

CS 489 / 698: Software and Systems Security

Module 2: Program Security (Defenses) static and symbolic reasoning

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Outline

- 1 Introduction to abstraction interpretation
- 2 Example and intuition about abstract domains
- 3 Reaching fixedpoint: joining, widening, and narrowing
- 4 Introduction to symbolic execution
- 5 Conventional symbolic execution

Why this topic?

A significant portion of software security research is related to **program analysis**:

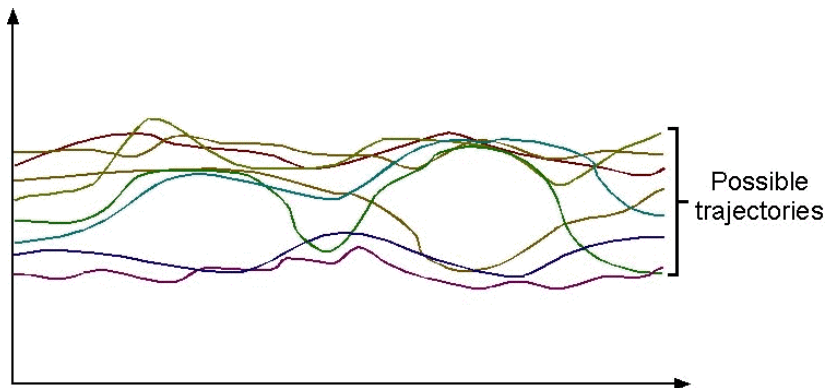
- derive properties which hold for program P (i.e., inference)
- prove that some property holds for program P (i.e., verification)
- given a program P , generate a program P' which is
 - in most ways equivalent to P
 - behaves better than P w.r.t some criteria(i.e., transformation)

Abstract interpretation provides a **formal framework** for developing program analysis tools.

Abstract interpretation in a nutshell

Acknowledgement: the illustrations in this section is borrowed from Prof. Patrick Cousot's webpage [Abstract Interpretation in a Nutshell](#).

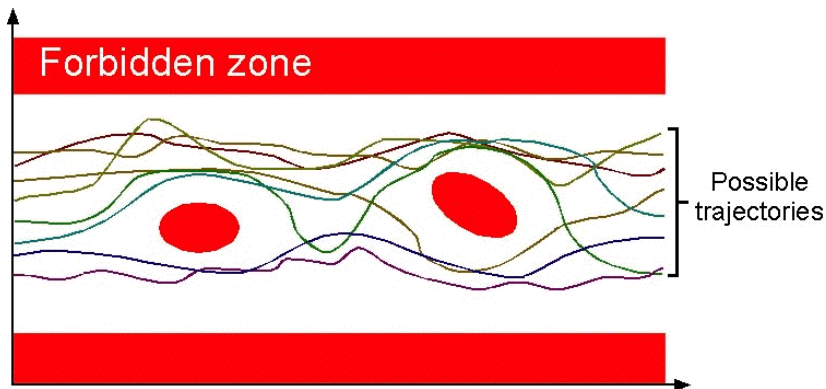
Program analysis: concrete semantics



The **concrete semantics** of a program is formalized by the set of **all possible executions** of this program under **all possible inputs**.

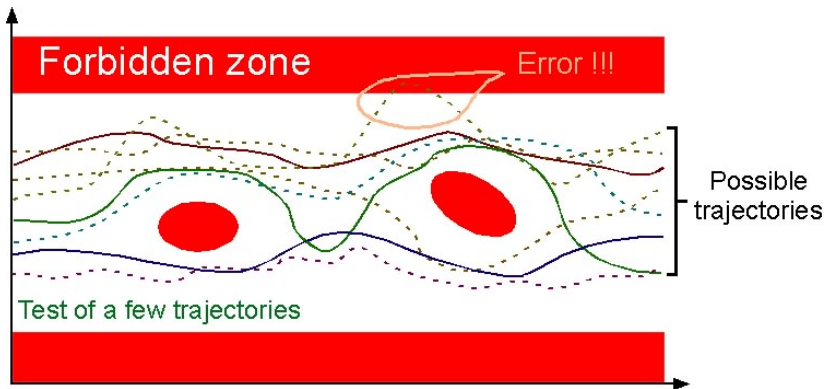
The concrete semantics of a program can be a *close to infinite* mathematical object / sequence which is impractical to enumerate.

Program analysis: safety properties



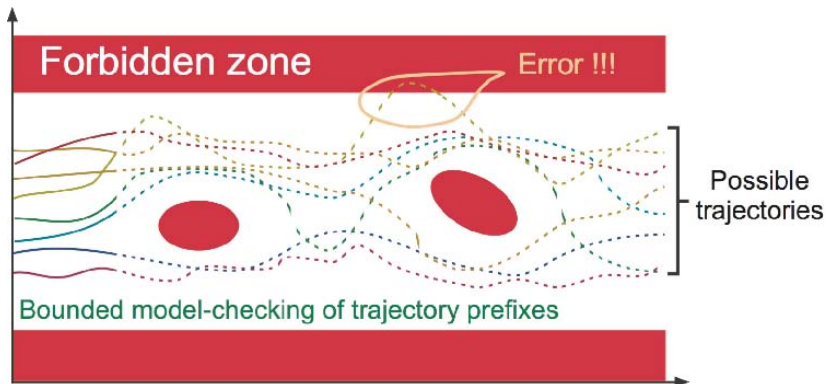
Safety properties of a program express that no possible execution of the program, when considering all possible execution environments, can reach an **erroneous** state.

Program analysis: testing



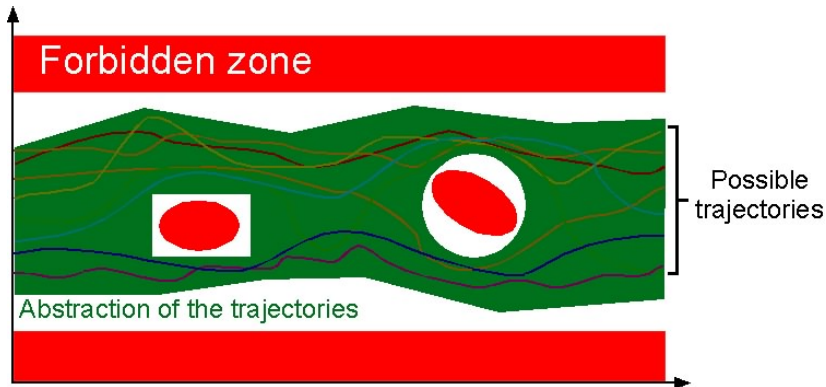
Testing consists in considering a **subset** of the possible executions.

Program analysis: bounded model checking



Bounded model checking consists in exploring the **prefixes** of the possible executions.

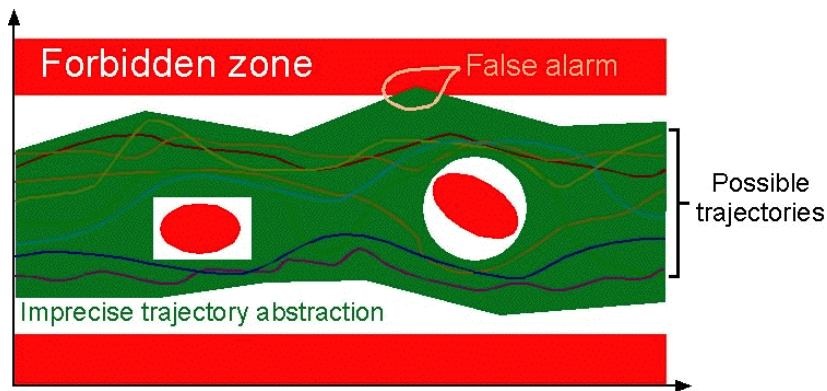
Program analysis: abstract interpretation



Abstract interpretation consists in considering an **abstract semantics**, that is a superset of the concrete program semantics.

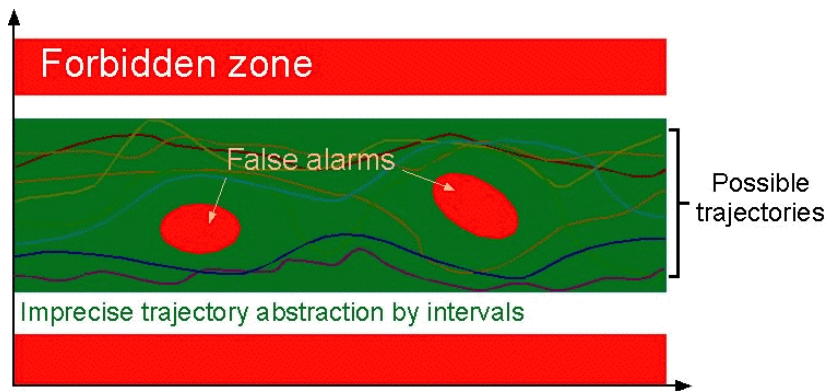
The abstract semantics covers all possible cases
⇒ if the abstract semantics is safe (i.e. does not intersect the forbidden zone) then so is the concrete semantics.

Program analysis: abstract interpretation false alarm 1



False alarms caused by widening during execution.

Program analysis: abstract interpretation false alarm 2



False alarms caused by abstract domains.

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What is abstract interpretation?

Consider detecting that one branch will not be taken in:

```
int x, y, z;  y := read(file);  x := y * y;  
if x ≥ 0 then z := 1 else z := 0
```

- Exhaustive analysis in the standard domain: non-termination
- Human reasoning about programs – uses abstractions: signs, order of magnitude, odd/even, ...

Basic idea: use **approximate** (generally **finite**) representations of computational objects to make the problem of program dataflow analysis **tractable**.

What is abstract interpretation?

Abstract interpretation is a formalization of the above procedure:

- define a non-standard semantics which can **approximate** the **meaning** (or **behaviour**) of the program in a finite way
- expressions are computed over an **approximate (abstract) domain** rather than the concrete domain (i.e., meaning of operators has to be reconsidered w.r.t. this new domain)

Example: integer sign arithmetic

Consider the domain $D = Z$ (integers)
and the multiplication operator: $* : Z^2 \rightarrow Z$

We define an “abstract domain:” $D_\alpha = \{[-], [+]\}$
and abstract multiplication: $*_\alpha : D_\alpha^2 \rightarrow D_\alpha$ defined by:

$*_\alpha$	$[-]$	$[+]$
$[-]$	$[+]$	$[-]$
$[+]$	$[-]$	$[+]$

This allows us to conclude, for example, that $y = x^2 = x * x$ is never negative.

Some observations

- The basis is that whenever we have $z = x * y$ then:
if $x, y \in Z$ are approximated by $x_\alpha, y_\alpha \in D_\alpha$
then $z \in Z$ is approximated by $z_\alpha = x_\alpha *_\alpha y_\alpha$
 - Essentially, we map from an unbounded domain to a finite domain.
- It is important to formalize this notion of approximation, in order to be able to reason/prove that the analysis is correct.
- Approximate computation is generally less precise but faster (hence the tradeoff).

Example: integer sign arithmetic (refined)

Again, $D = Z$ (integers)

and: $* : Z^2 \rightarrow Z$

We can define a **more refined** “abstract domain”

$D'_\alpha = \{[-], [0], [+]\}$

and the corresponding abstract multiplication: $*_\alpha : D'^2_\alpha \rightarrow D'_\alpha$

$*_\alpha$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$
$[-]$	$[+]$	$[0]$	$[-]$
$[0]$	$[0]$	$[0]$	$[0]$
$[+]$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$

This allows us to conclude, for example, that $z = y * (0 * x)$ is zero.

More observations

- There is a **degree of freedom** in defining different abstract operators and domains.
- The minimal requirement is that they be “safe” or “correct”.
- Different “safe” definitions result in different kinds of analysis.

Example: integer sign arithmetic (with addition)

Again, $D = Z$ (integers)

and now we want to define the *addition* operator $+ : Z^2 \rightarrow Z$

We cannot use $D'_\alpha = \{[-], [0], [+]\}$ because we wouldn't know how to represent the result of $[+] +_\alpha [-]$, (i.e., the abstract addition would not be **closed**).

Solution: introduce a new element “T” in the abstract domain as an approximation of any integer.

Example: integer sign arithmetic (with addition)

New “abstract domain”: $D'_\alpha = \{-, [0], +, \top\}$

Abstract $+_\alpha : D'^2_\alpha \rightarrow D'_\alpha$

$+_\alpha$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$	\top
$[-]$	$[-]$	$[-]$	\top	\top
$[0]$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$	\top
$[+]$	\top	$[+]$	$[+]$	\top
\top	\top	\top	\top	\top

Abstract $*_\alpha : D'^2_\alpha \rightarrow D'_\alpha$

$*_\alpha$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$	\top
$[-]$	$[+]$	$[0]$	$[-]$	\top
$[0]$	$[0]$	$[0]$	$[0]$	$[0]$
$[+]$	$[-]$	$[0]$	$[+]$	\top
\top	\top	$[0]$	\top	\top

We can now reason that $z = x^2 + y^2$ is never negative

More observations

- In addition to the imprecision due to the coarseness of D_α , the abstract versions of the operations (dependent on D_α) may introduce further imprecision
- Thus, *the choice of abstract domain and the definition of the abstract operators are crucial.*

Concerns in abstract interpretation

- Required:
 - Correctness – **safe approximations**: the analysis should be “conservative” and errs on the “safe side”
 - Termination – compilation should definitely terminate(note: not always the case in everyday program analysis tools!)

- Desirable – “practicality”:
 - Efficiency – in practice finite analysis time is not enough: finite *and* small is the requirement.
 - Accuracy – too many false alarms is harmful to the adoption of the analysis tool (“the boy who cried wolf”).
 - Usefulness – determines which information is worth collecting.

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Abstract domain example: intervals

Consider the following abstract domain for $x \in Z$ (integers):

$x = [a, b]$ where

- a can be either a constant or $-\infty$ and
- b can be either a constant or ∞ .

Example:

$$\{x^\# = [0, 9], y^\# = [-1, 1]\}$$

$$z = x + 2 * y$$

$$\{z^\# = [0, 9] +^\# 2 \times^\# [-1, 1] = [-2, 11]\}$$

Q: Why $z^\#$ is an abstraction of z ?

Join operator

The **join** operator \sqcup merges two or more abstract states into one abstract state.

Joining operator example

$\{x^\# = [0, 10]\}$

if ($x < 0$) then

$\{x^\# = \emptyset\}$

$s := -1$

$\{x^\# = \emptyset, s^\# = \emptyset\}$

else if ($x > 0$) then

$\{x^\# = [1, 10]\}$

$s := 1$

$\{x^\# = [1, 10], s^\# = [1, 1]\}$

else

$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}$

$s := 0$

$\{x^\# = [0, 0], s^\# = [0, 0]\}$

$\{x^\# = \emptyset \sqcup [1, 10] \sqcup [0, 0] = [0, 10], s^\# = \emptyset \sqcup [1, 1] \sqcup [0, 0] = [0, 1]\}$

What about loops?

$$\{x^\# = \emptyset\}$$

$$x := 0$$

$$\{x^\# = \langle \text{even} \rangle\}$$

$$\text{while } (x < 100) \{$$

$$\quad \{x^\# = \langle \text{even} \rangle\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = \langle \text{even} \rangle \sqcup \langle \text{even} \rangle = \langle \text{even} \rangle\}_2$$

$$\quad x := x + 2$$

$$\quad \{x^\# = \langle \text{even} \rangle\}_1$$

$$\}$$

$$\{x^\# = \langle \text{even} \rangle\}$$

Two iterations to reach fixedpoint (i.e., none of the abstract states changes).

Collecting semantics

$$\{x^\# = \emptyset\}$$

$$x := 0$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}$$

$$\text{while } (x < 100) \{$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = [0, 0] \sqcup [2, 2] = [0, 2]\}_2$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 2] \sqcup [2, 4] = [0, 4]\}_3 \quad \{\dots\}_4, \{\dots\}_5, \dots$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 96] \sqcup [2, 98] = [0, 98]\}_{50}$$

$$x := x + 2$$

$$\{x^\# = [2, 2]\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = [2, 2] \sqcup [2, 4] = [2, 4]\}_2$$

$$\{x^\# = [2, 4] \sqcup [2, 6] = [2, 6]\}_3 \quad \{\dots\}_4, \{\dots\}_5, \dots$$

$$\{x^\# = [2, 98] \sqcup [2, 100] = [2, 100]\}_{50}$$

$$\}$$

$$\{x^\# = [100, 100]\}$$

50 iterations to reach fixedpoint (i.e., none of the abstract states

Widening operator

We compute the **limit** of the following sequence:

$$X_0 = \perp$$

$$X_{i+1} = X_i \nabla F^\#(X_i)$$

where ∇ denotes the **widening operator**.

Widening operator example

$$\{x^\# = \emptyset\}$$

$$x := 0$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}$$

$$\text{while } (x < 100) \{$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = [0, 0] \nabla [2, 2] = [0, +\infty]\}_2$$

$$\{x^\# = [0, +\infty] \nabla [2, +\infty] = [0, +\infty]\}_3$$

$$x := x + 2$$

$$\{x^\# = [2, 2]\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = [2, +\infty]\}_2 \quad \{x^\# = [2, +\infty]\}_3$$

$$\}$$

$$\{x^\# = [100, +\infty]\}$$

3 iterations to reach fixedpoint (i.e., none of the abstract states changes).

Narrowing operator

We compute the **limit** of the following sequence:

$$X_0 = \perp$$

$$X_{i+1} = X_i \triangle F^\#(X_i)$$

where \triangle denotes the **narrowing operator**.

Narrowing operator example

$$\{x^\# = \emptyset\}$$

`x := 0`

$$\{x^\# = [0, 0]\}$$

`while (x < 100) {`

$$\{x^\# = [0, +\infty]\} \quad \{x^\# = [0, +\infty] \Delta [0, 99] = [0, 99]\}_1$$

$$\{x^\# = [2, 101] \Delta [0, 99] = [0, 99]\}_2$$

`x := x + 2`

$$\{x^\# = [2, +\infty]\} \quad \{x^\# = [2, 101]\}_1 \quad \{x^\# = [2, 101]\}_2$$

`}`

$$\{x^\# = [100, 101]\}$$

2 iterations to reach fixedpoint (i.e., none of the abstract states changes).

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Motivation

Q: Why research on symbolic execution when we have unit testing or even fuzzing?

A: A **more complete** exploration of program states.

Illustration

```
1 fn foo(x: u64): u64 {
2   if (x * 3 == 42) {
3     some_hidden_bug();
4   }
5   if (x * 5 == 42) {
6     some_hidden_bug();
7   }
8   return 2 * x;
9 }
```

Unit Test

```
foo(0);
foo(1);
```

Fuzzing

```
foo(0);
foo(1);
foo(12);
foo(78);
.....
foo(9,223,372,036,854,775,808);
```

Symbolic execution

```
foo(x)
  aborts when  $x = 14$ 
  returns  $2x$  otherwise
```

Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT)

Definition: A procedure that decides whether a **mathematical formula** is **satisfiable**.

Example:

- $3x = 42 \rightarrow$ satisfiable with $x = 14$
- $2x \geq 2^{64} \rightarrow$ satisfiable with $x \geq 2^{63}$
- $5x = 42 \rightarrow$ unsatisfiable, cannot find an x

Ask two question whenever you see a symbolic execution work:

- How does it convert code into mathematical formula?
- What does it try to solve for?

Program modeling desiderata

- Control-flow graph exploration
- Loop handling
- Memory modeling
- Concurrency

Outline

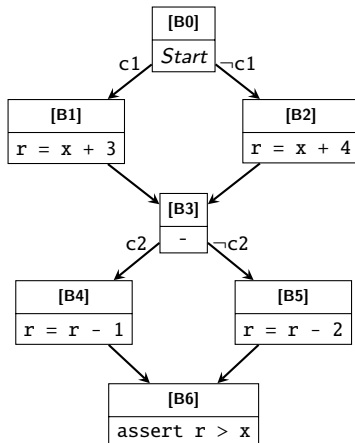
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An example of a pure function

```

1 fn foo(
2   c1: bool, c2: bool,
3   x: u64
4 ) -> u64 {
5   let r = if (c1) {
6     x + 3
7   } else {
8     x + 4
9   };
10
11  let r = if (c2) {
12    r - 1
13  } else {
14    r - 2
15  };
16
17  r
18 }
19 spec foo {
20   ensures r > x;
21 }

```

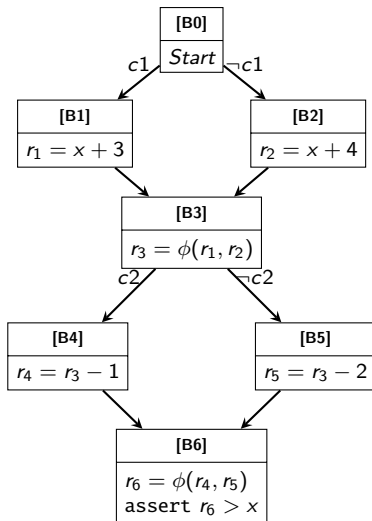


The example in SSA form

```

1  fn foo(
2     c1: bool, c2: bool,
3     x: u64
4 ) -> u64 {
5     let r = if (c1) {
6         x + 3
7     } else {
8         x + 4
9     };
10
11    let r = if (c2) {
12        r - 1
13    } else {
14        r - 2
15    };
16
17    r
18 }
19 spec foo {
20     ensures r > x;
21 }

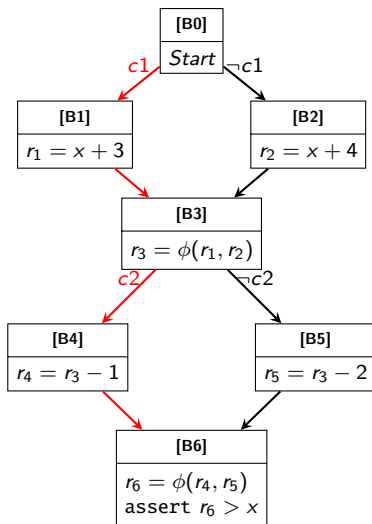
```



Path-based exploration

Vars: $c1, c2, x, r_1-6$

B0	Sym. repr. Path cond.	\emptyset True
B1	Sym. repr. Path cond.	$r_1 = x + 3$ $c1$
B3	Sym. repr. Path cond.	$r_1 = x + 3$ $r_3 = r_1$ $c1$
B4	Sym. repr. Path cond.	$r_1 = x + 3$ $r_3 = r_1$ $r_4 = r_3 - 1$ $c1 \wedge c2$
B6	Sym. repr. Path cond.	$r_1 = x + 3$ $r_3 = r_1$ $r_4 = r_3 - 1$ $r_6 = r_4$ $c1 \wedge c2$



Proving procedure (per path)

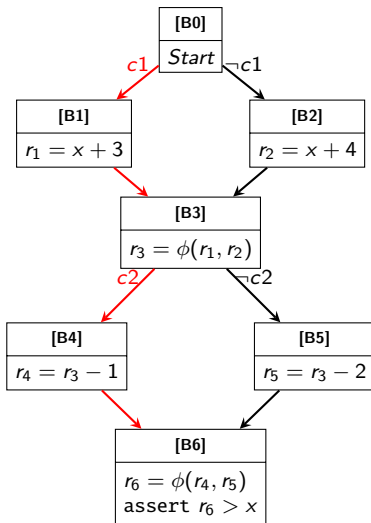
Vars: $c1, c2, x, r_{1-6}$

B6	Sym. repr.	$r_1 = x + 3$ $r_3 = r_1$ $r_4 = r_3 - 1$ $r_6 = r_4$
	Path cond.	$c_1 \wedge c_2$

\rightsquigarrow

Prove that $\forall c1, c2, x, r_{1-6}$:

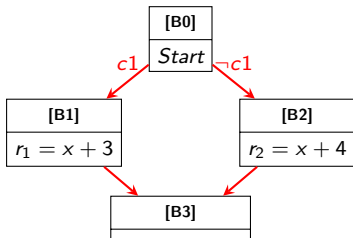
$((c1 \wedge c2) \wedge$
 $(r_1 = x + 3)$
 $(r_3 = r_1)$
 $(r_4 = r_3 - 1)$
 $(r_6 = r_4)$
 $)) \Rightarrow (r_6 > x)$



Proving procedure (all paths)

Prove that

$\forall c1, c2, x, r_{1-6}$:

$$\begin{aligned} &(((c1 \wedge c2) \wedge (\\ &\quad (r_1 = x + 3) \\ &\quad (r_3 = r_1) \\ &\quad (r_4 = r_3 - 1) \\ &\quad (r_6 = r_4) \\ &)) \Rightarrow (r_6 > x) \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} &(((c1 \wedge \neg c2) \wedge (\\ &\quad (r_1 = x + 3) \\ &\quad (r_3 = r_1) \\ &\quad (r_5 = r_3 - 2) \\ &\quad (r_6 = r_5) \\ &)) \Rightarrow (r_6 > x) \end{aligned}$$


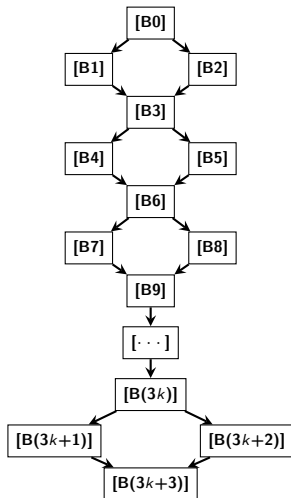
Path explosion

2^2 paths

2^3 paths

...

2^k paths



⟨ **End** ⟩