

## Defensive Programming

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## Reasoning About Code

- Functions make certain assumptions about their arguments
  - Caller must make sure assumptions are valid
  - These are often called *preconditions*
- Precondition for  $f()$  is an assertion (a logical proposition) that must hold at input to  $f()$ 
  - Function  $f()$  must behave correctly if its preconditions are met
  - If any precondition is not met, all bets are off
- Caller must call  $f()$  such that preconditions true – an obligation on the caller, and callee may freely assume obligation has been met

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## Simple Precondition Example

- ```
int deref(int *p) {  
    return *p;  
}
```
- Unsafe to dereference a null pointer
  - Impose precondition that caller of `deref()` must meet:  $p \neq \text{NULL}$  holds at entrance to `deref()`
- If all callers ensure this precondition, it will be safe to call `deref()`
- Can combine assertions using logical connectives (and, or, implication)
  - Also existentially and universally quantified logical formulas

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## Another Example

- ```
int sum(int *a[], size_t n) {  
    int total = 0, i;  
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)  
        total += *a[i];  
    return total;  
}
```
- **Precondition:**
  - Forall  $j. (0 \leq j < n) \rightarrow a[j] \neq \text{NULL}$
  - If you're comfortable with formal logic, write your assertions this way for precision
- **Not necessary to be so formal**
  - Goal is to think explicitly about assumptions and communicate requirements to others

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## Postconditions

- **Postcondition** for  $f()$  is an assertion that holds when  $f()$  returns
  - $f()$  has obligation of ensuring condition is true when it returns
  - Caller may assume postcondition has been established by  $f()$
- **Example:**
- ```
/* Ensures: retval != NULL */  
void *mymalloc(size_t n) {  
    void *p = malloc(n);  
    if (!p) {  
        perror("Out of memory");  
        exit(1);  
    }  
    return p;  
}
```

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## Process for Writing Function Code

- **First write down its preconditions and postconditions**
  - Specifies what obligations caller has and what caller is entitled to rely upon
- **Verify that, no matter how function is called, if precondition is met at function's entrance, then postcondition is guaranteed to hold upon function's return**
  - Must prove that this is true for all inputs
  - Otherwise, you've found a bug in either specification (preconditions/postconditions) or implementation (function code)

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## Proving Precondition→Postcondition

- **Basic idea:**
  - Write down a precondition and postcondition for every line of code
  - Apply same sort of reasoning as for function
- **Requirement:**
  - Each statement's postcondition must match (imply) precondition of any following statement
  - At every point between two statements, write down *invariant* that must be true at that point
    - » Invariant is postcondition for preceding statement, and precondition for next one

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## Example

- Easy to tell if an isolated statement fits its pre- and post-conditions
- Valid postcondition for “ $v=0$  ;” is  $v=0$  (no matter what the precondition is)
  - Or, if precondition for “ $v=v+1$  ;” is  $v \geq 5$ , then a valid postcondition is  $v \geq 6$
- If precondition for “ $v=v+1$  ;” is  $w \leq 100$ , then a valid postcondition is  $w \leq 100$ 
  - Assuming  $v$  and  $w$  do not alias

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## Loop Invariant

- An assertion that is true at entrance to the loop, on any path through the code
  - Must be true before every loop iteration
    - » Both a pre- and post-condition for the loop body
- **Example: Factorial function code**

```
/* Requires: n >= 1 */
int fact(int n) {
    int i, t;
    i = 1;
    t = 1;
    while (i <= n) {
        t *= i;
        i++;
    }
    return t;
}
```

  - Prerequisite: input must be at least 1 for correctness
  - Prove: value of `fact()` is always positive

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## Verifying Invariant Correctness

- `/* Requires: n >= 1  
Ensures: retval >= 0 */`  
`int fact(int n) {`  
    `int i, t;`                   `/* n>=1 */`  
    `i = 1;`                   `/* n>=1 && i==1 */`  
    `t = 1;`                   `/* n>=1 && i==1 && t==1 */`  
    `while (i <= n) {`  
        `/* 1<=i && i<=n && t>=1 <-- loop invariant */`  
        `t *= i;`               `/* 1<=i && i<=n && t>=1 */`  
        `i++;`                 `/* 2<=i && i<=n+1 && t>=1 */`  
    `return t;`  
}
- Easy if we examine each step:
  - Function's precondition implies invariant at function body start
  - Invariant at end of function body implies function's postcondition
  - If each statement matches invariant immediately before and after it, everything's OK
- That leaves the loop invariant...

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## Verifying the Loop Invariant

- Loop invariant:  $1 \leq i \leq n \wedge t \geq 1$
- Prove it is true at start of first loop iteration
  - Follows from:
    - »  $n \geq 1 \wedge i = 1 \wedge t = 1 \rightarrow 1 \leq i \leq n \wedge t \geq 1$
    - » if  $i = 1$ , then certainly  $i \geq 1$
- Prove that if it holds at start of any loop iteration, then it holds at start of next iteration (if there's one)
  - True, since invariant at end of loop body  $2 \leq i \leq n+1 \wedge t \geq 1$  and loop termination condition  $i \leq n$  implies invariant at start of loop body  $1 \leq i \leq n \wedge t \geq 1$
- Follows by induction on number of iterations that loop invariant is always true on entrance to loop body
  - Thus, `fact()` will always make postcondition true, as precondition is established by its caller

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## Another Example: Recursion

- `/* Requires: n >= 1 */`  
`int fact(int n) {`  
    `int t;`  
    `if (n == 1)`  
        `return 1;`  
    `t = fact(n-1);`  
    `t *= n;`  
    `return t;`  
}
- Do you see how to prove that this code always outputs a positive integer?

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## Analysis

- `/* Requires:  $n \geq 1$   
Ensures:  $\text{retval} \geq 0$  */`  
`int fact(int n) {`  
    `int t;`  
    `if (n == 1)`  
        `return 1;`  
    `t = fact(n-1);`  
    `t *= n;`  
    `return t;`  
}
- Before recursive call to `fact()`, we know:
  - $n \geq 1$  (by precondition),  $n \neq 1$  (since if stmt didn't follow then branch), and  $n$  is an integer
  - Follows that  $n \geq 2$ , or  $n-1 \geq 1$  (means precondition is met when making recursive call)
- Can conclude that `fact(n-1)` return value is positive from postcondition for `fact()`

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## Function Post-/Pre-Conditions

- Any time we see a function call, we have to verify that its precondition will be met
  - Then we can conclude its postcondition holds and use this fact in our reasoning
- Annotating every function with pre- and post-conditions enables *modular reasoning*
  - Can verify function `f()` by looking only its code and the annotations on every function `f()` calls
    - » Can ignore code of all other functions and functions called transitively
  - Makes reasoning about `f()` an almost purely local activity

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## Documentation

- Pre-/post-conditions serve as useful documentation
  - To invoke Bob's code, Alice only has to look at pre- and post-conditions – she doesn't need to look at or understand his code
- Useful way to coordinate activity between multiple programmers:
  - Each module assigned to one programmer, and pre-/post-conditions are a contract between caller and callee
  - Alice and Bob can negotiate the interface (and responsibilities) between their code at design time

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## Avoiding Security Holes

- To avoid security holes (or program crashes)
  - Some implicit requirements code must meet
    - » Must not divide by zero, make out-of-bounds memory accesses, or dereference null ptrs, ...
- We can try to prove that code meets these requirements using same style of reasoning
  - Ex: when a pointer is dereferenced, there is an implicit precondition that pointer is non-null and in-bounds

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## Proving Array Accesses are in-bounds

- ```
/* Requires: a != NULL and a[] holds n elements */
int sum(int a[], size_t n) {
    int total = 0, i;
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
        /* Loop invariant: 0 <= i < n */
        total += a[i];
    return total;
}
```
- Loop invariant true at entrance to first iteration
  - First iteration ensures  $i=0$
- It is true at entrance to subsequent iterations
  - Loop termination condition ensures  $i < n$ , and  $i$  only increases
- So array access  $a[i]$  is within bounds

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## Buffer Overruns

- Proving absence of buffer overruns might be much more difficult
  - Depends on how code is structured
- Instead of structuring your code so that it is hard to provide a proof of no buffer overruns, restructure it to make absence of buffer overruns more evident
- Lots of research into automated theorem provers to try to mathematically prove validity of alleged pre-/post-conditions
  - Or to help infer such invariants

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## Pre-/Post-Condition Summary

- Looks tedious, but gets easier over time
  - With practice you can avoid writing down detailed invariants before every statement
    - » Think about data structures and code in terms of invariants first, then write the code
  - Usually can avoid formal notation, omit obvious parts, and only write down important ones
    - » Usually writing down pre-/post-conditions and loop invariant for every loop is enough
- Reasoning about code takes time and energy
  - Worth it for highly secure code

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## Defensive Programming

- Like defensive driving, but for code:
  - Avoid depending on others, so that if they do something unexpected, you won't crash – survive unexpected behavior
- Software engineering focuses on functionality:
  - Given correct inputs, code produces useful/correct outputs
- Security cares about what happens when program is given invalid or unexpected inputs:
  - Shouldn't crash, cause undesirable side-effects, or produce dangerous outputs for bad inputs
- Defensive programming
  - Apply idea at every interface or security perimeter
    - » So each module remains robust even if all others misbehave
- General strategy
  - Assume attacker controls module's inputs, make sure nothing terrible happens

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## Defensive Programming

- Write module *M* to provide functionality to a single client
  - *M* should provide useful responses if client provides valid inputs
  - If client provides an invalid input, then *M* is no longer under any obligation to provide useful output
    - » *M* must still protect itself (and rest of system) from being subverted by malicious inputs

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### Very Simple Example

- ```
char charAt(char *str, int index) {  
    return str[index];  
}
```
- **Function is too fragile!**
  - `charAt(NULL, any)` will cause a crash
  - `charAt(s, i)` causes a buffer overrun if `i` is out-of-bounds (too small or large) for `s`
- **Neither can be easily fixed without changing function's interface**

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### Another Simple Example with Many Flaws

- ```
char *double(char *str) {  
    size_t len = strlen(str);  
    char *p = malloc(2*len+1);  
    strcpy(p, str);  
    strcpy(p+len, str);  
    return p;  
}
```
- `double(NULL)` will cause a crash
  - Fix: test if `str` is a null ptr, and if so, return `NULL`
- **Return value of `malloc()` is not checked**
  - If out-of-memory, `malloc()` will return null ptr and call to `strcpy()` will cause program crash
  - Fix: test return value of `malloc()`
- If `str` is very long, then expression `2*len+1` will overflow, potentially causing a buffer overrun
  - $2^{31}$  byte input `str` on 32-bit machine will have 1 byte allocated, and `strcpy` will immediately trigger a heap overrun

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### Trickier Example: Java Sort Routine

- **Accepts array of objects that implements Comparable interface and sorts them**
  - Each object implements `compareTo()` method, and `x.compareTo(y)` must return a negative, zero, or positive integer, depending on whether `x` is less than, equal to, or greater than `y`
- **Implementing a defensive sort routine is actually fairly tricky, because a malicious client could supply objects whose `compareTo()` method behaves unexpectedly**
  - Calling `x.compareTo(y)` twice might yield two different results (if `x` or `y` are malicious)
  - Or, consider: `x.compareTo(y) == 1, y.compareTo(z) == 1, and z.compareTo(x) == 1`
- **Sort routine might go into an infinite loop or worse**

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## Some General Advice

- **1. Check for error conditions**
  - Always check return values of all calls (assuming this is how they indicate errors)
  - In languages with exceptions, can locally handle it or propagate (expose) to caller
  - Check error paths very carefully
    - » Often poorly tested, so they often contain memory leaks and other bugs
- **What if you detect an error condition?**
  - For expected errors, try to recover
  - Harder to recover from unexpected errors
  - Always safe to abort processing and terminate if an error condition is signaled (*fail-stop* behavior)

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## Some General Advice

- **2. Validate All Inputs**
  - Sanity-check all inputs from rest of program
  - Treat external inputs (could be from adversary) with particular caution
  - Be conservative
    - » Better to limit inputs to expected values (might cause some loss of functionality) than to liberally allow all (might permit unexpected security holes)

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## What's Wrong with this Code?

- ```
char *username = getenv("USER");
char *buf = malloc(strlen(username)+6);
sprintf(buf, "mail %s", username);
FILE *f = popen(buf, "r");
fprintf(f, "Hi.\n");
fclose(f);
```
- **Answer:** If attacker controls `USER` environment variable, then could arrange for its value to be something like `"adj; /bin/rm -rf $HOME"`
  - `popen()` passes its input to shell for execution, and shell will execute command `"mail adj"` followed by `"/bin/rm -rf $HOME"`
- **Solution:** validate that username looks reasonable
  - If attacker can control other env vars (e.g., `PATH`), then could cause wrong `mail` command to be invoked → have to validate whole environment!

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### Advice: 3. *Whitelist, Don't Blacklist*

- **Common mistake:**
  - When validating input from an untrusted source, trying to enumerate bad inputs and block them
  - Don't do that! Why?
  - Known as *blacklisting* (analogous to default-allow policy)
  - Can overlook some patterns of dangerous inputs
- **Instead, use *whitelist* of known-good types of inputs, and block anything else**
  - Default-deny policy (much safer)

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### Whitelisting Example

- **Check a username using a regular expression:**
  - `[a-z][a-z0-9]*`
  - ```
char *validate_username(char *u) {
    char *p;
    if (!u || *u < 'a' || *u > 'z')
        die();
    for (p=u+1; *p; p++)
        if ((*p < '0' || *p > '9') &&
            (*p < 'a' || *p > 'z'))
            die();
    return u;
}
```
- **Use with appropriate error-checking before using a user-supplied username**

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### More Advice

- **4. *Don't crash or enter infinite loops, Don't corrupt memory***
  - Regardless of received inputs – NO abnormal termination, infinite loops, internal state corruption, control flow hijacks
  - Explicitly validate all inputs and avoid memory leaks
  - Defend against DoS attacks:
    - » Attacker supplies inputs that lead to worst-case performance (hashtable with O(1) expected, but O(n) worst case lookup)

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### More Advice

- **5. Beware of integer overflow**
  - Integer overflow often violates programmer's mental model and leads to unexpected (undesired) behavior
- **6. Check exception-safety of the code**
  - Explicitly (programmer) thrown and implicitly (platform) thrown exceptions
  - Verify that your code doesn't throw runtime exceptions (null ptr deref, div 0,...)
  - Less restrictively, check that all such exceptions are handled and will propagate across module boundaries

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### Famous Example: Ariane 5

- **Ariane 4 flight control sw written in Ada**
  - Same software reused for more powerful Ariane 5
- **Ariane 5 blew up shortly after first launch**
  - Cause: uncaught integer overflow exception caused software to terminate abruptly...
- **16-bit reg: flight trajectory's horizontal velocity**
  - Ariane 4 – verified range of physically possible flight trajectories could not overflow variable, so no need for exception handler...
- **Ariane 5's rocket engine was more powerful, causing larger horizontal velocity to be stored into register triggering overflow...**
  - Losses of around \$500 million

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