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Learning Objectives

By the end of this module, you should have a better understanding of:



 C++ fundamentals: Variables, functions and basic code constructs



















Welcome to the Programming Section! Every Penetration Tester should have basic programming skills.

In this module, we will cover basic concepts that will help you write code in C++.



You can find all the C++ code samples used on the **Resources** drop-down menu of this module.









Let's start downloading and installing an IDE (Integrated Development Environment) for C++.

We can download Dev-C++ at the following link:

http://sourceforge.net/proje
cts/orwelldevcpp/





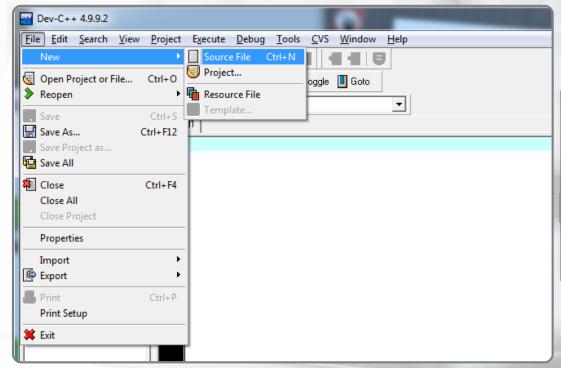






The first step is to create a new file where we will insert our source code.

To do that, click on File>New>Source File.



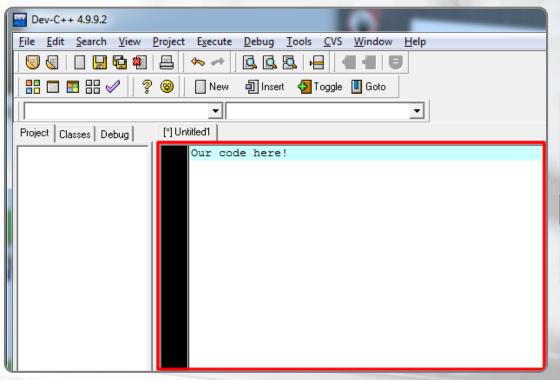








Here we see the main panel where we are going to write our source code.









Dev-C+ is a highly customizable IDE and allows us to configure different settings. Let's now focus on the most important features to compile our first program.

Dev-C++ 4.9.9.2

₩ 🗆 🖪 🔐 🥒

Project Classes Debug

View

Project

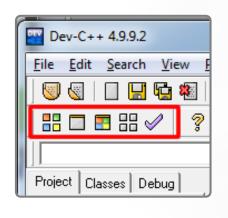
Execute

☐ New

[*] Untitled1



 \Box



- Compiles the source code. If the source code compiles successfully, a .exe file will be created.
- ☐ Allows you to run the program you just compiled.
- Merges the previous two commands; it first compiles your code and then runs it.
- This button allows you to debug your source code.



















In this chapter, you will see what a C++ program looks like.

Furthermore, you will learn how to write, compile and execute your first program: **Hello World!**









Here we see the code of *Hello World*, a super simple program that we will compile to test the configuration of DevC++.

```
// This is my first Program in C++
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
{
    cout << "Hello World!";
    return 0;
}
```

Now, let's go study it line by line.







```
// This is my first program in C++
```

The first line is a **comment**. All the lines starting with double slashes (//) are considered comments and do not have any effect on the program. The compiler will ignore them.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

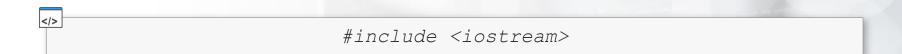
int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```



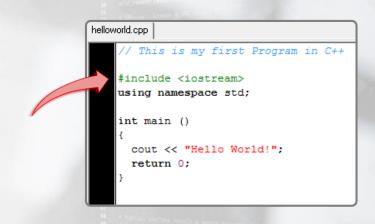








All lines starting with the hash (#) character are **directives**. In this example, it instructs the compiler to include the code of the *iostream* library in our program. The *iostream* library provides input and output functionalities. A **library** is a collection of routines that a program can use.

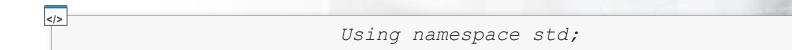












Namespaces are used to group a set of classes, functions etc. under a name. Since all the elements in the standard C++ library (such as iostream) are declared within the standard to access its functionalities.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```











Using namespace std;

Please note the semicolon (;) at the end of the command; this is part of the syntax, and it is called a **terminator**. It tells the compiler that it has reached the end of a command.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```



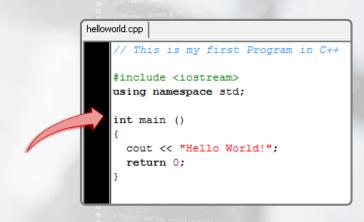






```
int main ()
```

Here is the declaration of the main function of our program. The main function is where our program execution starts. In other words, wherever the main function is declared in our source code, it will be the first code to be executed.









```
{
    instructions here
}
```

The two curly brackets '{}' contain the **body** of the main function. The brackets determine where the main function code starts and ends.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```









```
cout << "Hello World!";
```

cout is the name of the standard output. Most of the time, the standard output is the console. The **cout** << statement tells the compiler to put a sequence of characters, 'Hello World!' in our example, onto the standard output stream (the console). In other words, it prints the string 'Hello World!' on the screen.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```











This last statement causes the main function to end. As we will see later in the function section, the **return** statement can have different values. In our case the value is '0', and it means that the program has completed its execution without any errors.

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   return 0;
}
```

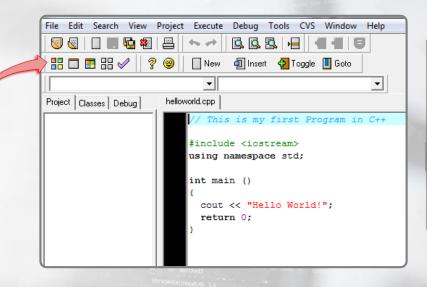








Now that we have written our first program let's try to **compile** it and see what happens. To do that, we will use the button (\bigoplus) shown before. So now we can start!

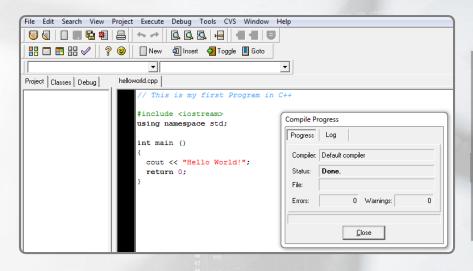








If the program is successfully compiled we should see a window like the following; this window tells us that the compiler is done and that no errors or warnings were generated.

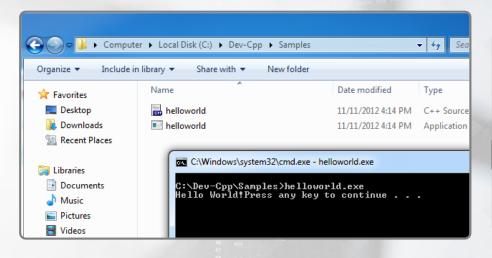








A new file named "helloworld.exe" has been created in the same directory of our source code. Now, we can open a CMD prompt and run it!











We can also use the Dev-C++ button to run our compiled program.

Please note that a program terminates as soon as it completes its operations; this means that running our program will open a terminal window for less than a second.









In order to avoid the console closing automatically, we can use different commands.

For example, insert one of the two following commands right before the "return 0;" statement and then compile and run (■) the program within Dev-C++:

- system("PAUSE");
- cin.ignore();









You should now be able to run the program and see the console output.

```
helloworldcpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
   cout << "Hello World!";
   cin.ignore();

return 0;
}

C:\Dev-Cpp\helloworld.exe
Hello World!_
```

```
helloworld.cpp

// This is my first Program in C++

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    cout << "Hello World!";
    system("PAUSE");

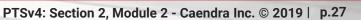
return 0;
}

C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\helloworld.exe
Hello World!Press any key to continue . . . _</pre>
```

















Now that we are more confident about the IDE, let's see how we can define variables with different types.









The "Hello World" example was very simple.

Variables are portions of memory where values are stored. Each variable is recognizable by a human (the programmer) through a symbolic name (or identifier). In other words, this identifier is the way we can reference the stored value.







Since we are going to store these values in the computer's memory, we have to specify the type of data we are going to store in it. For this reason, when we declare a new variable, we have to define its **type**.

Now, let's look at some examples to clarify these concepts.









```
variables_types.cpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    // Declaration of variables
    int a = 0;
    int b = 2;
    int sum = a + b;

    cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

    a = 3;

    sum = a + b;

    cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

In this example, we declared three variables (a, b, sum) and then we changed their values. The program prints the sum of the variables a and b.

The first time we print the value of **sum** (through *cout*), it is 2, while the second time it is 5. This happens because we change the value of the variable **a** during the execution of the program.







```
variables_types.cpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{

// Declaration of variables
int a = 0;
int b = 2;
int sum = a + b;

cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

a = 3;

sum = a + b;

cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

cin.ignore();
return 0;
}</pre>
```

Here we declare the three variables, and we assign a value to each of them.

As you can see in the code, each variable has its type, which is an integer (*int*) in our case. We can also declare and assign the value in the same line.







```
variables types.cpp
    include <iostream>
    using namespace std;
    int main ()
      Declaration of variables
      int b = 2:
      int sum = a + b;
      cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl
      a = 3:
      sum = a + b;
      cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;
      cin.ignore();
      return 0:
```

This line prints the value of the sum variable. In this case, it prints the following string:

"The value of variable sum is: 2"









```
variables types.cpp
    include <iostream>
    using namespace std;
    int main ()
      Declaration of variables
      int b = 2:
      int sum = a + b;
      cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;
      a = 3:
      sum = a + b;
      cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl:
      cin.ignore();
      return 0:
```

Here we assign a new value to the variable a.

The previous value (0) is overwritten with the new one (3).









```
variables_types.cpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    // Declaration of variables
    int a = 0;
    int b = 2;
    int sum = a + b;

    cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

    a = 3;

sum = a + b;

cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;

cin.ignore();
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

We assign a new value to the variable sum.

Since the value of the variable a is changed, the value of the sum is now 5 (3+2).









There are many different data types we can use.

Here is a short list.

short short int	Short integer (2 bytes)
int	Integer (4 bytes)
long long int	Long integer (4 bytes)
bool	Boolean (1 byte)
float	Floating point number (4 bytes)
double	Double precision floating point number (8 bytes)
char	Character (1 byte)









Before we see the **Iteration and Conditional Structures** section, there is one last thing you need to know!

Each variable we are going to use must be declared somewhere in the source code. Depending on the position where it is declared it has a different scope: **global** or **local**. We'll now explain this concept with an example.







A **global** variable is declared in the body of the source code (it is not in a function) and can be referred from anywhere.

In the first instruction in the main function, we can print the value of

the variable named **global_variable** and the output is "Value of global_variable: 4".









```
globalcpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// Declaration of global variables
int global_variable = 4;
int main ()
{
    cout << "Value of global_variable: " << global_variable << endl;

// Declaration of local variables

int global_variable = 2;

cout << "Value of global_variable: " << global_variable << endl;

cin.ignore();
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

Local variables are variables declared inside a function body or block enclosed in curly brackets "{}" (main function in our case) and their scope is limited to the block where they are declared.







In this case, the second *cout* prints the following string: *Value of global_variable*: 2

```
global.cpp
    #include <iostream>
    using namespace std;
    // Declaration of global variables
    int global variable = 4;
                                                   Global scope
    int main ()
      cout << "Value of global variable: " << global variable << endl;</pre>
       Declaration of local variables
      int global variable = 2;
      cout << "Value of global variable: " << global variable << endl;
      cin.ignore();
      return 0:
                                                  Local Scope
```

So the scope of the **global_variable** is different.

If we use **global_variable** in another function, its value will be 4, no matter if we have already executed the instruction "int global_variable = 2;"













In the previous examples, we used a function that allows us to print a message on the screen. We can expand it and see how we can interact with the user and get his input from the keyboard.

Do you remember this line of code?

```
cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;
```

Let's split it and analyze each part.









The **cout** statement represents the standard output.

Since our default output is the console, **cout** tells our program to print the following code to the console:

```
cout << "The value of variable sum is: " << sum << endl;
```









The << operator tells the program to insert the next data into the stream. Since we use **cout**, it puts the data in the standard output stream. This operator can be used multiple times, and it is useful when we want to print a combination of strings and variables. In this case, we want the string "The value of variable sum is:" followed by the value of the variable sum.











endl inserts a 'new line character' and flushes the buffer; this ensures that the next output prints in the next line.











Similarly, we can use the **cin** function followed by the operator >> in order to get the user's input.

In this case, the standard input is the keyboard.









In this example, we first declare the variable where the user input is stored (uservalue), and then we print some messages to the user.

```
imputoutputcpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
   int uservalue;
   cout << "This program adds 10 to your input." << endl;
   cout << "Please insert your input |";

   cin >> uservalue;

   cout << "The value inserted is " << uservalue;
   cout << " and the new value is " << uservalue + 10 << endl;

   cin.ignore();
   cout << "Press Enter to exit...";
   cin.ignore();
   return 0;
}</pre>
```









With the cin >> uservalue; statement, we instruct the program to get the input from the standard input (the keyboard) and save it in the uservalue variable.

As you can see in the next two lines, we first print the value provided by the user and then we print out the value plus 10.

```
inputoutputcpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int uservalue;

    cout << "This program adds 10 to your input." << endl;
    cout << "Please insert your input |";

    cin >> uservalue;

    cout << "The value inserted is " << uservalue;
    cout << " and the new value is " << uservalue + 10 << endl;

    cin.ignore();
    cout << "Press Enter to exit...";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
}</pre>
```









When the user inserts their value and presses enter (return) on the keyboard, the return value goes into the buffer.

When we run the program, in order to keep the console opened, we need to clean this buffer with the first cin.ignore() statement and then with the second cin.ignore() we can prevent the console from closing.

```
imputoutputcpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
   int uservalue;
   cout << "This program adds 10 to your input." << endl;
   cout << "Please insert your input |";

   cin >> uservalue;

   cout << "The value inserted is " << uservalue;
   cout << " and the new value is " << uservalue + 10 << endl;

   cin.ignore();
   cout << "Press Enter to exit...";
   cin.ignore();
   return 0;
}</pre>
```







In other words, the first cin.ignore() reads the return value and the second waits for a new input, keeping the console on the screen.

```
inputoutput.cpp

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int uservalue;
    cout << "This program adds 10 to your input." << endl;
    cout << "Please insert your input |";

    cin >> uservalue;

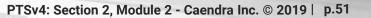
    cout << "The value inserted is " << uservalue;
    cout << " and the new value is " << uservalue + 10 << endl;

    cin.ignore();
    cout << "Press Enter to exit...";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
}</pre>
```









Here we can see what our program looks like.

```
This program adds 10 to your input.

Please insert your input
```













In C++ there are four main classes of operators:

Arithmetic

Relational

Logical













variable name = expression;

The assignment operator can be used within any valid expression, and we can see the general form above.

The target (the left part – variable name) of the assignment must be a variable or a pointer (we will see later what pointers are) and can't be a function or a constant.











```
variable name = expression;
```

In C++ literature, you will see these two terms: **Ivalue** and **rvalue**.

- Ivalue is any label that appears on the left side of an assignment statement; in other words, we can say it is the variable name.
- rvalue refers to expressions/value on the right side of an assignment and simply means the value that will be assigned to the variable.









In the following example, the first statement assigns the value 10 to the variable named **variable1**.

```
variable1 = 10;

b = variable1;
```

The second statement assigns the value contained in **variable1** to variable **b**. At this point, the value of variable **b** will be 10.







The following table summarizes the arithmetical operators.

Operator	Action
-	Subtraction
+	Addition
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulus









$$a = a + 1;$$
 is the same as $++a;$ $a = a - 1;$ is the same as $--a;$

In addition to the previous operators, C++ includes an **increment** operator (++) and a **decrement** operator (--) where:

- ++ adds 1 to its operand
- -- subtracts 1 from its operand









$$x = 10;$$

 $y = ++x;$

Set y to 11

$$x = 10;$$

 $y = x++;$

Set y to 10 and x to 11

Both the increment and decrement operators may precede (++x) or follow (x++) the operand. The difference between them is that when the operator precedes its operand, the increment or decrement operation is performed before obtaining the value of the operand, while if the operator follows its operand, the value is obtained before incrementing or decrementing it.









Operator	Action	Relational		
>	Greater than	Relational		
>=	Greater than or equal		Operator	Action
<	Less than	Logical	Operator	Action
<=	Less than or equal	•	&&	AND
==	Equal		11	OR
!=	Not equal		!	NOT

Relational operators define a relationship between two values.

Logical operators define how previous relationships must be connected.









The idea of true and false is the basic concept of relational and logical operators. In C++, true is any value other than zero. False is zero. Expressions that use relational or logical operators return **0** for *false* and **1** for *true*.

For this purpose, in C++ we can use the **bool** data type and the Boolean constants **true** and **false**. So a 0 value automatically converts to false while a non-zero value automatically converts to true.









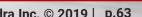
Relational operators are used in order to evaluate a comparison between two expressions. The result is a Boolean value.

Operation	Value
(10>1)	True
(10 >= 10)	True
(10 < 5)	False
(5 <= 10)	True
(1 == 1)	True
(1!=1)	False









Logical operators define how previous relationships must be connected.

х	у	x && y	x y	!x
0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	0









The first line may be read as the following: when x is false (0) and y is false (0) the result of x AND y (x && y) is false (0), the result of x OR y is false, and the inverse of x is true

The logical operator! has only one operand (at its right) and it inverses this value (false if its operand is true, and true if its operand is false). The logical operator && and || evaluate two expressions in order to obtain a relational result.

- && (AND) results true if both operands are true and false otherwise
- || (OR) results true if either one of its operands is true, false when both are false









C++ supports many operations that can be done in assembler, including operations on bits.

Bitwise operations refer to testing, setting or shifting the actual bits in a byte or word.

Operator	Action
&	AND
	OR
۸	Exclusive OR (XOR)
~	One's complement (NOT)
>>	Shift right
<<	Shift left









The following program executes a bitwise AND, a bitwise OR and then shifts the value of x.

```
#include <iostream>
                                                                C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\bitwise.exe
using namespace std;
                                                                Bitwise AND: 136
int main ()
                                                                Bitwise OR: 222
                                                                Left shift 1 bit: 412
   int x = 206;
   int y = 152;
   int z = x & y;
                                                                     Bitwise AND
   cout << "Bitwise AND: " << z << "\n";
   z = x \mid y;
   cout << "Bitwise OR: " << z << "\n":
                                                            11001110 &
                                                                                   206 &
   x = x << 1;
                                                            10011000 =
                                                                                   <u>152</u> =
   cout << "Left shift 1 bit: " << x << "\n";
                                                            10001000
                                                                                    136
   cin.ignore();
   return 0;
```















Let's see how we can define control structures.

These structures are useful to instruct the program to execute or to repeat a specific operation when some condition is matched.









A statement is part of our program that can be executed and specifies an action. In this section, we are going to see three main groups of statements.

SELECTION

- if
- switch

ITERATION

- while
- for
- do-while

JUMP

- break
- continue
- goto
- return









The general form of the **if** statement is:

```
if (expression)
statement;
else
statement;
```



Where a statement may consist of a single statement, a block of statements (but they **must** be enclosed in curly brackets), or nothing (in case of an empty statement). The **else** clause is optional.









```
if (expression)
statement;
else
statement;
```

If the *expression* evaluates to true, the statement or block of statements that form the target

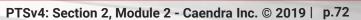
of **if** is executed; otherwise, the statement or block that is the target of **else** will be executed.

Only the code associated with **if** or the code associated with **else** executes, never both.









```
👯 C:\cpp\ifelse.exe
                                                                                           Insert a number
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
                                                                                           The value is less than 10
int main ()
   int user value;
   cout << "Insert a number\n";
   cin >> user value;
   cin.ignore();
   if(user value < 10)
     cout << "The value is less than 10";
                                                                                           C:\cpp\ifelse.exe
     cout << "The value is greater than 10";
                                                                                           The value is greater than 10_
   cin.ignore();
   return 0:
```

The above program contains an example of an if - else statement. The program simply checks if the number provided is greater or less than 10. Depending on the value, the program will print different messages.









A **nested if** is an if contained in the body of a parent if. In a nested if, the else statement refers to the nearest if statement in the same block that is not already associated with another else.

```
if(x)

if(a) statement 1;

if(b) statement 2; /* this if is associated */

else statement 3; /* with this else */

}

else statement 4; /* associated with if(x) */
```









C++ implements a multiplebranch selection statement, called **switch**, which tests, in order, the value of an expression against a list of values.

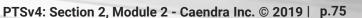
Only the block of operations associated with the matching expression is executed. Note that the value must be an integer or a constant.

```
switch (expression) {
   case constant1:
      statement sequence
      break;
   case constant2:
      statement sequence
      break;
   default
      statement sequence
```









The value of the expression is sequentially tested against the values specified in the **case** statements. When a match is found, the statement block associated is executed until the break statement, or the end of the switch is reached. The **default** statement is executed if no matches are found.

Note that **default** is optional, so if it is not defined, there is no action if all matches fail.









The **break** statement is one of C++'s jump statements. You can use it in loops as well as in the **switch** statement.

When break is encountered in a switch, the execution "jumps" to the line of code following the switch statement.

```
</>
 switch (expression) {
    case constant1:
        statement sequence
       break;
    case constant2:
        statement sequence
       break;
    default
        statement sequence
```







The following example shows a menu selection.

This simple program displays a menu, gets the user input and calls the proper procedures.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std:
int main ()
    int user value;
    cout << " 1 - Addition\n 2 - Subtraction\n 3 - Multiplication\n 4 - Division \n 5 - Exit Program\n";
    cout << "Insert a number: ";
    cin >> user value;
    cin.ignore();
                                                 C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\case.exe
    switch (user value) {
                                                    - Addition
       case 1:
                                                  2 - Subtraction
          cout << "Addition":
         break:
                                                  3 - Multiplication
      case 2:
                                                  4 - Division
          cout << "Subtraction":
                                                  5 - Exit Program
                                                 Insert a number: 2
                                                                           C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\case.exe
       case 3:
                                                 Subtraction_
         cout << "Multiplication";</pre>
                                                                             - Addition
          break:
                                                                           2 - Subtraction
       case 4:
                                                                           3 - Multiplication
          cout << "Division":
                                            C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\case.exe
                                                                           4 - Division
          break:
       case 5:
                                               - Addition
                                                                           5 - Exit Program
         cout << "Bve!";
                                             2 - Subtraction
                                                                          Insert a number: 5
         break:
                                             3 - Multiplication
                                                                          Bue!_
       default:
                                               - Division
         cout << "Wrong input";</pre>
                                             5 - Exit Program
                                            Insert a number: 9
    cin.ignore();
                                            Wrong input
    return 0:
```









ITERATION

Iteration statements, also called **loops**, allow a set of instructions to be executed repeatedly for a fixed number of times or until a certain condition is reached.

While in for loops the condition is predefined, in do-while loops are open-ended.









The general form of a **for** statement is:

```
for(initialization; condition; increment) {
    statement;
}
```

Where:

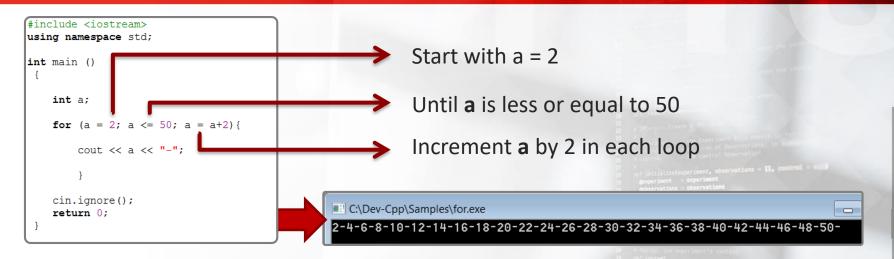
- initialization is an assignment statement that sets the starting value of the loop control variable
- condition determines when the loop must end
- increment defines how the control variable changes for each iteration











The **for** loop continues as long as the condition is true. Once the condition fails, the program executes the statement right after the **for**. In the above program, the **for** loop is used to print all the multiples of 2 until 50 is reached.









The for statement is also used for infinite loops.

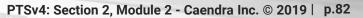
Since *initialization*, *condition*, and *increment* of the for loop are not required, we can make an infinite loop by leaving them empty:

```
for(;;){
    statement;
}
```









When the conditional expression is left empty, it is processed as true. Note that the **for(;;)** construct can exit from an infinite loop through a **break** statement present anywhere in the body of the loop. The break statement causes the termination of the loop, and the program control resumes from the next instruction following the loop.

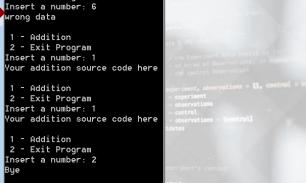
You may be wondering though, why one would want to use an infinite loop.







```
include <iostream>
using namespace std;
                                                                            C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\infinite loop.exe
int main ()
                                                                             1 - Addition
                                                                            2 - Exit Program
    int user value;
                                                                            Insert a number: 6
    for (;;) {
        cout << " 1 - Addition\n 2 - Exit Program\n";</pre>
                                                                           wrong data
        cout << "Insert a number: ";</pre>
                                                                             1 - Addition
        cin >> user value;
                                                                            2 - Exit Program
        cin.ignore();
                                                                            Insert a number: 1
                                                                            Your addition source code here
        if (user value == 1) {
          cout << "Your addition source code here\n\n";</pre>
                                                                             1 - Addition
         }else if(user value == 2) {
                                                                            2 - Exit Program
          cout << "Bve";
                                                                            Insert a number: 1
          break:
                                                                            Your addition source code here
         }else{
          cout << "wrong data\n\n";
                                                                             1 - Addition
                                                                            2 - Exit Program
                                                                            Insert a number: 2
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
```



As shown in the code above, an infinite loop used with a break statement can be useful to keep the console alive until the user chooses to exit. The program terminates only if the user inserts the number 2; otherwise, they will see the menu over and over again.









In the same way as with other statements, for loops can be nested. Nested loops are very common in programming since they add power and flexibility to complex algorithms.

Let's take a look at an example of how nested loops can be used.









```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int base, height;
    cout << "Insert the base length: ";</pre>
    cin >> base;
    cout << "Insert the height length: ";
    cin >> height;
    cin.ignore();
    cout << endl;
    for(int i = 0; i < height; i++) {</pre>
          for(int j = 0; j < base; j++) {
                   cout << " *";
           cout << endl:
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```

Given two numbers (base and height), let's say we want to draw a rectangle using the char '*'.



What we can do is use nested loops to iterate columns and rows, as we see here in the code on the left.







The second loop available in C++ is the **while loop**. Its general form is:

```
while(condition) {
    statement;
}
```



Where:

- statement is either an empty statement, a single statement, or a block of statements
- condition may be any expression, and true is any non-zero value









The loop continues while the condition evaluates to true.

```
while (condition) {
    statement;
}
```

When the condition evaluates to false, the program control goes to the line of code right after the loop.



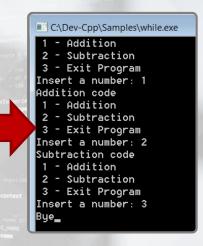






Similar to the previous example (infinite for loop), this program will continue until the user inserts 3 (the condition (user_value != 3) becomes false).

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int user value = 0;
    while (user value != 3)
      cout << " 1 - Addition\n";</pre>
      cout << " 2 - Subtraction\n";
      cout << " 3 - Exit Program\n";</pre>
      cout << "Insert a number: ";</pre>
      cin >> user value;
      cin.ignore();
       switch (user value) {
               cout << "Addition code\n":
               break:
            case 2:
               cout << "Subtraction code\n":
               break;
    cout << "Bve";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
```





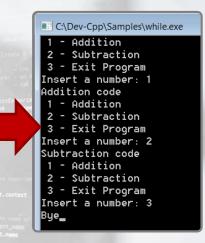




Since the **user_value** is set to 0, in the first iteration the condition is evaluated to true, and the loop begins.

Each time we insert a value the condition is tested again. Once we insert 3, the condition becomes false, and the loop terminates.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int user value = 0;
    while (user value != 3)
      cout << " 1 - Addition\n":
      cout << " 2 - Subtraction\n";
      cout << " 3 - Exit Program\n";</pre>
      cout << "Insert a number: ";
      cin >> user value;
      cin.ignore();
       switch (user value) {
              cout << "Addition code\n":
              break:
           case 2:
               cout << "Subtraction code\n":
              break;
    cout << "Bve";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```









Unlike for and while loops, which test the condition at the beginning of the loop, the **do-while** loop checks its condition at the end of the loop; a do-while loop always executes at least once.

The general form of the do-while loop is:

```
do{
   statement;
}while(condition);
```





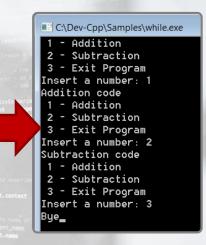




The **do-while** loop iterates until the condition evaluates to false.

The program on the left will first get the user input, and then it will stop only when the condition becomes false.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int user value = 0;
    while (user value != 3)
      cout << " 1 - Addition\n":
      cout << " 2 - Subtraction\n";
      cout << " 3 - Exit Program\n";</pre>
      cout << "Insert a number: ":
      cin >> user value;
      cin.ignore();
       switch (user value) {
              cout << "Addition code\n";</pre>
              break:
           case 2:
               cout << "Subtraction code\n":
              break;
    cout << "Bve";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```









You have all the skills needed to write a program that prints out a simple Xmas tree. Given a number, write a program that will display a triangle made of * chars, which has as many lines as the number provided.

Let's type in 5; the program should print something like this:





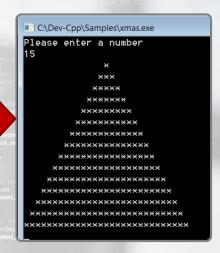






There are many different ways to do it. This code is one of them.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
    int i, j, lines;
    cout << "Please enter a number " << endl;</pre>
    cin >> lines:
    cin.ignore();
    for (j=1; j<=lines * 2; j=j+2)</pre>
             for (i=j; i<=lines*2-2; i=i+2)</pre>
                 cout << " ";
             for (i=1; i<=j; i++)</pre>
                  cout << "*";
             cout << endl;
    cin.ignore();
```









JUMP STATEMENT

C++ has four statements that can change the normal execution flow: return, goto, break and continue.

While **return** and **goto** are mostly used anywhere in your program, **break** and **continue** statements are often used in conjunction with any of the loop statements seen before.









The return statement is used to return from a function. It may or may not have a value associated with it.

The general form of a **return** statement is:

```
return expression;
```











The **expression** must be used only if the function has a returning value. In this case, the

value of the expression will become the return value of the function and can be associated with a variable.

We can use as many **return** statements as we like within a function. However, the function stops executing as soon as it encounters the first return.







The main concern about the **goto** is that it makes the programs unreadable. It can be used to jump to a specific statement, such as jumping out of a set of deeply nested loops.

Its general form is:

```
goto label;
...
...
label:
```









```
goto label;
...
...
label:
```

The **goto** statement requires a label. A **label** is an identifier followed by a colon.

Note that the label must be in the same block of statements as the **goto** that uses it, so we cannot jump between functions.









The **break** statement has two uses:

- Terminates a case in the switch statement
- Forces the termination of a loop, bypassing the normal loop conditional test.

When we use the break statement within a loop, the loop terminates, and the program control resumes at the statement after the loop.









This program prints numbers from 0 to 10.

Even if the loop should continue until x is 100, it terminates because the **break** causes the loop to terminate, overriding the conditional test x < 100.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    for (int x = 0; x <= 100; x++)
        {
        cout << x << ",";
        if (x == 10) break;
        }
        cin.ignore();
}</pre>
```











The **continue** statement works similarly to the break statement. Instead of forcing termination, it forces the code to continue to the next iteration of a loop, skipping any code in between.









So, in a *for loop*, **continue** causes an increment of the control variable and a new iteration.

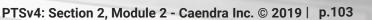
This program checks how many numbers are odd and how many are even. As you can see, if the number is even (if(user_value % 2 == 0)) the program encounters the continue statement. In this case, the odd variable will not be incremented.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int user value;
    int even = 0;
    int odd = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
        cout << "Insert a number: ";
        cin >> user value;
        cin.ignore();
        if(user value % 2 == 0) {
                ++even;
                continue;
        ++odd;
    cout << endl << "even: " << even << " - odd: " << odd;
    cin.ignore();
                                            C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\continue.exe
    return 0;
                                            |Insert a number: 1
                                            Insert a number 2
                                            Insert a number: 4
                                            e∪en: 2 - odd: 3_
```











Pointers



A pointer is a variable that holds a memory address. This address is the location of another object in memory.

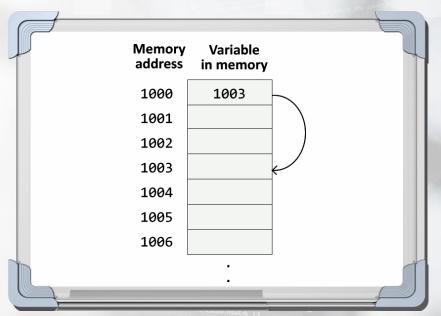
For example, if one variable (a) contains the address of another variable (b), a is said to point to b.







The following image shows the situation where one variable points to another.









If a variable is a pointer, it must be declared in a different way. We will write an * and the variable name. The general form is:

```
type *name;
```

Where:

- type is the base type of the pointer (int, char...);
- name is the name (identifier) of the pointer variable

Type defines the type of variable the pointer can point to.









There are two special pointer operators: * and &. The & returns the memory address of the variable. For example:

Put the memory address of the variable **y** into **x**. This address is the computer's internal location of the variable. It is not the value of y but its address. In other words, the **&** operator returns "the address of". Therefore, the above statement means "**x** holds the **address** of **y**".







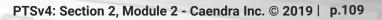
The second pointer operator, *, is the complement of &. It returns the <u>value</u> located at the address of the following operator. For example:

places the value in memory pointed by **y**, into **x**. So if **y** contains the memory address of another variable, let us say **counter**, **x** will have the value of **counter**.









This program shows how the two pointer operators work. In the indicated statement, **p1** points to the memory address of the variable **x**.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int x = 10;
   int y = 0;
   int *p1, *p2;
    p1 = &x;
    y = *p2;
    *p2 = 5;
    cout << "p1 : " << p1 << "\np2 : " << p2 <<endl;
    cout << "\nv : " << v << "\nx : " << x << endl;
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```







With this statement, p2
points to the same memory
address of p1, meaning
that p2 now points to the
memory address of x.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int x = 10;
    int y = 0;
    int *p1, *p2;
    cout << "p1 : " << p1 << "\np2 : " << p2 <<endl;
    cout << "\nv : " << v << "\nx : " << x << endl;
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```







The next statement assigns to variable **y**, the value located at the memory address pointed by **p2**. In other words, **y** now contains the value of the variable **x**.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int x = 10;
    int y = 0;
    int *p1, *p2;
    p1 = &x;
    p2 = p1;
    cout << "p1 : " << p1 << "\np2 : " << p2 <<endl;
    cout << "\nv : " << v << "\nx : " << x << endl;
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```







With this last statement, we assign 5 to the value located at the memory address pointed by **p2**. Remember that **p2** was pointing to the memory address of x, so the value of x is now 5.

```
C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\pointers.exe
#include <iostream>
                                      : 0x28ff44
using namespace std;
                                   p2 : 0x28ff44
int main ()
    int x = 10;
    int y = 0;
    int *p1, *p2;
    p1 = &x;
    p2 = p1;
    y = *p2;
    cout << "p1 : " << p1 << "\np2 : " << p2 <<endl;
    cout << "\nv : " << v << "\nx : " << x << endl;
    cin.ignore();
    return 0:
```









Arrays



2.8 Arrays

An array is a collection of variables of the same type. A specific element in an array is accessed by an index.









2.8 Arrays

An array may have several dimensions. The general form is:

```
type var_name[size];
```

Where:

- type declares the type of the array (the type of each element in the array)
- size defines the length of the array (how many elements the array can contain)

All arrays have 0 as an index of the first element. Therefore, if we declare an array of 10 elements its index goes from [0] to [9].









2.8 Arrays

The program creates an integer array of 20 elements. The **for** loop places numbers from 0 to 19 inside the array.

Remember that an array is accessed by indexing the array name. This is done by placing the index of the element we want to access within square brackets.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main ()
    int x[20];
    int i;
    for (i=0;i<20; ++i) {
        x[i] = i;
    for (i=0;i<20; ++i) {
        cout << x[i] << ",";
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
```

Array declaration

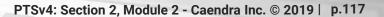
Element accessed by indexing the array name

Print array elements with index from 0 to 20











Functions





Functions are blocks of statements defined under a name. In other words, it is a group of statements that get executed when this name is called in the program.

Functions perform a given operation and often return a result.









The general form of a function is:

```
type function_name(paramenter1, parameter2,...) {
   statements;
}
```

Where:

- type specifies the type of data that the function returns
- function_name is the identifier used to call that function
- parameters is a comma-separated list of variables and their associated types. Those variables receive the values when the function is called.









```
type function_name() {
   statements;
}
```

Note that functions may have no parameters, but they still require parentheses '()'.









Here is an example of a function that takes two numbers from the user, sums them and returns the result of the operation.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
                                   Function definition
int sum (int x, int y) {
    int z;
    z = x + v;
    return(z);
int main()
    int a, b, result;
    cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;</pre>
    cin >> a:
    cin.ignore();
    cin >> b;
                                  Function call
    cin.ignore();
    result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result;
    cin.ignore();
```









```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
   int z;
   z = x + y;
   return(z);
}
```

Formal parameters

Since this function uses two arguments, we have to declare two variables (int x, int y) that will accept the values from the caller. These variables are called formal parameters of the function. They are like any other local variable inside the function, and they are declared when the function is called and destroyed when the function returns.







Let's see how this program works step by step.

As usual, the first instruction to be executed is the one within the main function.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
    int z;
    z = x + y;
    return(z);
int main()
    int a, b, result;
         << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;</pre>
    cin >> a:
    cin.ignore();
    cin >> b;
    cin.ignore();
    result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result:
    cin.ignore();
```







The program will then ask the user to insert two values: a and b.

Let's say that we insert the following values: 5 and 3.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
    int z;
    z = x + y;
    return(z);
int main()
    int a, b, result;
    cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
    cin >> a;
    cin.ignore();
    cin >> b;
    cin.ignore();
    result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result:
    cin.ignore();
```











Here the function **sum** is called, and the control is lost by main, and it is passed to **sum**.

The value of both arguments in the caller function (a, b) are copied into the local variables (int x, int y) of the function sum.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
                                   a = 5: b = 3:
int sum (int x, int y) {
   int z;
                                    sum(a,
   z = x + y;
   return(z);
                                sum(int x, int y)
int main()
   int a, b, result;
   cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
   cin >> a:
   cin.ignore();
   cin >> b;
   cin.ignore();
   result = sum(a,b);
   cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result:
   cin.ignore();
```









The execution now occurs in the **sum** function.

Here a new variable is declared and the operation **z = x + y** is executed.

Since the actual value of x and y are 5 and 3, z will be 8 (5+3).

```
#include <iostream>
                                      x = 5; y = 3;
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
                                         z = x + y;
   int z;
   z = x + v;
                                        z = 5 + 3;
   return(z);
                                            z = 8;
int main()
   int a, b, result;
   cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
   cin >> a:
   cin.ignore();
   cin >> b;
   cin.ignore();
   result = sum(a,b);
   cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result;
   cin.ignore();
```







The return statement finalizes the function and returns the control back to the caller function (in this case main).

The program then resumes execution at the line of code following the function call.

```
#include <iostream>
                                             z = 8;
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
                                          return(z);
    int z;
                                          result = 8
int main()
    int a, b, result;
   cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
    cin >> a:
    cin.ignore();
    cin >> b;
    cin.ignore();
    result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result:
    cin.ignore();
```







Since the function returned a value (z), this will be copied in the variable result: the value of the result will then be 8.

```
#include <iostream>
                                             z = 8;
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
                                          return(z);
    int z;
                                          result = 8
int main()
   int a, b, result;
    cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
    cin >> a:
   cin.ignore();
   cin >> b;
    cin.ignore();
   result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result;
    cin.ignore();
```

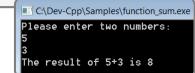






This instruction prints the values of the variables. As we can see from the console the result is 8.

```
#include <iostream>
                                                Please enter two numbers:
using namespace std;
int sum (int x, int y) {
                                                The result of 5+3 is 8
    int z;
    z = x + y;
    return(z);
int main()
    int a, b, result;
    cout << "Please enter two numbers: " << endl;
    cin >> a:
    cin.ignore();
    cin >> b;
    cin.ignore();
    result = sum(a,b);
    cout << "The result of " << a << "+" << b << " is " << result;</pre>
    cin.ignore();
```











In almost any programming language there are two ways in which we can pass arguments to a function.

By value

By reference









The first method, **call by value**, copies the value of an argument into a parameter. In this case, changes made to the parameter <u>do not affect the argument</u>.

By default, C++ uses **call by value**; this means that the code in the function does not alter the arguments used by the caller.









```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum (int x) {
    x = 10 + x;
    return(x);
    }
int main() {
    int x = 5;
    cout << "The result of 10 + " << x << " is " << sum(x) << endl;
    cout << "Value of x is still " << x;
    cin.ignore();
}</pre>
```

Similar to the previous example, in in this program, the value of the argument **sum()**, 5, is copied into the parameter **x** (within sum()).

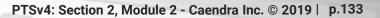
When the assignment x = 10 + x

takes place, only the local variable **x** (within the function) is modified. The variable **x** in the **main** function used to call sum() still holds the value of 5.









Remember that it is a <u>copy of the value</u> of the argument passed into the function.

What occurs inside the function has **NO EFFECT** on the variable provided by the caller.









The second method, **call by reference**, passes arguments in a different way. With this method, the **address** of an argument (not the value) is copied into the parameter. Inside the function, the address is used to access the actual argument used in the call, so changes made to the parameter **affect** the argument.









We can create a call by reference by passing a pointer to an argument instead of the argument itself.

In the declaration of the function, the type of each parameter is followed by an ampersand sign that specifies that their corresponding arguments are to be passed by reference; this means that we are passing the variable itself and not its value.

```
void swap(int& x, int& y)
{
    int temp;

    temp = *x;
    *x = *y;
    *y = temp;
}
```







The swap function exchanges the values of the two variables i and j because we pass the variables and not just their values.

Any modification to local variables in the swap function will have an affect on the variables passed as argument (&i and &j).

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std:
void swap (int& x, int& y)
     int temp;
     temp = x;
     x = y;
     y = temp;
                                      C:\Dev-Cpp\Samples\by reference.exe
                                      Before swap i is: 5 and j is: 10
int main ()
                                      After swap i is: 10 and j is: 5
    int i, j;
    i = 5:
    i = 10;
    cout << "Before swap i is: " << i << " and j is: " << j <<endl;</pre>
    swap(i,j);
    cout << "After swap i is: " << i << " and j is: " << j;
    cin.ignore();
    return 0;
```









2.10



C++-assisted exploitation







2.10 Lab - C++-assisted exploitation

Let's try to use C++ in order to create simple tools that could be used during your penetration testing activities.







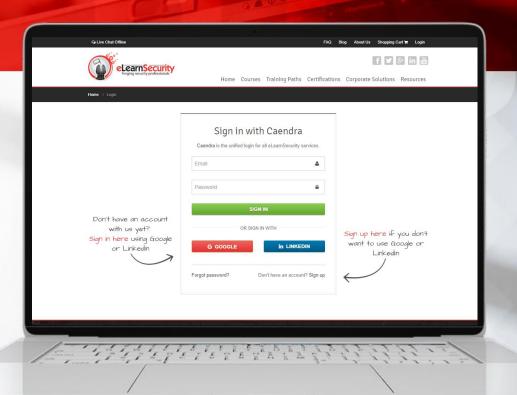


2.10 Lab - C++-assisted exploitation

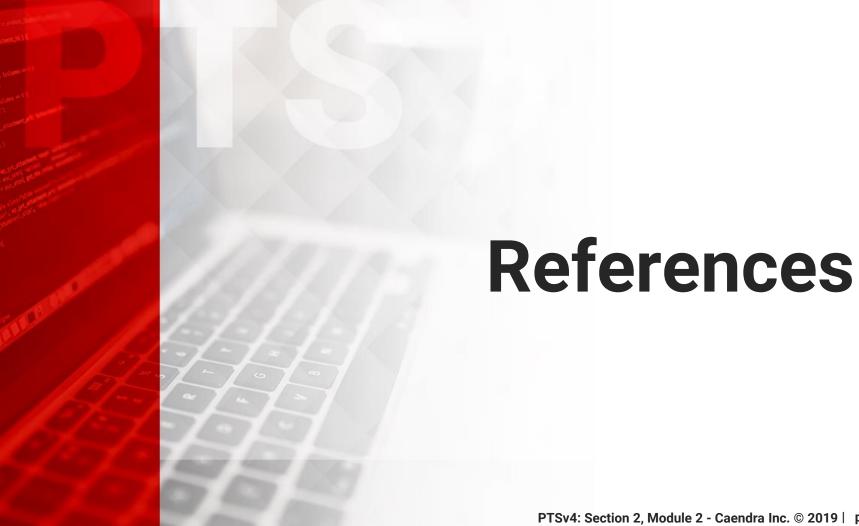
C++-assisted exploitation

In the lab, you will:

- Create a simple keylogger program
- Create a simple data stealing program
- Exfiltrate stolen data via a network connection



*Labs are only available in Full or Elite Editions of the course. To upgrade, click <u>HERE</u>. To access, go to the course in your members area and click the labs drop-down in the appropriate module line or to the virtual labs tabs on the left navigation.











References

This concludes our basic C++ tutorial. If you want to dig deeper in this programming language, here are some references that you can use:

C++ tutorial

http://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/

The C++ Programming Language (3rd Edition)

http://www.amazon.com/The-Programming-Language-3rd-Edition/dp/0201889544

Sams Teach Yourself C++ in One Hour a Day

http://www.amazon.com/Sams-Teach-Yourself-One-Hour/dp/0672335670/











Labs

C++-assisted exploitation

In the lab, you will:

- Create a simple keylogger program
- Create a simple data stealing program
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