callee stack frame



int callee(int a, int b) {

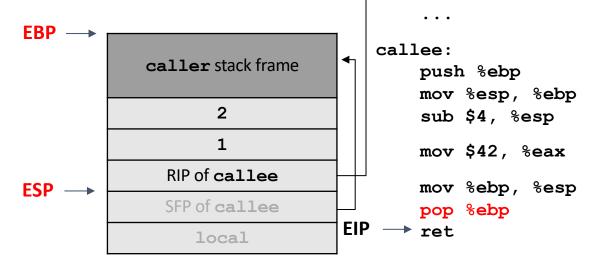
int local;

return 42;

EBP ESP

void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

- Illustration
 - Pop (restore) old EBP (SFP)
 - The pop instruction puts the SFP (saved EBP) back in EBP
 - It also increments ESP to delete the popped SFP from the stack



int callee(int a, int b) {

int local;

return 42;

push \$2

push \$1

call callee

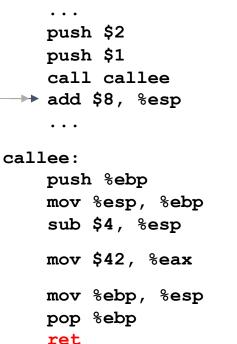
add \$8, %esp

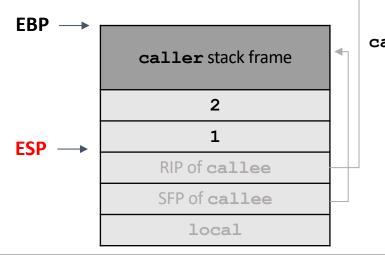
caller:

- void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
 }
- int callee(int a, int b) {
 int local;
 return 42;

caller:

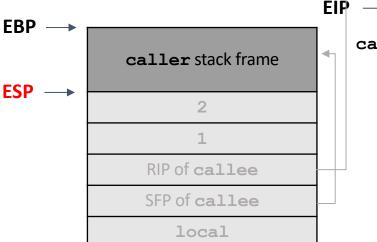
- Illustration
 - Pop (restore) old EBP (SFP)
 - The ret instruction acts like pop %eip
 - It puts the next value on the stack (the RIP) into the EIP, which returns program execution to the caller
 - It increases ESP to delete the popped RIP from the stack EIP.





void caller(void) {
 callee(1, 2);
}

- Illustration
 - Remove arguments from stack
 - Back in the caller, we increment ESP to delete the arguments from the stack
 - The stack has returned to its original state before the function call



```
int callee(int a, int b) {
   int local;
   return 42;
caller:
     push $2
     push $1
     call callee
     add $8, %esp
callee:
     push %ebp
     mov %esp, %ebp
     sub $4, %esp
     mov $42, %eax
     mov %ebp, %esp
     pop %ebp
     ret
```

TOPICS FOR TODAY

- Preliminaries (x86 assembly and call stack)
 - C program
 - Memory layout
 - x86 architecture
 - Stack layout
 - Calling convention
 - x86 calling convention design
 - x86 calling convention example



Thank You!

Tu/Th 4:00 – 5:50 PM

Sanghyun Hong

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