Efficient Static Binary Instrumentation in the Presence of Variable-Length Instructions

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Abstract

Binary instrumentation toolkits for the $x86/x86_64$ platforms in use today have a tendancy to use dynamic instrumentation approaches. While these toolkits are often well-designed and effective, they suffer from a large deficiency; they are ineffient because they perform all of their analysis, disassembly, and instrumentation at runtime.

In this work we present X86ElfInstrumentor, a static binary instrumentation toolkit for Linux on x86/x86-64 platforms that relies on the use of wholesale code relocation in order to remedy the difficulty created by the platforms' use of variable-length instructions. Code relocation of this kind allows the instrumentation tool to reorganize the application code in such a way that it can use the fast but far-reaching "long" jmp instruction to transfer control from the application to the instrumentation code rather than relying on multiple jumps or interrupts for the transfer. This technique leads to efficient instrumentation tools, with overheads for basic block counting that are an average of 48% of the overhead imposed by Pin, 18% of the overhead imposed by DynamoRIO, 10% of the overhead of Valgrind, and 5% of the overhead of Dyninst.

1 Introduction

Binary instrumention is the act of inserting extra code into a compiled application in order to observe or modify something about its behavior. x86elfinstrumentor is a static binary instrumentation toolkit for Linux on X86/X86_64 platforms. The goal of x86elfinstrumentor is to provide the ability to build instrumentation tools that produce very efficient instrumented applications. We accomplish this efficiency in several ways. The cost of instrumentation, tasks such as parsing, disassembly and code generation, is taken prior to runtime rather than at runtime as is done by current state of the art binary instrumentation tools for $X86/X86_{-}64$ [1, 2, ?]. We relocate the application code's functions, which affords us the opportunity to reorganize the code so that we can use larger yet more efficient instructions to transfer control from the application to the instrumentation code. We also use the concept of an instrumentation snippet, lightweight hand-written body of assembly code that can be inserted into the application rather than inserting only heavyweight functions.

Static instrumentation is used because efficiency is our most important design criteria. By performing instrumentation tasks statically we incur these costs outside of the application's run cycle. This does make certain tasks more challenging. For instance, indirect control flow

information is unknown or difficult to recover prior to runtime, which not only makes complete code coverage difficult but can also make correct instrumented code difficult to generate.

The X86/X86_64 family of platforms is the most utilized platform on the planet, yet binary instrumentation on them presents some major challenges. One such challenge is that X86/X86_64 uses variable-length instructions. A typical binary instrumentation tool on a platform with fixed-length instructions will replace a single instruction at the instrumentation point with a branch that transfers control to the instrumentation code. Using variablelength instructions this is not always possible since the branch instruction can be larger than the instruction at the instrumentation point. To address this, x86elfinstrumentor relocates and reorganizes the code for each function to ensure that enough empty space (ie nops) is available to hold a full-length branch instruction at each instrumentation point.

The introduction of lightweight instrumentation snippets into the instrumentation tool allows us to produce much more efficient instrumented code than is possible with instrumentation functions alone. Using instrumentation snippets, we can perform tasks like basic block counting almost entirely without calling instrumentation functions, and it allows us to take advantage of some other opportunities like asynchronous processing [3] for data collection tasks that do not require immediate processing.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 1 discusses the basic implementation of our static insstrumentation toolkit. Section 2 discusses our technique for performing code relocation. Section 3 details our code discovery technique and discusses issues pertaining to code coverage of our instrumentation package. Section 4.1 shows and evaluates some situations where instrumentation snippets can be useful. Section 5 shows our experimental re-

sults. Section 6 discusses some ideas for the future of x86elfinstrumentor, and Section 7 concludes.

2 Implementation

3 Relocation

The novel use of relocation in our instrumentation strategy stems from the fact that we are performing the instrumentation statically on a platform that uses a variable-length instruction set. A typical strategy used by static instrumentation tools on platforms with fixedlength instruction sets is to replace a single fixed-length instruction at the instrumentation point with a branch instruction that will transfer control to the code produced by the instrumentation tool. This is fairly straightforward to do because by the definition of a fixedlength instruction set, the instruction being replaced and the replacement branch have the same length. Performing static instrumentation in a variable-length instruction set does not afford us this luxury. In X86, an unconditional branch that uses a 32-bit offset requires 5 bytes, whereas some of the instrumentation points that interest us may use only a single byte.

This leaves two options for how to transfer control to the instrumentation code. We must either use a technique entirely distinct from the idea of using a single unconditional branch to execute the control transfer such as multiple shorter jumps or software interrupts, or we must somehow alter the application code so that it can accomodate a single large control instruction that is larger than the original amount of space available at the instrumentation point. A seperate technique for transferring control flow could be to use a series of branches, where the instruction in the instrumentation point is a small branch that trans-

fers control to a larger intermediate branch. We do not consider this method any further because the smallest unconditional branch instruction is 2 bytes in length, making it ultimately a half measure since there are instrumentation points with only a single byte available to them. Another option to consider is the method proposed by the BIRD project ??. They propose using the single-byte INT 3 instruction, a single-byte interrupt intended to be used by debuggers to set breakpoints, when a larger branch won't fit within the specified area. This instructions is functionally perfect for static instrumentation because it consumes only a single byte and allows us to transfer control to an arbitrary location by registering an exception handler with the system. We performed a cursory study on this scheme from an efficiency standpoint to determine whether it was worth further investigation. On a small benchmark set, our implementation of using INT 3 only when 5-byte unconditional branches do not fit at the instrumentation point introduces slowdowns of no less than 100-fold for counting the number of executions of each basic block in the code. As one might expect, this mechanism is unsuitable for efficient instrumentation because the very heavyweight system call conventions are being invoked fairly often.

We use the latter option, reorganizing the code at the function level so that there is enough space at every instrumentation point to accommodate a 5-byte branch. Specifically, the steps we use are as follows:

- 1. 1. Function Displacement
- 2. 2. Link Function Entries
- 3. 3. Branch Conversion
- 4. 4. Instruction Padding

Figure ?? gives a visual version of this process.

- 1. Function Displacement: Relocate the contents of the entire function to an area of the text section allocated to the instrumentation tool. Since functions are often packed tightly together, it is generally not possible to expand the size of a function without disturbing the entry points of another function.
- 2. Link Function Entries: Place an unconditional branch at the former function entry point that transfers control to the new function entry point. Most references to the entry point of a function are in the form of function calls, which routinely are indirect references (ie their value is computed or looked up at runtime) and are difficult to resolve prior to runtime.
- 3. Branch Conversion: Convert each short conditional branch in the relocated function to the equivalent 5-byte branch instruction. Since the code is being reorganized in the next step which may strain the limits of smaller 8-bit or 16-bit offsets, we convert all branches to use 32-bit offsets so that the targets of each branch will still be reachable without having the need to further reorganize the code. Note that there is some opportunity here to reduce space by using the smallest branch offset size that accommodates the branch, but this is an issue for future work.
- 4. Instruction Padding: According to the needs of the instrumentation tool, pad the instruction at each instrumentation point with *nop* instructions so that a 5-byte branch can fit.

There are several ways that this process can adversely affect the performance of the application independent of the overhead that will be imposed by inserting any extra instrumentation code. Each function call now has an extra control interruption associated with it since control must be passed first to the original function entry point and then to the relocated function entry point. It is possible that using 32-bit offsets for every branch rather than some smaller number of bits has an overhead associ-

ated with it. And since the code is being reorganized and expanded, we might destroy some positive alignment and size optimizations that the compiler might have made on the instructions in the function. We examine the practical overhead seen by these techniques by taking these steps without instrumenting the code for a series of benchmarks. The slowdown is XXXX...

4 Coverage

4.1 Code Coverage

Code and data can reside together in the text section of a program binary. This is done for a variety of reasons, including the storage of branch target locations (eg for a jump table) or small data structures that provide convenient lookup of certain data such as identifiers, descriptors, or other values.

Correctly determining what parts of the text sections are code and what are data is important. Consider what can happen if we mistakenly treat some data as code. We might choose to modify or relocate the apparent code to serve our instrumentation purposes. Then when the data at this location is referenced, the original program behavior may not be preserved: if we are lucky this will cause application failure due to some unexpected change in control flow or some state condition that is checked by the program. If we are unlucky the corruption might silently manifest itsself by modifying the output of the program. Alternatively consider what can happen if we mistakenly treat some code as data. We then will not try to insert code into this area or we might perform some other type of analysis that should be reserved for data alone. While this is almost certainly preferrable to the situation where we treat data as code, it is ideal to avoid both situations.

To this end, we use the program's symbol

table to help us determine which parts of the text sections are functions that are eligible to be subject for our code discovery algorithm. Our code discovery algorithm consists of two phases; control-driven disassembly backed up by linear disassembly. In more detail, the algorithm works as follows:

- 1. 1. Control-driven disassembly: from a function's entry point, follow all understandable control paths. If a problem is encountered, fall back to naive disassembly.
 - 2. Naive disassembly: from a function's entry point, disassemble each instruction in the order it appears in the function. If a problem is encountered, give up.

Problems that can be encountered are situations where an unknown opcode is encountered, where control jumps to the middle of an instruction we've already disassembled, or if control leaves the boundaries of the function. In most cases control-driven disassembly is sufficient to disassemble the entirety of a function, and in most cases control-driven disassembly is a straightforward process because control either falls through to the following instruction or the location of a branch target is embedded entirely within the instruction itsself. But there are also cases where the an indirect branch is used, where the target resides either at a fixed address (possibly with some offset), the address that resides in a register, or the address that is at a location given by a register. The latter two cases are very difficult to resolve without runtime information because the computation of the target address can be arbitrarily complex and can span function boundaries. Nevertheless, we perform a poophole examination of the previous instructions to the and can determine the address in simple cases.

Fortunately simple calculations are all that most compilers use to determine targets for jump tables, one of the more common uses of an indirect branch. Often an offset is added to a fixed location to determine where the data comprising the branch target resides. Therefore we treat such a fixed address as the first entry in a table whose entries are treated either as addresses or as offsets. We then make an iterative pass over this table to determine the target for each arm of the jump table, stopping when we find a value in the table that yeilds an address that is outside the scope of the function.

PUT EXAMPLE OF GNU COMPILER JUMP TABLE HERE

- 5 Snippets
- 6 Results
- 7 Future

There are several more places

8 Conclusions

References

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