# Hacking in C 2020

The C programming language Thom Wiggers



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# The C programming language

- Invented by Dennis Ritchie in 1972–1973
- Not one of the first programming languages: ALGOL for example is older.
  - Another predecessor is B.
- Closely tied to the development of the Unix operating system
- Unix and Linux are mostly written in C
- Compilers are widely available for many, many, many platforms
- Still in development: latest release of standard is C18. Popular versions are C99 and C11.
- Many compilers implement extensions, leading to versions such as gnu18, gnu11.
- Default version in GCC gnu11



# Programming for hardware

- Initially C was co-developed with Unix
- Unix is an operating system: main job is managing hardware
- C was used to replace the assembly code and implement new sofware for Unix
- Writing code in assembly:
  - Almost no abstraction
  - Full control
  - No types, no bounds checking: everything is just bytes to the CPU
  - Direct access to CPU and memory
  - Choice of instructions, register allocation left to programmer
  - Need to do everything from scratch for different CPUs
  - If a microarchitecture is released with new features, may need to re-implement parts of the code



## Comparing C to assembly code

- C takes away some control from the programmer
- C is portable (in theory)
  - In practice, different compilers may not be fully compatible (Microsoft vs GCC)
  - You need to stay away from hardware-specific features and hardware-specific assumptions
  - You need to stay away from implementation-defined behaviour (turn on at least -pedantic on GCC)
- Compiler can translate C code to the target CPU
- Compiler can optimize code for you, for the target microarchitecture
- C still gives raw access to memory
- Gives you types to detect some errors, but lets you convert between any of them, often even implicitly.



# Comparing C to C++

- C++ was originally developed from C
- C++ is not a strict superset of C. int \*x = malloc(sizeof(int) \*10); is valid C, but not C++! In C++ you will need to cast the void\* pointer (but you should use new in C++).
- It is easy to write some code in C and then call it from C++ code, however.
  - Commonly used when high-performance code is written in C
     and a nice-to-use wrapper is written in C++.
  - Not restricted to C++, many languages have such a foreign function interface to link to libraries compiled from C.
  - For example: Numpy (Python) implements many core maths operations in C for performance reasons.



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# Syntax and semantics

#### Syntax of a programming language

- Spelling and grammar rules
- Defines the language of valid programs
- Syntax errors are caught by the compiler
- Classical example: forget a; at the end of a line

#### Semantics of a programming language

- Defines the meaning of a valid program
- In many languages semantics are fully specified
- Runtime errors (exceptions) are part of the semantics
- C is not fully specified!



# Implementation-defined behaviour

- Some behaviour is unspecified by the standard and was left to be specified by the compiler.
- Reason: simplify compiler implementation and allow compilers to optimize things better.
- Often such behaviour is also specific to the hardware that you're running the software on
- Examples:
  - Order of subexpression evaluation: f(g(), h()).
  - Sizes of types (more later)
  - Signedness of char
  - Number of bits in a byte
- For most of this course, we assume GCC 7+ on a 64-bit AMD64 cpu.

#### Undefined behaviour

- Certain specific actions are defined as undefined behaviour (UB)
- When a program reaches UB, one or more of the following may happen
  - Crash every time
  - Crash 0.01% of the time.
  - Crash not when you test it, but only you use it as a library
  - Delete everything on your hard drive
  - Murder some puppies
  - Light your house on fire
  - All of the above, and still give the right result
- The existence of UB anywhere in your program makes the entire thing meaningless!
  - Reason: compilers make assumptions based on it *not* existing, which may change the meaning of your program
- Often UB leads to exploitable security problems.



# Examples of undefined behaviour

- Accessing memory out of bounds
- Reading uninitialized memory
- Division by zero
- Dereferencing a null pointer
- Signed integer overflow (INT\_MAX +1)
- Left-shifting a signed integer ((-42) << 3)</li>
- Shifting by more than the size of the type (char x = 1; 1 << 100;)</li>
- Returning nothing from a non-void function (int f() {})

Compilers can find some of these problems, but for weird reasons, those warnings are often switched off by default! Make sure you enable -Wall -Wextra when you compile code.

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#### **Values**

- A program typically applies operations to values (add, sub, mul)
- In assembly, you need to carefully manage where you store values
  - Limited number of registers, often necessary to spill to stack
- The compiler takes care of that for you in higher-level languages
- When calling a function void  $f(int x) \{ x \neq 10; \}$  as f(y) you pass it the value of y.
  - this is called call-by-value
  - The compiler copies x if necessary
  - Modifying the passed value in f won't change it outside the function: y=10; f(y); printf("y = %d\n", y); will still print 10.

#### **Addresses**

- You can get the address of a variable using the & operator:
   int a; &a
- You then obtain a pointer to a
- A pointer to a type is denoted as type\*, e.g. int\*, char\*.

We will return to pointers later

### **Types**

- The hardware only understands memory as a bunch of bytes that it can perform certain operations on
- Bytes are sets of 8 bits
- For writing software, other types are helpful to help determine semantics
  - it's helpful that a compiler gives an error when you call strlen(3).
- You can program without really understanding how these types map to bytes.
- But we can have more fun if we do know how it works



#### char

- The most elementary data type
- Almost anywhere exactly 1 byte (required by POSIX)
- Can be used to store characters: char a = '2';
- But char is an 8-bit integer type
- We can just assign any 8-bit integer value to char types.

```
char a = '2';
char b = 2;
char c = 50;
```

- In fact, a == c because ASCII character '2' is 50.
- Writing 'A' + 3 is perfectly valid and will result in 'D'.

## Tricky char

How many times will the following line be printed?

```
for (char i = 42; i >= 0; i--) {
  printf("Crypto stands for cryptography");
}
```

- Trick question! It is compiler-defined if char is signed (-128–127) or unsigned (0–255).
- On amd64, char is signed, so it will terminate.
- On Aarch64 (64-bit ARMv8), char is unsigned, so it will loop forever.
- Always write signed char or unsigned char in portable software.

## Integral types

- Other types that are important:
  - short: at least two bytes
  - int: typically 4 bytes (but sometimes only two bytes!)
  - long: either 4 bytes or 8 bytes (different between Linux and Windows!)
  - long long: 8 bytes
- Each of these are in signed (default) and unsigned variants
- Find the size of a type: printf("%zu\n", sizeof(int));
- We can also do this via variable: int x; sizeof(x);
- We can write integer literals as:
  - Decimal: 255
  - Octal: 0377 (prefix 0)
  - Hexadecimal: 0xFF (prefix 0x)



# Other integer types

- There is a special integer type to indicate sizes: size\_t
- For example returned by sizeof, expected as argument by malloc
- Pointers also have a specific size, 8 bytes on amd64

## Better integer types

- All those varying byte sizes of int et al. make it hard to write efficient portable code
- Solution: use fixed-size integer types defined by stdint.h
  - uint8\_t is an 8-bit unsigned integer
  - int8\_t is an 8-bit signed integer
  - uint16\_t is a 16-bit unsigned integer
  - ...
  - int64\_t is a 64-bit signed integer



# Floating-point and complex values

- C also defines 3 "real" types:
  - float: usually 32-bit IEEE 754 "single-precision" floats
  - double: usually 64-bit IEEE 754 "double-precision" floats
  - long double:: usually 80-bit "extended precision" floats
- Corresponding "complex" types (need to include complex.h)
- This course: not much float hacking
- However, this is fun, see "What every computer scientist should know about floating point arithmetic"

```
www.itu.dk/~sestoft/bachelor/IEEE754_article.pdf
```

Small example:

```
double a; /* assume IEEE 754 standard */
// snip
a += 6755399441055744;
a -= 6755399441055744;
```

- What does this code do to a?
- Answer: it rounds a according to the currently set rounding mode



## Excursion: printf

printf is a function that *print*s something according to a *f*ormat string.

```
#include <stdio.h>
printf("%d", a); /* prints signed integers in decimal */
printf("%u", b); /* prints unsigned integers in decimal */
printf("%x", c); /* prints integers in hexadecimal */
printf("%o", c); /* prints integers in octal */
printf("%lu", d); /* prints long unsigned integer in decimal */
printf("%llu", d); /* prints long long unsigned integer in decimal
printf("%p", &d); /* prints pointers (in hexadecimal) */
printf("%f", e); /* prints single-precision floats */
printf("%lf", e); /* prints double-precision floats */
printf("%llf", e); /* prints extended-precision floats */
printf("%zu", f); /* prints a size_t as unsigned decimal*/
printf("%" PRIu8, g); /* prints a uint8_t */
printf("%" PRIu64, h); /* prints a uint64_t */
printf("%" PRId64, i); /* prints a int64_t */
printf("%" PRIx64, i); /* prints a (u)int64_t as hex */
```

## Implicit type conversion

- Sometimes we want to evaluate expressions involving different types
- Example:

```
float pi, r, circ;
pi = 3.14159265;
circ = 2*pi*r;
```

- C uses complex rules to implicitly convert types
- Often these rules are perfectly intuitive:
  - Convert "less precise" type to more precise type, preserve values
  - Compute modulo 2<sup>16</sup>, when casting from uint32\_t to uint16\_t
- However, these rules can be rather counterintuitive:

```
unsigned int a = 1;
int b = -1;
if(b < a) printf("all good\n");
else printf("WTF?\n");</pre>
```



## Explicit casts

- Sometimes we need to convert explicitly
- Example: multiply two (32-bit) integers:

```
uint32_t a,b;
...
uint32_t r = a*b;
```

- By "default", result of a\*b has 32-bits; upper 32 bits are "lost"
- Fix by casting one (or both) factors:

```
uint64_t r = (uint64_t)a*b;
```

Can also use this to, e.g., truncate floats:

```
float a = 3.14159265;
float c = (int) a;
printf("%f\n", trunc(a));
printf("%f\n", c);
```

Careful, this does not generally work (undefined behavior ahead)!



# A small quiz

### What do you think this program will print?

```
unsigned char x = 128;
signed char y = x;
printf("The value of y is %d\n", y);
```

(Obviously, the answer is "undefined behavior" - it's C after all)

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## Two's complement

- Can represent a signed integer as "sign + absolute value"
- Disadvantage: zero has two representations (0 and -0)
- Other idea: flip all bits in a to obtain -a.
- This is known as "ones complement"
- Still: zero has two representations
- Much more common: two's complement
  - flip all bits in a
  - add 1
- Sanity test: a == -(-a)
- Range of k-bit signed integer:  $\{-2^{k-1}, \dots, 2^{k-1} 1\}$
- Example: signed (8-bit) byte:  $\{-128, \ldots, 127\}$
- Can use the same hardware for signed and unsigned addition

#### **Endianess**

- Let's consider the 32-bit integer 287454020 =0x11223344
- How would you put it into memory...,like this?:

```
    11
    22
    33
    44

    0x0...0
    0x0...1
    0x0...2
    0x0...3
```

How about like this?

```
| 44 | 33 | 22 | 11 |
| 0x0...0 | 0x0...1 | 0x0...2 | 0x0...3
```

• What do you find more intuitive?

# Endianess, let's try again

- Take 4-byte integer  $a = \sum_{i=0}^{3} a_i 2^{8i}$
- The a<sub>i</sub> are the bytes of a
- How would you put it into memory...,like this?:

Or would you rather have this?

• Again a quick poll: What do you find more intuitive?

## Endianess, the conclusion

- Least significant bytes at low addresses: little endian
- Most significant bytes at low addresses: big endian
- This is short for "little/big endian byte first"
- Most CPUs today use little endian
- Examples for big-endian CPUs:
  - Classic PowerPC
  - UltraSPARC
- ARM and POWER8 can switch endianess (is "bi-endian"); usually used little-endian
- The problem with little-endian intuition is just that we write left-to-right (but use Arabic numbers)
- Endianness wil become important again when we need to write memory addresses later



## Memory addresses

- On 32-bit x86 processors, addresses were 4 bytes.
- Current AMD64 processors support up to 2<sup>48</sup> bytes of memory (256TiB)
  - This means you need 6 bytes to represent 2<sup>48</sup> addresses
  - 8 Bytes are used for addresses though.
    - Upper 3 bytes are either in 0x000000...-0x00007f..., or 0xffff80...-0xfffffff....
    - On Linux, the first is userspace and the second is kernelspace
    - ► 0x000080...-0xfffff7f... are not used



## Back to pointers

We can print the address of a variable: int a = 4; /\* https://xkcd.com/221/ \*/

```
int* a_ptr = &a;
printf("The value of the variable a = %d\n", a);
printf("The address of the variable a = %p\n", &a);
printf("The value of the variable a_ptr = %p\n", a_ptr);
printf("The value pointed to by a_ptr = %d\n", *a_ptr);
Output:

The value of the variable a = 4
The address of the variable a = 0x7ffd1be9fb8c
The value of the variable a_ptr = 0x7ffd1be9fb8c
The value pointed to by a_ptr = 4
```

Variable a is stored very high in the user-space memory, because int a defines a stack variable.



## Heap addresses

We can print the address of a variable:

```
int* a_ptr = malloc(sizeof(int));
*a_ptr = 4;  /* https://xkcd.com/221/ */
printf("The value stored at a_ptr = %d\n", *a_ptr);
printf("The value of a_ptr = %p\n", a_ptr);
free(a_ptr);  /* need to manually manage heap */
Output:

The value a = 4
The addr &a = 0x55b899d552a0
```

a\_ptr is somewhere halfway user-space memory, as it is on the heap. Note that we have been writing \*a\_ptr to dereference the pointer, to get the value stored at the address!