

IERG 4130 – 2026 Fall



Mitigating Memory Safety Vulnerabilities

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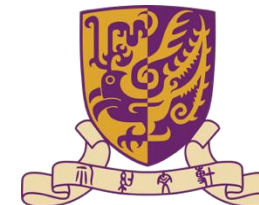
<https://yajin.org>

Credits: Some of the slides are from CS161 of UC Berkeley, CSE 443 of PSU (Trent Jaeger), CS-412 of EPFL (Mathias Payer), CMPSC 447 of PSU (Gang Tan)

Defending Against Memory Safety Vulnerabilities



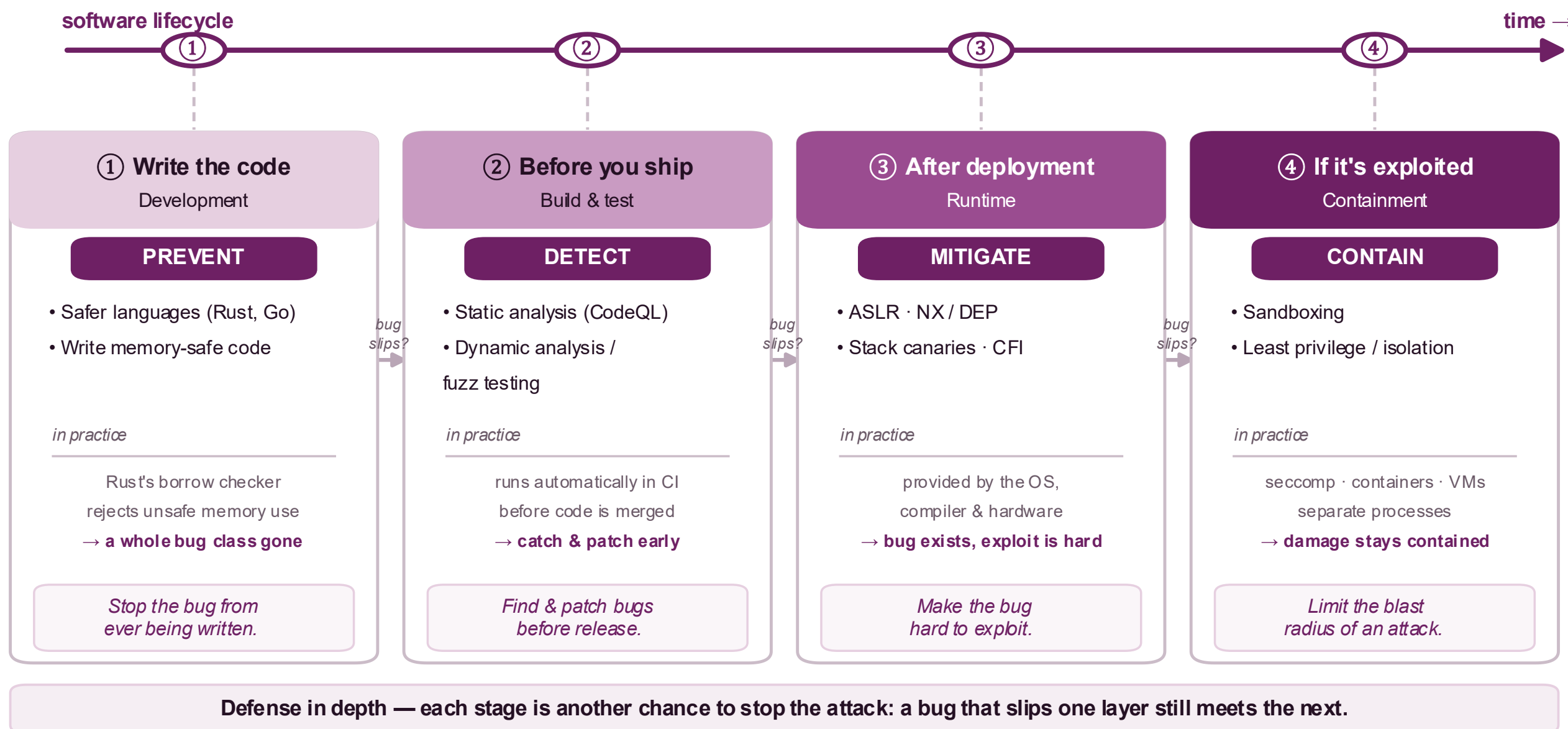
- We've seen how widespread and dangerous memory safety vulnerabilities can be. Why do these vulnerabilities exist?
 - Programming languages aren't designed well for security.
 - Programmers often aren't security-aware.
 - Programmers write code without designing security in from the start.
 - Programmers are humans. **Humans make mistakes.**



Different Stages

Defending against memory-safety bugs

different measures act at different stages of the software lifecycle



Using Memory-Safe Languages



Memory-Safe Languages

- **Memory-safe languages** are designed to automatically **check bounds and prevent undefined memory accesses**
- By design, memory-safe languages are not vulnerable to memory safety vulnerabilities
 - Using a memory-safe language is the **only** way to stop 100% of memory safety vulnerabilities
- Examples: Java, Python, C#, Go, Rust



Memory-Safe Languages

- **Performance:** Extra cost of bounds-checking on every array/memory access
 - Also, extra cost for garbage collection
 - C and C++ (not memory safe): **malloc** usually runs in (amortized) constant-time
 - Java (memory safe): The garbage collector may need to run at any arbitrary point in time, adding a 10–100 ms delay as it cleans up memory



Memory-Safe Languages

- **Legacy**: Huge existing code bases are written in C. Very expensive to rewrite in a new language. Building on existing code is easier than starting from scratch.
- But AI can help!



Memory-Safe Languages

- For many high-level applications, the performance difference from using a memory-safe language is insignificant
 - Possible exceptions: Operating systems, high performance games, some embedded systems
- There are some alternatives for low-level programming with memory safety
 - e.g., Rust



Memory-Safe Languages

- Writing in higher-level (memory-safe) languages may save developer time
- Sometimes there is a small performance-critical core that can be **encapsulated**
 - e.g., a fast library implemented in C (NumPy) and written carefully to be memory-safe, and then you can invoke the library from a memory-safe language

Writing Memory-Safe Code



Writing Memory-Safe Code

- Defensive programming: Always add checks in your code just in case
 - Example: Always check a pointer is not null before dereferencing it, even if you're sure the pointer is going to be valid
 - Before writing to an array or buffer, check that the write operation will be in-bounds
 - Relies on programmer discipline and tracking the length of every array/buffer/memory region



Writing Memory-Safe Code

- Use safe libraries (that do these checks for you)
 - Use functions that check bounds
 - Example: Use **fgets** instead of **gets**
 - Example: Use **strncpy** or **strncpy** instead of **strcpy**
 - Example: Use **snprintf** instead of **sprintf**
- Relies on programmer discipline or tools that check your program



Writing Memory-Safe Code

- Reason carefully about your code
 - When writing code, define a set of *preconditions*, *postconditions*, and *invariants* that must be satisfied for the code to be memory-safe
 - Very **tedious** and rarely used in practice, so it's out of scope for this class



gets: Unbounded String Copies

- Occurs when data is copied from an unbounded source to a fixed-length character array

```
void main(void) {  
    char Password[8];  
    puts("Enter a 8-character password:");  
    gets(Password);  
    printf("Password=%s\n", Password);  
}
```



Better String Library Functions

- Functions that restrict the number of bytes are often recommended
- Never use `gets(buf)`
 - Use `fgets(buf, size, stdin)` instead
 - **buf**: Pointer to the character array where the input string is stored.
 - **size**: Maximum number of characters to read, including the null terminator (`\0`).
 - **stdin**: The input source, such as `stdin` for keyboard input



From gets to fgets

- `char *fgets(char *BUF, int N, FILE *FP);`
- *“Reads at most N-1 characters from FP until a newline is found. The characters up to and including the newline are stored in BUF. The buffer is terminated with a 0.”*

```
void main(void) {  
    char Password[8]; 9  
    puts("Enter a 8-character password:");  
    fgets(Password, 8, stdin);  
    ... 9  
}
```



Better String Library Functions

- Instead of `strcpy()`, use `strncpy()`
- Instead of `strcat()`, use `strncat()`
- Instead of `sprintf()`, use `snprintf()`



But Still Need Care

- `char *strncpy(char *s1, const char *s2, size_t n);`
 - Copy not more than `n` characters (including the null character) from the array pointed to by `s2` to the array pointed to by `s1`;
 - If the string pointed to by `s2` is shorter than `n` characters, null characters are appended to the destination array until a total of `n` characters have been written.
 - What happens if the size of `s2` is `n` or greater
 - It gets truncated
 - **And `s1` may not be null-terminated!**



Null-Termination Errors

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {  
    char a[16], b[16];  
    strncpy(a, "0123456789abcdef", sizeof(a));  
    printf("%s\n", a);  
    strcpy(b, a);  
}
```

- a[] not properly terminated. Possible segmentation fault if `printf("%s\n", a);`
- Why?

Safe or Vulnerable



```
void func(int len, char *data) {  
    char buf[64];  
    if (len > 64)  
        return;  
    memcpy(buf, data, len);  
}
```



Safe or Vulnerable

```
void func(size_t len, char *data) {  
    char *buf = malloc(len + 2);  
    if (buf == NULL)  
        return;  
    memcpy(buf, data, len);  
    buf[len] = '\n';  
    buf[len + 1] = '\0';  
}
```

Building Secure Software



Approaches

- Run-time checks
 - Automatic bounds-checking
 - May involve performance overhead
 - Crash if the check fails



Approaches

- Bug-finding tools
 - Excellent resource, as long as there aren't too many false alarms
- Code review
 - Have someone look over your code for memory safety errors
 - Can be very effective... but also expensive



Approaches

- Vulnerability scanning
 - Probe your systems for known flaws
- Penetration testing (“pen-testing”)
 - Pay someone to break into your system



Testing for Software Security Issues

- How can we test programs for memory safety vulnerabilities?
 - **Fuzz testing**: Random inputs
 - Use tools like **Valgrind** (tool for detecting memory leaks)
 - Test corner cases
- How do we tell if we've found a problem?
 - Look for a crash or other unexpected behavior
- How do we know that we've tested enough?
 - Hard to know, but **code-coverage tools** can help



Testing for Software Security Issues

Testing is the process of executing a program to find errors.

- An error is a deviation between observed behavior and specified behavior, i.e., a violation of the underlying specification:
 - Functional requirements (features)
 - Operational requirements (performance, usability)
 - **Security requirements**



Testing for Software Security Issues

- Manual testing
 - Unit testing (individual modules)
 - Integration testing (interaction between modules)
 - System testing (full application testing)
- **Fuzz testing**
- Symbolic and concolic testing



Fuzzing

- At Its Core, Fuzzing is Random Testing
 - It started a long time ago
 - automated software testing technique

1981 Random testing is a cost-effective alternative to systematic testing techniques (Duran & Natos)

1983 "The Monkey" (Capps)

1988 Birth of the term "fuzzing" (Miller)

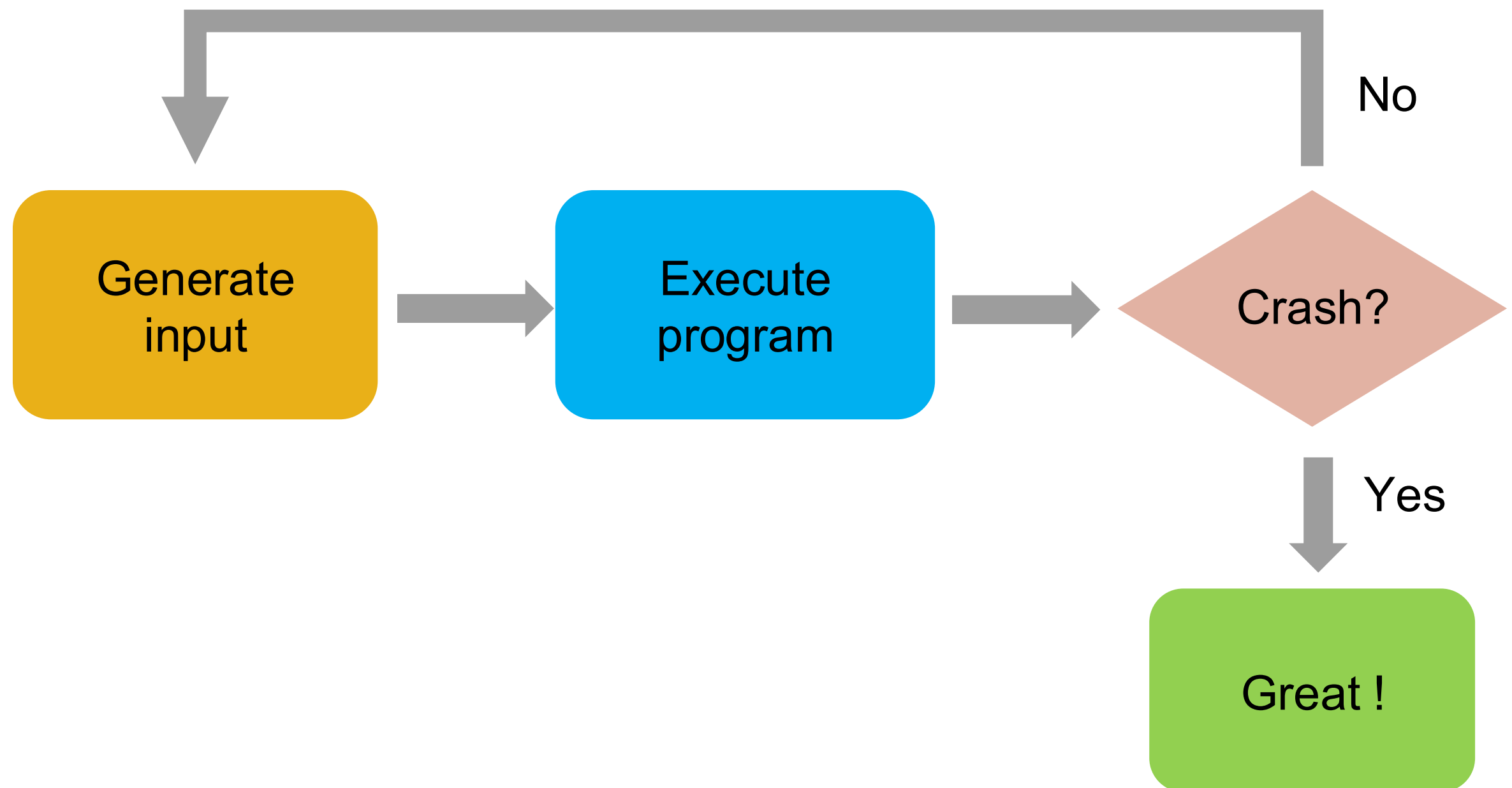


Monkey testing



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the program crashes





Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the program crashes

— How do we inject inputs?

— How do we generate inputs?

— How do we automate the process?

— How do we execute the program?

— How do we detect bugs?



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the XML parser crashes

— How do we inject inputs?

— How do we generate inputs?

— How do we detect bugs?

— How do we automate the process?



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the XML parser crashes

— How do we inject inputs? Execute the parser with an XML file

How do we generate inputs?

How do we detect bugs?

How do we automate the process?



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the XML parser crashes

How do we inject inputs? Execute the parser with an XML file

How do we generate inputs?

How do we detect bugs?

How do we automate the process?



Generating Inputs for Programs

- In case of an XML parser

Idea **#1**: just generate random binary data

```
cat /dev/urandom | xml_parser
```



Random Inputs

```
if (input[0] == '<')  
  
    if (input[1] == 'x')  
  
        if (input[2] == 'm')  
  
            if (input[3] == 'l')  
  
                // start process file
```

- Parser expects the file to start with `<xml` header
- We need $\sim 2^{32}$ guesses to get past the header check
- works poorly & is incomplete

Generating Better Inputs for Programs



Idea #2: Model what the application should process

Structured inputs (a.k.a. structure-aware fuzzing)



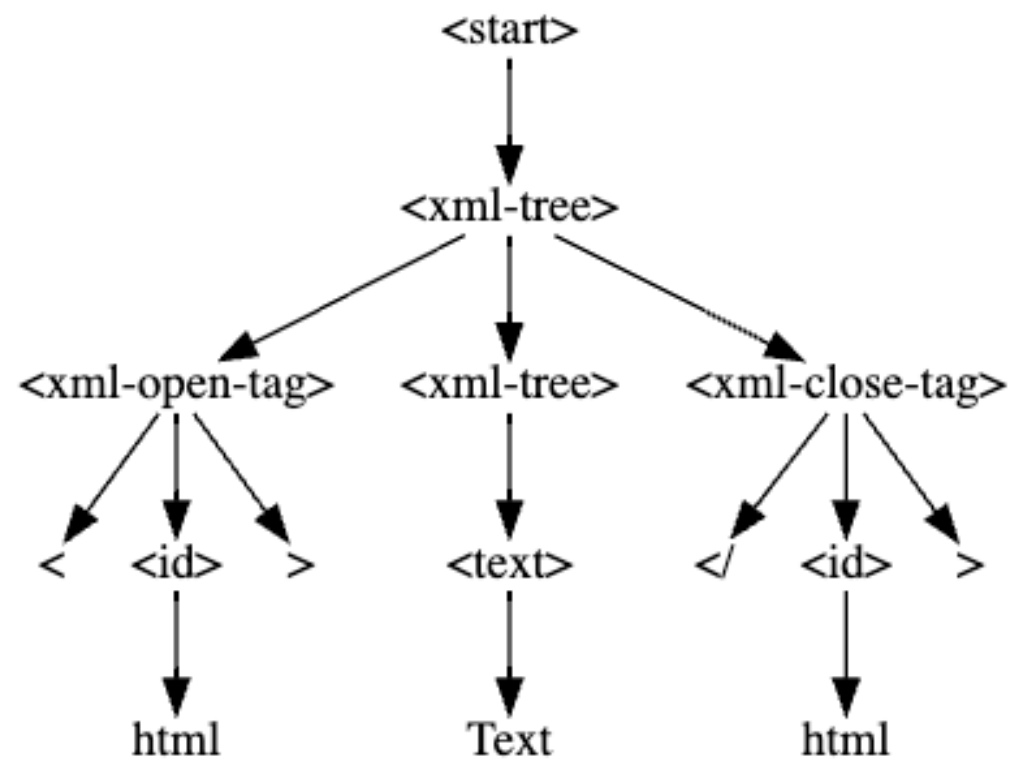
Structured Inputs

```
XML_GRAMMAR: Grammar = {
    "<start>": ["<xml-tree>"],
    "<xml-tree>": ["<text>",
        "<xml-open-tag><xml-tree><xml-close-tag>",
        "<xml-openclose-tag>",
        "<xml-tree><xml-tree>"],
    "<xml-open-tag>": ["<<id>>", "<<id> <xml-attribute>>"],
    "<xml-openclose-tag>": ["<<id>/>", "<<id> <xml-attribute>/>"],
    "<xml-close-tag>": ["</<id>>"],
    "<xml-attribute>": ["<id>=<id>", "<xml-attribute> <xml-attribute>"],
    "<id>": ["<letter>", "<id><letter>"],
    "<text>": ["<text><letter_space>", "<letter_space>"],
    "<letter>": srange(string.ascii_letters + string.digits +
        "\"" + "'" + "."),
    "<letter_space>": srange(string.ascii_letters + string.digits +
        "\"" + "'" + " " + "\t"),
}
```

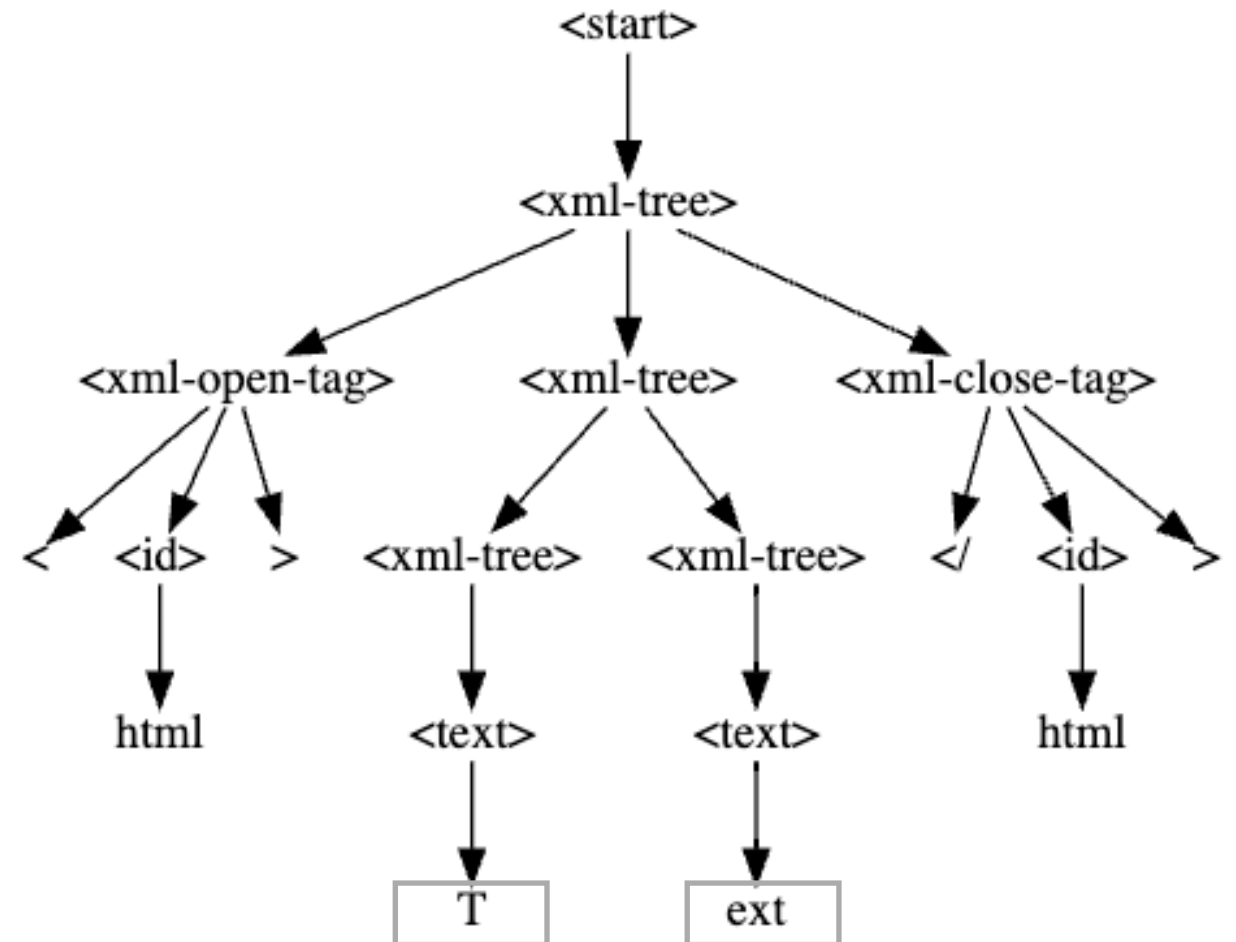
ref: <https://www.fuzzingbook.org/html/GreyboxGrammarFuzzer.html#Parsing-and-Recombining-HTML>



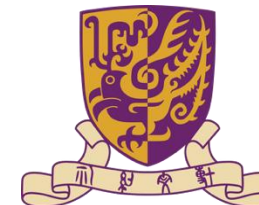
Structured Inputs



Initial structured tree

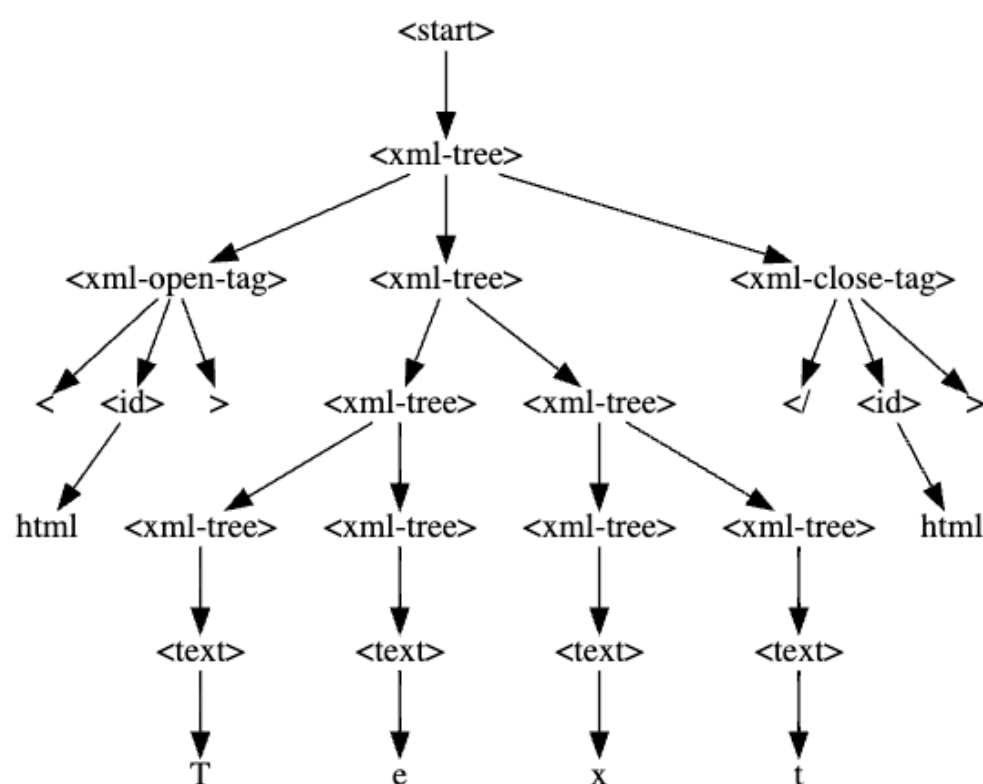


structured tree after adding nodes



Structured Inputs

After several mutations
→



new structured tree



```
<start>
|-<html><head><title>Hello</title></head><body>World<br/></body></html>
<xml-tree>
|-<html><head><title>Hello</title></head><body>World<br/></body></html>
|-<head><title>Hello</title></head><body>World<br/></body>
|-<head><title>Hello</title></head>
|-<title>Hello</title>
|-Hello
|-<body>World<br/></body>
|-World<br/>
|-World
|-<br/>
<xml-open-tag>
|-<html>
|-<head>
|-<title>
|-<body>
<xml-openclose-tag>
|-<br/>
<xml-close-tag>
|-</title>
|-</head>
|-</body>
|-</html>
<xml-attribute>
<id>
<text>
<letter>
<letter_space>
```

generated testcase

Generating Better Inputs for Programs



Idea **#3**: Coverage as completeness metric

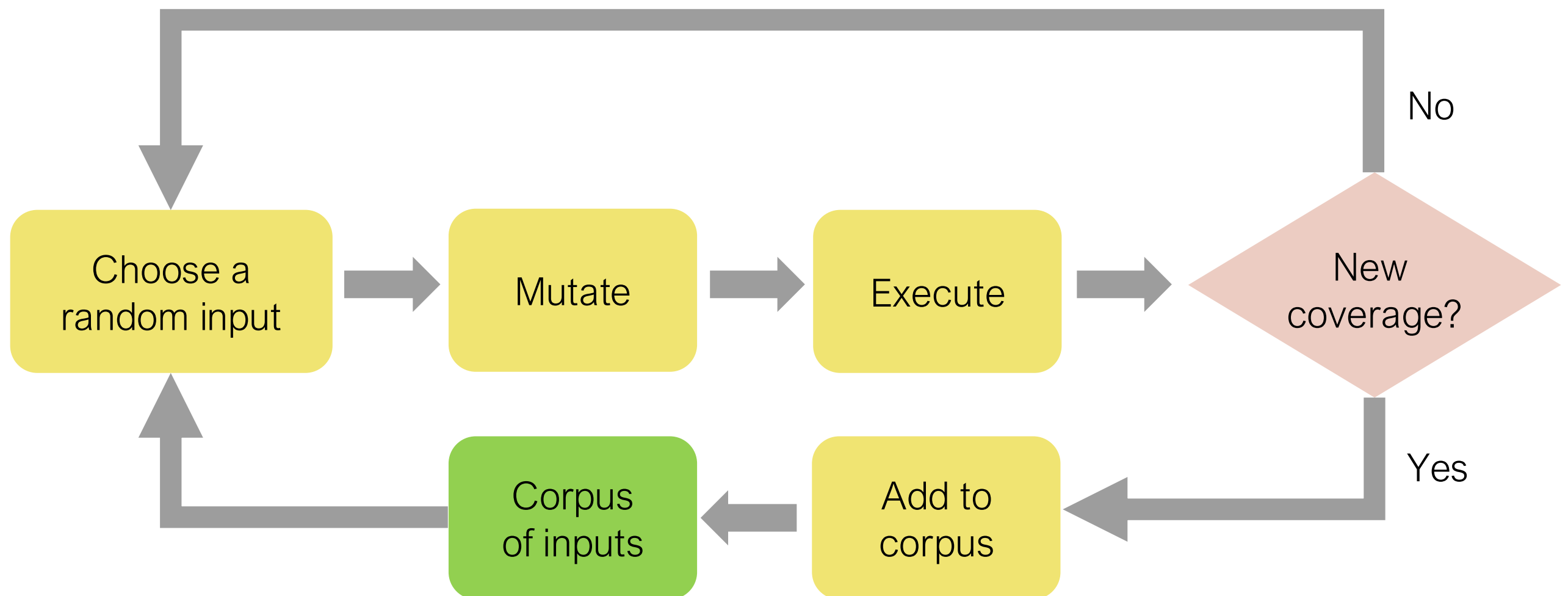
Intuition:

- A software flaw is only detected if the flawed statement is executed.
- Effectiveness of test suite therefore depends on how many statements are executed.

Coverage-guided generation (a.k.a. coverage-guided fuzzing)



Coverage-Guided Generation





Branch Coverage

```
int arr[6];
```

```
int func(int a, int b) {  
    int idx = 6;  
    if (a < 6) idx -= 6; else idx -= 1;  
    if (b < 6) idx -= 1; else idx += 1;  
    return arr[idx]; // idx = 4  
}
```

Test input: a=10, b=1



Branch Coverage

```
int arr[6];
```

```
int func(int a, int b) {  
    int idx = 6;  
    if (a < 6) idx -= 6; else idx -= 1;  
    if (b < 6) idx -= 1; else idx += 1;  
    return arr[idx]; // idx = 1  
}
```

Test input: a=1, b=10



Branch Coverage

```
int arr[6];
```

```
int func(int a, int b) {  
    int idx = 6;  
    if (a < 6) idx -= 6; else idx -= 1;  
    if (b < 6) idx -= 1; else idx += 1;  
    return arr[idx];  
}
```

All test inputs: $a=10, b=1$ and $a=1, b=10$

➡ Full branch coverage

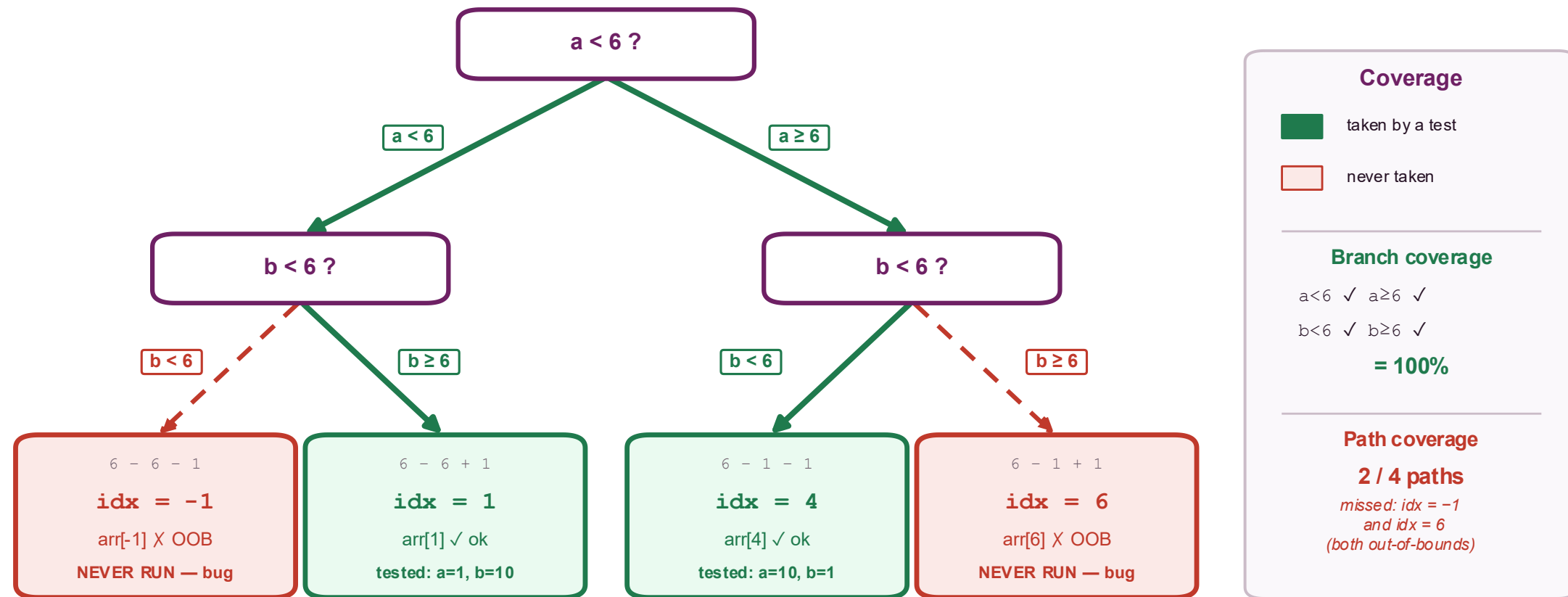


Is Branch Coverage Enough?

Branch coverage $\neq$ path coverage

all four branch edges are taken — yet 2 of the 4 code paths never run

```
int arr[6]; idx = 6; if (a<6) idx-=6; else idx-=1; if (b<6) idx-=1; else idx+=1; return arr[idx];  
start: idx = 6
```



Every decision outcome is exercised (100% branch coverage), but only 2 of the 4 root-to-leaf paths run — the both-true and both-false paths are never taken, and both are out-of-bounds.



Is Branch Coverage Enough?

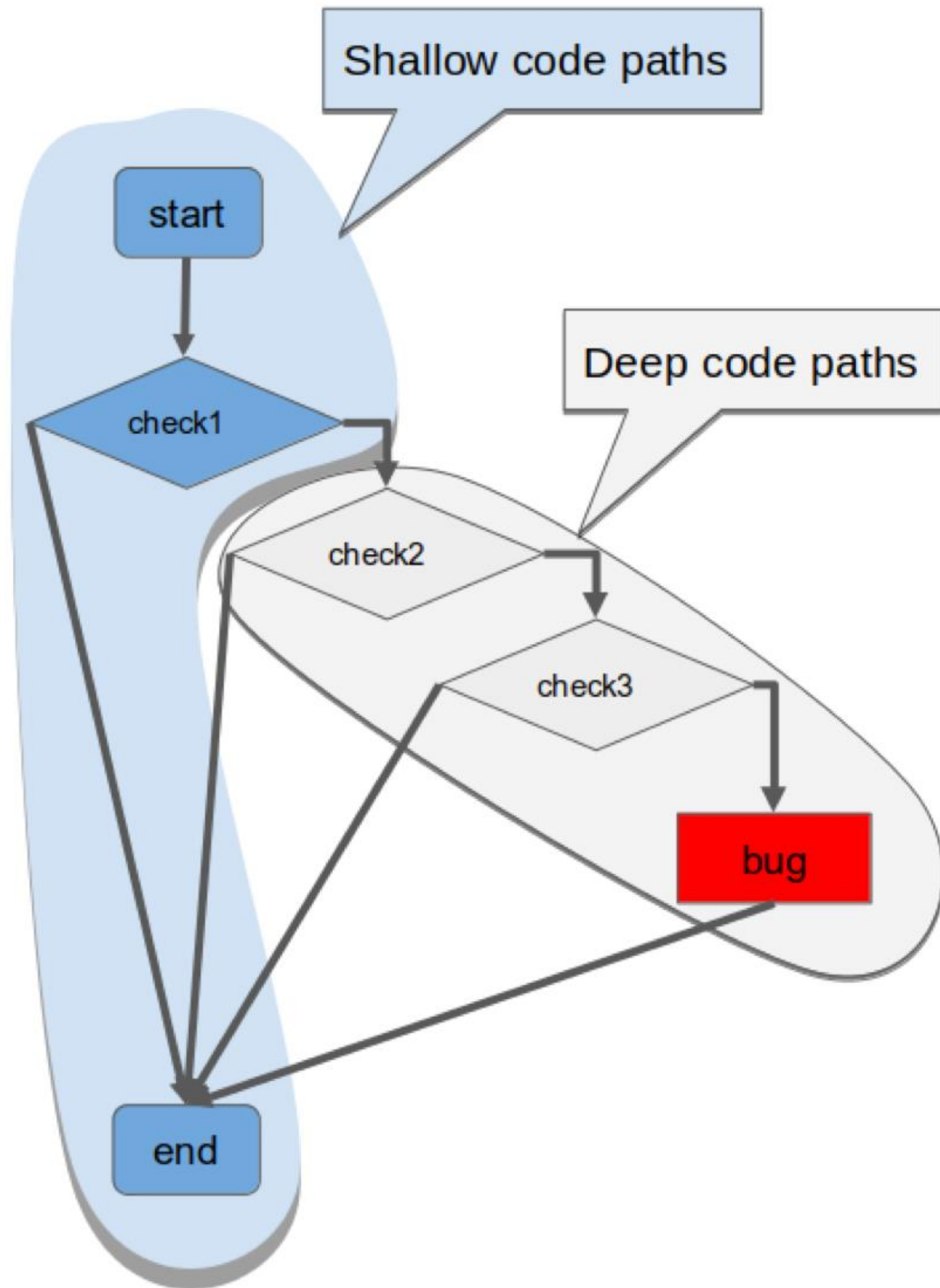
```
int arr[6];
```

```
int func(int a, int b) {  
    int idx = 6;  
    if (a < 6) idx -= 6; else idx -= 1;  
    if (b < 6) idx -= 1; else idx += 1;  
    return arr[idx];  
}
```

- Not all paths are executed: Fail to find overflow bug ($a = 1, b = 1$)
- Full path coverage evaluates all possible paths
 - expensive (path explosion due to each branch)
 - impossible for loops
- Probabilistically covers state space

Coverage Wall

- Hard to satisfy checks (e.g., checksum)
- Chains of checks
- Fuzzer no longer makes progress after certain iterations.





How to Measure Code Coverage

Existing tools:

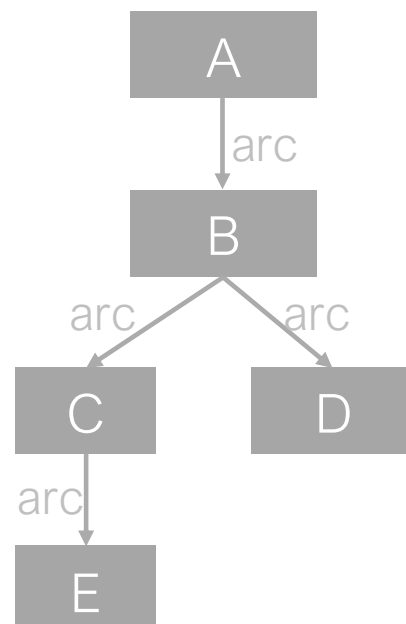
- Gcov:
 - <https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Gcov.html>
- SanitizerCoverage:
 - <https://clang.llvm.org/docs/SourceBasedCodeCoverage.html>



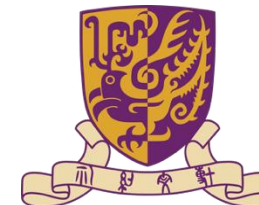
Example

- Compile program with coverage instrumentation
 - `gcc -fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage gcov_example.c -o example`
- Generate coverage information on the fly
 - `./example`
- Convert coverage information to html report
 - `gcovr --html-detailed coverage.html`

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int arr[5] = { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 };
3
4  int func(int a) {
5      int idx = 5;
6      if (a < 5)
7          idx -= 5;
8      else
9          idx -= 1;
10     return arr[idx];
11 }
12
13 int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
14     if (argc >= 2){
15         printf("argc>=2\n");
16         return 0;
17     }
18     printf("gcov testing.\n");
19     int result = func(argc);
20     return result;
21 }
```



arc: possible branches taken from one basic block to another



Example

- Generated report:
- Green line means executed
- Red line means never executed

GCC Code Coverage Report

Directory: .

File: gcov_example.c

Date: 2022-04-14 17:13:20

ExecTotalCoverage

Lines:101376.9%

Functions:22100.0%

Branches:2450.0%

► List of functions

Line	Branch	Exec	Source
1			#include <stdio.h>
2			int arr[5] = { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 };
3			
4		1	int func(int a) {
5		1	int idx = 5;
6	► 1/2	1	if (a < 5)
7		1	idx -= 5;
8			else
9		x	idx -= 1;
10		1	return arr[idx];
11			}
12			
13		1	int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
14	► 1/2	1	if (argc >= 2){
15		x	printf("argc>=2\n");
16		x	return 0;
17			}
18		1	printf("gcov testing.\n");
19		1	int result = func(argc);
20		1	return result;
21			}
22			



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the XML parser crashes

- How do we inject inputs? Execute the parser with an XML file
- How do we generate inputs? coverage-guided, mutation
- How do we detect bugs?**
- How do we automate the process?



Detecting Bugs

- Program crash is not a good indicator
 - Some bugs do not cause crash immediately (e.g., memory corruptions)
 - Other bugs are not crashes (e.g., uninitialized value usage)
- Use dynamic bug detectors
 - Sanitizers



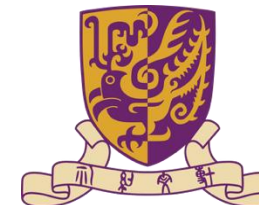
Sanitizers

- Tools based on compiler instrumentation.
- Discover bugs like **integer overflow**, **heap buffer overflow**, **use after free**, etc.
- Different type of Sanitizers:
 - ASAN
 - UBSAN
 - MSAN
 - TSAN



Address Sanitizer (ASAN)

- Fast memory error detector
- Compiler directive: **-fsanitize=address**
- Detects various issues:
 - **Out-of-bounds access to heap, stack and globals**
 - **Use After Free**
 - **Use after scope**
- Typical slowdown: ~2x



Address Sanitizer (ASAN)

```
1  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
2      int *array = new int[100];
3      delete [] array;
4      return array[argc]; // use after free here
5  }
```

compile, link, run

clang++ -g -fsanitize=address example_uaf.cc && ./a.out

=====

==38960==ERROR: AddressSanitizer: heap-use-after-free on address 0x00010623a844 at pc 0x000104463f4c bp 0x00016b99f0e0 sp 0x00016b99f0d8

READ of size 4 at 0x00010623a844 thread T0

#0 0x104463f48 in main example_uaf.cc:4

#1 0x1048210f0 in start+0x204 (dyld:arm64+0x50f0)

#2 0x4d7dfffffffffffffc (<unknown module>)

→ read freed buffer in `return array[argc];`

0x00010623a844 is located 4 bytes inside of 400-byte region [0x00010623a840,0x00010623a9d0)

freed by thread T0 here:

#0 0x104913c70 in wrap__ZdaPv+0x6c (libclang_rt.asan_osx_dynamic.dylib:arm64+0x4bc70)

#1 0x104463efc in main example_uaf.cc:3

#2 0x1048210f0 in start+0x204 (dyld:arm64+0x50f0)

#3 0x4d7dfffffffffffffc (<unknown module>)

→ free buffer in `delete [] array;`

previously allocated by thread T0 here:

#0 0x10491387c in wrap__Znam+0x6c (libclang_rt.asan_osx_dynamic.dylib:arm64+0x4b87c)

#1 0x104463ee4 in main example_uaf.cc:2

#2 0x1048210f0 in start+0x204 (dyld:arm64+0x50f0)

#3 0x4d7dfffffffffffffc (<unknown module>)

→ `int *array = new int[100];`

SUMMARY: AddressSanitizer: heap-use-after-free example_uaf.cc:4 in main

Undefined Behavior Sanitizer (UBSAN)



- Compiler directive: **-fsanitize=undefined**
- Detects undefined behavior:

- **Divide by zero**

```
int b = 0;  
int c = a / b;
```

- **Signed integer overflow**

```
int k = 0x7fffffff;  
k += 1;  
// 0x7fffffff + 1 cannot be represented in type 'int'
```

- **Dereferencing misaligned/null pointer**

```
char * ptr = (char*)alloc_mem(LARGE_SIZE); // possible NULL pointer  
*ptr = 1;
```



Memory Sanitizer (MSAN)

- Compiler directive: **-fsanitize=memory**
- Detects uninitialized reads

```
1  int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
2      int array[10]; // uninitialized stack array  
3      return array[5];  
4  }
```

clang -fsanitize=memory msan_example.c

```
==108578==WARNING: MemorySanitizer: use-of-uninitialized-value  
#0 0x4983bd in main /home/happy/workspace/msan_example.c:3:3  
#1 0x7f93e4ca00b2 in __libc_start_main /build/glibc-sMfBJT/glibc-2.31/csu/../csu/libc-start.c:308:16  
#2 0x41c22d in _start (/home/happy/workspace/a.out+0x41c22d)  
  
SUMMARY: MemorySanitizer: use-of-uninitialized-value /home/happy/workspace/msan_example.c:3:3 in main
```

- Typical slowdown: ~3x



Fuzzing

- Feeding in random inputs until the XML parser crashes

- How do we inject inputs? Execute the parser with an XML file
- How do we generate inputs? coverage-guided, mutation
- How do we detect bugs? ASAN, UBSAN, MSAN, etc.
- **How do we automate the process?**



Automation

- Run program with a generated testcase
- Monitor program for coverage and crashes
- Deduplicate crashes
- Minimize testcase
- Generate reproducers
- Report crashes

AFL



-
- The most well-known fuzzer currently
 - Uses compiler-time instrumentation to track branch coverage
 - Mutate fuzzing testcase based on previous branch coverage



Hands On: Building AFL

- git clone <https://github.com/google/AFL.git>
 - make
 - cd llvm_mode
 -  afl-clang-fast.c wrapper for clang
 -  afl-llvm-pass.so.cc Instrumentation pass for clang, add coverage support for program
 -  afl-llvm-rt.o.c Implementation of instrument function
 - make
- **afl-clang-fast**: compiler which instruments program while building
 - **afl-fuzz**: overall fuzzer



Hands On: Fuzzing Example

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  #include <unistd.h>
3
4  #define SIZE 20
5
6  int main(int argc, char *argv[])
7  {
8      char input[SIZE] = {0};
9      size_t length;
10     length = read(STDIN_FILENO, input, SIZE);
11     char calc_value = 0;
12
13     if (input[0] == 'a'){
14         if (input[1] == 'b'){
15             if (input[2] == 'c'){
16                 int idx = input[3] + input[4];
17                 calc_value = input[idx];
18             }
19         }
20     }
21
22     return calc_value;
23 }
```

buffer overflow bug

- Example PoC:

input buffer: "abc\x40\x40"



Hands On: Fuzzing Example

- Build program with ASan & Coverage instrumentation
 - `afl-clang-fast -fsanitize=address example.c`
- Provide initial corpus/testcase seed
 - `echo 123 > corpus/seeds0`
- Fuzz it
 - `afl-fuzz -D -i input -o output -- ./a.out`
 - `-D`: enable deterministic fuzzing (more mutation strategies)
 - `-i dir`: input directory with initial testcases.
 - `-o dir`: output directory for fuzzer findings



Hands On: Fuzzing Example

One cycle:

- go over all the interesting test cases discovered so far

```
american fuzzy lop 2.57b (a.out)

process timing
  run time : 0 days, 0 hrs, 0 min, 3 sec
  last new path : 0 days, 0 hrs, 0 min, 1 sec
  last uniq crash : 0 days, 0 hrs, 0 min, 2 sec
  last uniq hang : none seen yet

cycle progress
  now processing : 3 (75.00%)
  paths timed out : 0 (0.00%)

stage progress
  now trying : havoc
  stage execs : 4888/12.3k (39.78%)
  total execs : 19.7k
  exec speed : 5237/sec

fuzzing strategy yields
  bit flips : 0/120, 1/116, 1/108
  byte flips : 0/15, 0/11, 0/3
  arithmetics : 0/840, 0/160, 0/0
  known ints : 0/70, 0/298, 0/132
  dictionary : 0/0, 0/0, 0/0
  havoc : 2/9152, 0/3792
  trim : 50.00%/1, 0.00%

map coverage
  map density : 0.01% / 0.01%
  count coverage : 1.00 bits/tuple

findings in depth
  favored paths : 1 (25.00%)
  new edges on : 4 (100.00%)
  total crashes : 2 (1 unique)
  total tmouts : 0 (0 unique)

path geometry
  levels : 4
  pending : 1
  pend fav : 1
  own finds : 3
  imported : n/a
  stability : 100.00%

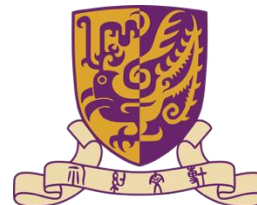
overall results
  cycles done : 5
  total paths : 4
  uniq crashes : 1
  uniq hangs : 0

[cpu000: 16%]
```

branch tuples already hit/the bitmap can hold

the number of crashes

consistency of observed traces



Hands On: Fuzzing Example

Output (fuzzer status & findings):

```
output
├── crashes
│   ├── id:000000,sig:06,src:000002,op:flip4,pos:2 ← testcase which crashes the program
│   └── README.txt
├── fuzz_bitmap
├── fuzzer_stats ← fuzzing status. For clustered fuzzers, use afl-whatsup to get status of fuzzers
├── hangs
├── plot_data
└── queue
    ├── id:000000,orig:seeds0
    ├── id:000001,src:000000,op:havoc,rep:64,+cov
    ├── id:000002,src:000001,op:flip2,pos:1,+cov
    └── id:000003,src:000002,op:havoc,rep:4,+cov
    } interesting testcases discovered
```

3 directories, 9 files



Hands On: Fuzzing Example

Reproduce crashes:

```
% hexdump -C output/crashes/id:000000,sig:06,src:000002,op:flip4,pos:2
```

```
00000000  61 62 63 ff
```

```
|abc.|
```



```
"abc\xff"
```

```
$ cat output/crashes/id:000000,sig:06,src:000002,op:flip4,pos:2| ./a.out
```

```
====4016427====ERROR: AddressSanitizer: stack-buffer-underflow on address 0x7ffee926c62f at pc 0x555c95a4e729 bp 0x7ffee926c600 sp 0x7ffee926c5f0
```

```
READ of size 1 at 0x7ffee926c62f thread T0
```

```
#0 0x555c95a4e728 in main /home/happy/fuzz/afl_lab/example.c:17
```

```
#1 0x7ff1904090b2 in __libc_start_main (/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6+0x240b2)
```

```
#2 0x555c95a4e7ad in _start (/home/happy/fuzz/afl_lab/a.out+0x17ad)
```

```
Address 0x7ffee926c62f is located in stack of thread T0 at offset 31 in frame
```

```
#0 0x555c95a4e22f in main /home/happy/fuzz/afl_lab/example.c:7
```

```
This frame has 1 object(s):
```

```
[32, 52) 'input' (line 8) <== Memory access at offset 31 underflows this variable
```

```
HINT: this may be a false positive if your program uses some custom stack unwind mechanism, swapcontext or vfork  
(longjmp and C++ exceptions *are* supported)
```



Conclusion

Three Shades of Fuzzing



↑
Black box

- Unaware of the program structure
- Scale but dumb

↑
White box

- Leverage semantic program analysis
- Smart but don't scale too much

↑
Grey box

- Leverages program instrumentation
- Smart & scale

Exploit Mitigations



Exploit Mitigations

- Scenario
 - Someone has just handed you a large, existing codebase
 - It's not written in a memory-safe language, and it wasn't written with memory safety in mind
 - How can you protect this code from exploits without having to completely rewrite it?



Exploit Mitigations

- **Exploit mitigations (code hardening):** Compiler and runtime defenses that make common exploits harder
 - Find ways to turn attempted exploits into program crashes
 - Crashing is safer than exploitation: The attacker can crash our system, but at least they can't execute arbitrary code
 - Mitigations are cheap (low overhead) but not free (some costs associated with them)



Recall: Putting Together an Attack

- Find a memory safety (e.g. buffer overflow) vulnerability
- Write malicious shellcode at a known memory address
- Overwrite the RIP with the address of the shellcode
- Return from the function
- Begin executing malicious shellcode



Recall: Putting Together an Attack

- Find a memory safety (e.g. buffer overflow) vulnerability
 - **Write malicious shellcode at a known memory address**
 - **Overwrite the RIP with the address of the shellcode**
 - Return from the function
 - **Begin executing malicious shellcode**
-
- We can defend against memory safety vulnerabilities by making each of these steps more difficult (or impossible)!

Mitigation: Non-Executable Pages



Recall: Putting Together an Attack

- Find a memory safety (e.g. buffer overflow) vulnerability
- **Write malicious shellcode at a known memory address**
- **Overwrite the RIP with the address of the shellcode**
- Return from the function
- **Begin executing malicious shellcode**
 - **Mitigation: Non-executable pages**
- We can defend against memory safety vulnerabilities by making each of these steps more difficult (or impossible)!



Non-Executable Pages

- Idea: Most programs don't need memory that is both written to and executed, so make portions of memory **either** executable **or** writable but not both
 - Stack, heap, and static data: Writable but not executable
 - Code: Executable but not writable
- Page table entries have a writable bit and an executable bit that can be set to achieve this behavior
 - Page tables convert virtual addresses to physical addresses
 - Implemented in hardware, so effectively 0 overhead!



Non-Executable Pages

- Also known as
 - **W^X** (write XOR execute)
 - **DEP** (Data Execution Prevention, name used by Windows)
 - **No-execute bit** (the name of the bit itself)

Program Headers:

Type	Offset	VirtAddr	PhysAddr	FileSiz	MemSiz	Flg	Align
PHDR	0x000034	0x08048034	0x08048034	0x00160	0x00160	R	0x4
INTERP	0x000194	0x08048194	0x08048194	0x00013	0x00013	R	0x1
[Requesting program interpreter: /lib/ld-linux.so.2]							
LOAD	0x000000	0x08048000	0x08048000	0x003a0	0x003a0	R	0x1000
LOAD	0x001000	0x08049000	0x08049000	0x00288	0x00288	R E	0x1000
LOAD	0x002000	0x0804a000	0x0804a000	0x0014c	0x0014c	R	0x1000
LOAD	0x002f00	0x0804bf00	0x0804bf00	0x00120	0x00124	RW	0x1000
DYNAMIC	0x002f08	0x0804bf08	0x0804bf08	0x000e8	0x000e8	RW	0x4
NOTE	0x0001a8	0x080481a8	0x080481a8	0x00044	0x00044	R	0x4
GNU_EH_FRAME	0x002024	0x0804a024	0x0804a024	0x0003c	0x0003c	R	0x4
GNU_STACK	0x000000	0x00000000	0x00000000	0x00000	0x00000	RWE	0x10
GNU_RELRO	0x002f00	0x0804bf00	0x0804bf00	0x00100	0x00100	R	0x1



Subverting Non-Executable Pages

- Issue: Non-executable pages doesn't prevent an attacker from leveraging **existing** code in memory as part of the exploit
- Most programs have many functions loaded into memory that can be used for malicious behavior
- **Return-to-libc**: An exploit technique that overwrites the RIP to jump to a function in the standard C library (libc) or a common operating system function
- **Return-oriented programming (ROP)**: Constructing custom shellcode using pieces of code that already exist in memory

Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



- Recall: Per the x86 calling convention, each program expects arguments to be placed directly above the RIP
- Consider the **system** function, which executes a shell command. We want to execute it like this:

```
char cmd[] = "rm -rf /";  
system(cmd);
```

Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



Exploit:

```
'A' * 24  
+ [address of system]  
+ 'B' * 4  
+ [address of "rm -rf /"]  
+ "rm -rf /"
```

```
int system(char *command);  
  
void vulnerable(void) {  
    char name[20];  
    gets(name);  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    vulnerable();  
    return 0;  
}
```

EIP →

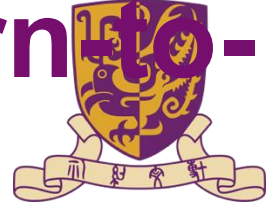
```
system:  
    ...  
  
vulnerable:  
    ...  
    call gets  
    addl $4, %esp  
    movl %ebp, %esp  
    popl %ebp  
    ret  
  
main:  
    ...  
    call vulnerable  
    ...
```

EBP →

ESP →

...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
RIP of main			
SFP of main			
RIP of vulnerable			
SFP of vulnerable			
name			
name			
name			
name			
name			
name (arg to gets)			

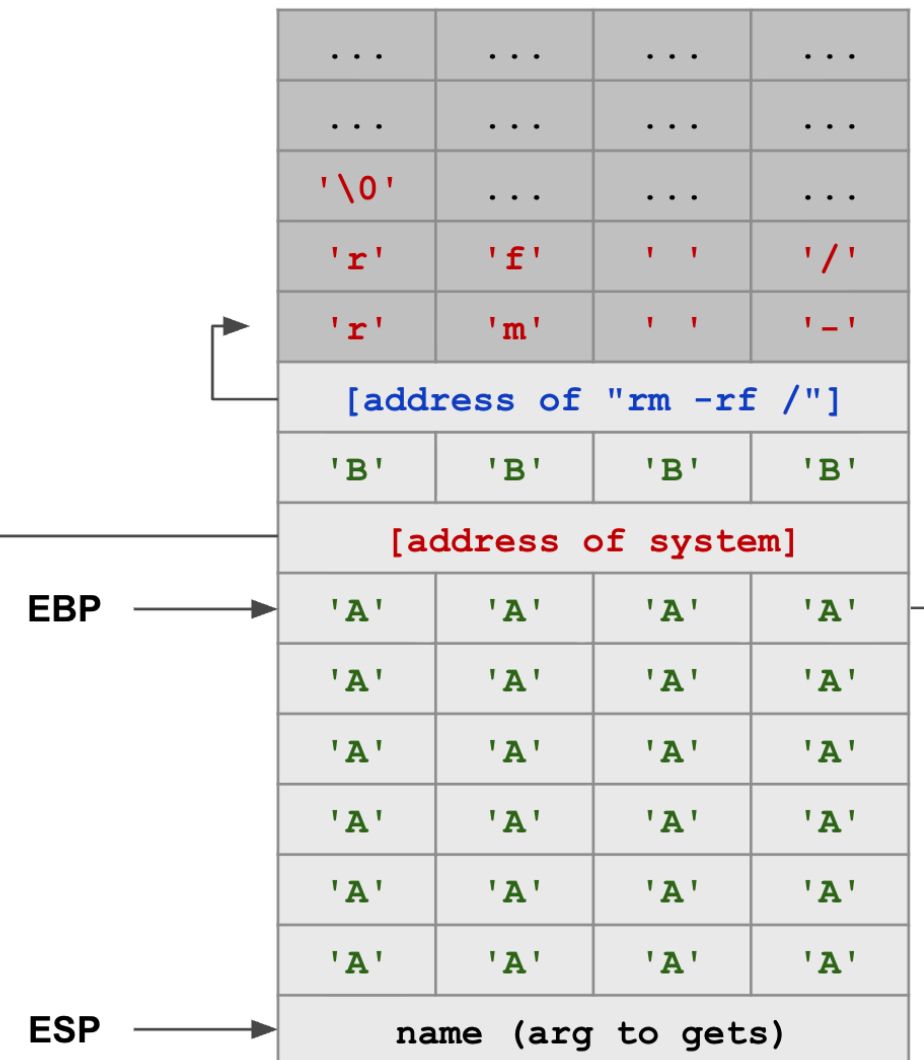
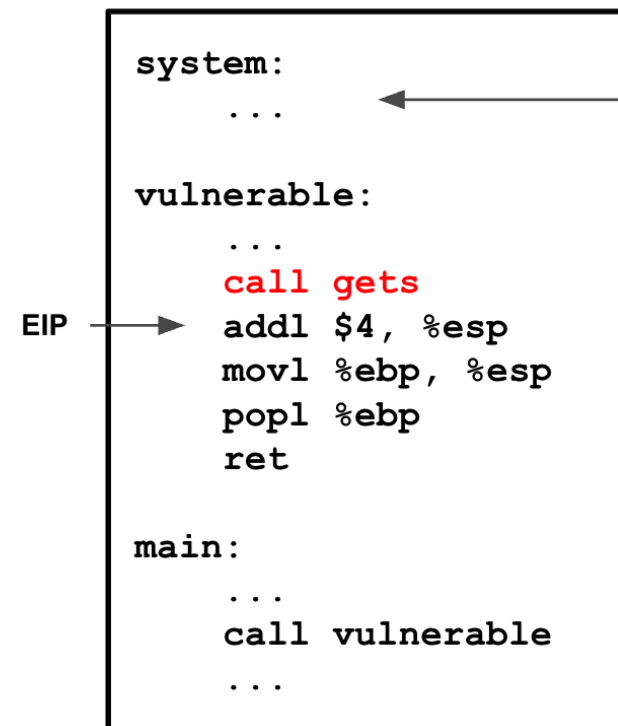
Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



Exploit:

```
'A' * 24  
+ [address of system]  
+ 'B' * 4  
+ [address of "rm -rf /"]  
+ "rm -rf /"
```

```
int system(char *command);  
  
void vulnerable(void) {  
    char name[20];  
    gets(name);  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    vulnerable();  
    return 0;  
}
```



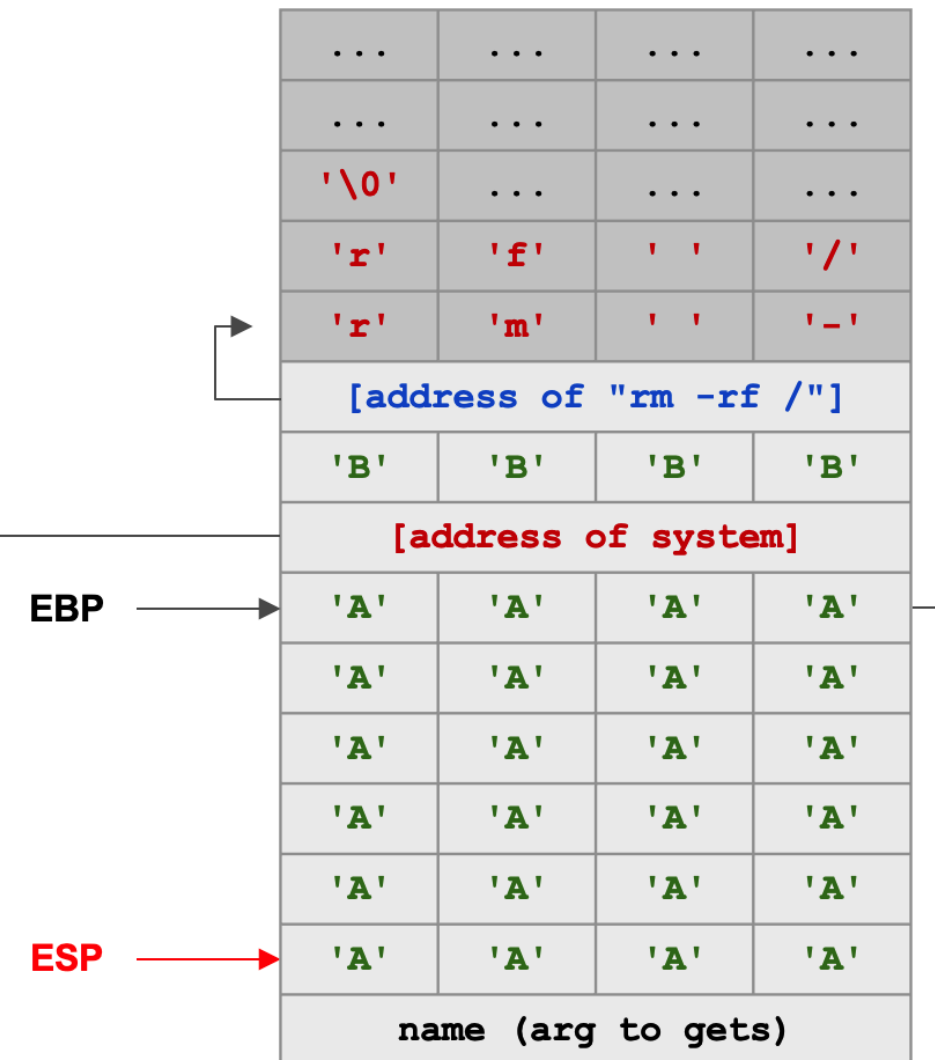
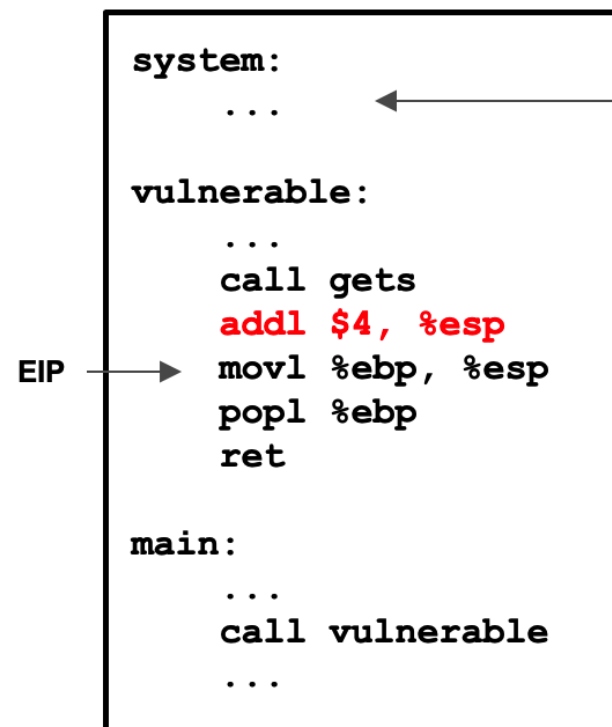
Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



```
int system(char *command);

void vulnerable(void) {
    char name[20];
    gets(name);
}

int main(void) {
    vulnerable();
    return 0;
}
```



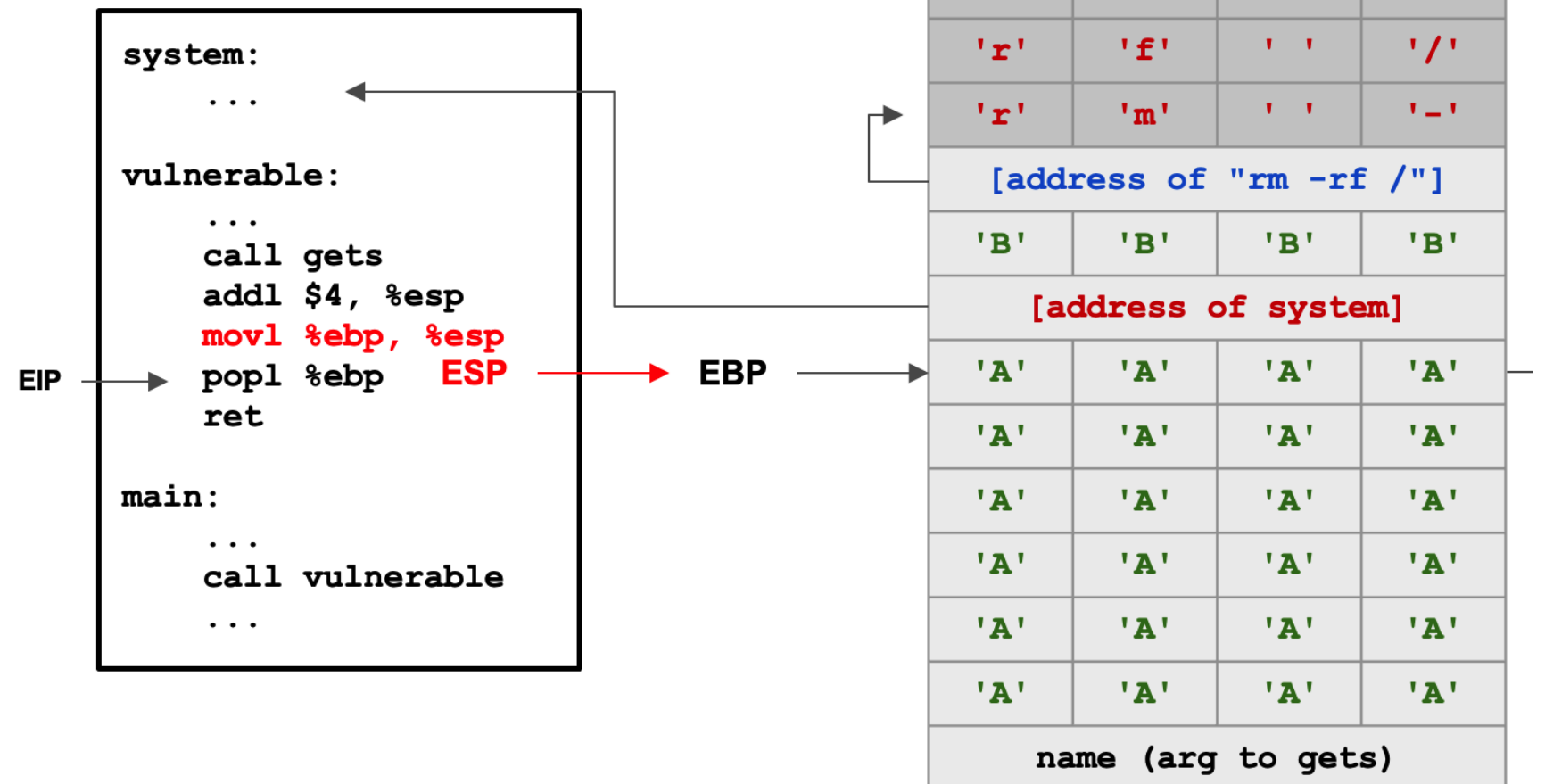
Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



```
int system(char *command);

void vulnerable(void) {
    char name[20];
    gets(name);
}

int main(void) {
    vulnerable();
    return 0;
}
```



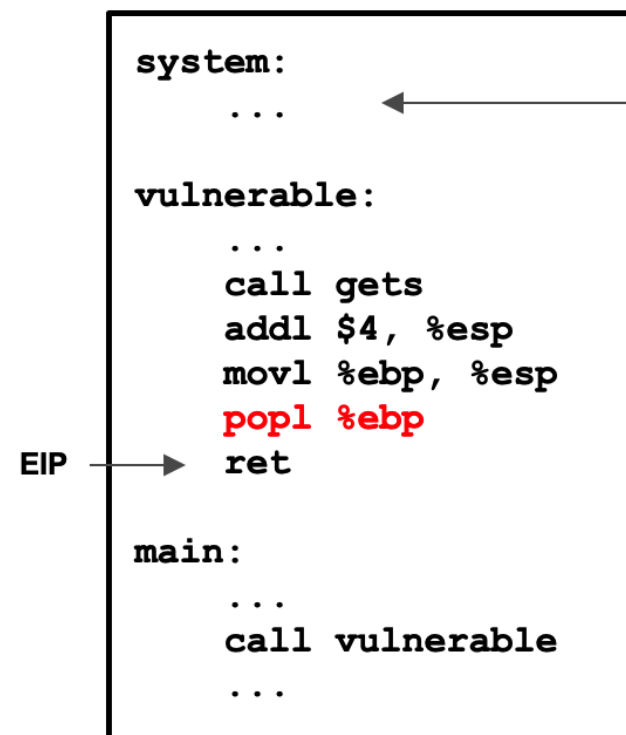
Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



```
int system(char *command);

void vulnerable(void) {
    char name[20];
    gets(name);
}

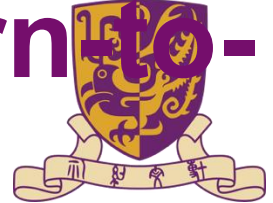
int main(void) {
    vulnerable();
    return 0;
}
```



...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
'\0'	...	...	...
'r'	'f'	' '	'/'
'r'	'm'	' '	'_'
[address of "rm -rf /"]			
'B'	'B'	'B'	'B'
[address of system]			
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
name (arg to gets)			

The ESP (Stack Pointer) points to the memory location containing the address of the `system` function.

Subverting Non-Executable Pages: Return-to-libc



We jumped into the `system` function, and it expects the first argument to be 4 bytes above the ESP: `"rm -rf /"`!

```
int system(char *command);

void vulnerable(void) {
    char name[20];
    gets(name);
}

int main(void) {
    vulnerable();
    return 0;
}
```

```
system:
...
← EIP

vulnerable:
...
call gets
addl $4, %esp
movl %ebp, %esp
popl %ebp
ret

main:
...
call vulnerable
...
```

ESP

...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
'\0'	...	...	...
'r'	'f'	' '	'/'
'r'	'm'	' '	'_'
[address of "rm -rf /"]			
'B'	'B'	'B'	'B'
[address of system]			
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
'A'	'A'	'A'	'A'
name (arg to gets)			

Mitigation: Stack Canaries



Recall: Putting Together an Attack

- Find a memory safety (e.g. buffer overflow) vulnerability
- **Write malicious shellcode at a known memory address**
- **Overwrite the RIP with the address of the shellcode**
 - Mitigation: Stack canaries
- Return from the function
- **Begin executing malicious shellcode**
- We can defend against memory safety vulnerabilities by making each of these steps more difficult (or impossible)!



Analogy: Canary in a Coal Mine

- Miners protect themselves against toxic gas buildup in the mine with a canary
 - Canary: A small, noisy bird that is sensitive to toxic gas
 - If toxic gas builds up, the canary dies first
 - The miners notice that the canary has died and leave the mine
- The canary in the coal mine is a sacrificial animal
 - The miners don't expect the canary to survive
 - However, the canary's death is a warning sign that saves the lives of the miners



Analogy: Canary in a Coal Mine

- **Takeaway:** Let's put a sacrificial value (a canary) on the stack
 - The value is not meaningful (we don't care if it's preserved)
 - The code never uses or changes this value
 - If the value changes, that's a warning sign that somebody is messing with our code!



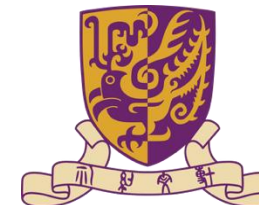
Stack Canaries

- Idea: Add a sacrificial value on the stack, and check if it has been changed
 - When the program runs, generate a random secret value and save it in the canary storage
 - In the function prologue, place the canary value on the stack right below the SFP/RIP
 - In the function epilogue, check the value on the stack and compare it against the value in canary storage
- The canary value is never actually used by the function, so if it changes, somebody is probably attacking our system!



Stack Canaries: Properties

- A canary value is unique every time the program runs but the same for all functions **within a run**
- Usually, the canary value is chosen so its first byte is **a null byte**, as extra hardening against string-based attacks
 - Why?
 - A string-based overflow will write a bunch of non-null bytes, followed by one null byte, and can't keep writing anything further after the first null byte, so any string-based overflow will have to either stop at the canary or change the canary



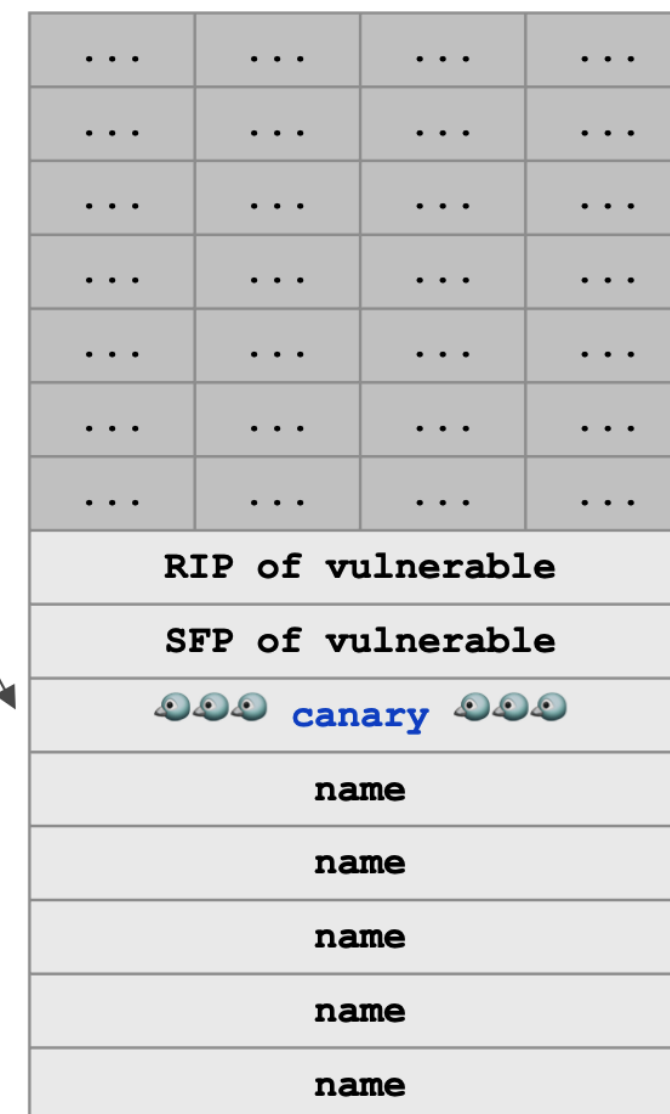
Stack Canaries

```
void vulnerable(void) {  
    char name[20];  
    gets(name);  
}
```

Because the write starts at name, the attacker has to overwrite the canary before the RIP or SFP!

Note: 20 bytes for name + 4 bytes for canary (32-bit architecture)

```
vulnerable:  
    pushl %ebp  
    movl %esp, %ebp  
    subl $24, %esp  
    movl ($CANARY_ADDR), %eax # Load canary  
    movl %eax, -4(%ebp)       # Save on stack  
  
    ...  
  
    movl -4(%ebp), %eax       # Load stack value  
    cmpl %eax, ($CANARY_ADDR) # Compare to canary and...  
    jne canary_failed        # ... crash if not equal  
    movl %ebp, %esp  
    popl %ebp  
    ret
```





Stack Canaries: Efficiency

- Compiler inserts a few extra instructions at start and end of each function to set/check the canary, so there is more overhead
- In almost all applications, the performance impact is insignificant



Shadow Stack

- How it works
 - A second CPU-protected stack holds only return addresses
 - Call pushes the return address to both stacks; ret makes the CPU compare them
 - Mismatch: #CP (control-protection) fault



Shadow Stack

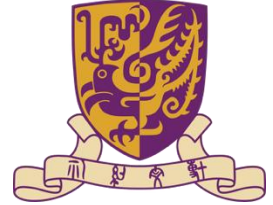
- How it stops our attack
 - The overflow rewrites the normal saved return address – it cannot reach the shadow stack
 - On ret, tampered value != saved shadow copy -> hijack detected
- vs canary: a canary is a tripwire that can be leaked; the shadow stack enforces integrity in hardware, no secret needed.

Mitigation: Address Space Layout Randomization (ASLR)

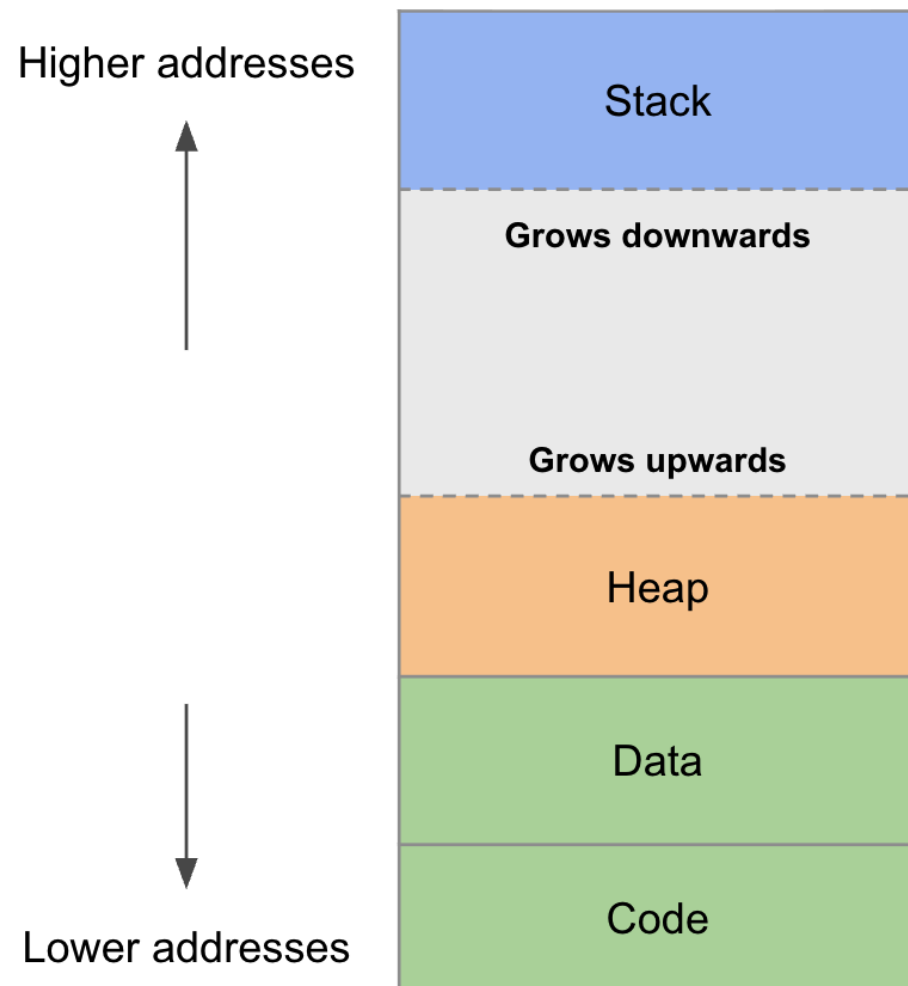


Recall: Putting Together an Attack

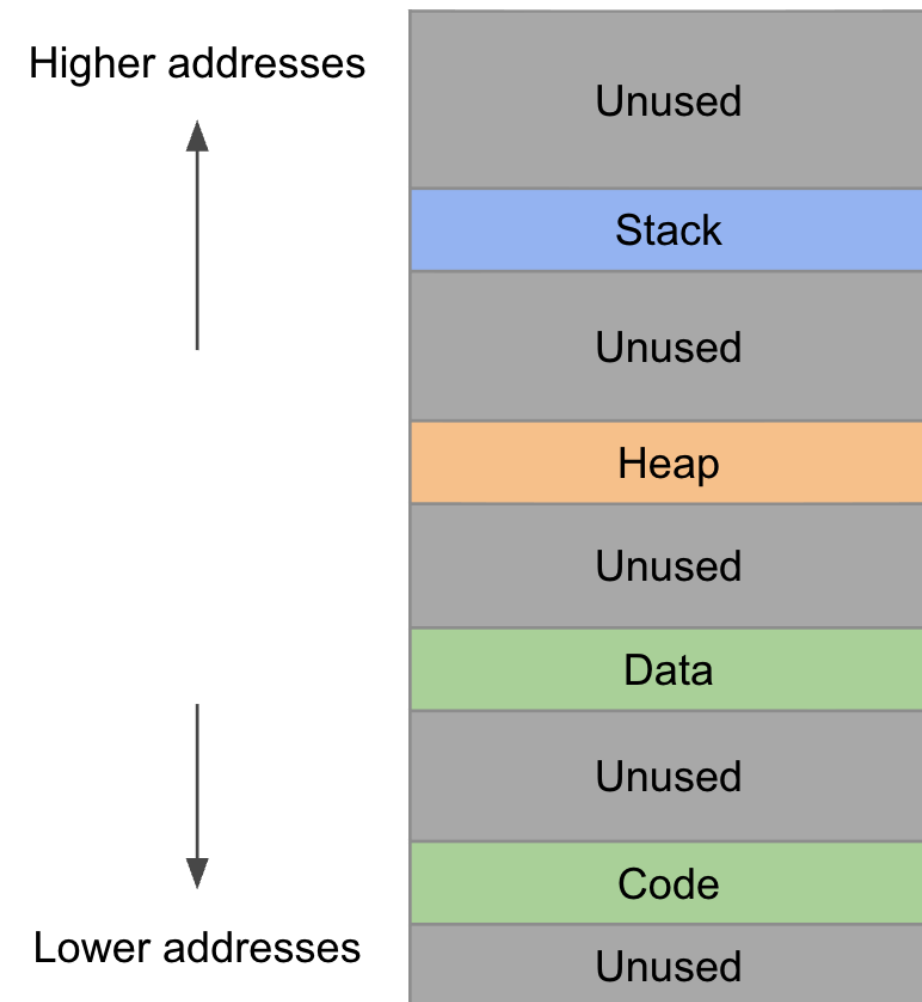
- Find a memory safety (e.g. buffer overflow) vulnerability
- **Write malicious shellcode at a known memory address**
 - Mitigation: Address-space layout randomization
- **Overwrite the RIP with the address of the shellcode**
- Return from the function
- **Begin executing malicious shellcode**
- We can defend against memory safety vulnerabilities by making each of these steps more difficult (or impossible)!



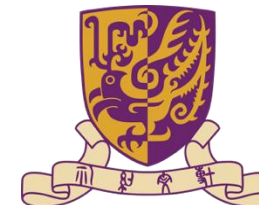
Recall: x86 Memory Layout



In theory, x86 memory layout looks like this...



...but in practice, it usually looks like this (mostly empty)!

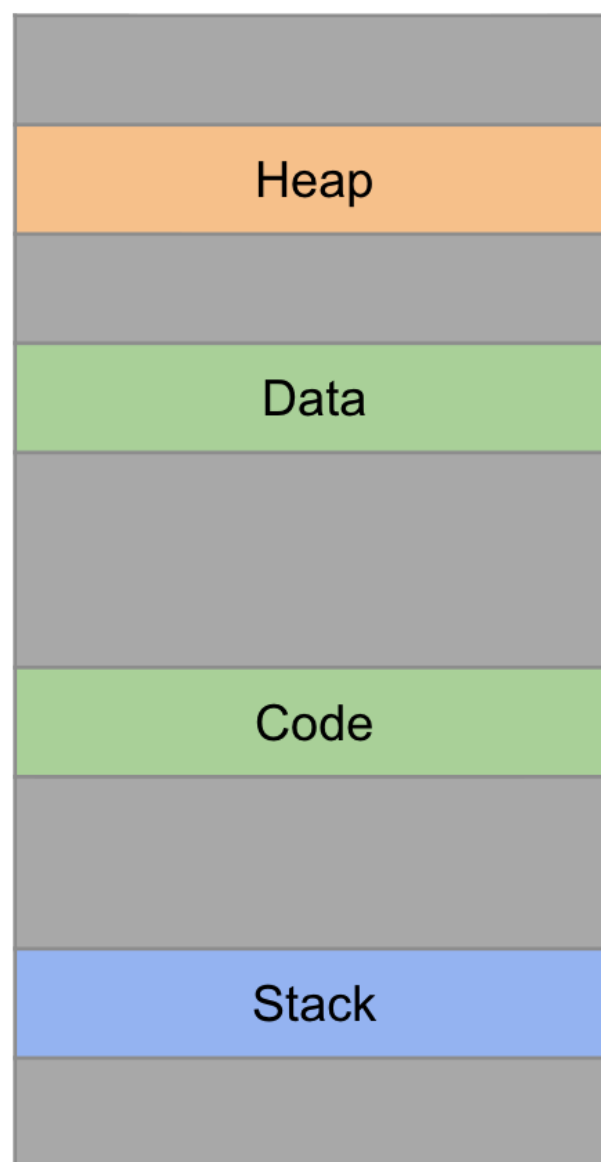


Recall: x86 Memory Layout

Higher addresses



Lower addresses



Idea: Put each segment of memory in a different location each time the program is run



Address Space Layout Randomization

- **Address space layout randomization (ASLR):** Put each segment of memory in a different, random location each time the program is run
 - The attacker can't know where their shellcode will be because its address changes every time you run the program

Address Space Layout Randomization



- ASLR can shuffle all four segments of memory
 - Randomize the stack: Can't place shellcode on the stack without knowing the address of the stack
 - Randomize the heap: Can't place shellcode on the heap without knowing the address of the heap
 - Randomize the code: Can't construct a ROP chain or return-to-libc attack without knowing the address of code
 - Within each segment of memory, relative addresses are the same (e.g. the RIP is always 4 bytes above the SFP)



ASLR: Efficiency

- ASLR has very low performance overhead
 - Programs are dynamically linked at runtime
 - We already have to do the work of going through the executable and rewriting code to contain known addresses before executing it, so not much extra cost to ASLR



Subverting ASLR

- Force the program to **reveal the address of a pointer**, whose address relative to your shellcode is known
 - Relative addresses are usually fixed, so this is sufficient to undo randomization!
 - Leak a stack pointer: Leak the location of the stack
 - Leak an RIP: Leak the location of the caller



Subverting ASLR

- Guess the address of your shellcode: Brute-force
 - Randomization usually happens on page boundaries (usually 12 bits for 4 KiB pages)
 - 32-bit: $32 - 12 = 20$ bits, 2^{20} possible pages, which is feasibly brute-forced
 - 64-bit (usually 48-bit addressing): $48 - 12 = 36$ bits, 2^{36} possible pages

Combining Mitigations



Combining Mitigations

- Recall: We can use multiple mitigations together
 - Synergistic protection: one mitigation helps strengthen another mitigation
 - Force the attacker to find multiple vulnerabilities to exploit the program
 - Defense in depth



Combining Mitigations

- Example: Combining ASLR and non-executable pages
 - An attacker can't write their own shellcode, because of non-executable pages
 - An attacker can't use existing code in memory, because they don't know the addresses of those code (ASLR)



Combining Mitigations

- To defeat *ASLR and* non-executable pages, the attacker needs to find two vulnerabilities
 - First, find a way to leak memory and reveal the address randomization (defeat ASLR)
 - Second, find a way to write to memory and write a ROP chain (defeat non-executable pages)



Enabling Mitigations

- Many mitigations (stack canaries, non-executable pages, ASLR) are nearly free today (insignificant performance impact)
- The programmer sometimes has to manually enable mitigations
 - Example: Enable ASLR and non-executable pages when running a program
 - Example: Setting a flag to compile a program with stack canaries



Enabling Mitigations

- If the default is that the mitigation is disabled, many programs won't change the default
 - Recall: Consider human factors!
 - Recall: Use fail-safe defaults!



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Memory-safe languages
 - Using a memory-safe language (e.g. Python, Java) stops all memory safety vulnerabilities.
- Why use a non-memory-safe language?
 - Commonly-cited reason, but mostly a myth: Performance
 - Real reason: Legacy, existing code



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Writing memory-safe code
 - Carefully write and reason about your code to ensure memory safety in a non-memory-safe language
 - Requires programmer discipline, and can be tedious sometimes



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Building secure software
 - Use tools for analyzing and patching insecure code
 - Test your code for memory safety vulnerabilities
 - Fuzz testing
 - Keep any external libraries updated for security patches



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Mitigation: **Non-executable pages**
 - Make portions of memory either executable or writable, but not both
 - Defeats attacker writing shellcode to memory and executing it
 - Subversions
 - **Return-to-libc**: Execute an existing function in the C library
 - **Return-oriented programming (ROP)**: Create your own code by chaining together small gadgets in existing library code (**Did not discuss in the lecture**)



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Mitigation: **Stack canaries**
 - Add a sacrificial value on the stack. If the canary has been changed, someone's probably attacking our system
 - Defeats attacker overwriting the RIP with address of shellcode
 - Subversions
 - An attacker can write around the canary
 - The canary can be leaked by another vulnerability (e.g. format string vulnerability)
 - The canary can be brute-forced by the attacker



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Mitigation: **Address space layout randomization (ASLR)**
 - Put each segment of memory in a different location each time the program is run
 - Defeats attacker knowing the address of shellcode
 - Subversions
 - Leak addresses with another vulnerability
 - Brute-force attack to guess the addresses



Summary: Memory Safety Mitigations

- Combining mitigations
 - Using multiple mitigations usually forces the attacker to find multiple vulnerabilities to exploit the program (defense-in-depth)



One warm-up, two bugs

a length check that passes does not make the code safe

```
void func(int len, char *data) {  
    char buf[64];  
    if (len > 64) ① signed guard  
        return;  
    memcpy(buf, data, len); ② raw copy, no '\0'  
}
```

① Negative len → write overflow

len = -1 (int)

len > 64 → false
X check is bypassed

memcpy needs size_t:
-1 → 0xFFFF...FFFF
≈ 1.8×10¹⁹ bytes

everything above
buf destroyed

caller frame ...

return addr

saved ebp

buf[64]

OOB
WRITE

Huge copy smashes the stack → crash / hijack

② len = 64 → buf not NUL-terminated

len = 64 ✓ passes (64 = 64)

memcpy copies 64 bytes —
no '\0' is appended

later: strlen(buf)
printf("%s", buf)

reads until a
random 0x00 byte

...stack bytes...

return addr ← leaked

saved ebp

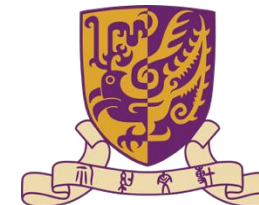
buf[64]

full 64/64 · no '\0'

OOB
READ

Reads past buf → leaks canary / ret addr / crash

A length check that passes ≠ a safe, valid string — validate the type & sign, and NUL-terminate explicitly.



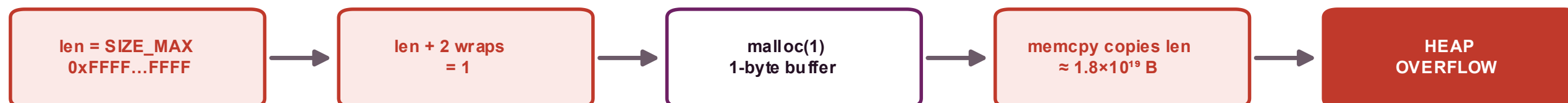
Unsigned wraparound in the allocation size

the buffer shrinks, but the copy is still full-size

```
void func(size_t len, char *data) {  
    char *buf = malloc(len + 2);  
    if (buf == NULL) return;  
    memcpy(buf, data, len);  
    buf[len] = '\\n';  
    buf[len + 1] = '\\0';  
}
```

① size can wrap

② full-size copy



Why len + 2 becomes 1

0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF SIZE_MAX
+ 2

1 0000000000000001
▼
carry out of 64 bits discarded (mod 2⁶⁴)

0x0000000000000001 = 1
a tiny number — malloc allocates almost nothing

1-byte buffer, full-size copy



Untrusted len in malloc(len + k): the sum can wrap → tiny allocation, full-size copy → overflow. Fix: if (len > SIZE_MAX - 2) return;