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**VOID RISING: INSIDE THE BOTNET CONTROLLING
1.68 M+ ANDROID TVS WORLDWIDE**

Alex Turing

QI-ANXIN, China

hex.asmer@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Vo1d is a massive *Android* TV botnet with millions of infected devices. Attackers exploit compromised *Android* TVs to carry out various illegal activities, including click fraud, programmatic ad fraud and residential proxy services. This paper will examine Vo1d’s technical foundations, including its Bigpanzi-like string encryption, ASR-variant XXTEA algorithm, DGA mechanism, and dual-layer (RSA + XXTEA) payload protection. It also details the *XLab* toolkit employed during reverse engineering of the Vo1d botnet. These technical insights aim to assist the research community in better understanding both the Vo1d botnet infrastructure and its operators.

INTRODUCTION

The Vo1d botnet first came to light in September 2024 [1]. Far from fading, the botnet has showcased impressive resilience through continuous technical evolution. About three months after its first appearance, *QAX XLab* captured ‘jddx’, a new downloader deployed by the evolved Vo1d [2]. Leveraging this as an entry point, we conducted a thorough investigation, gathering 149 samples and mapping out extensive infrastructure: one reporter, four downloaders, 21 C2 domains, 258 DGA seeds, and over 100,000 DGA-generated domains.

Resolution Records				
Domain	FirstSeen ↕	LastSeen ↕	Count ↕	Tags
viewboot.com	2024-09-25 09:58:57	2025-02-23 23:59:20	28671	Void僵尸...
tumune3.com	2024-09-28 09:52:23	2025-02-23 23:56:18	40714	Void僵尸...
ttekf42.com	2024-11-11 23:19:01	2025-02-23 23:52:07	7727	Void僵尸...
pxleo5fbca7141b5.com	2024-10-09 12:27:40	2025-02-23 23:02:13	253	Void僵尸...
ssl8rrs2.com	2024-11-12 10:26:19	2025-02-23 22:55:51	7661	Void僵尸...

Figure 1: C2s.

We registered 258 of these DGA domains to study Vo1d’s network scale and geographic distribution.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Domain Name ↓	Expiration ↓	Status
<input type="checkbox"/>	iqflb08f579d4756.top	...	9 Jan 2026 Active
<input type="checkbox"/>	iykxab825924a6cb.top	...	9 Jan 2026 Active
<input type="checkbox"/>	npxu1a7f035ebc7.top	...	9 Jan 2026 Active
<input type="checkbox"/>	ntgup3e65f197570.top	...	9 Jan 2026 Active

Figure 2: DGA domains.

Our data indicates that the Vo1d botnet currently sustains approximately 800,000 daily active IPs, peaking at 1,590,299, as shown in Figure 3.

These IP addresses are distributed across more than 200 countries and regions worldwide. According to cumulative infection data collected between 1 January and 30 April, the top 10 most affected countries are as follows: Brazil (17.64%), India (12.04%), South Africa (8.3%), China (7.28%), Indonesia (5.33%), Argentina (4.3%), Morocco (3.65%), Thailand (2.99%), Mexico (2.70%) and Pakistan (2.37%).

Another perspective on the massive scale of the Vo1d botnet lies in its C2 domain rankings. The Tranco ranking system, a comprehensive metric for gauging website popularity, provides more accurate and reliable global website ranking data. Within Tranco’s top one million rankings, a significant portion of Vo1d’s C2 domains have broken into the global top 500,000, with some even reaching the 50,000 range, as shown in Figure 5.

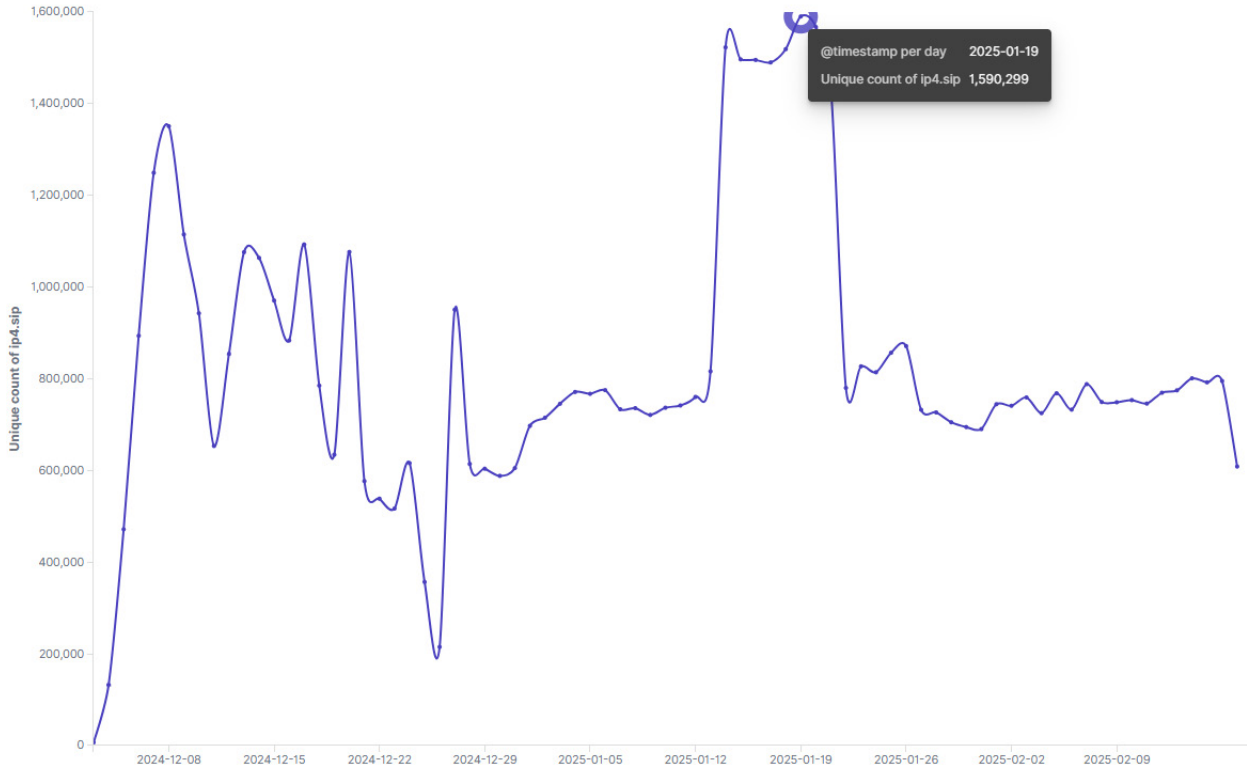


Figure 3: Daily active IPs.

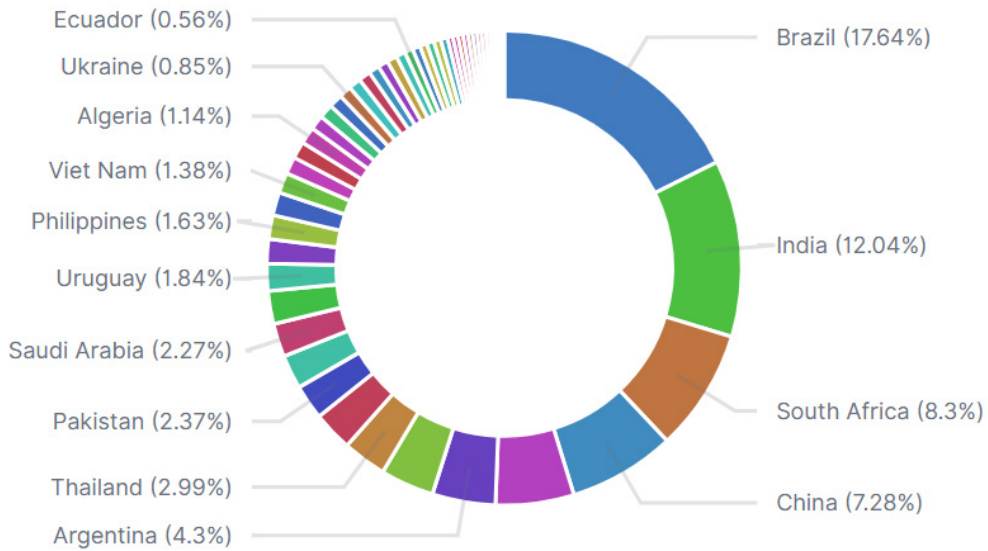


Figure 4: Affected countries.

```

└─$ grep -f c2.list top-1m.csv
53413,tumune3.com
54291,viewboot.com
55285,ttss442.com
67713,works883.xyz
130246,ttekf42.com
140667,ssl8rrs2.com
275926,pxleo5fbca7141b5.com
276144,works883.com
436890,tumune.com
452840,snakeers.com
    
```

Figure 5: C2 domain rankings.

Particularly noteworthy is the domain ttss442, which was registered on 3 November 2024, yet surged into the global top 55,000 within just a few months. This phenomenon underscores the botnet’s vast scale and staggering activity level from a different angle.

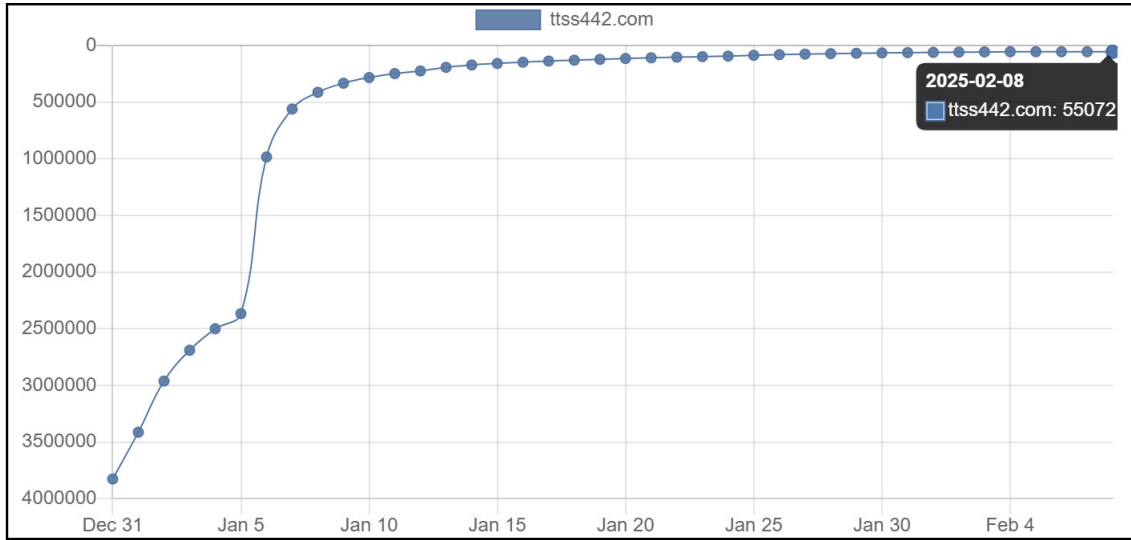


Figure 6: Ranking of domain ttss442.

MITIGATION

Starting 14 January 2025, Vo1d’s daily active IPs surpassed 1.5 million for an entire week. In February 2025, QAXXLab, in collaboration with the Shadowserver Foundation, successfully took over 12 Vo1d C2 servers. This time, we are able to assess the scale with greater precision. Updated metrics reveal an average of 1.5 million daily active IPs, with a notable peak of 1,685,140.

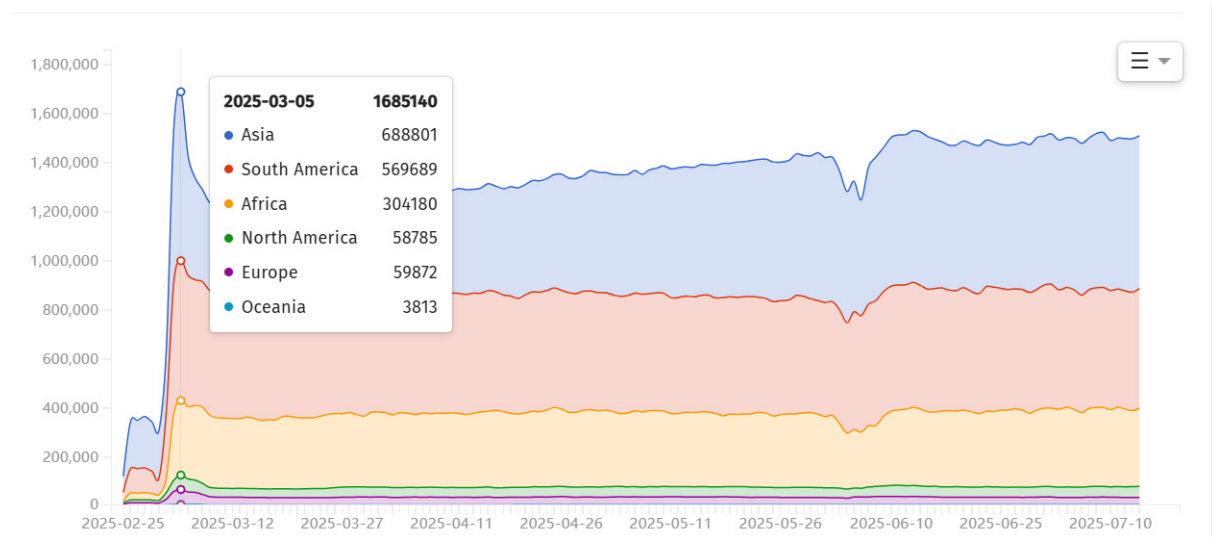


Figure 7: Daily active IPs updated metrics.

JOURNEY OF ANALYSIS

Undoubtedly, the Vo1d botnet – with its vast scale of over one million devices and relentless technological advancements – represents a persistent and significant threat to global cybersecurity.

To support the security community’s research on Vo1d, we will explore Vo1d’s technical underpinnings, including its strings encryption, DGA mechanism, payload protection, and so on.

0x1: Bigpanzi-like string encryption

Vo1d uses a string encryption method identical to that used by the Bigpanzi group [3] to safeguard sensitive config data.

The ciphertext is structured as follows:

1. **First two bytes:** XOR key (used to decrypt subsequent data).
2. **Third byte:** XOR-encrypted length field (after decryption, this byte specifies the size of the following ciphertext).
3. **Remaining bytes:** XOR-encrypted payload (length defined by the decrypted third byte).

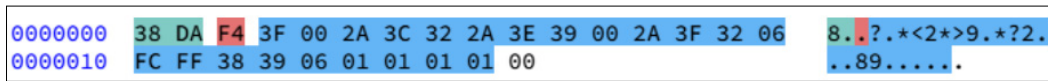


Figure 8: Encrypted string.

Here’s the Python code for decryption:

```
def decode_str(buf):
    length = buf[0] ^ buf[1] ^ buf[2]
    out = bytearray(buf)
    out[2] = length
    out[3:length+3] = bytearray(
        ((buf[i] ^ buf[1]) - buf[1]) & 0xff ^ buf[0]
        for i in range(3, length + 3)
    )
    return bytes(out)
```

In the example above, the decrypted ciphertext reveals the downloader, payload, and port.

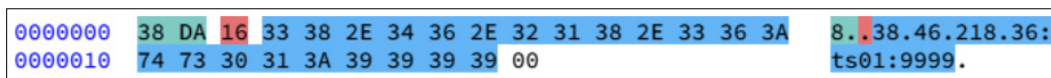


Figure 9: Decrypted string.

To decrypt all strings, IDAPython could be used – but the assembly code shows that the ciphertext address (passed as the first argument) requires multiple processing steps.

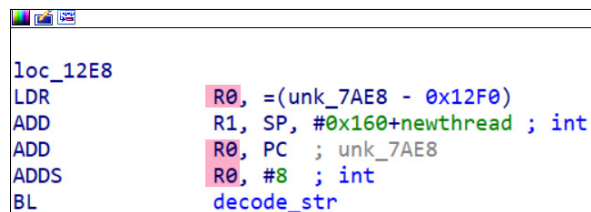


Figure 10: Parameters for decode_str.

For a more streamlined approach, flare_emu [4] simplifies the decryption workflow.

```
1 import flare_emu
2
3 def decbuf(buf):
4     leng=buf[0]^buf[1]^buf[2]
5     out=''
6     for i in range(3,leng+3):
7         tmp=((buf[i]^buf[1])-buf[1])&0xff
8         out+=chr((tmp^buf[0]))
9     return out
10
11 def iterateCallback(eh, address, argv, userData):
12     tmp=idc_bytes.get_bytes(argv[0],3)
13     leng=tmp[0]^tmp[1]^tmp[2]
14
15     if leng!=255:
16         buf=idc_bytes.get_bytes(argv[0],leng+3)
17         print(f'address:{hex(argv[0])}, length:{leng} --> {decbuf(buf)}')
18
19 eh=flare_emu.EmuHelper()
20 #decode_proc=0x00001BD8
21 decode_proc=eh.analysisHelper.getNameAddr('decode_str')
22 eh.iterate(decode_proc,iterateCallback)
```

Figure 11: flare_emu simplifies the decryption workflow.

The decrypted configuration contains two key elements: XXTEA key (0x7b15) and download URL (0x7ace).

```
address:0x7b15, length:32 --> b6d5c945d61a73641e710f357214f3e3
address:0x7af9, length:8 --> su -c id
address:0x7ae8, length:4 --> root
address:0x7b05, length:12 --> /data/system
address:0x7af0, length:5 --> %s/.v
address:0x7ace, length:22 --> 38.46.218.36:ts01:9999
address:0x7aa0, length:13 --> %s/install.sh
address:0x7ab1, length:25 --> u:object_r:system_file:s0
```

Figure 12: Decrypted configuration.

0x2: ASR-variant XXTEA algorithm

VoId uses a specific algorithm to encrypt the payload which, based on the constants and code patterns, can be easily identified as the XXTEA algorithm.

```
v16 = 0xB54CDA56 - 0x61C88647 * sub_529C(52, v34);
v17 = v34 - 1;
if ( v16 )
{
    v18 = *v15;
    if ( v14 >= 8 )
    {
        v33 = v15;
        v32 = (int)&v15[v34 - 1];
        do
        {
            v23 = (int *)v32;
            v24 = v17 ^ (v16 >> 2);
            v25 = v34;
            v26 = v18 ^ v16;
            v27 = (int *)v32;
            do
            {
                v28 = *--v27;
                v18 = *v23 - (((v28 ^ v36[v24 & 3]) + v26) ^ (((v28 >> 5) ^ (4 * v18)) + ((16 * v28) ^ (v18 >> 3))));
                v29 = v25-- - 2;
                v26 = v18 ^ v16;
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Figure 13: XXTEA algorithm.

Does it use standard XXTEA? No, it’s modified. A distinctive tweak in VoId replaces XXTEA’s LSR (logical right shift) with ASR (arithmetic right shift) – a subtle change that’s invisible in IDA’s decompiled pseudocode.

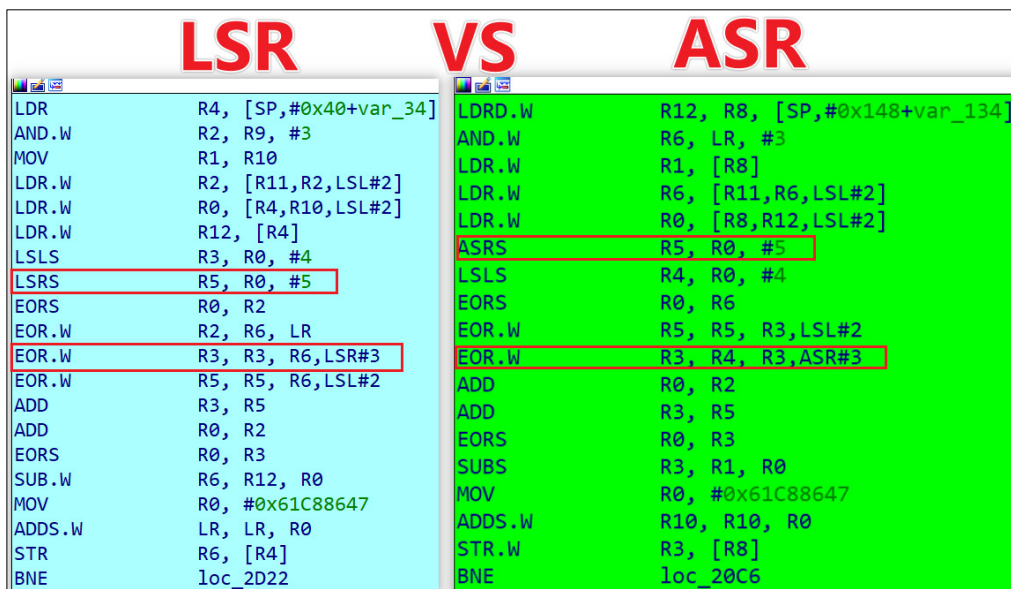


Figure 14: LSR vs ASR.

Therefore, to correctly implement decryption in Python, you need to:

1. Implement an ASR function.
2. Replace LSR operations in the standard XXTEA algorithm with ASR.

```
def asr(value, shift):
    if value & 0x80000000: # Check if MSB is set (negative number)
        return (value >> shift) | (0xFFFFFFFF << (32 - shift)) & 0xFFFFFFFF
    else:
        return value >> shift

for p in range(n, 0, -1):
    z = v[p - 1]
    # v[p] = (v[p] - ((z >> 5 ^ y << 2) + (y >> 3 ^ z << 4) ^ (sum ^ y) + (k[p & 3 ^ e] ^ z))) & 0xffffffff
    v[p] = (v[p] - ((asr(z,5) ^ y << 2) + (asr(y,3) ^ z << 4) ^ (sum ^ y) + (k[p & 3 ^ e] ^ z))) & 0xffffffff
    y = v[p]
z = v[n]
# v[0] = (v[0] - ((z >> 5 ^ y << 2) + (y >> 3 ^ z << 4) ^ (sum ^ y) + (k[0 & 3 ^ e] ^ z))) & 0xffffffff
v[0] = (v[0] - ((asr(z,5) ^ y << 2) + (asr(y,3) ^ z << 4) ^ (sum ^ y) + (k[0 & 3 ^ e] ^ z))) & 0xffffffff
```

Figure 15: Patched XXTEA with LSR operations replaced with ASR.

Using ciphertext `\xf5\x2b\x75\xf0\x47\xc8\xb5\x60\xbd\x86\x70\x36\x7c\xf8\xf0\x76\x82\xc2\x3b\xc2` and key `d99202373076ee9e` as an example, comparative analysis demonstrates that, while standard XXTEA fails, the ASR-XXTEA variant successfully decrypts the C2 address `52.14.24.94`.

```
asr_xxtea decryption
00000000: 35 32 2E 31 34 2E 32 34 2E 39 34 3A 38 31 4B 94 52.14.24.94:81K.
00000010: 0E 00 00 00 .....

standard xxtea decryption
00000000: 07 FB 71 D5 1C 8B EA 1A 98 0C 76 98 CB 56 DE D1 ..q.....v..V..
00000010: 14 4A 25 BD .J%.
```

Figure 16: Decryption using standard XXTEA vs the ASR-XXTEA variant.

Deviations from using standard algorithms are uncommon in malware in the wild, reflecting the Vo1d group’s substantial technical expertise and development resources.

0x3: DGA mechanism

The DGA algorithm of Vo1d employs a Caesar cipher-like method to process the seed. The samples hard code four top-level domains (TLDs) – xyz, top, com, and net – though xyz is not actually utilized in practice. The seed values and the number of domains generated per seed vary across different samples.

```
switch ( i )
{
    case 1u:
        seed[1] = sub_B954(*seed + 2 * seed[1]);
        break;
    case 2u:
        seed[2] = sub_B954(*seed + seed[2] - 1);
        break;
    case 3u:
        seed[3] = sub_B954(seed[1] + seed[2] + seed[3]);
        break;
    case 4u:
        seed[4] = sub_B954(seed[1] + 2 * seed[3] + seed[4]);
        break;
}
else
{
    *seed = sub_B954(*seed + seed[3]);
}

int __fastcall sub_B954(int a1)
{
    return (a1 - 97) % 26 + 'a';
}
```

Figure 17: DGA of Vo1d.

Since the algorithm only processes the first five bytes of the seed, the domain sequences produced by a specific seed show a clear pattern – only the first five bytes change, with the rest remaining constant.

DNS	Standard query 0xd689 A	dvy1x49c6ed34236.top
DNS	Standard query 0xc4cc A	hjxdr49c6ed34236.top
DNS	Standard query 0x8fdd A	dhsof49c6ed34236.top
DNS	Standard query 0x89c5 A	kkuec49c6ed34236.top

Figure 18: Only the first five bytes of the domain sequences change, with the rest remaining constant.

Figure 19 shows the functionally equivalent Python code to generate the seed sequence:

```
def normalize_char(char_code: int) -> int:
    return (char_code - ord('a')) % 26 + ord('a')
def transform_seed(seed: str, iterations: int = 1):
    chars = [ord(c) for c in seed]
    transformations = {
        0: lambda: normalize_char(chars[0] + chars[3]),
        1: lambda: normalize_char(chars[0] + 2 * chars[1]),
        2: lambda: normalize_char(chars[0] + chars[2] - 1),
        3: lambda: normalize_char(chars[1] + chars[2] + chars[3]),
        4: lambda: normalize_char(chars[1] + 2 * chars[3] + chars[4])
    }
    for _ in range(iterations):
        for pos in transformations:
            if pos < len(chars):
                chars[pos] = transformations[pos]()
        yield ''.join(chr(c) for c in chars)
```

Figure 19: Python code to generate the seed sequence.

Taking the seed 'edd3b49c6ed34236' as an example, the first four domains generated by the algorithm perfectly match the domains observed in the Pcap file.

```
for i in transform_seed("edd3b49c6ed34236", 4):
    print(i+'.top')
dvy1x49c6ed34236.top
hjxdr49c6ed34236.top
dhsof49c6ed34236.top
kkuec49c6ed34236.top
```

Figure 20: First four domains generated by the algorithm.

DGA seeds play a critical role in generating DGA-based C2 domains. Our analysis uncovered 258 seeds that help measure the botnet’s scale – 256 obtained through reverse engineering, with the remaining two detected via a novel approach: DNS co-occurrence analysis using the Codomain system.

Codomain is an innovative tool based on DNS co-occurrence technology, designed to monitor and analyse domain relationships by identifying shared query patterns. Its core principle is straightforward: if a group of domains is frequently queried by the same set of hosts within a short timeframe, they are likely associated.

For example, the VoId botnet accesses hard-coded C2 domains, DGA-generated C2 domains, and reporter domains during operation. When these queries meet specific temporal conditions, Codomain can establish correlations between them, enabling researchers to track attacker infrastructure. Taking the C2 domain works883.com as an example, it was found to be associated with a cluster of domains following the pattern {5-bytes}2940637fafa.com. These domains clearly match VoId’s DGA naming convention.


Rank	Anchor FQDN	Linked FQDN 	Together Count	Ratio	Anchor Count
1	works883.com	fjsjf2940637fafa.com 	3	0.1765	17
2	works883.com	tumune.com 	3	0.1765	17
3	works883.com	xfgun2940637fafa.com 	3	0.1765	17
4	works883.com	kgium2940637fafa.com 	3	0.1765	17
5	works883.com	xvxyi2940637fafa.com 	3	0.1765	17

Figure 21: The C2 domain works883.com was associated with a cluster of domains following the pattern {5-bytes}2940637fafa.com.

The DGA algorithm verification shows that fjsjf2940637fafa.com produces the identical domain sequence detected by Codomain. This marks the identification of a new seed, {5-bytes}2940637fafa, through the Codomain system – achieved without requiring sample capture.

```
for i in transform_seed("fjsjf2940637fafa.com", 4):
    print(i)
hlrxp2940637fafa.com
xfgun2940637fafa.com
kgium2940637fafa.com
xvxyi2940637fafa.com
```

Figure 22: DGA algorithm verification.

Remarkably, this seed has extended China’s infection horizon, with daily bot activity jumping from tens to roughly 20,000. Globally, it has contributed to roughly 150,000 daily infected IPs.

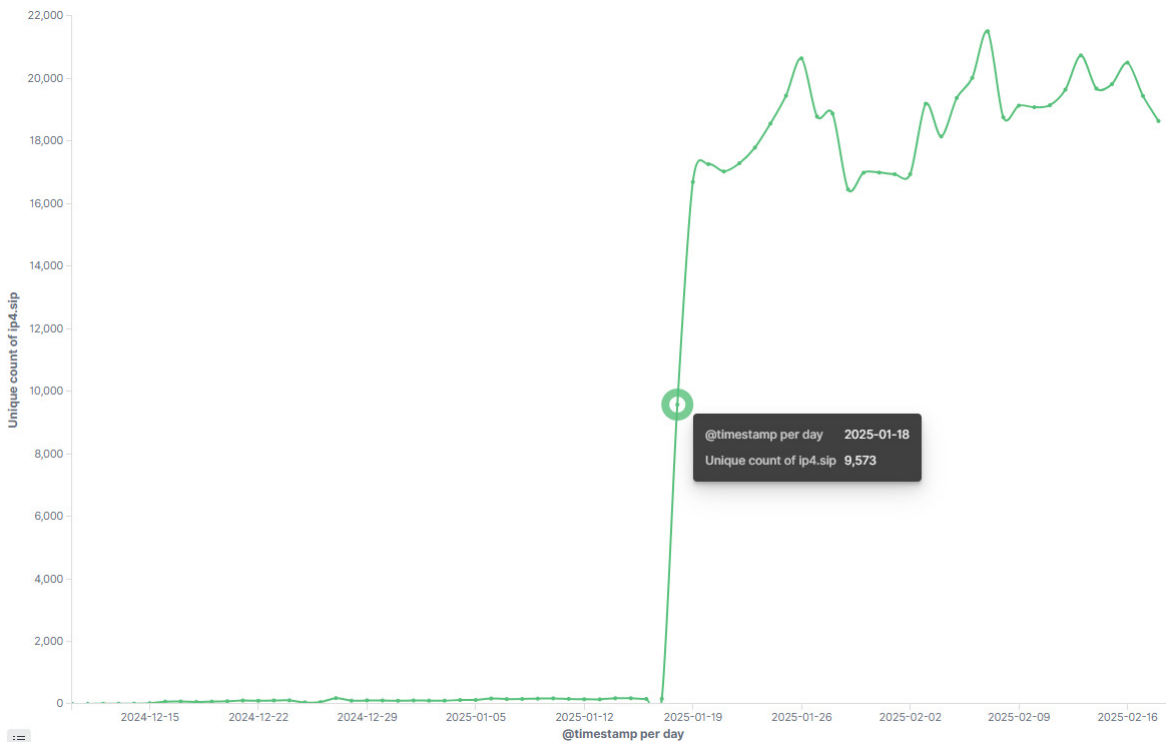


Figure 23: Daily active bots in China.

0x4: Dual-layer payload protection

Vo1d’s dual-layer payload protection works by first securing the XXTEA key with RSA, then encrypting the payload via ASR-XXTEA. The Vo1d sample hard codes an RSA public key in the N (modulus) - E (public exponent) format, where the N value is 256 bytes (little-endian), and the E value is a fixed constant of 65537.

000026F0	B9 34 C4 68 EA 7C C3 84 29 51 82 D5 36 C6 83 D1
00002700	E6 41 F7 12 47 AB D4 66 5C 09 7F F9 8A D4 0D 8A
00002710	98 8B 62 3A 59 5C 03 F8 6E 2B 82 33 71 D7 7F 9D
00002720	CE D8 28 1D 8A 37 21 EF 59 A9 8A FE 00 7F 22 AE
00002730	88 B4 EA B3 D0 3B AD CF F5 4A 56 CA FD CB D3 8A
00002740	55 1A F9 B7 1B 1E 6F 05 1F 4D 95 6F AE 92 4F 57
00002750	0D 4A D4 E9 94 6D B8 78 63 37 8A 97 24 C2 77 C2
00002760	05 5B DA 82 94 51 68 A6 CC 68 03 4E EB 8A 1A 14
00002770	E2 C1 10 DD C6 D4 48 52 C8 09 21 DE D1 25 E4 2B
00002780	F0 9D 9A 22 B6 C8 D3 24 66 2E 75 9B 70 C4 33 B8
00002790	82 1B 05 0B 0F 8A BD 86 11 05 65 CC 33 BC C7 0A
000027A0	43 96 44 7E 25 FB BD D3 E0 B0 B3 62 19 B6 EF DF
000027B0	60 98 E2 F9 8B F3 FE C1 33 1E F1 FF 6C CD 45 65
000027C0	9F CD 49 67 CC 86 9F 95 32 F6 4C 98 73 EC EA CB
000027D0	B1 1B A7 68 5F C5 38 A6 6C 64 8E 65 04 E2 DD 1F
000027E0	0E EC B9 AD 76 03 0B 78 97 13 63 DC 32 43 B0 C8

Figure 24: The RSA modulus N used to decrypt the XXTEA key.

The RSA ciphertext can be decrypted simply using Python’s pow function with the known parameter.

```
n_txt = bytes.fromhex('B9 34 C4 68 EA 7C C3 84 29 51 82 D5 36 C6 83 D1 E6
cipher_txt = bytes.fromhex('7b f2 6d 30 ee a1 2c 92 ba 23 db 24 9d 5e 8d
N = int.from_bytes(n_txt, "little")
cipher = int.from_bytes(cipher_txt, "big")
plain = pow(cipher, 65537, N)
plain_txt = int.to_bytes(plain, 256, "big")
hexdump.hexdump(plain_txt)
```

Figure 25: Decryption using Python pow function.

Taking payload ts01 as an example, after RSA decryption, the last 32 bytes of the decrypted data serve as the ASR_XXTEA key, with only the first 16 bytes ("07edb9cc7a134318") being used in practice.

```
000000 00 17 84 D5 11 7B F2 6D 30 EE A1 2C 92 BA 23 DB .....{.m0....# 000000 00 02 61 DA DD 4C CF A9 9F 67 B3 D3 D9 65 C2 8D ..a..L...g...e..
000010 24 9D 5E 8D F6 F0 74 12 6F 06 2B B9 E1 01 6F AD $.^..t.o.+...o. 000010 C3 63 59 E0 DC DB 0C 0E 81 BE 87 B5 08 18 4C E9 .cY.....L.
000020 9D 3D D8 59 45 83 47 6D 33 FB 0C 37 76 6A 97 37 .=.YE.Gm3..7vj.7 000020 F7 AD C3 D4 78 13 FC 97 79 AF E9 52 15 AC 5F 57 ...x...y..R...W
000030 32 AB 9D 97 C2 69 D8 02 ED 58 B3 44 19 76 A5 8F 2...i...X.D.v.. 000030 0F B7 37 6A 92 C1 77 92 FE 7D 47 86 15 92 6F 0C ..7j..w..jG...o
000040 65 08 1F 32 1E C0 B3 C3 88 75 A0 F5 11 9A 4E E9 e..2...u...n.. 000040 BE 33 DF B6 C4 DB 4D 3D 0A 36 0F 9D 61 6D F3 6F .3...M=.6..am.o
000050 20 7E 44 71 E4 4D 57 DE 94 27 19 6E 56 4A 0A 3E ~Dq.MW..'.nVJ.> 000050 A3 2A D8 B4 6A CF 46 69 4C 8C 6E DF 9D DC EA 5C .*.j.FiLn....\
000060 20 40 90 4C 75 1B 5A 33 EC 43 B7 59 7A E2 63 9D @.Lu.Z3.C.Yz.c. 000060 8E 49 12 52 A3 DD 8F AD 92 1D 4A F3 89 BD 62 2C .I.R.....J...b,
000070 2E BC 26 9C 32 B3 2E FF 73 1A 31 F9 E9 A2 B4 A0 .&.2...s.l... 000070 66 BA DF D0 89 A4 B8 54 30 26 B3 4C 02 9D A7 90 f.....T0&.L...
000080 FA BA 40 43 24 10 89 7D EF 9C 4C 62 3C A0 6B AD .qC$.}..Lb<.k. 000080 66 38 61 09 94 EF 35 27 8B FE 1A 14 BB 7B BE 21 f8a...5'....{.!
000090 04 2F F3 7F 39 0B EA 84 80 42 9C 20 51 3F A6 AA ./..9...B..Q?.. 000090 B4 1D F0 BC C0 28 11 6F 4D C3 BB CE DF E1 DD C4 .....(oM.....
0000A0 76 19 F6 DB AA CD AA 22 17 F1 CB 2A 20 82 68 97 V...".*..h. 0000A0 99 3E CD 2D 2E 81 53 38 7F 6C 4C 3A 67 89 DA 1B .>...S8 l:g...
0000B0 89 09 35 A0 46 4A CE 27 78 AB D9 EE 72 82 50 A2 .S.FJ.'x...r.P. 0000B0 A6 CA D7 66 72 67 55 BE A9 10 8C 08 70 69 CC 09 ...frgU....pi..
0000C0 D1 CF 14 41 64 DE 24 0A A8 2D 44 1E D3 61 05 33 ...Ad.$..D...a.3 0000C0 A7 19 36 54 19 88 8B 98 74 56 51 5A DF 2B F3 85 ..6T....tVQZ..+
0000D0 D1 A3 F2 06 C3 CE 28 BE 5A 62 A0 8A 7D A8 34 FD .....(Zb...).4 0000D0 75 4A 6A E6 30 BE A4 58 4D B0 60 BD 98 AB 45 00 uJj..0..XM'...E.
0000E0 D5 C1 A0 89 24 BE 22 59 79 B0 04 25 7B 4C 2C 71 ...$. "Yy...%{L,q 0000E0 30 37 65 64 62 39 63 63 37 61 31 33 34 33 31 38 07edb9cc7a134318
0000F0 27 1F CC 42 71 73 D1 D9 D5 B2 15 19 4E 89 95 50 ...Bqs.....N..P 0000F0 62 38 65 66 61 32 63 34 62 38 36 36 61 31 36 62 b8efa2c4b866a16b
000100 8C 52 87 DD 3D 5E 47 96 8E 37 FD 39 2A A1 F5 BC .R..^G..7.9*... 000100
```

Figure 26: The last 32 bytes of the decrypted data serve as the ASR_XXTEA key.

Decrypting the XXTEA ciphertext in the ts01 payload with this key yields the next malware stage.

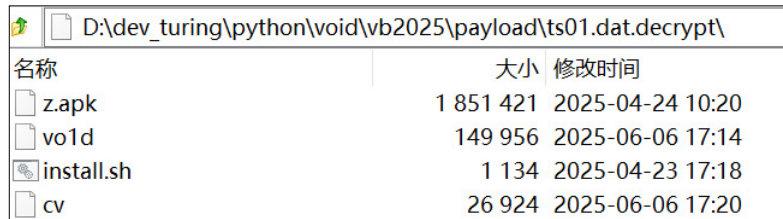


Figure 27: The next malware stage.

It’s worth emphasizing that algorithm identification rarely happens immediately during reverse engineering. For Vo1d, we initially leveraged flare_emu’s emulation capabilities to perform batch black-box decryption before ultimately identifying the RSA and ASR_XXTEA cryptographic implementations.

The most significant drawback of this method is its computational inefficiency – decrypting ts01’s RSA ciphertext yielded the same result ("07edb9cc7a134318"), but required approximately 1,500 seconds to complete.

```
1 import flare_emu
2
3 eh=flare_emu.EmuHelper()
4 eh.apiHooks['_memset_chk']=eh.apiHooks['memset']
5 eh.apiHooks['_memcpy']=eh.apiHooks['memcpy']
6 eh.apiHooks['_mypatch']=eh.apiHooks['bzero']
7 import hexdump
8 import time
9 start_time=time.time()
10 out=eh.allocEmuMem(0x100)
11 with open("ts01.dat", "rb") as f:
12     buf=f.read()[0x5:0x105]
13
14 hexdump.hexdump(buf)
15 rsa_ciphertext=eh.loadBytes(buf)
16 bufsize=eh.loadBytes(b'\x00\x01')
17 eh.emulateRange(startAddr=0x000021C0,endAddr=0x000026DC,registers={'R0':rsa_ciphertext,'R1':bufsize,'R2':out},skipCalls=False)
18 print(eh.getEmuState())
19 addr=eh.getRegVal('R0')
20 rsa_plaintxt=eh.getEmuBytes(addr,0x100)
21
22 end_time=time.time()
23 print(f"time {end_time-start_time} seconds")
hexdump.hexdump(rsa_plaintxt)
```

time 1480.8894879817963 seconds
00000000: 30 37 65 64 62 39 63 63 37 61 31 33 34 33 31 38 07edb9cc7a134318
00000010: 62 38 65 66 61 32 63 34 62 38 36 36 61 31 36 62 b8efa2c4b866a16b

Figure 28: Black-box decryption using flare_emu.

The RSA key used here matches the one described in the ‘Dual-layer payload protection’ section. As demonstrated by actual traffic analysis, the decrypted true C2 server was revealed to be 52.14.24.94:80.

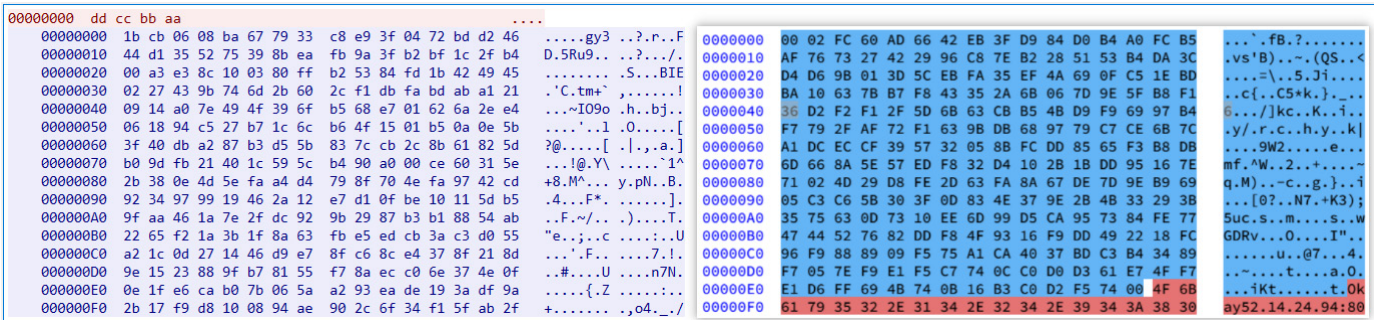


Figure 33: The decrypted true C2 server is revealed as 52.14.24.94:80.

Next, the bot reports device information to the real C2 server and awaits commands, with all communication encrypted via RSA. This time, Vo1d employed a different RSA key, still in the N-e format, where the N value is 256 bytes (little-endian), and the e value is a fixed constant of 65537. Given the nature of asymmetric encryption, as long as the private key remains uncompromised, only the C2 server can decrypt the bot’s requests or issue valid commands.

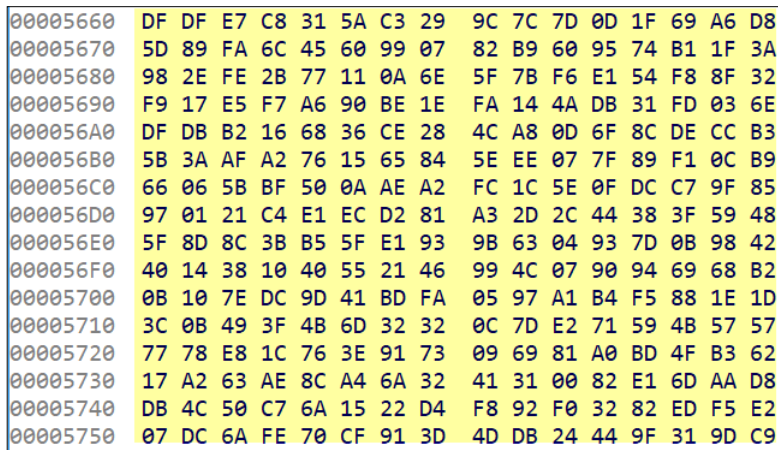


Figure 34: The RSA modulus N used for secure network communication.

BIGPANZI-VOID-BADBOX THREAT NEXUS

- **Vo1d and Bigpanzi**

Vo1d and Bigpanzi – both million-scale botnets targeting *Android* TV devices – share a highly unique string decryption algorithm. This consistency is unlikely to be coincidental. We suspect a deeper connection between them – potentially shared codebases, development resources, or even different branches of the same threat actor group.

- **Vo1d and BadBox**

BadBox, a million-device botnet, targets both mobile and TV devices – unlike Vo1d, which specializes in TVs. *Human Security* found that BadBox 2.0 and Vo1d both leverage catmore88.com as part of their infrastructure.

‘Satori researchers believe BB2DOOR is associated with vo1d, a malware strain disclosed by Russian cybersecurity firm Dr. WEB in 2024. While vo1d and BB2DOOR share some similarities—key among them the use of libanl.so—vo1d’s reach appears to be limited to CTV boxes, while BB2DOOR targeted several additional types of devices.’ [5]

Evidence collected by *XLab* further supports a connection between the two. The APK (MD5: 6e7c6f0feccd2e388af35975d1968e41) contains both Vo1d and BadBox components.



Figure 35: Vo1d and BadBox components.

However, their operational patterns differ significantly. For instance, Vo1d employs ASR_XXTEA encryption for payloads and uses custom algorithms to protect sensitive strings, while BadBox relies on RC4 for payload encryption and Base32 for string obfuscation. The former's security measures are noticeably more robust. If these were indeed from the same threat actor, we would theoretically expect consistent use of stronger encryption methods.

In fact, our findings show that Vo1d has distributed different payloads for various proxy providers. This leads us to hypothesize that Vo1d might simply be a delivery platform, with BadBox being just one of its clients.

CONCLUSION

In recent years, the security community has exposed several million-strong botnets targeting *Android* TVs and set-top boxes, such as BadBox, Bigpanzi and Vo1d. Why do these devices repeatedly fall prey to large-scale infections? We propose two key perspectives: supply chain dynamics and user behaviour.

- **Supply chain perspective:** Some device manufacturers have ties to illicit actors, pre-installing malicious components at the factory level. As shipment volumes grow, so does the infection scale, culminating in the jaw-dropping botnets we see today.
- **User behaviour perspective:** Many users harbour misconceptions about the security of TV boxes, deeming them safer than smartphones and thus rarely installing protective software. Additionally, the widespread practice of downloading cracked apps, third-party software, or flashing unofficial firmware – often to access free media – greatly increases device exposure, creating fertile ground for malware proliferation.

This is only the beginning – the battle against Vo1d, BadBox, Bigpanzi and similar threats will be protracted. This paper synthesizes known Vo1d botnet intelligence, offering a technical baseline for further security research. Stay patient, stay alert!

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