Security Engineering fiche

Pierre Colson

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Contents

Introduction	1
Requirements Engineering	2
Modeling	3
Model Driven Security	5
Secure Coding	6
Risk Analysis	8
Threat modeling	10
Security Design	12
Code scanning	13
Security Testing	15

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Introduction

- Security is usually added on, not engineered in
 - Standard security properties (CIA) concern absence of abuse
 - * Confidentiality: No proper disclosure of information
 - * Integrity No proper modification of information
 - * Availability No proper impairment of functionality/service
- Sofware is not continuous
- Hackers are not typical users
 - A system is **safe** (or **Secure**) if the environment cannot cause of to enter an unsafe (insecure state)
 - * So, abstractly, security is a reachability problem
- The adversary can exploit not only the system but also the world
- Security Engineering = Software Engineering + Information Security
- **Software Engineering** is the application of systematic, quantifiable approaches to the development, operation, and maintenance of software; i.e applying engineering to software
- Information Security focuses on methods and technologies to reduce risks to information assets
- Waterfall model

- Requirement engineering: What the system do?
- Design: How to do it (abstract)?
- Implementation: How to do it (concrete)?
- Validation and verification: Did we get it right?
- Operation and maintenance
- Problems
 - * The assumption are too strong
 - * Proof of concept only at the end
 - * Too much documentation
 - * Testing comes in too late in the process
 - * Unidirectional

Summary

- Methods and tools are needed to master the complexity of software production
- Security needs particular attention
 - * Security aspects are typically poorly engineered
 - * Systems usually operate in highly malicious environment
- One needs a structured development process with specific support for security

Requirements Engineering

- Requirements engineering is about elicting, understanding, and specifying what the system should do and which properties it should satisfy
- Requirements specify how the system should and should not behave in its intended environment
 - Functional requirements describe what system should do
 - Non-functional requirements describe constraints
- Security almost always conflicts with usability and cost
- Analysis \rightarrow Specification \rightarrow Validation \rightarrow Elicitation \rightarrow Analysis . . .
 - Elicitation: Determine requirements with stakeholders
 - Analysis: Are requirements clear, consistent, complete
 - Specification: Document desired system behavior
 - * Functionality: what the softwate should do
 - * External interfaces: how it interacts with people, the system's hardware, other software and hardware
 - * Performance: its speed, availability, response time, recovery tim eof various software functions, etc.
 - * Attributes: probability, correctness, maintaintability, security, etc.
 - * Design constraints imposed on the implementation: implementation language, resource limit, operating system environment, any required standard in effect, etc.
 - Validation: Are we building the right system?
- Standards and guidlines provide good strating points, but they must be refined and augmented to cover concrete systems and the infornations they process
- Authorization policy: knowing which data is critical is not whough
 - Information access policy (Confidential, Integrity)
 - $-\,$ Good default is base on ${\it least-priviledge}$

• Summary

- Security requirements are both functinal and non-functional
- Standards and guidlines help with the high level formalization
- Models help to concretize the details
 - * However full details usually only present later after design
- Models also useful for risk analysis

Modeling

- Overall goal: specify requirements as precisly as possible
- A model is a construction or mathematical object that describes a system or its properties
- The construction of models is the main focus of the design phase
- Entity/Relationship modeling (E/R)
 - Very simple language for data modeling
 - * Specify set of (similar) data and their relationships
 - * Relations are typically stored as tables in a data-base
 - * Useful as many systems are data-centric
 - Three kinds of objects are visually specified
 - * Entities: sets of individual objects
 - * Attributes: a common property of all objects in an entity set
 - * Relations: relationships between entities
 - Pros
 - * 3 concepts and pictures / Rightarrow easy to understand
 - * Tool supported and successful in practice, E/R diagrams mapped to relational database schemes
 - Cons
 - * Not standardized
 - * Weak semantics: only defines database schemes
 - * Say nothing about how data can be modified

• Data-flow diagrams

- Graphical specification language for functions and data-flow
- Useful for requirements plan and system definition
- Provides a high level system description that can be refined later

• Unified Modeling Language (UML)

- 14 languages for modeling different views of systems
- Static models describe system part and their relationships
- Dynamic models describe the system's (temporal) behavior
- Use Cases key concepts
 - System: the system under construction
 - Actor: users (roles) and other systems that may interact with the system
 - Use case: specifies a required system behavior according to actors' need (textually, activity diagram)
 - Relations between actors: Generalization/specialization
 - Relations beween use cases:
 - $*\ Generalization/specialization$
 - * Extend (one use case extend the functionality of another)
 - * Include

· Activity diagrams

- Action: a single step, not further decomposed
- Activity:
 - * Encapsulates a flow of activities and actions
 - * May be hierarchically structured
- Control flow: edges ordering activities
- Decision: a control node chossing between outgoing flows based on guards
- Object flow: an adge that has objects or data passing along it

• Class Diagram

- Class: describes a set of objects that share the same specifications of features, constraints, and semantics
- Attributes:
 - * A structural feature of a class
 - * Define the state (date value) of the object
- Operation (or methods):
 - * A behavior feature of a class that specify the name, type, parameters and any constraints for

invocation

- * Define how objects affect each other
- Association:
 - * Specifies a semantic relationship between typed instances
 - * Relates objects and other instances of a system
 - * They can have properties
- Generalization:
 - * Relates a specific classifier to a more general classifier
 - * Relation between a general thing (superclass) and a specific thing (subclass)
- A class diagram describes the kind of objects in a system and their different static relationships
- Kind of relationships include:
 - * Association between objects of a class
 - * Inheritance between classes themsleves

• Component Diagram

- Component:
 - * Modular part of a system that encapsulates its contents and whose manifestation is repleable within its environment
 - * Behavior typically implemented by one or more classes of sub-component
- Provided interfaces: interfaces implemented and exposed by a component
- Required interfaces: interfaces required to implement component's behavior
- An assembly connector: links an interface provided by one component to an interface required by another component
- Ports: named sets of provided and required interfaces. Models how intrefaces relate to internal parts

• Deployment diagrams

- A node is a communication resource where components are deployed for execution by way of artifacts
- A communication path is an interconnection between nodes to exchange messages, typically used to represent network connections
- An artifact is a physical piece of infromation used in deployment and operation of a system

• Sequence diagrams

- Lifeline: represents an individual participant in the interaction
- Message: communication
- Dynamic modeling models dynamic aspects of systems: control and synchronization within an object
 - What are the **state** of the system?
 - Which **events** does the system react to?
 - Which **transitions** are possible?
 - When are **activities** (functions) started and stopped
 - Such models correspond to **transition systems**
 - * Also called **state machine** or (variant of) automata
- Starecharts extend standard state machines in various way
 - Hierarchy: nested states used for iterated refinement
 - Parallelism: machines are combined via product construction
 - Time and reactivity: for modeling reactive systems

Summary

- Modeling language used to capture different system views
 - * Static: e.g. classes and their relationships
 - * Dynamic: state-oriented behavioral description
 - * Functional: behavioral described by function composition
 - $*\ Traces/collaboration:$ showing different interaction scenarios
- Model are starting point for further phases. But their valusis proportional to their prescriptive and analytic properties
- Foundation of security analysis and bearer for additional security-related information

Model Driven Security

- Formal: has well difined semantics
- General: ideas may be specialized in many ways
- Wide spectrum: Integrates security into overall design process
- Tool supported: Compatible too with UML-based design tools
- Scales: Initial experience positive
- Components of Model Driven Security (MDS)
 - Models:
 - * Modeling languages combine security and design languages
 - * Models specify security and design aspects
 - Security Infrastructure: code + standards conform infrastructure
 - Transformation: parameterized by component standard
- Model Ddriven Architecture
 - A **model** presents a system view useful for conceptual understanding
 - * When the model have *semantics*, they constiture formal specifications and can also be used fro analysis and refinement
 - MDA is an **O**bject Management Group standard
 - * Standard are political, not scientific, construts
 - * They are valuable for building interoperable tools and for the widespread acceptance of tools and notations used
 - MDA is based on standard for:
 - * Modeling: The UML, for defining graphical view-oriented models of requirements and designs
 - * Metamodeling: the Meta-Object Facility, for defining modeling languages, like UML
- Unified Modeling Language
 - Family of graphical languages for OO-modeling
 - Wide industrial acceptance and considerable tool support
 - Semantics just for parts. Not yet a Formal Method
 - Class Diagrams: describe structural aspects of systems. A class specifies a set of objects with common services, properties, and behaviors. Services are described by methods and properties by attributes and associations
 - Statecharts: describe the behavior of a system or class in terms of states and events that cause state transitions
- Core UML can be exitended by defining UML profile
- A **metamodel** defines the (abstract) syntax of other models
 - Its elements, metaobjects, describe types of model objects
 - MOF is a standard for defining metamodels
- Access Control Policies, specify which subjects have rights to read/write which objects
- Security policies can be enforced using a reference monitor as protection mechanism; checks whether authenticated users are authorized to perform actions
- Access Control: Two kinds are usually supported
 - Declarative $u \in Users$ has $p \in Permissions$: $\iff (u, p) \in AC$
 - * Authorization is specified by a relation
 - Programmatic: via assertions at relevant program points; system environment provides information needed for decision
 - These two kinds are often conbined
 - Role Based Access Control is a commonly used declarative model
 - * Roles group priviledges
- Secure UML
 - Abstract syntax defined by a MOF metamodel
 - Concrete syntax based on UML and defined with a UML profile
 - Kev idea:
 - * An access control policy formalizes the permissions to perform actions or (protected) resources

- * We leave these open as types whose elements are not fixed
- * Elements specified during combination with design language

- Roles and Users

- * Users, Roles, and Groups defined by stereotyped classes
- * Hierarchies defined using inheritance
- * Relations defined using stereotyped associations

- Permissions

- * Modeling permissions require that actions and resources have already been defined
- * A permission binds one or more actions to a single resource
- * Specify two relations : Permissions \iff Action and Actions \iff Resource
- Formalizes two kinds of AC decisions
 - * **Declarative AC** where decisions depend on **static information**: the assignments of users u and permissions (to actions a) to roles
 - * **Programmatic AC** where decisions depend on **dynamic inforamtion**: the satisfaction of authorization constraints in current system state.

• Generating Security Infrastructure

- Decrease burden on programmer
- Faster adaptation to changing requirements
- Scales better when porting to different platforms
- Correctness of generation can be proved, once and for all
- A **controller** defines how a system's behavior may evolve; Definition in terms of *states* and *events*, which cause state transitions
 - Focus: a language for modeling controllers for multi-tier architectures
 - Model view controller is a common patter for such systems
 - A **statemachine** formalizes the behavior of a controller
 - The statemachine consist of **states** and **transitions**
 - Two state sybtypes:
 - * SubControllerState refers to sub-controller
 - * ViewState represents a user interaction
 - A transition is triggered by an *Event* and the assigned *StatemachineAction* is executed during the state transition
- Dialect defines resources and actions

Secure Coding

- Buffer overflows
 - A **buffer** is a contiguous region of memory storing data of the same type
 - A **buffer overflow** occurs when data is written past buffer's end
 - They can alter program's data and control flow
 - This is a massive problem and has been so far many years
 - The resulting damage depends on:
 - * Where the data spills over to
 - * How this memory region is used
 - * What modifications are made

Layout of virtual memory

- Stack grows downward and holds
 - * Calling parameters
 - * Local variables for functions
 - * Various address
- Heap grows upwards
 - st Dynamically allocated storage generated using alloc or malloc
- Where would a malicious attacker jump to?
 - Common target: code that creates a (root-)shell
- Where in memory does this code go?

- Exploit code typically placed on the stack
- Usually, within the very buffer that is overflowed
- Return address must point exactly to the exploit's entry point
 - Non-trivial in practice
 - Trick used of starting exploit with a landind zone of values representing nop instructions
- Alternatively, attacker places exploit code:
 - On the *stack*: into parameters or other local variable
 - On the heap: into some dynamically allocated memory region
 - Into environment variables (on stack)
- A canary is a value on the stack whose value is tested before returning
 - It is a random value (hard for attacker to guess) or a value composed of different string terminators

· Automatic array bounds checking

- Compiler automatically adds an explicit check to each array access during code generation
- Drawbacks
 - * It can be difficult to determine the bounds of an array
 - * Loss of performance can be substantial
 - * Some compilers only check explicit array references

• Defense programming

- Avoid unsafe library functions
- Always check bounds of array when iterating over them

• Non executable buffers

- Mark stack or heap as being non-executable, thus the attacker cannot run exploit stored in buffers on stack/heap
- Extend OS with a register string maximal executable address
- Alternatively, tag pages as (non)executable in the page table
- Problems and limitations
 - * Attacker can still execute code in the text segment
 - * Attacker can still violate data integrity

• Address Space Layout Randomization

- Randomizing memory layout
 - * Location of stack and heap base in a
 - * Order libraries are loaded
 - * Even layout within stack frames by compiler
- Does not eliminate overflow problem
 - * Lowers chances of a successful exploit by requiring the attacker to guess locations of relevent areas

• Format string vulnerabilities

- Can crash the program
- Can read the stacks's constant
- Can read and overwrite arbitrary memory locations
 - * printf can modify the contents of memory locations.

• Unix file system

- Directories are hierarchically structured
 - * Contents: directories and data files
 - * Root of directory tree is the root directory /
- User have an associated current working directory
- Each file and directory has an associated **inode** data structure
- File descriptor provide a handle to an inode

• File name vulnerabilities

- Files names are not cononical
- Dut to links, directory is actually a graph, not a tree
- File parsing vulnerabilities have bee a problen in past
- Race conditions occurs when the results of computation depend on which thread of process is scheduled
 - The result appears to be non-deterministic

- In reality, the result is determined by the scheduling algorithm and the environment
- HTTP transfers hypertext requests and data between browser and server
 - Get: request a web page
 - Post: submit data to be processed
 - Put: store (upload) sone specific resource
 - On each request, the client sends a HTTP header to the server

• Session management

- HTTP is stateless, it does not support sessions
- Session managements is implemented using cookies or URL query string to the thread state

SQL injection

- Input validation attacks where user data is sent to a web server and passed on to back-end system
- The attacker tries to alter program code on the server
- SQL servers are standard backends for majority of web servers
- Countermeasures
 - * Perform input validation
 - * Parse and then substitute, not the other way around

• Cross site scripting

- Same origin policy prevents information flow
- Two pages belong to the same origin iff the domain name, protocol and port are identical
- -XSS
 - * Web site inadvertently sends malicious script to browser, which interprets the script
 - * Script embedded in a dynamically generated page based on unvalidated input from untrustworthy sources
- Content Security Policy
 - * Standard prevents XSS and other code injection attacks
 - * Server define white list of trusted content sources

Risk Analysis

- Risk analysis is relevant for all phases of the waterfall
- Identify the most probable **threats** to an organization
- Understand the related vulnerabilities
- Relate these to the organizational assets and their valuation
- Determine **risks** and suitable **countermeasures**
- It's all about balance
 - Balancing functional requirements, usability, costs, risks
 - Don't spend 1000 CHF for a firewall to protect 100 CHF worth of data
- Differentialte relevant risks with theorical ones
 - Cryptabalysis of ciphers vs dictionary attacks on password
 - This requires a proper threat analysis, i.e., adversarial model
- Assets: Things of value to an organization
 - Tangible (physical like hardware or logical like sofware) and intangible
 - Value sometimes difficult to estimate
- Threat: Potential cause of an unwanted event that may harm the organization and its assets
- Vulnerability: A characteristic (include weakness) of an asset that can be exploited by a threat
- Source of threats
 - Human with various motives
 - Nature
 - Environment
 - Not all threats based on a malicious intent

• Countermeasures

- Means to detect, deter, or deny attacks to threatened assets
 - * Encryption, authentication
 - * Intrusion detection

- * Auditing
- Countermeasures may have vulnerabilities and are subject to attacks, too
- Not for free
 - * Direct cost
 - * Often impact on system function on non-functional behavior
- Risk is the possibility to suffer harm or loss
 - Also a measure of failure to counter a threat (you might well choose to ignore certain threats)
 - An organization's risks are a function of:
 - * A loss associated with an event
 - * The probability/likelihood/frequency of event occurrence
 - * The degree to which the risk outcome can be influenced
 - Measure *expected loss* resulting from a threat successfully exploiting a vulnerability

• Risk enablers/vulnerabilities

- Software design flaws
- Software implementation errors
- System misconfiguration, e.g., firewalls, WLANS, ...
- Inadequate security policies or enforcement
- Poor system management
- Lack of physical protection
- Lack of employee training
- Handling risk: strategies for risk reduction
 - Avoid the risk, by changing requirements for security or other system characteristic (followed by redesign/implementation)
 - Transfer the risk, by allocating it to other systems, people organization's assets or by buying insurance
 - **Assume** the risk, by either *mitigating/reducing* it with available resources, or simply *accepting* it
- **Risk analysis** is the process of examining a system and its operational context to dertermine possible exposures and the harm they can cause
- Risk management involves the identification, selection, and adoption of security measures justified by
 - The identified risks to assets
 - The degree by which the measures reduce these risks to acceptable levels
 - The cost of these measures
- Generic procedure
 - Identify assets to be reviewed
 - Ascertain threats and the corresponding vulnerabilities regarding that asset
 - Calculate and prioritize the risks; Decide how to handle it
 - For assumed risks: Identify and implement countermeasures controls, or safeguards or accept the risk
 - * For countermeasures: check that they don't introduce new risks
 - Monitor the effectiveness of the controls and assess them

• Fully quantitative risk analysis

- Goal: assign independently obtained, objectives, numeric values to all components of a risk analysis
 - * Asset value and potential loss
 - * Safeguard effectiveness
 - * Safeguard cost
 - * Probability
- Pros:
 - * Effort put into asset value dertermination and risks mitigation
 - * Cost/benefit analysis
 - * Numbers good for comparisons and communication
- Cons: Costly, accuracy unclear

• Quantitative risk analysis

- Rational: Buisinesses want to measure risks in terms of money
- Difficult for many logical and intangible assets

- Reliance on historical data; nature of future attacks are, in principle, unpredictable
- Problems comparing approximate quantities
- Monetary values give a false impression of precision
- Instead of probability, use categories (high, medium, low)
- Pros
 - * Simpler as need not determine exact monetary values of assets or probability of different threats succeeding
 - * Easy to involve different parties
- Cons
 - * Even more subjective
 - * No single number for decision support
 - * No basis for cost-benefit analysis

Summary

- Risk is a function of assets and threats
 - * Value of assets, probability of a threat materializing
 - * Existing safeguards
- Not all threats equally dangerous and countermeasures are not for free; Rely on lists of existing threats and vulnerabilities
- Most risk analysis procedures rely on some structured means of identifying and evaluating the above items
- Quantitative assessments are difficult
 - * Assignement of probabilities/impact
 - * BSI baseline protection on ACTAVE don't even consider probabilities

Threat modeling

- Security engineering is not yet a mature discipline
- Safety engineering and associated methods are better established
 - Failure modes and effects analysis: bottom-up, textual
 - Fault Tree Analysis: top-down, graphical
- Methods may be used individually or in combination
- Failure Mode and Effect Analysis, also called FMECA, to emphasize Criticality
 - Goal: identify possible root causes of faults early
 - Bottom-up (inductive) addressing system, design, and process
 - Choose component/subsystem/parts and analyze possible failures and their effect on the rest of the system
 - Often used in mechanical or hardware-oriented systems
 - $-\,$ Consider each part of the entire system
 - How may it or its subsystem fail?
 - * Fault: inability to function or an undesired functionality
 - * Failure: occurrence of a fault
 - * Failure mode: manner which fault occurs
 - Analysis based on *historical data*, expert opinion
 - Rank failure mode
 - * Occurence: relative probability of malfunctions occuring
 - * Severity: Relative severity of worst possible outcome
 - * (Non) Detectability: Probability that failure will be detected/corrected
 - * Criticality = Occurence \times Severity
 - * Risk Priority Number = $Occurence \times Severity \times Detectability$
 - Procedure
 - 1. Define system to be analyzed
 - 2. Construct block diagrams of systems
 - 3. Identify potential item and interface definitions
 - 4. Evaluate and rank failures

- 5. Identify possible causes and appropriate actions
- 6. Dorrective design: take actions to eliminate/reduce high-risks FMs
- 7. Documentation
- It appears to work well in practice
- Like all other techniques, no guarantees
 - * Garbage in \Rightarrow Garbage out
 - * Easy to overlook human error, effect of hostile environments
- Prerequisites
 - * Understand how the system works
 - * Done when design/architectures is available
 - * Experience with possible problems
- Leads to facilitated discussion with different group members
- Unique to FMEA: probability of detection (relevant for security)

• Fault tree analysis

- Goal identify conditions leading to system failure (top level event)
- Aims at finding the **sources** of a system failure
- Deductive top-down method
- Quantitative and qualitative
- Graphical representation of causal relationships
- Prerequisites
 - * Undrestand how the system works
 - * Done when design/architecture is available
 - * Facilitated discussions with different group members
- Procedure
 - * Input: plan of the system and FMEA, if existent
 - * Determine undesired (top-level) events
 - * Identify event(s) that lead to the top-level event
 - * Leaves: possible causes
 - * Symbols used: AND/OR
 - * Identify cut sets: those events that together lead to system failure
 - * Perform quantitative or qualitative analysis on resulting tree
- Primary event (leaves)
 - * Basic events: no precursor; probabilistic
 - * Unddeveloped events: no major effect alone on the system
 - * External events: expected to happen; not a fault
- Intermediate events: Link primary of intermediate events via AND/OR gates
- ${\bf Expanded}$ ${\bf events}:$ Need a separate fault tree to explain
- A cut is a set of event that, taken together, lead to the top level event
- A **minimal cut** is a cut that is no longer a cut if an element is removed
- In general, there are many cuts and many minimal cuts
- **FMEA** may indicate conditions that are not controllable by the system, e.g., security breach at a particular point
 - This gives rise to new requirements for the involved components
 - Closest analogy is data pathways where we aggregate requirements as we move from classes to components to systems
- TFA starts with an undesired top-level event representing a violated secutity requirement
 - Decomposing it into possible causes may lead to lower-level causes and suggest new security requirements
 - This is the basis of attack trees
- Safety: failures arise from faults occuring
- Security: failures are the unwanted events that occur when a threat agent materializes a threat through an attack that exploits a vulnerability in the system
- Attack trees
 - Nodes are attacks (threats)

- Top level goal may be obtained from misuse cases
- Refine as needed
 - * Alternative attacks
 - * Composite attacks
- Assign attributes to nodes
 - * Probabilities
 - * Estimated impact
 - * Compute probabilities, impact, or risk of cut sets
- Use structure of system and environment

Summary

- System design models help to identify threats
- Data pathways as means to
 - * Identify critical system parts and
 - * Support risk assessment
- Use of attack trees to capture threats

Security Design

- Safeguards and countermeasures
 - Avoidance controls
 - * Safeguard used to proactively minimize risk of exploits
 - * Either reduce their likelihood or impact
 - Assurance: Tools and strategies to ensure the effectiveness of existing controls and safeguards
 - Detection
 - * Technique and programs to ensure early detection interception, and response to security breaches
 - * Virus scanner and audits
 - Recovery
 - * Planning and response services to rapidly restore a secure environment and investigate sources of a security breach

Security design principles

- Use proven patterns and principles
 - * Avoid security by obscurity
 - * Least priviledge
 - * Keep security mechanism simple
 - * Defense in depth
 - * Detect intrusions
- Use ${\bf standard}$ and ${\bf best}$ ${\bf practices}$
- Consistent security level: define a baseline and enforce it everywhere
- Take appropriate measures at right level
 - * Adopt software where needed ratehr than hacking infrastructure
 - * Use capabilities provided by the given technologies rather then employing additional components
- Use mature libraries
- Use proprietary solutions as a last resort
 - * Standard solution are usually more secure, efficient, and robust than home-grown ones
 - * Maintenance?
- Generate implementation to avoid programming errors
 - * Access control is a good candidate
 - * Require high-quality generators
- Countermeasures can be categorized as follows:
 - 1. Integrate or configure existing security mechanisms (utilize system security mechanism)
 - 2. Implement security functions in application logic
 - 3. Refactor the software architecture (Reduce "attack surface")

1. Security mechanism integration

- Integrate, configure, or employ existing mechanisms
 - Network: firewalls, VPNs, network-authentication and access control
 - OS: hardening, file system access control
 - Application/webserver: transport encryption, authentication, access control
- Pros
 - Baseline protection
 - No application support required, so good for black-box integration
 - Usually well-undertsood by IT departments and administrators
- Cons
 - Application layer attacks cannot be stopped at the network level
 - Nontrivial

2. Implement security in the application

- Some countermeasures best implement within application
 - I/O validation and application-specific checks
 - Application-level encryption
 - Access control
- Requires that security design is integrated into the development process
- Use of standard security APIs and modules is advisable
- Pros
 - Best fit to application
 - No additional system components, reduces costs for licensing and operation
- Cons
 - Expensive
 - Error prone, test intensive

3. Refactor software architecture

- Improve/simplify security design
 - Reduce attack surface
 - Split systems into highly-critical and less-critical parts
 - Allocate security-sensitive functions to toher systems
- Pros
 - Simplifies security design
 - Cheaper and less error-prone
 - Sometime the only way to achieve security goal
- Cons
 - Significant impact on overall project
 - May have negative impact on other functions
 - Causes strongest resistance and conflicts
- Summary
- Risk can be mitigated, transfered, or accepted
- Mitigation based on different safeguards
- Security design is a creative process, guided by principles
- Measures fall into different categories
- Threat model and risk analysis must be synchronized with design
- Code generation can improve quality of security implementations

Code scanning

- Code scanning is a verification thechnique
 - Take code as input
 - Supplements manual code inspection

- Is a countermeasure against implementation problems
- Problem categories (from security perspective)
 - Input validation and representation: Buffer overflowm injection attacks, etc
 - API abuse: abuse contract between and callee; provide wring input or make too strong assumptions about output
 - Security features e.g., don't hardcode password in source code
 - Time and state: e.g., race conditions
 - Error handling: handle errors poorly or not at all
 - Code quality: dereference null pointers, infinite loops, etc
 - Encapsulation: lack thereof
- Code scanning = pragmatic static analysis
- Flaws concern problematic behavior
 - Failures: derivation of bahavior detectable at system interface
 - Errors: deviation of system's behavior from intended one
- Behavior properties in general undecidable
 - Termination, reachability of a program point
- Tools must therefore
 - Not always terminate, or
 - Over-approximate behavior (returning false positives), or
 - *Under-approximate* behaviors (returning *false negatives*)

Semantic analysis and structural rules

- Build symbol table along with AST
- This can be used for type checking, which helps find bugs
- Types also help in specifying structural rules for bug finding
- Tools build control flow graph on top of AST
 - Basic block: sequence of instructions that is always execurted, i.e., no jumps in/out of middle, no branching
 - Forward edges: potential control flow paths between BBs
 - Backward edges: possible loops

• Dataflow analysis

- Determine how data moves through program
 - * Traverse control flow graph and note where data generated and used
- Implementation trick: convert function to static Single Assignement
 - * Can assign to a variable only once, so make unique with indicies
 - \ast Make it trivial to determine where value comes from
- Simple compiler application: constant propagation

• Taint analysis

- Source rules defines locations where tainted data enters system
- Sink rules define locations that should not receive tainted data
- Pass-through rules define how a function manipulates tainted data
- Clense rules special pass-through rules that remove taint

• Input validation

- Attack surface: all places where program accepts input

Summary

- Code scanning should play a central role in code review
 - * Aids understanding code
 - * Helps finding common bugs
- Surprisingly effective
 - * Everyone makes dumb mistakes
 - * Simple patterns can describe remarkable subtle bugs
 - * Threads/crypto/... more complex than most people think
- Pragmatic, conservative, static analysis techniques play a major role
 - * Augmetnted with lots of domain knowledge

Security Testing

- Validation and Verification (V&V) evaluates the *quality* of software with respect to its *specification* and the overall system *requirements*
- Target: Design flaws:
 - Formal methods (model checking, theorem proving): check the design with respect to the specification
- Target: Implementation flaws:
 - Static analysis: reason about programs without executing them: manual or automated code inspection
 - Dynamic analysis: reason about programs by executing them: testing, and run-time analysis
- Tests are attempted refutation
- Black box testing: Programs map inputs to outputs, but we do not know how
- Limitations of testing:
 - Observations are finite
 - Program's input domains are often infinite, while testing amounts to executing a program on finitely many inputs
 - * Thus, testing cannot refute $P \vdash \theta$, whith an existential θ

$$\exists e \in Executions(P) \quad \phi(e)$$

* Consequently, testing cannot verify $P \vdash \theta$ for a universal θ

$$\forall e \in Executions(P) \quad \phi(e)$$

- * \vdash means satisfy where P is a program and θ its specifications
- Testing aims at **refuting** the hypothesis that a system satisfy a specification
- Testing is confined to choosing finitely many inputs, and observing the system's behavior for a finite length of time
- The finite nature of testing entails that certain specifications are *irrefutable* through tests. Other verification techniques such as static analysis, must be used then
- Test Selection Problem: Which inputs to choose for testing
 - A test generation method is a *systematic* approach to test selection, ideally amenable to automation
 - Test generation methods can be classified as
 - * Random, requires nothing
 - * Fault based, requires a fault model for P
 - * Model-based, requires a formal model of P
 - * Specification-based, requires a formal model of θ
 - Random testing is the base-line: Any non worthy test generation method should outperform random testing in terms or relevant **failures**
- Fault Model
 - Failure: a deviation of P from the expected observable behavior
 - Fault: the cause of the failure
- Testing reveals failures
- Finding and fixing the inderlying faults is **debugging**
- A fault model describe a class of (common) faults
- Testing is searching for failures. The search should ideally be conducted in the light of how faults come about, which suggests how failures are likely found
- Fault models capture repeated programming mistakes
 - Each fault model reflects a small number of mistakes
 - Interaction Rule: most failures are inducted by single factor faults or by jount combinatorial
 effect (interaction) or two factors, with progressively fewer failures induced by interactions between
 three or more factors
 - Recipe:
 - * Identify the input domain
 - * Choose a suitable fault model for the input domain

- * Partition the input domain using the fault model
- * Select representative test inputs per partition
- * Test Orable: system's specification

• Test adequacy Criteria

- We select a finite subset S of the infinite set D of inputs
- **Specification coverage**: **Adequacy** of S = the percentage of the specification obligations and prohibitions that are exercised by at least one test in S
- Model coverage: Adequacy of S = the percertage of the models components that are exercised by at least one test in S
- Coverage and mutation analysis are widespread adequacy measures. They both however rely on hypotheses
 - The relationship between coverage/mutations anlysis and failure detection must be empirically validated

• Requirements are about resources

- We reduce requirements to **specifications** for **systems**
- The **reduction** relies on appropriate environment **assumptions**
- Two types of **Security tests**:
 - **S-Tests**: Refute $System \vdash SPEC$, e.g. using fault-based tests
 - * Independent from the adversary
 - **E-Tests**: Refute $(Environment||System||adversary) \vdash EA$
 - * Depend on the adversary model
- Adversary model itself is not subject to tests
- Adequacy of S-Tests: functional adequacy measures, such as coverage and mutation analysis
- Adequacy of E-Tests: Ideal: the validity of each environmental assumption is "adequatly" tested
- Challenges:
 - EAs are hard to explicit
 - Hard to say how well a CWA is tested
- $EA, SPEC \Rightarrow REQ$
- Security flaws revealed throught security tests:
 - System fails to satisfy SPEC
 - * Revealed through S-Tests
 - * Debugging: Fix the system
 - EA is violated:
 - * Revealed through E-Tests
 - * Debugging: Fixing the system falls short. Fix the design, update the security rational
 - Security testing does not account for flawas rooted in unelicted requirements or weak attacker models

Summary

- Security testing's goal is to invalidate the requirement: the protected resources cannot be accessed
 by unauthorized entities
- **Security rationale** support decomposing the requirements into a system specification and an environmental assumption
- **S-Tests** goad is to refute the hypothesis that the system satisfy its *specification*. Functional testing methods and tools apply here
 - * Security testing > testing the system w.r.t. its (security) specification
- **E-Tests** goal is to refute the hypothesis that an *assumption* is valid in the system's environment in the presence of an *adversary*
- E-Tests are hard to generate because environment do not admit delimitation, and environmental
 assumptions are hard to explicate