### **Lecture 8: Software Security**

- 8.1 Overview of software security
- 8.2 Computer architecture background
  - 8.2.1 Code vs data, program counter
  - 8.2.2 Stack (aka execution stack, call stack)
  - 8.2.3 Control flow integrity
- 8.3 Attacks on software
  - 8.3.1 Integer overflow
  - 8.3.2 Data/string representation & security
  - 8.3.3 Buffer overflow
  - 8.3.4 Code/script injection
  - 8.3.5 Undocumented access points
- 8.4 Defense and preventive measures

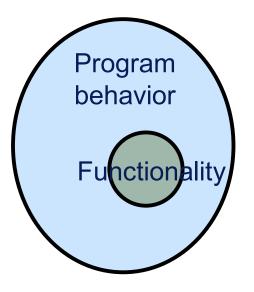
### **8.1 Overview of Software Security**

### **Program: Requirements and Possible Behavior**

Requirements of a program:

- A program has to be correct
- A program has to be efficient
- A program also has to be secure

Targeted/intended program functionality vs possible behavior:



A program *may* behave **beyond** its intended functionality!

### **Possible Security Problems**

### Insecure implementation:

Many programs are **not** implemented properly, allowing attacker (i.e. the person who invokes the process) to **deviate from the programmer's intents** 

#### Unanticipated input:

The attacker may supply **input** in a form that is **not** anticipated by the programmer, which can unintendedly cause the process to:

- Access sensitive resources;
- Execute some "injected" codes; or
- Deviate from the original intended execution path
- → Either way, the attacker manages to **elevate its privilege**
- In this lecture, we will look at several classes of insecure programs and also the reasons behind their insecurity!

### **Some Sample Cases**

### **Buffer Overflow:**

- Morris worm (1988): exploited a Unix finger service to propagate itself over the Internet
- Code Red worm (2001): exploited Microsoft's IIS 5.0
- SQL Slammer worm (2003): compromised machines running Microsoft SQL Server 2000
- Various attacks on game consoles so that unlicensed software can run without the need for hardware modifications: Xbox, PlayStation 2 (PS2 Independence Exploit), Wii (Twilight hack)

• ...

### **Some Sample Cases**

### **SQL** Injection:

- Yahoo! (2012): a hacker group was reported to have stolen 450,000 login credentials from Yahoo! by using a "union-based SQL injection technique"
- British telco company TalkTalk (2015): an attack exploiting a vulnerability in a legacy web portal was used to steal the personal details of 156,959 customers

### **Integer Overflow:**

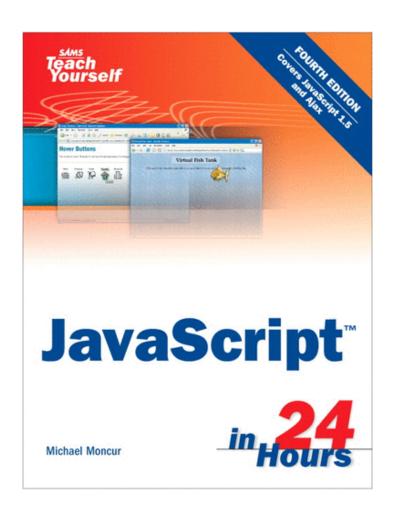
- European Space Agency's Ariane 5 rocket (1996): an unhandled arithmetic overflow in the engine steering software caused its crash, costing \$7 billion
- **Resorts World Casino** (2016): a casino machine printed a prize ticket of \$42,949,672.76

### **Root Causes of Security Problems**

### Why is there a **big security** challenge?

- Functionality: still the primary concern during design and implementation
  - Security is a secondary goal
  - Features pay the bills (typically)
- Unavoidable human mistakes:
  - (Lack of) awareness of security problems
  - Careless programmers
- Complex modern computing systems:
  - Many of the "bugs" are very simple and seem easy to prevent, but programs for complex systems are large,
     e.g. Window XP has 45 millions SLOC (source line of codes) http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source\_lines\_of\_code.
  - Large attack surface as well

### Programming can be Easy, but Good Programming Isn't So

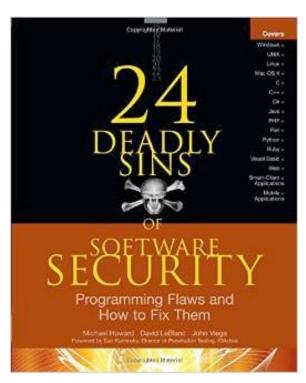


- Maybe enough for learning basic functionality
- Never enough for learning subtle implications of functionalities
- Result: programs can do more than you expect!

### **Recommended References for Secure Programming**

#### Some well-known references:

- Michael Howard and David LeBlanc, Writing Secure Code, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, Microsoft Press, 2002
- Michael Howard, David LeBlanc, and John Viega, 24 Dealy Sins of Software Security: Programming Flaws and How to Fix Them, McGraw-Hill, 2010



# 8.2 Computer Architecture Background

- 8.2.1 Code vs data, program counter
- 8.2.2 Stack (a.k.a. execution stack, call stack)
- 8.2.3 Control flow integrity

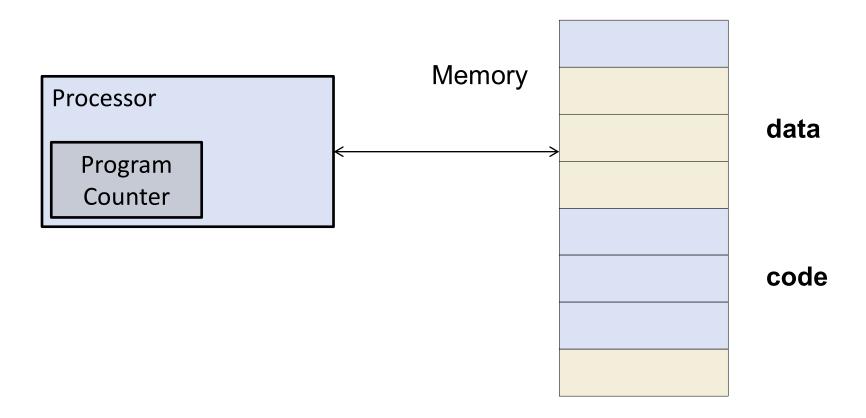
# 8.2.1 Code vs Data, Program Counter

### **Code vs Data in Modern Computers**

## Modern computers are based on the **Von Neumann computer architecture**:

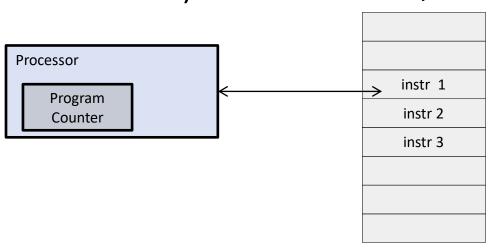
- The code and data are stored together in the memory
- There is no clear distinction of code and data
- This is in contrast to the *Harvard architecture*, which has hardware components that separately store code and data
- Serious implication:
   programs may be tricked into treating input data as
   code: basis for all code-injection attacks!

### **Code vs Data in Modern Computers**



### **Control Flow**

- The program counter (aka Instruction Pointer):
   a register (i.e. small & fast memory within the processor)
   that stores the address of the next instruction
- After an instruction is completed, the processor fetches the next instruction from the address stored in the program counter
- After the next instruction is fetched, the program counter automatically increases by 1 (assuming a system with fixed-length instructions)



### **Control Flow**

 During execution, besides getting incremented, the program counter (PC) can also be changed, for examples\*, by:

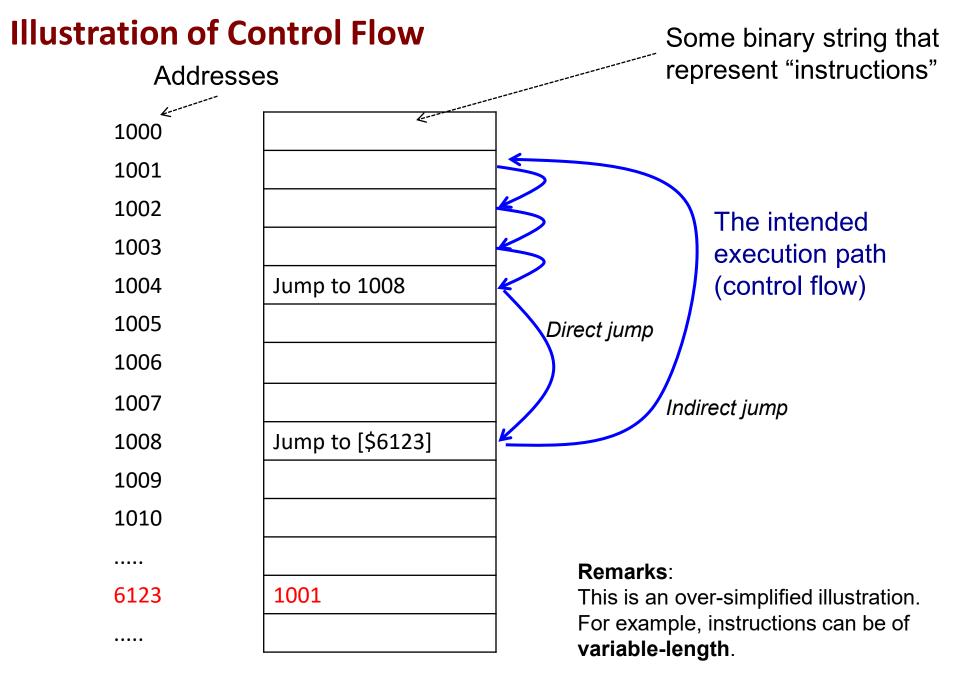
### 1. Direct jump:

The PC is replaced with a **constant value** specified in the instruction

### 2. Indirect jump:

The PC is replaced with a **value** fetched from **the memory** or stored in a general-purpose **register** (Note that there are many different forms of indirect jump)

\*: For simplicity in this module, we **omit** conditional branch as well as call/return here



# 8.2.2 Stack (a.k.a. Execution Stack, Call Stack)

See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Call\_stack

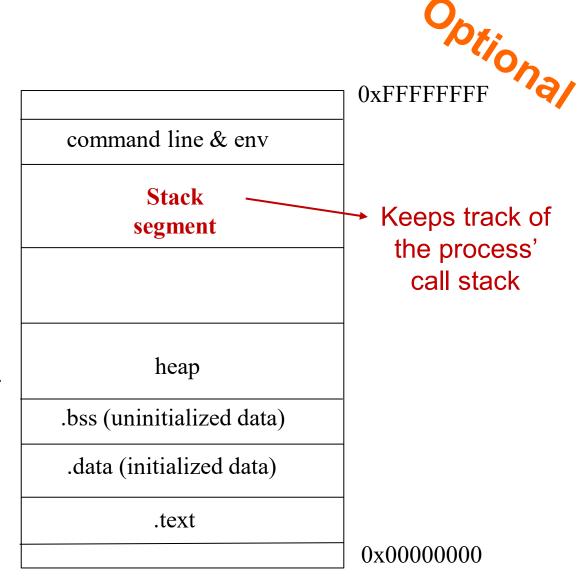
### **Functions and Their Executions**

- Functions break code into smaller pieces:
  - Facilitate modular design and code reuse
- A function can be called in many program locations, e.g. 2, 10, 100, ... times (e.g. recursive function)
- Question 1: How does the program know where it should continue after it finishes?
- Question 2: Where are the function's arguments and local variables stored?

```
void sample function (void)
       char buffer[10];
       printf("Hello!\n")
       return;
main()
       sample function();
       printf("Loc 1\n");
       sample function();
       printf("Loc 2\n");
```

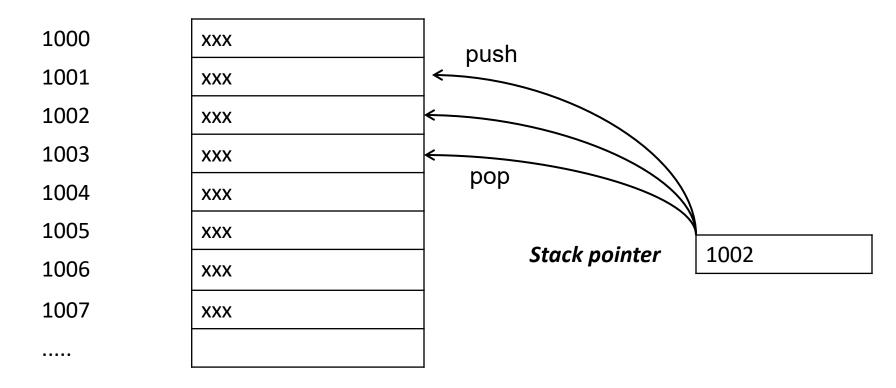
### **Process Memory Layout**

- Simplified Linux process memory showing various segments:
- (Optional:
   http://dirac.org/linux/gdb/02a Memory\_Layout\_And\_The\_Stack.
   php)



### **Call Stack**

- Call stack: a data structure in the memory (not in a separate hardware) that stores important information of a running process
- Last in, first out (LIFO): with push(), pop(), top() operations
- The location of the top element is referred to by the stack pointer



In this example, the stack grows "*upward*", *but* from **high addresses** to **low addresses**. It is possible to have stack that grows *downward*.

### **Call Stack**

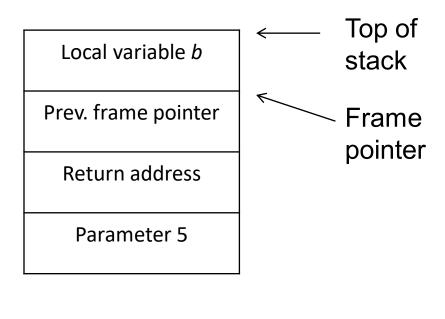
- During a program execution, a stack is used to keep tracks of:
  - Control flow information: i.e. return addresses
  - Parameters passed to functions
  - Local variables of functions
- Each call of a function pushes an activation record
   (stack frame) to the stack, which contains:
   passed parameters, return address, pointer to the previous
   stack frame, and function local variables
- Note: this stack is known as call stack.
   In the context of system security, very often it is simply called the "stack".
  - Sample expression: "smashing the *stack* for fun and profit".

### **Illustration: A Function Call**

When a function is called, the parameters, return address, and local variables are "pushed" into the stack

### Consider the following C program segment:

```
int test(int a) {
    int b = 1;
    ...
}
int main() {
    test(5);
    ...
}
```

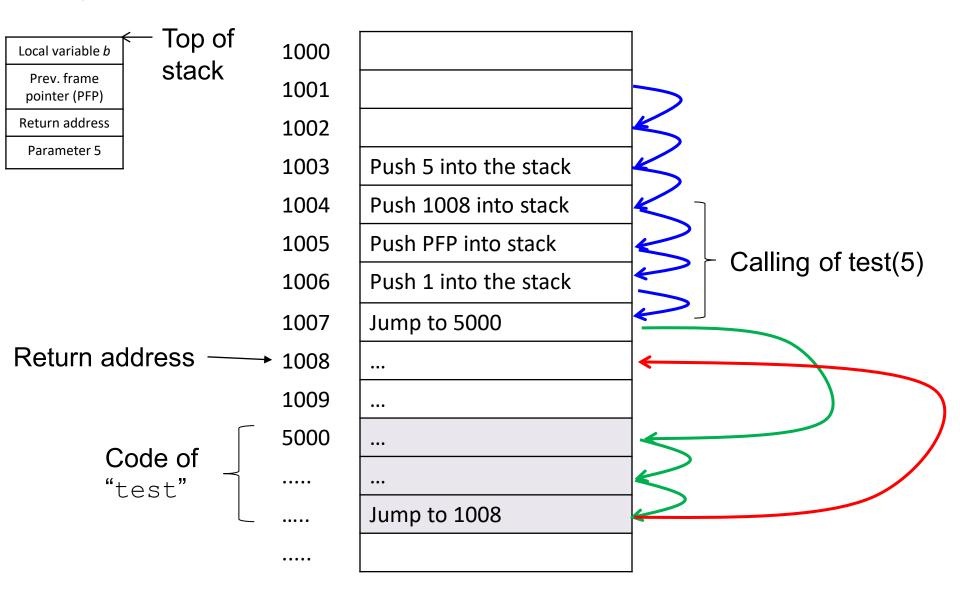


### **Illustration: A Function Call**

When the function test (5) is invoked, the following are carried out:

- (1) Some values are pushed into the stack: the parameter (i.e. 5), the return address, the previous frame pointer, and the value of the local variable *b* (i.e. 1)
- (2) The control flow jumps into the code of "test"
- (3) Execute "test"
- (4) After "test" is completed, the stack frame is **popped** from the stack
- (5) The control flow jumps into the restored return address

### (Simplified) Illustration\*



<sup>\*:</sup> This slide gives a **simplified** view. Actual implementation also includes "function return value". For more details, see: <a href="http://www.tenouk.com/Bufferoverflowc/Bufferoverflow2a.html">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack\_buffer\_overflow</a>.

### **8.2.3 Control Flow Integrity**

### **Treating Code as Data: Security Implications**

- You have seen how the call stack stores a return address
   (i.e. location of a to-be-executed instruction) as data
   in the memory
- In fact, the instruction itself is stored as data in the memory
- The flexibility of treating code as data is useful, but it leads to many security issues
- Attacker could compromise a process' execution integrity by either modifying the process' code or the control flow
- It is difficult for the system to distinguish those malicious pieces of code from benign data

### **Notes on Compromising Memory Integrity**

- In general, it is **not** so easy for an attacker to compromise memory integrity
- For example, consider an attacker who can only remotely communicate with the targeted Web server via HTTP.
   How can he maliciously write to the web-server's memory?
- One way for the attacker to gain that capability is by:
   exploiting some vulnerabilities so as to "trick" the victim
   process to write to some of its memory locations,
   e.g. via a "buffer overflow" attack
- The above mechanisms typically have **some restrictions**: for example, the attacker can only write to a small number of memory, or can only write a sequence of consecutive bytes. Hence, the attack has to be extremely "**surgical**".

### 8.3 Attacks on Software

- 8.3.1 Integer overflow
- 8.3.2 Data/string representation & security
- 8.3.3 Buffer overflow
- 8.3.4 Code/script injection
- 8.3.5 Undocumented access points

### **8.3.1 Integer Overflow**

(Note: This is *not* to be confused with "buffer overflow")

### **Integer Arithmetic and Overflow**

- The integer arithmetic in many programming language are actually modulo arithmetic
- Suppose a is a single byte (i.e. 8-bit) unsigned integer.
   In the following C or Java statements,
   what would be the final value of a?

$$a = 254;$$
 $a = a+2;$ 

- Its value is 0, since the addition is done in modulo 256
- Hence, the following predicate is not necessarily always true!

$$(a < a+1)$$

 Yet, many programmers do not realize this, leading to possible vulnerability (see Tutorial 8)

# 8.3.2 Data/String Representation & Security

### **Data Representation Problem**

- Different parts of a program/system adopts different data representations
- Such inconsistencies could lead to vulnerability
- A sample vulnerability is CVE-2013-4073:
   "Ruby's SSL client implements hostname identity check,
   but it does not properly handle hostnames in the
   certificate that contain null bytes."

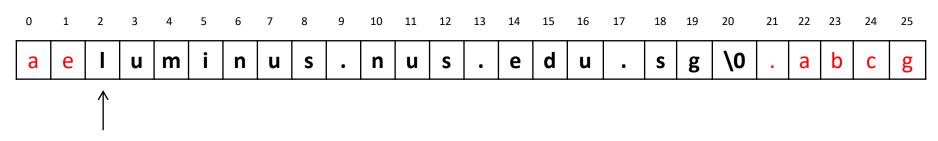
(Read <a href="https://www.ruby-lang.org/en/news/2013/06/27/hostname-check-bypassing-vulnerability-in-openssl-client-cve-2013-4073/">https://www.ruby-lang.org/en/news/2013/06/27/hostname-check-bypassing-vulnerability-in-openssl-client-cve-2013-4073/</a>.)

- String is a very important data representation type:
  - It has a variable length
  - How can we represent a string?

### **String Representations**

- In C, printf() adopts an efficient representation:
  - The length is *not* explicitly stored
  - The first occurrence of the null character

     (i.e. byte with value 0) indicates the end of the string,
     thus implicitly giving the length



The starting address of a string

Note that not all systems adopt this convention:
 NULL-termination vs non NULL-termination representation

### **Exploitable Vulnerability 1: NULL-Byte Injection**

- A CA may accept a host name containing null character
- For example: <u>luminus.nus.edu.sg\0.attacker.com</u>
- A verifier who uses both string-representation conventions to verify the certificate could be vulnerable
- Consider a browser implementation that does the following:
  - 1. Verify a certificate: based on **non NULL-termination** representation
  - 2. Compare the name in the certificate and the name enter by user: based on the **NULL-termination** representation
- Now, there could be an attack as described on the next slide!

### A Sample Attack (on LumiNUS)

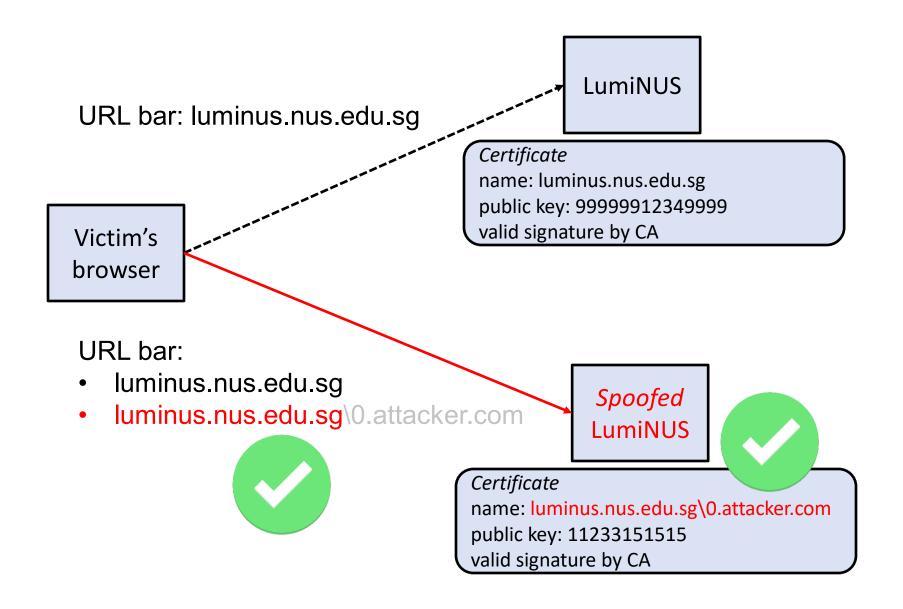
1. The attacker registered the following **domain name**, and purchased a **valid certificate** with the domain name from some CA:

<u>luminus.nus.edu.sg\0.attacker.com</u>

- 2. The attacker set up a **spoofed LumiNUS** website on another web server
- 3. The attacker **directed** a victim to the **spoofed web server** (e.g. by controlling the physical layer or social engineering)
- 4. When visiting the spoofed web server, the victim's browser:
  - Finds that the Web server in the certificate is valid: based on the non NULL-termination representation
  - Compares and displays the address as **luminus.nus.edu.sg**: based on NULL-termination representation

•

### A Sample Attack (on LumiNUS): Illustration



## **Comparison: A Normal Web-Spoofing Attack (on LumiNUS)**

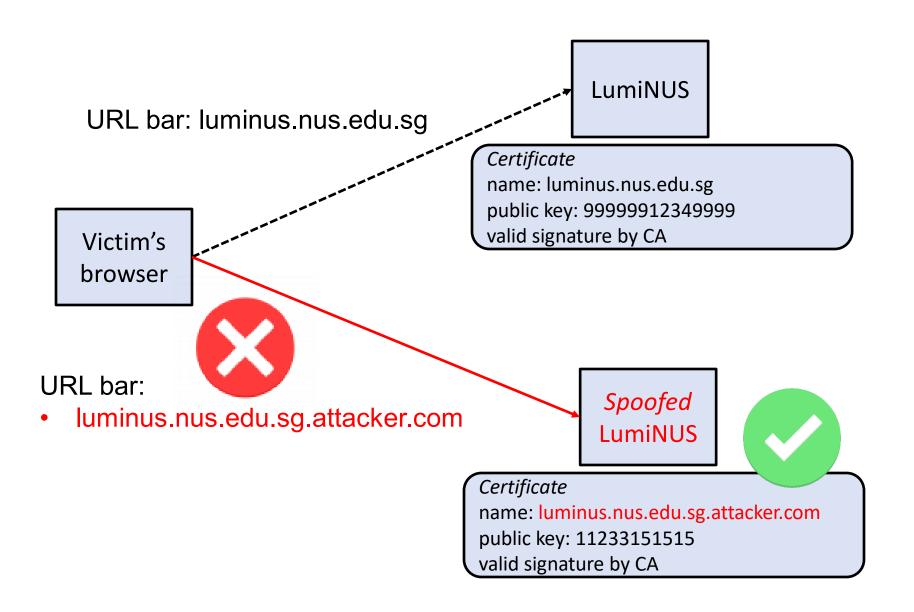
What if it is just a **normal web-spoofing** attack scenario?

Even if the attacker manages to redirect the victim to the spoofed web server (Step 3), a **careful** user would notice that *either*:

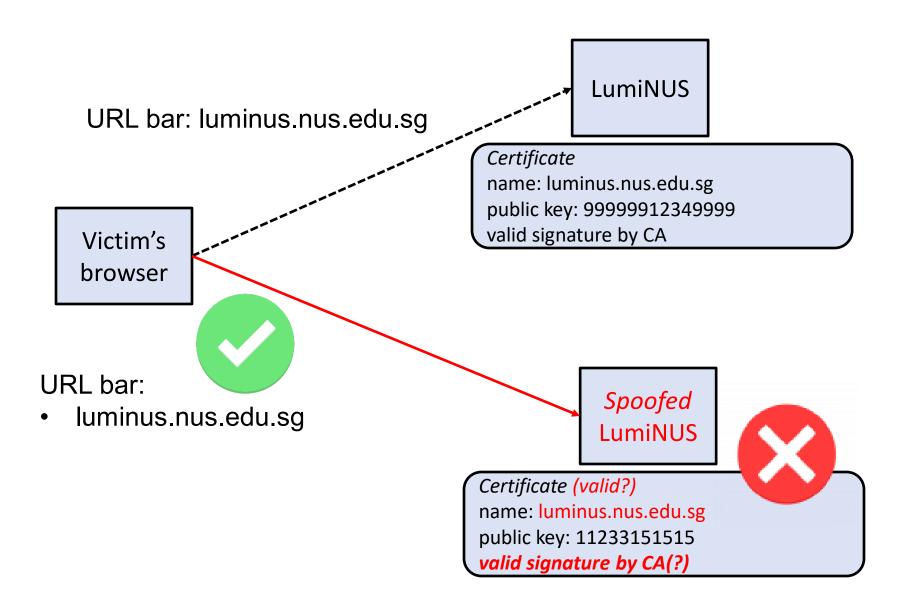
- The address displayed in the browser's address bar is not LumiNUS; or
- The address bar displays luminus.nus.edu.sg, but the TLS/SSL authentication protocol rejects the connection (i.e. "certificate is not trusted")

Hence, the attack on the previous slide is **much more dangerous**: it can **trick** all browser users!

# A Normal Web-Spoofing Attack (on LumiNUS): Case 1



# A Normal Web-Spoofing Attack (on LumiNUS): Case 2



## CVE-2013-4073:

## What is CVE?

What is zero-day vulnerability?

What is an **exploit**?

# Hostname check bypassing vulnerability in SSL client (CVE-2013-4073)

Posted by nahi on 27 Jun 2013

A vulnerability in Ruby's SSL client that could allow man-in-the-middle attackers to spoof SSL servers via valid certificate issued by a trusted certification authority.

This vulnerability has been assigned the CVE identifier CVE-2013-4073.

### Summary

Ruby's SSL client implements hostname identity check but it does not properly handle hostnames in the certificate that contain null bytes.

#### Details

OpenSSL::SSL.verify\_certificate\_identity | implements RFC2818 Server Identity check for Ruby's SSL client but it does not properly handle hostnames in the subjectAltName X509 extension that contain null bytes.

Existing code in <code>lib/openssl/ssl.rb</code> uses <code>OpenSSL::X509::Extension#value</code> for extracting identity from subjectAltName. <code>Extension#value</code> depends on the OpenSSL function <code>X509V3\_EXT\_print()</code> and for dNSName of subjectAltName it utilizes <code>sprintf()</code> that is known as null byte unsafe. As a result <code>Extension#value</code> returns 'www.ruby-lang.org' if the subjectAltName is 'www.ruby-lang.org\0.example.com' and <code>OpenSSL::SSL.verify\_certificate\_identity</code> wrongly identifies the certificate as one for 'www.ruby-lang.org'.

When a CA that is trusted by an SSL client allows to issue a server certificate that has a null byte in subjectAltName, remote attackers can obtain the certificate for 'www.ruby-lang.org\0.example.com' from the CA to spoof 'www.ruby-lang.org' and do a man-in-the-middle attack between Ruby's SSL client and SSL servers.

# **Background: ASCII Character Encoding**

- ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) character encoding: a character-encoding standard for electronic communication
- Encodes 128 characters into 7-bit integers (see the ASCII chart on the next slide):
  - 95 printable characters: digits, letters, punctuation symbols
  - 33 non-printing (control) characters
- Extended ASCII (EASCII or high ASCII) character encodings, which comprises:
  - The standard 7-bit ASCII characters
  - Plus additional characters
  - See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extended\_ASCII

# **ASCII Chart**

#### ASCII printable code chart [edit]

Dinomi	0-4	Dan	Llaw	Charab
Binary	Oct	Dec	Hex	Glyph
010 0000	040	32	20	(space)
010 0001	041	33	21	!
010 0010	042	34	22	"
010 0011	043	35	23	#
010 0100	044	36	24	\$
010 0101	045	37	25	%
010 0110	046	38	26	&
010 0111	047	39	27	1
010 1000	050	40	28	(
010 1001	051	41	29	)
010 1010	052	42	2A	•
010 1011	053	43	2B	+
010 1100	054	44	2C	,
010 1101	055	45	2D	-
010 1110	056	46	2E	
010 1111	057	47	2F	1
011 0000	060	48	30	0
011 0001	061	49	31	1
011 0010	062	50	32	2
011 0011	063	51	33	3
011 0100	064	52	34	4
011 0101	065	53	35	5
011 0110	066	54	36	6
011 0111	067	55	37	7
011 1000	070	56	38	8
011 1001	071	57	39	9
011 1010	072	58	ЗА	:
011 1011	073	59	3B	;
011 1100	074	60	зС	<
011 1101	075	61	3D	=
011 1110	076	62	3E	>
011 1111	077	63	3F	?

Binary	Oct	Dec	Hex	Glyph
				Glyph
100 0000	100	64	40	@
100 0001	101	65	41	Α
100 0010	102	66	42	В
100 0011	103	67	43	С
100 0100	104	68	44	D
100 0101	105	69	45	Е
100 0110	106	70	46	F
100 0111	107	71	47	G
100 1000	110	72	48	Н
100 1001	111	73	49	- 1
100 1010	112	74	4A	J
100 1011	113	75	4B	K
100 1100	114	76	4C	L
100 1101	115	77	4D	М
100 1110	116	78	4E	N
100 1111	117	79	4F	0
101 0000	120	80	50	Р
101 0001	121	81	51	Q
101 0010	122	82	52	R
101 0011	123	83	53	s
101 0100	124	84	54	Т
101 0101	125	85	55	U
101 0110	126	86	56	٧
101 0111	127	87	57	W
101 1000	130	88	58	Х
101 1001	131	89	59	Υ
101 1010	132	90	5A	Z
101 1011	133	91	5B	]
101 1100	134	92	5C	٨
101 1101	135	93	5D	]
101 1110	136	94	5E	۸
101 1111	137	95	5E	

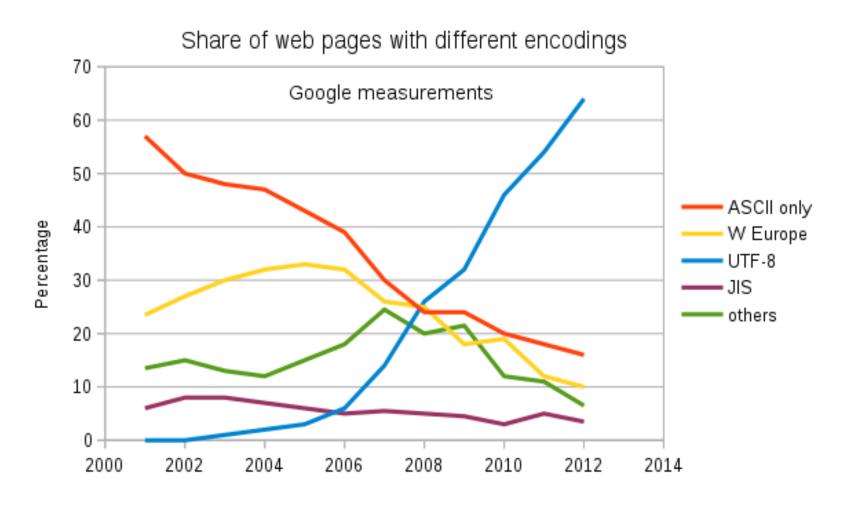
Binary	Oct	Dec	Hex	Glyph
				Cilypii
110 0000	140	96	60	`_
110 0001	141	97	61	а
110 0010	142	98	62	b
110 0011	143	99	63	С
110 0100	144	100	64	d
110 0101	145	101	65	е
110 0110	146	102	66	f
110 0111	147	103	67	g
110 1000	150	104	68	h
110 1001	151	105	69	i
110 1010	152	106	6A	j
110 1011	153	107	6B	k
110 1100	154	108	6C	- 1
110 1101	155	109	6D	m
110 1110	156	110	6E	n
110 1111	157	111	6F	0
111 0000	160	112	70	р
111 0001	161	113	71	q
111 0010	162	114	72	r
111 0011	163	115	73	s
111 0100	164	116	74	t
111 0101	165	117	75	u
111 0110	166	118	76	v
111 0111	167	119	77	w
111 1000	170	120	78	x
111 1001	171	121	79	у
111 1010	172	122	7A	z
111 1011	173	123	7B	{
111 1100	174	124	7C	1
111 1101	175	125	7D	}
111 1110	176	126	7E	~

# **Background: UTF-8 (Unicode Transformation Format 8-bit)**

- UTF-8: a character encoding capable of encoding all 1,112,064
   valid code points in Unicode using one to four 8-bit bytes
- A variable-length encoding: code points that tend to occur more frequently are encoded with lower numerical values, thus fewer bytes are used
- The first 128 characters of Unicode:
  - Correspond 1-to-1 with ASCII
  - Encoded using a single octet with the same binary value as ASCII: Recall that there are 128 ASCII characters, and each starts with the bit 0 in a single byte
- Hence, ASCII characters remain unchanged in UTF-8
- Backward compatibility with ASCII: UTF-8 encoding was defined for "Unicode" on systems that were designed for ASCII
- See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UTF-8 for details

# **Background: UTF-8 Popularity**

The **dominant** character encoding for the Web since 2009, as of October 2019 accounts for **94.1%** of all Web pages



(Source: Wikipedia)

# **Exploitable Vulnerability 2: UTF-8 "Variant" Encoding Issue**

- A Unicode character: referred to by "U+" & its hexadecimal digits
- The following are byte representations of Unicode characters: the left-hand side is the Unicode representation, the right-hand side is the byte representation

```
      U000000-U00007F:
      0xxxxxxx

      U000080-U0007FF:
      110xxxxx
      10xxxxxx

      U000800-U00FFFF:
      1110xxxx
      10xxxxxx
      16 bits

      U010800-U10FFFF:
      11110xxx
      10xxxxxx
      10xxxxxx

      21 bits
```

- Notice the prefix bits in the first/leading byte and continuation byte(s)
- The xxx bits are replaced by the significant bits of the code point of the respective Unicode character
- By the rules above, byte representation of a UTF-8 character is unique
- However, many implementations also accepts multiple and longer "variants" of a character! Why is that so?

## **Different Representations of the Same UTF-8 Character**

Consider the ASCII character '/', whose ASCII code is:

```
0010\ 1111 = 0x2F
```

- Under UTF-8 definition, a 1-byte 2F is a unique representation
- However, in many implementations, the following longer variants are also treated to be '/':

```
(2-byte version) 11000000 10101111
(3-byte version) 11100000 10000000 10101111
(4-byte version) 11110000 10000000 10000000 10101111
```

- That is, all the above would be decoded to '/'
- Now, there could be an inconsistency between:
  - 1. The character verification process; and
  - 2. The character usage(s): operations using the character

# Potential Problem with UTF-8: A Sample Scenario

- In a typical file system, files are organized inside a directory
- Example: the full path name of a file name "index.html" is: /home/student/alice/public\_html/index.html
- Suppose a server-side program, upon receiving a string
   <file-name> from a client, carry out the following steps:

```
Step 1: Append <file-name > to the prefix (directory) string:

/home/student/alice/public_html/

and take the concatenated string as string F
```

Step 2: Invoke a system call to **open** the file *F*, and then **send** the file content to the client

# Potential Problem with UTF-8: A Sample Scenario

- In the above example, the client can be any remote public user (similar to HTTP client)
- The original intention: the client can retrieve only files under the directory public html → file-access containment
- However, an attacker (the client) may send in this string:

```
../cs2107report.pdf
```

Which file would be read and sent by the server?

• This is the file:

```
/home/student/alice/public html/../cs2107report.pdf
```

- This access violates the intended file-access containment
- To prevent this, the server may add an "input validation" step, making sure that "../" never appear as a substring in the input string: is this check complete?

# **Added Input-Validation Step**

```
Step 1: Append <file-name > to the prefix (directory) string:

/home/student/alice/public_html/

and take the concatenated string as string F

Step 1a: Checks that <file-name > does not contain the substring "../";

Otherwise, quit

Step 2: Invoke a system call to open the file F,

and then send the file content to the client
```

## Now, further suppose that the **system call in Step 2**:

- Uses a convention that '%' followed by two hexadecimal digits indicates a single byte (like URL encoding)
  - E.g.: In "/home/student/%61lice/",%61 is to be replaced by a
- Uses UTF-8

# **The Security Problem**

- Then, the check carried out by Step 1a is *incomplete*: it misses some cases!
- Any of the following string will pass the check in Step 1a, since it literally does not contain the substring "../":

```
    (1) ..%2Fcs2107report.pdf
    (2) ..%C0%AFcs2107report.pdf
    (3) ..%E0%80%AFcs2107report.pdf
    (4) ..%F0%E0%80%AFcs2107report.pdf
```

- However, eventually, the filename will be decoded to: /home/student/alice/public\_html/../cs2107report.pdf
- In general: a blacklisting-based filtering could be incomplete due to the "flexible use" of character encoding

# **Yet Another Example: IP Address**

- Recall that the 4-byte IP address is typically written as a string, e.g. "132.127.8.16"
- Consider a blacklist containing a lists of banned IP addresses,
   where each IP address is represented as 4 bytes
- A programmer wrote a function BL ():
  - Takes in 4 integers, where each integer is of the type "int" represented using 32 bits
  - Checks whether the IP address represented by these
     4 integers is in the black list
- In Clanguage: int BL(int a, int b, int c, int d)
- BL() stores the blacklist as 4 arrays of integers A, B, C, D:
   Given the 4 input parameters a, b, c, d,
   BL() simply searches for the existence of index i such that:
   A[i] == a, B[i] == b, C[i] == c, and D[i] == d

## **Potential Problem**

Now, a program that performs the **following checks** is vulnerable:

- (1) Get a string s from user
- (2) Extract 4 integers (each integer is of type int, i.e. 32-bits) from the string s, and let them be a, b, c, d:
  If s does not follow the correct input format (the correct format is 4 integers separated by "."), then quit
- (3) Call BL() to check that that (a, b, c, d) is not in the black list; Otherwise, quit
- (4) Let  $ip = a^*2^{24} + b^*2^{16} + c^*2^8 + d$ , where ip is a 32-bit integer
- (5) Continue the rest of processing with the filtered address ip

Why is it vulnerable? Can you exploit it?

# **Security Guideline: Use Canonical Representation**

- Below are the important lesson and suggested measures
- Never trust the input from user
- Always convert them to a standard (i.e. canonical)
   representation immediately
- Preferably, do not rely on the verification check done in the application;
   i.e. do not rely on the application developers
   to write the verification
- Rather, try to make use of the underlying system access control mechanism

# **8.3.3 Buffer Overflow**

# **C/C++ and Memory Access**

- C and C++ allows the programmers to manage the memory: pointer arithmetic, no array-bounds checking
- Such flexibility is useful, but prone to bugs, which in turn leads to vulnerability
- Consider this simple program: 10 11 #include<stdio.h> a[0] 12 int a[5]; int b; a[1] int main() 13 14 a[2] b=0; a[3] 15 printf("value of b is %d\n", b); 16 a[4] a[5]=3;17 b printf("value of b is %d\n", b); 18 19 Here, the value 3 is to be written to the cell a[5], 20 21 which is also the location of the **variable b**

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# **Buffer Overflow/Overrun**

- The previous example illustrates *buffer overflow* (a.k.a. **buffer overrun**)
- A data buffer (or just buffer): "a contiguous region of memory used to temporarily store data, while it is being moved from one place to another"
- In general, a buffer overflow refers to a situation where data is written beyond a buffer's boundary
- In the previous example, the array a is a buffer of size 5, and the location a[5] is beyond its boundary: hence, writing on it causes a "buffer overflow"
- A well-known function in C that is prone to buffer overflow is a string copying function: strcpy()

# **Strcpy() Function**

Consider this code segment:

```
char s1[10];
   // .. get some input from user and store it in a string s2
   strcpy(s1, s2);
```

- In the above, the length of s2 can potentially be more than 10, since the length is determined by the first occurrence of null
- The strcpy() may copy the whole string of s2 to s1, even if the length of s2 is more than 10
- Since that the buffer size of s1 is only 10, the extra values will be **overflowed** and written to **other part** of the memory
- If s2 is *supplied* by a malicious user, a well-crafted input can overwrite important memory and modify the computation!

# **Secure Programming Defense/Practice**

- Avoid using strcpy()!
- In secure programming practice,
   use strncpy() instead
- The function stcncpy() takes in 3 parameters:

```
strncpy (s1, s2, \mathbf{n})
```

- At most n characters are copied
- Note that improper usage of strncpy() could still lead to vulnerability: to be discussed in tutorial

# **Stack Smashing (Stack Overflow)**

- Stack smashing: a special case of buffer overflow that targets a process' call stack
- Recall that when a function is invoked, information like parameters, return address will be pushed into the stack
- If the stack is being overflowed such that the **return address** is modified, the execution's control flow **will be changed**
- A well-designed overflow could also "inject" the attacker's shellcode into the process' memory, and then execute the shellcode
- What will happen if the target executable is setUID-root?
- Some defenses/counter-measures are available, such as: canary, which will be discussed later

# **Stack Smashing (Stack Overflow): Example**

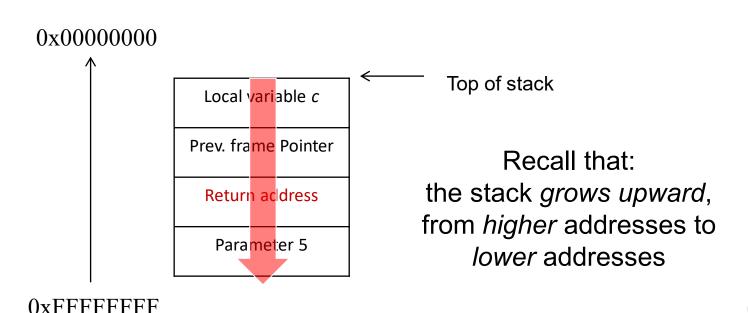
Consider the following vulnerable segment of C program:

```
int foo(int a)
   char c[12];
   strcpy(c, bar); /* bar is a string input by user */
int main()
    foo(5);
```

# Stack Smashing (Stack Overflow): Example

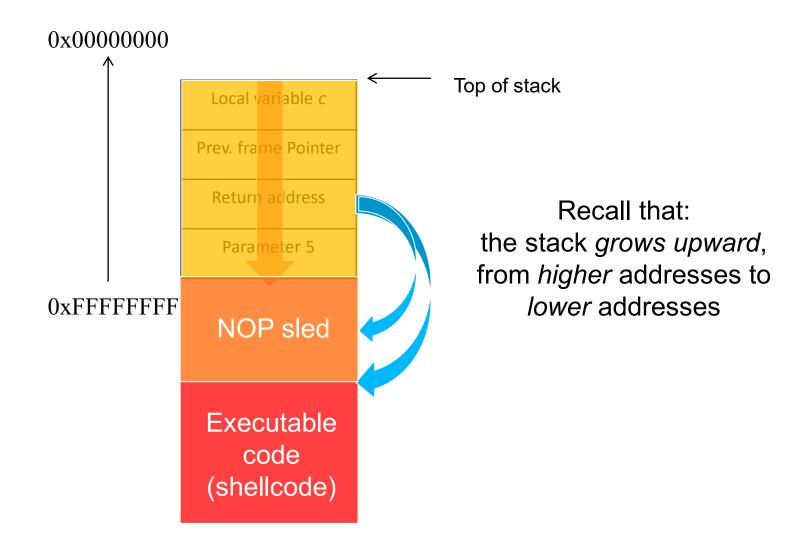
- After the foo (5) is invoked, a few values are pushed into the stack
- Important observation: the buffer c grows toward return address!
- If an attacker manages to modify the return address,
   the control flow will jump to the address indicated by the attacker

**Read** the *first* section: "Exploiting stack buffer overflows" of <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack</a> buffer overflow, other sections 2-4 are optional)



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# Stack Smashing (Stack Overflow): Shellcode Illustration

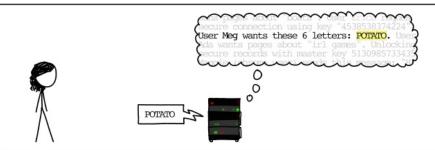


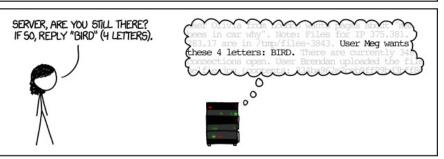
# Heartbleed Bug: Illustration of Buffer Over-Read Request

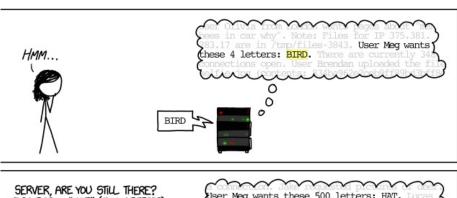
Source: http://xkcd.com/1354/

### HOW THE HEARTBLEED BUG WORKS:

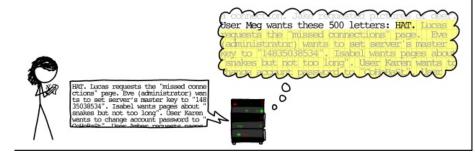












# 8.3.4 Code/Script Injection

# **Scripting Language and Security**

- A key concept in computer architecture is the treatment of "code" (i.e. program) as "data"
- In security, mixing "code" and "data" is potentially unsafe: many attacks inject malicious code as data, which then gets executed by the target system!
- We will consider a well-known SQL injection (SQLI) attack
- "Scripting" languages: programming languages that can be "interpreted" by another program during runtime, instead of being compiled
- Well-known examples: JavaScript, Perl, PHP, SQL
- Many scripting languages allow the "script" to be modified while being interpreted: this opens up the possibility of injecting malicious code into the script!

## **SQL** and **Query**

- **SQL** is a database query language
- Consider a database (which can be viewed as a table):
   each column/field is associated with an attribute, e.g. "name"

name	account	weight
bob12367	12333	56
alice153315	4314	75
eve3141451	111	45
petter341614	312341	86

This query script

SELECT \* FROM client WHERE name = 'bob' searches and returns the rows where the name matches 'bob'

The scripting language also allows variable:
 e.g. a script may first get the user's input and stores it in
 the variable \$userinput, and subsequently runs:

SELECT \* FROM client WHERE name = \\$userinput'

# **SQL Injection: Example**

- In this example, the database is designed such that the user name is a secret: hence, only the authentic entity who knows the name can get the record
- Now, an attacker can pass the following as the input:

```
Bob' OR 1=1 --
```

That is, the variable \$userinput becomes

The interpreter, after seeing this script

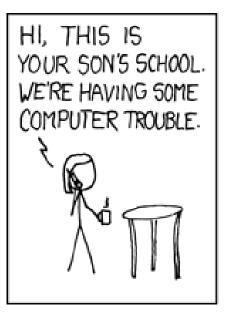
```
SELECT * FROM client WHERE name = '$userinput'
```

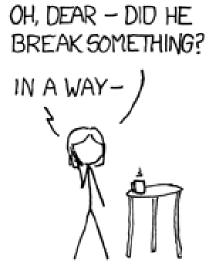
simply substitutes the above to get and execute:

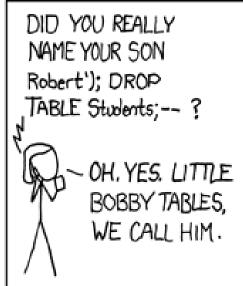
```
SELECT * FROM client WHERE name = 'Bob' OR 1=1 --'
```

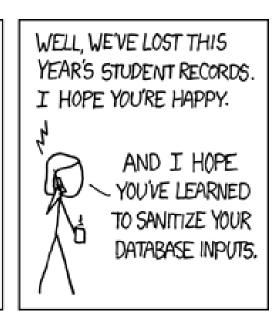
- Note: "--" is interpreted as the start of a comment
- The interpreter runs the above and return all the records!

# SQL Injection a.k.a. "Bobby Tables"









Source:

https://xkcd.com/327/

# 8.3.5 Undocumented Access Points (Easter Eggs)

## **Undocumented Access Points**

- For debugging purposes, many programmers insert "undocumented access point" to inspect the states
- Examples:
  - By pressing certain combination of keys,
     the values of certain variables would be displayed
  - For certain input strings,
     the program would branch to some debugging mode
- These access points may mistakenly remain in the final production system, providing "backdoors" to the attackers
- A backdoor: a covert method of bypassing normal authentication
- Such access points are also known as Easter eggs

## **Undocumented Access Points**

- Some Easter eggs are benign and intentionally planted by the developer for fun or publicity
- But, there are also known cases where unhappy/disgruntled programmer purposely planted the backdoors
- The backdoors can be accessed by the programmer, and also by any other users who knows/discovers them!
- Terminology: Logic bombs, Easter eggs, backdoors

# **8.4 Defense and Preventive Measures**

Read http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bounds\_checking

#### **General Comments**

- As illustrated in previous examples, many bugs and vulnerabilities are due to programmer's ignorance
- In general, it is difficult to analysis a program to ensure that it is bug-free (recall the "halting-problem")
- There is no "fool-proof" method
- However, various useful counter measures are available as discussed next

# 8.4.1 Input Validation using Filtering

## **Filtering**

- In almost all examples we have seen, the attack is carried out by feeding carefully-crafted input to the system
- Those inputs do not follow the "expected" format:
   e.g. the input is too long, contains control/meta characters,
   contains negative number, etc.
- Hence, a preventive measure is to perform an input
   validation/filtering whenever an input is obtained from
   the user: if the input is not of the expected format, reject it

## **Problems with Filtering**

- It is difficult to ensure that the filtering is "complete" (i.e. it doesn't miss out any malicious strings), as illustrated in the example on UTF
- In that example on UTF, the input validation intend to detect the substring "../"
- Unfortunately, there are multiple representations
   of "../" that the programmer is not aware of
- A filter that completely blocks all bad inputs and accepts all legitimate inputs is very difficult to design

### **Filtering**

- There are generally two approaches of filtering:
  - 1. White list: A list of items that are known to be benign and allowed to pass, which could be expressed using regular expression. However, some legitimate inputs may be blocked.
  - 2. Black list: A list of items that are known to be bad and to be rejected.
    For example, to prevent SQL injection, if the input contains meta characters, reject it. However, some malicious input may be passed.
- Which type of filtering is then more secure?

# 8.4.2 Using "Safer" Functions

### **Safer Function Alternatives**

- Completely avoid functions that are known to create problems
- Use the "safer" versions of the functions
- C/C++ have many of those:

```
strcpy() \longleftrightarrow strncpy()
```

 Again, even if they are avoided, there could still be vulnerability: recall the example that uses a combination of strlen() and strncpy() in your tutorial

# 8.4.3 Bounds Checking and Type Safety

### **Bounds Checking**

- Some programming languages (e.g. Java, Pascal) perform bounds checking at runtime
- That is, when an array is declared, its upper and lower bounds have to be declared
- At runtime, whenever a reference to an array location is made, the index/subscript is checked against the upper and lower bounds
- Hence, a simple assignment like:

$$a[i] = 5;$$

#### would **consists of** these steps:

- 1. Checks that  $i \ge the lower bound;$
- 2. Checks that  $i \leq the upper bound; and$
- 3. Assigns 5 to the memory location

## **Bounds Checking**

- If the checks fail, the process will be halted (or an exception is to be thrown as in Java)
- The added first 2 steps reduce efficiency, but will prevent buffer overflow
- Many of the known vulnerabilities is due to buffer overflow that can be prevented by this simple bounds checking: visit <a href="http://cve.mitre.org/cve/cve.html">http://cve.mitre.org/cve/cve.html</a> to see how many entries contains "buffer overflow" as keywords

- The infamous C and C++ do not perform bounds checking!
- Yet, many pieces of software are written in C/C++!

#### Some Words of Wisdom

**C. A. R. Hoare** (1980 Turing Award winner) on his experience in the design of ALGOL 60, a language that **included** bounds checking:

"A consequence of this principle is that every occurrence of every subscript of every subscripted variable was on every occasion checked at run time against both the upper and the lower declared bounds of the array. Many years later we asked our customers whether they wished us to provide an option to switch off these checks in the interest of efficiency on production runs. Unanimously, they urged us not to—they already knew how frequently subscript errors occur on production runs where failure to detect them could be disastrous. I note with fear and horror that even in 1980, language designers and users have not learned this lesson. In any respectable branch of engineering, failure to observe such elementary precautions would have long been against the law."

### **Type Safety**

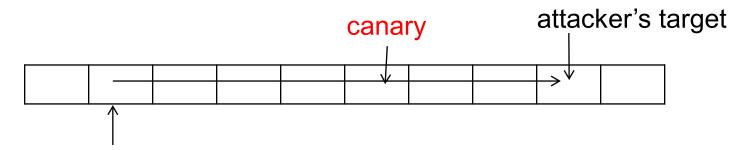
- Some programming languages carry out "type" checking to ensure that the arguments an operation get during execution are always correct
- For example: a = b;
   if a is a 8-bit integer, b is a 64-bit integer, then the type is wrong
- The checking could be done at runtime (i.e. dynamic type checking), or when the program is being compiled (i.e. static type checking)
- Bounds checking can also be considered as one mechanism that ensures "type safety"
- For example in Pascal:

# 8.4.4 Memory Protection (Randomization, Canaries)

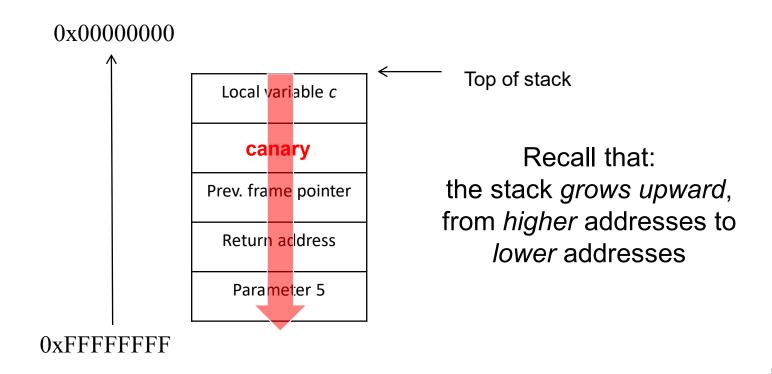
#### **Canaries**

- Canaries are "secret" values inserted at carefully selected memory locations at runtime
- Checks are carried out at runtime to make sure that the values are not being modified: if so, halts
- Canaries can help <u>detect</u> overflow, especially stack overflow:
  - In a typical buffer overflow, consecutive memory locations have to be over-ran: the canaries would be modified
- It is important to keep the values "secret": if the attacker knows the value, it may able to write the secret value to the canary while over-running it!
- (*Optional*) In Linux, you can **turn off** gcc canary-based stack protection by supplying this flag when invoking gcc:
  - -fno-stack-protector

### **Canaries**



location that the attacker starts to overflow



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
void copy this(char *arg1)
                          The buffer to overflow (inside this function)
   char text[15];
   strcpy(text, arg1);
   printf("Your supplied argument is :%s\n", text);
   printf("Function is exiting\n");
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
    copy this(argv[1]);
    printf("main() is exiting\n");
    return 0;
```

If compiled with stack protector:

If compiled without stack protector:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
                          The buffer to overflow (inside main)
    char text[15];
    strcpy(text, argv[1]);
    printf("Your supplied argument is :%s\n", text);
    printf("main() is exiting\n");
    return 0;
```

If compiled with stack protector:

- If compiled without stack protector:

Segmentation fault (core dumped)

### **Memory Randomization**

- It is to the attacker's advantage when the data and codes are always stored in the same locations in memory
- Address space layout randomization (ASLR) is a prevention technique that can help decrease the attacker's chance
- ASLR: randomly arranges the address space positions of key data areas of a process, including: the base of the executable and the positions of the stack, heap and libraries
- (Details are omitted in this module)
- Optional: in Linux, you can turn off (disable) address randomization using:

sudo sysctl -w kernel.randomize\_va\_space=0

# **8.4.5 Code Inspection**

### **Code Inspection**

- Manual checking: manually checks the program, is tedious
- Automated checking: some automations and tools are possible
- An example is taint analysis:
  - Variables that contain input from the (potential malicious) users are labeled as sources
  - Critical functions are labeled as sinks
  - Taint analysis checks whether any of the sink's arguments could potentially be affected (i.e. tainted) by a source
  - Example: sources = user input sink: opening of system files, function evaluating a SQL command
  - If so, special check (e.g. manual inspection) would be carried out
  - Taint analysis can be static (i.e. checking the code without running/ tracing it), or dynamic (i.e. running the code with some inputs)

# 8.4.6 Testing

## **Testing**

- Vulnerability can be discovered via testing
- Types of testing:
  - White-box testing:
     the tester has an access to the application's source code
  - Black-box testing:
     the tester does not have an access to the source code
  - Grey-box testing:
     A combination of the above, reverse-engineered binary/executable

### **Testing**

- Security testing attempts to discover intentional attack, and hence would test for inputs that are rarely occurred under normal circumstances
- Examples: very long names, names containing numeric values, string containing meta characters, etc.
- Fuzzing is a technique that sends malformed inputs to discover vulnerabilities:
  - There are techniques that are more effective than sending in random inputs
  - Fuzzing can be automated or semi-automated: (the details are not required)
- Terminology: white list vs black list, white-box testing vs black-box testing, white hat vs black hat

# 8.4.7 The Principle of Least Privilege

## The Principle of Least Privilege

# Apply the "Principle of Least Privilege":

- When writing a program, be conservative in elevating the privilege
- When deploying software system, do not give the users more access rights than necessary, and do not activate unnecessary options

### The Principle of Least Privilege

## Example:

Software contain many **features**: e.g. a web-cam software could provide many features so that the user can remotely control it.

A user can choose to set which features to be on/off.

Suppose you are the developer of the software. Should all features to be **switched on by default** when the software is shipped to your clients?

If so, it is **the clients' responsibility** to "harden" the system by selectively **switch off the unnecessary features**. Your clients might not aware of the implications and thus at a higher risk.

• Terminology: What does "hardening" mean?

# 8.4.8 Patching (Keeping up to Date)

### **Vulnerability Lifecycle**

- Life-cycle of a vulnerability:
  - (1) a **vulnerability** is discovered  $\rightarrow$  (2) affected code is fixed  $\rightarrow$
  - (3) the revised version is tested  $\rightarrow$  (4) a **patch** is made public  $\rightarrow$
  - (5) patch is applied
- In some cases, the vulnerability could be announced (1?)
   without the technical details before a patch is released:
   the vulnerability is likely to be known to only a small number of attackers (even none) before it is announced
- When a patch is released (4), the patch can be useful to attackers too: they can inspect the patch and derive the vulnerability
- Hence, interestingly, the number of successful attacks can go up after the vulnerability/patch is announced: since more attackers would be aware of the exploit (see the next slide)

### **Vulnerability Lifecycle**

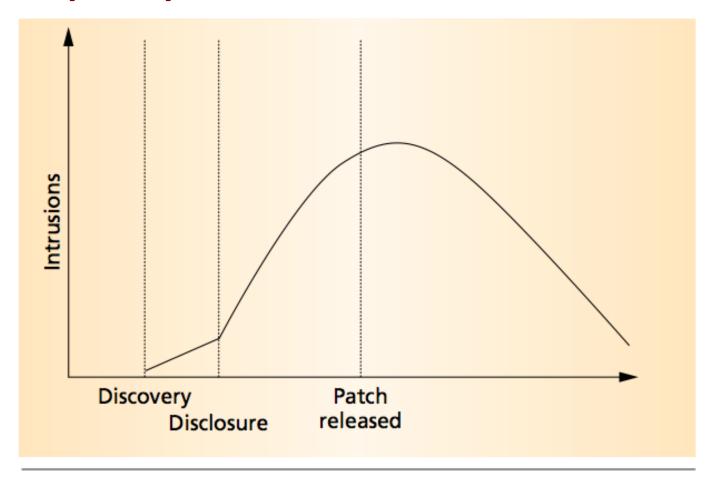


Figure 1. Intuitive life cycle of a system-security vulnerability. Intrusions increase once users discover a vulnerability, and the rate continues to increase until the system administrator releases a patch or workaround.

image obtained from William A. Arbaugh et al. Windows of vulnerability: A case study analysis. IEEE Computer, 2000.

### **Patching**

- It is crucial to apply the patch timely
- Although it seems easy, applying patches is **not** that straightforward:
  - For **critical systems**, it is not wise to apply the patch immediately before rigorous testing:
    - E.g. after a patch is applied, the train scheduling software crashes
  - Patches might affect the applications, and thus affect an organization operation:
    - E.g. after a student applied a patch on Adobe Flash, he couldn't upload a report to LumiNUS and thus missed a project deadline
- Patch management is a field of study
- See the guide on patch management issued by NIST:
   "Guide to Enterprise Patch Management Technologies", 2013,
   http://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/SpecialPublications/NIST.SP.800-40r3.pdf

### **Summary: Defense Mechanisms and Stages of SDLC**

### Adopt various counter measures at **different** *stages of SDLC*:

### Development stage:

- Using safer functions
- Bounds checking and type safety
- Filtering (input validation)
- Code inspection (taint analysis)
- The principle of least privilege\*
- Executable generation with enabled memory protection\*

#### Testing stage:

- Testing: fuzzing, penetration testing
- Deployment (including software execution) stage:
  - Runtime memory protection\*: randomization
  - The principle of least privilege\*: disable unnecessary features
  - Patching

<sup>\*</sup> Applicable to *multiple* stages