Control Flow Confinement: An Empirical Prospect

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Abstract: Dictating program control-flow transfers to be within a reference control-flow graph (CFG) can make a sound software protection. Control flow confinement (CFC) is to ensure the program execution to follow the reference of a control flow graph (CFG) obtained via profiled execution traces with various input data sets. CFC allows only the tested and expected control flows in program execution. This paper gauges the prospect of the CFC in practice by investigating how many unique control flow transfer instances there are in the execution profiles of various applications including popular server programs and embedded routines. The profiled execution traces with various input data sets show that the number of unique control flow transfer instances are surprisingly low, which suggest that confining the program control flow within the set of the unique control flow transfers is feasible in practice. With the CFC, software behavior would be within the expected behavior space, avoiding unexpected mis-behavior, which leads to more dependable and secure environment for IoT (Internet of Things) and CPS (Cyber Physical System).

Key-Words: Cyber Physical Systems, Dependability, Internet of Things, Software Security

1 Introduction
Program control flow described in the program dictates its behavior. To have the software behavior dependable and trustworthy, it is critical to secure the program control flow data. Software faults and attacks cause unwanted control flow transfers in program execution. Confining program control flow to ensure that the program execution follows the tested and validated control flow transfers makes a sound principle for developing dependable and trustworthy system. Its premise is that an unexpected control transfer is not allowed to warrant the software behavior to be as expected. Considering the emerging popularity of Internet of Things (IoT) and Cyber Physical Systems (CPS), it is of a paramount importance to have the systems and devices behave as expected in the design.

Control flow confinement (CFC), ensuring the program execution to follow the reference of a control flow graph (CFG) obtained via profiled execution traces with various input data sets, can make a powerful basis for developing software protection. Unlike the control flow integrity (CFI) that is based only on the CFG generated statically [1], CFC is based on only the tested and expected control flows in program execution. The static CFG is bound to be conservative, leaving a room for unintended control transfers included in the CFG, and not able to handle dynamically linked functions properly. Also, the implicit nature of the control flows adds ambiguity to the static CFG.

This paper studies the characteristics of the program control flow data that define control flow transfer instances. One particular question is how many unique control flow transfer instances are in the program execution. To represent a program control flow, one needs the source and the destination, preferably also the path to reach the source, of each control flow transfer instance. Since they together represent each control transfer instance uniquely, it can be considered a program behavior signature. If the number of the unique control flow transfer instances is modest in real programs, CFC can make a desirable software protection in practice.

The experimental results reported in this paper are from the complete running of real and full-scale applications under a live operating system. Bochs [2], a full-system Intel Pentium emulator, was used for our profiling study. All the programs were compiled and targeted to dynamically linked x86 binaries, and ran under Redhat Linux OS over Bochs. The Linux kernel was modified, so that the hardware emulator became aware of process information. All the instructions from the same application image, not just one “representative” process/thread, were profiled. Therefore, more
accurate and complete control flow information were collected, even for the multi-threaded applications. The behavior of the dynamically linked library code were observed as well.

Our experiments were with the four popular server programs – apache, sshd, ftpd, and telnetd, along with the four embedded routines – rawc, dither, djiks, and toast from the MiBench [16]. We executed each program with various input data sets and also for daily use to cover diverse execution paths in the programs. The results show that the number of the unique control flow transfer instances are surprisingly low.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the background and the motivation of our study. Section 3 explains our choice of the objects for representing control flow transfer instances. Section 4 presents the experimental results from the profiling of the server programs and embedded routines, and Section 5 describes the detection of unexpected control flow transfers with CFC along with its limits and effectiveness. Section 6 presents the conclusion.

2 Background and Motivation
2.1 Control Flow Transfer and Branches
At the machine instruction level, high-level descriptions of control flow transfers are ultimately translated into direct branches and indirect branches for the code binary. The target address of a direct branch is wired in the instruction bits, and points to a single location. The direction of direct branches may be compromised, but the target address cannot be changed. Conversely, an indirect branch reads its target from a memory location or a register. Such target addresses are generated dynamically at runtime. With the contents of the register for indirect branches originated from the memory, an attacker can manage to compromise the control data in memory for the target addresses, by exploiting program’s vulnerabilities such as buffer overflow. For example, the target could be replaced with a foreign code previously injected or an impossible target address, not following the legitimate execution paths.

Most common indirect branches, in terms of frequency, are the return instructions that read the target addresses saved in the stack. The target of a return is always in the runtime stack, and the location of the target is known before the return instruction uses it. This makes the return target the most exploited one in software attacks. Many solutions were proposed to protect the return address: from a separate protected copy of the runtime stack, so called “shadow stack”, in software [13] or hardware [18], to either guard the return address location [9], or encrypt/hide the return address value [17], [23]. However, fewer works have been undertaken on indirect calls and indirect jumps, called non-return indirect branches in this paper. The major sources of the non-return indirect branches are the uses of function pointers, operations on jump tables in high-level language, non-local jump for library calls, and virtual function mechanisms. An indirect branch, either a return or a non-return indirect branch, provides a desirable point for validating the program control flow.

2.2 Validating Control Flow
The CFGs adopted in the existing control flow validation schemes for software protection have three issues we are concerned about: (1). They are from a static analysis, having rooms for unintended control flows included in the CFG due to the conservative nature of the static analysis; (2). They are for software based control flow transfer validation, incurring a significant performance overhead.; (3). They convey little context information for a particular control transfer instance, allowing the attackers to mount an attack with the legitimate control transfers per the CFG. To alleviate the issues, CFC is based on the CFG in terms of control flow information from the testing and pilot run of the program during its development. Unlike the static CFG, the CFC generated from the program execution profiles allows that the CFC warrants the tested and expected program behavior.

3 Representing Control Flow
Various control flow related objects, from the branch target address to the complete execution paths or their combination, can represent each control flow transfer instance at indirect branch instruction level. Depending on the scope of the chosen objects, the protection efficacy and overhead can be different. This section considers the objects for more accurate and precise control flow representation but at the same time for little overhead.

A natural object to validate is the target address or the target program counter value (TPC) of each indirect branch instance. Such a validation can prevent the control flow from jumping to the implanted code and/or impossible target address. However, an unexpected control flow transfer might utilize a legitimate target. For example, performing malicious operations via code reuse attacks such as return-to-libc attacks or return oriented programming can be done with legitimate target
addresses. TPC alone is not sufficient enough to represent each control flow transfer instance.

A more concrete way for representing a control flow transfer is to couple the TPC with its legitimate branch location, i.e., the PC value of the corresponding branch instruction (BPC). As shown in Fig. 1, the pair TPC||BPC can be utilized to detect most control flow compromises including code reuse attacks (CRAs).

Although validating both the branch location and its target address is a popular approach [1], [19], one critical issue is that it samples the program control flow only at isolated program execution points, i.e. at the indirect branches, without considering its context [24]. Consequently, it could miss some elaborate attacks that alter the control flow but still branch from a legitimate indirect branch site to a legitimate target.

To have a context information for a control transfer instance, we include the execution path, besides the indirect branch and its target, into the objects being monitored; only if the pair BPC||TPC of an indirect branch and the execution path that leads to the branch have been validated, is the program allowed to make the control flow transfer.

We define the execution path of an indirect branch as the sequence of direction outcomes of the preceding conditional branches to the indirect branch, and denote it as EP (execution path). The set of the PATs, \( \{ \text{PAT} = (\text{BPC}||\text{TPC}||\text{EP}) \} \), extracted from the program makes up the CFG.

4 Experiments

4.1 Profiling for Control Flow Data

We envision the CFG of the PATs comes as a part of software installation; the software development process generated the CFG of the PATs with various test input data sets. However, without such a provision of providing the CFG in reality, for our work in this paper we have profiled the programs with various input data sets via synthetic input data sets. MiDataSets [14] provides 20 different input data sets that are selected to test most control flow paths in MiBench embedded routines [16]. Four embedded benchmarks from MiBench have been experimented with. To extract the legitimate PATs for the CFG, we had repeated the profiling until the number of PATs of BPC||TPC||EP converges.

We define the number of conditional branch outcomes included in the execution path of an indirect branch as the EP length. A longer EP certainly improves the detection accuracy, and provides a stronger protection, as long as the branch directions captured in the EP are correlated.

However, it comes at the cost of larger storage overhead, as well as slower validation. An excessively long EP may also include unrelated branches, which may provide the opportunity for false positive patterns. Therefore, we must trade the EP length off the overall efficiency. We have profiled the indirect branch’s PC and the target PC (BPC||TPC) as completely as possible, and tested the convergence of PATs with various EP lengths. The goal is to have the “truncated” execution path be as short as possible, while still informative enough to reflect the program behavior accurately. Our study suggests that the EP of a short length would be sufficient.

One complication arises in any scheme for generating CFG is how to handle dynamically linked functions. There can be control flow transfers between the executable and the entry address of a function in dynamic libraries, called executable library jumps. Another type of relevant jumps occurs within the library code, called internal jumps. Previous solutions either limit their validation on the static linked functions [1], [19], or track only the internal jumps within the same library, ignoring the executable library jumps [11]. We address this issue of dynamically linked targets, by seeking help from the linker and loader. A target address for the indirect library call could be resolved with only two values. One is the entrance address of the linker, which is always fixed for a given runtime system. The other is the actual address patched by the linker at runtime, which is always fixed in each run. When constructing a PAT of BPC||TPC||EP for an indirect branch for a library call, the TPC can be initialized as the entrance address of the linker for executable library jumps (e.g. PLT0 in PLT). When the linker
or loader resolves the address at runtime, it patches both the function pointer table (e.g. GOT) for dynamic linking, and the TPC in the corresponding signature. For the internal jumps, we adopt a similar method adopted in [11], [25] to track the offset, rather than the absolute address, for the TPC. Thus, a later compromise of function pointers related to the dynamically linked libraries can be detected.

4.2 Profiling Results

Fig. 2 shows the experimental result of profiling of four embedded benchmarks, rawc, dither, toast, and dijks, from MiBench [16] with the 20 different input datasets from MiDataSets [14]. It shows the number of PATs and its convergence pace, with respect to the EP length from zero (only BPC||TPC) to 15, i.e. up to 15 conditional branches prior to each indirect branch instance.

We also did profiling of popular server programs. The four popular server programs we experimented are apache, ftpd, sshd, and telnetd. The apache server hosted the static html files, several popular large files for download (50MB each), and contained the CGI (common gateway interface) programs in C, perl and php. It had run as a “field” web server for about two weeks, receiving approximately 1500 hits per day. Synthetic input scripts were employed to exercise ftpd, sshd, and telnetd. Fig. 3 shows the profiling results.

The resultant trends have shown that the number of the PATs is modest and limited, and it converges after a reasonable amount of profiling time over different EP lengths. When more than ten branch outcomes are included in EP, the distance between two adjacent curves becomes larger. This probably means that the additional path information is less informative, and is unlikely to be relevant to the indirect branches, as it might add random noise. Moreover, these curves have a greater slope, indicating a slower convergence speed. With the EP length less than 10, the number of PATs, i.e., the number of unique control flow transfer instances, is less than a few thousands, suggesting the control validation of CFC is feasible in practice.

Our experimental results clearly show that the number of PATs does not grow $2^c$ (=the number of conditional branches prior to a control flow transfer instance). The growth of the PATs in our experiments were actually sublinear. In theory, the execution path increases $2^c$. This suggests that the static CFG has in general a room for including the control flow transfers not intended in the program (see Fig. 5).

We also profiled the number of the conditional branches that appear between two consecutively executed indirect branches at run-time to determine the optimized EP length. We measured the accumulative distribution of the number of conditional branches that are dynamically executed between two indirect branches. Fig.4 shows that for ftpd EP length of three covers 80% the cases while EP length of seven covers 90% of the cases. To achieve the same coverage, the lengths should be six and ten for apache, respectively. sshd and telnetd have longer execution path between two consecutively executed indirect branches. For example, with EP length of eight, it can cover about 70% of the cases for sshd. Typically the direct
branches that are closer to the indirect branches are more important since closer branches have more correlations while remoter branch outcomes are less relevant and likely to add random noise to the execution path information. Based on the experiments shown, six to eight might be reasonable EP lengths as they have 60% to 80% coverage over the whole execution paths between any two indirect branches. With an EP length of eight, BPC||TPC||EP has a similar converging speed as the cases with a shorter execution path, while the total number of the signature still remains moderate.

![Fig. 3](image3.png)

**Fig. 3** Convergence of the PATs for server applications. It shows the number of PATs for apache, sshd, ftpd, and telnetd with respect to the number of the indirect branches that have been executed. Each diagram also shows the results with different EP length.

![Fig. 4](image4.png)

**Fig. 4.** Accumulative distribution of the number of conditional branches between two consecutively executed indirect branches, for server applications.

![Fig. 5](image5.png)

**Fig. 5.** The number of unique control transfer instances, i.e., PATs with different EP lengths (4, 6, and 8 bits) for server applications. The number of the PATs grows slowly in sublinear fashion with respect to the EP lengths.

Fig. 5 shows the total number of PATs with different EP lengths from the server applications. Note that the number of the PATs grows slowly with respect to the EP lengths not in exponential rate but in sublinear fashion. One can see the modest figures to check each control flow transfer: with a bit vector representing all the BPC||TPC||EP, CFC can check each control transfer quickly by accessing the bit vector with the index based on the bit pattern of BPC||TPC||EP. Nevertheless, one should note that the EP length is a design option and its value depends not only on the protection scope but also upon the cost one can tolerate to collect and to store the legitimate BPC||TPC||EPs. The protection efficacy does not always improve proportional to the EP lengths.
5 Control Flow Confinement

There have been numerous software and hardware proposals to constrain control flow transfers for secure program execution. Most schemes involve identifying, encrypting, and/or tracking the control data [4], [8], [9], [17], [18]. However, it is not always possible to distinguish and track the interested control data accurately, especially for the non-return indirect branches. Non-control-data attacks [7], [21] to compromise the conditional branch decisions to alter the control flow implicitly without compromising the control data. Also, the code reuse attacks can reinterpret the code binaries in memory and rearrange the sequence of the binaries to perform arbitrary functionality [3], [4], [5], [6], [10], [15], [20], [22].

The CFC scheme per the CFG of the PATs, \{PAT=(BPC\|TPC\|EP)\}, is effective against a wide range of control data compromises. First, it is able to detect the control data attacks that introduce a foreign code in the runtime stack or the heap, because the target addresses (TPC) are checked. Checking the branch location (BPC) prevents an adversary from compromising an indirect branch and redirecting the control flow to the existing code binary as in the code reuse attacks. Including the path information (EP) is a general protection measure to validate the dynamic execution path, based on the correlations among branch instructions, providing context information for a given indirect branch instance. As mentioned in [12], library calls or system calls in many cases are indispensable for an adversary to introduce malicious operations; and a considerable number of realistic run-time systems do invoke library calls through the indirect branches, using a system function pointer table, such as PLT (procedure linkage table) and GOT (global offset table). Thus, checking the execution path before the indirect branches helps to thwart the attacks.

With the EP included for representing each control flow transfer, CFC can detect the non-control data attack compromising the control flow implicitly. Consider the example shown in Fig. 6. It is a non-control data attack to bypass the authentication by compromising the variable “authenticated” that has no direct implication to the control flow [7]: packet_read() at L1 is exploited to overwrite the variable “authenticated” from 0 to 1. So, even with an unauthorized access, i.e., the conditional at L2 is false, the access is granted as authenticated. For the example code, no static CFG can represent the fact that the two conditional branches at L2 and L3 can take the same direction only: if the first conditional at L2 is true then the second conditional at L3 is also true. With the triplet PAT=BPC\|TPC\|EP (with 2-bit or larger EP), the attack will be detected; a legitimate PAT in the CFG cannot have the EP ending with “01” or “10” for the call do_authenticated. Static CFGs fail in this aspect because they convey no context information regarding a specific control transfer instance. Even a recent context sensitive CFI implementation [24] is not able to handle the non-control data attack.

CFI has been considered an effective way of preventing the code reuse attacks (CRAs). However, recent studies show that CRAs can evade the existing CFI schemes [4], [5], [10], [15], [24]. A CRA based on the ROP or its variants will mount the attack by linking the gadgets, each of which is a short consecutive portion of a function residing in memory and ends with an indirect branch instruction. The gadgets are linked via the indirect branch instructions including the calls and returns by compromising their target addresses. The CFI and the CFC both will detect the attack as long as the control transfers linking the gadgets are not in the CFGs.

However, CRAs are possible by exploiting the legitimate branch addresses and their proper corresponding target addresses [8]. Consider the example in Fig. 7: Instead of following the intended control transfer sequence of ①→②→③→④, ROP can generate a loop structure of ①→②→③→②. Note that the control flow transfer from BPC to
TPC₁ following the call A of ③ is a legitimate control flow for the existing CFGs. With each control flow transfer instance represented independently in the CFG, there is no context information to distinguish the returns of ② and ④, and the attack can evade the protection [5], [24].

Most CFG representations we are aware of suffer from the lack of fully accurate context information: for example, how many calls a recursive structure will make is hard, if not impossible, to represent in any form of CFG. Mimicry attack exploits such imprecise context representation [26]. A CRA that utilizes only the control flow transfers legitimate per the CFG but with a different sequence of the transfers from the uncompromised original program can evade the protection. Unless we have a CFG that represents the program control flows accurately and precisely for the whole scope of the program execution, it seems wise to avoid a room for the attacks to evade the protection.

6 Conclusion

Control flow confinement (CFC) ensures that the program execution avoids unexpected control flow transfers, because CFC is based on “dynamic” CFG generated from the execution traces of test input data during program development. Each control transfer instance is defined in terms of the three information pieces, specifically the program counter value for an indirect branch’s instance (BPC), its target address (TPC), and the execution path preceding it (EP). The CFG in terms of the program attribute triplets – PAT=(BPC||TPC||EP) is a fine grain context sensitive CFG with no unintended control flow information included.

Our experiments of the four popular server programs and the embedded programs from the Mibench were with various input data sets to cover most execution scenarios. The experimental results clearly show that the number of the PATs does not grow 2^c (c=the number of conditional branches prior to a control flow transfer instance). In theory, the number of the execution paths increases at the rate of 2^c, and the static CFGs always assume in that way for the sake of conservative flow analysis. This suggests that the static CFGs have in general a room for including the control flow transfers not intended in the program. With the trend of more use of IoT and CPS, it is critical to confine software behavior within the known expected behavior space. Our CFC per the dynamic CFG can warrant software behavior within the tested and proven space. The number of the PATs for the dynamic CFG converges over the executions with the different input data sets and is found to be modest for all the programs experimented, which suggest that the CFC is feasible in practice.
Acknowledgment:
This work was supported in part by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF 2015R1A2A2A01). For any correspondence regarding the paper, contact ghlee@korea.ac.kr.

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