Android: Static Analysis Using Similarity Distance

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Abstract—As Android applications become increasingly ubiquitous, we need algorithms and tools to protect applications from product tampering and piracy, while facilitating valid product updates. Since it is easy to derive Java source code from Android bytecode, Android applications are particularly vulnerable to tampering. This paper presents an algorithm, based on a customized similarity distance, which returns a value between 0 and 1, which can serve as a change indicator. Potential applications of the algorithm include 1) to determine if obfuscators, applied by developers, are protecting their code from piracy, 2) to determine if an Android application is infected with malware, facilitating the automatic extraction of the injected malware, and 3) to identify valid code updates and releases as part of the code release cycle.

I. INTRODUCTION

Android consumers in the U.S. spend an average of 56 minutes per day on their phones, with two-thirds of this time spent with Android applications. Moreover, Andy Rubin, Senior Vice President of Mobile at Google [27] stated that they have over 500,000 Android devices activated every day. So it is easy to understand why this platform is an increasingly interesting target for misuse.

Many new tools have been released to interact with Android applications. Assemblers and disassemblers, like smali/baksmali [16] are useful to reverse engineer Android applications. Advanced tools such as apktool [7] are very useful to modify an application and repackaging it. Decompilers [26] transform Android bytecode to Java bytecode to enable use of classical Java decompilers [19] [14] [23], although they have some issues [4] during the decompilation.

In this paper, we introduce new algorithms for static analysis of Android applications, in order to address some problems that users and developers are encountering. All of the algorithms are based on the similarity distance using real world compressors [10]. The first problem that we discuss is how it is possible to create a rip-off indicator to identify whether an Android application is similar to another one or not, i.e., to determine if someone pirated an application or part of an application. We can extend this problem to extract automatically malware that has been injected into an application. In addition, if we can find similarities between two applications, the algorithm can be applied to evaluate the efficiency of an obfuscator on the application. A secondary issue that we address, is how it is possible to obtain and visualize the differences between two valid versions of an application. We have used our algorithms to identify small dissimilarities in methods and in basic blocks (without using graphs) in order to use the longest common subsequence algorithm [1] to extract exact differences.

The similarity distance based on real world compressors is called the Normalized Compression Distance (NCD) [10]. The NCD of two elements A and B is defined as \( d_{NCD}(A,B) \).

\[
\text{We can compute}
\]

\[
C(A) \quad \text{and} \quad L_A = L(C(A));
\]

\[
C(B) \quad \text{and} \quad L_B = L(C(B));
\]

\[
C(A|B) \quad \text{and} \quad L_A|B = L(C(A|B));
\]

where \( A|B \) is the concatenation of \( A \) and \( B \), \( C \) is the compressor, and \( L \) is the length of a string. Then \( d_{NCD}(A,B) \) is defined by

\[
d_{NCD}(A,B) = \frac{L_A|B - \min(L_A,L_B)}{\max(L_A,L_B)}. \quad (1)
\]

The NCD is based on the similarity [10] of elements. A compressor \( C \) is normal if the following four axioms are satisfied up to an additive \( O(\log n) \), where \( n \) is the maximal binary length of the elements involved in the inequalities:

1) Idempotency: \( C(xx) = C(x) \), and \( C(\varepsilon) = 0 \), where \( \varepsilon \) is the empty string.
2) Monotonicity: \( C(xy) \geq C(x) \).
3) Symmetry: \( C(xy) = C(yx) \).
4) Distributivity: \( C(xy) + C(z) \leq C(xz) + C(yz) \).

The idea demonstrated in the following simple example. If you take three elements

- X (“HELLO WORLD”) and the length of the compression \( Y = C(X) = 6 \),
- X’ (“HELLO WOORLD”) and the length of the compression \( Y' = C(X') = 7 \),
- X” (“HI !!!”) and the length of the compression \( Y'' = C(X'') = 3 \).

the compression of C(XXX’) will be similar to C(X) whereas the compression of C(XXX”) will not be similar to C(X).
In addition to these four inequalities being respected by a given compressor, in a real context we must have timing constraints for execution of the algorithm. The compression rate is not a determining factor for the choice of the compressor if it complies with the following rules:

1) C respects the four inequalities,
2) \( C(x) \) is calculated within an acceptable amount of time.

We studied 5 implementations of different algorithms to choose the one that respects the most inequalities:

- zlib [21], bz2 [3], LZMA [2], XZ [11], Snappy [17].

We chose to test all compressors with random text data sets [12] (the test sets are text data, because we will not submit binary data to our compressor) on the four inequalities. The following tables show the resulting number of matches, the total length of compression, and the execution time of each compressor:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Idempotency</th>
<th>Monotonicity</th>
<th>Symmetry</th>
<th>Distributivity</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LZMA</td>
<td>XZ</td>
<td>zlib</td>
<td>bz2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0/9, 900, 1.45565796</td>
<td>0/9, 1824, 0.72005010</td>
<td>0/9, 894, 0.00037599</td>
<td>0/9, 1294, 0.00088286</td>
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<td>9/9, 1208, 0.00010705</td>
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<td>LZMA</td>
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<td></td>
<td>72/72, 9645, 11.65594506</td>
<td>72/72, 17108, 5.70679307</td>
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<td>72/72, 11334, 0.00596595</td>
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<td></td>
<td>72/72, 13354, 0.00065804</td>
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<td>LZMA</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A. Similarity Algorithm

We propose an algorithm to find efficiently and quickly the similarities (and differences) of methods between two applications (without debugging information). In our case, we have tested and implemented it with bytecode (Java [25] or Dalvik [18]) files but it is possible to extend this algorithm to classical binaries. This algorithm is an improvement in the field of executable comparison as it applies new techniques with very efficient, precise, and timely results in many domains.

This algorithm is composed of the following steps:

1) Generate signatures for each method.
2) Identify all methods which are identical.
3) Identify all methods which are partially identical by using NCD (with Snappy compressor).

So the global idea is to associate each method of the first application with others of the second application (unless the method match directly) by using NCD with an appropriate compressor.

The algorithm produces and detects the following elements:

- identical methods,
- similar methods,
- new methods,
- deleted methods.

1) Initialization of methods: The algorithm (1) must initialize each method, so we can associate several attributes to a method as shown in figure 1:

- the entropy, based on the raw binary data,
- a buffer which represents the sequence of instructions, with useless information removed from it,
- a unique checksum (or hash) based on the previous buffer,
- a signature.

In order to create the checksum of a method, we must remove and retain some information associated with an instruction. It is a very important to remove false positives easily. Thus we need to remove information which is a direct result of the compilation and information which can be changed by a simple modification:

- registers, offset of a jump instruction.

And we need to retain:

- the original name of the instruction (group in a single name the jump instructions), strings, integers and floats, constants, etc.
## Algorithm 1: Algorithm for filtering names and operands of an Android instruction

**Require:** Instruction

```plaintext
buffer ← ""

// goto instructions
if Instruction.opvalue ≥ 0x28 and Instruction.opvalue ≤ 0x2a then
    buffer ← "goto"
else
    buffer ← Instruction.opname
end if

// an integer is present in the instruction
if integer in Instruction.operands then
    buffer ← buffer + getIntegers(Instruction)
end if

// a string is present in the instruction
if Instruction.opvalue == 0x1a then
    buffer ← buffer + getString(Instruction)
end if

return buffer
```

**Figure 1.** Attributes associated with a method

![Attributes associated with a method](image)

So if we use a unique checksum for each method, it is possible to quickly remove from the comparison, methods which are exactly identical as shown in figure 2.

2) **Generating signatures of methods:** We used a normal grammar presented by Silvio Cesare [9] to generate different types of signatures as needed including the following:

- Control Flow Graph,
- API (current application, Android, Java),
- Strings,
- Exceptions.

We considered this signature as an interesting input for the distance similarity because this signature does not include information about instructions. The information in the signature is more general, (e.g., the presence of a basic block, if a specific package is called, etc). Of course it is possible to modify the grammar in order to have a controlled output.

The following is an example of the grammar signature for a method:

```plaintext
Procedure ::= StatementList
StatementList ::= Statement | Statement . StatementList
Statement ::= BasicBlock | Return | Goto | If | Field | Package | String | Exception
Return ::= 'R'
Goto ::= 'G'
If ::= 'I'
BasicBlock ::= 'B'
Field ::= 'F0' | 'F1'
Package ::= 'P' PackageNew | 'P' PackageCall
PackageNew ::= 'C'
PackageCall ::= 'M'
PackageName ::= ε | Id
String ::= 'S' Number | 'S' Id
Exception ::= Id
Number ::= \[a–zA–Z]\[0–9]
```

Thus we can generate a particular signature for a method based on selected features. We must create the best signature to identify methods, in order to identify highly identical methods. Moreover, we have not used particular dependencies like strings, names of classes/methods/fields, etc. We have used only the following elements:

- Control Flow Graph,
- External API used (Android + Java),
- Exceptions.

For example, we can generate different signatures for one method, with more or less detail:

![Signature example](image)

3) **Identification of methods:** If we need to ensure a better match between methods, it is possible to add the following elements to calculate the similarity distance by using a filtering algorithm [5]:

- the entropy,
- the buffer which represents the sequence of instructions.

With the NCD (Algorithm 2, the signature function returns the previous described signature, and the clean function removes useless information of each instruction of the method), we use the Snappy compressor to accelerate the comparison between all methods, to detect exactly the same methods (algorithm 3, figure 3), partially the same methods (algorithm...
3), new methods (algorithm 4, figure 4) or deleted methods (algorithm 5).

**Algorithm 2** Algorithm of similarity to calculate the distance between two methods

**Require:** \(a1, a2\)
- \(n1 \leftarrow \text{NCD}(\text{signature}(a1), \text{signature}(a2))\)
- \(n2 \leftarrow \text{NCD}(\text{clean}(a1), \text{clean}(a2))\)
- return \((n1 + n2) / 2\)

**Algorithm 3** Algorithm for finding identical or similar methods between two applications

**Require:** \(\text{apps1, apps2}\)
- \(\text{exact} \leftarrow \{\}\)
- \(\text{diff} \leftarrow \{\}\)

for \(a1 \leftarrow \text{apps1.methods()}\) do
  if \(a1.\text{hash} \not\in \text{apps2.hash}\) then
    for \(a2 \leftarrow \text{apps2.methods()}\) do
      if \(a2.\text{hash} \not\in \text{apps1.hash}\) then
        Append(\(\text{diff}[a1]\), similarity(\(a1, a2\)))
      end if
    end for
  else
    Append(\(\text{exact}, a1\))
  end if
end for

for \(a1 \leftarrow \text{diff.methods()}\) do
  \(a1.\text{sort}()\)
end for

**Algorithm 4** Algorithm for identifying new methods

**Require:** \(\text{apps1, apps2, diff}\)
- \(\text{new} \leftarrow \{\}\)

for \(a2 \leftarrow \text{apps2.methods()}\) do
  if \(a2.\text{hash} \not\in \text{apps1.hash}\) then
    state \(\leftarrow\) true
    for \(a1 \leftarrow \text{diff.methods()}\) do
      if \(a1.\text{checksort}(a2)\) then
        state \(\leftarrow\) false
        break
      end if
    end for
    if state \(==\) true then
      Append(\(\text{new}, a2\))
    end if
  end if
end for

**Algorithm 5** Algorithm for identifying deleted methods

**Require:** \(\text{apps1, apps2, diff}\)
- \(\text{delete} \leftarrow \{\}\)

for \(a1 \leftarrow \text{diff.methods()}\) do
  if \(a1.\text{getsort}() == 0\) then
    Append(\(\text{delete}, a1\))
  end if
end for
The signature of each method helps to compare all methods more quickly, but an algorithm based on clustering can filter identical methods before our algorithm in order to accelerate the comparison, and can be very interesting in the case of comparing one element against N elements.

It is possible to detect all different or identical methods, but we do not care about the entire application. This is a problem as we need to take into account other information associated with an Android application in order to extend the ratio of similarity to a entire application.

We can add the following information from an application:
- strings, constants (integers, floats), various internal data like "fill array data".

B. Detecting pirated applications aka rip-off indicator

A major problem in the Android market is the theft of applications, because it is very easy to download an application and to crack/re-package it with smali/baksmsali/apk-tool to push it in different markets. While it is possible to compare an application with reverse engineering tool manually using a tool such as baksmsali [16], IDA [15] or Androguard [12], it is very time consuming and inefficient. Automated approaches are better to compare other applications with the original when piracy is suspected.

With the previous algorithms, we have all the required information to calculate an indicator (between 0.0 to 100.0) to indicate whether the application has been stolen.

To do that (Algorithm 6), we apply a designation (between 0.0 (identical) to 1.0 (different)) to each attribute:
- 0.0 to a perfect identical method,
- value of the NCD for a partial identical method,
- value of the NCD for the general information of the application (strings, constants, etc.).

Moreover we exchange the compressor (Snappy) at the end to determine whether his application has been stolen.

We have tested the algorithm 6 in multiple cases. The cases include two different applications (Listing 1), two "quite" identical applications (Listing 3), and with a known stolen and repackaged application (Listing 4).

Algorithm 6 Algorithm to calculate the similarity between two applications

Require: diff, exact
marks ← []
for a1 ← diff.methods() do
    Append( marks, GetFirstSortValue( a1 ) )
end for
for a1 ← exact.methods() do
    Append( marks, 0.0 )
end for
finalmark ← 0.0
for i ← marks.get() do
    finalmark ← (finalmark + (1.0 - i))
end for
finalmark ← (finalmark / Len( marks )) * 100

We can see that the final mark is very useful for a developer to determine whether his application has been stolen or not, partially or totally, because he can inspect each method which matches with another.

C. Evaluation of Android obfuscators

Another problem with Java or Android applications is the transformation of the source code in bytecode. This transformation can be easily reversed by using a classical decompiler like jad, jd-gui or dava, with varying degrees of reliability. Moreover virtual machines do not allow code modification on the fly (polymorphic) and it is a real problem for classical packers. Nevertheless, Android
developers use obfuscators frequently such as proguard [20] or dasho [29] to prevent the reverse engineering of their software.

This leads to an interesting problem. "How is it possible to evaluate an obfuscator?". We can answer this question by using similarity distance as described previously. If two applications have a high number of equal functions (or almost equal functions), we can say that there is a problem with the obfuscation process.

The obfuscator can use several techniques to protect a Java/Android application:

1) change names of classes, methods, fields,
2) modify the control flow,
3) code optimization,
4) change instructions with metamorphic technique.

The first option is not efficient with our similarity distance because we do not use debugging information. The second option can be a problem with a classical distance, but the similarity distance is not sensible to this point due to the real compressor. The third can be detected as removal instructions. The final option is an issue and it is not covered by our algorithm. (We have not yet seen any tool which uses this technique.) Even if this technique will be used we will have to do a normalisation of each method before applying our algorithm.

We can protect an application with an obfuscator and we can calculate the distance by using a blackbox technique (our similarity algorithm). If this distance is close to 100 then the compressor) to compare basic blocks and checksums/hashes to determine whether someone has modified an original method (algorithms 7, 8, 9, figures 5, 6), because it is just a different point in this algorithm.

Moreover we can isolate new injected methods, but it is possible to extend our algorithm by using diffing techniques to find identical/similar methods in order to extract identical methods, because these methods will be the methods of the malware.

We have used the algorithm of similarity in the previous section to find identical/similar methods in order to extract modifications of instructions from basic blocks. We can add the following steps:

- Identification of identical basic blocks by using NCD.
- Addition of new basic blocks.
- Extraction of added/removed instructions by using the longest common subsequence algorithm (LCS)[1].

Futhermore it is possible to change the signature of a method to have a small one to accelerate operations by removing exceptions and API because it is not an important point in this algorithm.

### D. Malware

In our algorithm, we can extract automatically new methods (methods that are not present in the first application but in the second one). Typically, the case of an injected malware (Listing 6) in the Android official or unofficial markets, a classical application is taken from a market, and the malware writer injects his "evil" code in the application and propagates the new application in different markets.

It is possible to isolate the malware quickly if we know the original application, which is an easy task because the malware writer does not generally modify it, (i.e., all original code is intact). Further, it is also possible to use this technique with multiple (but different) samples, in order to extract identical methods, because these methods will be the methods of the malware.

III. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN APPLICATIONS

It is interesting to calculate the differences between two versions of an application (for reverse engineering) to identify modifications in order to find a security bugfix, or after the injection of malware. The idea is to detect classical modifications in a method including:

- modification of codes in a basic block,
- addition of new basic blocks.
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Algorithm 7 Algorithm of matching exactly or partially basic blocks between two methods

Require: \( bb1, bb2 \)
\[
\text{diffbb} \leftarrow \{ \}
\]
for \( b1 \leftarrow bb1.\text{basicblocks}() \) do
    if \( b1.\text{hash} \) not in \( bb2.\text{hash} \) then
        for \( b2 \leftarrow bb2.\text{basicblocks}() \) do
            if \( b2.\text{hash} \) not in \( bb1.\text{hash} \) then
                Append( \( \text{diffbb}[ b1 ] \), similarity(\( b1, b2 \)) )
            end if
        end for
    end if
end for

Algorithm 8 Algorithm of similarity between two basic blocks

Require: \( a1, a2 \)
\[
n1 \leftarrow \text{NCD}( \text{checksum}( a1 ), \text{checksum}( a2 ) )
\]
return \( n1 \)

Algorithm 9 Algorithm of matching exactly or partially basic blocks between two methods

Require: \( bb1, bb2 \)
\[
\text{newbb} \leftarrow \{ \}
\]
for \( b2 \leftarrow bb2.\text{basicblocks}() \) do
    if \( b2.\text{hash} \) not in \( bb2.\text{hash} \) then
        state \leftarrow true
        for \( b1 \leftarrow \text{diffbb.}\text{basicblocks}() \) do
            if \( b1.\text{checksort}( b2 ) \) then
                state \leftarrow false
                break
            end if
        end for
        if state == true then
            Append( \( \text{newbb}, b2 \) )
        end if
    end if
end for

Algorithm 10 Algorithm to extract added/removed instructions from a basic block

Require: \( b1, b2, \text{toString} \)
\[
\text{addins} \leftarrow \{ \}
\text{delins} \leftarrow \{ \}
\text{X} \leftarrow \text{toString}( b1 )
\text{Y} \leftarrow \text{toString}( b2 )
\text{addins}, \text{delins} \leftarrow \text{LCS}( \text{X}, \text{Y} )
\]

1) Identification of added or removed instructions: After the identification of basic blocks we can use a classical algorithm like the longest common subsequence problem (LCS) [1] to extract new and old instructions (algorithm 10).

So we must modify our sequence of instructions into a string to use the LCS algorithm. We can also used a filtered algorithm on each single instruction to convert it to a value between 0 to 255.

For instance, the following basic blocks:
are transformed in the following strings:

```
x00\n\nx01\n\nx02\n\nx03\n\nx00\n\nx04\n```

By using the LCS algorithm, we can get the instructions that we must add or remove, as shown in figure 7, in the first string (our basic block) in order to find the differences between two basic blocks. If we get the previous strings, it is possible to apply the LCS algorithm:

```
In : a = "\nx00\n\nx01\n\nx02\n\nx03\n\nx00\n\nx04"
In : b = "\nx00\n\nx00\n\nx02\n\nx03\n\nx05\n\nx04"
In : z = LCS( a , b )
```

We have a matrix with the different LCS, where the longest LCS has a length of four:

```
"\nx00\n\nx02\n\nx03\n\nx04"
```

This matrix is applied to the elements to add or to remove:

```
In : l_a = [] l_r = []
In : getDiff( z, a, b, len( a ), len( b ), l_a, l_r )
00
  01
+ 00
  02
  03
  00
+ 05
  04
```

In this example, we must do the following actions in the first basic block to get the second one:

- add: ADD 3 (position 1), MUL 4 (position 4)
- remove: ADD 1 (position 1), ADD 3 (position 4)

**B. Visualization**

The visualization is an important element during the analysis of differences between two applications, because it is with this tool that the information is recovered. Current tools display differences with two CFGs (see figure 8), but it is possible to merge [8] two CFGs to have only one as shown in figure 9.

```
Figure 7. Find added/removed instructions from a basic block
```

```
Figure 8. Visualization of differences by using two CFGs
```

```
Figure 9. Visualization of differences by using one CFG
```

We can improve the visualization by using a simple graphical chart:

- green for added instructions,
- red for deleted instructions.

Jump instructions are a major problem when we use only one CFG to display differences, for example: "IF X, Y [ B-0x90,
B-0x60 \)” which is a jump to 0x90 or 0x60 offsets (after the evaluation of the instruction) can be changed to : \"IF X, Y [ B-0x90, B-0x60 ]\” with a jump to old or new basic blocks. If the block 0x50 is the same as 0x60 but the block 0x80 is new, we need to change the display with correct differences :

- IF X, Y [ B-0x90, B-0x60 ]
- IF X, Z [ B-0x80, B-0x60 ]

We need to resolve identical or new basic blocks at different offsets (our algorithm is not dependent of the position of the basic block). We obtain the algorithm 11 which is the new CFG (with original, new and different basic blocks) as shown in figure 10.

**Algorithm 11** Algorithm of matching exactly or partially basic blocks between two methods

Require: origbb, diffbb, newbb

finalcfg ← []

for b1 ← origbb.basicblocks() do
  if b1.name not in diffbb then
    b1.tag ← ORIG
    Append( finalcfg, b1 )
  else
    b1.tag ← DIFF
    Append( finalcfg, diffbb[ b1.name ] )
  end if
end for

for b1 ← newbb.basicblocks() do
  b1.tag ← NEW
  Append( finalcfg, b1 )
end for

finalcfg.sort()

C. Practical tests

a) Skype: The 15th April 2011, AndroidPolice [6] released a new security vulnerability in Skype (version 1.0.0.831) for Android. This vulnerability exposes the users’ name, phone number, and chat logs to all installed applications. The security bug is very simple, it is an incorrect usage of permissions to open files [6].

So, it is possible for another application to access to all information of your skype account, like account balance, full name, date of birth, city/state/country, home phone, office phone, cell phone, email addresses, your webpage, your bio, instant messages. A few days after this vulnerability, Skype [28] release a new version (1.0.0.983) which fixed this security bug. It is a good example to test our algorithm in a real case like Skype because this application is not small and it is an interesting case of reverse engineering. We can identify how many functions are :

- exactly identical : 8038,
- partially identical : 165,
- new : 14,
- delete : 7.

We analyzed the 165 methods, by searching methods related to file permissions, by using the Java API or directly with chmod program. Inside the 165 methods, most of them are related to simple constant modification but we can identify a method really close to another one (with the same name) which manipulate files :

```
Lcom/skype/ipc/SkypeKitRunner; run ()V with Lcom/
skype/ipc/SkypeKitRunner; run ()V 0.269383959472
```

This method has four modified basic blocks, but only three basic blocks merit further investigation.

An integer value (it is the operating mode) of the method `openFileOutput` has been changed from 3 to 0 (listing 7):

```
public abstract FileOutputStream openFileOutput ( String name, int mode )
```

where 3 and 0 are respectively :

- MODE_WORLD_READABLE (allow all other applications to have read access to the created file) and MODE_WORLD_WRITEABLE (allow all other applications to have write access to the created file),
- MODE_PRIVATE (the default mode, where the created file can only be accessed by the calling application (or all applications sharing the same user ID)).

Listing 7. SkypeKitRunner class, run method: change mode of openFileOutput

```
DIFF run−BB@0x316 :

220(324) const−string v7 . [string@ 2998 ’csf ’]
221(328) + const/4 v8 . [#+ 0 ] . (10)
222(328) − const/4 v8 . [#− 3 ] . (3)
223(328) invoke−virtual v5 , v7 , v8 . [meth@ 120
  Landroid/content/Context; (Ljava/lang/String ;)Ljava/io/FileOutputStream; openFileOutput ]
```

Figure 10. Differences and visualization between 2 basic blocks
In another basic block, the first argument of chmod has been changed (listing 8) from 777 to 750:

- RWX, RWX, RWX
- RWX, R-X, —

Listing 8. SkypeKitRunner class, run method: change argument of chmod

DIFF run-BB@0x348 :
229(346) invoke-static [meth@ 5805 Ljava/lang/RunTime; (L Java/lang/RunTime; getRuntime]
230(34c) move-result-object v2
231(34e) new-instance v4 . [type@ 899 Ljava/lang/StringBuilder;
232(352) invoke-direct v4 , [meth@ 5848 Ljava/lang/StringBuilder; (V
233(358) const-string v5 , [string@ 2921 'chmod 750 ']
234(358) const-string v5 , [string@ 2904 'chmod 777 '
235(358) invoke-virtual v4 , v5 . [meth@ 5855 Ljava/lang/StringBuilder; (Ljava/lang/String; Ljava/lang/StringBuilder; append]
236(35e) move-result-object v4
237(360) invoke-virtual v3 . [meth@ 5719 Ljava/io/File; (Ljava/lang/String; getCanonicalPath)

And in the last modified basic block, there is a new call (listing 9) to a new method which fixes all files in the context directory of the application:

Listing 9. SkypeKitRunner class, run method: call new method on files

Lcom/skype/ipc/SkypeKitRunner; ([Ljava/io/File;) V

fixPermissions

which fixes all permissions (patch permissions from the previous version) to:

- RWX — — for a directory,
- RW- — — for a file.

While this paper demonstrate progress in this area, we need to continue investigating this domain to compare one application against multiple applications by using clustering. An additional area which merits additional research relates to the possible use of similarity distance to create a database of applications [12] to check whether an identified application is present in a large set of applications. While preliminary findings are promising, there remains much work to be done in this important area.

REFERENCES