



Software security, secure programming (and computer forensics)

Lecture 3: Programming languages (un)-security

Looking at the binary level

Master on Cybersecurity - Master MoSiG (HECS & AISSE)

Academic Year 2016 - 2017

Reminder

So far, we saw that:

- Unsecure softwares are (almost) everywhere . . .
- Programming languages (often) contribute to produce unsecure software:
 - misleading syntactic constructions
 - weak typing
 - undefined behaviors
 - etc.

But:

- how do this language weaknesses can be exploited at runtime?
- what is the typical intruder objective ?
- how can he/she operate ?
 - ⇒ Let's have a look at the binary code level to answer . . .

The intruder

Arithmetic overflows

Stack-based vulnerabilities

Heap based vulnerabilities

Format string vulnerabilities

The "software security" intruder

Intruder objectives

What can be expected when running an unsecure code?

- break a CIA property, e.g., read confidential data; modify sensible data; get priviledged accesses; start a new application; etc.
- break application availability (Denial of Service)
 e.g., crash a server
- ► (silently) hide/inject a malware (Non Repudiation)
- etc.

Intruder model

How can operate an intruder when running an unsecure code?

As a regular user: by (fully) controling the (regular) program inputs

Examples:

- fully control the keyboard, the network, the input files content, etc.
- may control the environment variables, the file system, etc.
- cannot modify the code, break cryptography, etc.

How to "break" a software security as a regular user?

→ Some reminders about how a code executes at runtime ...

At runtime:

- code + data = sequence of bits, with no physical distinction Ex: 000A7A33 → mov eax, ecx or 686643 or "DB+" or...
- ► code + data lie in the same (physical) memory
 - but usually in distinct zones
 - usually the code zone cannot be over-written

However, several ways to **hijack** the program control flow:

numerous points where code and data meet together ...

- → numerous opportunities for a user to influence the code execution:
 - take an unexpected branch condition
 - read/write an unexpected data memory zone
 (may change a global/local variable, a parameter, etc.)
 - change the address of a function called
 - change the "return value" when a function terminates
 - change the adress of an exception handler
 - etc.

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Example 1: arithmetic overflows

Coding integers in base 2, on *n* bits

- ▶ signed integers: $[2^{n-1}, 2^{n-1} 1]$; unsigned integers: $[0, 2^n 1]$
- arithmetic operations:
 - possible overflow . . .
 - in case of overflow: either exception raised or wrap-around (mod n), or undefined
- ▶ signed ↔ unsigned conversions: either forbidden, or explicitely / implicitely authorized
- conversions between several integer sizes: either forbidden, or explicitely / implicitely authorized

Example in C: if x+y overflows then

- "undefined behaviour" if signed
- wrap-around if unsigned . . .
- and if x signed and y unsigned ???

wrap-around + undefined behavior + implicit conversions = a dangerous coktail!

Application to control-flow hijacking

```
unsigned int x; // 32-bits unsigned integer
read (x);
if (x+1<10) {
// assume x < 9
// allocate x resources ...
} else {
  // assume x >= 0
\rightarrow the "then" branch can be taken with x = 2^{n-1} \dots
signed int x=-1; // 32-bits signed integer
unsigned int y=1;
                            // 32-bits unsigned integer
if (x < y) {
} else {
     // this should never happen ...
\rightarrow the "else" branch is always taken!
      (−1 being converted into a large signed value ...)
```

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Example 2: stack-based buffer overflows

From "Smashing the stack for fun and profit" (Aleph One- 1996) to HeartBleed (2015) ...

A historic (but still effective) way to drastically change a pgm control-flow . . .

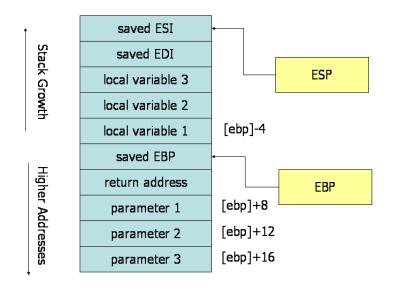
Memory organization at runtime

- 3 main memory zones the code, the stack and the heap
 - heap : dynamic memory allocations
 - stack : function/procedures (dynamic) memory management local variables + parameters + temporaries + . . .
 + return addresses
- when a write access to a local variable with an incorrect stack address occurs it may overwrite stack data
- writting outside the bounds of an array is an example of such a situation (unless runtime checks are inserted by the compiler ...)

A "simple" recipe for cooking a buffer overflow exploit

- 1. find a pgm crash due to a controlable buffer overflow
- 2. fill the buffer s.t. the return address is overwritten with the address of a function you want to execute (e.g., a shell command)

Stack layout for the x86 32-bits architecture



http://www.cs.virginia.edu/~evans/cs216/guides/x86.html

Application to control-flow hijacking (1)

```
void main ()
{
   char t;
   char t1[8];
   char t2[16];
   int i;
   t = 0;
   for (i=0;i<16;i++) t2[i]=2;
   strcpy(t1, t2);
   printf("La valeur de t : %d \n", t);
}</pre>
```

- prints 2 as the value of t ...
- ▶ if we increase the size of t2 we get a crash . . .

Rks: the results obtained may depend on the compiler . . .

- ordering of the local variables in the stack
- buffer overflow protections enabled/disabled by default (e.g., gcc -fstack-protector ...)

Application to control-flow hijacking (2)

```
int. f ()
  char x[256];
  char t1[8];
  int i;
  scanf("%s", x);
  strcpy (t1, x); // copy buffer x into buffer t1
  return 0 ;
int main {
    . . .
f();
```

The stropy function does not check for overflows

 \Rightarrow

- ▶ the return address in the stack can be overwritten with a user input
- program execution can be fully controlled by a user . . .

Some variants on the same theme ...

Several stack elements direct the pgm control-flow:

- function return addresses
- pointers to functions
- addresses of objects methods (method tables)
- addresses of exception handlers
- etc.

All of them might be overwritten by user-controlled write operations, e.g.,

- using a buffer overflow to overwrite these locations
- overwritting a pointer to the stack
- overwritting an object
- using uninitialized values accross several stack frames
- etc.

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What about the heap?

From the user point of view:

- a (finite) memory zone for dynamic allocations
- OS-level primitives for memory allocation and release
- At the language level:
 - explicit allocation and de-allocation: ex: C, C++ (malloc/new and free)
 - explicit allocation + garbage collection: ex : Java, Ada (new)
 - implicit allocation + garbage collection: ex : CAML, JavaScript
 - → numerous allocation/de-allocation strategies . . .

At runtime, the heap can be viewed as:

- a set of disjoints memory blocks
- each block is either allocated or free (not both !)
- an allocated block contain user data + meta-data
- meta-data are used to retrieve the underlying heap structure, e.g., block sizes, set(s) of free blocks, etc.

Example of (incorrect) heap memory management

- what's wrong with this code ?
- what may happen at runtime ?

Use-after-Free (definition)

Use-after-free on an execution trace

a memory block is allocated and assigned to a pointer p:
 p = malloc(size)

- 2. this bloc is freed later on: free (p)

 → p (and all its aliases!) becomes a dangling pointer (it does not point anymore to a valid block)
- 3. p (or one of its aliases) is dereferenced

Vulnerable Use-after-Free on an execution trace p points to a **valid block** when it is dereferenced (at step 3) ⇒ possible consequences:

- ▶ information leakage: s = *p
- write a sensible data: *p = x
- ▶ arbitrary code execution: call *p

Use-after-free (example 1: information leakage)

```
char *login, *passwords;
login=(char *) malloc(...);
[...]
free(login); // login is now a dangling pointer
[...]
passwords=(char *) malloc(...);
    // may re-allocate memory area used by login
[...]
printf("%s\n", login) // prints the passwords !
```

Use-after-free (example 2: execution hijacking)

```
typedef struct {
void (*f)(void); // pointer to a function
} st;
int main(int argc, char * argv[])
 st *p1;
 char *p2;
 p1=(st*)malloc(sizeof(st));
 free(p1); // p1 is now a dangling pointer
 p2=malloc(sizeof(int)); // memory area of p1 ?
 strcpy(p2, arqv[1]);
 p1->f(); // calls any function you want ...
 return 0;
```

Use-after-Free, a typical heap f (int a, int b) vulnerability

CWE-416: https://cwe.mitre.org/data/definitions/416.html

Main characteristics:

- ▶ occurs when heap memory is explicitly allocated & de-allocated (garbage collection ⇒ no dangling pointers)
- ▶ difficult to detect on the code: 3 distinct events (alloc, free and use)
 → need to check long execution paths
- exploitability depends on how predictable/controllable is the heap content (allocation strategy, heap spraying)

In practice:

- mostly targets web navigators (IE, Firefox, Chrome, etc.)
 - ▶ object langage programming objects ⇒ # heap allocation + method tables in the heap
 - overlap of several heap memory allocators multi-language applications, custom allocators
- but other applications impacted as well!
 (FTP server, graphic libraries, etc.)

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A simple way to access "hidden" data . . .

Format functions in C

library functions: printf, sprintf, fprintf. etc.

- allow to convert data as (human readable) string representation
- functions with a variable number of arguments
 - → can be called with an arbitrary number of parameters
- data to string conversion expressed by string formats, e.g.,

```
"%x" for hexadecimal values
```

"%d" for decimal values

"%s" for string, etc

At runtime:

- printf ("hello %s", buf) prints the content of buf as a string
- printf ("hello %x", buf)
 prints (the address) buf in hexa
- ▶ printf ("hello %x") prints ??
 - ...the hexa value of the "2nd parameter"
 - \rightarrow probably a value in the stack . . .

Example

```
void f (char src[])
{
int x = 1;
char buf [100];
snprintf (buf, sizeof(buf), src);
buf [sizeof(buf) -1] = '\0';
printf("%s \n", buf);
}
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
f (argv[1]);
}
```

- ▶ what's the result of ./a.out Bob) ?
- ▶ what's the result of ./a.out "Bob %x %x") ?

Possible consequences:

- information disclosure (print some memory content)
- denial of service (program crash if invalid memory access)

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Understanding and analysing binary code?

(1/2)

```
000000000
00000001
90999993
00000007
90909998
00000000
GGGGGGGF
00000011
00000014
00000016
00000019
0000001R
0000001D
AAAAAAA1F
000000022
00000025
```

```
push
        ebp
        ebp, esp
mou
MNUZX
        ecx, [ebp+arg_0]
pop
        ebp
        dx, cl
MAU2X
        eax, [edx+edx]
lea
        eax, edx
add
sh1
        eax, 2
        eax, edx
add
shr
        eax, 8
sub
        cl, al
        cl, 1
shr
        al. cl
add
shr
        al, 5
        eax, al
MOUZX
retn
```

Disassembling!

Recovering assembly-level code

- ➤ a non trivial task → static disassembling of x86 code undecidable (dynamic jumps, variable-length instructions, etc.)
- ▶ produce assembly-level IR instead of native assembly code → simpler language (a few instruction opcodes), explicit semantics (no side-effects), share analysis back-ends

Some existing tools

- ► IDA Pro a well-known commercial disassembler, # useful features
- ► On Linux plateforms (for ELF formats):
 - ► objdump (-S for code disassembling)
 - ▶ readelf
 - ► Debuggers can be used as well ... ex: the disass command of gdb

x86 assembly language in one slide

Registers:

- stack pointer (ESP), frame pointer (EBP), program counter (EIP)
- general purpose: EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI
- flags

Instructions:

- data transfer (MOV), arithmetic (ADD, etc.)
- ▶ logic (AND, TEST, etc.)
- control transfer (JUMP, CALL, RET, etc)

Adressing modes:

- register: mov eax, ebx
- immediate: mov eax, 1
- direct memory: mov eax, [esp+12]

As a (temporary) conclusion

Language level weaknesses

- no type safety: implicit type conversions, no conformance guarantee between "source types" and "runtime types"
- ▶ no memory safety: illegal memory accesses may occur at runtime
- undefined behaviors, etc.

⇒ lead to unsecure binary code

- binary encoding of integer and reals (overflows? wrap-around?)
- stack overflows (read/write arbitrary data in the stack)
- heap vulnerabilities (read/write arbitrary data in the heap)
- format strings (read arbitrary data in the stack)
- ▶ and many others ...!

Theses sources of unsecurity may be exploited by a (malicious) user, with no extra knowledge than the code itself ...

"simple" pgm crashes may often be turned on dangerous exploits!