

System Security fiche

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Side Channels & Tempest

- **Compromising Emanations:** Physical signals related to digital activity; break the assumption of higher-level abstractions; Root cause of many attacks
- **Tempest:** Passive leakage of plaintext information (E.g., video on screen)
 - Video Signal
 - * Signal in wire/connector/etc. not well shielded
 - * Current in wires generates EM waves
 - * Modulated with the pixel values
- **Soft Tempest:** Active version of *Tempest*; leakage used to exfiltrate data
 - Vide Signal
 - * Signal in wire/connector/etc. not well shielded
 - * Current in wires generates EM waves
 - * Modulated witht the pixel values
 - * Use to transmit data
 - * Or to add noise Tempest leakage
 - * Possible with many other sources of leakage (e.g. memory access)
- **Side Channels:** Use leakage to attack cryptographic implementation (Only in proximity, with few exceptions)
- Type of *physical leakage*: Execution time, Power, Magnetic and electromagnetic, optical, thermal, acoustic and vibrational, reflection of injected signals
- Type of *attack*: Passively recover plaintext, Actively exfiltrate data; attack cyrptographic implementation
- **Symmetric encryption** for *confidentiality*
 - *Stream cypher*
 - * Process a message bit by bit (byte by byte)
 - * $KeyStream = PseudoRandomBitStreamGenerator(seed)$
 - * $CyphertextStream = KeyStream + PlaintextStream$
 - *Block cypher*
 - * Process a message block by block (EAS, DES)
 - * Plaintext might need *padding*

- * $Plaintext + Key = BlockCipher$
- * All block cipher leads to the cipher text
- * There is different way to concatenate block cipher
- * **Electronic CodeBlock** (ECB, *insecure*) $C_1 = P_1 \oplus K, C_2 = P_2 \oplus K, \dots$
- * **Cipher Block Chaining** (CBC) $C_1 = (P_1 \oplus IV) \oplus K, C_2 = (P_2 \oplus C_1) \oplus K, \dots$
- **Symmetric crypto for authentication**
 - **Message Authentication Code (MAC)**
 - Shared key between A and B
 - A sends to B message $M + MAC$ where $MAC = MACFunction(M, K)$
- **Asymmetric crypto for confidentiality**
 - A and B exchange a key pair via a trusted channel
 - A wants to send M to B , she sends: $C = Encryption(Pu_B, M)$ where Pu_B is B 's public key
 - B decrypts the message as follow: $M' = Decryption(Pr_B, C)$ where Pr_B is B 's private key
- **Asymmetric crypto for authentication**
 - A send to B message M and Signature S , where $S = Encryption(Pr_A, M)$ where (A 's private key)
 - B verifies the signature by checking: $Decryption(Pu_A, S) = M$ where (Pu_A is A 's public key)
- Combine the best of two: Asymmetric key exchange + Symmetric encryption
- **Security** of cryptographic algorithms
 - We *model* system and possible attackers
 - Security properties are valid under certain *assumptions*
- Side Channel concrete example
 - **Timing**: Measure execution time
 - * Classic timing attack against RSA
 - * Remote attack are possible
 - * Modern example of remote attack on cryptocurrencies
 - **Power** Measure some physical quantity influenced by execution
 - * Simple Power Analysis (SPA)
 - * Differential Power Analysis (DPA)
 - * Correlation Power Analysis (CPA)
- Reminder on **RSA**
 - *Key generation*
 1. Chose numbers p, q such that p and q are prime and $p \neq q$
 2. Compute $n = pq$
 3. Compute $\Phi(n) = \Phi(p-1)\Phi(q-1)$
 4. Chose e such that e and $\Phi(n)$ are relative prime and $1 < e < \Phi(n)$
 5. Compute d as such that $de \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$
 6. Public key $PU = \{e, n\}$
 7. Private key $PR = \{d, n\}$
 - *Encryption*
 - * Plaintext $m < n$
 - * Ciphertext $C = m^e \bmod n$
 - *Decryption*
 - * Ciphertext C
 - * Plaintext $m = C^d \bmod n$
 - *Signature*
 - * Plaintext $m < n$
 - * Signature $s = m^d \bmod n$
 - The *security* of RSA is based on two hard problems
 - * The RSA problem, i.e., computing the e^{th} root of m modulo n from $C = m^e \bmod n$
 - * Factoring large numbers into smaller primes
- Exponentiation is implemented using *Square and multiply*
 - Problem 1
 - * Key dependant branching
 - * Execution time depends on the key d , if bit i of d is 0 it will be faster than if bit i of d is 1

- Problem 2
 - * Montgomery used for modular multiplication because it is more efficient
 - * Montgomery execution time T_{mont} depends on the plaintext m ; there is a reduction step done only if necessary
- **Countermeasures**
- **Constant time**
 - Relatively easy for specific cases
 - * E.g., modular multiplication without conditional reduction
 - Generic protection is hard
 - * Identify and eliminate all dependencies of time with plaintext and key
 - * Can have performance issues
- **What if we artificially add noise**
 - An attacker just needs more measurements to dig the signal out of the noise
- **Masking:** Can we make it impossible for the attacker to guess
 - Mask with random number C different for each message:
 - * $md \bmod n \rightarrow [(m.X)d \bmod n].[(X^{-1})d \bmod n] \bmod n$
 - Intuitively, given m and d_i the attacker cannot guess slow/fast any more
- **A logic gate**
 - Electronic component that implements a logic operator (not, and, nand, or, xor)
 - Stateless (Combinatorial)
 - Together with memory elements it is used to implement finite state machines
- *MOS transistor*: electronic switch
- Logical gate can be implemented with MOS
- **Data dependency:** There are physical phenomena that create a data dependency between logic values and their transitions and the power consumption of the circuit
- **Measure**
 - We can measure the power consumption and observe these phenomena
 - Signals are small, many measurements and statistical analysis are often needed
- **Model:** we know how it works: given some logic data manipulated by the software/hardware, we can predict the corresponding power consumption
- **Countermeasures**
 - *Problem:* There is a data dependency (of some order) between plaintext, key and the power
 - Add noise
 - * Desynchronize the traces
 - * Inject random noise
 - * Defeated with better signal processing and more measurements
 - Try to balance the hardware
 - * Filtering/shielding (Filtering is not perfect, expensive, can be tempered)
 - * Make a processor where every instruction/operands consumes the same power (Not easy and expensive)
 - N^{th} order masking
 - * Multiply each data with a random variable
 - * This algorithmically breaks the dependency making it impossible to guess the intermediate value
- **EM side channel**
 - Currents flowing in cables produce EM signals
 - Clock might act as a carrier
 - Emissions from localized areas, are not all overall power consumption
- **Sound side channel**
 - Currents in certain capacitors make them vibrate and produce sounds
- We don't always need a physical access
- **Tamper resistant** systems take the bank vault approach
 - Prevention of break in
- **Tamper responding** systems use the burglar alarm approach
 - Real-time detection of intrusion and prevention of access to sensitive data

- **Tamper evident** system are designed to ensure that is a break-in occurs, evidence of the break in is left behind
 - Detection of intrusion

Architectural Support for Security

- **Application security:** Requirements
 - **Launch-time integrity:** correct application was started or loaded
 - **Run-time isolation:** no interference from malicious software, peripherals
 - **Secure persistent storage**
- **OS Security:** Privilege rings
 - Ring 3: applications
 - Ring 2: Device drivers
 - Ring 1: Device drivers
 - Ring 0: Kernel
 - Currently, only *ring 0* and *ring 3* are used
 - CPU tracks the current privilege level CPL using two register bits
 - Main uses: limiting access to privileged instructions, I/O-ports
 - Legacy use: kernel memory protection
 - Privilege in Modern OS (only two levels)
 - * Level 0 for the kernel
 - * Level 3 for users
- Calls across Privilege Rings
 1. Before **syscall**, put argument into registers
 2. Issue **syscall** → CPU changes privilege level and calls *Hook*
 3. *Hook* performs access policy checks and validates arguments
 4. Kernel performs the requests action
 5. Return to the application
- **Discretionary Access Control** (Linux Security Model)
 - A means of restricting access to objects based on the identity of subjects and/or groups to which they belong. The controls are discretionary in the sense that a subject with a certain access permission is capable of passing that permission to any other subject
- **Users and Groups**
 - A *user-account* (user, uid)
 - * Represents someone capable of using files
 - * Associated both with human and processes
 - A *group-account* (group, gid)
 - * Is a list of user-accounts
 - * Users have a main group
 - * May also belong to other groups
- **Permissions**
 - A file has owner and group id
 - A process has owner and group id
 - Kernel verifies permissions before executing system calls
 - * If owner uid = 0(root), everything is allowed
 - * Otherwise the uid and gid of the process and object are compared in this order and permission for the operation is searched based on owner, group, and other rights
- A **basic transaction**, wherein a *subject* (user or process) attempts some action (read, write, execute) against some *object* (file, directory, special file)
- **setuid** bit means program run with same privileges as owner
 - No matter who executes it
- **setgid** bit means run with same privileges as a member of the group which owns it
 - Again regardless of who executes it
- Password are changed using the program `/bin/passwd`

- Real UID (RUID): UID of the user running the program
- Effective UID (EUID): UID of user with whose privileges the program runs
- `getuid()` returns RUID
- `geteuid()` returns EUID
- `setuid(uid)` set UID
 - If EUID == root, set EUID and RUID
 - If not root, sets EUID if certain conditions are met
- `setruid(uid)` set RUID
- `seteuid(uid)` set EUID
- `fork()` functions shall create a new process. The new process (child process) shall be an exact copy of the calling process (parent process)
- Linux uses a DAC security model but **Mandatory Access Control (MAC)** imposes a global security policy on all users
 - User may not set controls weaker than policy
 - Normal admin done with accounts without authority to change the global security policy
 - but MAC systems have been hard to manage
- **SE linux**
 - In SELinux, all access must be explicitly granted
 - Allows no access by default, regardless of the linux user/groups ids
 - There is no default superuser in SELinux unlike the **root** in standard linux
 - Each individual subject and object in SELinux is governed by a **security context** being a:
 - * User - individual user (human or daemon)
 - * Role - like a group, assumed by user
 - * Domain (type) - a sandbox being a combination of subjects and objects that may interact with each other
 - * this model is called **Type enforcement (TE)**
 - Decision making
 - * **Access** decisions: when subject do things to objects that already exist, create new things in expected domain
 - * **Transition** decisions: invocation of processes in different domains than the one in which the subject process is running; creation of objects in different types (domains) than their parents domain; transitions must be authorized by SELinux policy
 - Access is granted by specifying access from a subject type (that is, a domain) and an object type using an allow rule
 - A domain transition is allowed only when the following three conditions are true
 - * The process' new domain type has *entrypoint* access to executable file type
 - * The process' current domain type has *execute* access to the entry point file type
 - * The process' current domain type has *transition* access to the new domain type
- **Paging-based Security**
 - Security-relevant data in page table entries
 - *Supervisor bit*: if set, this page is accessible only in ring 0 (isolates OS from applications)
 - *RW bits*: to distinguish between read-only and writeable pages
 - *Non executable (NX) bit*: if set, the page is not executable (prevents run-time code injection)
- **Virtual address space**
 - Every process has its own virtual address space
 - Kernel address space is protected with the supervisor bit
- **Firewire DMA**
 - Key idea: Access RAM is tightly controlled by the CPU, but this can be circumvented through **DMA** (Direct Memory Access)
 - Firewire technology allow for fast communication speeds between devices, use DMA
 - The attacker uses a Firewire cable to connect to a (locked) PC and issue a DMA request to fetch the contents of RAM
 - Later on, can look in the collected data and leak keys and other passwords
- **BadUSB**

- Key idea: change a USB device controller to mimic another device class
- **DMA remapping**
 - Setup by the OS, similar to MMU
 - Control DMA access to physical memory
- *OS trust assumptions*
 - Intel Management Engine
 - BIOS/UEFI
 - Peripheral firmware
 - etc.
- **Physical access Attacks** are harder to defend for the OS
 - Remove the hard drive from a machine left unattended
 - Boot from a USB key and copy the data out/change the password
 - Trivial (and possibly broken) solutions:
 - * Prevent booting from an external source from the BIOS (Broken; we can reset the bios by removing the battery)
 - * Protect the BIOS with a password (Broken; we can reset the bios by removing the battery)
 - * Partial/Full disk encryption
 - * Data hiding
- **Disk encryption**
 - *Simple approach*: use password only
 - * The disk is encrypted with a key that is protected using a user-provided password
 - * Problem: password can be brute-forced
 - *Better approach*: leverage a secure element
 - * The disk key encryption is stored in a secure element
 - * Example: Trusted Platform Module (TPM) chip on motherboard
- **Cold Boot Attack Process**
 - *Normal operation*
 - * The user logs with a password
 - * The disk encryption key is kept in RAM when the computer is locked
 - *Attack process*
 - * Attacker opens the machine to expose the RAM chips
 - * Remove power
 - * Cool down RAM (dust-sprayer upside down (-50 degree), LN2 (-192 degree))
 - * Plug RAM module to another (acquisition) platform
 - * Recover key
- Cold Boot Attack: *Countermeasures*
 - Erase key from memory on every (controlled) suspend
 - * User needs to type in password often
 - * Does not help sudden power loss
 - Prevent booting from external media
 - * Does not prevent DRAM component transfers
 - Physical protection
 - * Components that respond to enclosure opening or low temperatures
 - * Expensive for commodity systems
 - Avoid placing the key in memory
 - * Performs encryption in disk controller
 - * Requires architectural changes
- **TPM Support**
 - **Secure boot**: OS boots only if the chain of trust is valid
 - **Authenticated boot**: System records chain of trust but the OS boots even if the chain of trust is invalid
- **UEFI** instead of BIOS
- Hardware-supported OS-based - Application Security

	Hardware support for OS-based Security
CPU	Privilege rings Memory Management Unit
Chipset	DMA Remapping tables
Peripherals	Trusted Platform Module Normal HDD with OS-enforced access control

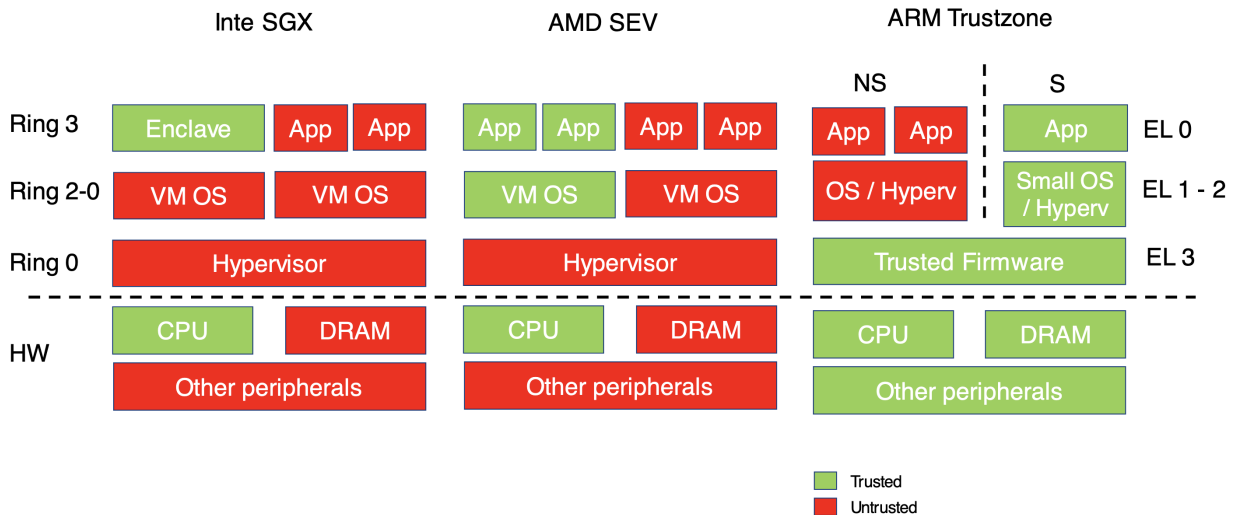
- Runtime Attacks: Typical Attacks
 - Buffer overflows
 - Format string
 - Double free
 - Use-after-free
- Runtime Attacks: Mitigation Techniques
 - **Non-executable pages (NX)**
 - * Attackers used to place shell code in normal data pages/stack
 - * Stack should not be executable
 - * Mark all pages that do not contain code as Non-executable (NX)
 - * Hardware support required
 - * Mark all pages with executable code as read-only
 - * Not always possible
 - **Stack canaries**
 - * Add random stack canaries
 - * To overwrite the return pointer, the stack canary must also be overwritten
 - * Check the value before jumping to return address
 - * Can prevent some attacks
 - * Assumes the attacker cannot read memory
 - **Address space layout randomization (ASLR)**
 - * Return to libc: overwrite return pointer with address of `exec(/bin/sh)`
 - * What if we move the binary by a few MB in its virtual address space?
 - * The location of `exec` will be unknown to the attacker
 - * Implemented in all major operating systems
 - * KASLR (linux) also defends against Meltdown
 - * Broken if the attacker can read memory (separate info leak exploit)
 - **Control flow integrity**
 - * Generate all legal control flow transfers
 - * Verify every transfer at runtime
 - * Straight forward for direct-control transfers
 - * Static destination addresses
 - * Forward edges: switch statements, indirect calls, etc.
 - * Backward edges: returns

Trusted Execution Environment

- **Defense in depth:**
 - Small Trusted Computing Base (TCB)
 - Even if the OS/Hypervisor are comprised, code/data can be protected
- **Confidential computing:**
 - Client can verify what is running on remote system; operator cannot violate the integrity of the execution
 - Operator cannot see the code/data of the client
- Enforced in Hardware (typically via special CPU instructions or co-processor)
- We need to trust the HW manufacturers: Intel, AMD
- Vulnerable to some side channel attack

- **Computing Systems Trust Model**
 - The **Trusting Computing Base (TCB)** is the set of software and hardware components that need to be trusted for an application to execute securely
 - For instance, the TCB of a banking application includes the Operating System, the CPU, the DRAM chips, the disk ...
 - * If any of these are malicious the execution integrity and confidentiality cannot be guaranteed
 - Other applications are not in the TCB
 - In principle, they can be malicious and the OS (with hardware support) still provides isolation to other benign apps
 - * However some exploit can lead to privilege escalation
 - **Trusted Execution Environment (TTEs)** usually aim to reduce the TCB needed to execute applications
- *Primitives*: Isolation, Bootstrapping trust, Sealing storage
- **Isolation** (defense in depth and confidential computing)
 - CPUs traditionally enforce isolation between permission levels
 - More privileged levels control and can modify less privileged levels
- **Intel SGX** *Isolate ‘small’ Apps into enclaves*
 - Design choice
 - * Create isolated environments at the application level, called **enclaves**
 - * Enclaves are isolated from all the other software in the system OS/Hypervisor
 - Resists a physical attacker (cold boot attack, bus tapping, etc)
 - * Everything outside the CPU die is untrusted
 - * The CPU die is assumed to be secure
 - The OS and the Hypervisor are still in charge of managing virtual memory and interrupts
 - The CPU keeps track of whether it is currently executing in enclave-mode and which enclave is executing
 - Memory reads to enclave memory when not in enclave mode always return `0xff`
 - Trying to read another enclave memory returns `0xff`
 - Similarly, not authorized memory writes fail silently
 - Enclaves can read/write the memory to their untrusted app
 - New component on the CPU takes care of securing memory, the **Memory Encryption Engine (MEE)**
 - The CPU is trusted, so data resides in the cache in plain text
 - While the content of memory pages is protected by SGX and the MEE, page metadata is not, metadata includes:
 - * Access permissions of a page
 - * Accessed bit: whether a memory page was recently accessed
 - * Dirty bit: whether a memory page was recently written
 - **Controlled Channel attacks**
 - * The os can remove execute or read/write access to memory page
 - * This trigger an exception which contains the address of the memory page that was being accessed
 - * This reveals enough information
 - * Information from the accessed/dirty bits are also enough to leak information
 - **Side Channel attacks**
 - * Enclaves share resources with other applications in the system: cache, core execution units, branch prediction structure
 - * Monitoring utilization of these resources from another application leaks information
- **AMD SEV**: *Isolate entire VMS*
 - Design choices:
 - * Isolate Virtual Machine from Hypervisor. VMs can execute code on ring 3,2 and 1
 - Resists low skilled physical attacker (cold boot, but not bus tampering)
 - * Everything outside the CPU die is untrusted
 - Comparison with SGX

- * SEV encrypts data that leaves the CPU die
- * However, it does not store a MAC tag together with the data (data in memory is not authenticated)
- * Like SGX, SEV keeps track of the different isolated environments with HW primitives
- * While unauthorized writes cannot happen from the CPU, if memory is corrupted some other way VMs will read the wrong value from memory
- Key management
 - * SEV uses an ARM co-processor to manage the different encryption key for each VM
 - * At VM creation a new key is created in the co-processor to encrypt the VM memory
 - * Each new VM has a different encryption key
- **ARM TrustZone:** *The tale of two world*
 - Design choices:
 - * Have two separate isolated execution environments. These are referred to as the Non secure and the Secure world
 - No physical attacker
 - * Communication to peripherals is assumed to be trusted
 - The memory is partition between the Secure and Non-Secure world
 - The Secure world can read/write the Non-Secure world memory, but the Non-Secure world is restricted to its own memory
 - The TrustZone Address space is controller (TZASV) is a hardware component that is used to configure which ranges of memory belong to which world
 - Only the secure world can configure the TZASV
 - Memory is separated at the physical layer. That is there are two separate physical address ranges, one for the secure world and one for the non-secure world
 - The CPU keeps track of which world is currently executing
- **Trusted Isolation Environments** Trust Model summary



- **Bootstrapping trust** (Attestation/Secure boot) (confidential computing)
- **Sealing storage** (defense in depth and confidential computing)