

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 cryptographic implementation
- **Symmetric encryption** for *confidentiality*
 - *Stream cypher*

- * Process a message bit by bit (byte by byte)
- * $KeyStream = PseudoRandomBitStreamGenerator(seed)$
- * $CiphertextStream = KeyStream + PlaintextStream$
- *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 timign attack against RSA
 - * Remote attack are possible
 - * Modern example of remote attack onc 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 $\Phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
 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 Managment Engine
 - BIOS/UEFI
 - Periferical 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

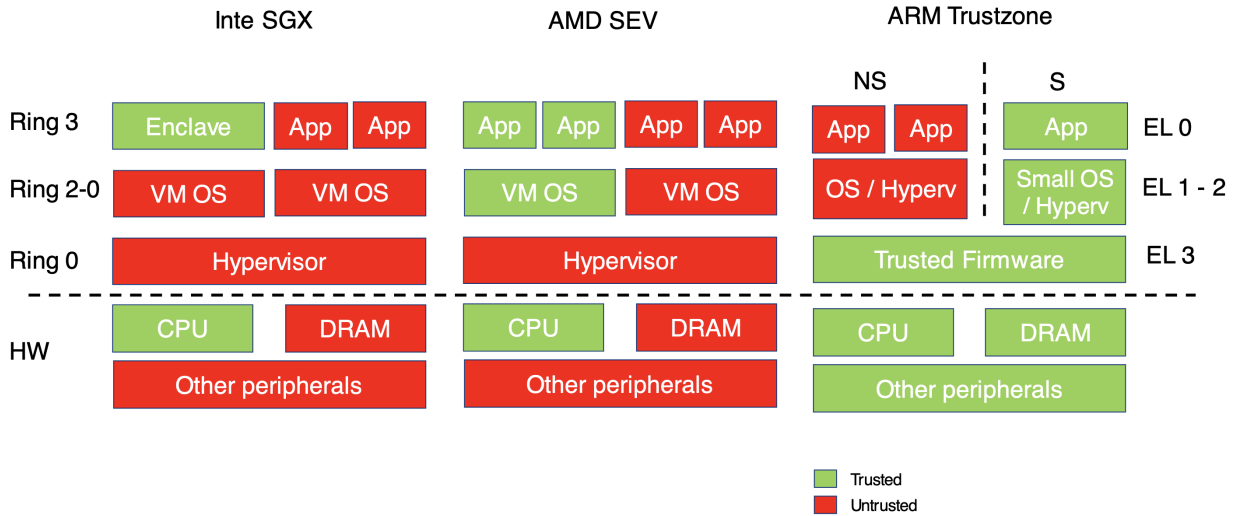
- **Defense in depth:**
 - Small Trusted Computing Base (TCB)
 - Even if the OS/Hypervisor are comprised, code/data can be protected
- **Confidential computing:**

- 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
- **AMD SEV**
 - *Advantages:*
 - * Tolerate strong physical attacker, only CPU in TCB
 - *Disadvantages:*
 - * Memory and interrupt management performed by OS
 - * Application need to be adapted to run inside an SGX enclave
 - * Only small applications possible
- **AMD SEV**
 - *Advantages:*
 - * Applications do not need to specifically adapted to run in an isolated SEV environment
 - *Disadvantages:*
 - * Resilience against physical attackers varies depending on the SEV version
 - * Memory management performed by hypervisor
- **ARM TrustZone:**
 - *Advantages:*
 - * No page/interrupt management by untrusted code, infrastructure (partially) supports secure state
 - * Availability guarantees for secure world possible
 - *Disadvantages:*
 - * No physical attacker
 - * Only one protected state
 - * All software running before and under software in secure world need to be trusted
 - * Secure state is often locked for use by device vendors and not generally open for application

developpers

- **Trusted Isolation Environments** Trust Model summary



- **Bootstrapping trust** (Attestation/Secure boot) (confidential computing)
 - The isolation provided by TEEs is a useful primitive
 - However secret need to get into the TEE somehow
 - How do we make sure that we are sending secret to the right TEE and not the malicious OS
 - The main way to prove the authenticity of a TEE:
 - * **Secure boot** check that at each boot stage, only trusted software is loaded
 - * **Remote attestation**
- **Remote Attestation**
 - Different Enclaves and keys involved
 - CPU measures the enclave and signs its hash
 - Enclave invokes measurement, OS is suspended, CPU measures and returns the signed hash
 - This can be done so that client creates a secure channel into the enclave
- **Sealing storage** (defense in depth and confidential computing)
 - Enclave has no direct access to disk or IO / no access to persistent storage
 - No access to trusted clock, limited support for counters
 - Can do **sealing** - store encrypted confidential data on disk
 - * This data is encrypted and MACed with enclave and processor specific keys
- **Remote Attestation**
 - During manufacturing, two keys are burned into the CPU
 - * **Fused Seal key** is used as Processor's secret
 - * **Provisioning key** serve as a proof for remote platform
 - * Remote platform issues an **Attestation key** which is encrypted and stored for future use
- To prevent attestation key from leaking the platform's identity, Intel introduces the **EPID** scheme
 - **EPID**: digital signature scheme with anonymity properties
 - * One group public key corresponds to multiple private keys
 - * Each unique private key can be used to generate a signature
 - * Signature can be verified using the group public key
 - * A signature cannot be linked to a private key

Memory vulnerabilities and Exploits

- **x86 Machine Model**
 - Both code and data are represented as numbers

- **Little endian:** least significant bytes is put at lower addresses
 - **Stack** grows down, other memory accesses move up
- **OS Model**
 - Ring-0, runs on behalf of every process
 - Context switches
 - * On an interrupt, CPU switches control to ring-0
 - * Ring-0 (OS) sets CR3 to another process, then `iret`
- Stack organization:
 - Function parameters
 - Return address
 - Saved Frame Pointer
 - Function's data
- **Integer Overflow**
- **Use after free**
- **Double free**
- **Format string vulnerabilities**
- **Upcasting:** From a derived class to its parent class
- **Downcasting:** From a parent class to one of its derived classes
- Upcasting is always safe, but downcasting is not
- Hardware does *not give memory and type safety*
- **Control oriented Exploits**
 - Goals: Divert or Hijack Control Flow
 - Main tricks:
 - * Corrupt code pointers
 - * Corrupt non-code pointer
 - Outcome:
 - * Code injection
 - * Code reuse
- **Data oriented Exploits**
 - Goal: Hijack Data flow
 - Outcomes: Privilege escalation, Data leakage
- **Code injection:** A memory exploit that hijacks control to jump to attacker's data payload
 - *Requirements*
 - * Write attack payload in memory
 - * Have Attack Payload Be Executable
 - * Divert control-flow to payload
- **Code pointers:** A memory address, the value of which is directly used as a control-flow transfer (in machine code) under benign inputs
 - **Code pointer injection:** Forging the runtime value of a code pointer to an invalid one
- **Type safety for Code Pointers**
 - Enforce that code pointers point to code-segment only
 - Enforce that control transfers use code pointers
 - Defeats code injection
- **Code reuse:** A memory exploit that hijack control to jump to attacker's controlled code address
 - *Requirements*
 - * Have attack payload be executable
 - * Divert control flow to payload
 - Type safety of code pointers is not enough
 - The idea:
 - * Attacker hijacks control flow
 - * Jumps back to the code segment
- **Control flow integrity:** Each control transfer jumps to a statically known set of locations
- **Data flow switching**
 - Manipulate data flows for exploits

- Goal:
 - * Information leakage
 - * Privilege escalation
- Constraints:
 - * Keep the control flow same
 - * Prevent abrupt termination
- **Defense goals**
 - Complete memory safety
 - Prevent memory writes
 - Protect all pointers
 - Protect code pointers
 - Prevent bad control flow transfers
 - Protect arbitrary parts/region of memory
 - Protect data-flow patterns
 - Complete Type safety
 - Don't protext, simple randomize

Memory Defenses

- **Complete Memory Safety:** Access memory in an intended way
- **Fault isolation:** Each module only accesses pre-determined data/code
- **No foreign code:** Execute only predetermined code
- **Control flow integrity:** Control transfers are to legitimate points only
- **System call sandboxing:** Access only a subset of system calls
- **(Code) pointers/Data integrity:** Ensure (code) pointers/date have valid values
- **Data flow integrity**
- **Non-executable Data/DEP**
 - Setting regions of memory non-executable
 - Use NX bit
 - *Defense goal:* Prevents Foreign code injection
- **Software Fault Isolation**
 - *Goal:* Fault isolation
 - * Confine read/write to certain region M
 - * This goal is also called *address sandboxing* (Access memory segments statically verified)
 - Attacker controls all memory values in M
 - Mechanism: Inline instrumentation of D
 - Limit all memeory acces to region M
 - **Trusted Computing Base (TCB):** The trusted codebase for ensuring security properties
 - Smaller the TCB, the better the design
- **Inline Reference Monitors:** Control flow integrity
 - Follow the statically determine CFG at runtime
 - CFI blocks all control flow hijacking exploits
- **Randomized tags:** Control flow integrity; Each code block must start with a tag
 - The tag should be a random, secure value
 - If f can jump to block g, h, \dots then these blocks, should have the same tag
- **Address Space Layout Randomization (ASLR)**
 - *Assumption:* The attacker can write arbitrary places
 - *Defense goal:* Attacker can't predict location accessed in attack
 - *Mechanism:*
 - * At load time, randomize stack, code, bss, etc.
 - * Randomize heap location at runtime
- **Instruction Set Randomization (ISR)**
 - *Goal:* Randomize machine instruction encoding, to defeat foreingn code injection
- **Stack Canaries**

- Secret Data values, to protect corruption of nearby data
- Check: the random canary value is OK at ret
- **Guard Pages**
 - *Defense*: Guard Pages
 - * Certain pages with NR, NW, NX inserted
 - *Assumption*:
 - * Attacker can only write linearly
 - * All written values are not used in dereferences
- **Code Checking Tools**
 - Tools checking for vulnerabilities using static source code analysis
- **Safe Language and Coding**
 - Use bug-finding techniques
 - Safe code techniques
 - Use safe libraries

Detection and Prevention

- **Information Flow Policies** Non interference
 - Differentiate programs with good information flows
 - Non interference: ‘A program is non interfering iff any executions, started with the same L-Inputs, generate the same L-Outputs’
- **Bell-LaPadula**: No read up, no write down
- **Kinds of Information flow**
 - **Direct**: use legitimate channels for data transfer
 - **Indirect**: use channels not intended for data transfer
 - **Explicit**: created by the occurrence of an event/action
 - **Implicit**: created by the absence of a specific event/action
- Application of **Taint-tracking**
 - A kind of Information Flow Technique
 - Runtime Detection/Prevention
 - * Control flow hijacking
 - * Non control data corruption
 - * XSS, SQL, Command injection
 - * User Kernel Pointer Bugs
 - Off line Analysis
 - * Malware Analysis
 - * Privacy-leaking Android apps
 - $f : X \rightarrow Y$
 - * X has some bits in which are private
 - Aims to detect: Does an output Y reveal some private X
- **Soundness & Completeness**
 - **Goal**: Given P prove that P satisfies C
 - **Complete**: Identifies all safe P s
 - **Sound**: If P is claimed safe, it does not satisfy P (?)
- In practice choose 3 between **Sound**, **Complete** and **Termination**
- **Static tracking**
 - Relies on CFG/DFG
 - *Advantages*
 - * No false negative
- **Dynamic tracking**
 - Dataflow at runtime
 - *Advantages*
 - * Can have FPs
 - * But lower FP

- **Uncertainty and Entropy**
 - **Shanon Entropy**

$$H(X | Y = y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P[X = x | Y = y] \log \frac{1}{P[X = x | Y = y]}$$

- Initial uncertainty = Information leaked + Remaining uncertainty ($H[X] = I[X; Y] + H[X | Y]$)
- **Symbolic Execution**
 - Check Safety Properties (Model)
- **Dynamic Symbolic Execution**
 - *The main idea:* Analyze One Execution Path
 - * Run the program under one concrete input
 - * Collect the values of all variables at each executed statement. This information often called an ‘execution trace’
 - * Mark certain inputs as symbolic
 - * Track the relationship between variables in the execution trace and symbolic inputs as a formula
 - * At symbolic branch conditions, assert that the condition evaluates to the value in the execution trace
 - * Calculate Symbolic Formula for path constraints: The logically conjunction of all the symbolic constraints
 - **Symbolic input:** Values captured with symbolic formula
 - **Branch constraints:** A symbolic formula capturing the values that make the branch condition evaluate a specific value
 - **Path constraints:** A formula over the symbolic inputs that encodes all branch decisions taken up to a certain program point
 - **Execution path space:** All paths in the program, each captured by its path constraints
 - **Feasible path** A path which has a satisfiable symbolic formula, there exists one assignement of values to its symbolic variables that make formula ‘True’
- Testing software for bugs
 - **Blackbox testing:** no analysis
 - **Greybox testing:**
 - * Lightweight analysis
 - * Coverage
 - **Whitebox testing:**
 - * Heavyweight analysis
 - * Path conditions
- **Fuzzing**
 - Automatically generate test cases
 - Random
 - Grab & mutate
 - Grammar based
- **Greybox fuzzing**
 - Guide input generation toward a goal
 - * Guidance bsaed on lightweight program analysis
 - Three main steps:
 - * Randomly generate inputs
 - * get feedback from previous executions
 - What code is covered? Mutate inputs that have covered new code
- **American Fuzzy Lop**
 - Simple yet effective fuzzing tool
 - Targets C/C++ programs
 - Inputs are, e.g., files read by the program
 - Widely used in industry, in particular, to find security-related bugs

- **Measuring Coverage**
 - Different coverage metrics
 - * Line/statement/branch/path coverage
 - Here: Branch coverage
 - Branches between basic blocks
 - Rationale: Reaching a code location not enough to trigger a bug, but state also matters
 - Compromise between
 - * Effort spent on measuring coverage
 - * Guidance it provides to the fuzzer
- **Detecting new Behaviours**
 - Inputs that trigger a new edge in the CFG: Considered as new behaviour
 - Alternative: Consider new paths
 - * More expensive to track
 - * Path explosion problem
- **Evolving queue of inputs**
 - Maintain queue of inputs
 - * Initially: Seed inputs provided by user
 - * Once used, keep input if covers new edges
 - * Add new inputs by mutating existing input
- **Mutation operators**
 - *Goal*: Create new inputs from existing inputs
 - Random transformation of bytes in an existing input
 - Bit flips with varying lengths and stepovers
 - Additions and subtraction of small integers
 - Insertion of known interesting integers
- More tricks for fast fuzzing
 - Time and memory limits
 - * Discard input when execution is too expensive
 - Pruning the queue
 - * Periodically select subset of inputs that still cover every edge seen so far
 - Prioritize how many mutants to generate from an input in the queue
- In-application Isolation Techniques
 - Page table protection
 - Software bounds checks
- **Pointer authentication**: Ensure pointers in memory remain unchanged
 - General purpose hardware primitive approximation pointer integrity
 - Adds pointer authentication Code into unused bits of pointer
 - Keyed, tweakable MAC from pointer address and 64-bits modifier
 - PA keys protected by hardware, modifier decided where pointer created and used
 - *Prevent arbitrary pointer injection*
 - * Modifiers do not need to be confidential
 - * Visible or inferable from the code section/binary
 - * Keys are protected by hardware and set by kernel
 - * Attacker cannot generate PACs