

# Security Properties for Stack Safety

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The call stack is a perennial target for low-level attacks, leading to consequences that range from leakage or corruption of private stack data to control-flow hijacking. A profusion of software and hardware protections have been proposed for detecting or preventing such attacks, including stack canaries [2], bounds checking [5, 9, 10], split stacks [7], shadow stacks [3, 12], capabilities [1, 6, 13–15], and hardware tagging [11]. The protections offered by such mechanisms are commonly described in terms of concrete examples of attacks that they can prevent. At best, stack safety is defined by reference to an idealized machine that is arguably stack safe by construction [14]. But these mechanisms can be intricate, and it would be useful to have a precise, generic, and formal specification for stack safety, both to compare the security claims of different enforcement techniques and to rigorously validate such claims.

We propose such a characterization using the tools of language-based security. The informal claim that “stack safety protects a caller from its callee” amounts to saying that it guarantees the *integrity* and *confidentiality* of the caller’s local state until it regains control. We formalize these integrity and confidentiality requirements as trace (hyper-)properties, with two different variants: *stepwise* variants, in which a caller’s data must *never* be read or modified during a call, and *observational* ones, in which callees may read from and write to their caller’s stack frame, as long as these “risky” behaviors do not affect the system’s observable behavior. The observational properties are more extensional and thus allow “lazier” protection mechanisms that permit risky reads or writes as long as they do not affect visible outcomes.

Confidentiality is especially interesting. It is based on a traditional notion of noninterference, but whereas ordinary noninterference is an end-to-end hyper-property on whole program runs, stack confidentiality is a “nested” form of noninterference applied to subtraces of the whole program trace delimited by call instructions and corresponding returns, requiring that the callee’s behavior is invariant under hypothetical scrambling of the caller’s stack frame.

[APT: Here’s another stab:] [SNA: Tweaked slightly. Trying to make it clear that control flow attacks don’t change what we’re protecting.] Our attacker model is very strong, allowing the attacker to execute arbitrary code. In particular, we do not attempt to prevent control-flow attacks such as ROP. Even in the absence of normal control flow, confidentiality and integrity still apply to all of the data they would under more idealized conditions. The key is that every call has a corresponding predicate on states designated a “return target” that defines what it means for that call to truly return: the program counter must be at the next instruction, and the stack pointer restored to its original value. A callee may execute the instructions of a return, but if it does not reach a return target, we simply do not recognize it as a return. So the callee can be “active”, and the caller protected, even if the callee is executing instructions that look like they belong to the caller.

These properties can optionally be extended with a notion of *well-bracketed control flow* as in Skorstengaard et al. [14]—a global requirement that callees must always return to their immediate caller, if they return at all. This property is orthogonal to our data-protection properties. It remains meaningful in our strong attacker model, because it supports reasoning about the ordering of valid returns.

To demonstrate the utility of our properties, we use them to evaluate an existing mechanism, the *stack-safety micro-policies* of Roessler and DeHon [11], re-implemented in the Coq proof assistant on top of a RISC-V ISA model. We use QuickChick [4, 8], a property-based testing tool for Coq, to generate random programs and check that Roessler and DeHon’s micro-policies correctly abort programs that would violate stack safety. Our testing regime is also able to detect incorrect variants of the enforcement mechanisms—both variants that we accidentally created during our re-implementation of the micro-policy and ones that we intentionally crafted to be broken in order to increase our confidence in testing and the enforcement mechanism itself. For these broken mechanisms, our tester generates counterexamples that violate our properties but escape the enforcement. This increases our confidence in enforcement mechanisms for which the tester is unable to find counterexamples.

Our testing supports the stack-safety claim of Roessler and DeHon’s *Depth Isolation* micro-policy, in which memory cells within each stack frame are tagged with the depth of the function activation that owns the frame and access to those locations is then permitted only when that activation is currently executing. On the other hand, we find that their *Lazy Tagging and Clearing* policy violates the temporal aspect of confidentiality in corner cases where data can leak across repeated calls to the same callee, and also violates integrity if the leak happens to use the caller’s frame. We propose a variant of *Lazy Tagging and Clearing* that we believe will enforce observational integrity and confidentiality, albeit at some performance cost. (An obvious next step is to expand testing to these properties and validate the variant, but efficiently testing observational properties is more challenging because a property violation can be arbitrarily far removed from the initial “risky” read or write.)

We demonstrate our model’s flexibility by extending it to different settings. First, we can support passing arguments on the stack, allowing some of the state of the caller to be shared with the callee (and potentially with a sub-callee, and so on.) We can also describe a simple coroutine model, with one statically bounded stack per coroutine, each protected from the others.

In ongoing work, we are investigating whether stack protection schemes based on the Cheri capability system [1, 15] can enforce our properties. In particular, we are adapting the “uninitialized capability model” of Georges et al. [6] to work with our testing framework in order to validate it against our properties. Out of several Cheri-based stack protection schemes, this one’s treatment of uninitialized frames seems most compatible with our model of confidentiality, without the need for expensive stack clearing between calls. We

expect that Cheri-based techniques can support our properties if we assume extra cooperation from callers, namely that they do not leak their capabilities to the attacker.

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