

## PLDI'06 Tutorial T1: Enforcing and Expressing Security with Programming Languages

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## Computer security

- Goal: prevent bad things from happening
  - Clients not paying for services
  - Critical service unavailable
  - Confidential information leaked
  - Important information damaged
  - System used to violate laws (e.g., copyright)
- Conventional security mechanisms aren't up to the challenge

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## Harder & more important

In the '70s, computing systems were isolated.

- software updates done infrequently by an experienced administrator.
- you trusted the (few) programs you ran.
- physical access was required.
- crashes and outages didn't cost billions.

The Internet has changed all of this.

- we depend upon the infrastructure for everyday services
- you have no idea what programs do.
- software is constantly updated – sometimes without your knowledge or consent.
- a hacker in the Philippines is as close as your neighbor.
- everything is executable (e.g., web pages, email).

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## Language-based security

- Conventional security: program is black box
  - Encryption
  - Firewalls
  - System calls/privileged mode
  - Process-level privilege and permissions-based access control
- Prevents addressing important security issues:
  - Downloaded and mobile code
  - Buffer overruns and other safety problems
  - Extensible systems
  - Application-level security policies
  - System-level security validation
- Languages and compilers to the rescue!

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## Outline

- The need for language-based security
- Security principles
- Security properties
- Memory and type safety
- Encapsulation and access control
- Certifying compilation and verification
- Security types and information flow
  
- Handouts: copy of slides
- Web site: updated slides, bibliography  
[www.cs.cornell.edu/andru/pldi06-tutorial](http://www.cs.cornell.edu/andru/pldi06-tutorial)

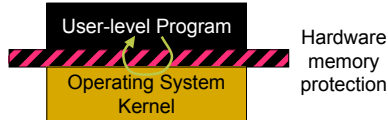
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## Security principles

## Conventional OS security

- Model: program is black box
- Program talks to OS via protected interface (system calls)
  - Multiplex hardware
  - Isolate processes from each other
  - Restrict access to persistent data (files)
- + Language-independent, simple, limited



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## Access control model

- The classic way to prevent “bad things” from happening
- Requests to access resources (objects) are made by principals
- Reference monitor (e.g., kernel) permits or denies request

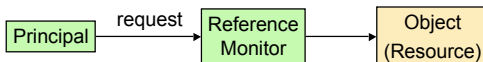


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## Authentication vs. Authorization

- Abstraction of a principal divides enforcement into two parts
  - Authentication: who is making the request
  - Authorization: is this principal allowed to make this request?



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## 1<sup>st</sup> guideline for security

*Principle of complete mediation:*

Every access to every object must be checked by the reference monitor

Problem: OS-level security does not support complete mediation

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## OS: Coarse-grained control

- Operating system enforces security at system call layer
  - Hard to control application when it is not making system calls
- Security enforcement decisions made with regard to large-granularity objects
  - Files, sockets, processes
- Coarse notion of principal:
  - If you run an untrusted program, should the authorizing principal be “you”?

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## Need: fine-grained control

- Modern programs make security decisions with respect to *application* abstractions
  - UI: access control at window level
  - mobile code: no network send after file read
  - E-commerce: no goods until payment
  - intellectual property rights management
- Need extensible, reusable mechanism for enforcing security policies
  - Language-based security can support an extensible protected interface, e.g., Java security

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## 2<sup>nd</sup> guideline for secure design

*Principle of Least Privilege: each principal is given the minimum access needed to accomplish its task.* [Saltzer & Schroeder '75]

### Examples:

- + Administrators don't run day-to-day tasks as root. So "rm -rf /" won't wipe the disk.
- fingerd runs as root so it can access different users' .plan files. But then it can also "rm -rf /".

## Least privilege problems

- OS privilege is coarse-grained: user/group
- Applications need finer granularity
  - Web applications: principals unrelated to OS principals
- Who is the "real" principal?
  - Trusted program? Full power of the user principal
  - Untrusted? Something less
  - Trusted program with untrusted extension: ?
  - Untrusted program accessing secure trusted subsystem: ?
- Requests may filter through a chain of programs or hosts
  - Loss of information is typical
  - E.g., client browser → web server → web app → database

## 3<sup>rd</sup> guideline: Small TCB

*Trusted Computing Base (TCB) : components whose failure compromises the security of a system*

- Example: TCB of operating system includes kernel, memory protection system, disk image
- Small/simple TCB:
  - ⇒ TCB correctness can be checked/tested/reasoned about more easily ⇒ more likely to work
- Large/complex TCB:
  - ⇒ TCB contains bugs enabling security violations
  - Problem: modern OS is huge, impossible to verify

## Small TCB and LBS

- Conventional wisdom (c. 1975):
  - "operating system is small and simple, compiler is large and complex"
  - OS is a small TCB, compiler a large one
- c. 2003:
  - OS (Win2k) = 50M lines code, compiler ~ 100K lines code
  - Hard to show OS implemented correctly
    - Many authors (untrustworthy: device drivers)
    - Implementation bugs often create security holes
  - Can now prove compilation, type checking correct
    - Easier than OS: smaller, functional, not concurrent

## The Gold Standard [Lampson]

- Authenticate
  - Every access/request associated with correct principal
- Authorize
  - Complete mediation of accesses
- Audit
  - Recorded authorization decisions enable after-the-fact enforcement, identification of problems
- Language-based techniques can help

## When to enforce security

Possible times to respond to security violations:

- Before execution:
  - analyze, reject, rewrite
- During execution:
  - monitor, log, halt, change
- After execution:
  - roll back, restore, audit, sue, call police



## Language-based techniques

A complementary tool in the arsenal: programs don't have to be black boxes! Options:

1. Analyze programs at compile time or load time to ensure that they are secure
2. Check analyses at load time to reduce TCB
3. Transform programs at compile/load/run time so that they can't violate security, or to log actions for auditing.

## Maturity of language tools

- How to build a sound, expressive type system that provably enforces run-time type safety  
⇒ **protected interfaces**
- Type systems that are expressive enough to encode multiple high-level languages  
⇒ **language independence**
- How to build fast garbage collectors  
⇒ **trustworthy pointers**
- On-the-fly code generation and optimization  
⇒ **high performance**

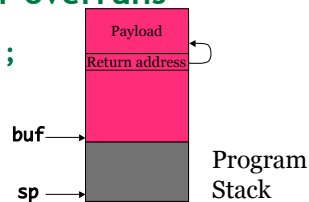
## Caveat: assumptions and abstraction

- Arguments for security always rest on assumptions:
  - "the attacker does not have physical access to the hardware"
  - "the code of the program cannot be modified during execution"
  - "No one is monitoring the EM output of the computer"
- Assumptions are vulnerabilities
  - Sometimes known, sometimes not
- Assumptions arise from *abstraction*
  - security analysis only tractable on a simplification (abstraction) of actual system
  - Abstraction hides details (assumption: unimportant)
- Caveat: language-based methods often abstract aspects of computer systems
  - Need other runtime, hardware enforcement mechanisms to ensure **language abstraction** isn't violated—a separation of concerns

## A sampler of attacks

## Attack: buffer overruns

```
char buf[100];  
...  
gets(buf);
```



- Attacker gives long input that overwrites function return address, local variables
- "Return" from function transfers control to payload code

## Execute-only bit?

- Stack smashing executes code on stack -- mark stack non-executable?
- Return-to-libc attack defeats this:

```
void system(char * arg) {  
    ...  
    r0 = arg;  
    execl(r0, ...); // "return" here with r0 set  
    ...  
}
```

- Not all dangerous code lives in the code segment...
- More attacks: pointer subterfuge (function- and data-pointer clobbering), heap smashing, overwriting security-critical variables...
- Moral: SEGVs can be turned into attacks

## Attack: format strings

```
fgets(sock, s, n);  
...  
fprintf(output, s);
```

- Attack: pass string `s` containing a `%n` qualifier (writes length of formatted input to arbitrary location)
- Use to overwrite return address to “return” to malicious payload code in `s`.

## Attack: SQL injection

- Web applications typically construct SQL database queries.
  - In PHP:  

```
$rows=mysql_query("UPDATE users SET pass='$pass'  
WHERE userid='$userid'");
```
  - Attacker uses `userid` of `' OR '1' = '1'`. Effect:  

```
UPDATE users SET pass=<pass> WHERE userid=' ' OR '1'='1'
```
- 69% of Internet security vulnerabilities are in web applications [Symantec]

## Using system subversion

- Assume attacker can run arbitrary code (possibly with dangerous privileges)
- Initial foothold on target system enables additional attacks (using other holes)
- Worms: programs that autonomously attack computers and inject their own code into the computer
- Distributed denial of service: many infected computers saturate target network

## 1988: Morris Worm

Penetrated an estimated 5 to 10 percent of the 6,000 machines on the internet.

Used a number of clever methods to gain access to a host.

- brute force password guessing
- bug in default sendmail configuration
- X windows vulnerabilities, rlogin, etc.
- buffer overrun in fingerd

Remarks:

- System diversity helped to limit the spread.
- “root kits” for cracking modern systems are easily available and largely use the same techniques.

## 1999: Love Bug & Melissa

Both email-based viruses that exploited:

- a common mail client (MS Outlook)
- trusting (i.e., uneducated) users
- VB scripting extensions within messages to:
  - lookup addresses in the contacts database
  - send a copy of the message to those contacts

Melissa: hit an estimated 1.2 million machines.

Love Bug: caused estimated \$10B in damage.

Remarks:

- no passwords or crypto involved

## Why did it succeed?

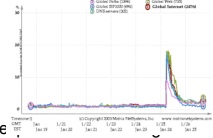
- Visual Basic scripts invoked transparently upon opening
- Run with full privileges of the user
- Kernel doesn't know about fine-grained application abstractions or related security issues: mail messages, contacts database, etc.
- Recipients trusted the sender – after all, they know them
- Interactions of a complex system were unanticipated

## A solution for Melissa?

- Turn off all executable content?
  - no problem when email was just text.
  - but executable content is genuinely useful.
  - ex: automated meeting planner agent, postscript, Mpeg4 codecs, client-side forms, etc.
  - US DoD tried to do this : revolt
- Fundamental tension:
  - modern software wants to be open and extensible.
  - *programmable* components are ultimately flexible.
    - Postscript, Emacs, Java[script], VB, Jini, ActiveX, plug-n-play...
  - security wants things to be closed: least privilege.
  - turning off extensibility is a denial-of-service attack.

## 2002: MS-SQL Slammer worm

- Jan. 25, 2002: SQL and MSDE servers on Internet turned into worm broadcasters
  - Buffer-overrun vulnerability
  - Spread to most vulnerable servers on the Internet in less than 10 min!
- Denial of Service attack
  - Affected databases unavailable
  - Full-bandwidth network load  $\Rightarrow$  wide
  - "Worst attack ever" – brought down many sites, not Internet
- Can't rely on patching!
  - Infected SQL servers at Microsoft itself
  - Owners of most MSDE systems didn't know they were running it...extensibility again



## Virus scanning?

- Scan for suspicious code
  - e.g., McAfee, Norton, etc.
  - based largely on a lexical signature.
  - the most effective commercial tool
  - but only works for things you've seen
    - Melissa spread in a matter of hours
  - virus kits make it easy to disguise a virus
    - "polymorphic" viruses
- Doesn't help with worms
  - Unless you can generate a filter automatically...

## Security Properties

## Security properties

Security = "bad things don't happen"

What kinds of properties  
should computing systems satisfy?

## Security policies

- Execution (trace) of a program is a sequence of states  $s_1s_2s_3\dots$  encountered during execution
  - Program has a set of possible executions T
- A generic formalization: **security policy** is a predicate P on sets of executions
  - Program satisfies policy if P(T)
- Examples:
  - P(T) if no null pointer is dereferenced in any trace in T
  - P(T) if every pair of traces in T with the same initial value for x have the same final value for y

## Safety properties

- “Nothing bad ever happens”
- A property is a policy that can be enforced using individual traces
  - $P(T) \Leftrightarrow \forall t \in T. P'(t)$  where  $P'$  is some predicate on traces
- **Safety property** can be enforced using only history of program
  - If  $P'(t)$  does not hold, then all extensions of  $t$  are also bad
  - Amenable to run-time enforcement: don't need to know future
- Examples:
  - access control (e.g. checking file permissions on file open)
  - memory safety (process does not read/write outside its own memory space)
  - type safety (data accessed in accordance with type)

## Liveness properties

- “Something good eventually happens”
  - If  $P'(t)$  does not hold, every finite sequence  $t$  can be extended to satisfy  $P'$
- Example: nontermination
  - “The email server will not stop running”
- Violated by denial of service attacks
- Can't enforce purely at run time
- Interesting properties often involve both safety and liveness
  - Every property is the intersection of a safety property and a liveness property [Alpern & Schneider]

## Memory safety and isolation

- **Process isolation**: running process cannot access memory that does not belong to it
  - Usually enforced by hardware TLB
    - TLB caches virtual→physical address mappings
    - Invalid virtual addresses (other processes) cause kernel trap
  - Cross-domain procedure calls/interprocess communication (RPC/IPC) expensive (*TLB misses*)
- **Memory safety**: running process does not attempt to dereference addresses that are not valid allocated pointers
  - No read from or write to dangling pointers
  - Not provided by C, C++ :
 

```
int *x = (int *)0x14953300;
*x = 0x0badfeed;
```

## Control-flow integrity

- Actual control flow must conform to a “legal execution”
- Code injection attacks violate CFI.
- Weak: control can only be transferred to legal program code points
  - Rules out classic buffer overrun attacks
  - Not provided by C:
 

```
int (*x)() = (int(*)()) 0xdeadbeef; (*x)();
```
- Stronger: control must agree with a DFA or CFG capturing all legal executions
- Can be enforced cheaply by dynamic binary rewriting as in DynamoRIO [Kiriansky et al., 2002]

## Type safety

- Values manipulated by program are used in accordance with their types
  - Stronger than memory safety!
- Can be enforced at run-time (Scheme), compile-time (ML), mix (Java)
- Abstract data types: data types that can only be accessed through a limited interface
  - can protect their internal storage (private data)
- Kernel = ADT with interface = system calls, abstraction barrier enforced at run time by hardware

## Access control

- Access control decision:
  - principal × request × object → boolean
- Access control matrix [Lampson]:
 

	objects		
principals	file1	file2	file3
user1	r	rw	rx
user2	r	r	
user3	rw	r	

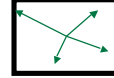
  - Columns of matrix: access control lists (ACLs)
  - Allowed requests (indicated by a yellow arrow pointing to the 'rx' cell)
- Correct enforcement is a safety property
  - Safety can be generalized to take into account denial of access, corrective action by reference monitor [Hamlen][Ligatti][Viswanathan]

## Information security

- Sometimes computer security is an aspect of physical security
  - Make sure attackers cannot take over electric power distribution grid, military command-and-control, etc.
  - Can use type safety, access control to enforce rules
- What we're trying to protect can also be the information on the computer:  
**information security**
  - Memory safety, type safety don't directly help

## Information security: confidentiality

- **Confidentiality**: valuable information should not be leaked by computation.

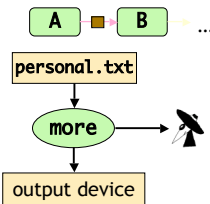


- Also known as **secrecy**, though sometimes a distinction is made:
  - Secrecy: information itself is not leaked
  - Confidentiality: nothing can be learned about information
- Simple (access control) version:
  - Only authorized processes can read from a file
  - But... when should a process be "authorized" ?

## Confidentiality: a Trojan horse

- Access control controls release of data but does not control propagation
- Security violation even with "safe" operations

```
% ls -l personal.txt
-rw----- personal.txt
% more personal.txt
...
```

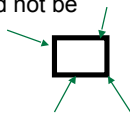


## End-to-end confidentiality

- Access control does not help after access control check is done
- End-to-end confidentiality: Information should not be improperly released by a computation no matter how it is used
- Enforcement requires tracking **information flow**
  - Encryption provides end-to-end secrecy—but prevents most computation

## Information security: integrity

- **Integrity**: valuable information should not be damaged by computation
- Simple (access control) version:
  - Only authorized processes can write to a file
  - But... when should a process be "authorized" ?
- End-to-end version:
  - Information should not be updated on the basis of less trustworthy information
  - Requires tracking information flow in system
- Information flow is not a property [McLean94]
  - No information flow from x to y:  
⇔  
P(T) if every pair of traces in T with the same initial value for x always have the same value for y



## Privacy and Anonymity

- **Anonymity**:
  - individuals (principals) and their actions cannot be linked by an observer
  - alt: identity of participating principals cannot be determined even if actions are known
- **Privacy**: encompasses aspects of confidentiality, secrecy, anonymity



## Availability

- System is responsive to requests
- DoS attacks: attempts to destroy availability (perhaps by cutting off network access)
- Fault tolerance: system can recover from *faults* (failures), remain available, reliable
- **Benign** faults: not directed by an adversary
  - Usual province of fault tolerance work
- **Malicious** or **Byzantine** faults: adversary can choose time and nature of fault
  - Byzantine faults are attempted security violations
  - usually limited by not knowing some secret keys

## Enforcing safety properties

## Reference Monitor

Observes the execution of a program and halts the program if it's going to violate the security policy.

Common Examples:

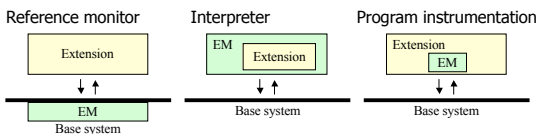
- memory protection
- access control checks
- routers
- firewalls

Most current enforcement mechanisms are reference monitors

## Requirements for a Monitor

- Must have (reliable) access to information about security-relevant actions of the program
  - e.g., what instruction is it about to execute?
- Must have the ability to “stop” the program
  - can't stop a program running on a different machine
  - ... or transition to a “good” state.
- Must protect the monitor's state and code from tampering.
  - key reason why a kernel's data structures and code aren't accessible by user code
- low overhead in practice

## Pervasive mediation



*OS Reference monitor:* won't capture all events

*Wrapper/interpreter:* performance overhead

*Instrumentation:* merge monitor into program

- different security policies  $\Rightarrow$  different merged-in code
- simulation does not affect program
- pay only for what you use

## What policies?

- Reference monitors can only see the past
  - They can enforce safety properties but not liveness properties

Assumptions:

- monitor can have access to entire state of computation.
- monitor can have arbitrarily large state
- safety properties enforced are modulo computational power of monitor
- But: monitor can't guess the future – the predicate it uses to determine whether to halt a program must be computable.

## Software Fault Isolation (SFI)

- Wahbe et al. (SOSP'93)
- Goal is process isolation: keep software components in same hardware-based address space, provide
  - Idea: application can use untrusted code without memory protection overhead
- Software-based reference monitor isolates components into *logical address spaces*.
  - conceptually: check each read, write, & jump to make sure it's within the component's logical address space.
  - hope: communication as cheap as procedure call.
  - worry: overheads of checking will swamp the benefits of communication.
- Only provides memory isolation, doesn't deal with other security properties: confidentiality, availability,...

## One way to SFI: Interpreter

```
void interp(int pc, reg[], mem[], code[], memsz, codesz) {
    while (true) {
        if (pc >= codesz) exit(1);
        int inst = code[pc], rd = RD(inst), rs1 =
        RS1(inst),
            rs2 = RS2(inst), immed = IMMED(inst);
        switch (opcode(inst)) {
            case ADD: reg[rd] = reg[rs1] + reg[rs2]; break;
            case LD:  int addr = reg[rs1] + immed;
                    if (addr >= memsz) exit(1);
                    reg[rd] = mem[addr];
                    break;
            case JMP: pc = reg[rd]; continue;
            ...
        }
        pc++;
    }
}
```

```
0: add r1,r2,r3
1: ld r4,r3(12)
2: jmp r4
```

## Interpreter pros and cons

### Pros:

- easy to implement (small TCB.)
- works with binaries (high-level language-independent.)
- easy to enforce other aspects of OS policy

### Cons:

- terrible execution overhead (25x? 70x?)

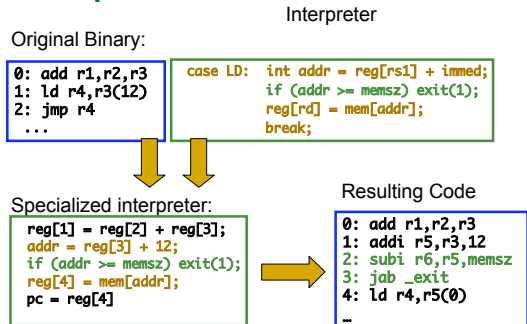
It's a start.

## Partial Evaluation (PE)

A technique for speeding up interpreters.

- we know what the code is.
  - specialize the interpreter to the code.
    - unroll the main interpreter loop – one copy for each instruction
    - specialize the switch to the instruction: pick out that case
    - compile the resulting code
- Can do at run time with dynamic binary rewriting (e.g., DynamoRIO)
  - Keep code cache of specialized code
  - Reduce load time, code footprint

## Example PE



## Sandboxing

- SFI code rewriting is "sandboxing"
- Requires code and data for a security domain are in one contiguous segment
  - upper bits are all the same and form a *segment id*.
  - separate code space to ensure code is not modified.
- Inserts code to ensure load and stores are in the logical address space
  - force the upper bits in the address to be the segment id
  - no branch penalty – just mask the address
  - re-allocate registers and adjust PC-relative offsets in code.
  - simple analysis used to eliminate some masks

## Jumps

- Inserts code to ensure jump is to a valid target
  - must be in the code segment for the domain
  - must be the beginning of the translation of a source instruction (tricky for variable-length instructions)
- PC-relative jumps are easy:
  - just adjust to the new instruction's offset.
- Computed jumps are not:
  - must ensure code doesn't jump *into* or *around* a check or else that it's *safe* for code to do the jump.

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## More SFI Details

### Protection vs. Sandboxing:

- Protection is fail-stop:
  - stronger security guarantees (e.g., reads)
  - required 5 dedicated registers, 4 instruction sequence
  - 20% overhead on 1993 RISC machines
- Sandboxing covers only stores
  - requires only 2 registers, 2 instruction sequence
  - 5% overhead

### Remote (cross-domain) Procedure Call:

- 10x cost of a procedure call
- 10x faster than a really good OS RPC

Seqoia DB benchmarks: 2-7% overhead for SFI compared to 18-40% overhead for OS.

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## Limitations of SFI

- Only enforces process isolation
- Variable-length instructions are tricky
  - But provably correct SFI is possible for x86 [McCamant & Morrisett]
- Sometimes want to enforce more complex rules on untrusted code
  - Example: downloaded applet can either read local files or send to network, but not both
- Can we do more by code rewriting?

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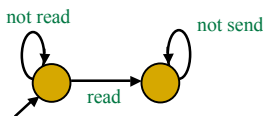
## Inlined reference monitors (IRMs)

- SASI [Schneider & Erlingsson 1999], Naccio [Evans & Twyman 1999]
- SFI inlines a **particular** safety policy into untrusted code
- Idea: embed an **arbitrary** safety policy into untrusted code at load time
  - Policy may be application-specific, even user-specific
  - Low execution overhead

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## Security automata



- Every safety property enforceable by security automaton [Schneider '98]
- System execution produces sequence of events ...
  - ... automaton reads and accepts/rejects sequence
- Need *pervasive mediation* to allow policies independent of code being checked

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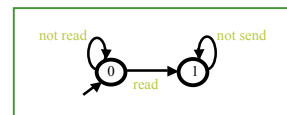
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## Example: JVM code in SASI

(Also implemented for x86 machine code)

```
 ldc 1 // new automaton state on stack
 putstatic SASI/stateClass/state // cause automaton state change
 invokevirtual java/io/FileInputStream/readOI // read integer from file

 getstatic SASI/stateClass/state // automaton state onto stack
 ifeq SUCCEEDED // if stacktop=0 goto succeed
 invokestatic SASI/stateClass/FAILOV // else security violation
 SUCCEEDED:
  invokevirtual java/net/SocketOutputStream/write(I)V // send message
 ...
```



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## PSLang: specifying policies

- State diagrams (SASI) are inconvenient -- how to specify a reference monitor?
- Policy Specification Language (PSLang)
  - same expressive power, more convenient
  - event-driven programming model maps program actions (events) to automaton state updates
  - specification expressible in terms of application abstractions
- Has been used to specify, enforce Java stack inspection security model (!) with good performance
- But..hard to apply complex policies to low-level code

```
STATE { boolean did_read = false; }
EVENT methodCall FileInputStream.read { did_read = true; }
EVENT methodCall Network.send CONDITION did_read { FAIL; }
```

## Type Safety and Security

## Type-safe languages

Software-engineering benefits of type safety:

- memory safety
- no buffer overruns (array subscript  $a[i]$  only defined when  $i$  is in range for the array  $a$ .)
- no worries about self-modifying code, wild jumps, etc.
- Type safety can be used to construct a protected interface (e.g., system call interface) that applies access rules to requests

## Java

- Java is a type-safe language in which type safety is security-critical
- **Memory safety**: programs cannot fabricate pointers to memory
- **Type safety**: must use objects at correct types
- **Encapsulation**: private fields, methods of objects cannot be accessed from outside
- Bytecode verifier ensures compiled bytecode is type-safe

## Java: objects as capabilities

- Single Java VM may contain processes with different levels of privilege (e.g. different applets)
- Some objects are *capabilities* to perform security-relevant operations:

```
FileReader f = new
FileReader("/etc/passwd");
// now use "f" to read password file
// ...but don't lose track of it!
```

## Problems with capabilities

- Original 1.0 security model: use type safety, encapsulation to prevent untrusted applets from accessing capabilities in same VM
- Problem: tricky to prevent capabilities from leaking (downcasts, reflection, ...)
  - One approach: confined types [Vitek&Bokowski]
- Difficult to revoke capabilities esp. in distributed environment

## Java Stack Inspection

- Added to Java to deal with capability model shortcomings
- Dynamic authorization mechanism
  - close (in spirit) to Unix effective UID
  - attenuation and amplification of privilege
- Richer notion of context
  - operation can be good in one context and bad in another
  - E.g: local file access
    - may want to block applets from doing this
    - but what about accessing a font to display something?

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## Security operations

- Each method has an associated *protection domain*
  - e.g., applet or local
- `doPrivileged(P){S}`:
  - fails if method's domain does not have priv. P.
  - switches from the caller's domain to the method's while executing statement S (think `setuid`).
- `checkPermission(P)` walks up stack S doing:

```
for (f := pop(S); !empty(S) ; f := pop(S)) {
  if domain(f) does not have priv. P then error;
  if f is a doPrivileged frame then break;
}
```
- Very operational description! But ensures integrity of control flow leading to a security-critical operation

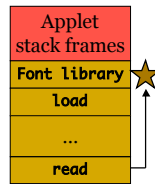
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## Example

```
★ Font Library:
...
doPrivileged(ReadFiles) {
  load("Courier");
}
...
```

```
FileIO:
...
checkPermission(ReadFiles);
read();
...
```



Requires:

- Privilege enabled by some caller (applet can't do this!)
- All code between enabling and operation is trustworthy

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## Some pros and cons?

- Pros:
  - rich, dynamic notion of context that tracks some of the *history* of the computation.
  - *this* could stop Melissa, Love Bug, etc.
  - low overhead, no real state needed.
- Cons:
  - implementation-driven (walking up stacks)
    - Could be checked statically [Wallach]
  - policy is smeared over program
  - possible to code around the limited history
    - e.g., by having applets return objects that are invoked after the applet's frames are popped.
  - danger of over/under amplification

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## Require type safety?

- Write all security-critical programs in type-safe high-level language? (e.g., Java)
- Problem 1: legacy code written in C, C++
  - Solution: type-safe, backwards compatible C
- Problem 2: sometimes need control over memory management
  - Solution: type-safe memory management
- Can we have compatibility, type safety *and* low-level control? Can get 2 out of 3:
  - CCured [Necula et al. 2002]
    - Emphasis on compatibility, memory safety
  - Cyclone [Jim et al. 2002]
    - Emphasis on low-level control, type safety

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## Cyclone

- A type-safe dialect of C
- Goals:
  - Memory and type safety (*fail-stop* behavior)
  - (relatively) painless porting from C
  - writing new code pleasant
  - Low-level control: data representations, memory management, ability to interface to the outside world, performance, etc.
- Has been used to implement low-level, code safely, e.g. device drivers

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## Hello World

```
#include "stdio.h"
```

```
int main(int argc, char **argv) {  
    if (argc < 1) {  
        fprintf(stderr, "usage: %s <name>\n", argv[0]);  
        exit(-1);  
    }  
    printf("Hello, %s\n", *(++argv));  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
% a.out 'World!'  
Hello World!
```

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## The trouble with pointers

```
■ Pointer arithmetic:      ■ The stack:  
int *f(int *a) {           int x;  
    return a + 10;        scanf("%d", &x);  
}
```

```
■ Null pointers:  
int *f(int *a) {  
    return a[4];  
}
```

```
■ Arrays:  
struct foo {  
    int g[10];  
}  
int *f(struct foo *x)  
{ return &x->g[5]; }
```

- All possibly legitimate uses of C pointers
  - How can compiler check them (and modularly)?
- ⇒ Needs more information

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## Pointers

- Three kinds: fat, thin-null, thin-not-null  
You pay for what you get...

```
char ? : arbitrary pointer arithmetic, might be null,  
        3 words of storage, bounds checked  
char * : no real arithmetic, might be null,  
        1 word of storage  
char @ : same as above, but never null
```

```
char *{42} : same, but points to (at least) 42 chars  
char * == char *{1}  
char @{n+m} ≤ char @{n} ≤ char *{n} ≤ char ?
```

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## Compatibility

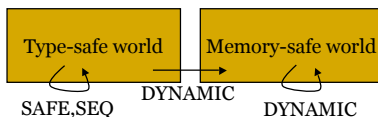
- Porting most C code is fairly straightforward:
  - mostly, convert **t\*** to **t?** where necessary
  - use advanced type features (polymorphism, tagged unions, existential types) to replace unsafe casts with type-safe operations
  - put in initializers (only top-level, interprocedural)
  - put in fallthru's (very rare)

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## CCured [Necula, 2002]

- Different pointer classes
  - DYNAMIC : no info, slow, all accesses checked
  - SAFE: a memory- and type-safe pointer (or null)
  - SEQ: pointer to an array of data (like Cyclone fat)



- Nonmodular but fast C→CCured converter using BANE constraint solving framework (worst case: DYNAMIC)
- 10-50% Performance penalty
- More safe C impls: [Jones&Kelly], [Ruwase&Lam]

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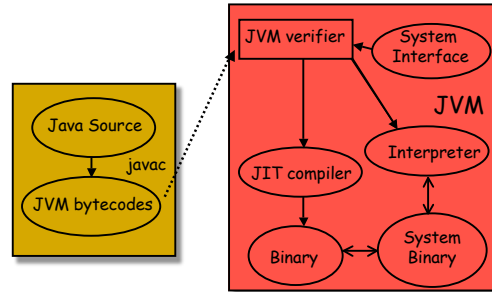
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## Certifying compilation

## Code certification mechanisms

- Problem: can you trust the code you run?
- Code signing using digital signatures
  - Too many signers
  - If you can't trust Microsoft,...
- Idea: self-certifying code
  - Code consumer can check the code itself to ensure it's safe
  - Code includes annotations to make this feasible
  - Checking annotations easier than producing them
- *Certifying compiler* generates self-certifying code
  - Java/JVM: first real demonstration of idea

## Type-Based Protection (JVM)



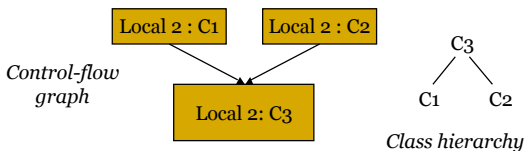
## Bytecode verification

- Java compiler is a *certifying compiler* that compiles to Java Virtual Machine code
  - Generates enough type information in target code to check that code is type-safe
  - Same thing could be done with other source languages
  - Microsoft CLR is similar
- Verifier first checks structure (syntax) of bytecode
- Branches checked to ensure they address valid target instructions (*control safety*)
- Methods (functions) and class fields are annotated with complete type signatures (argument and result types)
- Method calls are explicit in JVM -- can look up signatures directly

## Type-checking JVM

- Calls can be type-checked once actual argument types are known
- Java Virtual Machine stores data in locals (used for variables) and stack locations (used for arguments, temporaries)
  - Types of both can change at every program point, not included in bytecode format
- Verification uses dataflow analysis to determine types of every local/stack locn at every program point
- Use argument types and method result types to get analysis started

## Completing analysis

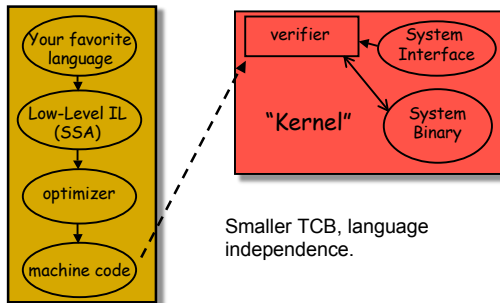


- Merge type information on different paths by finding least common ancestor (C3)
- If no least common ancestor mark type as unusable (local 2: ?)
- Report success if all method calls, bytecode operations type-check, otherwise reject program

## Compiling to the JVM

- The JVM type-system isn't all that different from Java's → compiling other languages to JVM doesn't work that well.
  - e.g., no tail-calls in the JVM so Scheme and ML are hosed... (MS fixed this in CLR)
  - no parametric polymorphism, no F-bounded subtyping, limited modules, etc.
- Operations of the JVM are relatively high-level, CISC-like.
  - method call/return are primitives
  - Little control over indirection
  - interpreter or JIT is necessary

## Ideally:



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## Typed Assembly Language

[Morrisett, 1998]

Two goals:

- Get rid of the need for a trusted interpreter or JIT compiler
  - type-check the actual code that will run.
  - try not to interfere with traditional optimizations.
- Provide generic *type constructors* for encoding many high-level language type systems.
  - reasonable target for compiling many languages
  - a more "RISC" philosophy at the type-level
  - better understanding of inter-language relationships.

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## TAL contributions

Theory:

- simple MIPS-like assembly language
- compiler from ML-like language to TAL
- soundness and preservation theorems

Practice:

- most of IA32 (32-bit Intel x86)
- more type constructors (array, +, μ, modules)
- prototype Scheme, Safe-C compilers

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## TAL (simplified)

Registers:  $r \in \{r1, r2, r3, \dots\}$

Labels:  $L \in Identifier$

Integer:  $n \in [-2^{k-1}, 2^{k-1}]$

Blocks:  $B ::= \mathbf{jmp} \ v \ | \ \iota \ ; \ B$

Instrs:  $\iota ::= aop \ r_d, r_s, v \ | \ bop \ r, v \ | \ \mathbf{mov} \ r, v$

Operands:  $v ::= r \ | \ n \ | \ L$

Arithmetic Ops:  $aop ::= \mathbf{add} \ | \ \mathbf{sub} \ | \ \mathbf{mul} \ | \ \dots$

Branch Ops:  $bop ::= \mathbf{beq} \ | \ \mathbf{bne} \ | \ \mathbf{bgt} \ | \ \mathbf{bge} \ | \ \dots$

...

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## Simple program

```
; fact(n,a) = if (n <= 0) then a else fact(n-1,a*n)
; r1 holds n, r2 holds a, r31 holds return address
; which expects the result in r1
```

```
fact:   sub r3,r1,1 ; r3 := n-1
        ble r3,L2   ; if n < 1 goto L2
        mul r2,r2,r1 ; a := a*n
        mov r1,r3   ; n := n-1
        jmp fact    ; goto fact
L2:    mov r1,r2     ; result := a
        jmp r31     ; jump to return address
```

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## Basic type structure

$type ::= int \ | \ \Gamma$

where  $\Gamma = \{r_1:t_1, r_2:t_2, r_3:t_3, \dots\}$

A value with type  $\{r_1:t_1, r_2:t_2, r_3:t_3, \dots\}$  is a code label, which when you jump to it, expects you to at least have values of the appropriate types in the corresponding registers.

You can think of a label as a function that takes a record of arguments

- the function never returns – it always jumps off
- we assume record subtyping – we can pass a label more arguments than it needs

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## Simple program with types

```
fact: {r1:int, r2:int, r31:{r1:int}}
; r1 = n, r2 = accum, r31 = return address
sub r3, r1, 1 ; {r1:int, r2:int, r31:{r1:int}, r3:int}
ble r3, L2
mul r2, r2, r1
mov r1, r3
jmp fact
L2: {r2:int, r31:{r1:int}}
mov r1, r2
jmp r31
```

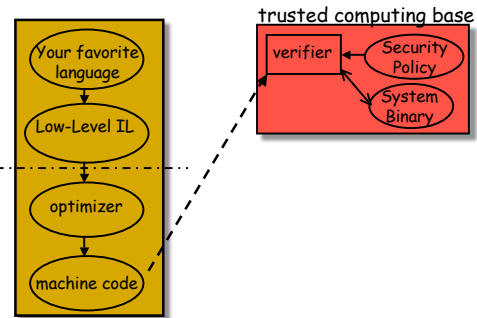
## Badly typed program

```
fact: {r1:int, r31:{r1:int}}
; r1 = n, r2 = accum, r31 = return address
sub r3, r1, 1 ; {r1:int, r31:{r1:int}, r3:int}
bge r1, L2
mul r2, r2, r1 ; ERROR! r2 doesn't
have a type
mov r1, r3
jmp L1
L2: {r2:int, r31:{r1:int}}
mov r1, r2
jmp r1 ; ERROR! r1 isn't a valid label
```

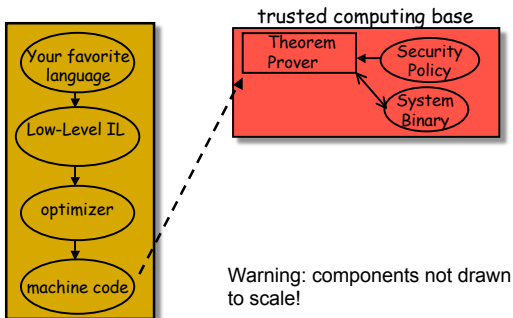
## TAL vs JVM, CLR

- The principles behind TAL and the JVM (or Microsoft's CLR) aren't too different: compiler generates enough type annotations to check target code
- TAL concentrates on orthogonal, expressive typing components (more general target lang)
- JVM (and CLR) focus on OO-based languages with predefined implementation strategies.

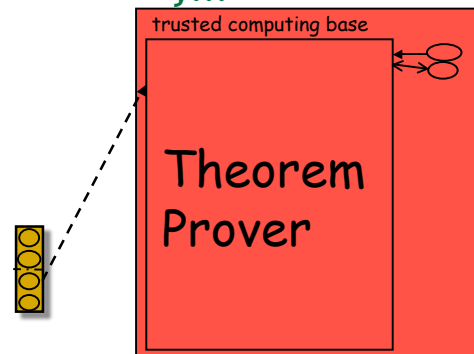
## Ideally:



## Idea #1: Theorem Prover!

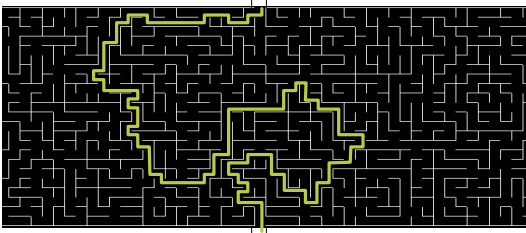


## Unfortunately...



## Observation

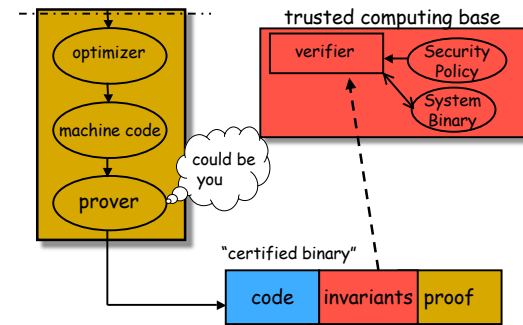
Finding a proof is hard, but verifying a proof is easy.



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## PCC:



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## Making "Proof" Rigorous:

Specify machine-code semantics and security policy using axiomatic semantics.

$\{Pre\} \text{ld } r2, r1(i) \{Post\}$

Given:

- security policy (i.e., axiomatic semantics and associated logic for assertions)
- untrusted code, annotated with (loop) invariants

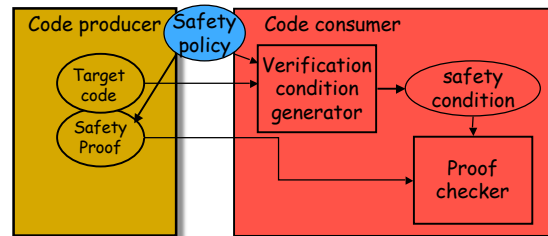
it's possible to calculate a *verification condition*:

- an assertion  $A$  such that
- if  $A$  is true then the code respects the policy.

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## Proof-carrying code



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## Code consumer side

Verifier (~5 pages of C code):

- takes code, loop invariants, and policy
- calculates the verification condition  $A$ .
- checks that the proof is a valid proof of  $A$ :
  - fails if some step doesn't follow from an axiom or inference rule
  - fails if the proof is valid, but not a proof of  $A$



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## Advantages of PCC

A generic architecture for providing and checking safety properties

In Principle:

- Simple, small, and fast TCB.
- No external authentication or cryptography.
- No additional run-time checks.
- "Tamper-proof".
- Precise and expressive specification of code safety policies

In Practice:

- Still hard to generate proofs for properties stronger than type safety. Need certifying compiler...

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## Security types and information flow

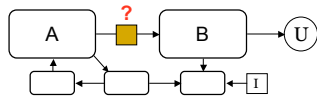
## End-to-end security

- Near-term problem: ensuring programs are memory-safe, type-safe so fine-grained access control policies can be enforced
- Long-term problem: ensuring that complex (distributed) computing systems enforce system-wide information security policies
  - Confidentiality
  - Integrity
  - Availability
- Confidentiality, integrity: end-to-end security described by *information-flow policies* that control *information dependency*

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## Policies vs. mechanisms



- Problem: policy/mechanism mismatch
  - Reference monitors (e.g., access control): control whether A is allowed to transmit to B
  - Confidentiality policy: information I can only be obtained by users U (no matter how it is transformed) – not a safety policy!
- How to map policy onto a mechanism? (we already do this by hand!)

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## Problems

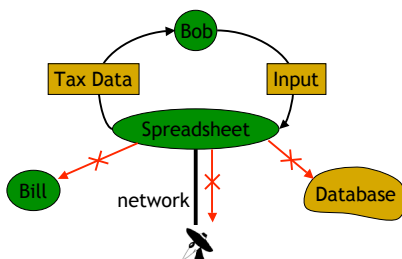
- Complex policies
  - no generally accepted policy language
  - weak validation techniques
- Information flows hard to find (*covert channels*)
- Heterogeneous, changing trust
- Host machines may be compromised

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## Information leaks

- Programs can leak inputs

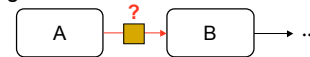


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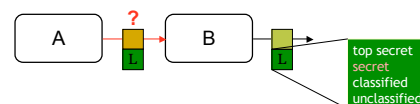
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## Standard mechanisms

- Discretionary access control: no control of propagation



Mandatory access control: expensive, restrictive



Java stack inspection: integrity, not confidentiality  
Can't enforce information flow policies

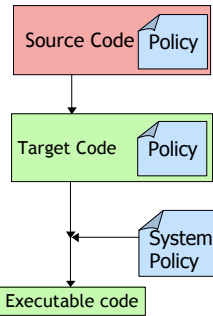
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## Static information flow

[Denning & Denning, 1977]

- Programs are annotated with information flow policies for confidentiality, integrity
- Compiler checks, possibly transforms program to ensure that all executions obey rules
- Loader, run-time validates program policy against system policies



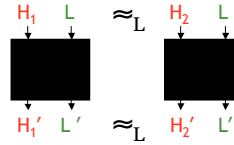
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## Noninterference

"Low-security behavior of the program is not affected by any high-security data."

Goguen & Meseguer 1982



Confidentiality: high = confidential, low = public  
Integrity: low = trusted, high = untrusted

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## Security types

- Idea: add information flow policies as type annotations (*labels*)
- Simplest policy language: H = confidential, L = public. L → H ok, H → L bad

```

int{H} x; // confidential integer
int{L} y; // public integer
String{L} z; // public string
x = y; // OK
y = x; // BAD
x = z.size(); // OK
z = Integer.toString(x) // BAD
  
```

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## Lattices and security

- Denning, 1976.
- Information flow policies (security policies in general) are naturally *partial orders*
  - If policy  $P_2$  is stronger than  $P_1$ , write  $P_1 \sqsubseteq P_2$ 
    - $P_1$  = "smoking is forbidden in restaurants"
    - $P_2$  = "smoking is forbidden in public places"
  - Some policies are incomparable:  $P_1 \not\sqsubseteq P_2$  and  $P_2 \not\sqsubseteq P_1$ 
    - $P_2$  = "keep off the grass"
- If there is always a least restrictive policy as least as strong as any two policies, policies form *lattice*.  $P_1 \sqcup P_2$  = "join" of  $P_1, P_2$ 
  - $P_1 \sqcup P_2$  = "smoking forbidden in restaurants and keep off the grass"
- $H \sqcup H = H, L \sqcup L = L, L \sqcup H = H$

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## Checking computation

- Combining values with different information flow policies?
- Conservatively,
  - Label of result should be a policy at least as strong as the labels of all inputs.
- Write  $\underline{x}$  for "label of  $x$ "
- Label of  $y+z$  is  $\underline{y} \sqcup \underline{z}$

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## Implicit Flows

```

x = 0;
if (b) {
  x = a;
}
  
```

- Final value of  $x$  may reveal values of  $a, b$
- Conservative: label of  $x$  protects both  $a$  and  $b$

$\underline{a} \sqsubseteq \underline{x} \ \& \ \underline{b} \sqsubseteq \underline{x}$

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## Static Assignment Rule

- Program-counter label  $pc$  captures implicit flows
- if, while, switch** statements bump up  $pc$  (temporarily)

```
x = 0;
if (b) {
  x = a; ← pc = b
}
```

Compile-time checking:

```
a ⊆ x
pc ⊆ x
```

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## Run-time Checking?

```
x = 0;
if (b) {
  x = a; ← a ⊆ x & b ⊆ x ?
}
```

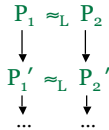
- Run-time check
  - if  $b$  is false,  $x=0$ , but no check is performed
  - if check fails,  $b$  is also leaked!
- Static checking not just an optimization!

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## Proving noninterference

- Volpano et al., 1996
- Can show that any type-safe program with information-flow security types must satisfy noninterference
- Strategy: show that each step of execution preserves low-observable equivalence:



- Language with functions, state: Zdancewic, Myers '01
- Core ML: Pottier, 2002

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## Jif: Java + Information Flow

[Myers, 1999]

- Annotate (Java) programs with labels from decentralized label model
- Variables have type + label. Labels contain policies in terms of principals.

```
int {Alice→Bob} x;
```

- Information flow control **and** access control

```
float {x} cos (float x) {
  float {x} y = x - 2*PI*(int)(x/(2*PI));
  return 1 - y*y/2 + ...;
}
```

Available for download:

<http://www.cs.cornell.edu/jif>

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## Confidentiality policies as types

- Confidentiality labels:  
`int{Alice→} a;` "a is Alice's private int"
- Integrity labels:  
`int{Alice←} a;` "a is trusted by Alice"
- Combined labels:  
`int{Alice→ ; Alice←} a;` (Both)

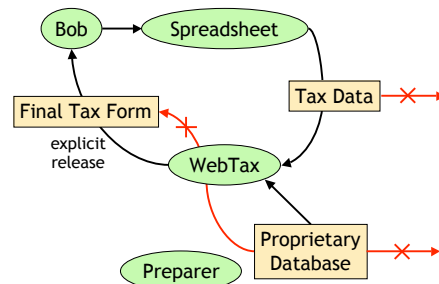
	<i>// Insecure</i>	<i>// Secure</i>
<code>int{Alice→} a1, a2;</code>	<code>b = a1;</code>	<code>a1 = a2;</code>
<code>int{Bob←} b;</code>	<code>b = c;</code>	<code>a1 = b;</code>
<code>int{Bob←Alice} c;</code>		<code>a1 = c;</code>
		<code>c = b;</code>

"Bob believes Alice can affect c"

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## Intentional leaks



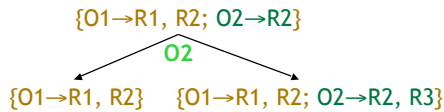
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## Selective Declassification

[Myers, 1997]

- An escape hatch from noninterference
- A principal can rewrite its part of the label



- Other owners' policies still respected
- Must test authority of running process
- Potentially dangerous: explicit operation
- Jif 3.0: declassification mediated by integrity checks: "robustness" [Chong&Myers]

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## Information flow and dependency

- Checking whether information flows from x to y is just a dependency analysis
- Dependency is crucial to security!
- Many other applications of language-based dependency analysis...

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## Catching bad format strings

[Shankar et al., 2001]

- Idea: should not use untrustworthy (H) data as format string, else attacker can gain control of system
- Security type:  
`int printf(char *_L fmt, ...)`
- Give network buffer type `char *_H`: information flow analysis prevents buffer data from affecting format string
  - problem: false positives
- Probably useful for less direct attacks too

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## SQL injection vulnerabilities

- WebSSARI system [Huang et al.], [Xie & Aiken]: analyze dependencies in PHP scripts to discover SQL queries built from untrusted information

```
$rows=mysql_query("UPDATE users SET pass='$pass' WHERE userid='$userid'");
```
- \$userid, \$pass must be trusted information
- Sanitization functions convert untrusted to trusted after checking for metacharacters etc.
- Doesn't worry about implicit flows -- attacker can affect SQL queries but *probably* difficult to synthesize attacks...

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## Detecting worms

- Vigilante system [Costa et al.] uses dynamic and static dependency analysis to
  - Detect worm attacks
  - Automatically generate filters
  - Generalize filters so they catch larger class of related attacks
  - No false positives
- Filters can be distributed by peer-to-peer system in 2.5 min. (a solution to Slammer!)

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## Vigilante

- Idea: labels on data are sets of bytes from network messages where  $\sqsubseteq$  is  $\subseteq$
- Run app with dynamic binary rewriting, computing labels for data
- At invalid step (e.g., jumping to payload), label on step says which message bytes matter!
- Generate filter from them.

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## Other work and future challenges

- Security types for secrecy in network protocols
- Self-certifying low-level code for object-oriented languages
- Applying interesting policies to PCC/IRM
- Secure information flow in concurrent systems
- Enforcing availability policies

## The End

- Thank you for your participation!
- See website for bibliography, more tutorial information:  
[www.cs.cornell.edu/andru/pldi06-tutorial](http://www.cs.cornell.edu/andru/pldi06-tutorial)

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