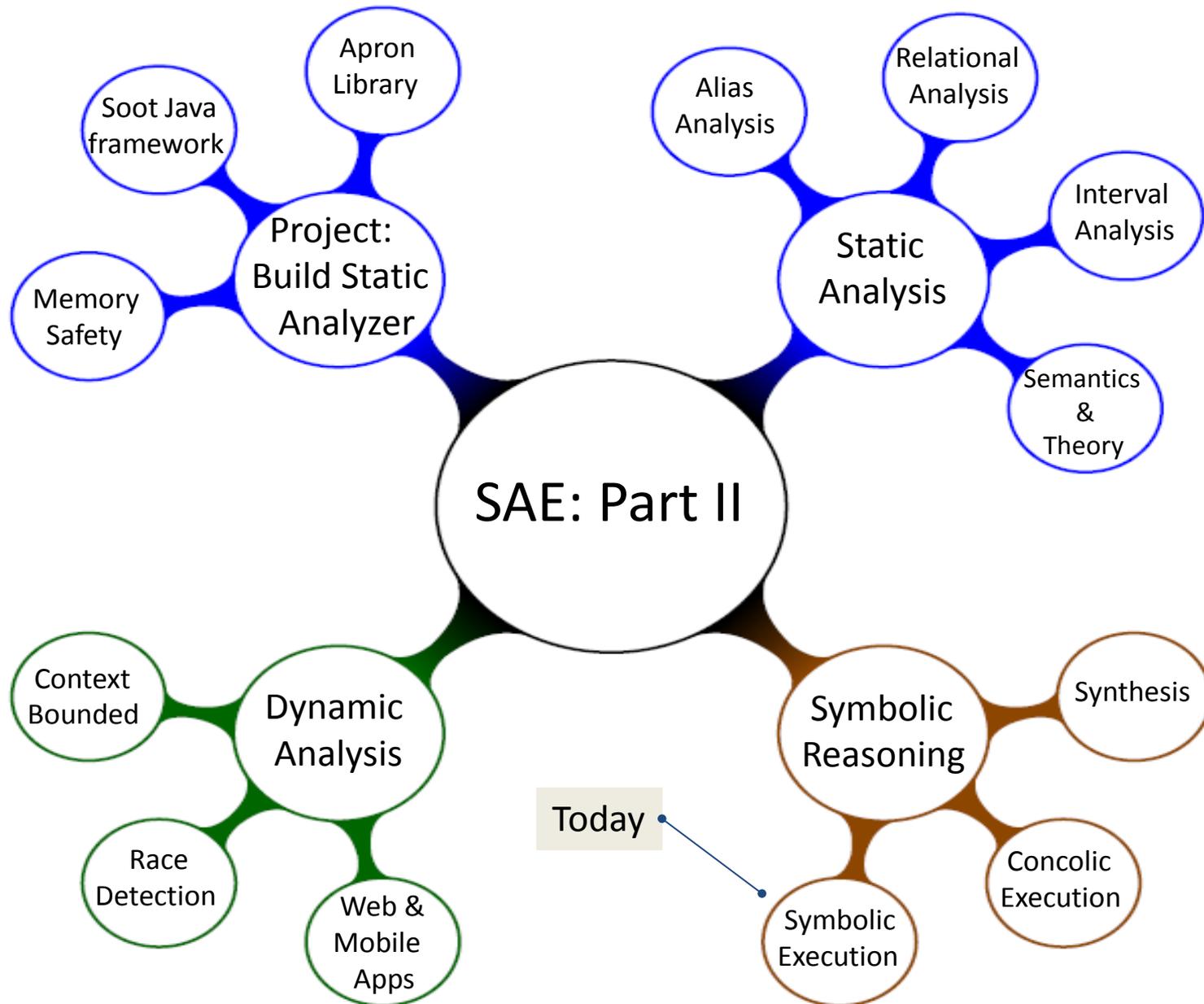


Software Architecture and Engineering: Part II

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Static Program Analysis: The Good

- **Automatically** proves a program is free of errors
 - once transformers are known, that is, the abstract semantics of the language, we can analyze **any** program
- Based on a **solid mathematical foundation**
 - well-defined notions of soundness and approximation
- Has been **widely used** for many problems:
 - flight-control software, algorithm verification, code search, code synthesis, biological systems, etc...

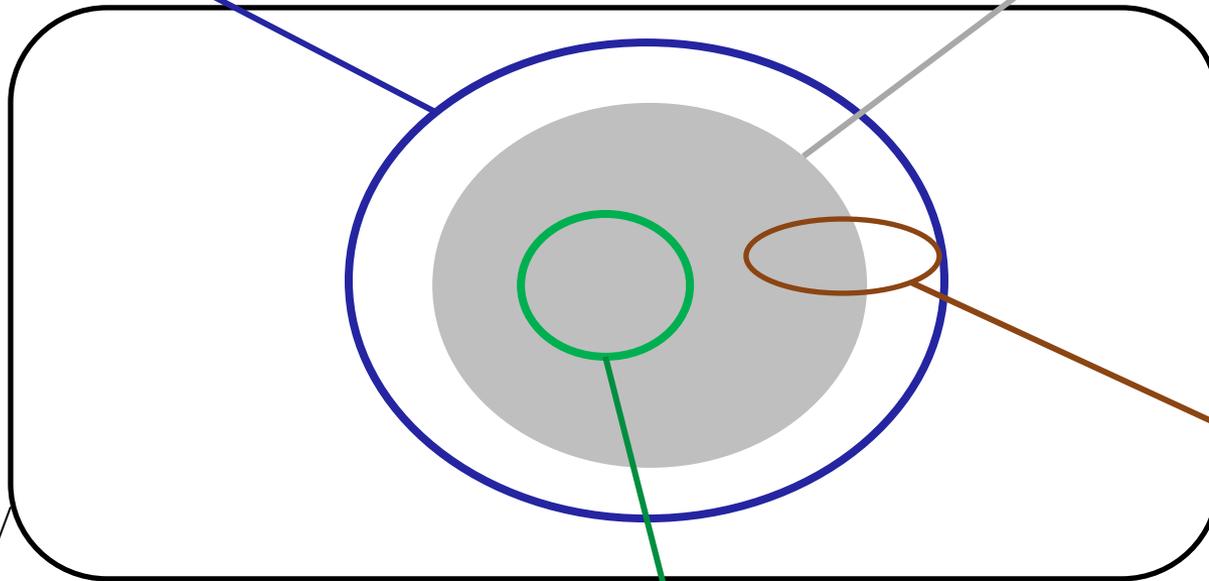
Static Program Analysis: The Bad

- Crafting the abstract transformers **may be tricky**
 - must worry about soundness and precision
 - although predicate abstraction helps, its key limitation is that the domain is **finite**
- The abstract transformers **can be expensive** and not scale to large programs.
- **False positives:** can be **difficult to tell** if a reported bug is due to approximation or it is a real error

Approaches to Program Analysis

program behaviors

over-approximation
(e.g. static analysis)



over and under
approximation
(e.g. symbolic
execution)

All behaviors in
the universe

under-approximation
(e.g. dynamic analysis)

Next: Classical Symbolic Execution

Symbolic Execution

Symbolic execution is a technique which sits in between testing and static analysis.

It is **completely automatic**, and aims to explore as many program executions as possible, with the expense that it has **false negatives**: it may **miss program executions**, that is, **may miss errors**.

Hence, symbolic execution is a particular instance of an **under-approximation** (some versions are actually both under- and over- approximations)

Symbolic Execution: Applications

Symbolic execution is widely used in practice. Tools based on symbolic execution have found serious errors and security vulnerabilities in various systems:

- Network servers
- File systems
- Device drivers
- Unix utilities
- Computer vision code
- ...

Symbolic Execution: The Idea

In classic symbolic execution, we associate with each variable a **symbolic value** instead of a concrete value. We then run the program with the symbolic values obtaining a **big constraint formula** as we run the program. Hence, the name **symbolic execution**.

At any program point we can invoke a constraint (SMT) solver to find **satisfying assignments** to the formula. These satisfying assignments can be used to indicate **real concrete inputs** for which the program reaches a program point or to **steer the analysis** to another part of the program.

Constraints: Examples

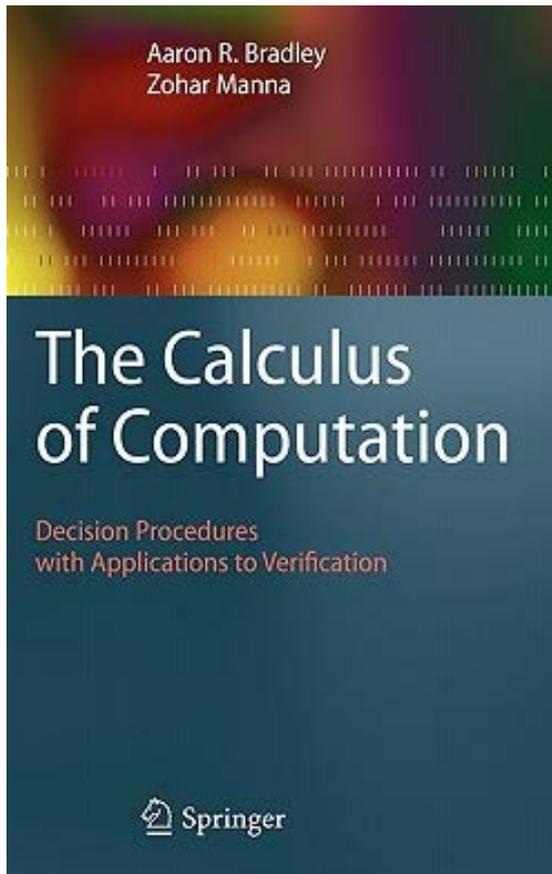
Linear constraint: $5 * x + 6 < 100$

Non-linear constraint: $x * y + 12 < 29$

Uninterpreted functions: $f(x) < 30$

A constraint solver, typically an SMT solver, finds satisfying assignments to constraints. An example of SMT solvers are Z3 and Yices.

Logical Fragments of Constraints



What is decidable ?			
Theory	Description	Full	QFF
T_E	equality	no	yes
T_{PA}	Peano arithmetic	no	no
T_N	Presburger arithmetic	yes	yes
T_Z	linear integers	yes	yes
$T_{\mathbb{R}}$	reals (with \cdot)	yes	yes
T_Q	rationals (without \cdot)	yes	yes
T_{RDS}	recursive data structures	no	yes
T_{RDS}^+	acyclic recursive data structures	yes	yes
T_A	arrays	no	yes
$T_A^=$	arrays with extensionality	no	yes

Symbolic Execution: Technically

At any point during program execution, symbolic execution keeps two formulas:

symbolic store and a **path constraint**

Therefore, at any point in time the **symbolic state** is described as the **conjunction** of these two formulas.

Symbolic Store

- The values of variables at any moment in time are given by a function $\sigma_s \in \text{SymStore} = \text{Var} \rightarrow \text{Sym}$
 - Var is the set of variables as before
 - Sym is a set of symbolic values
 - σ_s is called a **symbolic store**
- Example: $\sigma_s : x \mapsto x0, y \mapsto y0$

Semantics

- Arithmetic expression evaluation simply manipulates the symbolic values.
- Let $\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0, y \mapsto y_0$
- Then, $z = x + y$ will produce the symbolic store:
 $x \mapsto x_0, y \mapsto y_0, z \mapsto x_0 + y_0$

That is, we literally keep the **symbolic expression** $x_0 + y_0$

Path Constraint

- The analysis keeps a path constraint (**pct**) which records the **history of all branches taken so far**. The path constraint is simply a formula.
- The formula is typically in a decidable logical fragment without quantifiers
- At the start of the analysis, the path constraint is **true**
- Evaluation of **conditionals** affects the path constraint , but not the symbolic store.

Path Constraint: Example

Let $\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0, y \mapsto y_0$

Let $pct = x_0 > 10$

Lets evaluate: $\text{if } (x > y + 1) \{ 5: \dots \}$

At label 5, we will get the symbolic store σ_s . It does not change. But we will get an **updated path constraint**:

$$pct = x_0 > 10 \wedge x_0 > y_0 + 1$$

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

Lets execute this example
with classic symbolic execution

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

The read() functions read a value from the input and because we don't know what those read values are, we set the values of x and y to fresh symbolic values called x_0 and y_0

pct is true because so far we have not executed any conditionals

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$

pct : true

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2*y_0$

pct : true

Here, we simply executed the function `twice()` and added the new symbolic value for `z`.

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

We forked the analysis into 2 paths: the true and the false path. So we **duplicate** the state of the analysis.

This is the result if $x = z$:

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2 * y_0$

$pct : x_0 = 2 * y_0$

This is the result if $x \neq z$:

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2 * y_0$

$pct : x_0 \neq 2 * y_0$

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

We can avoid further exploring a path if we know the constraint `pct` is **unsatisfiable**. In this example, both `pct`'s are **satisfiable** so we need to keep exploring both paths.

This is the result if `x = z`:

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2 * y_0$

`pct : $x_0 = 2 * y_0$`

This is the result if `x != z`:

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2 * y_0$

`pct : $x_0 \neq 2 * y_0$`

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

Lets explore the path when $x == z$ is true.
Once again we get 2 more paths.

This is the result if $x > y + 10$:

$$\sigma_s : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto x_0, \\ y \mapsto y_0 \\ z \mapsto 2*y_0 \end{array}$$
$$\text{pct} : \begin{array}{l} x_0 = 2*y_0 \\ \wedge \\ x_0 > y_0+10 \end{array}$$

This is the result if $x \leq y + 10$:

$$\sigma_s : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto x_0, \\ y \mapsto y_0 \\ z \mapsto 2*y_0 \end{array}$$
$$\text{pct} : \begin{array}{l} x_0 = 2*y_0 \\ \wedge \\ x_0 \leq y_0+10 \end{array}$$

Symbolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

So the following path reaches “**ERROR**”.

This is the result if $x > y + 10$:

$$\sigma_s : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto x_0, \\ y \mapsto y_0 \\ z \mapsto 2 * y_0 \end{array}$$
$$\text{pct} : \begin{array}{l} x_0 = 2 * y_0 \\ \wedge \\ x_0 > y_0 + 10 \end{array}$$

We can now ask the SMT solver for a satisfying assignment to the pct formula.

For instance, $x_0 = 40$, $y_0 = 20$ is a satisfying assignment. That is, running the program with these inputs triggers the error.

Handling Loops: a limitation

```
int F(unsigned int k) {
    int sum = 0;
    int i = 0;
    for ( ; i < k; i++)
        sum += i;
    return sum;
}
```

A serious limitation of symbolic execution is handling unbounded loops. Symbolic execution runs the program for a finite number of paths. But what if we do not know the bound on a loop ? The symbolic execution will keep running **forever** !

Handling Loops: bound loops

```
int F(unsigned int k) {  
    int sum = 0;  
    int i = 0;  
    for ( ; i < 2; i++)  
        sum += i;  
    return sum;  
}
```

A **common solution in practice** is to provide some loop bound. In this example, we can bound k , to say 2. This is an example of an **under-approximation**. Practical symbolic analyzers usually under-approximate as most programs have unknown loop bounds.

Handling Loops: loop invariants

```
int F(unsigned int k) {  
    int sum = 0;  
    int i = 0;  
    for ( ; i < k; i++)  
        sum += i;  
    return sum;  
}
```

loop invariant



Another solution is to provide a **loop invariant**, but this technique is rarely used for large programs because it is **difficult to provide** such invariants **manually** and it can also lead to **over-approximation**. This is where a combination with static program analysis is useful (static analysis can infer loop invariants). We will not study this approach in our treatment, but we note that the approach is used in program verification.

Constraint Solving: challenges

Constraint solving is fundamental to symbolic execution as a constraint solver is continuously invoked during analysis. Often, the main **roadblock to performance** of symbolic execution engines is the time spent in constraint solving. Therefore, it is important that:

1. The SMT solver supports as many decidable logical fragments as possible. Some tools use more than one SMT solver.
2. The SMT solver can solve large formulas quickly.
3. The symbolic execution engines tries to reduce the burden in calling the SMT solver by exploring domain specific insights.

Key Optimization: Caching

The basic insight here is that often, the analysis will invoke the SMT solver with **similar formulas**. Therefore, the symbolic execution system can keep a **map (cache)** of formulas to a satisfying assignment for the formula.

Then, when the engine builds a new formula and would like to find a satisfying assignment for that formula, it can first access the cache, **before calling** the SMT solver.

Key Optimization: Caching

Suppose the cache contains the mapping:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Formula:} & \text{Solution:} \\ (x + y < 10) \wedge (x > 5) & \rightarrow \{x = 6, y = 3\} \end{array}$$

If we get a weaker formula as a query, say $(x + y < 10)$, then we can immediately reuse the solution already found in the cache, without calling the SMT solver.

If we get a stronger formula as a query, say $(x + y < 10) \wedge (x > 5) \wedge (y \geq 0)$, then we can quickly try the solution in the cache and see if it works, without calling the solver (in this example, it works).

When Constraint Solving Fails

Despite best efforts, the program may be using constraints in a fragment which the SMT solver does not handle well.

For instance, suppose the SMT solver does not handle **non-linear constraints** well.

Let us consider a modification of our running example.

Modified Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

Here, we changed the `twice()` function to contain **a non-linear** result.

Let us see what happens when we symbolically execute the program now...

Modified Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

This is the result if $x = z$:

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto y_0 * y_0$

$pct : x_0 = y_0 * y_0$

Now, if we are to invoke the SMT solver with the pct formula, it may be **unable** to compute satisfying assignments, precluding us from knowing whether the path is feasible or not.

Solution: Concolic Execution

Concolic Execution: combines **both** symbolic execution and concrete (normal) execution.

The basic idea is to have the concrete execution drive the symbolic execution.

Here, the program runs as usual (it needs to be given some input), but in addition it also maintains the usual symbolic information.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

The read() functions read a value from the input. Suppose we read $x = 22$ and $y = 7$.

We will keep both the concrete store and the symbolic store and path constraint.

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x0,$
 $y \mapsto y0$

pct : true

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7,$
 $z \mapsto 14$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2*y_0$

pct : true

The concrete execution will now take the 'else' branch of $z == x$.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

Hence, we get:

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7,$
 $z \mapsto 14$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2*y_0$

$\text{pct} : x_0 \neq 2*y_0$

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

At this point, concolic execution decides that it would like to explore the “true” branch of $x == z$ and hence it needs to generate concrete inputs in order to explore it. Towards such inputs, it negates the pct constraint, obtaining:

$$\text{pct} : x_0 = 2 * y_0$$

It then calls the SMT solver to find a satisfying assignment of that constraint. Let us suppose the SMT solver returns:

$$x_0 \mapsto 2, \quad y_0 \mapsto 1$$

The concolic execution then runs the program with this input.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

With the input $x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto 1$ we reach this program point with the following information:

$\sigma : x \mapsto 2,$
 $y \mapsto 1,$
 $z \mapsto 2$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto 2*y_0$

$\text{pct} : x_0 = 2*y_0$

Continuing further we get:

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

We reach the “else” branch of $x > y + 10$

$$\sigma : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto 2, \\ y \mapsto 1, \\ z \mapsto 2 \end{array}$$
$$\sigma_s : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto x_0, \\ y \mapsto y_0 \\ z \mapsto 2*y_0 \end{array}$$
$$\text{pct} : \begin{array}{l} x_0 = 2*y_0 \\ \wedge \\ x_0 \leq y_0 + 10 \end{array}$$

Again, concolic execution may want to explore the ‘true’ branch of $x > y + 10$.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

We reach the “else” branch of $x > y + 10$

$$\sigma : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto 2, \\ y \mapsto 1, \\ z \mapsto 2 \end{array}$$
$$\sigma_s : \begin{array}{l} x \mapsto x_0, \\ y \mapsto y_0 \\ z \mapsto 2*y_0 \end{array}$$
$$\text{pct} : \begin{array}{l} x_0 = 2*y_0 \\ \wedge \\ x_0 \leq y_0+10 \end{array}$$

Concolic execution now negates the conjunct $x_0 \leq y_0+10$ obtaining:

$$x_0 = 2*y_0 \quad \wedge \quad x_0 > y_0+10$$

A satisfying assignment is: $x_0 \mapsto 30, y_0 \mapsto 15$

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return 2 * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

If we run the program with the input:

$x_0 \mapsto 30, y_0 \mapsto 15$

we will now reach the **ERROR** state.

As we can see from this example, by keeping the symbolic information, the concrete execution can use that information in order to obtain new inputs.

Non-linear constraints

Let us return to the problem of **non-linear constraints**

Non-linear constraints

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x,y);
}
```

Let us again consider our example and see what concolic execution would do with non-linear constraints.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {  
    return v * v;  
}  
  
void test(int x, int y) {  
    z = twice(y);  
    if (x == z) {  
        if (x > y + 10)  
            ERROR;  
    }  
}  
  
int main() {  
    x = read();  
    y = read();  
    test(x,y);  
}
```

The read() functions read a value from the input. Suppose we read $x = 22$ and $y = 7$.

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$

pct : true

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {  
    return v * v;  
}  
  
void test(int x, int y) {  
    z = twice(y);  
    if (x == z) {  
        if (x > y + 10)  
            ERROR;  
    }  
}  
  
int main() {  
    x = read();  
    y = read();  
    test(x,y);  
}
```

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7,$
 $z \mapsto 49$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto y_0 * y_0$

pct : true

The concrete execution will now take the 'else' branch of $x == z$.

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

Hence, we get:

$\sigma : x \mapsto 22,$
 $y \mapsto 7,$
 $z \mapsto 49$

$\sigma_s : x \mapsto x_0,$
 $y \mapsto y_0$
 $z \mapsto y_0 * y_0$

$\text{pct} : x_0 \neq y_0 * y_0$

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

However, here we have a non-linear constraint $x_0 \neq y_0 * y_0$. If we would like to explore the true branch we negate the constraint, obtaining $x_0 = y_0 * y_0$ but again we have a **non-linear constraint** !

In this case, concolic execution simplifies the constraint by plugging in the concrete values for y_0 in this case, 7, obtaining the simplified constraint:

$$x_0 = 49$$

Hence, it now runs the program with the input

$$x \mapsto 49, \quad y \mapsto 7$$

Concolic Execution: Example

```
int twice(int v) {
    return v * v;
}

void test(int x, int y) {
    z = twice(y);
    if (x == z) {
        if (x > y + 10)
            ERROR;
    }
}

int main() {
    x = read();
    y = read();
    test(x, y);
}
```

Running with the input

$x \mapsto 49, \quad y \mapsto 7$

will reach the error state.

However, notice that with these inputs, if we try to simplify non-linear constraints by plugging in concrete values (as concolic execution does), then concolic execution we will never reach the else branch of the `if (x > y + 10)` statement.

Concolic Execution: External World

```
int F(char *f) {  
    FILE *fp;  
    fp = fopen(f, "r");  
    ...  
}
```

Often, we are not interested in symbolically executing OS code or native libraries. By keeping both the concrete and the symbolic values, we can always invoke **system calls** or **library API** with the concrete values and simply continue concrete execution as usual.

Symbolic Execution vs. Abstract Interpretation

We can think of Symbolic Execution as Abstract Interpretation in a particular abstract domain (logical formulas) where we do not perform joins (\sqcup).

That is, in symbolic execution, when we are not sure, we under-approximate (e.g. concolic execution), while in abstract interpretation we over-approximate.

Symbolic Execution: Tools

- Stanford's KLEE: <http://klee.lvm.org/>
- NASA's Java PathFinder: <http://javapathfinder.sourceforge.net/>
- Microsoft Research's SAGE
- UC Berkeley's CUTE
- EPFL's S2E: <http://dslab.epfl.ch/proj/s2e>

Summary

- Symbolic Execution is a popular technique for analyzing large programs
 - completely automated, relies on SMT solvers
- To terminate, may need to bound loops
 - leads to under-approximation
- To handle non-linear constraints and external environment, mixes concrete and symbolic execution (called concolic execution)
 - also leads to under-approximation