

CS451 – Software Analysis

Lecture 8 Disassembly and Binary Analysis Fundamentals (part 2)

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Structuring disassembled code and data



- No matter the techniques used for analysing a binary, it is useful to apply some structure
- Compared to high-level code, machine code is unstructured
- We can impose a structure which can benefit analysis
- Structure can be applied to both code and data

Structuring code



- Compartmentalization
 - Break the code in small logical connected parts,
 e.g., in *functions*
- Revealing control flow
 - Use control transfers to understand how different parts of code use other parts

Functions



- Most programming systems use functions to split the program's logic to a series of tasks
- Functions may not survive in machine code
 - For non-stripped binaries the start/end of each function is preserved
 - For stripped binaries, we need to identify the function boundaries with analysis: function detection
- Function signatures are used by most disassemblers
 - Scan the instruction stream for known patterns
 - Process target addresses of the call instruction
 - Scan for known prologues/epilogues (e.g., leave; ret)

Problems



- Compilers perform optimizations
 - Example, tail-call elimination
- Different compilers may use different signatures
- Some programming systems (e.g., Rust) have custom calling conventions

Non-optimized code



```
$ gcc -Wall tail-call.c -c -o tail-call.o
$ objdump -d tail-call.o
Disassembly of section .text:
0000000000000000 <bar>:
   0: 55
                                   %rbp
                            push
                                   %rsp,%rbp
  1: 48 89 e5
                            mov
                                   9 <bar+0x9>
   4: e8 00 00 00 00
                            callq
  9: 5d
                                   %rbp
                            pop
   a: c3
                            reta
000000000000000b <foo>:
  b: 55
                            push
                                   %rbp
  c: 48 89 e5
                                   %rsp,%rbp
                            mov
                                  14 <foo+0x9>
  f: e8 00 00 00 00
                            callq
 14: 5d
                            pop
                                   %rbp
 15: c3
                            retq
0000000000000016 <main>:
 16: 55
                            push
                                   %rbp
 17: 48 89 e5
                            mov
                                   %rsp,%rbp
 1a: 48 83 ec 10
                            sub
                                   $0x10,%rsp
 1e: 89 7d fc
                            mov
                                   edi,-0x4(rbp)
                                   %rsi,-0x10(%rbp)
 21: 48 89 75 f0
                            mov
 25: e8 00 00 00 00
                            callq
                                   2a < main + 0x14 >
  2a: c9
                            leaveg
  2b: c3
                            retq
```

```
#include <stdlib.h>
int bar(void) {
    return rand();
}
int foo(void) {
    return bar();
}
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    return foo();
}
```

Optimized code



#include <stdlib.h>

return rand();

int bar(void) {

int foo(void) {

```
return bar();
$ gcc -Wall -O2 tail-call.c -c -o tail-call.o
                                                    int main(int argc, char *argv□) {
$ objdump -d tail-call.o
                                                         return foo();
Disassembly of section .text:
0000000000000000 <bar>:
  0: e9 00 00 00 00
                                 5 < bar + 0x5 >
                          jmpq
  5: 66 66 2e 0f 1f 84 00 data16 nopw %cs:0x0(%rax, %rax,1)
  c: 00 00 00 00
0000000000000010 <foo>:
 10: e9 00 00 00 00
                                 15 <foo+0x5>
                          jmpq
Disassembly of section .text.startup:
0000000000000000 <main>:
   0: e9 00 00 00 00
                                 5 < main + 0x5 >
                          pami
```

Optimized and stripped code

#include <stdlib.h>

return rand();

return bar();

int bar(void) {

int foo(void) {



```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
$ objdump -d tail-call.o
Disassembly of section .text:
                                                        return foo();
0000000000000000 <.text>:
   0: e9 00 00 00 00
                                0x5
                          jmpq
  5: 66 66 2e 0f 1f 84 00 data16 nopw %cs:0x0(%rax,%rax,1)
  c: 00 00 00 00
 10: e9 00 00 00 00
                                 0x15
                          pqmj
Disassembly of section .text.startup:
0000000000000000 <.text.startup>:
  0: e9 00 00 00 00
                                 0x5
```

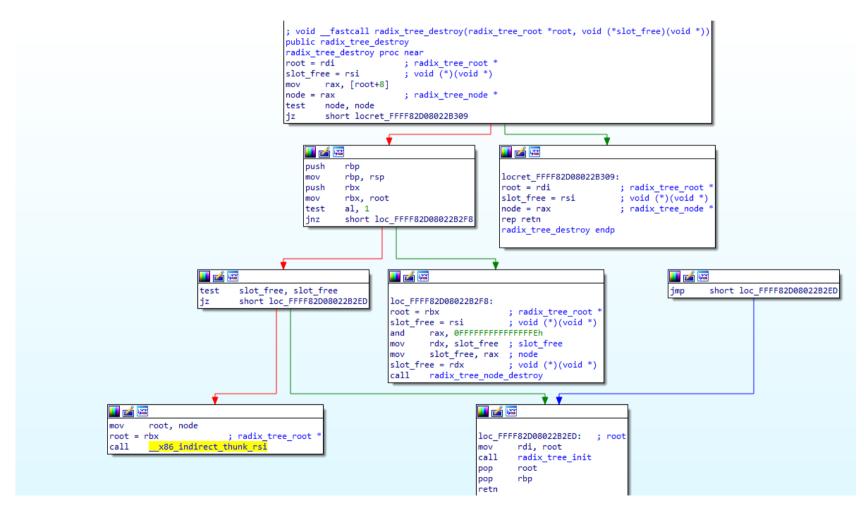
Control-flow graphs



- A single function may be very complicated
 - Breaking to smaller blocks may be useful
- The control-flow graph (CFG) of a program can be computed by identifying basic blocks (BBs) that transfer control to other basic blocks
- This can be done at the machine-code level

Control-flow graph in IDA Pro





Call graphs



- Focused on the relationship between call sites and functions compared to CFGs that explore the control-flow between basic blocks
- Computation of a call graph is based on the function calls emitted by the machine code
- Sometimes it is hard to resolve indirect calls

Object-oriented code



- Machine code from compilers that utilize OO concepts can be complicated
- Exception handling is realized using indirect jumps
- Code is structured in objects, that contain code and data
 - Extracting class hierarchies in machine code is hard (see MARX: Uncovering Class Hierarchies in C++ Programs, Andre Pawloski, et all, in NDSS 2018)
- Virtual methods are dispatched using indirect jumps
 - Using pointers to VTables

Structuring data



- Data is much harder to be identified by disassemblers compared to code
- Sometimes it is possible
 - If the disassembler finds a call to send() can infer the types of the arguments, since send() has a known prototype
- Some primitive types can be inferred by the used registers
 - A floating-point register will contain a floating-point variable
 - lodsb/stosb manipulate parts of a string

Inferring data is hard



Assignments of any type can produce the same machine code

```
ccf->user = pwrd->pwd_uid;
mov eax, DWORD PTR[rax+0x10]
mov DWORD PTR[rbx+0x60], eax
a[24] = b[4];
mov eax, DWORD PTR[rsi+0x10]
mov DWORD PTR[rdi+0x60], eax
```

Decompilation



- Decompilers attempt to reconstruct the highlevel source from machine code
- The quality of the result is heavily related to the accuracy of the disassembly produced
- The code produced by decompilers is not very easy to read
 - Variable names are automatically chosen (v1, v2, f1(), f2(), etc.)

Intermediate representation



- Machine code is hard to be automatically analysed
 - Many instructions with complex semantics and sideeffects (e.g., even a simple add will change the EFLAGS register)
- Sometimes it is useful to lift machine code to an intermediate representation (IR) form
 - LLVM (generic IR used by compilers), REIL and VEX IR (focused on reversing machine code)
- IR has a simpler instruction set and is more appropriate for automatic analysis
- Lifting machine code to IR is a difficult process

IR properties



- It is easier for an analysis to handle the semantics of a program expressed in IR
- It is harder for a human to read IR
 - Small set of simple instructions
 - Large sets of registers
 - Less concise, in general
- Performing the analysis at the IR level is done once
 - IR can then be transformed to any supported ISA (x86, ARM, etc.)

Binary analysis properties



- Interprocedural vs intraprocedural
 - Scope of analysis
- Flow sensitivity
 - Order in analyzed instructions is important
- Context sensitivity
 - Order of analyzed functions is important

Interprocedural vs intraprocedural

- Interprocedural analysis considers the entire program
 - Captures more complex interactions in the program
 - Can be infeasible for large programs
- Intraprocedural analysis considers a single function
 - Captures local interactions on a given function
 - The analysis is not complete, since functions usually interact with other functions

Control-flow analysis



Loop detection

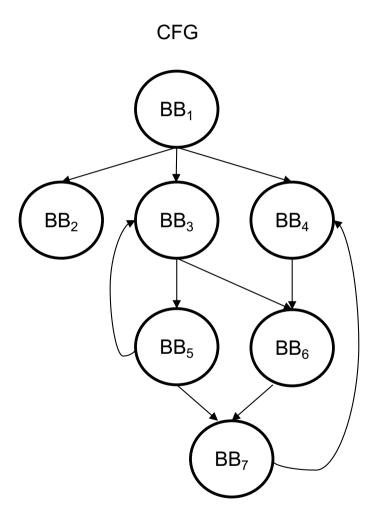
- High-level code has very specific structures for constructing loops (for {}, while {}, etc.)
- Machine code implements all loops using conditional branches
- Loops are often the reason of a program's bottleneck, so identifying them is important

Cycle detection

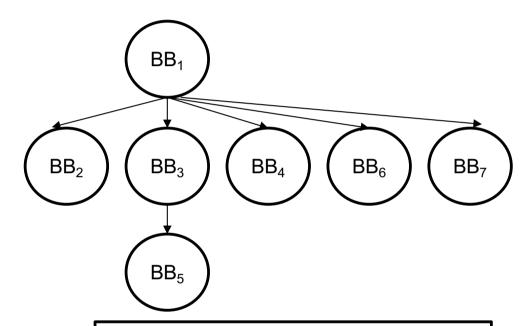
- Programs may have a circular flow, not related to a natural loop, in particular
- E.g., a function f1() may call f2(), and f2() may call f3(), and depending if a condition is met, f1() may be called again by f3()

Loop detection





Dominance tree



A basic block A is said to dominate another basic block B if the only way to get to B from the entry point of the CFG is to go through A.

Natural loop: find a back edge from a basic block B to A, where A dominates B.

Cycle detection



- Compute the CFG
- Start a DFS from the entry node of the CFG
- Push each node that DFS is visiting in a stack
- Pop when the DFS backtracks
- If you push a node that is already in, then you have a circle

Example



- · [BB₁]
- [BB₁, BB₂]
- · [BB₁]
- [BB₁, BB₃]
- $[BB_1, BB_3, BB_5]$
- [BB₁, BB₃, BB₅, BB₃] *cycle*
- •

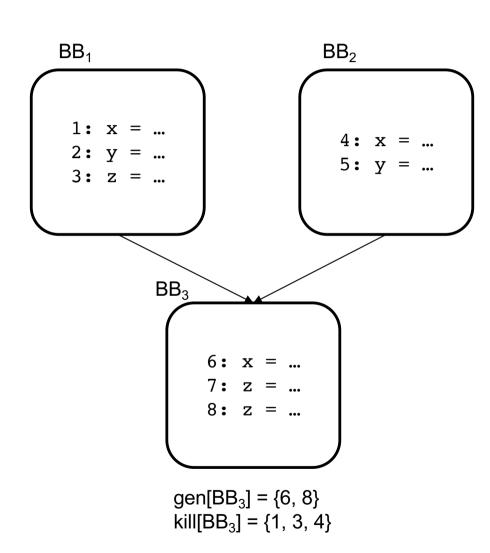
Data-flow analysis



- Analysis may reason about data, as well
- Reaching definitions analysis
 - Which data definitions can reach this point in the program?
 - A value assigned to a variable (memory location, register) can reach a given point in the code, without being overwritten by another assignment along the way
- Use-def chains
 - Each time a variable is used, find the location of the related definition
- Program slicing
 - Find all instructions that contribute to the values of a set of variables at a certain point of a program

Reaching definitions





For each basic block compute the definitions the block generates and kills.

Use-def chains



```
B_1
                                                                   Use-def chains tell you, at each
                                                                   point in the program where a
                  1: x = int(argv[0])
                                                                   variable is used, where that variable
                  2: y = int(argv[1])
                                                                   may have been defined.
                                                               Example: the use-def chain ud[y] = \{2, 7\}
                  B_2
                                                               in B<sub>2</sub> means that y has got its value either
                                                               by line 2 or 7.
                  3: z = x + y
ud[x] = \{1, 6\}
                  4: if (x < 5) goto B_3
ud[y] = \{2, 7\}
    B_3
                                           B_4
     3: z = x * y
                                           6: x = x + 1
                                           7: y = y * z
                                           8: goto B<sub>2</sub>
          ud[y] = \{2, 7\}
                                                   ud[x] = \{1, 6\}
                                                   ud[y] = \{2, 7\}
                                                   ud[z] = {3}
```

Program slicing



```
x = int(argv[0])
    y = int(argv[1])
2:
3:
4:
    z = x + y
    while (x < 5)
6:
      x = x + 1
8:
      z = z + x
9:
10:
      z = z * 5
11: }
12:
13: print(x)
   print(y)
15: print(z)
```

Slicing is a data-flow technique that aims to extract all instructions that contribute to the values of a chosen set of variables at a certain point in the program (called the *slicing criterion*).

Example: using slicing to find the lines contributing to *y* in line 14.

Homework



- Reproduce slides 6, 7 and 8 with other test programs
 - Observe how an optimized program is disassembled using objdump, compared to the non optimized version
- Create a program with a natural loop and a cycle
 - Observe the disassembled machine code