

# Hacking in C

The C programming language

Radboud University, Nijmegen, The Netherlands



Spring 2019

# The C programming language

- ▶ Invented by Dennis Ritchie in the early 70s
- ▶ First “Hello World” program written in C



Source: Wikipedia

# The C programming language

- ▶ Invented by Dennis Ritchie in the early 70s
- ▶ First “Hello World” program written in C
- ▶ UNIX (and Linux) is written in C
- ▶ Still one of the top-5 most used programming languages
- ▶ Compilers for almost all platforms



Source: Wikipedia

# The C programming language

- ▶ Invented by Dennis Ritchie in the early 70s
- ▶ First “Hello World” program written in C
- ▶ UNIX (and Linux) is written in C
- ▶ Still one of the top-5 most used programming languages
- ▶ Compilers for almost all platforms
- ▶ Many “interesting” security issues



Source: Wikipedia

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89
- ▶ In 1995, ANSI published an amendment to the C standard (“C95”)

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89
- ▶ In 1995, ANSI published an amendment to the C standard (“C95”)
- ▶ In 1999, ISO standardized updated C, ANSI adopted (**C99**)



## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89
- ▶ In 1995, ANSI published an amendment to the C standard (“C95”)
- ▶ In 1999, ISO standardized updated C, ANSI adopted (**C99**)
- ▶ Current standard is **C11**, standardized (ANSI and ISO) in 2011
- ▶ Standard draft online: <https://port70.net/~nsz/c/c11/n1570.html>

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89
- ▶ In 1995, ANSI published an amendment to the C standard (“C95”)
- ▶ In 1999, ISO standardized updated C, ANSI adopted (**C99**)
- ▶ Current standard is **C11**, standardized (ANSI and ISO) in 2011
- ▶ Standard draft online: <https://port70.net/~nsz/c/c11/n1570.html>
- ▶ Compilers like gcc or clang also support GNU extensions
- ▶ Default for gcc: C11 plus GNU extensions (aka gnu11)

## C standards and “standards”

- ▶ First definition in Kernighan&Ritchie: *“The C Programming Language”*
- ▶ Also known as K&R C, book appeared in 1978
- ▶ Standardized by ANSI in 1989 (**C89**) and ISO (**C90**)
- ▶ Second edition of K&R book used “ANSI C”, i.e., C89
- ▶ In 1995, ANSI published an amendment to the C standard (“C95”)
- ▶ In 1999, ISO standardized updated C, ANSI adopted (**C99**)
- ▶ Current standard is **C11**, standardized (ANSI and ISO) in 2011
- ▶ Standard draft online: <https://port70.net/~nsz/c/c11/n1570.html>
- ▶ Compilers like gcc or clang also support GNU extensions
- ▶ Default for gcc: C11 plus GNU extensions (aka gnu11)
- ▶ You can switch gcc to other C standards using, e.g., `-std=c89`
- ▶ Use `-pedantic` flag to issue warnings if your code doesn't conform to the standard

## C vs. C++

- ▶ C is the basis for C++, Objective-C, and many other languages
- ▶ C is **not a subset of C++**, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
```

is valid (and perfectly reasonable) C, but not valid C++!

## C vs. C++

- ▶ C is the basis for C++, Objective-C, and many other languages
- ▶ C is **not a subset of C++**, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
```

is valid (and perfectly reasonable) C, but not valid C++!

- ▶ You can “mix” C and C++ code, but you have to be very careful
- ▶ In C++, declare C functions as `extern "C"`, for example:

```
extern "C" int mycfuction(int);
```

- ▶ Now you can call `mycfuction` from your C++ code
- ▶ Use compiler by the same vendor to compile

## C vs. C++

- ▶ C is the basis for C++, Objective-C, and many other languages
- ▶ C is **not a subset of C++**, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
```

is valid (and perfectly reasonable) C, but not valid C++!

- ▶ You can “mix” C and C++ code, but you have to be very careful
- ▶ In C++, declare C functions as `extern "C"`, for example:

```
extern "C" int mycfunction(int);
```

- ▶ Now you can call `mycfunction` from your C++ code
- ▶ Use compiler by the same vendor to compile
- ▶ Lets you use, e.g., highly optimized C libraries
- ▶ Common scenario:
  - ▶ Write high-speed code in C (and assembly)
  - ▶ Write so-called wrappers around this for easy access in C++

# A “portable assembler”

*C has been characterized (both admiringly and invidiously) as a portable assembly language*

—Dennis Ritchie

- ▶ Idea of assembly:
  - ▶ Programmer has full control over the program
  - ▶ Choice of instructions, register allocation etc. left to programmer
  - ▶ Programmer has “raw access” to memory

# A “portable assembler”

*C has been characterized (both admiringly and invidiously) as a portable assembly language*

—Dennis Ritchie

- ▶ Idea of assembly:
  - ▶ Programmer has full control over the program
  - ▶ Choice of instructions, register allocation etc. left to programmer
  - ▶ Programmer has “raw access” to memory
  - ▶ Need to rewrite programs for each architecture
  - ▶ Need to re-optimize for each microarchitecture



# A “portable assembler”

*C has been characterized (both admiringly and invidiously) as a portable assembly language*

—Dennis Ritchie

- ▶ Idea of assembly:
  - ▶ Programmer has full control over the program
  - ▶ Choice of instructions, register allocation etc. left to programmer
  - ▶ Programmer has “raw access” to memory
  - ▶ Need to rewrite programs for each architecture
  - ▶ Need to re-optimize for each microarchitecture
- ▶ Idea of C:
  - ▶ Take away some bits of control from the programmer
  - ▶ Stay as close as possible to assembly, but stay portable
  - ▶ In particular: give programmer raw access to memory

# A “portable assembler”

*C has been characterized (both admiringly and invidiously) as a portable assembly language*

—Dennis Ritchie

- ▶ Idea of assembly:
  - ▶ Programmer has full control over the program
  - ▶ Choice of instructions, register allocation etc. left to programmer
  - ▶ Programmer has “raw access” to memory
  - ▶ Need to rewrite programs for each architecture
  - ▶ Need to re-optimize for each microarchitecture
- ▶ Idea of C:
  - ▶ Take away some bits of control from the programmer
  - ▶ Stay as close as possible to assembly, but stay portable
  - ▶ In particular: give programmer raw access to memory
  - ▶ Use compiler to generate code for different architectures
  - ▶ Use compiler to optimize for different microarchitectures

# “If programming languages were. . .”

- ▶ ... vehicles

[http://crashworks.org/if\\_programming\\_languages\\_were\\_vehicles/](http://crashworks.org/if_programming_languages_were_vehicles/)

- ▶ ... countries

<https://www.quora.com/>

[If-programming-languages-were-countries-which-country-would-each-language-](#)

- ▶ ... GoT characters

<https://techbeacon.com/>

[if-programming-languages-were-game-thrones-characters](#)

- ▶ ... beer

<https://www.topcoder.com/blog/if-programming-languages-were-beer/>

# “If programming languages were. . .”

- ▶ ... vehicles

[http://crashworks.org/if\\_programming\\_languages\\_were\\_vehicles/](http://crashworks.org/if_programming_languages_were_vehicles/)

- ▶ ... countries

<https://www.quora.com/>

[If-programming-languages-were-countries-which-country-would-each-language-](#)

- ▶ ... GoT characters

<https://techbeacon.com/>

[if-programming-languages-were-game-thrones-characters](#)

- ▶ ... beer

<https://www.topcoder.com/blog/if-programming-languages-were-beer/>

- ▶ ... boats

<http://compsci.ca/blog/if-a-programming-language-was-a-boat/>

“If programming languages were. . .”

*“C is a nuclear submarine. The instructions are probably in a foreign language, but all of the hardware itself is optimized for performance.”*



# 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

# 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!

# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization



# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to be specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Shifting negative values to the right (e.g., `int a = (-42) >> 3`)

# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to be specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Shifting negative values to the right (e.g., `int a = (-42) >> 3`)
  - ▶ Order of subexpression evaluation (e.g., `f(g(), h())`)

# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to be specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Shifting negative values to the right (e.g., `int a = (-42) >> 3`)
  - ▶ Order of subexpression evaluation (e.g., `f(g(), h())`)
  - ▶ Sizes of various types (more later)
  - ▶ Representation of data types (more later)

# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to be specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Shifting negative values to the right (e.g., `int a = (-42) >> 3`)
  - ▶ Order of subexpression evaluation (e.g., `f(g(), h())`)
  - ▶ Sizes of various types (more later)
  - ▶ Representation of data types (more later)
  - ▶ Number of bits in one byte

# Unspecified behavior

- ▶ Unspecified behavior is “implementation-specific”
- ▶ Semantics not defined by the standard, but have to be specified by the compiler
- ▶ Reason: allow better optimization
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Shifting negative values to the right (e.g., `int a = (-42) >> 3`)
  - ▶ Order of subexpression evaluation (e.g., `f(g(), h())`)
  - ▶ Sizes of various types (more later)
  - ▶ Representation of data types (more later)
  - ▶ Number of bits in one byte
- ▶ Fairly hard to write fully specified C programs
- ▶ For this course: if not otherwise stated assume gcc (version 6.x, 7.x, or 8.x) compiling for AMD64.

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Access an array outside the bounds
  - ▶ More generally: access memory at “illegal” position



# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Access an array outside the bounds
  - ▶ More generally: access memory at “illegal” position
  - ▶ Overflowing a signed integer (`(INT_MAX+1)`)

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Access an array outside the bounds
  - ▶ More generally: access memory at “illegal” position
  - ▶ Overflowing a signed integer (`(INT_MAX+1)`)
  - ▶ Left-shifting a signed integer (`(-42) << 3`)

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Access an array outside the bounds
  - ▶ More generally: access memory at “illegal” position
  - ▶ Overflowing a signed integer (`(INT_MAX+1)`)
  - ▶ Left-shifting a signed integer (`(-42) << 3`)
- ▶ It is totally acceptable for a program to delete all your data when running into undefined behavior

# Undefined behavior

- ▶ Different from unspecified behavior: **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Program reaches a state in which it may do **anything**
  - ▶ It may crash with arbitrary error code
  - ▶ It may silently corrupt data
  - ▶ It may give the right result
  - ▶ The behavior may be *randomly* different in independent runs
- ▶ **Undefined behavior means that the whole program has no meaning anymore!**
- ▶ This is essentially always a bug, often security critical
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ Access an array outside the bounds
  - ▶ More generally: access memory at “illegal” position
  - ▶ Overflowing a signed integer (`(INT_MAX+1)`)
  - ▶ Left-shifting a signed integer (`(-42) << 3`)
- ▶ It is totally acceptable for a program to delete all your data when running into undefined behavior
- ▶ Sometimes we can *make* a program do this (or something similar)
- ▶ Most attacks in the course: exploit undefined behavior

# C compilation

- ▶ Four steps involved in compilation, can stop at any of those
- ▶ First step: Run the preprocessor (`gcc -E`)
  - ▶ Include code from `#include` directives
  - ▶ Expand macros from `#define` directives
  - ▶ Expand compile-time (static) conditionals `#if`
  - ▶ The C preprocessor is almost Turing complete
  - ▶ See [https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP\\_COMPLETE](https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP_COMPLETE) for a Brainfuck interpreter written in the C preprocessor

# C compilation

- ▶ Four steps involved in compilation, can stop at any of those
- ▶ First step: Run the preprocessor (`gcc -E`)
  - ▶ Include code from `#include` directives
  - ▶ Expand macros from `#define` directives
  - ▶ Expand compile-time (static) conditionals `#if`
  - ▶ The C preprocessor is almost Turing complete
  - ▶ See [https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP\\_COMPLETE](https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP_COMPLETE) for a Brainfuck interpreter written in the C preprocessor
- ▶ Second step: Run compilation proper (`gcc -S`)
  - ▶ Go from C to assembly level
  - ▶ This is where you get syntax errors

# C compilation

- ▶ Four steps involved in compilation, can stop at any of those
- ▶ First step: Run the preprocessor (`gcc -E`)
  - ▶ Include code from `#include` directives
  - ▶ Expand macros from `#define` directives
  - ▶ Expand compile-time (static) conditionals `#if`
  - ▶ The C preprocessor is almost Turing complete
  - ▶ See [https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP\\_COMPLETE](https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP_COMPLETE) for a Brainfuck interpreter written in the C preprocessor
- ▶ Second step: Run compilation proper (`gcc -S`)
  - ▶ Go from C to assembly level
  - ▶ This is where you get syntax errors
- ▶ Third step: Generate machine code (`gcc -c`)
  - ▶ Generates so-called **object files**

# C compilation

- ▶ Four steps involved in compilation, can stop at any of those
- ▶ First step: Run the preprocessor (`gcc -E`)
  - ▶ Include code from `#include` directives
  - ▶ Expand macros from `#define` directives
  - ▶ Expand compile-time (static) conditionals `#if`
  - ▶ The C preprocessor is almost Turing complete
  - ▶ See [https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP\\_COMPLETE](https://github.com/orangeduck/CPP_COMPLETE) for a Brainfuck interpreter written in the C preprocessor
- ▶ Second step: Run compilation proper (`gcc -S`)
  - ▶ Go from C to assembly level
  - ▶ This is where you get syntax errors
- ▶ Third step: Generate machine code (`gcc -c`)
  - ▶ Generates so-called **object files**
- ▶ Fourth step: Linking (simply run `gcc`, this is default)
  - ▶ Put object files together to a binary
  - ▶ Linker errors include missing functions or function duplicates
  - ▶ Also include external libraries here (e.g., `-lm`)
  - ▶ Caution: order of arguments can matter!



## Memory abstraction 1: where data is stored

- ▶ Programmers typically don't know where data is stored
- ▶ For example, a variable can sit in
  - ▶ a register of the CPU
  - ▶ in any of the caches of the CPU
  - ▶ in RAM
  - ▶ on the hard drive (in so-called swap space)

## Memory abstraction 1: where data is stored

- ▶ Programmers typically don't know where data is stored
- ▶ For example, a variable can sit in
  - ▶ a register of the CPU
  - ▶ in any of the caches of the CPU
  - ▶ in RAM
  - ▶ on the hard drive (in so-called swap space)
- ▶ Compiler makes decisions about register allocation
- ▶ Compiler has some bit of influence on caching
- ▶ Other decisions are made by the OS (and the CPU)

## Memory abstraction 1: where data is stored

- ▶ Programmers typically don't know where data is stored
- ▶ For example, a variable can sit in
  - ▶ a register of the CPU
  - ▶ in any of the caches of the CPU
  - ▶ in RAM
  - ▶ on the hard drive (in so-called swap space)
- ▶ Compiler makes decisions about register allocation
- ▶ Compiler has some bit of influence on caching
- ▶ Other decisions are made by the OS (and the CPU)
- ▶ Sometimes important: always read the variable from memory
- ▶ C has keyword `volatile` to enforce this
- ▶ Disables certain optimization

# Where is data allocated?

- ▶ C has the `&` operator that returns the address of a variable
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶ Let's say we have a variable `int x = 12`
  - ▶ Now `&x` is the address where `x` is stored, aka a **pointer to `x`**

## Where is data allocated?

- ▶ C has the `&` operator that returns the address of a variable
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶ Let's say we have a variable `int x = 12`
  - ▶ Now `&x` is the address where `x` is stored, aka a **pointer to `x`**
- ▶ Much more on pointers later, for the moment let's print them:

```
char x; int i; short s; char y;  
printf("The address of x is %p\n", &x);  
printf("The address of i is %p\n", &i);  
printf("The address of s is %p\n", &s);  
printf("The address of y is %p\n", &y);
```

- ▶ Note the `%p` format specifier for pointers

## Where is data allocated?

- ▶ C has the `&` operator that returns the address of a variable
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶ Let's say we have a variable `int x = 12`
  - ▶ Now `&x` is the address where `x` is stored, aka a **pointer to `x`**
- ▶ Much more on pointers later, for the moment let's print them:

```
char x; int i; short s; char y;  
printf("The address of x is %p\n", &x);  
printf("The address of i is %p\n", &i);  
printf("The address of s is %p\n", &s);  
printf("The address of y is %p\n", &y);
```

- ▶ Note the `%p` format specifier for pointers
- ▶ The “inverse” of `&` is `*`, i.e., `*(&x)` gives the value of `x`

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`



# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`
- ▶ Quote from Erik’s slides:

*“you should never ever use this! Compilers are much better than you are at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers.”*

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`
- ▶ Quote from Erik’s slides:

*“you should never ever use this! Compilers are much better than you are at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers.”*

- ▶ I agree that I never (?) use `register`

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`
- ▶ Quote from Erik’s slides:

*“you should never ever use this! Compilers are much better than you are at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers.”*

- ▶ I agree that I never (?) use `register`
- ▶ Reason: I am (often) better than the compiler at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers...

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`
- ▶ Quote from Erik’s slides:

*“you should never ever use this! Compilers are much better than you are at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers.”*

- ▶ I agree that I never (?) use `register`
- ▶ Reason: I am (often) better than the compiler at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers...
- ▶ ... and then I write in assembly and avoid the compiler altogether

# register

- ▶ Important task for the compiler: **register allocation**
- ▶ Map live variables (whose values are still needed) to registers
- ▶ Typical goal: minimize amount of “register spills”
- ▶ C lets programmers “help” the compiler with keyword `register`
- ▶ Quote from Erik’s slides:

*“you should never ever use this! Compilers are much better than you are at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers.”*

- ▶ I agree that I never (?) use `register`
- ▶ Reason: I am (often) better than the compiler at figuring out which data is best stored in CPU registers...
- ▶ ... and then I write in assembly and avoid the compiler altogether
- ▶ Problem with `register`: no guarantee that the value isn’t spilled
- ▶ Requesting the address of a `register` variable is invalid!

## Memory abstraction 2: how data is stored

- ▶ You can think of memory as an array of bytes
- ▶ For this course: a byte consists of 8 bits

## Memory abstraction 2: how data is stored

- ▶ You can think of memory as an array of bytes
- ▶ For this course: a byte consists of 8 bits
- ▶ Computer programs work with different data types
- ▶ Important step of compilation: map other types to bytes

## Memory abstraction 2: how data is stored

- ▶ You can think of memory as an array of bytes
- ▶ For this course: a byte consists of 8 bits
- ▶ Computer programs work with different data types
- ▶ Important step of compilation: map other types to bytes
- ▶ Idea of C: you can program without needing to understand this mapping
- ▶ Idea of this course: you can have more fun with C if you do!



## Memory abstraction 2: how data is stored

- ▶ You can think of memory as an array of bytes
- ▶ For this course: a byte consists of 8 bits
- ▶ Computer programs work with different data types
- ▶ Important step of compilation: map other types to bytes
- ▶ Idea of C: you can program without needing to understand this mapping
- ▶ Idea of this course: you can have more fun with C if you do!
- ▶ The CPU likes to see the memory as an array of words
- ▶ Words typically consist of several bytes (e.g., 4 or 8 bytes)
- ▶ (Most) registers have the size of machine words
- ▶ Often loads and stores are more efficient when **aligned** to a word boundary

## Memory abstraction 2: how data is stored

- ▶ You can think of memory as an array of bytes
- ▶ For this course: a byte consists of 8 bits
- ▶ Computer programs work with different data types
- ▶ Important step of compilation: map other types to bytes
- ▶ Idea of C: you can program without needing to understand this mapping
- ▶ Idea of this course: you can have more fun with C if you do!
- ▶ The CPU likes to see the memory as an array of words
- ▶ Words typically consist of several bytes (e.g., 4 or 8 bytes)
- ▶ (Most) registers have the size of machine words
- ▶ Often loads and stores are more efficient when **aligned** to a word boundary
- ▶ von Neumann architecture: also programs are just bytes in memory
- ▶ Only difference between data and program: what you do with it

## char

- ▶ Most basic data type: `char`
- ▶ From the C11 standard:  
*“An object declared as type `char` is large enough to store any member of the basic execution character set.”*
- ▶ More useful definition: a `char` is a byte, i.e., the smallest addressable unit of memory
- ▶ In all relevant scenarios: a `char` is an 8-bit integer

## char

- ▶ Most basic data type: `char`
- ▶ From the C11 standard:  
*“An object declared as type `char` is large enough to store any member of the basic execution character set.”*
- ▶ More useful definition: a `char` is a byte, i.e., the smallest addressable unit of memory
- ▶ In all relevant scenarios: a `char` is an 8-bit integer
- ▶ Traditionally a `char` is used to represent ASCII characters, yields two common ways to initialize a `char`:

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

- ▶ Which of those values are equal?

## char

- ▶ Most basic data type: `char`
- ▶ From the C11 standard:  
*“An object declared as type `char` is large enough to store any member of the basic execution character set.”*
- ▶ More useful definition: a `char` is a byte, i.e., the smallest addressable unit of memory
- ▶ In all relevant scenarios: a `char` is an 8-bit integer
- ▶ Traditionally a `char` is used to represent ASCII characters, yields two common ways to initialize a `char`:

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

- ▶ Which of those values are equal?

## char

- ▶ Most basic data type: `char`
- ▶ From the C11 standard:  
*“An object declared as type `char` is large enough to store any member of the basic execution character set.”*
- ▶ More useful definition: a `char` is a byte, i.e., the smallest addressable unit of memory
- ▶ In all relevant scenarios: a `char` is an 8-bit integer
- ▶ Traditionally a `char` is used to represent ASCII characters, yields two common ways to initialize a `char`:

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

- ▶ Which of those values are equal?
- ▶ It's a and c, because '2' has ASCII value 50.

## Another quick question...

- ▶ What does the following code do?:

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

## Another quick question...

- ▶ What does the following code do?:

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



## Another quick question...

- ▶ What does the following code do?:

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

- ▶ Answer: it depends (and it really does!)
- ▶ C standard does not define whether char is signed or unsigned
- ▶ Make explicit by using `signed char` or `unsigned char`

## Other integral types

- ▶ C11 provides 4 more integral types (each signed and unsigned):
  - ▶ `short`: at least 2 bytes
  - ▶ `int`: typically 4 (but sometimes 2) bytes
  - ▶ `long`: typically 4 or 8 bytes
  - ▶ `long long`: at least 8 bytes (in practice: exactly 8 bytes)

## Other integral types

- ▶ C11 provides 4 more integral types (each signed and unsigned):
  - ▶ `short`: at least 2 bytes
  - ▶ `int`: typically 4 (but sometimes 2) bytes
  - ▶ `long`: typically 4 or 8 bytes
  - ▶ `long long`: at least 8 bytes (in practice: exactly 8 bytes)
- ▶ GNU extension: `__int128` for architectures that support it

## Other integral types

- ▶ C11 provides 4 more integral types (each signed and unsigned):
  - ▶ `short`: at least 2 bytes
  - ▶ `int`: typically 4 (but sometimes 2) bytes
  - ▶ `long`: typically 4 or 8 bytes
  - ▶ `long long`: at least 8 bytes (in practice: exactly 8 bytes)
- ▶ GNU extension: `__int128` for architectures that support it
- ▶ Common misconception: `long` is as long as a machine word
- ▶ Think about how this would work on an 8-bit microcontroller...

## Other integral types

- ▶ C11 provides 4 more integral types (each signed and unsigned):
  - ▶ `short`: at least 2 bytes
  - ▶ `int`: typically 4 (but sometimes 2) bytes
  - ▶ `long`: typically 4 or 8 bytes
  - ▶ `long long`: at least 8 bytes (in practice: exactly 8 bytes)
- ▶ GNU extension: `__int128` for architectures that support it
- ▶ Common misconception: `long` is as long as a machine word
- ▶ Think about how this would work on an 8-bit microcontroller...
- ▶ Find size of any type in bytes using `sizeof`, e.g.:

```
int a;  
printf("%zd", sizeof(a));  
printf("%zd", sizeof(long));
```

## Other integral types

- ▶ C11 provides 4 more integral types (each signed and unsigned):
  - ▶ `short`: at least 2 bytes
  - ▶ `int`: typically 4 (but sometimes 2) bytes
  - ▶ `long`: typically 4 or 8 bytes
  - ▶ `long long`: at least 8 bytes (in practice: exactly 8 bytes)
- ▶ GNU extension: `__int128` for architectures that support it
- ▶ Common misconception: `long` is as long as a machine word
- ▶ Think about how this would work on an 8-bit microcontroller...
- ▶ Find size of any type in bytes using `sizeof`, e.g.:

```
int a;  
printf("%zd", sizeof(a));  
printf("%zd", sizeof(long));
```

- ▶ Integral constants can be written in
  - ▶ Decimal, e.g., 255
  - ▶ Hexadecimal, using `0x`, e.g., `0xff`
  - ▶ Octal, using `0`, e.g., `0377`

## 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

## 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`)



## 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 lecture: 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](http://www.itu.dk/~sestoft/bachelor/IEEE754_article.pdf)

## 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 lecture: 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](http://www.itu.dk/~sestoft/bachelor/IEEE754_article.pdf)

- ▶ Small example:

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

- ▶ What does this code do to a?

## 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 lecture: 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](http://www.itu.dk/~sestoft/bachelor/IEEE754_article.pdf)

- ▶ Small example:

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

- ▶ What does this code do to a?

## 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 lecture: 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](http://www.itu.dk/~sestoft/bachelor/IEEE754_article.pdf)

- ▶ Small example:

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

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

## Printing values

Have already seen various examples of **format strings**, let's summarize:

```
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 */
```

There's quite a few more, but these get you fairly far.

## stdint.h

- ▶ Often we need to know how large an integer is
- ▶ Example: crypto primitives are optimized to work on, e.g., 32-bit words
- ▶ Solution: Fixed-size integer types defined in `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

## stdint.h

- ▶ Often we need to know how large an integer is
- ▶ Example: crypto primitives are optimized to work on, e.g., 32-bit words
- ▶ Solution: Fixed-size integer types defined in `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
- ▶ Problem: how do we print them in a portable way?
- ▶ `printf("%llu\n", a);` for `uint64_t` a may produce warnings

## stdint.h

- ▶ Often we need to know how large an integer is
- ▶ Example: crypto primitives are optimized to work on, e.g., 32-bit words
- ▶ Solution: Fixed-size integer types defined in `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
- ▶ Problem: how do we print them in a portable way?
- ▶ `printf("%llu\n", a);` for `uint64_t` a may produce warnings
- ▶ Solution: `printf("%" PRIu64 "\n", a)`
- ▶ For signed values, e.g., `PRId64`
- ▶ Printing in hexadecimal: `PRIx64`



## Implicit type conversion

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

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

# 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  $2^{16}$ , when casting from `uint32_t` to `uint16_t`

## 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  $2^{16}$ , 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");
```

## Explicit casts

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

```
unsigned int a,b;
```

```
...
```

```
unsigned long long r = a*b;
```

## Explicit casts

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

```
unsigned int a,b;
```

```
...
```

```
unsigned long long r = a*b;
```

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

```
unsigned long long r = (unsigned long long)a*b;
```

## Explicit casts

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

```
unsigned int a,b;  
...  
unsigned long long r = a*b;
```

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

```
unsigned long long r = (unsigned long long)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);
```

## Explicit casts

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

```
unsigned int a,b;  
...  
unsigned long long r = a*b;
```

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

```
unsigned long long r = (unsigned long long)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);
```



## 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 “unspecified behavior” – it’s C after all)

## Two's complement

- ▶ Can represent a signed integer as “sign + absolute value”
- ▶ Disadvantage: zero has two representations (0 and -0)

## 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

# 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

# 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:  $a = -(-a)$

# 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:  $\{-128, \dots, 127\}$

# 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:  $\{-128, \dots, 127\}$
- ▶ 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



# Endianess

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

	11		22		33		44	
	0x0...		0x0...		0x0...		0x0...	

- ▶ How about like this?

	44		33		22		11	
	0x0...		0x0...		0x0...		0x0...	

# 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

- ▶ A quick poll: 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  $a_i$  are the bytes of  $a$

## Endianess, let's try again

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

	a0		a1		a2		a3	
	0x0...0		0x0...1		0x0...2		0x0...3	

## Endianness, let's try again

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

	a0		a1		a2		a3	
	0x0...0		0x0...1		0x0...2		0x0...3	

- ▶ Or would you rather have this?

	a3		a2		a1		a0	
	0x0...0		0x0...1		0x0...2		0x0...3	

- ▶ 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**

## 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”

## 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



## 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:
  - ▶ PowerPC
  - ▶ UltraSPARC
- ▶ ARM can switch endianness (is “bi-endian”)

## 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:
  - ▶ PowerPC
  - ▶ UltraSPARC
- ▶ ARM can switch endianess (is “bi-endian”)
- ▶ The problem with little-endian intuition is just that we write left-to-right (but use Arabic numbers)