CSE 410/518 Special Topics: Software Security

Instructor: Dr. Ziming Zhao

Course Evaluation

Begins: 11/27/2022 Ends: 12/12/2022

If 90% of student submit the evaluation, all of the class will get **10** bonus points.

Heap-based Buffer Overflow

Heap Overflow

- Buffer overflows are basically the same on the heap as they are on the stack
- Heap cookies/canaries aren't a thing
 - No 'return' addresses to protect
- In the real world, lots of cool and complex things like objects/structs end up on the heap
 - Anything that handles the data you just corrupted is now viable attack surface in the application
- It's common to put function pointers in structs which generally are malloc'd on the heap

void fly()

printf("Flying ...\n");

typedef struct airplane {

void (*pfun)(); char name[20]; } airplane;

int main()

printf("fly() at %p; print_flag() at %p\n", fly, print_flag);

struct airplane *p1 = malloc(sizeof(airplane));
printf("Airplane 1 is at %p\n", p1);

struct airplane *p2 = malloc(sizeof(airplane));
printf("Airplane 2 is at %p\n", p2);

p1->pfun = fly; p2->pfun = fly;

fgets(p2->name, 10, stdin); fgets(p1->name, 50, stdin);

p1->pfun(); p2->pfun();

free(p1); free(p2); return 0;

}

<pre>void fly() { printf("Flying\n"); } typedef struct airplane { void (*pfun)(); char name[20];</pre>	<pre>int main() { printf("fly() at %p; print_flag() at %p\n", fly, print_flag); struct airplane *p1 = malloc(sizeof(airplane)); printf("Airplane 1 is at %p\n", p1); struct airplane *p2 = malloc(sizeof(airplane)); printf("Airplane 2 is at %p\n", p2); p1->pfun = fly; p2->pfun = fly;</pre>	Airplane 2	name (20) Pfun (4) Size (4) Prev_size (4) name (20)
} airplane;	fgets(p2->name, 10, stdin); fgets(p1->name, 50, stdin); p1->pfun();	Airplane 1	Pfun (4) Size (4)
	free(p1); free(p2); return 0;		Prev_size (4)

	int main()			
	ˈ printf("fly() at %p; secret() at %p\n", fly, secret);		name (20)	Н
void secret() {	<pre>struct airplane *p1 = malloc(sizeof(airplane)); printf("Airplane 1 is at %p\n", p1); struct airplane *p2 = malloc(sizeof(airplane)); printf("Airplane 2 is at %p\n", p2); p1->pfun = fly; p2->pfun = fly; fgets(p2->name, 10, stdin); fgets(p1->name, 50, stdin);</pre>	Airplane 2	Pfun (4)	
printf("The secret is bla bla\n"); }			Size (4)	
void fly()			Prev_size (4)	
۲ printf("Flying\n"); }		Airplane 1	name (20)	
typedef struct airplane			Pfun (4)	
{ void (*pfun)(); char name[20];	p1->pfun(); p2->pfun();		Size (4)	
} airplane;	free(p1);		Prev_size (4)	
	free(p2); return 0; }			-

Exploit looks like

python2 -c "print 'a\n' + 'a'*28 + '\x4d\x62\x55\x56'" | ./heapoverflow32

Use after free (UAF)

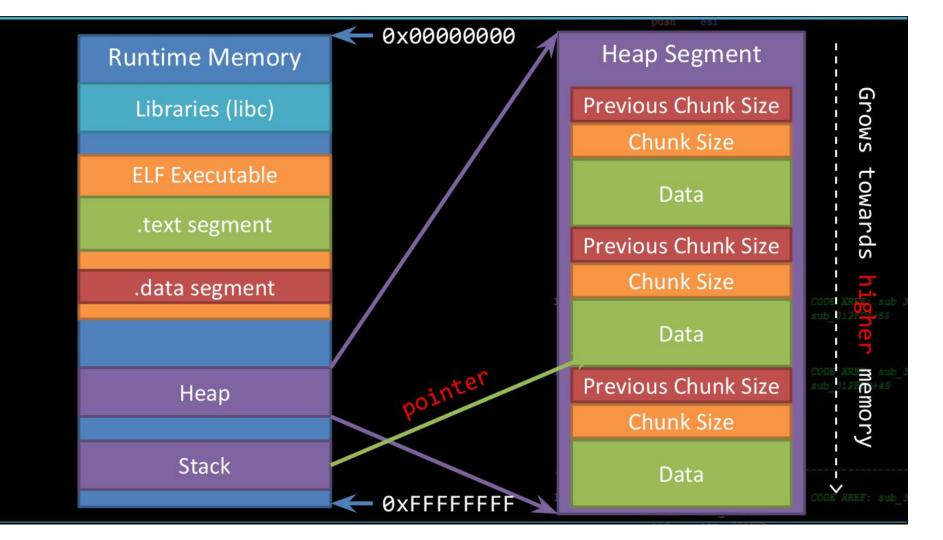
A class of vulnerability where data on the heap is freed, but a leftover reference or 'dangling pointer' is used by the code as if the data were still valid.

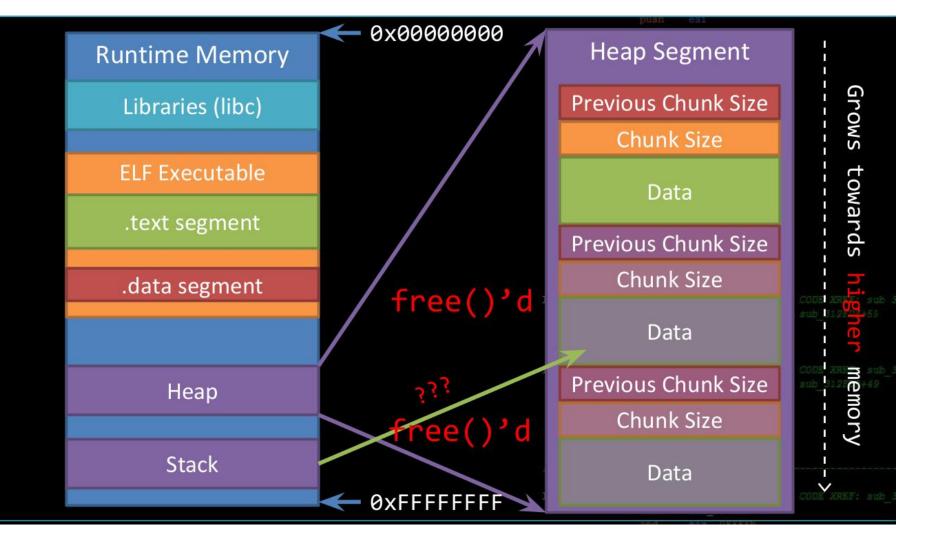
Most popular in Web Browsers, complex programs

The CWE Top 25

Below is a list of the weaknesses in the 2022 CWE Top 25, including the overall score of each. The KEV Count (CVEs) shows the number of CVE-2020/CVE-2021 Records from the CISA KEV list that were mapped to the given weakness.

Rank	ID	Name	Score	KEV Count (CVEs)	Rank Change vs. 2021
1	CWE-787	Out-of-bounds Write	64.20	62	0
2	<u>CWE-79</u>	Improper Neutralization of Input During Web Page Generation ('Cross-site Scripting')	45.97	2	0
3	<u>CWE-89</u>	Improper Neutralization of Special Elements used in an SQL Command ('SQL Injection')	22.11	7	+3 🔺
4	<u>CWE-20</u>	Improper Input Validation	20.63	20	0
5	CWE-125	Out-of-bounds Read	17.67	1	-2 🔻
6	<u>CWE-78</u>	Improper Neutralization of Special Elements used in an OS Command ('OS Command Injection')	17.53	32	-1 🔻
7	CWE-416	Use After Free	15.50	28	0
8	<u>CWE-22</u>	Improper Limitation of a Pathname to a Restricted Directory ('Path Traversal')	14.08	19	0
9	CWE-352	Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF)	11.53	1	0
10	CWE-434	Unrestricted Upload of File with Dangerous Type	9.56	6	0
11	CWE-476	NULL Pointer Dereference	7.15	0	+4 🔺
12	CWE-502	Deserialization of Untrusted Data	6.68	7	+1 🔺
13	CWE-190	Integer Overflow or Wraparound	6.53	2	-1 🔻
14	CWE-287	Improper Authentication	6.35	4	0
15	CWE-798	Use of Hard-coded Credentials	5.66	0	+1 🔺
16	CWE-862	Missing Authorization	5.53	1	+2 🔺
17	<u>CWE-77</u>	Improper Neutralization of Special Elements used in a Command ('Command Injection')	5.42	5	+8 🔺
18	CWE-306	Missing Authentication for Critical Function	5.15	6	-7 🔻
19	CWE-119	Improper Restriction of Operations within the Bounds of a Memory Buffer	4.85	6	-2 🔻
20	CWE-276	Incorrect Default Permissions	4.84	0	-1 🔻
21	CWE-918	Server-Side Request Forgery (SSRF)	4.27	8	+3 🔺
22	CWE-362	Concurrent Execution using Shared Resource with Improper Synchronization ('Race Condition')	3.57	6	+11 🔺
23	CWE-400	Uncontrolled Resource Consumption	3.56	2	+4 🔺
24	CWE-611	Improper Restriction of XML External Entity Reference	3.38	0	-1 🔻
25	CWE-94	Improper Control of Generation of Code ('Code Injection')	3.32	4	+3 🔺

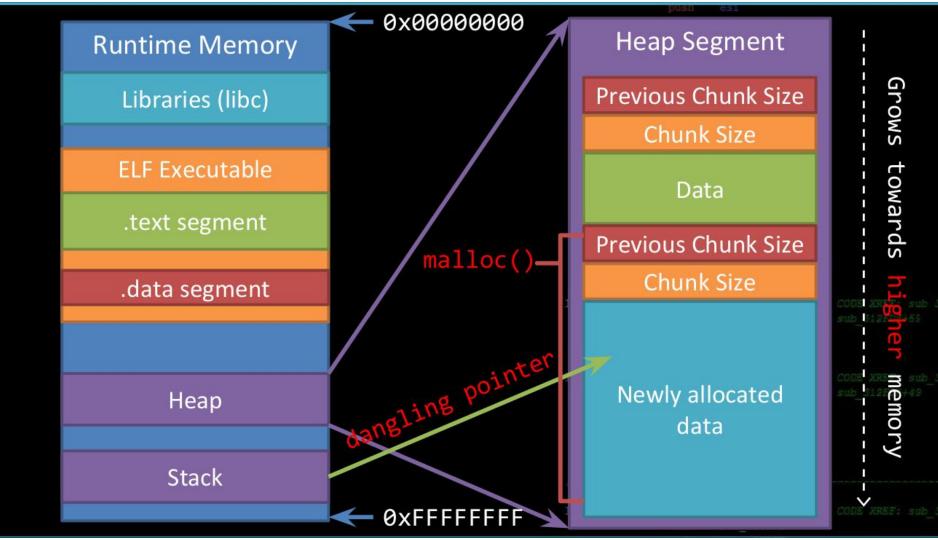




Dangling Pointer

Dangling Pointer

- A left over pointer in your code that references free'd data and is prone to be re-used
- As the memory it's pointing at was freed, there's no guarantees on what data is there now
- Also known as stale pointer, wild pointer



Exploit UAF

To exploit a UAF, you usually have to allocate a different type of object over the one you just freed

```
int main()
                                                         { printf("fly() at %p; print_flag() at %u\n", fly, (unsigned int)print_flag);
                                                           struct airplane *p = malloc(sizeof(airplane));
                                                           printf("Airplane is at %p\n", p);
                                                           p \rightarrow pfun = fly;
void fly()
                                                           p->pfun();
                                                           free(p);
         printf("Flying ...\n");
                                                           struct car *p1 = malloc(sizeof(car));
typedef struct airplane
                                                           printf("Car is at %p\n", p1);
         void (*pfun)();
         char name[20];
                                                           int volume:
} airplane;
                                                           printf("What is the volume of the car?\n");
                                                           scanf("%u", &volume);
typedef struct car
                                                           p1->volume = volume;
    int volume;
    char name[20];
                                                           p->pfun();
} car;
                                                           free(p);
                                                           return 0;
```

DImalloc (using glibc 2.3 as an example)

struct malloc_chunk

};

INTERNAL_SIZE_T prev_size; /* Size of previous chunk (if free). */ INTERNAL_SIZE_T size; /* Size in bytes, including overhead. */

```
struct malloc_chunk* fd; /* double links -- used only if free. */
struct malloc_chunk* bk;
```

typedef struct malloc_chunk* mchunkptr;

Mem is the pointer returned by malloc() call, while **chunk pointer** is what malloc considers the start of the chunk.

The whole heap is bounded from top by a *wilderness* chunk. In the beginning, this is the only chunk existing and malloc first makes allocated chunks by splitting the wilderness chunk.

glibc 2.3 allows for many heaps arranged into several *arenas*—one arena for each thread

- From the book "Buffer Overflow Attacks: Detect, Exploit, Prevent" Syngree

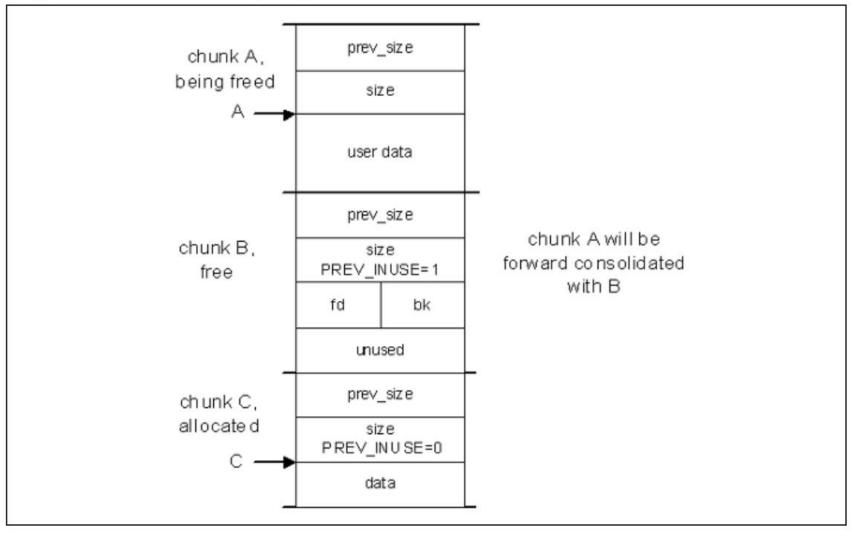
Consolidating chunks when free()-d

When a previously allocated chunk is free()-d, it can be either consolidated with previous (backward consolidation) and/or follow (forward consolidation) chunks, if they are free.

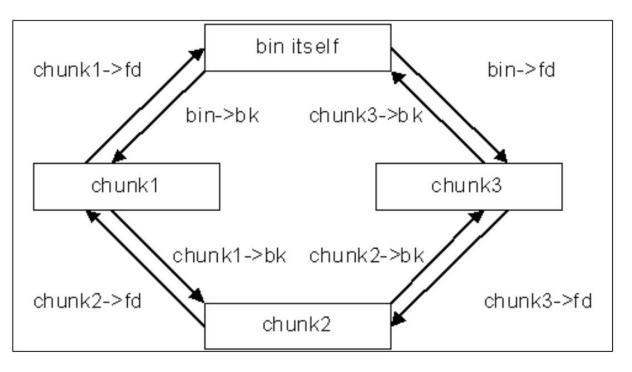
This ensures that there are no two adjacent free chunks in memory. The resulting chunk is then placed in a *bin*, which is a *doubly linked list of free chunks of a certain size*.

There is a set of bins for chunks of different sizes:

- 64 bins of size 8 32 bins of size 64 16 bins of size 512
- 8 bins of size 4096 4 bins of size 32768 2 bins of size 262144
- 1 bin of size what's left



Example Bin with Three Free Chunks



FD and BK are pointers to "next" and "previous" chunks inside a linked list of a bin, **not adjacent physical chunks**.

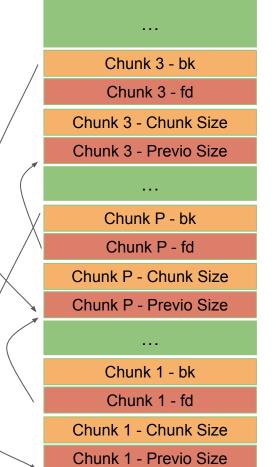
Pointers to chunks, physically next to and previous to this one in memory, can be obtained from current chunks by using **size** and **prev_size** offsets.

Pointers to physically next to and previous chunk

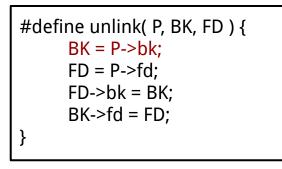
/* Ptr to next physical malloc_chunk. */
#define next_chunk(p) ((mchunkptr)(((char*)(p)) + ((p)->size & ~PREV_INUSE)))

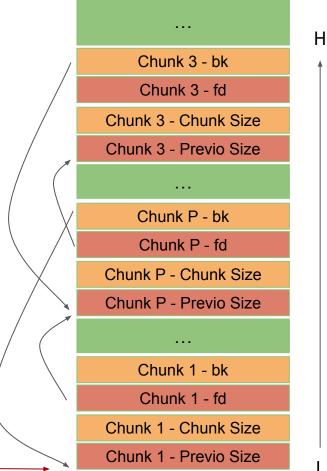
/* Ptr to previous physical malloc_chunk */
#define prev_chunk(p) ((mchunkptr)(((char*)(p)) - ((p)->prev_size)))

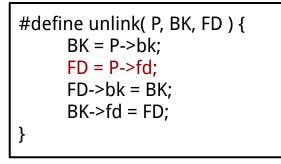
#define unlink(P, BK, FD) { BK = P->bk; FD = P->fd; FD->bk = BK; BK->fd = FD; }

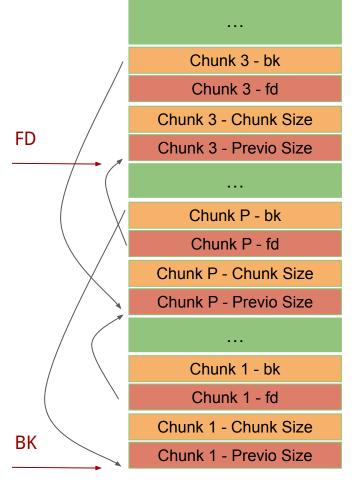


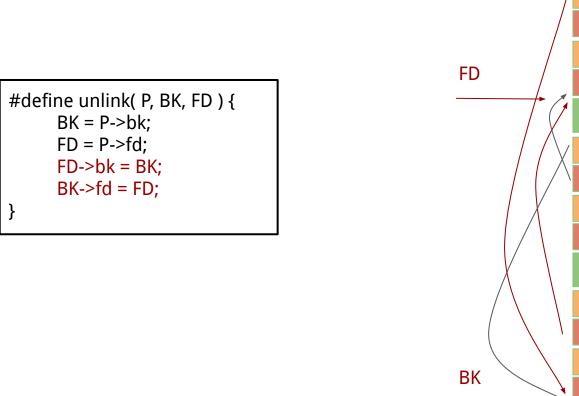
BK

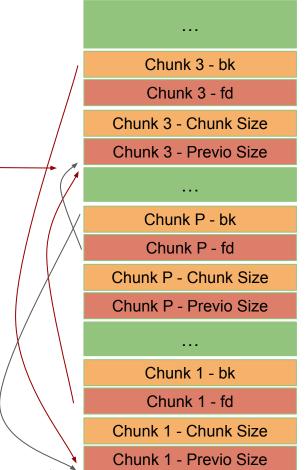




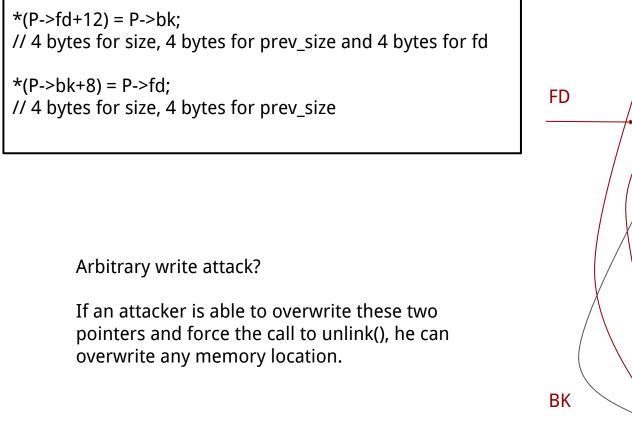


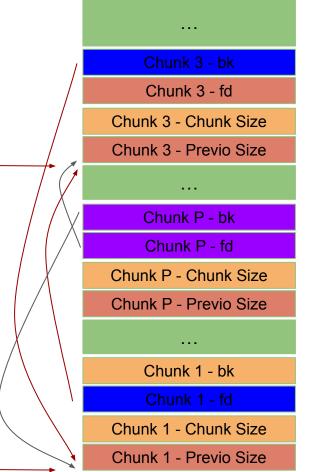






Unlink() from an Attacker's Point of View



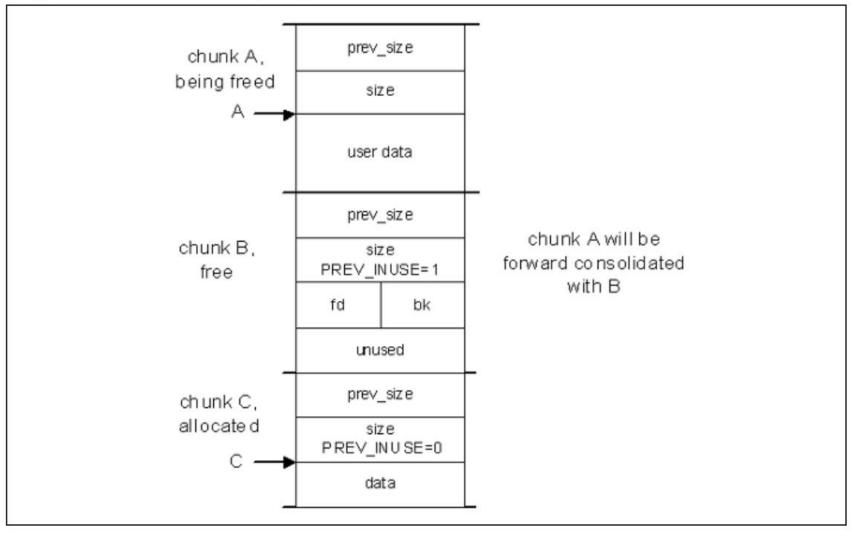


The free() Algorithm

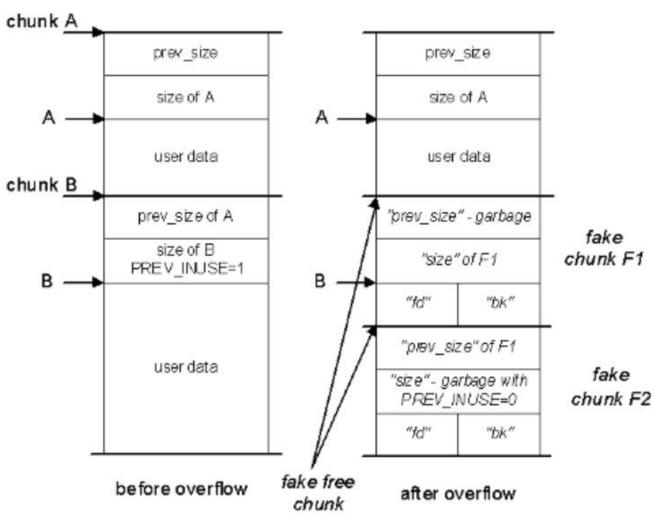
- free(0) has no effect.
- If the chunk was allocated via mmap, it is released via munmap(). Only large chunks are MMAP-ped, and we are not interested in thes.
- If a returned chunk borders the current high end of memory (wilderness chunk), it is consolidated into the wilderness chunk, and if the total unused topmost memory exceeds the trim threshold, malloc_trim() is called.
- Other chunks are consolidated as they arrive, and placed in corresponding bins.

The free() Algorithm - last case

- If no adjacent chunks are free, then the freed chunk is simply linked into corresponding with bin via frontlink().
- If the chunk next in memory to the freed one is free and if this next chunk borders on wilderness, then both are consolidated with the wilderness chunk.
- If not, and the previous or next chunk in memory is free and they are not part of a most recently split chunk (this splitting is part of malloc() behavior and is not significant to us here), they are taken off their bins via unlink(). Then they are merged (through forward or backward consolidation) with the chunk being freed and placed into a new bin according to the resulting size using frontlink(). If any of them are part of the most recently split chunk, they are merged with this chunk and kept out of bins. This last bit is used to make certain operations faster.



lower addresses



2. Create a fake chunk F1 and F2, so that when free(A), unlink(F1) is also called. 3. F1->FD has the address we want to overwrite and F1->BK has the data we want to overwrite

Overwrite A and B

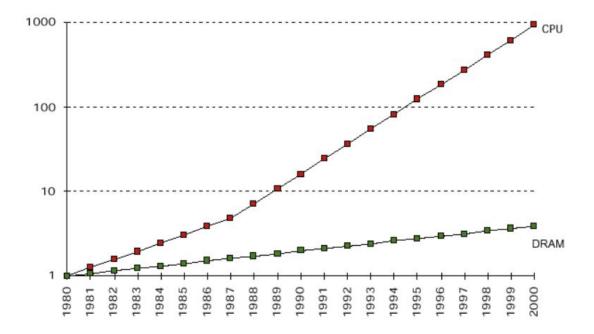
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Today's Agenda

- 1. Cache side channel attack
- 2. Meltdown
- 3. Spectre

Speed Gap Between CPU and DRAM



Memory Hierarchy

A tradeoff between Speed, Cost and Capacity

Ideally one would desire an *indefinitely large memory capacity such that any* particular ... word would be *immediately available.* ... We are ... forced to recognize the possibility of constructing a *hierarchy of memories, each* of which has greater capacity than the preceding but which is less quickly accessible.

A. W. Burks, H. H. Goldstine, and J. von Neumann

Preliminary Discussion of the Logical Design of an Electronic Computing Instrument, 1946

CPU Cache

A cache is a small amount of fast, expensive memory (SRAM). The cache goes between the CPU and the main memory (DRAM).

It keeps a copy of the most frequently used data from the main memory.

All levels of caches are integrated onto the processor chip.

Access Time

Access Time in 2012

Cache	<u>Static RAM</u>	<u>0.5 - 2.5 ns</u>
Memory	<u>Dynamic RAM</u>	<u>50- 70 ns</u>
Secondary	<u>Flash</u>	<u>5,000 - 50,000 ns</u>
	<u>Magnetic disks</u>	<u>5,000,000 - 20,000,000 ns</u>

Cache Hits and Misses

A cache hit occurs if the cache contains the data that we're looking for.

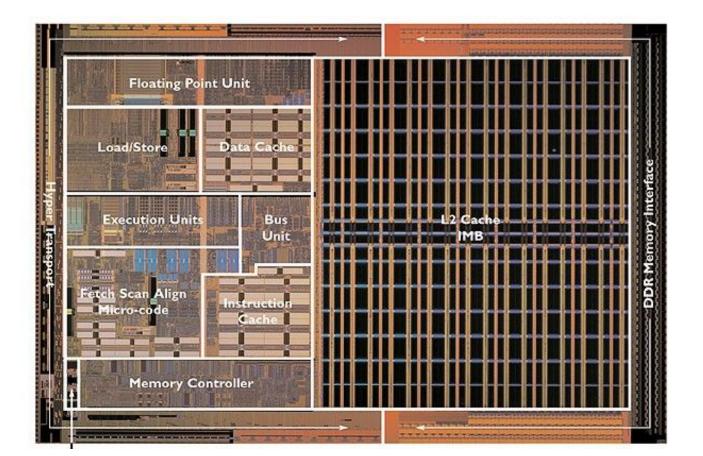
A cache miss occurs if the cache does not contain the requested data.

Cache Hierarchy

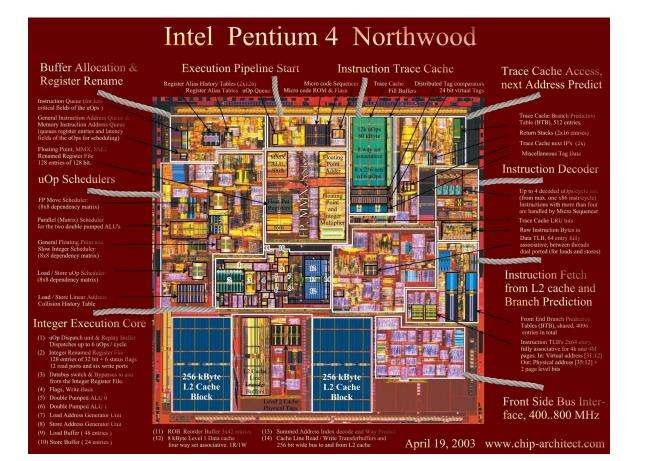
L1 Cache is closest to the CPU. Usually divided in Code and Data cache

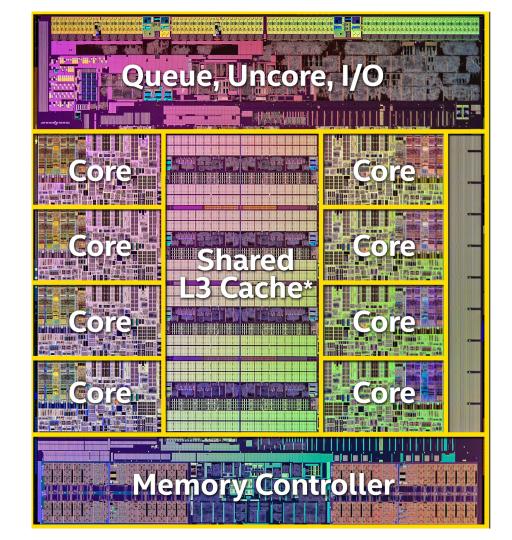
L2 and L3 cache are usually unified.

Cache Hierarchy



Cache Hierarchy



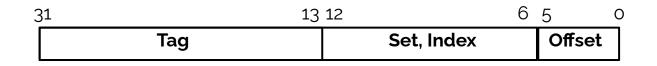


Cache Line/Block

The minimum unit of information that can be either present or not present in a cache.

64 bytes in modern Intel and ARM CPUs

Any given block/line in the main memory may be cached in any of the *n* cache lines in one **cache set**.



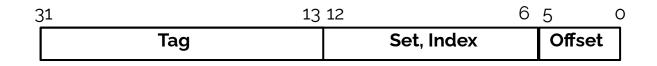
32KB 4-way set-associative data cache, 64 bytes per line

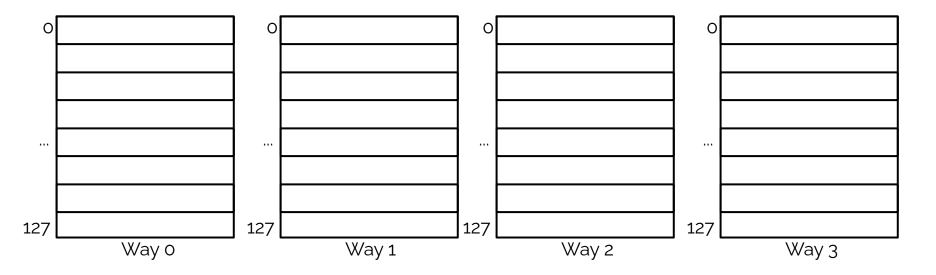
Number of sets

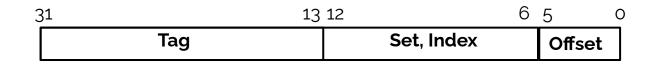
= Cache Size / (Number of ways * Line size)

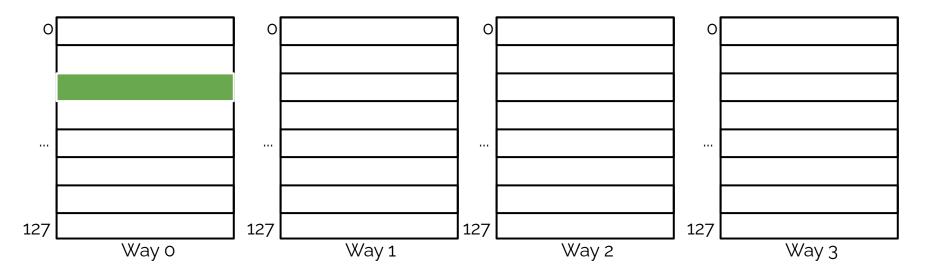
= 32 * 1024 / (4 * 64)

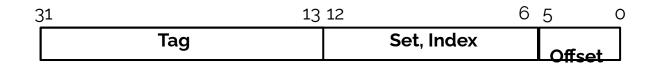
= 128

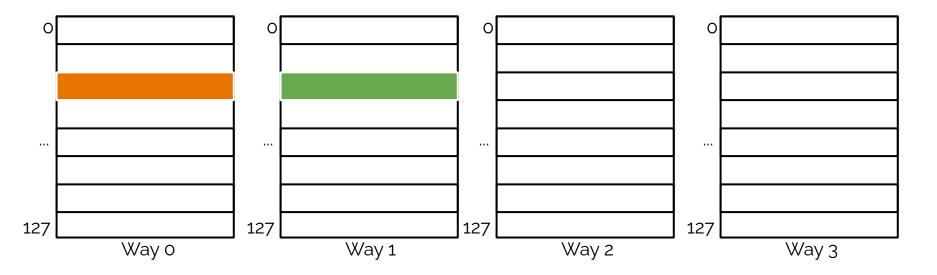


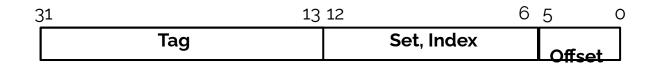


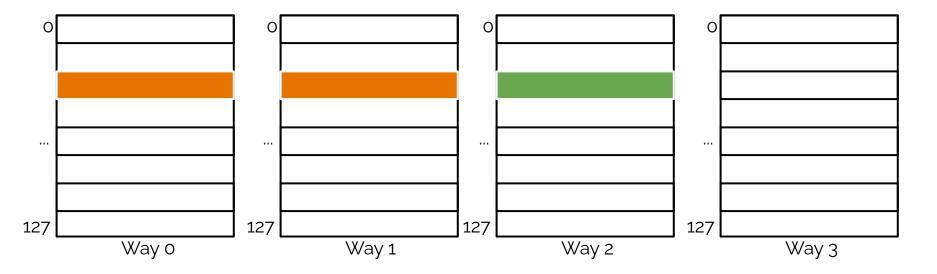


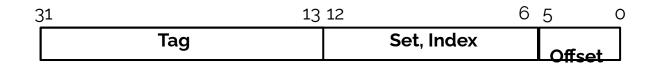


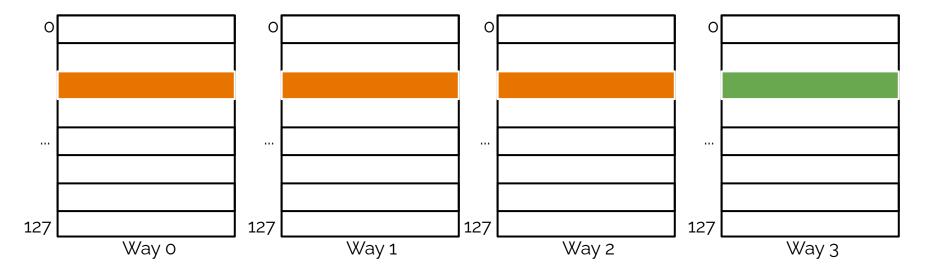


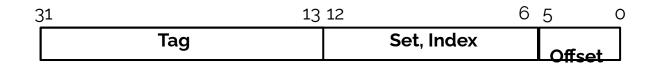


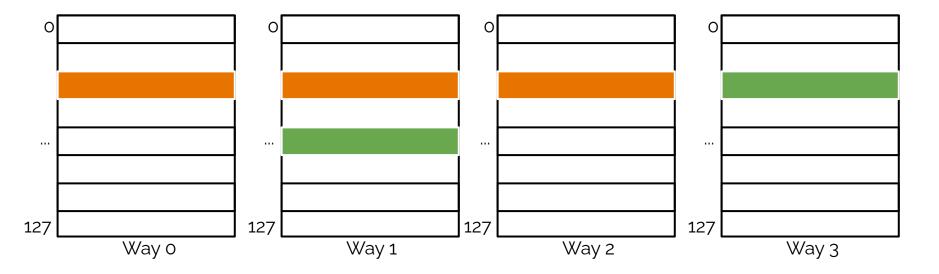




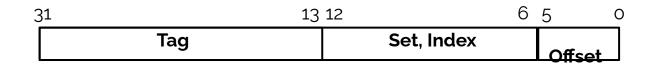


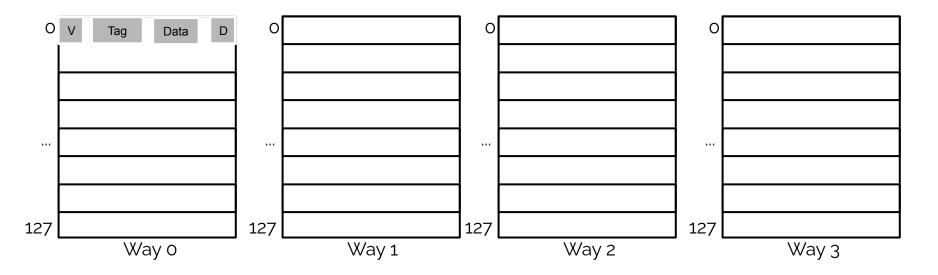






Cache Line/Block Content





Congruent Addresses

Each memory address maps to one of these cache sets.

Memory addresses that map to the same cache set are called **congruent**.

Congruent addresses compete for cache lines within the same set, where replacement policy needs to decide which line will be replaced.

Replacement Algorithm

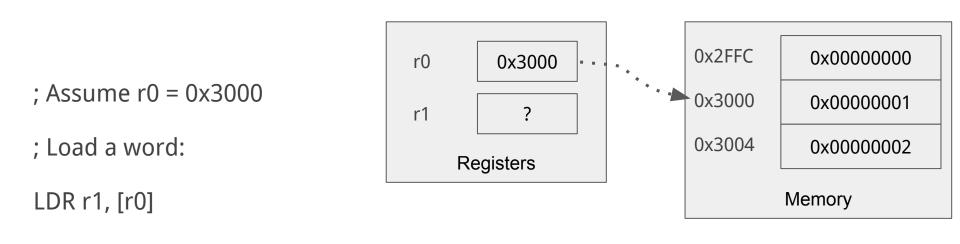
Least recently used (LRU)

First in first out (FIFO)

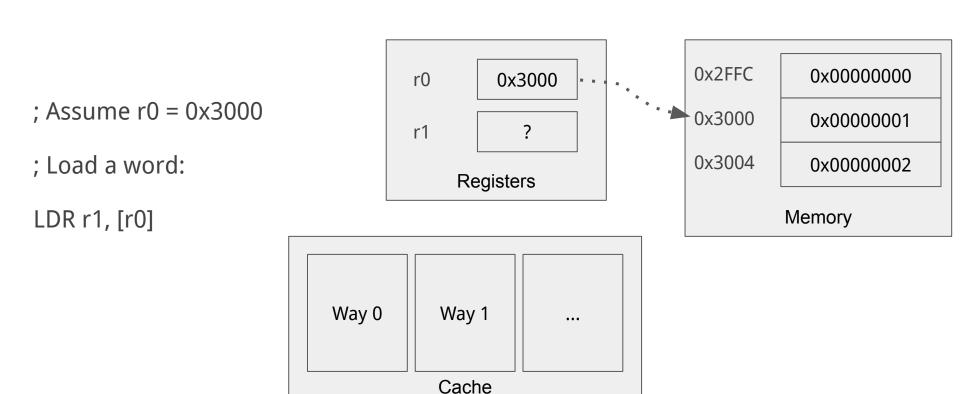
Least frequently used (LFU)

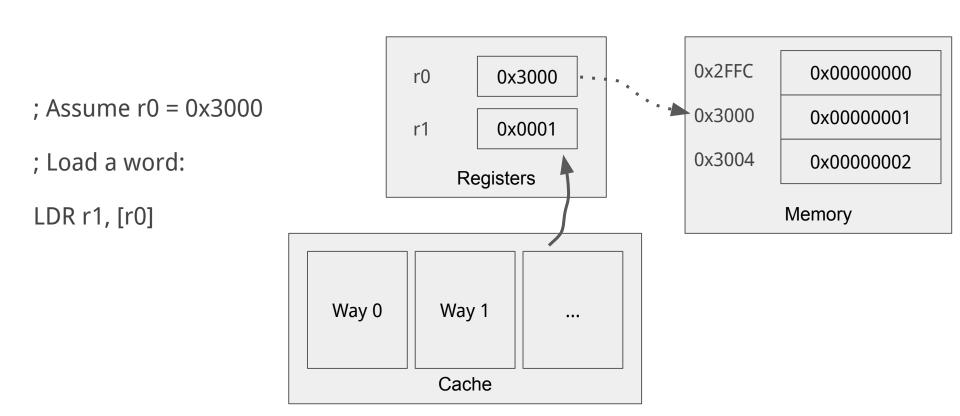
Random

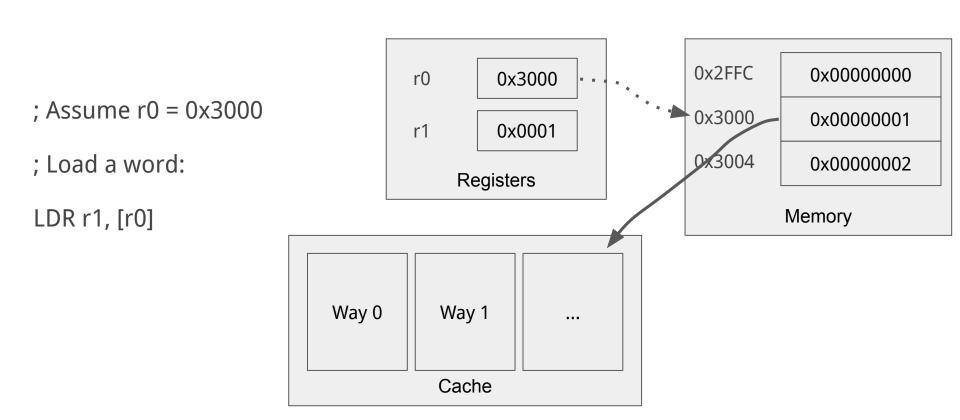
Cache side-channel attacks utilize time differences between a cache hit and a cache miss to infer whether specific code/data has been accessed.

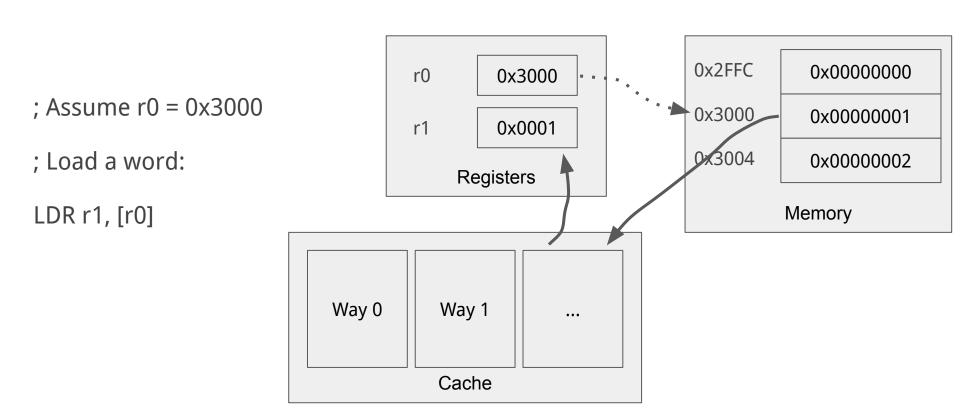


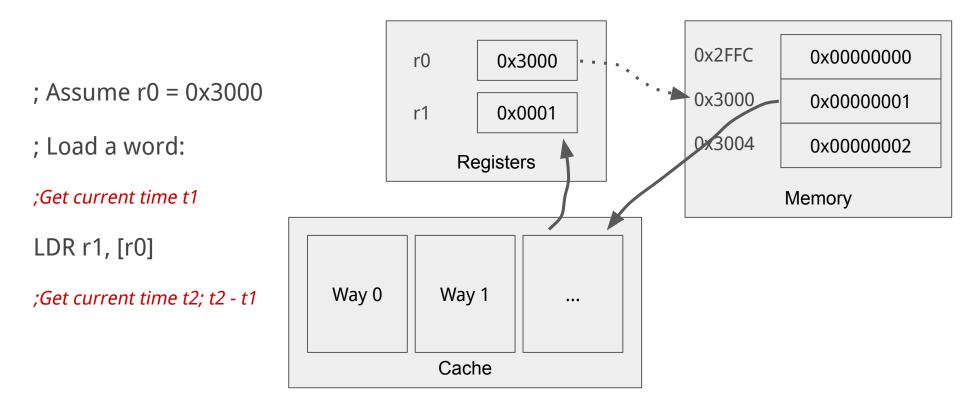












Attack Primitives

Evict+Time

Prime+Probe

Flush+Flush

Flush+Reload

Evict+Reload

2.4.1 Evict+Time

In 2005 Percival **[66]** and Osvik et al. **[63]** proposed more fine-grained exploitations of memory accesses to the CPU cache. In particular, Osvik et al. formalized two concepts, namely *Evict+Time* and *Prime+Probe* that we will discuss in this and the following section. The basic idea is to determine which specific cache sets have been accessed by a victim program.

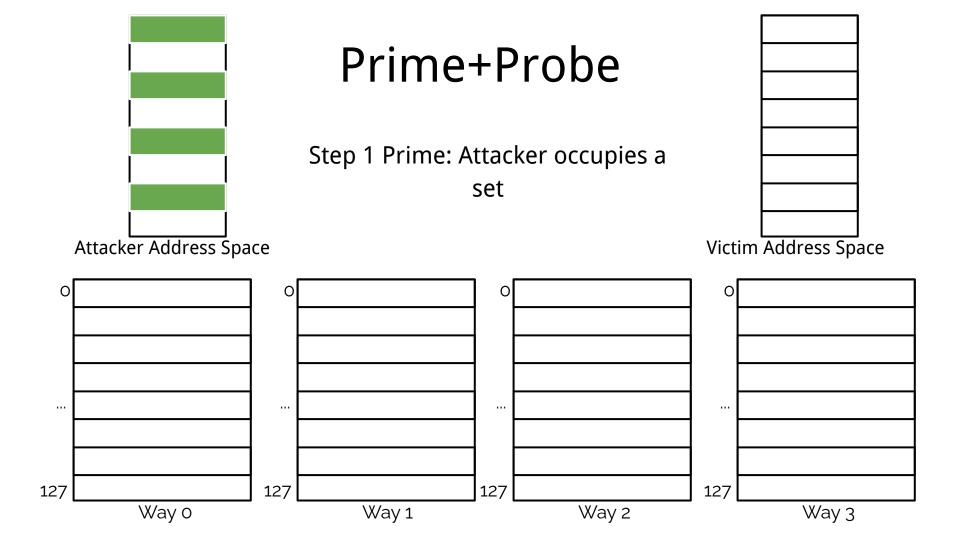
Algorithm 1 Evict+Time

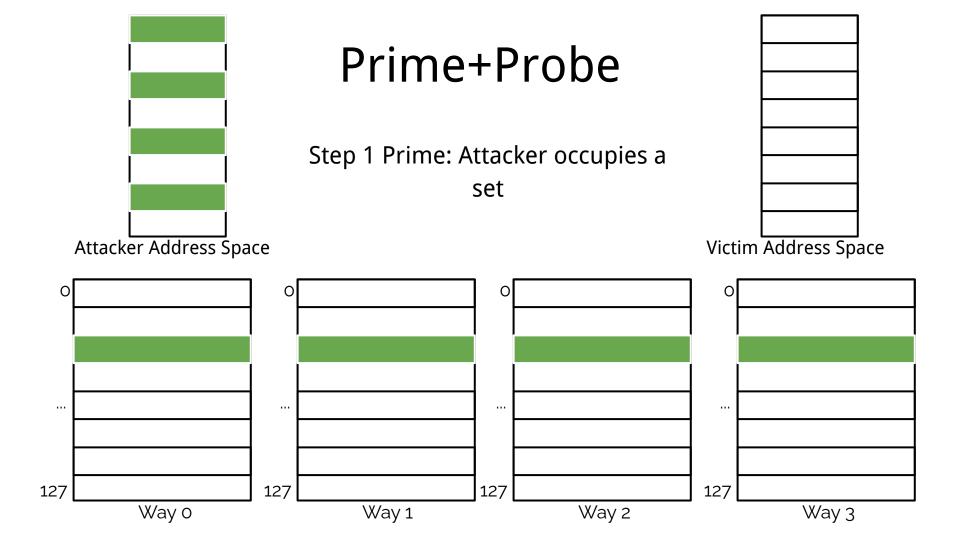
- 1: Measure execution time of victim program.
- 2: Evict a specific cache set.
- 3: Measure execution time of victim program again.

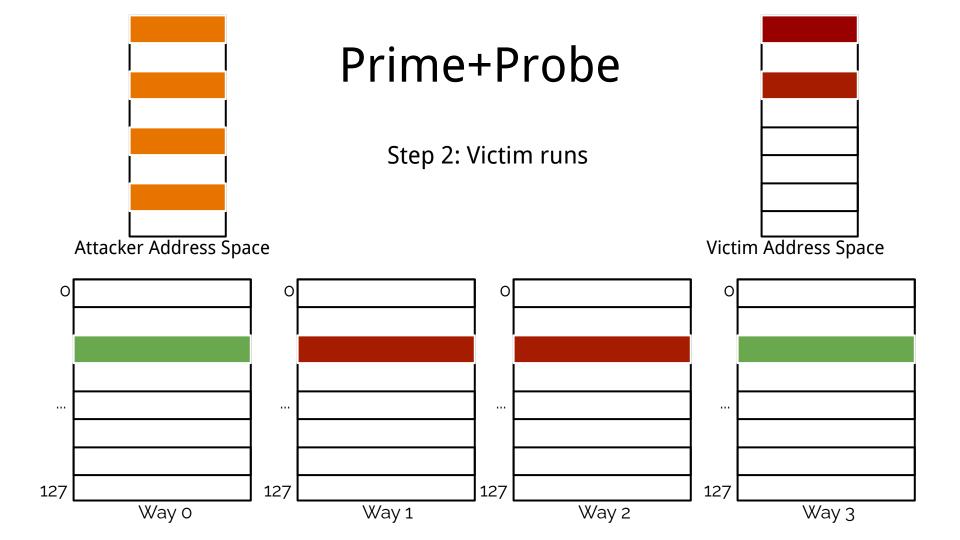
The basic approach, outlined in Algorithm 1, is to determine which cache set is used during the victim's computations. At first, the execution time of the victim program is measured. In the second step, a specific cache set is evicted before the program is measured a second time in the third step. By means of the timing difference between the two measurements, one can deduce how much the specific cache set is used while the victim's program is running.

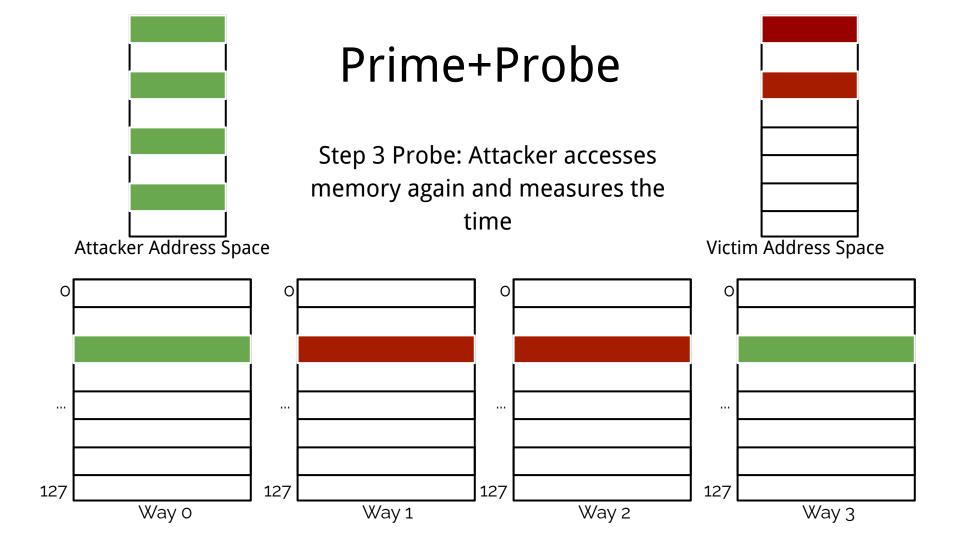
Osvik et al. **63** and Tromer et al. **81** demonstrated with *Evict+Time* a powerful type of attack against AES on OpenSSL implementations that requires neither knowledge of the plaintext nor the ciphertext.

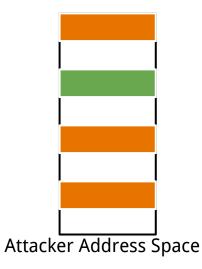
Moritz Lipp, Cache Attacks on ARM, Graz University Of Technology





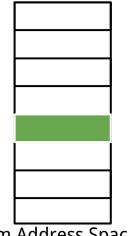




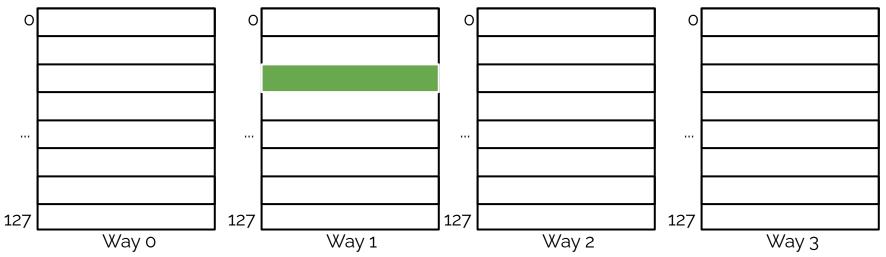


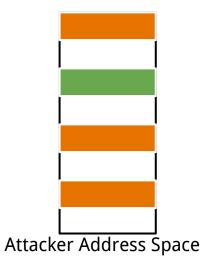
Flush+Reload

A memory block is cached



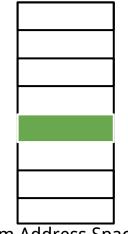
Victim Address Space



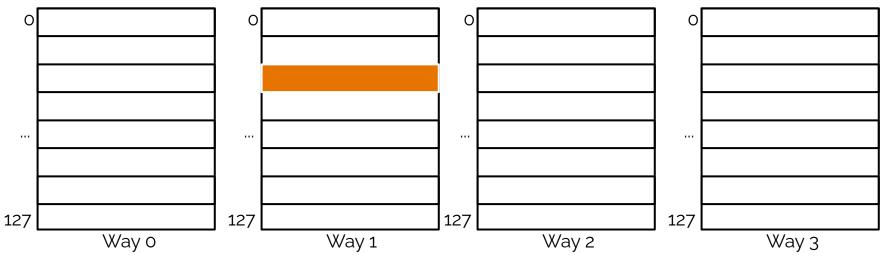


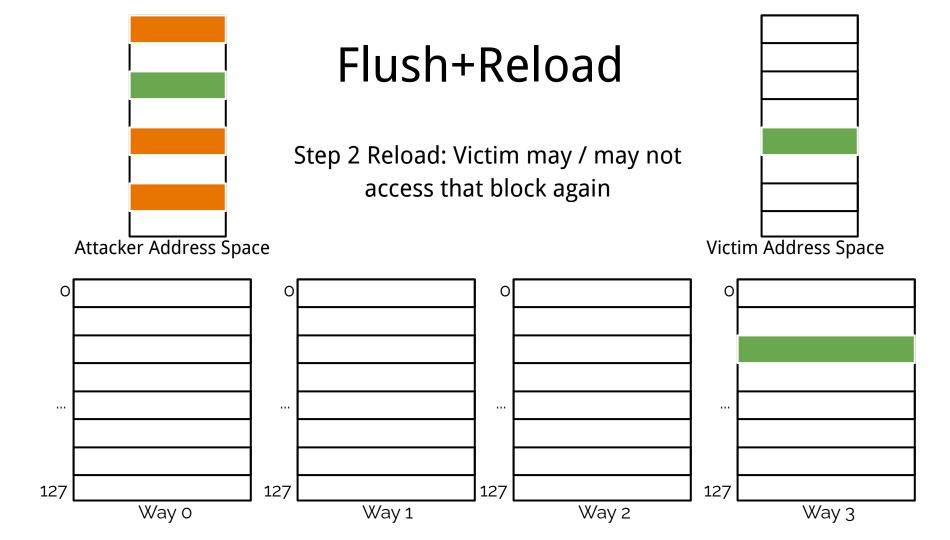
Flush+Reload

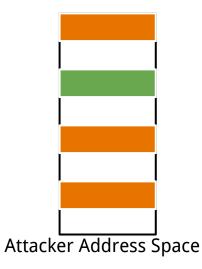
Step 1 Flush: Attacker flushes this memory block out of cache



Victim Address Space

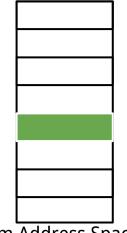






Flush+Reload

Step 3 Probe: Attacker accesses that block again and measure



Victim Address Space



Cachetime.c from SEED labs

uint8_t array[10*4096];

```
int main(int argc, const char **argv) {
    int junk=0;
    register uint64_t time1, time2;
    volatile uint8_t *addr;
    int i;
```

```
// Initialize the array
for(i=0; i<10; i++) array[i*4096]=1;</pre>
```

```
// FLUSH the array from the CPU cache
for(i=0; i<10; i++) _mm_clflush(&array[i*4096]);</pre>
```

```
// Access some of the array items
array[2*4096] = 200;
array[8*4096] = 200;
```

```
for(i=0; i<10; i++) {
    addr = &array[i*4096];
    time1 = __rdtscp(&junk);
    junk = *addr;
    time2 = __rdtscp(&junk) - time1;
    printf("Access time for array[%d*4096]: %d CPU cycles\n",i, (int)time2);
}
return 0;</pre>
```

Flush_reload.c from SEED labs

gcc -march=native CacheTime.c

😣 🖨 🗊 Terminal	
[11/23/20]seed@VM:~\$ l	scou
Architecture:	1686
CPU op-mode(s):	32-bit
Byte Order:	Little Endian
CPU(s):	2
On-line CPU(s) list:	0,1
Thread(s) per core:	1
Core(s) per socket:	2
Socket(s):	1
Vendor ID:	GenuineIntel
CPU family:	6
Model:	126
Model name:	Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1065G7 CPU @ 1.30GHz
Stepping:	5
CPU MHz:	1497.600
BogoMIPS:	2995.20
Hypervisor vendor:	KVM
Virtualization type:	full
Lld cache:	48K
Lli cache:	32K
L2 cache:	512K
L3 cache:	8192K
Flags:	fpu vme de pse tsc msr pae mce cx8 apic sep mtrr pge mca
cmov pat pse36 clflush	<pre>mmx fxsr sse sse2 ht nx rdtscp constant_tsc xtopology non</pre>

Meltdown and Spectre

https://meltdownattack.com/



https://cve.mitre.org/cgi-bin/cvename.cgi?name=CVE-2017-5754

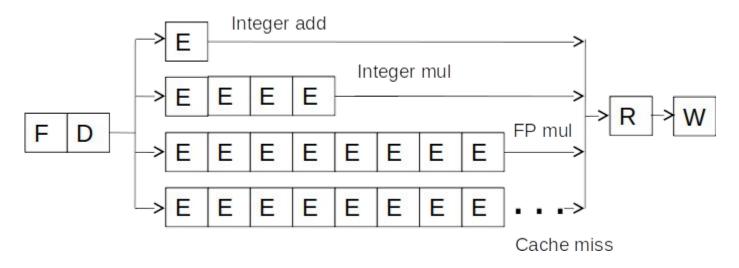
Meltdown Basics

Meltdown allows attackers to read arbitrary physical memory (including kernel memory) from an unprivileged user process

Meltdown uses *out of order instruction execution* to leak data via a processor covert channel (cache lines)

Meltdown was patched (in Linux) with KAISER/KPTI

An In-order Pipeline



Problem: A true data dependency stalls dispatch of younger instructions into functional (execution) units

Dispatch: Act of sending an instruction to a functional unit

Can We Do Better?

What do the following two pieces of code have in common (with respect to execution in the previous design)?

IMULR3 \leftarrow R1, R2ADDR3 \leftarrow R3, R1ADDR1 \leftarrow R6, R7IMULR5 \leftarrow R6, R8ADDR7 \leftarrow R3, R5

Answer: First ADD stalls the whole pipeline! ADD cannot dispatch because its source registers unavailable Later independent instructions cannot get executed

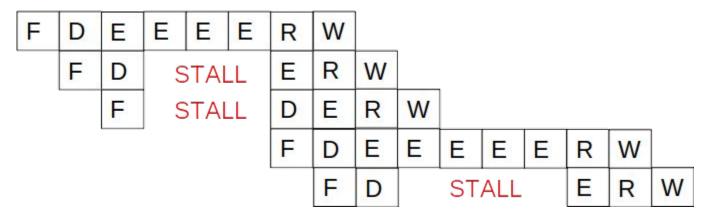
Out-of-Order Execution (Dynamic Instruction Scheduling)

Idea: Move the dependent instructions out of the way of independent ones; Rest areas for dependent instructions: Reservation stations

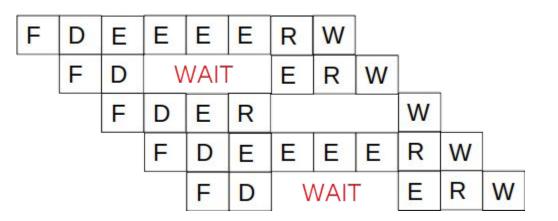
Monitor the source "values" of each instruction in the resting area. When all source "values" of an instruction are available, "fire" (i.e. dispatch) the instruction. Instructions dispatched in dataflow (not control-flow) order

Benefit: Latency tolerance: Allows independent instructions to execute and complete in the presence of a long latency operation

In-order vs. Out-of-order Dispatch



IMUL R3 \leftarrow R1, R2 ADD R3 \leftarrow R3, R1 ADD R1 \leftarrow R6, R7 IMUL R5 \leftarrow R6, R8 ADD R7 \leftarrow R3, R5



Né a clusie -	1 é noue (les mart) de
	linux/kernel.h>
	linux/init.h> linux/vmalloc.h>
	linux/vmatter.n>
	linux/proc fs.h>
	linux/seq file.h>
	linux/uaccess.h>
static cha	r secret[8] = {'S', 'E', 'E', 'D', 'L', 'a', 'b', 's'};
static str	uct proc_dir_entry *secret_entry;
static cha	r* secret buffer;
static int	<pre>test_proc_open(struct inode *inode, struct file *file)</pre>
1 #if I TNUY	VERSION CODE <= KERNEL VERSION(4,0,0)
	single open(file, NULL, PDE(inode)->data);
#else	single_open(rice, note, roc(inde), succes,
return	<pre>single open(file, NULL, PDE DATA(inode));</pre>
#endif	
}	
static ssi	<pre>ze_t read_proc(struct file *filp, char *buffer,</pre>
	<pre>size_t length, loff_t *offset)</pre>
{ memony(secret buffer, &secret, 8);
return	
}	
1	
static con	<pre>st struct file_operations test_proc_fops =</pre>
{	
	= THIS_MODULE,
	test_proc_open,
	read_proc, = seg lseek,
	e = single release,
};	e = single_release,
static i	nit int test proc init(void)
{ _	
	e message in kernel message buffer
printk("secret data address:%p\n", &secret);
corret	huffer = (chart)umalloc(8).
secret_	<pre>buffer = (char*)vmalloc(8);</pre>
// crea	te data entry in /proc
	entry = proc create data("secret data",
	0444, NULL, &test proc fops, NULL);
if (sec	ret_entry) return 0;
	and the second sec
return	- ENOMEM;
}	
static o	vit void test proc cleanup(void)
stattc e	<pre>xit void test_proc_cleanup(void)</pre>
·	
{ _	proc entry("secret data", NULL):
{ _	<pre>proc_entry("secret_data", NULL);</pre>

Speculative Execution

The processor can preserve its current register state, make a prediction as to the path that the program will follow, and speculatively execute instructions along the path.

If the prediction turns out to be correct, the results of the speculative execution are committed (i.e., saved), yielding a performance advantage over idling during the wait.

Otherwise, when the processor determines that it followed the wrong path, it abandons the work it performed speculatively by reverting its register state and resuming along the correct path.

Speculative Execution

Speculative execution on modern CPUs can run several hundred instructions ahead.

Speculative execution is an optimization technique where a computer system performs some task that may not be needed. Work is done before it is known whether it is actually needed, so as to prevent a delay that would have to be incurred by doing the work after it is known that it is needed.

Branch Prediction

During speculative execution, the processor makes guesses as to the likely outcome of branch instructions.

The branch predictors of modern Intel processors, e.g., Haswell Xeon processors, have multiple prediction mechanisms for direct and indirect branches.

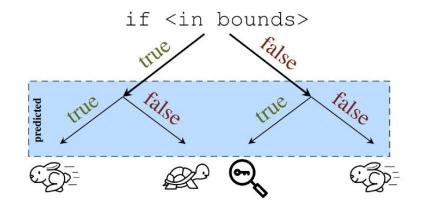
Spectre V1

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Conditional branch misprediction

11



Spectre V2

Indirect branches can be poisoned by an attacker and the resulting misprediction of indirect branches can be exploited to read arbitrary memory from another context.

Spectre vs. Meltdown

Meltdown does not use branch prediction. Instead, it relies on the observation that when an instruction causes a trap, following instructions are executed out-of-order before being terminated.

Second, Meltdown exploits a vulnerability specific to many Intel and some ARM processors which allows certain speculatively executed instructions to bypass memory protection.

Meltdown accesses kernel memory from user space. This access causes a trap, but before the trap is issued, the instructions that follow the access leak the contents of the accessed memory through a cache covert channel.