

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++)</pre>
       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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We explore these two functions in the next set of slides, looking at how arguments and local variables are stored on the stack. Note that the approach of storing arguments on the stack is used on the IA32 architecture, and on the x86-64 architecture when the – O0 optimization flag (meaning no optimization) is given to gcc.

# 

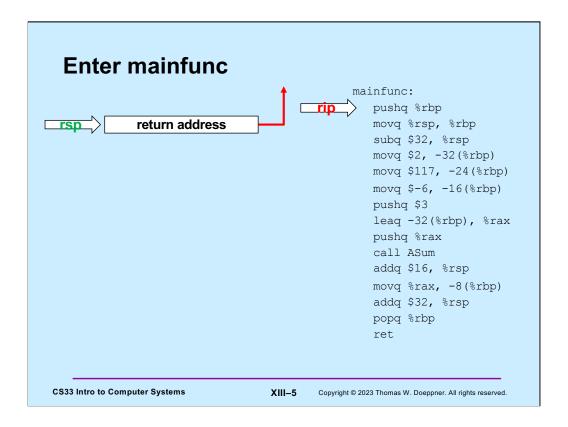
Here we have compiled code for **mainfunc**. We'll work through this in detail in upcoming slides.

A function's stack frame is that part of the stack that holds its arguments, local variables, etc. In this example code, register %rbp points to a known location towards the beginning of the stack frame so that the arguments and local variables are located as offsets from what %rbp points to.

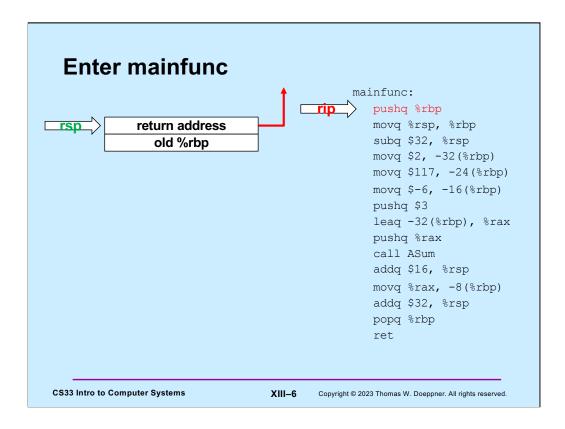
Note, as will be explained, this is not what one would see when compiling it with normal gcc options, which have arguments being passed via registers.

# 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 Asum: # save old %rbp # set %rbp to point to stack frame # in %rcx # sum in %rax # copy arg 1 (array) into %rdx # i < size? ige done addq (%rdx,%rcx,8), %rax # sum += a[i] incq %rcx # i++ ja loop done: popq %rbp ret # pop and restore %rbp ret

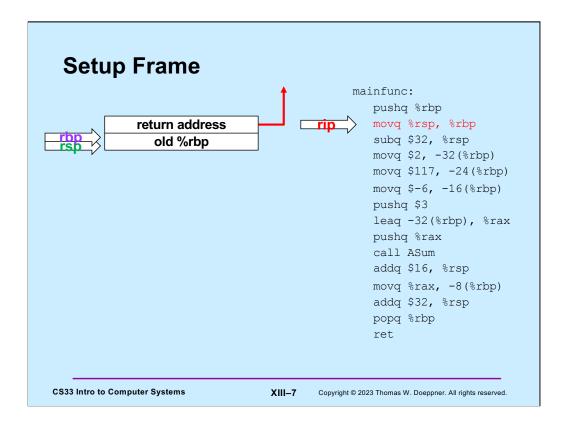
And here is the compiled code for **ASum**. The same caveats given for the previous slide apply to this one as well.



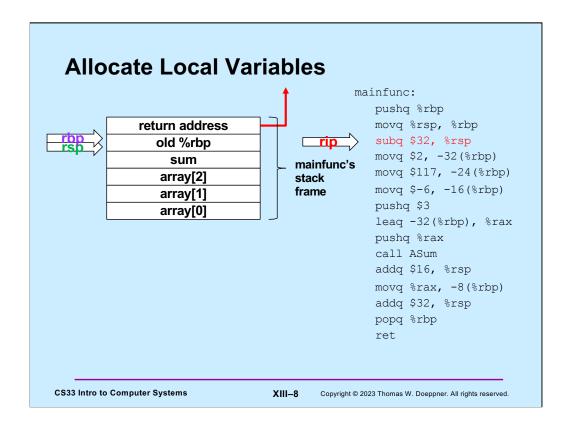
On entry to **mainfunc**, %rsp points to the caller's return address.



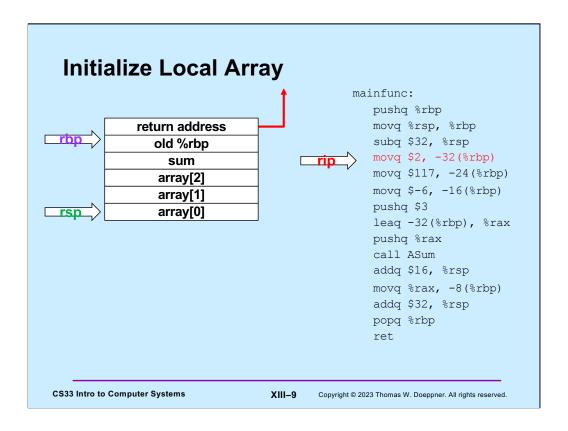
The first thing done by **mainfunc** is to save the caller's %rbp by pushing it onto the stack.



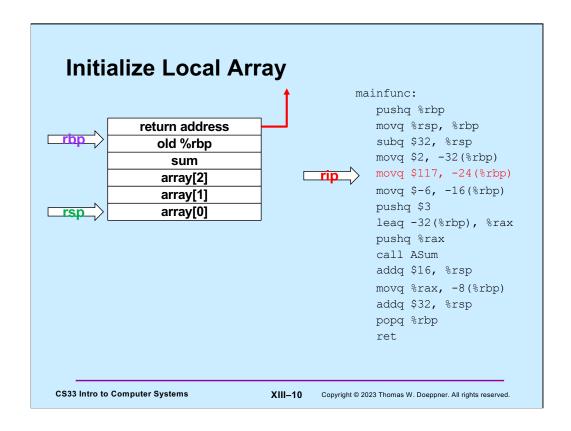
We then set up the new value of %rbp, so that it points to near the beginning of mainfunc's stack frame.

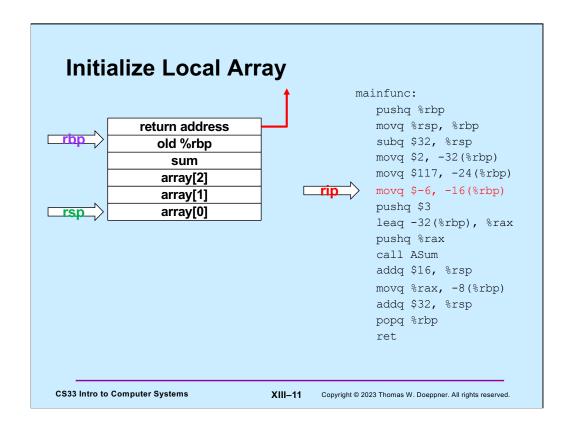


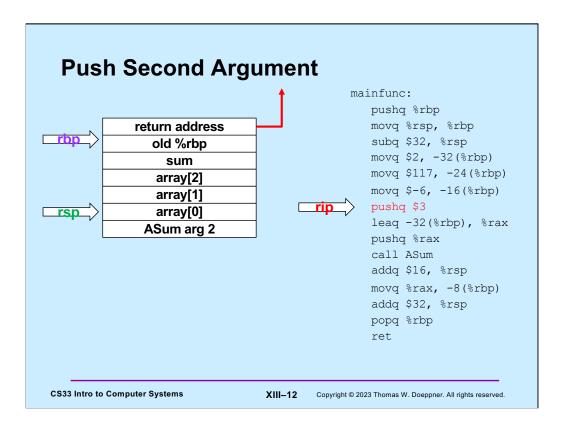
Next, space for **mainfunc**'s local variables is allocated on the stack by decrementing %rsp by their total size (32 bytes). At this point we have **mainfunc**'s stack frame in place.



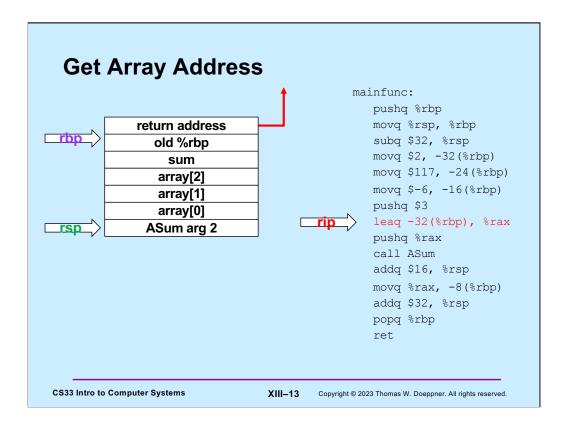
**ASum** now initializes the stack space containing its local variables.



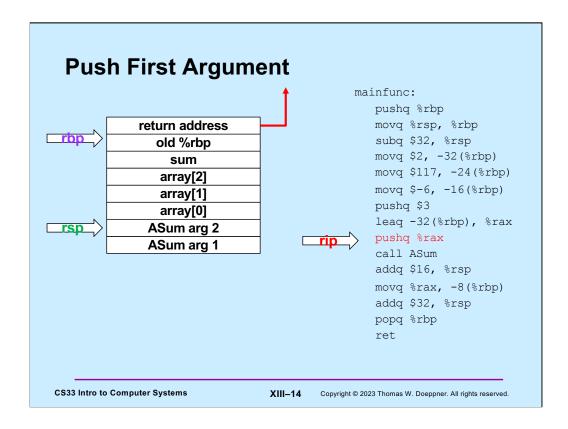




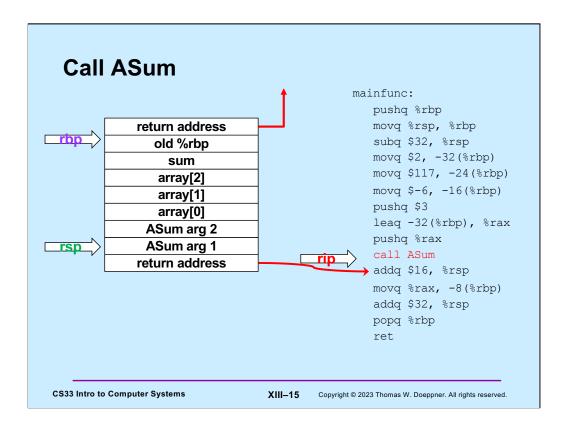
The second argument (3) to **ASum** is pushed onto the stack.



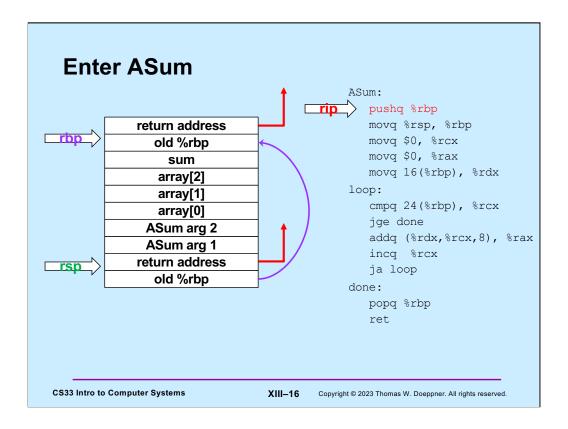
In preparation for pushing the first argument to **ASum** onto the stack, the address of the array is put into %rax.



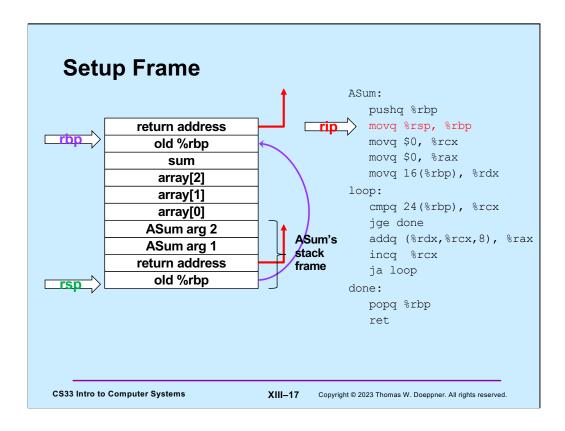
And finally, the address of the array is pushed onto the stack as **ASum**'s first argument.



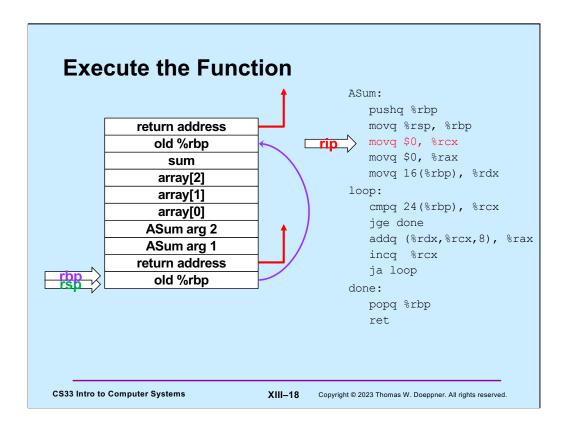
mainfunc now calls **ASum**, pushing its return address onto the stack.



As on entry to **mainfunc**, %rbp is saved by pushing it onto the stack.



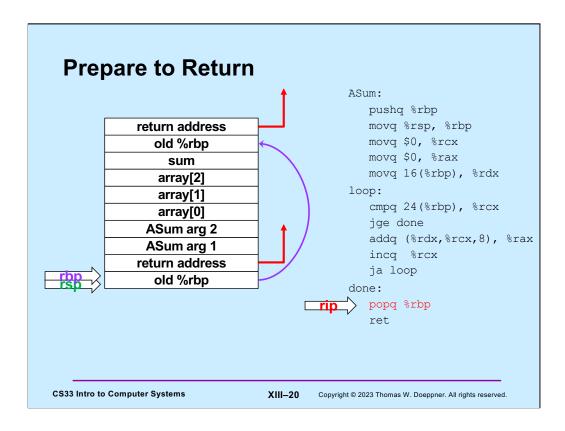
%rbp is now modified to point into **ASum**'s stack frame.



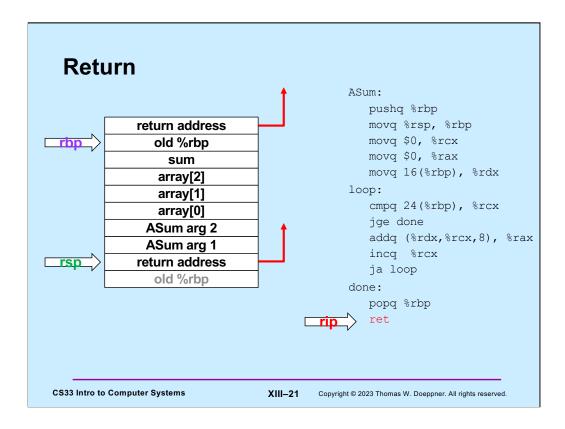
**ASum**'s instructions are now executed, summing the contents of its first argument and storing the result in %rax.

```
Quiz 1
                                           pushq %rbp
     What's at 16(%rbp) (after
                                            movq %rsp, %rbp
     the second instruction is
                                            movq $0, %rcx
                                             movq $0, %rax
     executed)?
                                             movq 16(%rbp), %rdx
                                          loop:
                                             cmpq 24(%rbp), %rcx
     a) a local variable
                                             jge done
     b) the first argument to
                                             addq (%rdx,%rcx,8), %rax
        ASum
                                             incq %rcx
                                             ja loop
     c) the second argument
                                          done:
        to ASum
                                              popq %rbp
     d) something else
                                             ret
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```

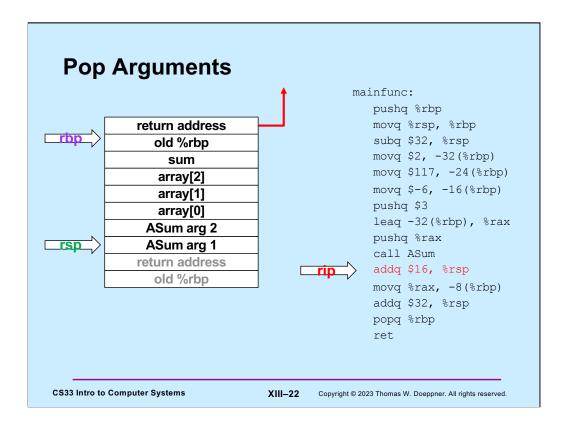
Recall that when the function was entered, %rsp pointed to the return address (on the stack). It now points to something that's 8 bytes below that. Also recall that arguments to a function are pushed onto the stack in reverse order.



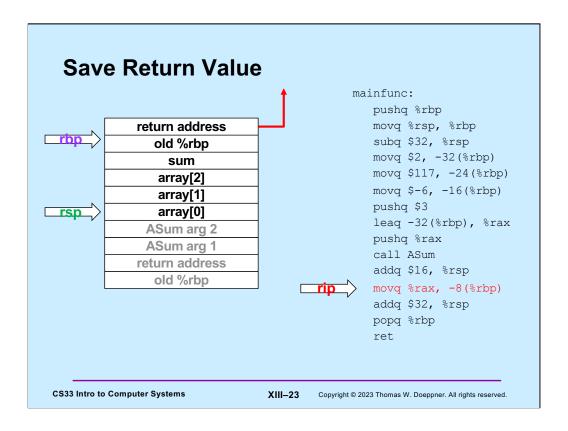
In preparation for returning to its caller, **ASum** restores the previous value of %rbp by popping it off the stack.



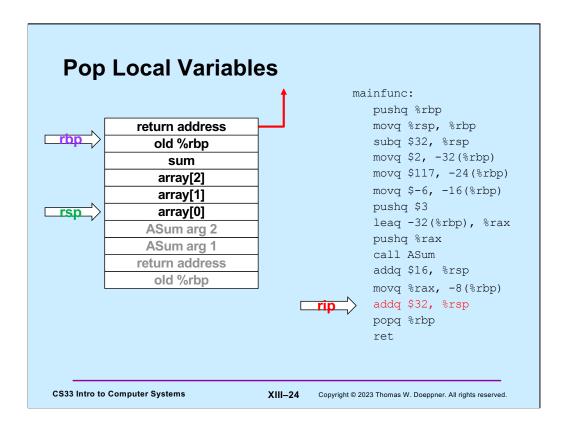
**ASum** returns by popping the return address off the stack and into %rip, so that execution resumes in its caller (**mainfunc**).



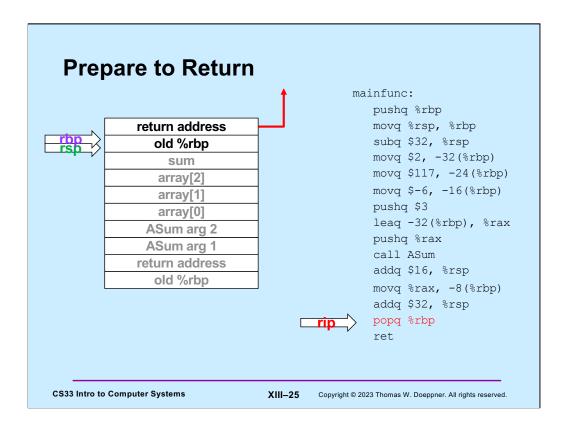
**mainfunc** no longer needs the arguments it had pushed onto the stack for **ASum**, so it pops them off the stack by adding their total size to %rsp.



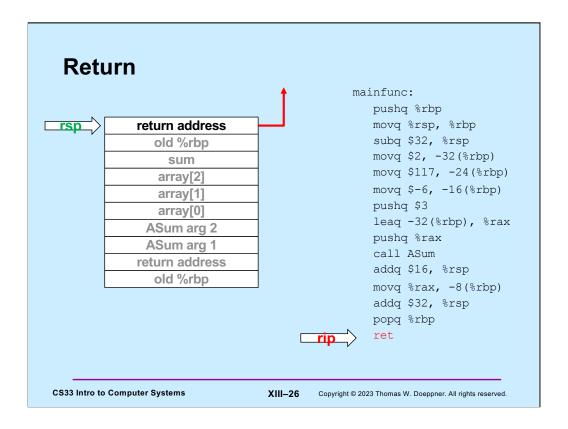
The value returned by **ASum** (in %rax) is copied into the local variable sum (which is in **mainfunc**'s stack frame).



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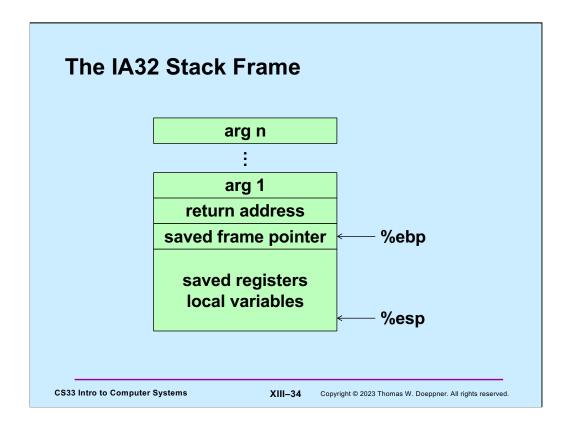
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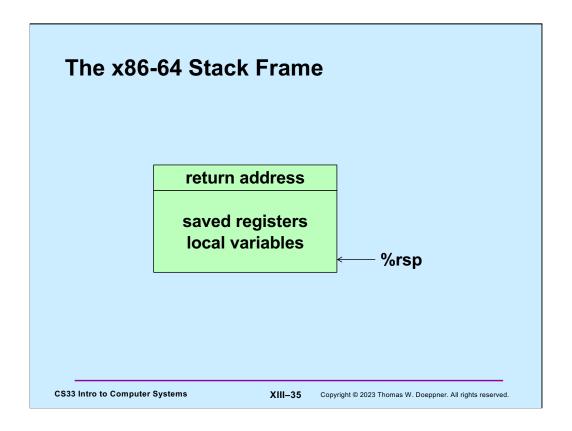
If one gives gcc the -O0 flag (which turns off all optimization) when compiling, the base pointer (%rbp) will be used as in IA32: it is set to point to the stack frame and the arguments are copied from the registers into the stack frame. This clearly slows down the execution of the function, but makes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

%rax	Return value	%r8	Argument #5
%rbx	Callee saved	%r9	Argument #6
%rcx	Argument #4	%r10	Caller saved
%rdx	Argument #3	8 <b>r</b> 11	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

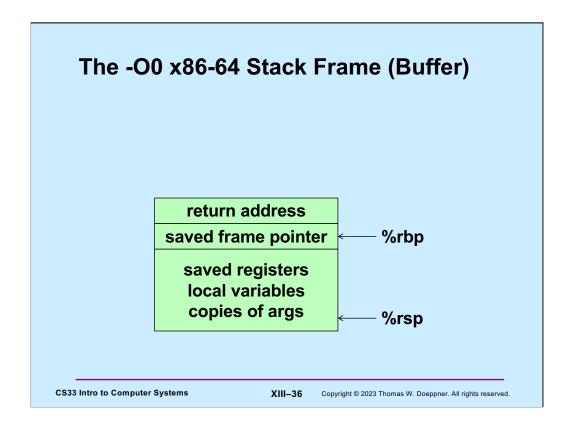
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Here, again, is the IA32 stack frame. Recall that arguments are at positive offsets from %ebp, while local variables are at negative offsets.



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 -O0 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 2

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;
}
```

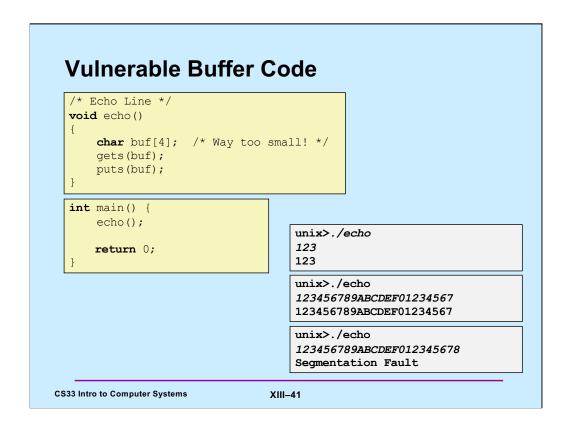
- no way to specify limit on number of characters to read
- Similar problems with other library functions
  - strcpy, strcat: copy strings of arbitrary length
  - scanf, fscanf, sscanf, when given %s conversion specification

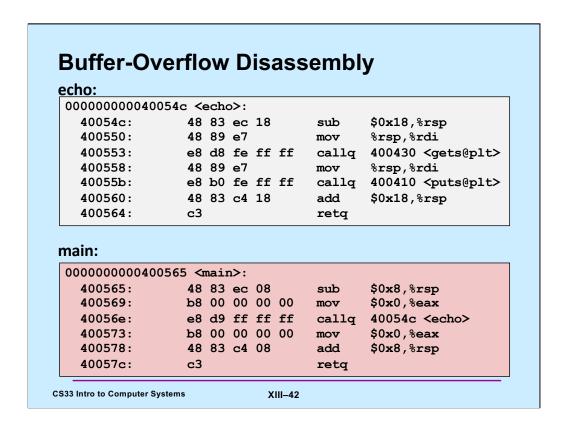
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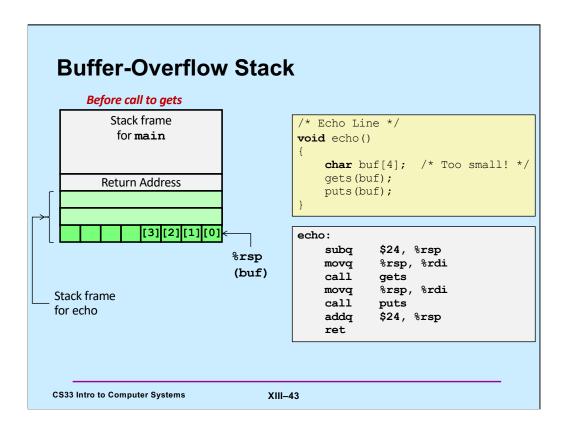
The function getchar returns the next character to be typed in. If getchar returns EOF (which is coded as a byte containing all ones – not a coding of any valid ASCII character, but -1 if the byte is interpreted as a signed integer).

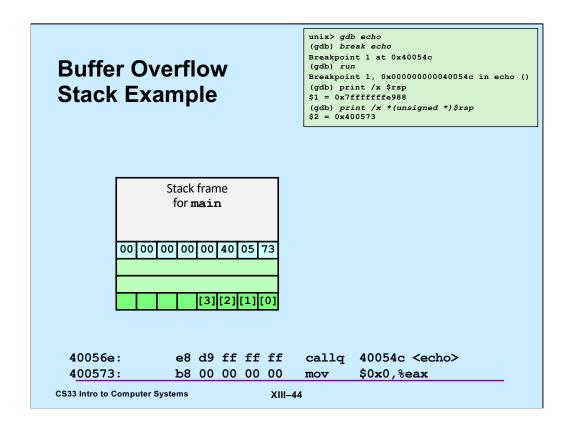




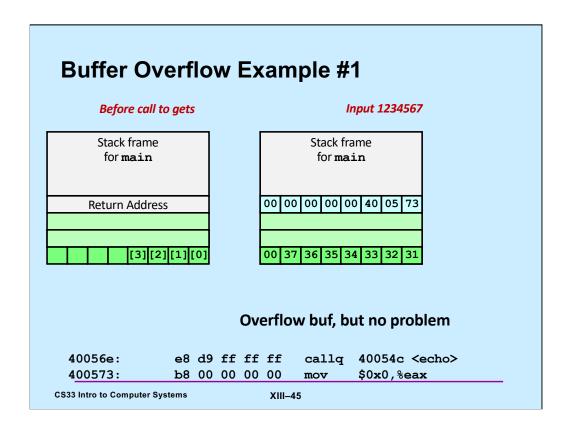
Note that 24 bytes are allocated on the stack for **buf**, rather than the 4 specified in the C code. This is an optimization having to do with the alignment of the stack pointer, a subject we will discuss in an upcoming lecture.

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.

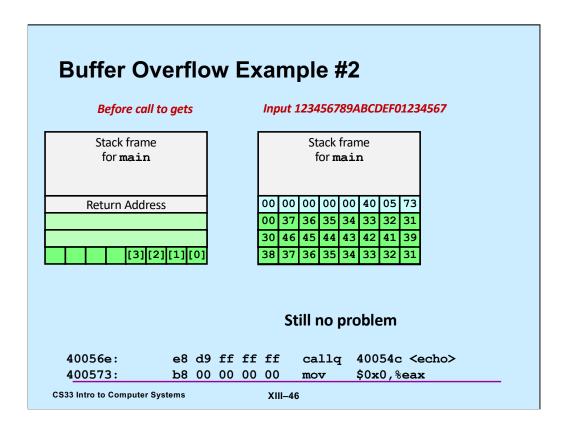


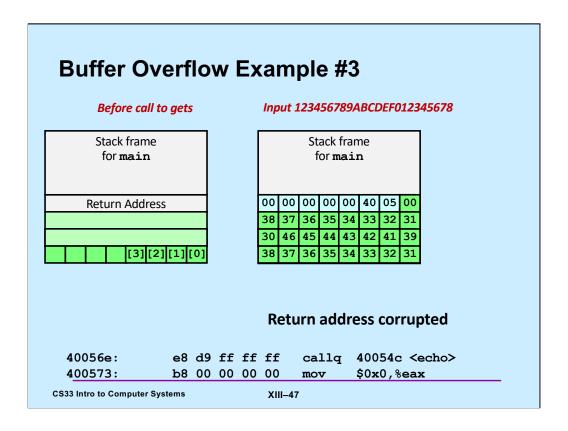


Within gdb, the second print shows the 4-byte value at the end of the stack (i.e., pointed to by %rsp), interpreting it as an unsigned value. This is the return address, used by echo when it returns to main. What's in green will be the memory that will be allocated on the stack for buf.



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);
}
```

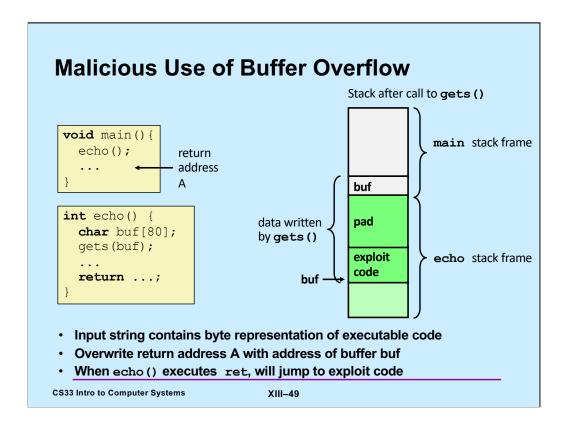
- · Use library functions that limit string lengths
  - fgets instead of gets
  - strncpy instead of strcpy
  - don't use scanf with %s conversion specification
    - » use fgets to read the string
    - » or use %ns where n is a suitable integer

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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).

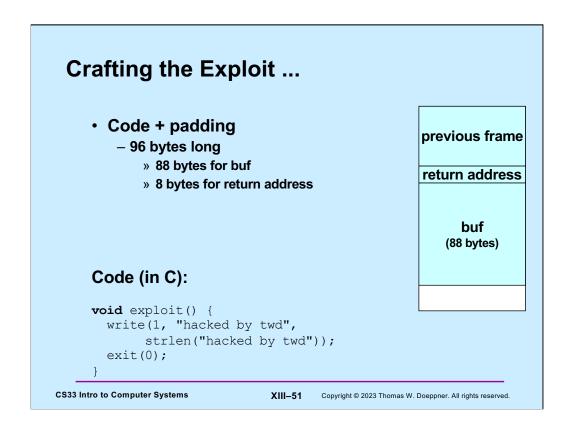


```
int main() {
          char buf[80];
                                                 previous frame
          gets (buf);
         puts(buf);
                                                 return address
         return 0;
      }
                                                     Exploit
main:
  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 3

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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