OS Security Memory

Radboud University Nijmegen, The Netherlands



Winter 2015/2016

► Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)

- Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)
- ▶ Access to resources only from kernel space through system calls
- ▶ Kernel modules can extend kernel functionality at runtime

- Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)
- Access to resources only from kernel space through system calls
- Kernel modules can extend kernel functionality at runtime
- UNIX paradigm: "everything is a file"
 - ► Special file handles for stdin, stdout, stderr
 - Devices are handled through device files
 - Reading and writing kernel parameters through pseudo-filesystems in /proc and sys
 - Symbolic links, directories, pipes are all implemented through file handles

- Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)
- ▶ Access to resources only from kernel space through system calls
- Kernel modules can extend kernel functionality at runtime
- ► UNIX paradigm: "everything is a file"
 - ► Special file handles for stdin, stdout, stderr
 - Devices are handled through device files
 - Reading and writing kernel parameters through pseudo-filesystems in /proc and sys
 - Symbolic links, directories, pipes are all implemented through file handles
- Management of permissions in UNIX uses DAC model (as opposed to MAC)

- Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)
- Access to resources only from kernel space through system calls
- Kernel modules can extend kernel functionality at runtime
- UNIX paradigm: "everything is a file"
 - Special file handles for stdin, stdout, stderr
 - Devices are handled through device files
 - Reading and writing kernel parameters through pseudo-filesystems in /proc and sys
 - Symbolic links, directories, pipes are all implemented through file handles
- Management of permissions in UNIX uses DAC model (as opposed to MAC)
- Processes have associated user ID and group IDs
- ► Files have access rights (read, write, execute) for owner, group, other

- Central task of OS is to manage access of subjects (processes) to objects (files)
- ▶ Access to resources only from kernel space through system calls
- Kernel modules can extend kernel functionality at runtime
- ► UNIX paradigm: "everything is a file"
 - Special file handles for stdin, stdout, stderr
 - Devices are handled through device files
 - Reading and writing kernel parameters through pseudo-filesystems in /proc and sys
 - Symbolic links, directories, pipes are all implemented through file handles
- Management of permissions in UNIX uses DAC model (as opposed to MAC)
- Processes have associated user ID and group IDs
- ► Files have access rights (read, write, execute) for owner, group, other
- Special flags associated to files, in particular setuid flag
- ▶ Setuid programs are run with effective UID of the *owner*
- Particularly important: setuid-root programs (have to be very careful!)

Briefly back to file access: ACLs

- User/Group/All model is not always flexible enough
- ▶ Want to enable arbitrary access permissions
- ► Solution: Access Control Lists (ACLs)

Briefly back to file access: ACLs

- User/Group/All model is not always flexible enough
- ▶ Want to enable arbitrary access permissions
- ► Solution: Access Control Lists (ACLs)
- Grant permissions to arbitrary users and groups
- ▶ Needs support from the file system
- Mount with option acl, for example:

```
mount -o remount,acl /
```

Briefly back to file access: ACLs

- User/Group/All model is not always flexible enough
- ▶ Want to enable arbitrary access permissions
- ► Solution: Access Control Lists (ACLs)
- Grant permissions to arbitrary users and groups
- ▶ Needs support from the file system
- ► Mount with option ac1, for example:

```
mount -o remount,acl /
```

- Set ACL entries with the program setfacl (set file access control lists)
- ► Read ACL entries with getfacl (get file access control lists)
- Note: 1s -1 will not show ACLs, only a '+' to indicate that "there's more"

► Grant user veelasha read, write execute rights on file test.txt: setfacl -m user:veelasha:rwx test.txt

- ► Grant user veelasha read, write execute rights on file test.txt: setfacl -m user:veelasha:rwx test.txt
- ► Remove all rights for user veelasha on file test.txt: setfacl -x user:veelasha test.txt

- ► Grant user veelasha read, write execute rights on file test.txt: setfacl -m user:veelasha:rwx test.txt
- Remove all rights for user veelasha on file test.txt: setfacl -x user:veelasha test.txt
- ▶ Grant read and execute rights for members of the group dialout: setfacl -m group:dialout:r-x test.txt

- ► Grant user veelasha read, write execute rights on file test.txt: setfacl -m user:veelasha:rwx test.txt
- Remove all rights for user veelasha on file test.txt: setfacl -x user:veelasha test.txt
- ▶ Grant read and execute rights for members of the group dialout: setfacl -m group:dialout:r-x test.txt
- ▶ Read and set permissions for test.txt from file test.perm: setfacl -M test.perm test.txt

- ► Problem if there is a time gap between checking permissions and executing operation
- This is called time of check to time of use (TOCTTOU or TOCTOU)

- Problem if there is a time gap between checking permissions and executing operation
- This is called time of check to time of use (TOCTTOU or TOCTOU)
- ► Example: use access() syscall in suid-root program to check rights against *real* user ID:

```
if (access("file", W_OK) != 0) {
   exit(1);
}

fd = open("file", O_WRONLY);
write(fd, buffer, sizeof(buffer));
```

- Problem if there is a time gap between checking permissions and executing operation
- This is called time of check to time of use (TOCTTOU or TOCTOU)
- ► Example: use access() syscall in suid-root program to check rights against *real* user ID:

```
if (access("file", W_OK) != 0) {
   exit(1);
}

fd = open("file", O_WRONLY);
write(fd, buffer, sizeof(buffer));
```

Attacker attempts to run symlink("/etc/shadow", "file");
between access() and open()

- Problem if there is a time gap between checking permissions and executing operation
- This is called time of check to time of use (TOCTTOU or TOCTOU)
- Example: use access() syscall in suid-root program to check rights against real user ID:

```
if (access("file", W_OK) != 0) {
    exit(1);
}

fd = open("file", O_WRONLY);
write(fd, buffer, sizeof(buffer));
```

- Attacker attempts to run symlink("/etc/shadow", "file");
 between access() and open()
- ▶ This is an example for a race condition
- Generally, a race condition bug is a bug where software behaviour depends on uncontrollable timing behavior in an unintended way

Race conditions

- ▶ Typically appears if two processes access the same resource
- Programmer assumes that a certain section of code is executed without interruptions
- Programmer does not guarantee that code executes without interruptions

Race conditions

- ▶ Typically appears if two processes access the same resource
- Programmer assumes that a certain section of code is executed without interruptions
- Programmer does not guarantee that code executes without interruptions
- Operating systems offer constructs to avoid race conditions: locking, semaphores, mutexes
- ▶ Details in the "Operating Systems" lecture

Race conditions

- ▶ Typically appears if two processes access the same resource
- ► Programmer assumes that a certain section of code is executed without interruptions
- Programmer does not guarantee that code executes without interruptions
- Operating systems offer constructs to avoid race conditions: locking, semaphores, mutexes
- ▶ Details in the "Operating Systems" lecture
- More extensive example of a race condition later...

- ► So far, all access to resources was handled through file-access permissions
- ▶ Requesting a resource (file) is done through syscalls

- ► So far, all access to resources was handled through file-access permissions
- ▶ Requesting a resource (file) is done through syscalls
- Cannot do that for reading/writing memory
- ► Load/store instructions are very frequent in programs
- Speed of memory access largely determines the speed of many programs
- System calls are expensive

- ► So far, all access to resources was handled through file-access permissions
- ▶ Requesting a resource (file) is done through syscalls
- Cannot do that for reading/writing memory
- ► Load/store instructions are very frequent in programs
- Speed of memory access largely determines the speed of many programs
- System calls are expensive
- ▶ A load (from cache) can finish in a few cycles
- A system call has some hundred cycles overhead

- ► So far, all access to resources was handled through file-access permissions
- ▶ Requesting a resource (file) is done through syscalls
- Cannot do that for reading/writing memory
- ► Load/store instructions are very frequent in programs
- Speed of memory access largely determines the speed of many programs
- ► System calls are expensive
- ► A load (from cache) can finish in a few cycles
- A system call has some hundred cycles overhead
- OS still needs control over memory access of processes!

- ► Central idea:
 - ► Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ► Instead, use *virtual addresses*
 - ► For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address

- ► Central idea:
 - ► Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ► Instead, use virtual addresses
 - ► For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- Chop the memory into pages of fixed size (typically 4KB)

- Central idea:
 - Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ► Instead. use virtual addresses
 - ► For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- Chop the memory into pages of fixed size (typically 4KB)
- Use a page table to establish the mapping

- Central idea:
 - Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ► Instead. use virtual addresses
 - ► For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- Chop the memory into pages of fixed size (typically 4KB)
- ▶ Use a page table to establish the mapping
- Essentially, use a different page table for each process
- ▶ If there is no entry for a virtual address in a processes' page table: exit with segmentation fault

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ► Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory
- ► Can even assign more memory than is physically available
- ▶ Need to swap memory content to and from hard drive

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory
- Can even assign more memory than is physically available
- ▶ Need to swap memory content to and from hard drive
- Can separate address spaces from different programs!
- OS can now ensure that one process cannot read/write another processes' memory

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory
- Can even assign more memory than is physically available
- Need to swap memory content to and from hard drive
- ► Can separate address spaces from different programs!
- OS can now ensure that one process cannot read/write another processes' memory
- ► Hmmm, but looking up addresses for each memory access doesn't sound cheaper than a syscall...

The MMU

- ▶ Mapping from virtual to physical addresses is done in hardware
- ► CPU has a Memory Management Unit (MMU), which performs the mapping
- Typical setup:
 - OS writes page table for processes to memory

The MMU

- Mapping from virtual to physical addresses is done in hardware
- CPU has a Memory Management Unit (MMU), which performs the mapping
- ► Typical setup:
 - OS writes page table for processes to memory
 - OS provides pointer to page table of current process to MMU
 - ► This is done by writing a special control register, the page table base register (PTBR)
 - Access to this control register only from protection ring 0

The MMU

- Mapping from virtual to physical addresses is done in hardware
- CPU has a Memory Management Unit (MMU), which performs the mapping
- Typical setup:
 - OS writes page table for processes to memory
 - OS provides pointer to page table of current process to MMU
 - This is done by writing a special control register, the page table base register (PTBR)
 - Access to this control register only from protection ring 0
 - MMU looks up mapping from memory and remembers it in special cache
 - ► Page-table cache is called *translation lookaside buffer* (TLB)

The MMU

- Mapping from virtual to physical addresses is done in hardware
- CPU has a Memory Management Unit (MMU), which performs the mapping
- Typical setup:
 - OS writes page table for processes to memory
 - OS provides pointer to page table of current process to MMU
 - This is done by writing a special control register, the page table base register (PTBR)
 - Access to this control register only from protection ring 0
 - MMU looks up mapping from memory and remembers it in special cache
 - ▶ Page-table cache is called *translation lookaside buffer* (TLB)
- ▶ Need to invalidate TLB content on context switch:
 - Can flush the whole TLB content
 - Can mark the content invalid and "re-validate" when the process comes back

Shared memory

- ▶ Now we have memory of different processes nicely separated
- ▶ However, sometimes we want processes to *share memory*
- ► Shared memory is an efficient (and common) way for inter-process communication (IPC)

Shared memory

- ▶ Now we have memory of different processes nicely separated
- ▶ However, sometimes we want processes to *share memory*
- Shared memory is an efficient (and common) way for inter-process communication (IPC)
- ▶ Unix offers syscalls for sharing memory:
 - ► Can map a file into memory with mmap() (with MAP_SHARED option)
 - Can request shared memory with shm_open() or shmget()

Shared memory

- ▶ Now we have memory of different processes nicely separated
- ▶ However, sometimes we want processes to *share memory*
- Shared memory is an efficient (and common) way for inter-process communication (IPC)
- ▶ Unix offers syscalls for sharing memory:
 - ► Can map a file into memory with mmap() (with MAP_SHARED option)
 - Can request shared memory with shm_open() or shmget()
 - ► Shared-memory resources have access permissions similar to files
 - ► The "execute" flag is ignored
 - ► For shared memory we're basically back to file access through syscalls

Virtual memory and security

► Virtual memory gives the OS the possibility to *separate memory of different processes*

Virtual memory and security

- ▶ Virtual memory gives the OS the possibility to *separate memory of different processes*
- ▶ One process (or user) can still provide input to another process
- ► Virtual memory does not say anything about what a process is doing with its own memory!

The memory content of a process is *segmented* into:

▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code

- ▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code
- ▶ The data segment: contains initialized static variables

- ▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code
- ▶ The data segment: contains initialized static variables
- ▶ The bss segment: contains uninitialized (zeroed) static variables

- ▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code
- ▶ The data segment: contains initialized static variables
- ▶ The bss segment: contains uninitialized (zeroed) static variables
- ► The heap: (memory allocated by malloc and released by free)

- ▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code
- ▶ The data segment: contains initialized static variables
- ▶ The bss segment: contains uninitialized (zeroed) static variables
- ▶ The heap: (memory allocated by malloc and released by free)
- ► The stack: local data and return addresses

- ▶ The code segment (or text segment): contains the program code
- ▶ The data segment: contains initialized static variables
- ▶ The bss segment: contains uninitialized (zeroed) static variables
- ▶ The heap: (memory allocated by malloc and released by free)
- ► The stack: local data and return addresses
- Memory mapping segment: files, e.g., dynamic libraries mapped into memory

Reminder: The stack frame

Function call

```
void h() {
    int x = 7;
    int a = 6;
    f(42, 123);
    ...
}

void f(int a, int b) {
    char buf[20];
    ...
}
```

Call stack

```
--- stack frame for h ---
--- stack frame for f ---
  123
  42
  return address to h
  frame pointer to h
  buf [19]
  buf [18]
  buf [0]
```

A classic buffer-overflow attack

```
#include <stdio.h>
int vulnfunc(void) {
  char *ret:
  char buffer[100];
  ret = gets(buffer);
  printf(buffer);
  printf("\n");
  fflush(stdout);
  if (ret == NULL) return 0;
  else return 1;
int main(void) {
  int ret = 1;
  while (ret) {
    ret = vulnfunc();
  return 0:
```

- gets() reads into buffer
- ► Can write more than 100 bytes to buffer

A classic buffer-overflow attack

```
#include <stdio.h>
int vulnfunc(void) {
  char *ret:
  char buffer[100]:
  ret = gets(buffer);
  printf(buffer);
  printf("\n");
  fflush(stdout);
  if (ret == NULL) return 0;
  else return 1;
int main(void) {
  int ret = 1;
  while (ret) {
    ret = vulnfunc();
  return 0:
```

- gets() reads into buffer
- Can write more than 100 bytes to buffer
- ▶ Fill buffer with shell code
- Overwrite return address of vulnfunc() with address of shell code

A classic buffer-overflow attack

```
#include <stdio.h>
int vulnfunc(void) {
  char *ret:
  char buffer[100]:
  ret = gets(buffer);
  printf(buffer);
  printf("\n");
  fflush(stdout);
  if (ret == NULL) return 0;
  else return 1;
int main(void) {
  int ret = 1;
  while (ret) {
    ret = vulnfunc();
  return 0:
```

- gets() reads into buffer
- Can write more than 100 bytes to buffer
- ▶ Fill buffer with shell code
- Overwrite return address of vulnfunc() with address of shell code
- ► Can write some nops before shell code ("nop slide")
- Program will jump to shell code and launch a shell

A classic buffer-overflow: the shell code

```
"\x48\x31\xd2"
                                            // xor %rdx, %rdx
"\x48\xbb\x2f\x2f\x62\x69\x6e\x2f\x73\x68" // mov $0x68732f6e69622f2f, %rbx
"\x48\xc1\xeb\x08"
                                            // shr $0x8, %rbx
"\x53"
                                            // push %rbx
"\x48\x89\xe7"
                                            // mov %rsp, %rdi
"\x52"
                                            // push %rdx
"\x57"
                                            // push %rdi
"\x48\x89\xe6"
                                            // mov %rsp, %rsi
"\xb0\x3b"
                                            // mov $0x3b, %al
"\x0f\x05"
                                            // syscall
```

- ► Traditional model:
 - User decided to run the program
 - ▶ Program behaves benignly (why else would the user run it...?)
 - ► It's the user's problem

- ► Traditional model:
 - User decided to run the program
 - ▶ Program behaves benignly (why else would the user run it...?)
 - ► It's the user's problem
 - ► Not really helpful with software today

- ► Traditional model:
 - User decided to run the program
 - Program behaves benignly (why else would the user run it...?)
 - ► It's the user's problem
 - Not really helpful with software today
- ► Two steps to the straight-forward attack:
 - 1. Change program's control flow
 - 2. Inject and execute attacker's code

- Traditional model:
 - User decided to run the program
 - ▶ Program behaves benignly (why else would the user run it...?)
 - It's the user's problem
 - Not really helpful with software today
- ► Two steps to the straight-forward attack:
 - 1. Change program's control flow
 - 2. Inject and execute attacker's code
- ▶ OS can help to prevent in particular 2
- Compilers can help to prevent 1 (e.g, stack canaries)
- Modern operating systems in fact do help

- ▶ Real problem of 2. is the von-Neumann architecture
- ▶ Code and data share the same memory space

- ▶ Real problem of 2. is the von-Neumann architecture
- Code and data share the same memory space
- ▶ Idea: Take this back (a little bit)
- Mark some areas of memory (stack, heap, data segment) non-executable
- ▶ Such a countermeasure is called *Data Execution Prevention (DEP)*

- ▶ Real problem of 2. is the von-Neumann architecture
- Code and data share the same memory space
- ▶ Idea: Take this back (a little bit)
- Mark some areas of memory (stack, heap, data segment) non-executable
- ► Such a countermeasure is called *Data Execution Prevention (DEP)*
- ▶ Other name: $W \oplus X$ ("either write or execute")

- ▶ Real problem of 2. is the von-Neumann architecture
- Code and data share the same memory space
- ▶ Idea: Take this back (a little bit)
- Mark some areas of memory (stack, heap, data segment) non-executable
- ► Such a countermeasure is called *Data Execution Prevention (DEP)*
- ▶ Other name: $W \oplus X$ ("either write or execute")
- ▶ Ideally this is implemented in the CPU's MMU
- Supported by many recent CPUs (e.g., AMD64, ARM)

- ▶ Real problem of 2. is the von-Neumann architecture
- Code and data share the same memory space
- ▶ Idea: Take this back (a little bit)
- Mark some areas of memory (stack, heap, data segment) non-executable
- ▶ Such a countermeasure is called *Data Execution Prevention (DEP)*
- ▶ Other name: $W \oplus X$ ("either write or execute")
- ▶ Ideally this is implemented in the CPU's MMU
- Supported by many recent CPUs (e.g., AMD64, ARM)
- Various software solutions for CPUs without hardware support
- Software solutions add overhead to memory access

- ▶ Non-executable-stack bit is stored in the ELF header of a binary
- ▶ Linux by default supports NX stack
- gcc by default produces non-executable-stack binaries

- ▶ Non-executable-stack bit is stored in the ELF header of a binary
- ▶ Linux by default supports NX stack
- gcc by default produces non-executable-stack binaries
- Disable NX in gcc: gcc -z execstack

- Non-executable-stack bit is stored in the ELF header of a binary
- Linux by default supports NX stack
- gcc by default produces non-executable-stack binaries
- ▶ Disable NX in gcc: gcc -z execstack
- Disable NX on an existing binary: execstack -s BINARY
- Enable NX on an existing binary: execstack -c BINARY

- ▶ Non-executable-stack bit is stored in the ELF header of a binary
- ▶ Linux by default supports NX stack
- gcc by default produces non-executable-stack binaries
- ▶ Disable NX in gcc: gcc -z execstack
- Disable NX on an existing binary: execstack -s BINARY
- ► Enable NX on an existing binary: execstack -c BINARY
- ▶ Disable NX for 32-bit binaries in Linux kernel:
 - Boot parameter noexec=off (for x86)
 - Boot parameter noexec32=off (for AMD64)

- ▶ Non-executable-stack bit is stored in the ELF header of a binary
- Linux by default supports NX stack
- gcc by default produces non-executable-stack binaries
- ▶ Disable NX in gcc: gcc -z execstack
- Disable NX on an existing binary: execstack -s BINARY
- ► Enable NX on an existing binary: execstack -c BINARY
- ▶ Disable NX for 32-bit binaries in Linux kernel:
 - ► Boot parameter noexec=off (for x86)
 - Boot parameter noexec32=off (for AMD64)
- Reasons to disable NX protection:
 - Creating homework for Software and Websecurity
 - Generally, trying out "classical" attacks
 - Some programs need executable stack!

Return to libc

- ▶ Attacker cannot execute his code on the stack anymore
- ▶ Workaround: execute code that is already in the program
- (Almost) always mapped into the programs memory space: C standard library

Return to libc

- ▶ Attacker cannot execute his code on the stack anymore
- ▶ Workaround: execute code that is already in the program
- (Almost) always mapped into the programs memory space: C standard library
- ▶ Idea: put suitable arguments for system() somewhere in memory (e.g., "/bin/sh")
- Overwrite the return address to point to system()
- ▶ For clean exit, set return address of system to address of exit()

Return to libc

- Attacker cannot execute his code on the stack anymore
- ▶ Workaround: execute code that is already in the program
- (Almost) always mapped into the programs memory space: C standard library
- ▶ Idea: put suitable arguments for system() somewhere in memory (e.g., "/bin/sh")
- Overwrite the return address to point to system()
- ▶ For clean exit, set return address of system to address of exit()
- ► Obtain the address of libc with cat /proc/\$PID/maps | grep libc
- ▶ Obtain the offset of system() and exit() through nm -D /lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6 | grep system

Return to libc ctd.

- ▶ Place the string "/bin/sh" somewhere and obtain its address
- Write behind buffer
 - Address of system()
 - Address of exit()
 - 3. Address of "/bin/sh"
- ► Address of system() must overwrite return address in current frame
- ► Code will return to system() with
 - return address pointing to exit(), and
 - argument pointing to /bin/sh

Countermeasures

- ► Can make sure that \0 is in the address of libc
- ► Many functions (like gets) won't read past the \0

Countermeasures

- ► Can make sure that \0 is in the address of libc
- ► Many functions (like gets) won't read past the \0
- ▶ Does not generally help, can overflow some buffers also with \0

Countermeasures

- ► Can make sure that \0 is in the address of libc
- Many functions (like gets) won't read past the \0
- ▶ Does not generally help, can overflow some buffers also with \0
- ► Can remove some critical functions from (reduced) libc
- ▶ Problems:
 - Can break functionality
 - What functions exactly can cause problems...?

- ▶ We do not have to return to libc functions
- ► Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- ▶ Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return

- ▶ We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- ► Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- ▶ Chain these pieces to an attack program

- We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- ► Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- Chain these pieces to an attack program
- ▶ This idea is called return-oriented programming
- Concept introduced by Shacham in 2007

- We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- ► Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- Chain these pieces to an attack program
- ▶ This idea is called return-oriented programming
- Concept introduced by Shacham in 2007
- ► Collected pieces of code are called *gadgets*
- Attacker now has to program with "gadget-instructions"

- We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- ► Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- Chain these pieces to an attack program
- ▶ This idea is called return-oriented programming
- Concept introduced by Shacham in 2007
- Collected pieces of code are called gadgets
- Attacker now has to program with "gadget-instructions"
- ▶ Slight generalization: Can also use gadgets ending in jumps

- We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- Chain these pieces to an attack program
- ▶ This idea is called *return-oriented programming*
- Concept introduced by Shacham in 2007
- Collected pieces of code are called gadgets
- Attacker now has to program with "gadget-instructions"
- ▶ Slight generalization: Can also use gadgets ending in jumps
- Important concept: can obtain malicious computation without malicious code!

- ▶ We do not have to return to libc functions
- Can also return to arbitrary addresses
- Can chain such returns, if each targeted block ends in return
- Attack idea: Collect pieces of code from binary (each ending in return)
- Chain these pieces to an attack program
- ▶ This idea is called *return-oriented programming*
- Concept introduced by Shacham in 2007
- ► Collected pieces of code are called *gadgets*
- Attacker now has to program with "gadget-instructions"
- ▶ Slight generalization: Can also use gadgets ending in jumps
- Important concept: can obtain malicious computation without malicious code!
- Searching for gadgets (and to some extent chaining) can be automated

- ▶ Return to libc and ROP need to know the addresses of code
- ▶ Idea: randomize position of dynamic libraries

- ▶ Return to libc and ROP *need to know the addresses of code*
- ▶ Idea: randomize position of dynamic libraries
- ► This approach is called *address space layout randomization (ASLR)*
- ▶ Does not only randomize position of dynamic libraries, but also:
 - position of stack
 - position of data segment
 - position of heap

- ▶ Return to libc and ROP *need to know the addresses of code*
- ▶ Idea: randomize position of dynamic libraries
- ▶ This approach is called *address space layout randomization (ASLR)*
- ▶ Does not only randomize position of dynamic libraries, but also:
 - position of stack
 - position of data segment
 - position of heap
- To also randomize the position of the binary itself need to use gcc -fpie
- pie stands for "position independent execution"

- ▶ Return to libc and ROP *need to know the addresses of code*
- ▶ Idea: randomize position of dynamic libraries
- ▶ This approach is called *address space layout randomization (ASLR)*
- ▶ Does not only randomize position of dynamic libraries, but also:
 - position of stack
 - position of data segment
 - position of heap
- To also randomize the position of the binary itself need to use gcc -fpie
- pie stands for "position independent execution"
- Disable ASLR in Linux: echo 0 > /proc/sys/kernel/randomize_va_space or boot with parameter norandmaps

- ▶ Return to libc and ROP *need to know the addresses of code*
- ▶ Idea: randomize position of dynamic libraries
- ▶ This approach is called *address space layout randomization (ASLR)*
- ▶ Does not only randomize position of dynamic libraries, but also:
 - position of stack
 - position of data segment
 - position of heap
- To also randomize the position of the binary itself need to use gcc -fpie
- pie stands for "position independent execution"
- Disable ASLR in Linux: echo 0 > /proc/sys/kernel/randomize_va_space or boot with parameter norandmaps
- ► Disable ASLR for one process: setarch 'uname -m' -R PROGRAMNAME.

- ► ASLR is generally very effective as a defense
- ▶ Problem if address of one instruction leaks to the attacker:
 - ► Format-string attacks
 - Using overflows to overwrite null-termination
 - Memory content written to disk
 - ► Software that uses non-randomized modules
 - For a while, linux-gate.so.1 was not randomized
 - **...**

- ► ASLR is generally very effective as a defense
- ▶ Problem if address of one instruction leaks to the attacker:
 - ► Format-string attacks
 - Using overflows to overwrite null-termination
 - Memory content written to disk
 - Software that uses non-randomized modules
 - For a while, linux-gate.so.1 was not randomized
 - **.** . . .
- ▶ Problem on 32-bit machines: not enough entropy
 - Cannot randomize lower 12 bits of address (that would break page alignment)

- ► ASLR is generally very effective as a defense
- ▶ Problem if address of one instruction leaks to the attacker:
 - ► Format-string attacks
 - Using overflows to overwrite null-termination
 - Memory content written to disk
 - Software that uses non-randomized modules
 - For a while, linux-gate.so.1 was not randomized
 - **.** . . .
- ▶ Problem on 32-bit machines: not enough entropy
 - Cannot randomize lower 12 bits of address (that would break page alignment)
 - Cannot randomize upper 4 bits (limits capabilities of large memory mappings)

- ► ASLR is generally very effective as a defense
- ▶ Problem if address of one instruction leaks to the attacker:
 - Format-string attacks
 - Using overflows to overwrite null-termination
 - Memory content written to disk
 - Software that uses non-randomized modules
 - For a while, linux-gate.so.1 was not randomized
 - **.** . . .
- ▶ Problem on 32-bit machines: not enough entropy
 - Cannot randomize lower 12 bits of address (that would break page alignment)
 - Cannot randomize upper 4 bits (limits capabilities of large memory mappings)
 - Result: only 16 bits of entropy (65536 possibilities)

- ► ASLR is generally very effective as a defense
- ▶ Problem if address of one instruction leaks to the attacker:
 - Format-string attacks
 - Using overflows to overwrite null-termination
 - Memory content written to disk
 - Software that uses non-randomized modules
 - For a while, linux-gate.so.1 was not randomized
 - **.** . . .
- ▶ Problem on 32-bit machines: not enough entropy
 - Cannot randomize lower 12 bits of address (that would break page alignment)
 - Cannot randomize upper 4 bits (limits capabilities of large memory mappings)
 - ▶ Result: only 16 bits of entropy (65536 possibilities)
 - Shacham, Page, Pfaff, Goh, Modadugu, Boneh, 2004: brute-force attack that took 216 seconds on average

A race condition in the Linux kernel

- ▶ Announced May 2014: race condition in the Linux kernel
- ▶ More specifically: in the pty (pseudo-terminal) subsystem
- ▶ Bug was there for about 5 years

A race condition in the Linux kernel

- ▶ Announced May 2014: race condition in the Linux kernel
- ▶ More specifically: in the pty (pseudo-terminal) subsystem
- ▶ Bug was there for about 5 years
- Bug allows an attacker to crash the kernel

A race condition in the Linux kernel

- ▶ Announced May 2014: race condition in the Linux kernel
- ▶ More specifically: in the pty (pseudo-terminal) subsystem
- ▶ Bug was there for about 5 years
- ▶ Bug allows an attacker to crash the kernel
- Bug allows an attacker to obtain a root shell

- ▶ A tty is a typewriter paired with an electromagnetic communication channel
- In the old days: keyboard + screen and OS process (tty driver) attached

- A tty is a typewriter paired with an electromagnetic communication channel
- In the old days: keyboard + screen and OS process (tty driver) attached
- ► Today: Use terminal emulator (e.g., xterm) instead of screen
- Use pseudo-terminal (pty) device driver

- A tty is a typewriter paired with an electromagnetic communication channel
- In the old days: keyboard + screen and OS process (tty driver) attached
- ► Today: Use terminal emulator (e.g., xterm) instead of screen
- Use pseudo-terminal (pty) device driver
- ▶ Job of the pty driver:
 - Read input from one side
 - Parse it for special characters (e.g., CTRL-C, backspace)
 - ► Handle special characters (e.g, send SIGINT for CTRL-C)
 - Forward the rest to the other side

- A tty is a typewriter paired with an electromagnetic communication channel
- In the old days: keyboard + screen and OS process (tty driver) attached
- ► Today: Use terminal emulator (e.g., xterm) instead of screen
- Use pseudo-terminal (pty) device driver
- ▶ Job of the pty driver:
 - Read input from one side
 - Parse it for special characters (e.g., CTRL-C, backspace)
 - ► Handle special characters (e.g, send SIGINT for CTRL-C)
 - Forward the rest to the other side
- ▶ Important to notice: Two processes can write to the same pty

- A tty is a typewriter paired with an electromagnetic communication channel
- In the old days: keyboard + screen and OS process (tty driver) attached
- ► Today: Use terminal emulator (e.g., xterm) instead of screen
- Use pseudo-terminal (pty) device driver
- ▶ Job of the pty driver:
 - Read input from one side
 - ► Parse it for special characters (e.g., CTRL-C, backspace)
 - ► Handle special characters (e.g, send SIGINT for CTRL-C)
 - Forward the rest to the other side
- ▶ Important to notice: Two processes can write to the same pty
- ► Call sequence from userspace program to pty buffer: write(pty_fd) in userspace → sys_write() in kernelspace → tty_write() → pty_write() → tty_insert_flip_string_fixed_flag()

The vulnerable code

```
int tty_insert_flip_string_fixed_flag(struct tty_struct *tty,
                                       const unsigned char *chars,
                                       char flag, size_t size)
  int copied = 0;
 do {
    int goal = min_t(size_t, size - copied, TTY_BUFFER_PAGE);
    int space = tty_buffer_request_room(tty, goal);
    struct tty_buffer *tb = tty->buf.tail;
    if (unlikely(space == 0))
      break:
    memcpy(tb->char_buf_ptr + tb->used, chars, space);
    memset(tb->flag_buf_ptr + tb->used, flag, space);
    tb->used += space;
    copied += space; chars += space;
  } while (unlikely(size > copied));
  return copied;
```

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

Process B

► Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

Process B

tty_buffer_request_room

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

▶ tty_buffer_request_room

Process B

▶ tty_buffer_request_room

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

- tty_buffer_request_room
- ▶ memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- ▶ tb->used += space;

Process B

tty_buffer_request_room

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

- tty_buffer_request_room
- memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- ▶ tb->used += space;

Process B

tty_buffer_request_room

memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

tty_buffer_request_room

- memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- ▶ tb->used += space;

Process B

tty_buffer_request_room

- memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- memcpy(s) of A fill the buffer(s) and increase used
- memcpy(s) of B will write behind the buffer

Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

tty_buffer_request_room

- memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- ▶ tb->used += space;

Process B

tty_buffer_request_room

- memcpy(buf+tb->used,...)
- memcpy(s) of A fill the buffer(s) and increase used
- memcpy(s) of B will write behind the buffer
- ► Local-root exploit needs some more bits and pieces, for details see http://blog.includesecurity.com/2014/06/exploit-walkthrough-cve-2014-0196-pty-kernel-race-condition.html