## Shellcoding, an introduction

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#### Outline

Warm-Up
 Shellcoding
 Memory
 Assembly
 Sys-Calls

- Writing shellcodes
  Using a syscall
  Data references
  Execute a program
  Reverse shell
- Shellcode Optimization String payload
- 4 References



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## Warm-Up

#### Materiale iniziale

- ▶ La teoria di questa presentazione vale per sistemi Unix, FreeBSD e Windows.
- ► Il materiale è tuttavia preparato per sistemi Linux 64 bit con kernel >= 2.6 e processore > Pentium 4.
- ▶ Per chi non ha 64 bit sono disponibili anche gli esempi a 32 bit.
- Per chi non ha installato un OS Linux o non vuole sporcare il suo, sono disponibili due Virtual Machine:
  - 32 bit: sorry non ho fatto in tempo...
  - 64 bit: sorry non ho fatto in tempo...



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## What is shellcoding?

### Exploiting software vulnerabilities

- Vulnerabilities like BOFs permit the insertion and the execution of a custom payload.
- ▶ The historical function of the payload is to spawn a shell (hence the name shell-code).
- If the exploited program runs as a privileged user, the payload can assume the control of the system.

#### **Prerequisites**

#### Basic notion of:

- Assembly language.
- Memory structure.
- System Calls.

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# System Memory

#### Memory management

- ▶ Memory management is a vast topic, so let's discuss from an high-level viewpoint.
- ► Thanks to the *Virtual Memory Management*, each process sees a flat addressing space of 128 TiB (4 GiB in 32 bit processors).
- Users can create sections inside the memory with read, write and/or execute permissions.
- ▶ The basic operations for memory management are *push* and *pop*.
  - push Insert a 64-bit value into the top of the stack (the bottom).
    - pop Retrieve a 64-bit value from the top of the stack (the bottom).



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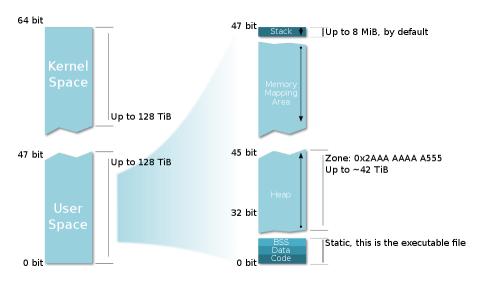


Figure: Linux 64 bit memory management



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## Program Code

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#### Text segment and instruction pointer

- ► The code is saved in a RO and executable memory called *Text* segment.
- ▶ The current instruction is pointed by the *Instruction Pointer*.
- ▶ The instruction pointer is a value stored into the CPU.

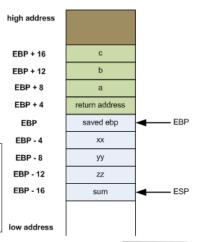


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# Program Stack

- ► The stack is where function context, called frame, resides.
- ► The Base pointer points to the begin of the frame.
- ► The Stack pointer points to the first available memory location.

```
void f() {
  int xx = 12; int yy = 23;
  int zz = 24;
  int sum = xx + yy + zz;
}
```





# Assembly Language

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### Low, low level programming

- ▶ Assembly is the final stage of the programming process.
- ► Each instruction is directly converted into an number.
- Writing the number on the CPU Command BUS cause the instruction to be executed.
- ➤ You can access to a set of 64 bit registers: rax, rbx, rcx, rdx, rsi, rdi, r8, r9, r10, r11, r12, r13, r14, r15
- ▶ As instruction pointer, base pointer and stack pointer the CPU uses respectively *rip*, *rbp* and *rsp*.



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# Assembly Language: function call

### The call/ret instructions

call address push the RIP into the stack.

ret pop the RIP from the stack.

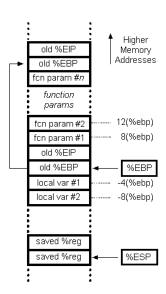
### Creating a frame for the function

- ▶ The callee may need a stack for his own variables.
- ▶ *RBP* is saved (pushed) into the stack.
- ▶ The new RBP become the old RSP.
- ▶ Before doing ret, the opposite operations must be performed.



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# Assembly Language: function call and stack





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# Assembly Language: function call and parameters

### Where should I put the parameters?

- ▶ If you are coding in pure ASM, you can do what you want.
- Else, you have to follow the conventions (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X86\_calling\_conventions# List\_of\_x86\_calling\_conventions).

#### Linux calling convention, parameter order

#### First parameters:

- x86-64: rdi, rsi, rdx, rcx, r8, and r9. For system calls, r10 is used instead of rcx.
  - IA-32: ecx, edx. For system calls ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi, ebp.

Other parameters are pushed into the stack.

# System calls

### Invoking the OS

- ▶ User's programs run in the exterior ring with *PL* 3, while kernel runs in the inner ring with *PL* 0: Kernel can access to the hardware (files, devices, ...), user not.
- Syscalls form the interface between user and kernel.
- ► E.g.: open(), read(), write(), chmod(), exec(), . . .



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## Try to use Syscalls

### Using assembly

- ▶ In order to ease the programmer duty, syscalls are identified by a number.
- ▶ In modern x86-64 processor, a syscall is invoked using the operation *syscall*, putting the id in the register rax.
- ▶ In modern x86 processor, a syscall is invoked using the operation *sysenter* but a lot of operation must be performed before, so in the following exercise we will use the old-fashion-way *int 80h*, which rises a software interrupt.

```
mov rdi, 0
mov rax, 60
syscall
```

```
mov ebx, 0
mov eax, 1
int 80h
```

## Linux Syscalls

#### Linux

- ► Syscalls signatures: /...kernel-sources.../include/linux/syscall.h
- Syscalls numbers: /usr/include/asm/unistd\_64.h

```
unistd_64.h
  #define __NR_exit 60
syscall.h
  asmlinkage long sys_exit(int error_code);
```



## The final preparation

#### First steps...

- ► Testing platform: http://dl.dropbox.com/u/16169203/data.zip
- Use nasm to compile your assembly code
- Feed the tester with the output.

#### Exercise 0

- Create a shellcode that does nothing!
- Test it!



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# Using a syscall

### Exercise 1: The exit syscall

- ► Use the exit syscall to terminate the program
- ▶ Change your code setting the return code to 13h



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#### Data reference I

#### The reference problem

- When you write a program you can use global data because, at compile time, a static address is associated.
- ▶ But your shellcode is not compiled with the program it's intended to run.
- ▶ You must use relative addressing, but before IA-64 it was not possible.





#### Data reference II

### Old IA-32 way

➤ You use a trick: jmp just before the data location, then do a call. Et voilà! On the top of the stack there is the data address.

```
jmp message
run:
   pop ebx ; now ebx contains the string reference
   ; ... shellcode
message:
   call run
   db 'CeSeNA',0x0a,0
```



### Data reference III

#### New IA-64 way

▶ IA-64 introduces the RIP relative addressing.





#### Data reference IV

#### Generic Way

- ▶ You can pop the string in hex format over the stack.
- ▶ The stack pointer is then the string reference.

```
push 0\times000a414e ; 0\times00 , 0\times0a , 'AN' push 0\times65536543 ; 'eSeC' mov ebx , esp ; now ebx contains the string reference ; ...
```



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#### Data reference V

#### Exercise 2: print on stdout

- ▶ Get the exercise skeleton.
- ▶ Understand the code
- ► Write your own message





# Execute a program

```
unistd 64.h
 #define __NR_execve 59
syscall.h
 int kernel_execve( const char *filename,
                     const char *const argv[],
                     const char *const envp[]);
```

# Exercise 3: A real shellcode, exec a shell!

```
4 HaXoRs
```

4 g33k

4 n00bz



#### Reverse shell I

#### One shellcode to rule them all

#### Step to execute:

- Open a socket to the attacker server.
- Duplicate the socket file descriptor into 0 and 1 (and optionally 2).
- Exec a shell.

### Step1: Create a socket

- ▶ The standard procedure involves socket creation and connection.
- socket() and connect() syscalls.
- ▶ The sockaddr\_in structure requires port in network byte order (htons()) and ip address in numeric form (inet\_pton()).
- The usual sockaddr in size is 16.



#### Reverse shell II

```
struct sockaddr_in {
short sin_family; // AF_INET
unsigned short sin_port; // network order (htons())
struct in_addr sin_addr; // As 32 bit
char sin_zero[8];
};
```

#### Reverse shell III

### Step2: Duplicate the file descriptor

- The return value of socket() is the file descriptor.
- ► The syscall dup2() copy the file descriptor and close the destination.
- dup2(fd, 0); dup2(fd, 1), dup2(fd, 2);

```
long sys_dup2 (unsigned int oldfd,
              unsigned int newfd)
```



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#### Reverse shell IV

#### Step3: Exec a shell

Already seen ;)

### Exercise 4: Reverse shelling

Remember to open a server listening into a known address! E.g.: *nc -l -p* 1234, preparing reverse shell for 127.0.0.1:1234

4 HaXoRs

4 g33k

4 n00bz



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# Shellcode optimization

### Why optimization?

- ▶ When writing a shellcode, you must consider various factors. The most important are:
  - How the vulnerable program receives the payload.
  - 2 How long the payload can be.
- ► The previous exercise solutions, for instance, are not suitable in most cases.
- ▶ The next slides will discuss about the *NULL* byte presence.
- ▶ About the payload length, it's all about the exploiter expertise.



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# String payload

#### zero-bytes problem

- If the payload is red as a string, C interprets a zero byte as string terminator, cutting the shellcode.
- Zero-bytes presence is caused by data and addresses:
  - ▶ mov rax, 11h is equivalent to mov rax, 00000000000011h.
  - ▶ lea rax, [rel message] is equivalent to lea rax, [rip + 0000...xxh].
  - execve for instance, requires a null terminated string and some null parameters.
- ► Solutions are quite straightforward:
  - ▶ Use *xor* operation to zero a register.
  - ▶ Use when possible smaller part of registers (e.g.:  $rax \rightarrow eax \rightarrow ax \rightarrow [ah,al]$ )
  - ▶ Use add operation: immediate operators are not expanded.
  - ▶ Place not-null marker in strings and substitute them inside the code.
  - ► When using relative addressing, place the message above: offset will be negative [3].





# Zero-byte removal example

```
; Set rax = 60h
xor rax, rax
mov al, 60

; Set to 0 a mem area
null db 'xxxx'
xor rbx, rbx
mov [rel null], ebx
```

```
; Set rdi = 12h

xor rdi, rdi

add rdi, 12h

; terminate string with 0

message db 'CeSeNA', 'x'

xor rbx, rbx

lea rdi, [rel message]

mov [rdi+7], bl
```

; Negative reference message db 'CeSeNA','x' lea rdi, [rel message]



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#### References

Linux Foundation.

Linux documentation.

http://linux.die.net/.



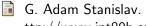
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64 bit linux shellcode.

http:

//blog.markloiseau.com/2012/06/64-bit-linux-shellcode/.



ttp://www.int80h.org/.

