

OS Security

Memory

Radboud University Nijmegen, The Netherlands



Winter 2014/2015

A short recap

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

A short recap

- ▶ 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

A short recap

- ▶ 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-file systems in `/proc` and `sys`
 - ▶ Symbolic links, directories, pipes are all implemented through file handles

A short recap

- ▶ 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-file systems 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)

A short recap

- ▶ 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-file systems 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

A short recap

- ▶ 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-file systems 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!)

A short recap

- ▶ 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-file systems 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!)
- ▶ Extension to classic access rights: ACLs

IFS and LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- ▶ Attack against `system("/bin/date")` does not work anymore
- ▶ IFS environment variable is no longer inherited by shells

IFS and LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- ▶ Attack against `system("/bin/date")` does not work anymore
- ▶ IFS environment variable is no longer inherited by shells
- ▶ LD_LIBRARY_PATH is not inherited for programs with setuid bit set

IFS and LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- ▶ Attack against `system("/bin/date")` does not work anymore
- ▶ IFS environment variable is no longer inherited by shells
- ▶ LD_LIBRARY_PATH is not inherited for programs with setuid bit set
- ▶ PATH variable is still inherited
- ▶ Custom variables are still inherited

IFS and LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- ▶ Attack against `system("/bin/date")` does not work anymore
- ▶ IFS environment variable is no longer inherited by shells
- ▶ LD_LIBRARY_PATH is not inherited for programs with setuid bit set
- ▶ PATH variable is still inherited
- ▶ Custom variables are still inherited
- ▶ Can try all this easily with a C program using `getenv`

IFS and LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- ▶ Attack against `system("/bin/date")` does not work anymore
- ▶ IFS environment variable is no longer inherited by shells
- ▶ LD_LIBRARY_PATH is not inherited for programs with setuid bit set
- ▶ PATH variable is still inherited
- ▶ Custom variables are still inherited
- ▶ Can try all this easily with a C program using `getenv`
- ▶ Cannot try this with a shell script
- ▶ Shell scripts won't execute setuid (even if you set the bit)

Shellshock

- ▶ Environment variables can be dangerous because they allow (potentially unintended) data flow
- ▶ Even worse if environment variables are badly parsed:
[http://digg.com/video/
the-shellshock-bug-explained-in-about-four-minutes](http://digg.com/video/the-shellshock-bug-explained-in-about-four-minutes)

More Shellshock background

- ▶ The bash is not just a command line but also a programming language
- ▶ We can define functions: `hello() { echo "Hello World"; }`
- ▶ We can also export functions with `export -f`

More Shellshock background

- ▶ The bash is not just a command line but also a programming language
- ▶ We can define functions: `hello() { echo "Hello World"; }`
- ▶ We can also export functions with `export -f`
- ▶ Environment variables do not support functions, just strings
- ▶ The newly launched bash looks for variables that “look like a function”
- ▶ Parsing things that “look like a function” goes wrong

Shellshock test

```
env x='() { :; }; echo vulnerable' bash -c "echo this is a test"
```

Race conditions

- ▶ Remember the TOCTTOU vulnerability...
- ▶ This is an example of a more general class of vulnerabilities

Definition

A *race condition* is anomalous behavior of software where the output depends on an uncontrollable sequence of operations.

Race conditions

- ▶ Remember the TOCTTOU vulnerability...
- ▶ This is an example of a more general class of vulnerabilities

Definition

A *race condition* is anomalous behavior of software where the output depends on an uncontrollable sequence of operations.

- ▶ 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

- ▶ Remember the TOCTTOU vulnerability...
- ▶ This is an example of a more general class of vulnerabilities

Definition

A *race condition* is anomalous behavior of software where the output depends on an uncontrollable sequence of operations.

- ▶ 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

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

The pty subsystem

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

The pty subsystem

- ▶ 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

The pty subsystem

- ▶ 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

The pty subsystem

- ▶ 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

The pty subsystem

- ▶ 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;
}
```

The race condition

- ▶ Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

Process B

The race condition

- ▶ Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

Process B

- ▶ `tty_buffer_request_room`

The race condition

- ▶ Assume two processes write to the same pty

Process A

- ▶ `tty_buffer_request_room`

Process B

- ▶ `tty_buffer_request_room`

The race condition

- ▶ 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`

The race condition

- ▶ 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, ...)`

The race condition

- ▶ Assume two processes write to the same tty

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

The race condition

- ▶ 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>

Memory access

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

Memory access

- ▶ 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

Memory access

- ▶ 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

Memory access

- ▶ 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!

Virtual memory

- ▶ 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

Virtual memory

- ▶ 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)

Virtual memory

- ▶ 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

Virtual memory

- ▶ 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

Advantages of virtual memory

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

Advantages of virtual 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

Advantages of virtual 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

Advantages of virtual 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
- ▶ Hmm, 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!

Reminder: Memory layout

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

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

Reminder: Memory layout

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

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

Reminder: Memory layout

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

- ▶ 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

Reminder: Memory layout

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

- ▶ 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`)

Reminder: Memory layout

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

- ▶ 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

Reminder: Memory layout

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

- ▶ 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 m ---
    7
    6
-----
--- stack frame for f ---
    123
    42
    return address to m
    frame pointer to m
    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
}
```

What can the OS do to help?

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

What can the OS do to help?

- ▶ 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

What can the OS do to help?

- ▶ 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

What can the OS do to help?

- ▶ 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

$W \oplus X$

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

$W \oplus X$

- ▶ 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)*

$W \oplus X$

- ▶ 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”)

$W \oplus X$

- ▶ 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)

$W \oplus X$

- ▶ 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

Enabling/disabling NX

- ▶ 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

Enabling/disabling NX

- ▶ 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`

Enabling/disabling NX

- ▶ 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`

Enabling/disabling NX

- ▶ 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)

Enabling/disabling NX

- ▶ 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 `ldd`
- ▶ Obtain the offset of `system()` and `exit()` through

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <dlfcn.h>

main(){
    void *h, *p;
    h = dlopen(NULL, RTLD_LAZY);
    p = dlsym(h, "system");
    printf("0x%016lx\n", p);
    p = dlsym(h, "exit");
    printf("0x%016lx\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```

Return to libc ctd.

- ▶ Place the string `"/bin/sh"` somewhere and obtain its address
- ▶ Write behind buffer
 1. Address of `system()`
 2. 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...?

ROP

- ▶ 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`

ROP

- ▶ 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

ROP

- ▶ 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

ROP

- ▶ 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”

ROP

- ▶ 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

ROP

- ▶ 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*!

ROP

- ▶ 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

ASLR

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

ASLR

- ▶ 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

ASLR

- ▶ 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”

ASLR

- ▶ 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`

ASLR

- ▶ 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`

Attacks against ASLR

- ▶ 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
 - ▶ ...

Attacks against ASLR

- ▶ 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
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ Problem on 32-bit machines: not enough entropy
 - ▶ Cannot randomize lower 12 bits of address (that would break page alignment)

Attacks against ASLR

- ▶ 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
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ 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)

Attacks against ASLR

- ▶ 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
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ 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)

Attacks against ASLR

- ▶ 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
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ 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