

ANDROID REVERSE ENGINEERING TOOLS: NOT THE USUAL SUSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

In the *Android* security field, all reverse engineers will probably have used some of the most well-known analysis tools such as *apktool*, *smali*, *baksmali*, *dex2jar*, etc. These tools are indeed must-haves for *Android* application analysis. However, there are other interesting tools and issues, which are seldom covered in conferences, and these are what this paper is about.

The paper discusses five independent points: (1) how to share a reverse engineering environment for *Android* application analysis, (2) how to write *JEB2* scripts, (3) the status of *Android* debuggers, (4) how to read TLS encrypted communications, and (5) how to use *Radare2* on Dalvik.

1. INTRODUCTION

The reverse engineering of *Android* applications is a topic that is now widely covered on the Internet. There are several tutorials, videos and articles explaining how to do it [1–4]. All of these present approximately the same steps (what is an APK, what is an *Android* manifest, how to unpack, reading *smali*, decompiling, re-assembling APKs) and use the same tools (*apktool*, *smali/baksmali*, *AXMLPrinter*, *Java Decomplier*, *Androguard*). As a matter of fact, this approach is perfect, the tools are very handy, and I do encourage reading those links.

Those working in the field (e.g. anti-virus analysts) also face many other advanced issues, one of which is the need to unpack or de-obfuscate advanced samples. This, too, has been covered several times by researchers [5–8]. However, several other questions remain unanswered. In this paper, we tackle the following:

- How to share a reverse engineering environment for *Android* applications with co-workers.
- How to script *Android* reverse engineering tools to ease sample analysis.
- Whether it is possible to debug a suspicious application, set breakpoints and run it step by step to understand what is happening.
- With *Android* application developers now becoming more and more au fait with the use of HTTPS, we consider how we can inspect the SSL/TLS encrypted flows of applications.
- Whether we can go beyond the beaten track and use disassemblers other than the usual *apktool*, *baksmali*.

This paper tackles these independent issues from the angle of a mobile anti-virus analyst. However, the techniques apply to the reversing of any *Android* application. Each issue is discussed in its own section.

2. A DOCKER IMAGE FOR ANDROID REVERSE ENGINEERING

2.1 Why a Docker image?

An anti-virus analyst must inspect each suspicious sample in a clean and fresh environment. Occasionally, you also need to share a sample with a co-worker to get his/her advice on a specific point. Alas, setting up a reverse engineering environment is time consuming. It is not, strictly speaking, difficult to do, but there are many different tools to install (*apktool*, *baksmali*, *Java Decomplier*, *AXMLPrinter*, *Android emulator*...), each with different set-up steps, and no automated procedures.

Consequently, a portable reverse engineering environment for *Android* applications would be most helpful. To create such an environment, some initiatives have proposed virtual machines with all the necessary tools. For example, there is the *Android Reverse Engineering (ARE)* VM [9] or the *Androl4b* VM [10]. The downside of VMs is that you must download gigabytes of information (an entire *Linux* host as well as *Android* tools), and often the environment you get is obsolete because the VM hasn't been maintained.

To deal with these issues, I propose an *Android* reverse engineering *Docker* image. *Docker* [11] is ‘an open-source project that automates the deployment of applications inside software containers’ [12]. Compared to a full VM, the download size is reduced because:

1. *Docker* containers rely on the underlying OS of the host and need not contain a full OS [13].
2. *Docker* images are made of several layers, which are like download chunks. Those layers can be re-used across images, so that if a given image uses layers A and B, and another image uses B and C, then B does not need to be re-downloaded.

My *Docker* image is uploaded to the *Docker Hub* and can be downloaded directly using the *Docker* command `docker pull`. Precisely, the steps to use my environment are:

1. Install *Docker* (if you haven't done so already).
2. Retrieve the *Android RE Docker* image:
`docker pull cryptax/android-re`
3. Launch one (or multiple) container(s):
`docker run -d options cryptax/android-re`

You immediately get an apparently separate *Linux* host which you can SSH into or use VNC (desktop sharing) and get access to *Android* reversing tools and emulators.

The use of a *Docker* image also improves the maintenance issue. Indeed, a *Docker* image is built from a *Dockerfile*, which is like a ‘source script’ to create the image. For instance, the *Dockerfile* specifies each package to install and the commands necessary for the set-up of the container. This *Dockerfile* is shared at [14] and you can freely customize it to your own needs, or update it to this or that newer version.

2.2 Tricks for image creation

In this subsection, I share a few tricks I used to set up the *Dockerfile* for my *Docker* image.

| Solution | Pros | Cons |
|------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Share display | Lightweight | Only works with hosts that support X11 (and sometimes bugs) |
| SSH X forwarding | Lightweight | Won't work on Windows, bug on Mac |
| VNC viewer | Need to install vncviewer | Screen resolution set by the container. Container windows appear inside the VNC viewer window. Container needs to contain a window manager and X11 server. |

Table 1: Pros and cons of solutions for running GUI apps in Docker.

2.2.1 Docker and GUI

Docker is particularly well suited to creating compartments containing daemons, services, web servers, etc. Surprisingly, support for graphical applications isn't straightforward, and there are many questions and blog posts on that [15]. Basically, the *Docker* container is seen as a remote Unix host, and there are three alternatives (see Table 1):

1. **Share your display with the container.** Run `xhost +`. Then launch the container, and in the options be sure to share the DISPLAY environment variable and X11 sockets:


```
docker run -d -e DISPLAY=$DISPLAY -v
    ↪ /tmp/.X11-unix:/tmp/.X11-unix
    ↪ OTHER-OPTIONS --name mycontainer
    ↪ cryptax/android-re
```
2. **Use X forwarding in SSH.** This relies on X11 once again. When you connect to the container via SSH, specify option `-X` to enable X11 forwarding.
3. **Use VNC.** In this case, the display of graphical applications is handled by the container. The container contains a VNC server (which is a graphical desktop sharing system). When you use the container, you connect a VNC client to the container's VNC server and share its desktop.

The *Android* emulator requires GLX support. Consequently, the container must be configured with an X11 display server supporting GLX. For example:

```
Xvfb :1 +extension GLX +render -noreset
  ↪ -screen 0 1280x1024x24&
  ↪ DISPLAY=:1 /usr/bin/xfce4-session
  ↪ >> /root/xsession.log 2>&1 &
```

2.2.2 Two commands

So, if we want to be flexible, our *Docker* image is going to need (1) an SSH server and (2) a VNC server in the container. Normally, a server is started in the Dockerfile via a CMD. For example:

```
CMD ["/usr/sbin/sshd", "-D"]
```

If we specify another CMD for VNC, we are in for a surprise: Dockerfiles do not support multiple CMDs. The last CMD supersedes all previous ones. The recommended solution is to use supervisor [16], a process control system.

In our case, we configure supervisor to start both SSH and VNC, and run supervisord. In Listing 1, lines 4 and 5 configure the SSH server. Lines 6 and 7 launch a personal script, `startXvfb.sh`, which starts both Xvfb and the VNC server.

```
# Configure supervisor
RUN echo "[supervisord]" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
RUN echo "nodaemon=true" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
RUN echo "[program:sshd]" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
RUN echo "command=/usr/sbin/sshd -D" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
RUN echo "[program:startxvfb]" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
RUN echo "command=/bin/sh
  ↪ /root/startXvfb.sh" >>
  ↪ /etc/supervisor/conf.d/supervisord.conf
...
CMD [ "/usr/bin/supervisord" ]
```

Listing 1: Configuration of supervisor in a Dockerfile.

2.2.3 Passwords

The password for logging into the VNC server is hard coded in the Dockerfile (see Listing 2).

```
ENV VNC_PASSWORD "rootpass"
RUN x11vnc -storepasswd $VNC_PASSWORD
  ↪ ~/.vnc/passwd
```

Listing 2: Specifying a hard-coded password to VNC in the Dockerfile (use with care).

The SSH password is hard coded, too. As we wanted a simple environment, there is only one user, root. So root needs to be able to SSH. This is not possible by default; the SSH server configuration needs to be modified to authorize root login (see Listing 3).

```
RUN echo "root:$SSH_PASSWORD" | chpasswd
RUN sed -i 's/PermitRootLogin
  ↪ prohibit-password/PermitRootLogin
  ↪ yes/' /etc/ssh/sshd_config
RUN sed 's@session\s*required\s*pam_loginui@
  ↪ d.so@session optional
  ↪ pam_loginuid.so@g' -i /etc/pam.d/sshd
```

Listing 3: Allowing root login in the Dockerfile (use with care).

Note that this is something you might want to change for your own environment. The use of hard-coded passwords also means that the *Docker* container should *not* be made available publicly on the web.

2.2.4 Android emulator

An important step in the Dockerfile is the installation of an

Android emulator. Normally, *Android* emulators are installed using a graphical tool, named `android`. Actually, `android` also works in the command line and can therefore be used in a Dockerfile. The steps are :

1. Download the *Android* SDK, unzip it, and set up the path.

```
RUN wget -q -O "/opt/tools-linux.zip"
    ↳ https://dl.google.com/android/repo
    ↳ ository/...
RUN unzip /opt/tools-linux.zip ...
...
ENV PATH $PATH:/opt/...
```

2. Then, you can use `android` to update the SDK tools, platform tools and build tools, get a version of *Android* and get a system image for a given architecture (e.g. ARM):

```
RUN echo y | android update sdk
    ↳ --filter tools --no-ui --force -a
RUN echo y | android update sdk
    ↳ --filter platform-tools --no-ui
    ↳ --force -a
```

As the command line `android` asks for user confirmation, `echo y` is needed to run the command in the background with user input.

3. Create the *Android Virtual Device (AVD)*

```
RUN echo n | android create avd
    ↳ --force --name AVDNAME --target
    ↳ ANDROID-VERSION --abi
    ↳ "default/armeabi-v7a"
```

4. The last step is to export ports used by *Android* emulators. The first console port to be used by default is 5554. The *Docker* container must open that port so that you can telnet into the *Android* emulator console.

2.2.5 Disk space

Finally, disk space should be taken into account. If we configure numerous packages in the Dockerfile, the container will be huge, and we will gain little compared to using a VM. The Dockerfile needs to be set up only with what is used (you can customize mine to remove what you don't need).

Additionally, it is good to clean up package caches. There are

```
v0[1] = c.a(new byte[]{83, 115, 47, 37, 47, 115, 49, 51, 56, 41, 48, 57, 115, 42, 62, 51, 36, 59, 41, 57, 47, 40, 115, 47, 57, 6
v0[2] = c.a(new byte[]{118, 120, 36, 46, 36, 120, 58, 56, 51, 34, 59, 50, 120, 33, 53, 56, 47, 33, 62, 51, 50, 56, 120, 62, 57,
v0[3] = c.a(new byte[]{106, 40, 116, 126, 116, 40, 106, 104, 99, 114, 107, 98, 40, 113, 101, 104, 127, 96, 114, 98, 116, 115, 40
v0[4] = c.a(new byte[]{116, 27, 71, 77, 71, 27, 89, 91, 80, 65, 88, 81, 27, 66, 86, 91, 76, 66, 93, 80, 81, 91, 27, 92, 91, 88,
v0[5] = c.a(new byte[]{48, 109, 49, 59, 49, 54, 39, 47, 109, 39, 54, 33, 109, 43, 44, 43, 54, 108, 32, 55, 43, 46, 38, 48, 45, 4
v0[6] = c.a(new byte[]{23, 15, 68, 69, 86, 15, 86, 66, 79, 88, 85, 83, 69, 82, 55});
v0[7] = c.a(new byte[]{102, 85, 9, 3, 9, 85, 23, 21, 30, 15, 22, 31, 85, 12, 24, 21, 2, 29, 15, 31, 9, 14, 85, 10, 27, 8, 27, 23
v0[8] = c.a(new byte[]{101, 84, 8, 2, 8, 84, 31, 30, 13, 18, 24, 30, 8, 84, 13, 18, 9, 15, 14, 26, 23, 84, 22, 18, 8, 24, 84, 13}
```

Figure 1: *Android/Ztorg* sample with the original obfuscated strings.

```
v0[1] = "/sys/module/vboxguest/sections/.strtab";
v0[2] = "/sys/module/vboxvideo/initsize";
v0[3] = "/sys/module/vboxguest/sections/.symtab";
v0[4] = "/sys/module/vboxvideo/holders";
v0[5] = "/system/etc/init.buildroid.sh";
v0[6] = "/dev/vboxuser";
v0[7] = "/sys/module/vboxguest/parameters";
v0[8] = "/sys/devices/virtual/misc/vboxuser/subsystem";
```

Figure 2: *JEB2* script has de-obfuscated the strings.

several best practices on the web explaining how to optimize one's Dockerfile [17].

3. JEB2 SCRIPT

JEB is a graphical *Android* application decompiler, commercialized by *PNF Software*, and quite often used by people in the field. Similarly to *IDA Pro*, reverse engineering tasks can be scripted, since version 2.0.14 (*JEB2*), by Python code. It is particularly interesting to automate repeatable tedious tasks that must be performed for a given analysis. *PNF Software* provides documentation [18] and blog posts [19] to help write your first scripts, but the examples are too simple (print hello world) to assist the reverse engineer in real tasks.

This section explains how to implement a string de-obfuscator – a common requirement when reversing malicious samples – as a *JEB2* script, taking as example a sample of *Android/Ztorg*¹.

3.1 Setting up *JEB2* for scripts

The first preliminary step is installation. Not always so clear in the documentation, this is fortunately easy: first install *Jython* (Python for Java platforms), then put your script in the `./JEB-HOME/scripts` directory. Also, make sure to bookmark the API reference [20], as this is a must-have for script development.

3.2 De-obfuscator script goals

We notice that the *Ztorg* sample uses string obfuscation. The obfuscated strings are loaded as a byte array (with no apparent meaning) and decoded by a routine – specifically in this case by method `a()` of class `c` in package `a.b` (the sample also obfuscates names, as you can see) – see Figure 1. The decoding routine has been reversed at [21].

We want to find all classes that initialize such obfuscated strings and automatically de-obfuscate them. The result is displayed in Figure 2.

3.3 Script development

We mentioned that the official documentation is too basic, nevertheless *PNF Software* provides several sample scripts on

¹ sha256: 2c546ad7f102f2f345f30f556b8d8162bd365a7f1a52967fce9
06d46a2b0dac4.

Github [22]. The closest to our needs is named `JEB2JavaASTDecryptStrings.py` and serves as a base for our script.

My script is available at [23].

Basically, we keep the beginning of the example: imports, initialization of back-end engine, open first project and enumerate decompiled classes (see Listing 4). There are very few variations from the original script (class renaming, a few unnecessary lines removed) until that point (line 45 of `JEB2JavaASTDecryptStrings.py` – which corresponds to line 35 of my own script).

```
self.units = RuntimeProjectUtil.findUnitsBy [
    ↪ Type(prj, IJavaSourceUnit,
    ↪ False)
```

Listing 4: Enumerating decompiled classes of a given project.

In the Ztorg sample, we notice that the strings to decompile are always located in static class constructors (see Listing 5).

```
static {
    b.a = c.a(new byte[]{15, 116, 8});
    b.b = c.a(new byte[]{110, 114, 105, 111});
    b.c = c.a(new byte[]{105, 4, 25, 8, 21,
    ,! 107, 8});
    b.d = c.a(new byte[]{85, 29, 66});
}
```

Listing 5: In Android/Ztorg, string de-obfuscation occurs in static constructors.

So, the first step is to locate the static constructor:

1. Get the *JEB2* object which represents the class:

```
javaClass = unit.getClassElement()
```

In the API, this returns an object of type `IJavaClass`².

2. Parse all methods of the class (`getMethods()`).
3. Check that the name of the class corresponds to a static constructor. We can break afterwards.

```
if m.getName() == '<clinit>'
```

Then, we need to find all lines in the static constructor which involve a call to the de-obfuscation routine. In *JEB2*, lines are more precisely statements. We parse the method's statements:

```
for statement in m.getBody():
```

There are several types of statements: function calls, assignments, conditions, returns etc. In our sample, obfuscated strings appear in assignments. So, we filter assignment statements:

```
if statement.getElementType() ==
    ↪ JavaElementType.Assignment:
```

This is where it gets a bit tricky. The obfuscated strings appear in:

1. Simple assignments.

```
v = c.a(...)
```

The right side of the assignment, which we retrieve with a call such as `statement.getRight()`, is the call to the de-obfuscation routine. That's what we need to modify to

```
v = ''de-obfuscated''
```

²See `getClassElement` in `IJavaSourceUnit` in the API.

2. More complex assignments:

```
v = new String(c.a(...))
```

The right side of the assignment is not a call but a `new`, which contains a call to the de-obfuscation routine. We wish to transform this to something like:

```
v = new String(''de-obfuscated'')
```

So, to check if a statement calls the de-obfuscation routine, we must:

- Check if the statement's `getRight()` is a call to our routine (case 1). We match the routine by checking its signature `La/b/c;->a([B)Ljava/lang/String;` (remember, the decoding routine is `a.b.c.a()`):

```
getMethod().getSignature()
```

- Otherwise, check the right part has sub elements that contain a call to our routine (case 2). We parse elements with

```
for rightSub in statement.getRight().ge [
    ↪ tSubElements():
```

When we have found such a statement, we need to de-obfuscate. This is the point at which we call our de-obfuscation method.

Finally, we could just print the result in the console, but even nicer, we want the de-obfuscated string to replace the part with `c.a(...)`. This is done by a call to `replaceSubElement()` at line 90 of Listing 6, where:

- `elem` is the right-hand part which contains the `c.a(...)`, e.g. `statement.getRight()`.
- `father` is the element which contains that element. Either the right-hand side part of an upper level, or the statement, for example.

The new de-obfuscated string is created with `self.cstbuilder.createString()` (line 90) and the *JEB2* window is updated by notifying it (`unit.notifyListeners()` - line 91).

```
90   father.replaceSubElement(elem,
    ↪ self.cstbuilder.createString(''.join(m [
    ↪ ap(chr, decbytes))))
```

```
91   unit.notifyListeners(JebEvent(J.UnitChange))
```

Listing 6: Replacing the obfuscated string with the decoded one.

4. DEBUGGING

Android sample debugging is a dream for many reverse engineers. Especially on complicated samples, it is very handy to put a breakpoint on a critical line, run the code step by step, inspect (or even modify) variables and stack. As far as I know, there are two tools that allow this to be done at Dalvik level: *JEB2* (that we mentioned in Section 3) and *CodeInspect* [24].

I tried both *JEB2* version 2.2.11 (the latest version at the time of writing this paper) and *CodeInspect* (licensed demo of Oct 2016). The results are promising for the future, but not yet mature.

4.1 CodeInspect

The main issue I faced with *CodeInspect* was its weight. It took me close to three minutes to open a debugger session.

Nevertheless, if you are patient enough, it works well, and I successfully debugged an instance of Riskware/InnerSnail!Android³ (see Figure 3).

That sample uses the `DexClassLoader` class to load a Dalvik executable file. The file is passed as an argument in the class constructor, but with static analysis I couldn't find out its value. So I opened the project in *CodeInspect*. The Dalvik bytecode is converted to *Jimple*, which is an intermediate representation of Java. It is different from *smali*, but easy to follow. I set a breakpoint on the corresponding line, opened a debugger session and attached it to an existing emulator (alternatively, *CodeInspect* can launch another one). It installed the sample on the emulator, ran to the breakpoint and read the value of the variable (a hidden zip filename).

4.2 JEB2

With *JEB2*, the steps are essentially the same, except the *JEB2* GUI does not install and run the application – you need to do it. To start the application:

```
am start -D -S -n PACKAGENAME/ACTIVITYNAME
```

where package name is something like

`com.mx.cool.videoplayer`, and activity name is a relative path to the package name, e.g. `.activity.MainActivity` (don't forget the initial dot).

I tried it over two different samples: Android/Crosate.A!tr⁴ and the Ztorg of Section 3. Unfortunately, I encountered numerous bugs and crashes (which I reported to the developers) with the current version of *JEB2* and had difficulties completing the work.

³ sha256: c5c11408483eb87781af30280b2878890f5741fe63d569ae9
e3689c1e550eaa4

⁴ sha256: 15281dbe2603f5973d53c5fddabbcc3de6ad3ec65146aa2ffb
34a779ea604f82

4.3 Conclusion

Hopefully, the situation will improve both for *CodeInspect* and *JEB2* in the next few months. Note that running a debugger session obviously runs the sample, so beware not to set the breakpoint too far, after critical malicious activities. Also, if you modify the code, it recompiles a new application, which might raise ethical issues in the case of malware analysis because it then virtually creates a new malicious sample.

5. HTTPS FLOW INSPECTION

Good news: more and more *Android* applications use TLS to communicate with a remote server. However, for the reverse engineer, especially the anti-virus analyst, this presents another problem, because the communication flow is now encrypted and thus not understandable. How can we decrypt the flow?

The solution is Man-in-the-Middle (MitM), where a host we own is configured to impersonate the server for the client and, reciprocally, the client for the server. When the client communicates with the server, the idea is that the MitM host intercepts the request and provides a certificate of its own instead, claiming it is the server. The client is fooled and consequently encrypts messages for the MitM host, not for the server. Server responses to the client are handled in the same way, with the MitM host claiming it is the client this time.

Mitmproxy is able to do this automatically. This tool runs on the MitM host. It generates certificates automatically on the fly for each communication to a TLS server, and decrypts and displays packets that flow through it (packet modification is even possible).

Figure 4 explains the architecture of our reverse engineering lab. The *Android* smartphone and the MitM host are on the same (Wi-Fi) network.

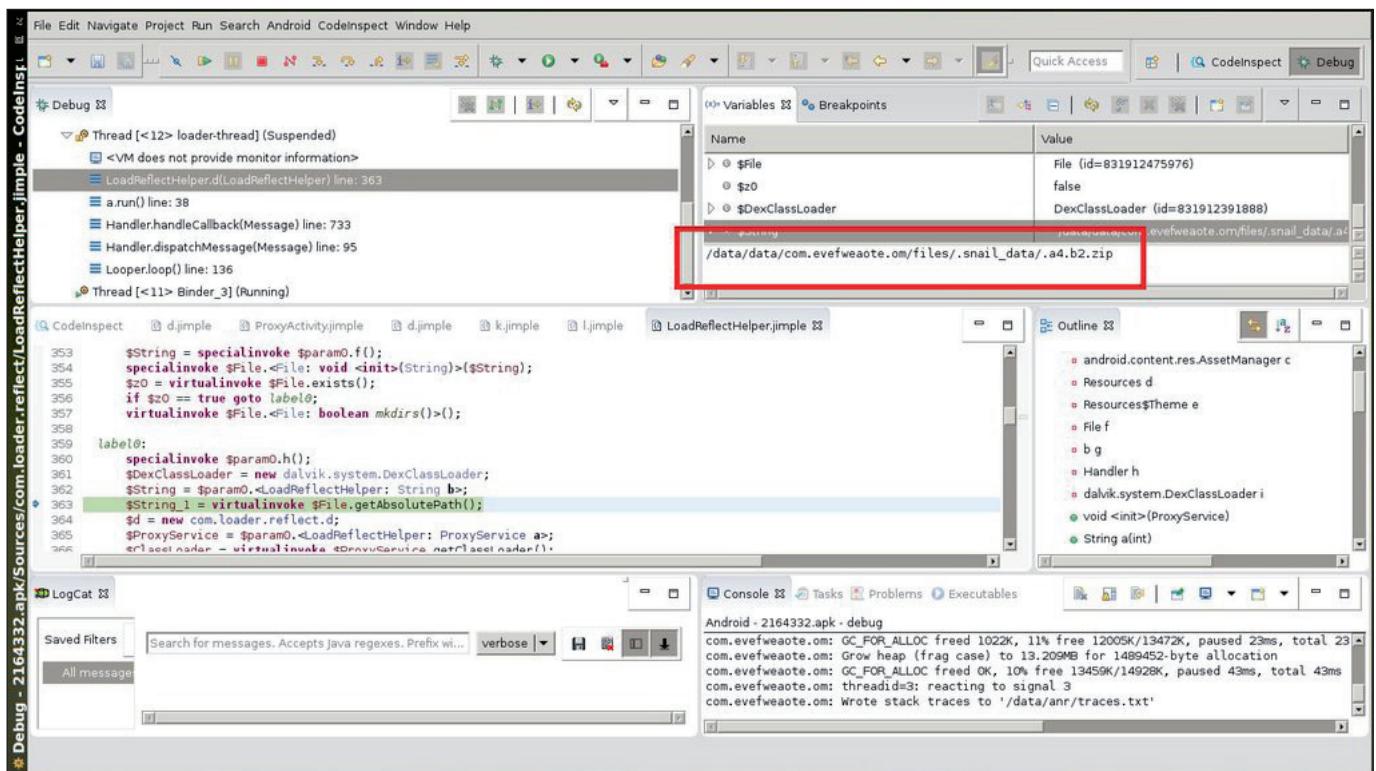


Figure 3: A debug session with *CodeInspect*, where we inspect the content of a variable.

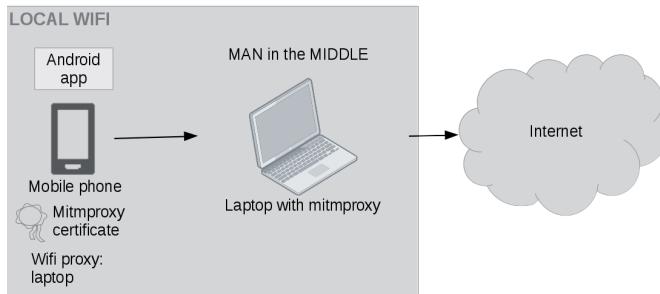


Figure 4: Set-up to perform MitM of Android application communications.

To intercept network packets, we modify the configuration of the smartphone's Wi-Fi connection to use a proxy: specify the IP address of the MitM host, and default port 8080⁵. Thus, all packets of the smartphone go to the MitM host.

To impersonate the real server, the MitM host generates a (fake) server certificate, signed by its own CA. As this CA is not known by the smartphone, it must be added to the smartphone's SD card:

```
push ./mitmproxy/mitmproxy-ca-cert.cer
```

Then, on the smartphone, install the certificate: Settings -> Security -> Install from SD Card, and select the certificate.

The set-up is complete. Launch `mitmproxy` to start eavesdropping on communications between the smartphone and remote TLS servers.

For example, I performed such a MitM on a genuine *Android* application to control a smart toothbrush (Figure 5). The communication with the remote server, `https://app.beam.dental`, is over HTTPS and would appear encrypted in a standard network capture. With `mitmproxy`, we are able to decrypt any packet and inspect its content.

Note that there is a limitation: MitM won't work for *Android* applications that use certificate pinning. However, so far, such applications are quite rare.

⁵ There are other possibilities, but this is the easiest. See [25].

6. RADARE2

Radare2 is a ‘framework for reverse engineering and analysing binaries’ [26]. It is open source and well known in the geek community for its command-line interactive shell and for its wide support of many architectures including lesser used ones.

This section provides tips and tricks, but also feedback, on using *Radare2* to analyse *Android* malware.

6.1 Dalvik support

Although *Radare2* is not the obvious immediate choice for reverse engineering *Android* applications (people in the field usually prefer combinations of `apktool`, `baksmali`, `JD`, `JEB` etc.), it has recently added support for Dalvik executables⁶ and may be an interesting choice for occasional reverse engineers or *Radare2* fans.

Radare2 does not have any particular knowledge of what APKs, *Android* manifests or resources are. It is really only meant to be run on Dalvik executables (`.dex`). It produces Dalvik bytecode (see Figure 6). There is no decompiler.

The disassembler is reasonably good, with occasional bugs. For instance, in April, I reported a bug in the disassembly of array-data payloads [27]. This was solved a few days later.

6.2 Commands to reverse a DEX

There are several tutorials on how to use *Radare2* (see [28–31], for instance). In this subsection, we focus only on the specificities with dealing with Dalvik executables.

First, we start by launching *Radare2* on a DEX:

```
r2 -e asm.payloads=true classes.dex
```

Then, we need to analyse all flags with command `aa`. Unfortunately, this step is currently very long on some samples⁷.

⁶ Actually, support for Dalvik dates back at least to 2015, but in my humble opinion, it has only been usable since the end of 2016.

⁷ Up to 10 minutes in some cases!

```
2017-01-09 16:36:28 PUT https://app.beam.dental/api/v1/
+ 404 application/json 200B 136.57kB/s
Request
Authorization: Bearer 78
Host: app.beam.dental
Accept: application/json
Content-Type: application/json; charset=UTF-8
Content-Length: 345
Connection: Keep-Alive
Accept-Encoding: gzip
User-Agent: okhttp/2.5.0
JSON
{
  "user": {
    "auto_off": true,
    "created_at": "2017-01-09T14:11:57.000Z",
    "email": "",
    "first_name": "Penguin",
    "game_hearts": 50,
    "id": "██████████",
    "last_earned_game_hearts": 0,
    "motor_speed": 0.5,
    "pusher_id": "██████████",
    "quadrant_buzz": true,
    "unclaimed_game_hearts": 0,
    "updated_at": "2017-01-09T14:11:57.000Z"
  }
}

Response
```

[48/148] ?:help q:back [*:8080]

Figure 5: Mitmproxy in action, showing clear text content for an HTTPS conversation.

```
[0x00030ca0]> pd 10
    ;-- method.public.Lcom_adobe_flashplayer_AFC.Lcom_adobe_flashplayer_AFC.method.onCreate_V:
  (fcn) sym.Lcom_adobe_flashplayer_AFC.method.onCreate_V 376
    sym.Lcom_adobe_flashplayer_AFC.method.onCreate_V ();
    0x00030ca0 750169001500 invoke-super/range {v21..v21}, Landroid/app/Service.onCreate()V ; AFC
.java:28 ; call method ; CALL: 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff
    0x00030ca6 1a02da0f const-string v2, str.phone ; 0x68751 ; move a reference to the string specified by the given index into the specified register ; str.phone
    0x00030caa 08001500 move-object/from16 v0, v21 ; move the contents of one object-bearing register to another
    0x00030cae 6e20b00d2000 invoke-virtual {v0, v2}, Lcom/adobe/flashplayer/_AFC.getSystemService(Ljava/lang/String;)Ljava/lang/Object; ; 0xdb0 ; call method ; CALL: 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff
    0x00030cb4 0c14 move-result-object v20 ; move the object result of the most recent invoke-kind into the indicated register
    0x00030cb6 1f148d01 check-cast v20, Landroid/telephony/TelephonyManager; ; throw a class castexception if the reference in the given register cannot be cast
    0x00030cba 1a02da0f const-string v2, str.phone ; 0x68751 ; move a reference to the string specified by the given index into the specified register ; str.phone
    0x00030cbe 08001500 move-object/from16 v0, v21 ; move the contents of one object-bearing register to another
    0x00030cc2 6e20b00d2000 invoke-virtual {v0, v2}, Lcom/adobe/flashplayer/_AFC.getSystemService(Ljava/lang/String;)Ljava/lang/Object; ; 0xdb0 ; call method ; CALL: 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff, 0xffffffff
    0x00030cc8 0c13 move-result-object v19 ; move the object result of the most recent invoke-kind into the indicated register
[0x00030ca0]>
```

Figure 6: Android/Crosate disassembled by Radare2.

The following commands are the most useful for DEX:

- **Searching** is particularly useful over DEX because the executable file format contains the pool of strings, but also the textual names of classes and methods. Consequently, it is useful to grep for a given constant (iz~string), imports (ii~string), class names (ic~string), function names (af~string) and bytecode (pd LINES @FUNC~string). Note there is no space between ~ and the string to search for. The search is case sensitive. Some characters don't show well, e.g. slashes show as underlines.
- **Method analysis.** You can jump to a given method with the seek command s ADDR or sf FUNC-SYMBOL-NAME, or directly disassemble a few lines at a given address: pd LINES @ ADDR. Finding cross references is also a must: axt NAME for cross references to a given name, and axf NAME for cross references from a given name. See Listing 7.

```
[0x0001f424]> s 0x00036b30
or
[0x0001f424]> sf sym.Lcom_adobe_flashplayer
    ↵ _UC.method._init__V
[0x00036b30]> pd 10
...
[0x00036b30]> axf sym.Lcom_adobe_flashplaye
    ↵ r_UC.method._init__V
C 0x36b30 invoke-direct {v0},
    ↵ Ljava/lang/Object.<init>()V ; 0xedc
```

Listing 7: Seeking, disassembling and finding cross references in DEX with Radare2.

- **Commenting/editing.** To add a comment, the command is CC this is my comment @ ADDR. To remove it, CC-. To rename a function: afn new-name. Renaming local variables is not yet possible. afvn v20 new-name will eventually be available, one day.

6.3 Scripting

Because of its command-line nature, *Radare2* is particularly well suited to scripting. For instance, from the *Radare2* prompt, it is possible to invoke a Python r2 script using the following special construction:

```
#!pipe python ...
```

The script itself must import r2pipe bindings [32]:

```
import r2pipe
```

and you can automate two commands:

```
r2p=r2pipe.open()
r2p.cmd(your r2 command)
```

I have written a *Radare2* script to de-obfuscate strings of an Android/Ztorg sample. The script is available at [33]. It has two arguments: the address of the obfuscated string and its length. It:

- Reads the address of the obfuscated string (provided as first argument)
- Jumps to that address (command s ADDR)
- Reads the x following bytes (second argument) as a unicode string (command p8 BYTES)
- Calls the de-obfuscation routine on those bytes and displays the result.

As far as I know, this is the most advanced usage of *Radare2* on *Android* malware.

6.4 Discussion

This subsection presents my own personal impressions of *Radare2*.

I have used *Radare2* on both simple and complex samples: it works.

Nevertheless, there are a few limitations, in my opinion. I have already mentioned the time taken to run aa and renaming local variables, but in addition:

- *Radare2* does not deal with object-oriented structures. This means that it does not have any knowledge of what classes are implemented in a DEX, or which methods. This makes it difficult to parse the sample. That's why strategies where you read disassembled code until you spot something interesting do not work well with *r2*. Rather, you'll be searching for something specific (a URL, a password, a call to a given function) and digging into that.
- Entry point detection (command `i e`) does not really work for Dalvik. The problem is that *Radare2* does not have knowledge of the manifest, so how could it really find the main activity? It does spot entry points, but only low-level ones like calls on `onCreate()` of `android.support.v4.app.Fragment`.

Also, when working with *Radare2*, I would recommend using a large screen: lines are often quite long. A visual mode exists where each text blob is organized graphically, but I am not enthusiastic⁸.

To summarize, I would say that I like *Radare2* because it is command-line based, close to code, and scriptable. But I find it difficult to get an overview of a sample and parse it. I would definitely recommend the use of *Radare2* for *Android* samples for any *Radare2* fan. It works well. However, if you are a newbie, the entry ticket might be too high. If you are looking for a reverse engineering shell for *Android*, I'd rather recommend *Androguard*. And if you like GUIs, *Radare2* is certainly not the option, you should stick to *JD* or *JEB*.

7. CONCLUSION/TAKE-AWAYS

The following are the take-aways for this paper:

1. To share your *Android* reverse engineering framework, consider using a *Docker* image. Mine is available via `docker pull cryptax/android-re` and the source to adapt it can be downloaded from [14].
2. To write string de-obfuscators for your *Android* samples, you can start off your own code from my Ztorg de-obfuscator, available at [23].
3. *Android* application debugging is not yet operational. Both *CodeInspect* and *JEB2* are promising, and will hopefully make it in the next few months, but they did not work well enough at the time of writing this paper.
4. *Mitmproxy* can be used to eavesdrop on encrypted communications of *Android* applications. The set-up requires a new CA certificate to be added on the mobile phone and a proxy to be specified.
5. *Radare2* is operational for the reversing of Dalvik executables. It can also be used for advanced analysis such as string obfuscation (code available at [33]). However, learning how to use *Radare2* is a little tough at the beginning, so unless there is a very specific reason to use *Radare2*, newcomers will probably be better off sticking to the usual *apktool/baksmali/Java Decomplier (JD)*.

⁸I fail to understand why one would use *Radare2* for GUI when *JD*, *JEB2* and *IDA Pro* are available for those who like a GUI – but this is a personal view.

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