Hacking in C

Exploring Stack and Heap Thom Wiggers





• Arrays



- Arrays
- Pointers



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 - Pointers to pointers



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- The horrible ways strings ruin your day
- Some bit of slide-karaoke about memory that wasn't prepared



This week

The stack Local variables The stack

The heap

Special memory segments

Wrapping up memory

Reading the stack

Extra content Memory quizzes Finding memory bugs



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Local variables

```
Imagine the following program
#include "headers.h"
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    int a = 3;
    int b = 4;
    int c = some_function();
    return 0;
}
int some function() {
    char arr[100] = {0};
    return 3;
}
```

How could we manage variables efficiently?



Local variables are:

• local to the function



- local to the function
 - they can't be accessed by other functions



- local to the function
 - they can't be accessed by other functions
- local to the function call



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 - If you call the function multiple times, each has its own copy of its state
 - This holds especially when you're calling it recursively
- Only exist during the function call



Let's turn every local variable into a global variable

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 - You'd possibly need lots and lots of space
- Clearly not an option



Assuming we don't know better, let's ask the memory manager for space each time we create a variable

• Requires setup code to be executed every function call for every variable



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There's such a manager for heap variables, but those are usually somewhat long-lived! We can do better for the local variables.





Realise that function calls are like a ladder

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- Going sideways is not possible (without multithreading)
- At the bottom of the ladder is **int** main()



• We use this behaviour to manage our local variables on the stack



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- When you call a function, also push those variables on top of the stack
- When that function returns, just pop off those variables from the stack and they're gone
- Only thing to keep track of: where is the top of the stack



Stack frames and the stack pointer



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high addresses Command-line arguments Stack before the function call stack frame of main() stack pointer \longrightarrow Heap low addresses







- Stack before the function call
- Caller (main) first puts arguments for func on the stack
- Caller pushes the **return address** onto the stack





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• So what's with the ???...?



low addresses



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So the other helpful uses of the stack:

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- † The first 4 (Windows) / 6 (rest) arguments are passed via registers on AMD64 for speed reasons



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- † The first 4 (Windows) / 6 (rest) arguments are passed via registers on AMD64 for speed reasons
- ‡ Returned via register on x64, ARM, ARMv8 and probably other platforms



Stack overflow

- You're probably aware of https://stackoverflow.com
- Named for running out of stack space: a stack overflow
- Limits set by:
 - Hardware
 - Operating system
- Get (set) limit on Linux via
 - ulimit -s (ulimit -s kb) on the shell (sets for the current shell)
 - getrlimit() (setrlimit()) in C



Common stack bugs

• Stack overflow caused by


- Stack overflow caused by
 - (infinite) recursion



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 - Creating too-large local variables



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- Writing beyond buffers may overwrite frame pointers or return addresses
 - Segmentation fault, if you overwrote with garbage
 - A hacked system, if you overwrote with the address of your attack code...



... how bad is "wrong" exactly?





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"On Thursday October 24, 2013, an Oklahoma court ruled against Toyota in a case of unintended acceleration that lead to the death of one the occupants. Central to the trial was the Engine Control Module's (ECM) firmware."



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"A litany of other faults were found in the code, including buffer overflow, unsafe casting, and race conditions between tasks."



Limitations of the stack

```
int* table_of(int num, int len) {
    int table[len];
    for (int i=0; i <= len; i++) {
        table[i] = i * num;
    }
    return table; /* an int[] can be used as an int* */
}
What happens if we call this function as follows?:
int *table3 = table_of(3,10);</pre>
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```
printf("5 times 3 is %d \n", table3[5]);
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- Obvious other limitation: size!





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The heap

- Think about the heap as a large piece of scrap paper
- We can request (large) continuous space on the piece of paper
- Note that "continuous" is easily ensured by virtual memory



The heap

- Think about the heap as a large piece of scrap paper
- We can request (large) continuous space on the piece of paper
- Note that "continuous" is easily ensured by virtual memory
- This space is accessible through a pointer
- Space remains valid across function calls
- Every function that "knows" a pointer to the space can use it



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- Remember that this is *not* the case in C++!
- Example of malloc usage:

int *x = malloc(10000 * sizeof(int));

• Request for space for 10 000 integers on the heap



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- Important to note: NULL is not the same as 0
- In boolean expressions, NULL evaluates to false
- These two lines have the same semantics: if(x == NULL) { printf("NULL\n"); } if(!x) { printf("NULL\n"); }



```
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int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
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 Could alternatively use boolean behavior of NULL: if(!table) exit(255);





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- When you don't need some allocated memory anymore, use free(x);
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- Can be super annoying to debug



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realloc

- Sometimes want to *expand* or *shrink* malloc'ed space
- Do this by using void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t new_size);
- Content in the allocated area is preserved
- New space is created (or cut away) "at the end"

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- If return value is NULL, previously allocated memory is not freed!



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```
• Usage pattern:
```

```
xnew = realloc(x, NEWSIZE);
if(xnew == NULL) {
  free(x);
  exit(-1); // or continue with old size of x
} else {
    x = xnew;
}
```



calloc

- Remember that data on the stack is not initialized
- Global variables are initialized
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- Example usage:

```
int *p = calloc(1000, sizeof(int));
if(p == NULL) { exit(-1); }
```

• Request space for 1000 integers, all initialized to zero



malloc vs. calloc

- Aside from initialization, any difference between
 - int *p = malloc(nelems*sizeof(int)); and
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 - int *p = calloc(nelems,sizeof(int));?
- Multiplication nelems*sizeof(int) can overflow!
- Result: successful allocation, but of *much less* memory!
- Another difference:
 - malloc doesn't guarantee you that you can use the memory you requested
 - Linux optimistically grants you the memory
 - Later access to this memory may still fail
 - calloc gives you memory that is actually "backed" by the OS
 - But if you don't actually use it, it'll slow you down _



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• Remember free?:
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- Obvious location: the heap
- One solution: maintain a table of all malloc'ed addresses and space



```
• Remember free?:
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);
...
free(p);
```

- Question: How does free know, how much memory belongs to a pointer?
- Answer: malloc needs to write this information somewhere
- Obvious location: the heap
- One solution: maintain a table of all malloc'ed addresses and space
- Other solution: write information just before the pointer



```
• Never use a pointer after it has been freed, e.g.,
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
...
free(x);
...
printf("Let's see what the value of x is now: %p\n", x);
```

• This is undefined behaviour



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    int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
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```

- Not always that obvious, you may have *pointer aliases*
- Pointer alias: multiple pointers to the same location



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    int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
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    free(x);
    Not always that obvious, you may have pointer aliases
    Pointer alias: multiple pointers to the same location
•
    Never "lose" the last pointer to a location
    This inevitable creates a memory leak: you cannot free anymore!
٠
```



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We now covered the stack and the heap, the most important segments, but there are more



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 stack: for local variables (including command-line arguments)



low addresses



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- data segment:





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- stack: for local variables (including command-line arguments)
- heap: For *dynamic* memory
- data segment:
 - global and static uninitialized variables (.bss)





We now covered the stack and the heap, the most important segments, but there are more

- stack: for local variables (including command-line arguments)
- heap: For *dynamic* memory
- data segment:
 - global and static
 uninitialized variables
 (.bss)
 - global and static initialized variables (.data)





We now covered the stack and the heap, the most important segments, but there are more

- stack: for local variables (including command-line arguments)
- heap: For *dynamic* memory
- data segment:
 - global and static
 uninitialized variables
 (.bss)
 - global and static initialized variables (.data)
- code segment: code (and possibly constants)



low addresses

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- Global variables are declared outside of all functions
- Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
long n = 12345678;
char *s = "hello world!\n";
int a[256];
```

•••

- The initialized variables n and s will be in .data
- The uninialized variable a will be in .bss



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- Some platforms have a special non-initialized .bss subsection
- Example: AVR microcontrollers with a .noinit section
 - Typically your processes on such a device don't have secrets from each other because you wrote all of them.



- A static variable is local, but keeps its value across calls
- Example:

```
void f()
{
   static int x = 0;
   printf("%d\n", x++);
}
```

• If ${\bf x}$ was not declared static, this function would always print ${\bf 0}$



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- If ${\bf x}$ was not declared static, this function would always print ${\bf 0}$
- Different for static x; output increases by one for every call
- Would get the same behavior if x was global
- $\bullet \quad \ldots \,$ but a global x could be modified also by other functions



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Stack vs. heap vs. data segment

Data segment

- Data in the data segment exists throughout the whole execution of the program
 - global variables accessible to every function
 - static local variables only accessible to the respective function


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- Space on the stack *allocated automatically*
- Stack space automatically removed when returning from a function
- Certain risk of overflowing the stack



Stack vs. heap vs. data segment

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- Data in the data segment exists throughout the whole execution of the program
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Stack

- Space on the stack *allocated automatically*
- Stack space automatically removed when returning from a function
- Certain risk of overflowing the stack

Heap

- Space on the heap needs to be *requested manually* (malloc)
- Request may be denied (NULL return) and this must be handled
- Space on the heap needs to be *freed manually* (free)
- Risk of memory leaks, double frees, etc.



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Remember printf?

int printf(const char *format, ...);
[printf] writes the output under the control of a format string
that specifies how subsequent arguments are converted for output. src: man 3
printf

What does the following program do?

```
// program.c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    printf(argv[1]);
}
~$ gcc -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -o program program.c
(gcc8 complains **only** about unused variable argc)
~$ ./program hi
hi
```



What does the following program do wrongly?

```
// program.c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    printf(argv[1]);
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What does the following program do wrongly?

```
// program.c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    // should have been printf("%s", argv[1]);
    printf(argv[1]);
}
```

How do we make this program misbehave?



What does the following program do wrongly?

```
// program.c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    // should have been printf("%s", argv[1]);
    printf(argv[1]);
}
```

What happens if we run ./program %x?



What does the following program do wrongly?

```
// program.c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    // should have been printf("%s", argv[1]);
    printf(argv[1]);
}
```

What happens if we run ./program %x? It will print the second argument of printf, even if it's not there!



Remember printf?

int printf(const char *format, ...);
[printf] writes the output under the control of a format string
that specifies how subsequent arguments are converted for output. src: man 3
printf



Format string attacks

- Reading data known since 1989
- First attack that broke something in 1999
- Remember, C is from 1972!
- Allows to read data from the stack and heap.
- Easy to spot: if there is no " after printf(, it's suspicious
- If we want compiler warnings from gcc, we need to use -Wformat=2, because of course why switch this on by default.
- The clang compiler *does* report these by default.



If we want to call a function func(a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h), your computer does the following:

1. Put return address on the stack





- 1. Put return address on the stack
- 2. Store the frame pointer





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Why do we put arguments into registers?





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- 1. Put return address on the stack
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- 3. Put the first six arguments (a...f) in registers
- 4. Put the remaining arguments (g, h) on the stack.
- 5. Jump to the address of func

Why do we put arguments into registers?



Putting the first few arguments in registers saves a lot of time waiting for memory.



So what do we see?

- So if we run ./printf %p, we will print the value of the second register that would contain an argument.
- If we print ./printf '%7\$p', we will print the first 8 bytes on the stack.



printf is a powerful debugger

```
#include <stdio.h>
void do_print(char* string)
{ printf(string); }
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
  long bla = 0xDEADCODECAFEF00D;
```

```
do_print(argv[1]);
}
```

```
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```







0x7ffff7f83be0 (nil) 0x7fffffffe810 0x7ffffffe400 0x555555555555599 0x7ffffffe4e8 0x2555555050 0x7fffffffe4e0 0xdeadc0decafef00d 0x5555555551d0



0x7f



./printf "\$(perl -e 'print "%p "x14')" 0x7fffffffe4e8 0x7fffffffe500 0x7ffff7f82578 0x7ffff7f83be0 0x7ffff7f83be0 (nil) 0x7ffffffe810 0x7ffffffe400 0x55555555599 0x7fffffffe4e8 0x255555050 0x7fffffffe4e0 0xdeadc0decafef00d 0x5555555551d0



0x7f

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```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    if(a == NULL) return -1;
    char *x = (char *)a;
    ...
    free(x);
    free(a);
}
```



```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
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    char *x = (char *)a;
    ...
    free(x);
    free(a);
}
```

• Fairly simple: double-free.



```
int* f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}</pre>
```



```
int* f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
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```



```
int* f()
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- Return type is **int** *, returning a is not a *type* problem
- Remember that an array can "decay" to a pointer to its first element



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int* f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
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```

- Return type is int *, returning a is not a type problem
- Remember that an array can "decay" to a pointer to its first element
- Code is syntactically completely correct C
- Returning pointer to a local variable is undefined behavior
- Never do this, not even for debugging purposes



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- Remember that an array can "decay" to a pointer to its first element
- Code is syntactically completely correct C
- Returning pointer to a local variable is undefined behavior
- Never do this, not even for debugging purposes
- Any decent compiler will put out warnings



```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```



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int f()
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- No check whether malloc returned NULL
- The function is *so* wrong, that this isn't even really a problem


What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

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- The free is used on a *stack* address •





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    return x;
}
```

- No check whether malloc returned NULL
- The function is *so* wrong, that this isn't even really a problem
- The free is used on a *stack* address
- The value of y is lost after return
- Cannot free the allocated memory anymore



- Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- Luckily there is tool assistance: valgrind



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- Luckily there is tool assistance: valgrind
- Run code is a sort of virtual machine, include memory checks
- Muuuuuuch slower than actually running the code, but:
 - Find memory leaks (malloc without free)
 - Find access to freed memory
 - Find double-free
 - Find branches and memory access depending on uninitialized data



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- valgrind is a dynamic analyzer, not static
- For example, no guarantees of branch coverage



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 - cachegrind, a cache profiler
 - callgrind, generating call graphs
- valgrind is a dynamic analyzer, not static
- For example, no guarantees of branch coverage
- Generally good practice:
 - run your code in valgrind before submitting/publishing
 - make sure that valgrind reports no errors



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Sanitizers

- Another way to do these sorts of checks is using libasan
- Compile your code with -fsanitize=address
- Will slow down your code because it's doing checks all the time
- Will terminate when it finds bad behaviour
- Other sanitizers available
 - -fsanitize=undefined
 - -fsanitize=memory
 - -fsanitize=thread
 - -fsanitize=leak
- Not all of them can be used together, some are not useful by themselves.

