



# Introduction, Control Flow Analysis

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# Overview

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- Buffer overflow
- Code injection, code reuse
  - Return2libc, ROP, Blind ROP
- Stack canary, ASLR
- UAF, Integer Overflow, Type Confusion
- Format string vulnerability



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# Introduction



# Program Analysis

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- *Any automated analysis at compile or dynamic time to find potential bugs*
- Broadly classified into
  - Dynamic analysis
  - Static analysis



# Dynamic Analysis

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- Analyze the code when it is running
  - Detection
    - E.g., dynamically detect whether there is an out-of-bound memory access, for a particular input
  - Response
    - E.g., stop the program when an out-of-bound memory access is detected



# Dynamic Analysis Limits

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- Major advantage
  - After detecting a bug, it is a real one
  - No false positives
- Major limitation
  - Detecting a bug for a particular input - **coverage**      **testcase limitation**
  - Cannot find bugs for uncovered inputs
  - `If (input == 0x134576) {bug()} else {normal(); }`



# Question

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- Can we build a technique that identifies **all bugs**?
  - Turns out that we can: static analysis
  - Is this real? What's the potential issue?



# Static Analysis

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- Analyze the code before it is run (during compile time)
- Explore **all possible executions** of a program
  - All possible inputs
- Approximate all possible states
  - Build **abstractions** to “run in the aggregate”
  - Rather than executing on concrete states
  - Finite-sized abstractions representing a collection of states
- But, it has its own major limitation due to approximation
  - Can identify many false positives (not actual bugs)





# Static Analysis

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- Broad range of static-analysis techniques:

- simple **syntactic** checks like **grep**

```
grep " gets(" *.cpp
```

- More advanced greps: ITS4, FlawFinder
  - A database of security-sensitive functions
    - gets, strcpy, strcat, ...
    - For each one, suggest how to fix



# Static Analysis

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- More advanced analyses take into account **semantics**
  - dataflow analysis, abstract interpretation, **symbolic execution**, constraint solving, model checking
  - Commercial tools: Coverity, Fortify, Secure Software, GrammaTech



# Control Flow Analysis



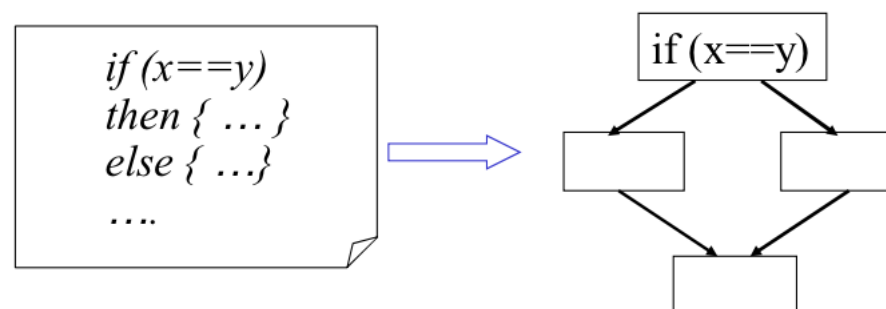
# Program Control Flow

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- Control flow
  - Sequence of operations
  - Representations
    - Control flow graph
    - Control dependency
    - Call graph
- Control flow analysis
  - Analyzing program to discover its control structure

# Control Flow Graph

- CFG models flow of control in the program (procedure)
- $G = (N, E)$  as a directed graph
  - Node  $n \in N$ : basic blocks
    - A basic block is a maximal sequences of stmts with a single entry point, single exit point and no internal tranches
    - For simplicity, we assume a unique entry node  $n_0$  and a unique exit node  $n_f$  in later discussions
- Edge  $e=(n_i, n_j) \in E$ : possible transfer of control from block  $n_i$  to block  $n_j$





# Basic Blocks

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- Definition
  - A basic block is a maximal sequence of consecutive statements with a single entry point, a single exit point, and no internal branches
- Basic unit in control flow analysis
- Local level of code optimizations
  - Redundancy elimination, register-allocation
- For security: reachability analysis, liveness analysis ...



# Basic Block Example

```
(1)  i := m - 1
(2)  j := n
(3)  t1 := 4 * n
(4)  v := a[t1]
(5)  i := i + 1
(6)  t2 := 4 * i
(7)  t3 := a[t2]
(8)  if t3 < v goto (5)
(9)  j := j - 1
(10) t4 := 4 * j
(11) t5 := a[t4]
(12) if t5 > v goto (9)
(13) if i >= j goto (23)
(14) t6 := 4*i
(15) x := a[t6]
```

...

- How many basic blocks in this code fragment?
- What are they?

# Basic Block Example

```
(1) i := m - 1
(2) j := n
(3) t1 := 4 * n
(4) v := a[t1]
(5) i := i + 1
(6) t2 := 4 * i
(7) t3 := a[t2]
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(14) t6 := 4 * i
(15) x := a[t6]
...
```

- How many basic blocks in this code fragment?
- What are they?





# Identify Basic Blocks

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- Input: A sequence of intermediate code statements
- Determine the leaders, the first statements of basic blocks
  - The first statement in the sequence (entry point) is a leader
  - Any statement that is the target of a branch (conditional or unconditional) is a leader
  - Any statement immediately following a branch (conditional or unconditional) or a return is a leader
- For each leader, its basic block is the leader and all statements up to, but not including, the next leader or the end of the program

# Example: Leaders

---

(1) $i := m - 1$	(16) $t7 := 4 * i$
(2) $j := n$	(17) $t8 := 4 * j$
(3) $t1 := 4 * n$	(18) $t9 := a[t8]$
(4) $v := a[t1]$	(19) $a[t7] := t9$
(5) $i := i + 1$	(20) $t10 := 4 * j$
(6) $t2 := 4 * i$	(21) $a[t10] := x$
(7) $t3 := a[t2]$	(22) goto (5)
(8) if $t3 < v$ goto (5)	(23) $t11 := 4 * i$
(9) $j := j - 1$	(24) $x := a[t11]$
(10) $t4 := 4 * j$	(25) $t12 := 4 * i$
(11) $t5 := a[t4]$	(26) $t13 := 4 * n$
(12) If $t5 > v$ goto (9)	(27) $t14 := a[t13]$
(13) if $i \geq j$ goto (23)	(28) $a[t12] := t14$
(14) $t6 := 4 * i$	(29) $t15 := 4 * n$
(15) $x := a[t6]$	(30) $a[t15] := x$

# Example: Leaders

```
(1)  i := m - 1
(2)  j := n
(3)  t1 := 4 * n
(4)  v := a[t1]
(5)  i := i + 1
(6)  t2 := 4 * i
(7)  t3 := a[t2]
(8)  if t3 < v goto (5)
(9)  j := j - 1
(10) t4 := 4 * j
(11) t5 := a[t4]
(12) if t5 > v goto (9)
(13) if i >= j goto (23)
(14) t6 := 4 * i
(15) x := a[t6]
(16) t7 := 4 * i
(17) t8 := 4 * j
(18) t9 := a[t8]
(19) a[t7] := t9
(20) t10 := 4 * j
(21) a[t10] := x
(22) goto (5)
(23) t11 := 4 * i
(24) x := a[t11]
(25) t12 := 4 * i
(26) t13 := 4 * n
(27) t14 := a[t13]
(28) a[t12] := t14
(29) t15 := 4 * n
(30) a[t15] := x
```

# Example: Basic Blocks

**(1)  $i := m - 1$**

(2)  $j := n$

(3)  $t1 := 4 * n$

(4)  $v := a[t1]$

**(5)  $i := i + 1$**

(6)  $t2 := 4 * i$

(7)  $t3 := a[t2]$

(8) if  $t3 < v$  goto (5)

**(9)  $j := j - 1$**

(10)  $t4 := 4 * j$

(11)  $t5 := a[t4]$

(12) if  $t5 > v$  goto (9)

**(13) if  $i \geq j$  goto (23)**

**(14)  $t6 := 4 * i$**

(15)  $x := a[t6]$

(16)  $t7 := 4 * i$

(17)  $t8 := 4 * j$

(18)  $t9 := a[t8]$

(19)  $a[t7] := t9$

(20)  $t10 := 4 * j$

(21)  $a[t10] := x$

(22) goto (5)

**(23)  $t11 := 4 * i$**

(24)  $x := a[t11]$

(25)  $t12 := 4 * i$

(26)  $t13 := 4 * n$

(27)  $t14 := a[t13]$

(28)  $a[t12] := t14$

(29)  $t15 := 4 * n$

(30)  $a[t15] := x$

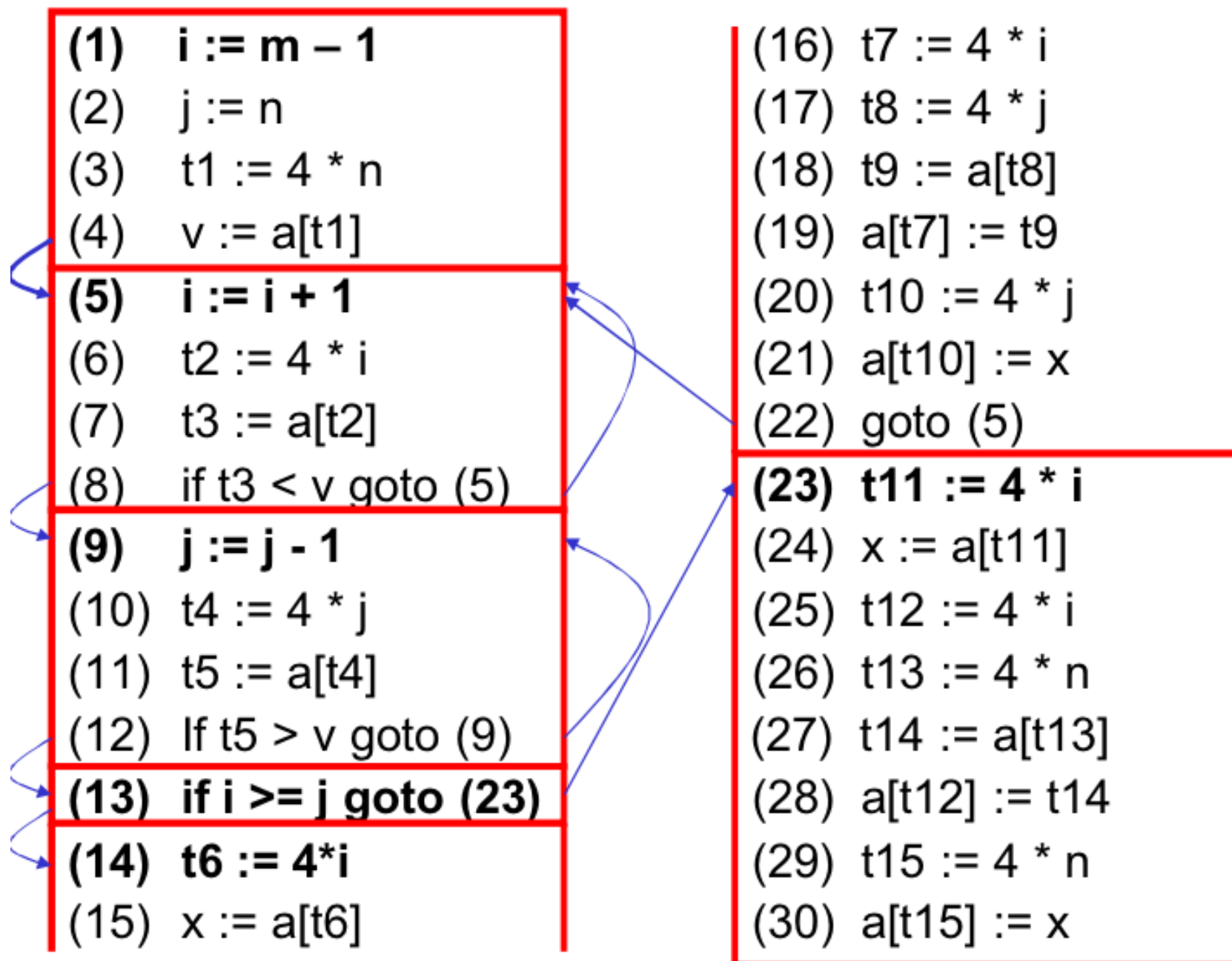


# Generating CFGs

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- Partition intermediate code into basic blocks
- Add edges corresponding to control flows between blocks
  - Unconditional goto
  - Conditional branch – multiple edges
  - Sequential flow – control passes to the next block (if no branch at the end)
- If no unique entry node  $n_0$  or exit node  $n_f$ , add dummy nodes and insert necessary edges
  - Ideally no edges entering  $n_0$ ; no edges exiting  $n_f$
  - Simplify many analysis and transformation algorithms

# Example: CFG





# Complications in CFG Construction

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- Function calls
  - Instruction scheduling may prefer function calls as basic block boundaries
  - Special functions as `setjmp()` and `longjmp()`
- Exception handling
- Ambiguous jump
  - Jump `r1 //target` stored in register `r1` 发生在：函数指针&查找表
  - Static analysis may generate edges that never occur at runtime



# Nodes in CFG

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- Given a CFG =  $\langle N, E \rangle$ 
  - If there is an edge  $n_i \rightarrow n_j \in E$
  - $n_i$  is a predecessor of  $n_j$
  - $n_j$  is a successor of  $n_i$
- For any node  $n \in N$ 
  - **Pred(n)**: the set of predecessors of  $n$
  - **Succ(n)**: the set of successors of  $n$
  - A **branch node** is a node that has more than one successor
  - A **join node** is a node that has more than one predecessor





# Depth First Traversal

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- CFG is a rooted, directed graph
  - Entry node as the root
- Depth-first traversal (depth-first searching)
  - Idea: start at the root and explore as far/deep as possible along each branch before backtracking
  - Can build a spanning tree for the graph
- Spanning tree of a directed graph  $G$  contains all nodes of  $G$  such that
  - There is a path from the root to any node reachable in the original graph and there are no cycles

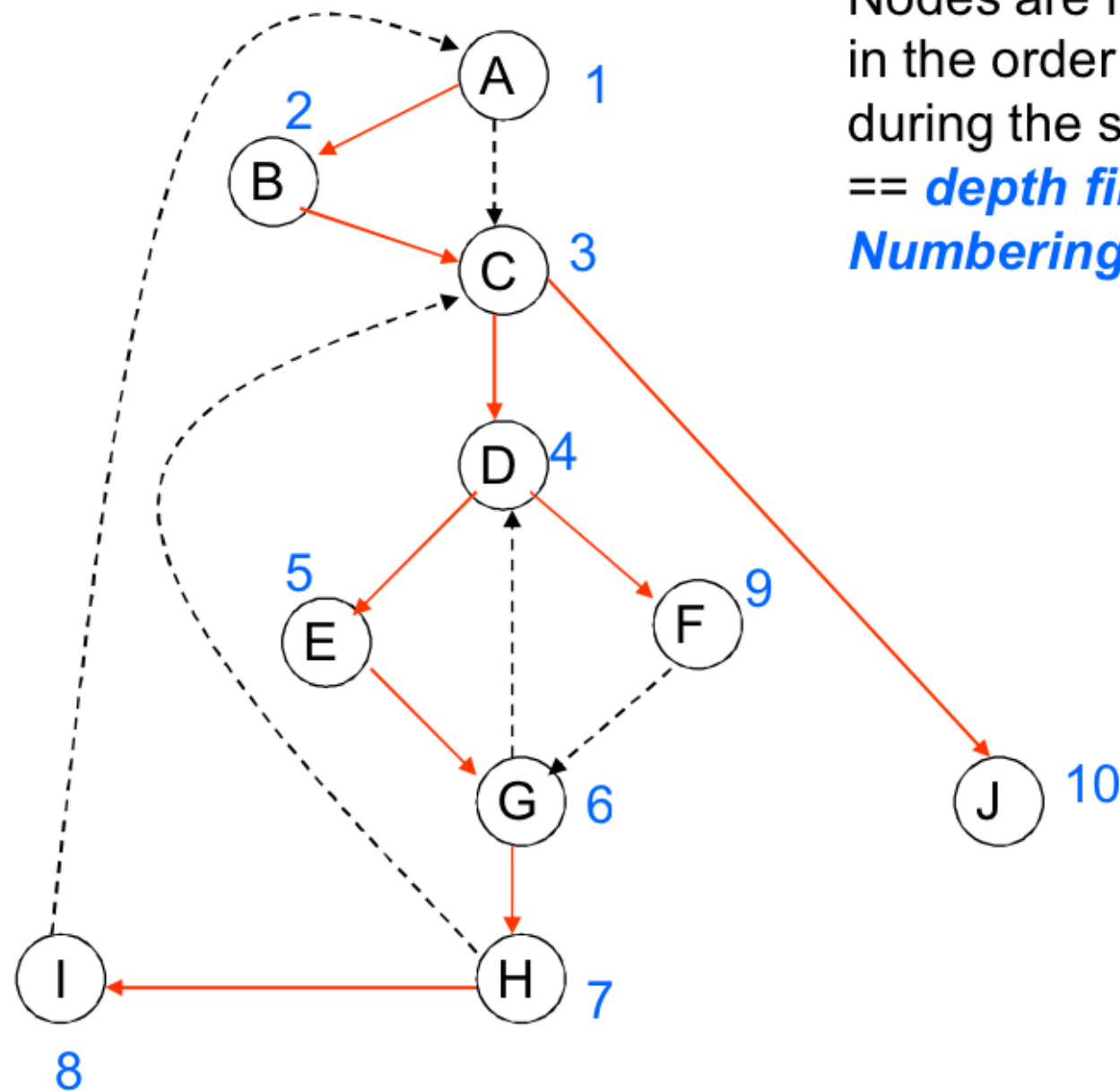


# DFS Spanning Tree

```
procedure span(v)  /* v is a node in the
graph */
  InTree(v) = true
  For each w that is a successor of v do
    if (!InTree(w)) then
      Add edge  $v \rightarrow w$  to spanning tree
      span(w)
  end span
```

□ Initial:  $\text{span}(n_0)$

# DFST Example



Nodes are numbered  
in the order visited  
during the search  
== **depth first pre-order  
Numbering.**

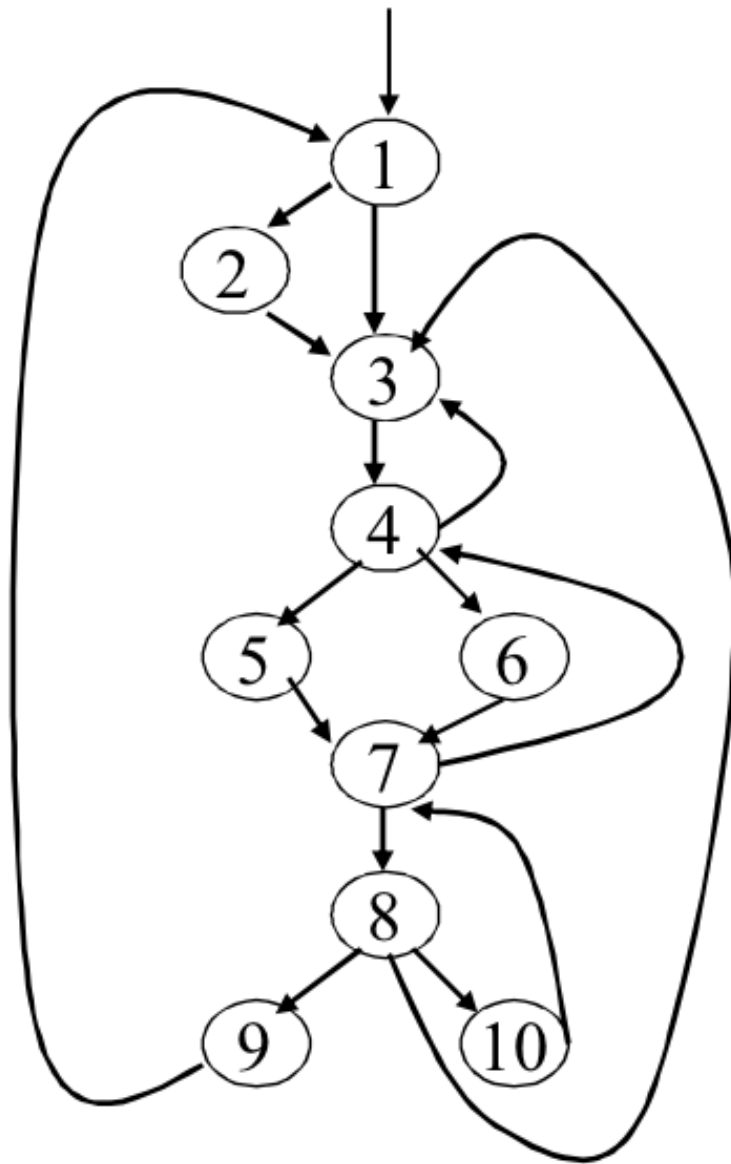


# Dominance

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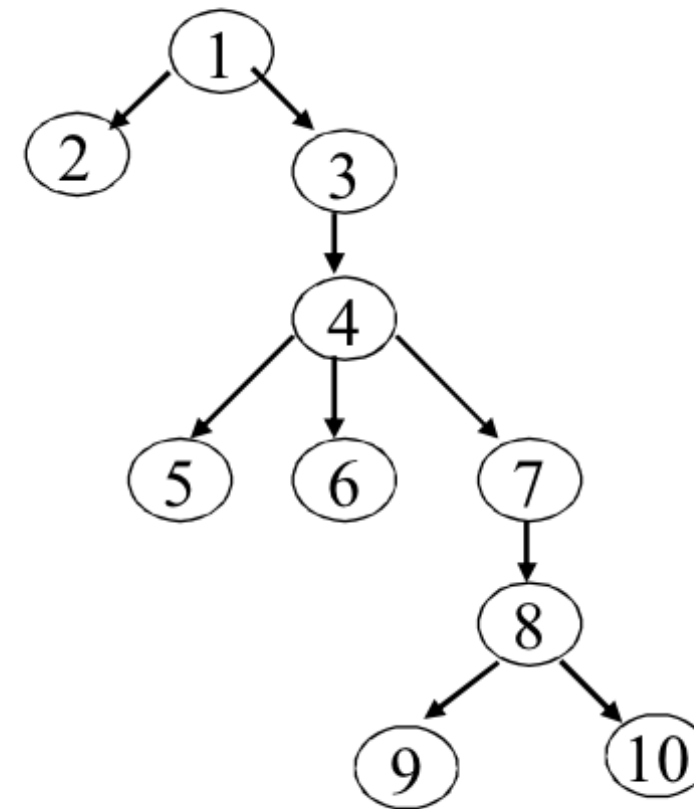
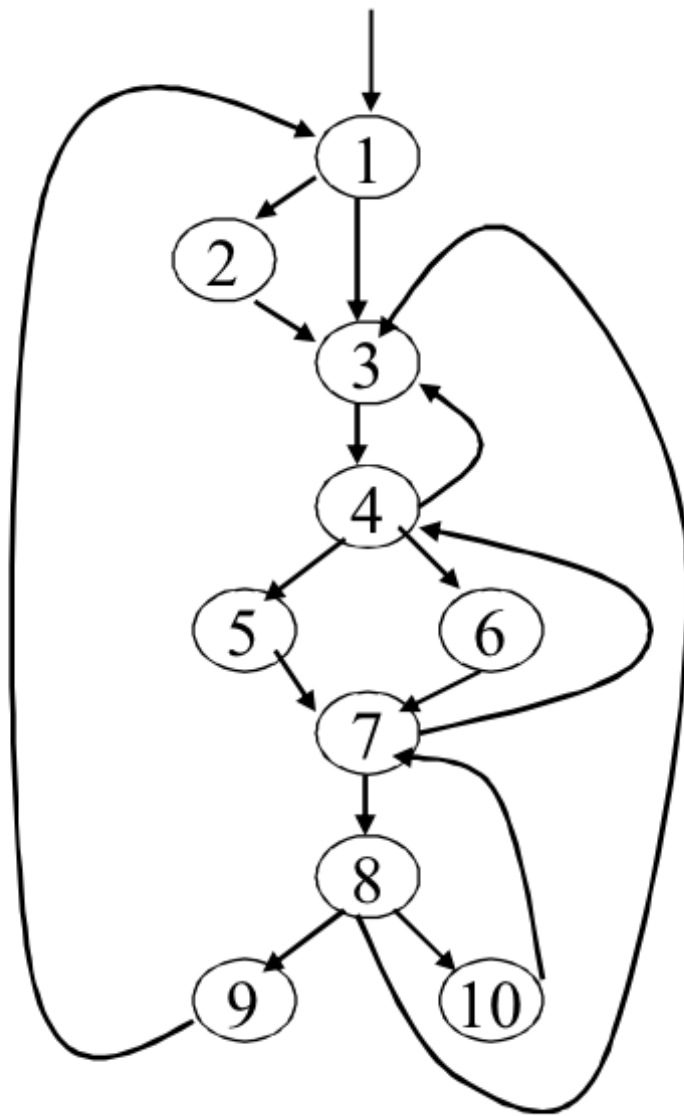
- Node  $d$  of a CFG dominates node  $n$  if every path from the entry node of the graph to  $n$  passes through  $d$  ( $d \text{ dom } n$ )
  - $\text{Dom}(n)$ : the set of dominators of node  $n$
  - Every node dominates itself:  $n \in \text{Dom}(n)$
  - Node  $d$  strictly dominates  $n$  if  $d \in \text{Dom}(n)$  and  $d \neq n$
  - Dominance-based loop recognition: entry of a loop dominates all nodes in the loop
- Each node  $n$  has a unique immediate dominator  $m$  which is the last dominator of  $n$  on any path from the entry to  $n$  ( $m \text{ idom } n$ ),  $m \neq n$ 
  - The immediate dominator  $m$  of  $n$  is the strict dominator of  $n$  that is closest to  $n$

# Dominator Example



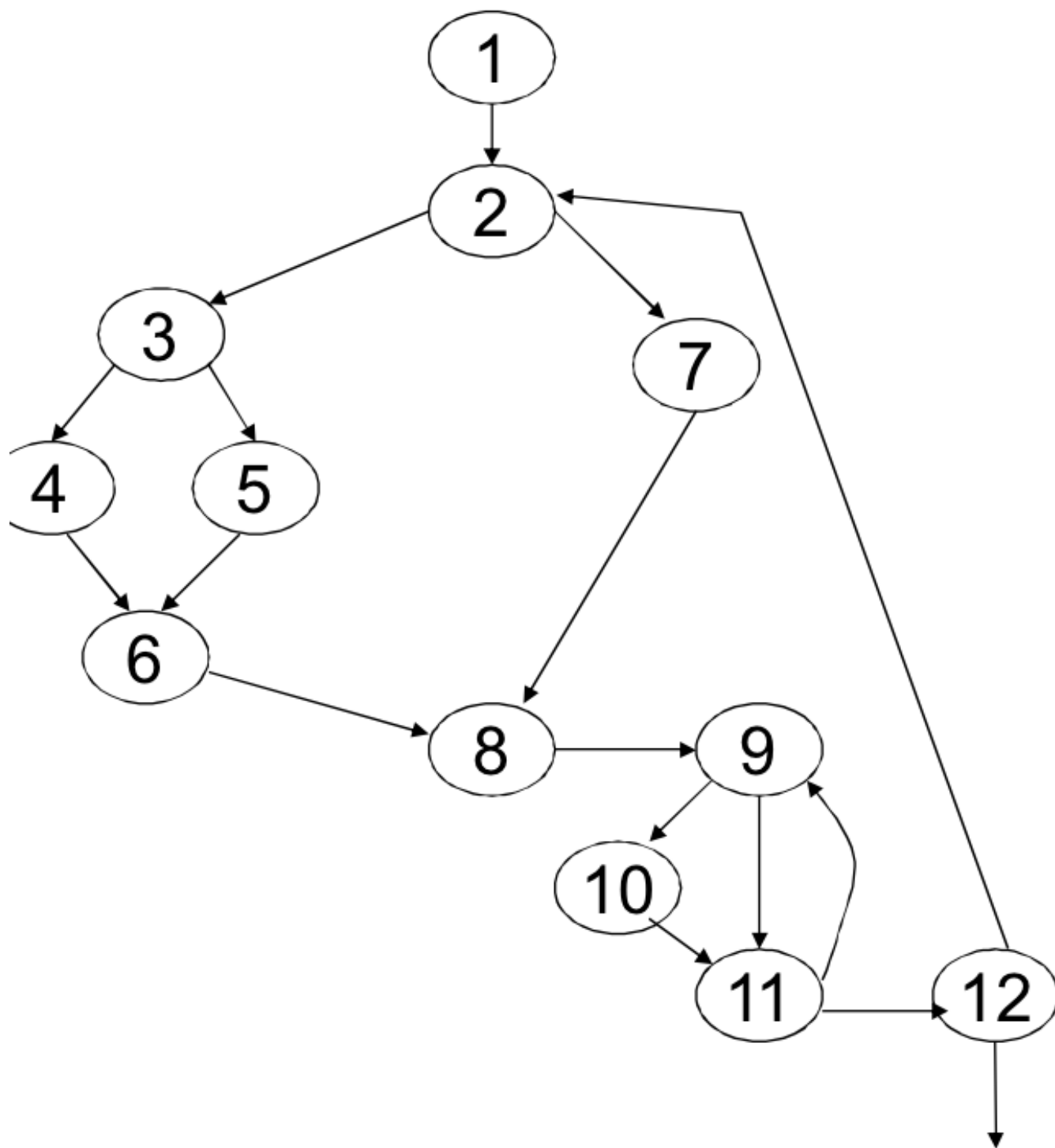
Block	Dom	IDom
1	{1}	—
2	{1,2}	1
3	{1,3}	1
4	{1,3,4}	3
5	{1,3,4,5}	4
6	{1,3,4,6}	4
7	{1,3,4,7}	4
8	{1,3,4,7,8}	7
9	{1,3,4,7,8,9}	8
10	{1,3,4,7,8,10}	8

# Dominator Tree



- In a dominator tree, a node's parent is its immediate dominator

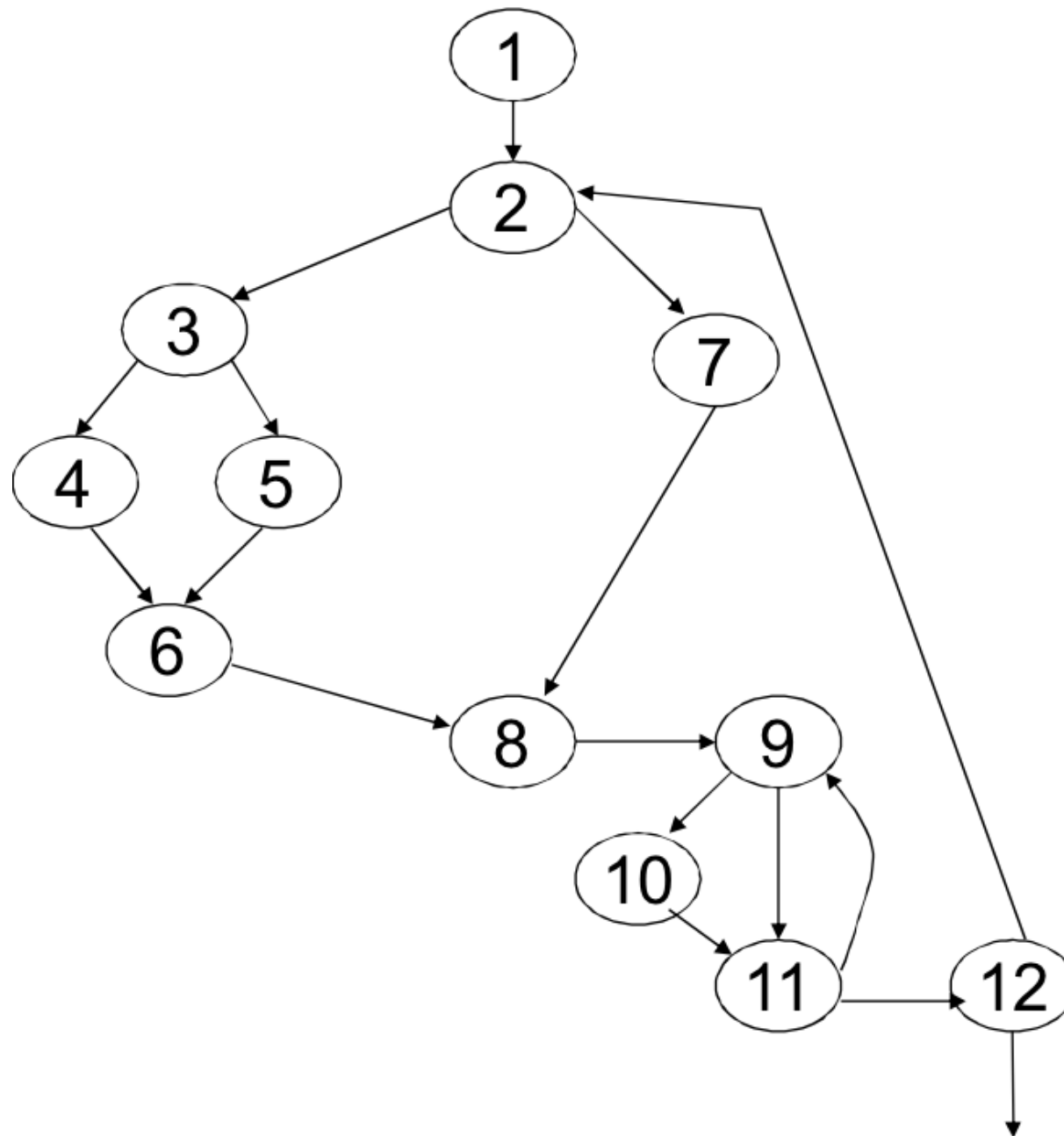
# Example 2



Block	Dom	IDom
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		

# Example 2

## Example 2



Block	Dom	IDom
1	1	-
2	1,2	1
3	1,2,3	2
4	1,2,3,4	3
5	1,2,3,5	3
6	1,2,3,6	3
7	1,2,7	2
8	1,2,8	2
9	1,2,8,9	8
10	1,2,8,9,10	9
11	1,2,8,9,11	9
12	1,2,8,9,11,12	11





# Call Graph

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- So far looked at intraprocedural analysis: a single function
- **Inter-procedural analysis** uses calling relationships **among** procedures
  - Enables more precise analysis information



# Call Graph

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- First problem: how do we know what procedures are called from where?
  - Especially difficult in higher-order languages, languages where functions are values (**function pointer**)
  - We'll ignore this for now, and return to it later in course...
- Let's assume we have a (static) **call graph**
  - Indicates which procedures can call which other procedures, and from which program points.

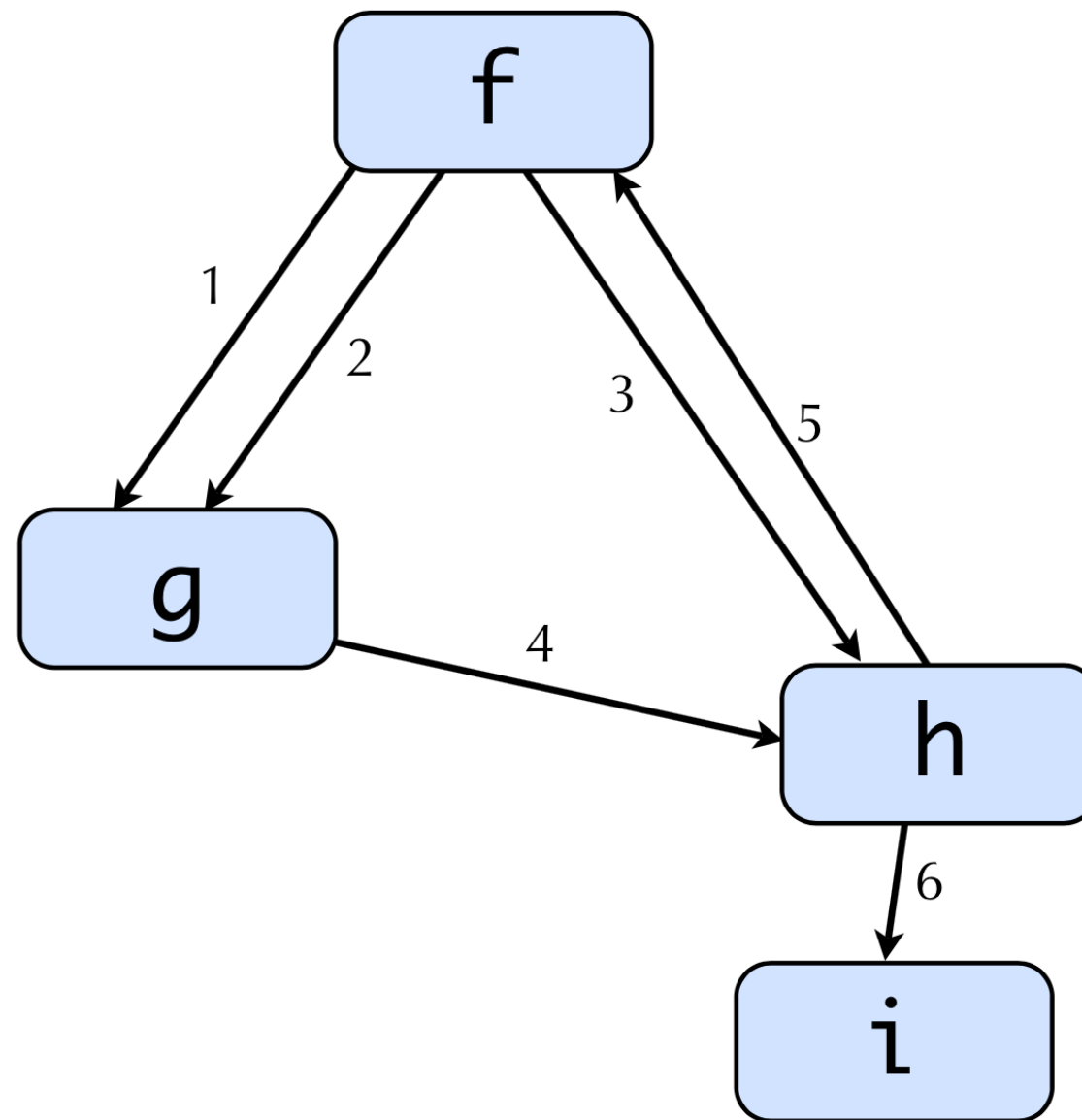
# Call Graph Example

```
f() {  
  1: g();  
  2: g();  
  3: h();  
}
```

```
g() {  
  4: h();  
}
```

```
h() {  
  5: f();  
  6: i();  
}
```

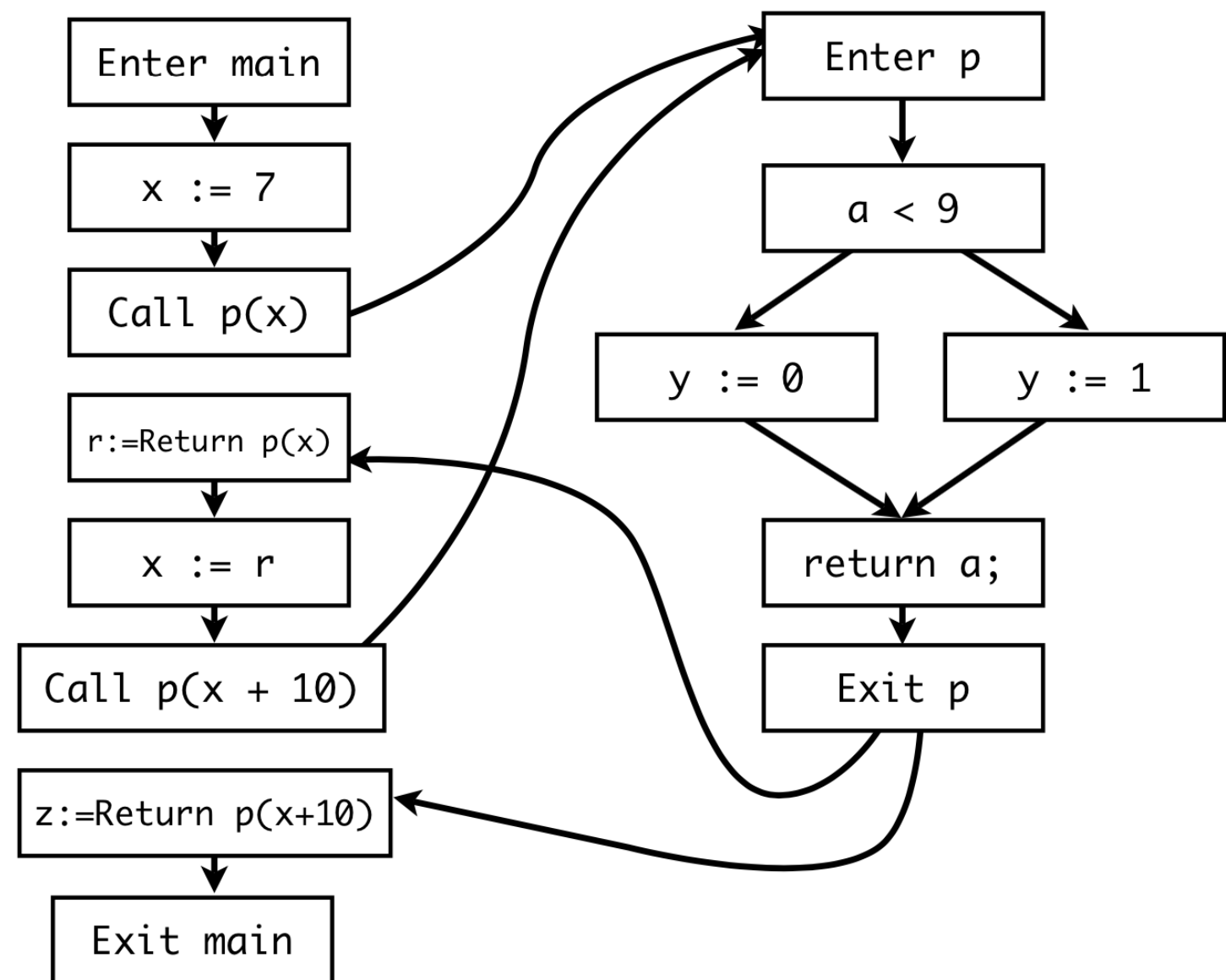
```
i() { ... }
```



- How do we deal with procedure calls?
- Obvious idea: make one big CFG

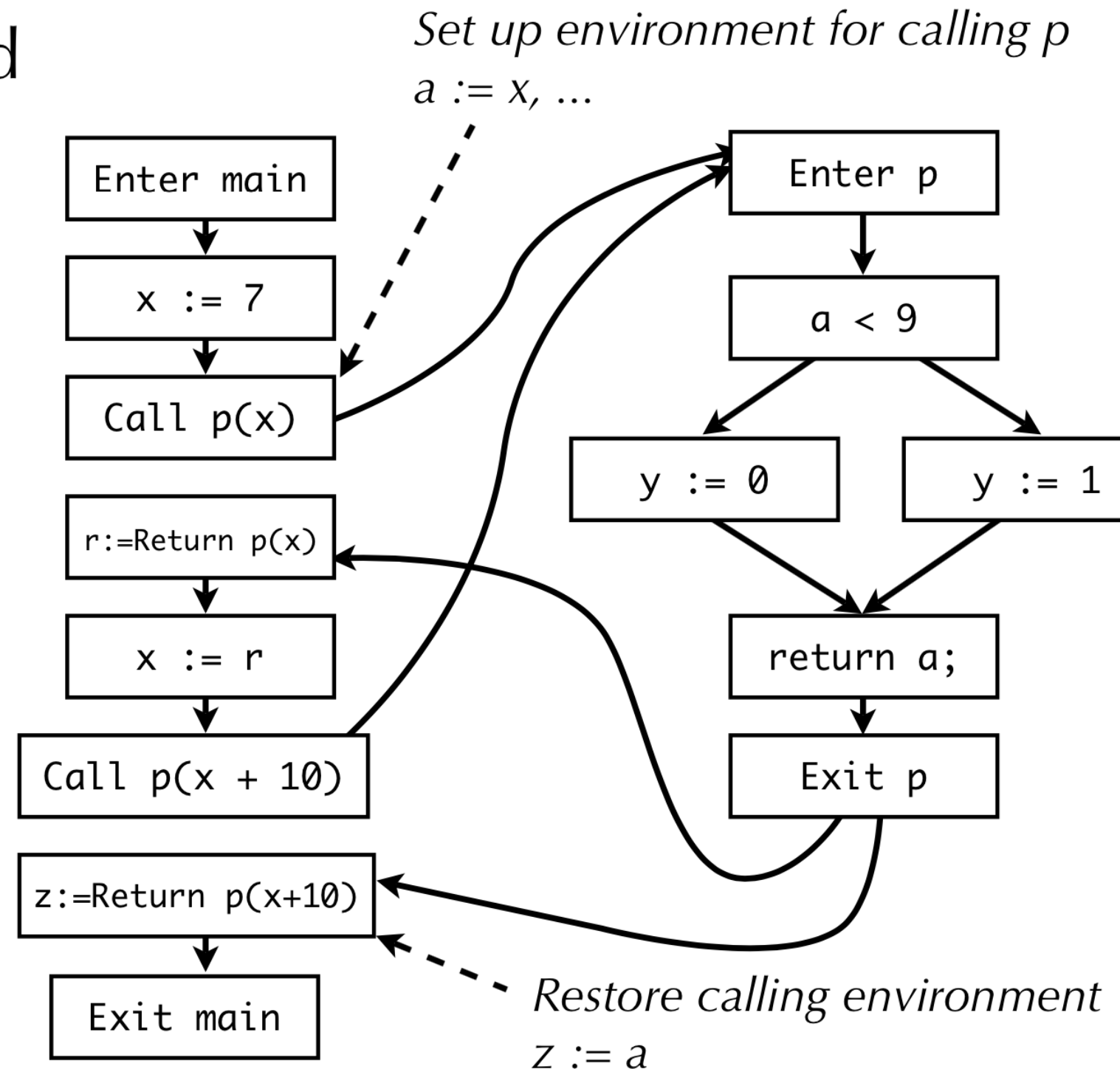
```
main() {
  x := 7;
  r := p(x);
  x := r;
  z := p(x + 10);
}
```

```
p(int a) {
  if (a < 9)
    y := 0;
  else
    y := 1;
  return a;
}
```

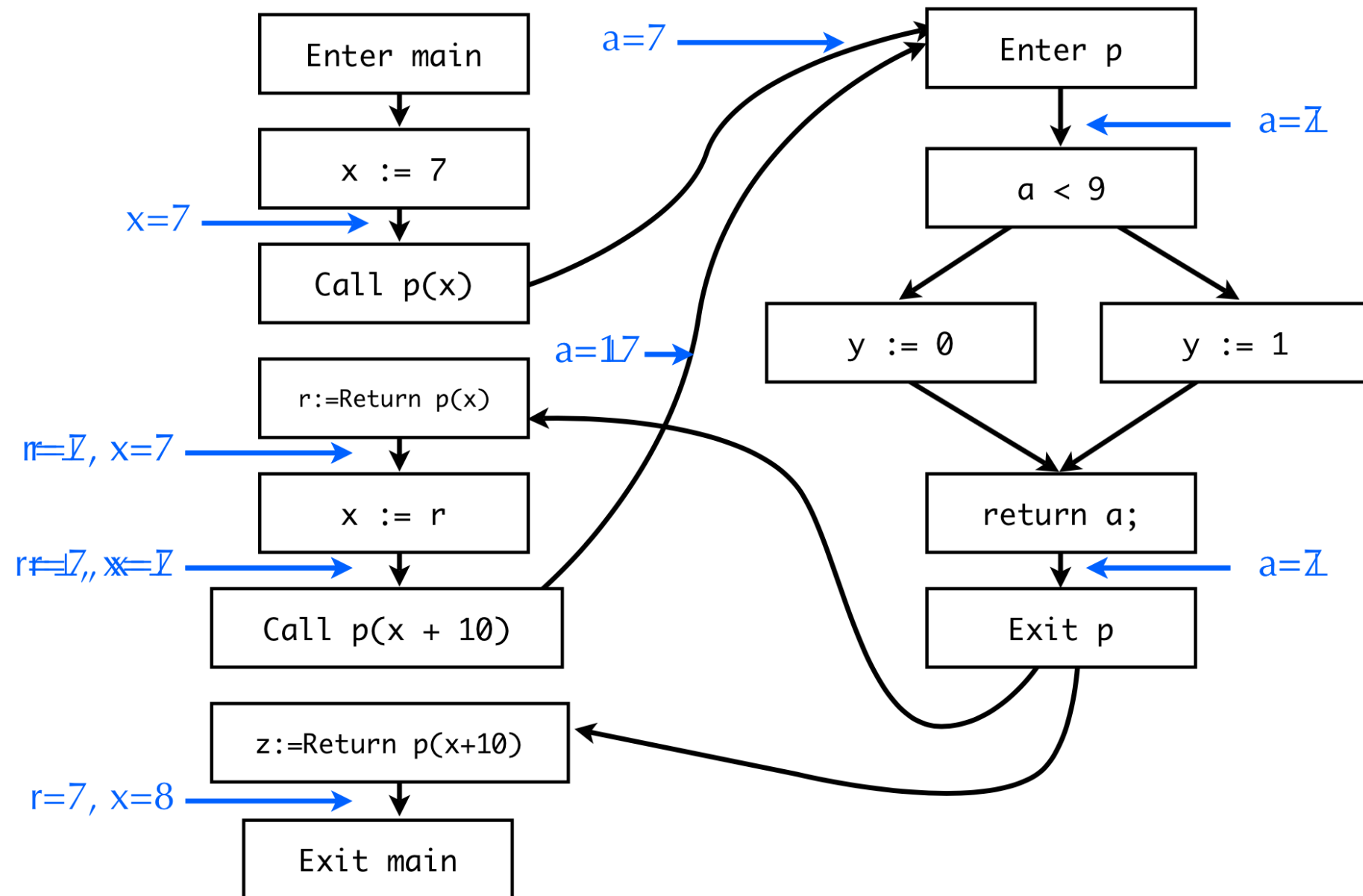


# Interprocedural CFG (ICFG)

- CFG may have additional nodes to handle call and returns
  - Treat arguments, return values as assignments
- Note: a local program variable represents multiple locations



# Example





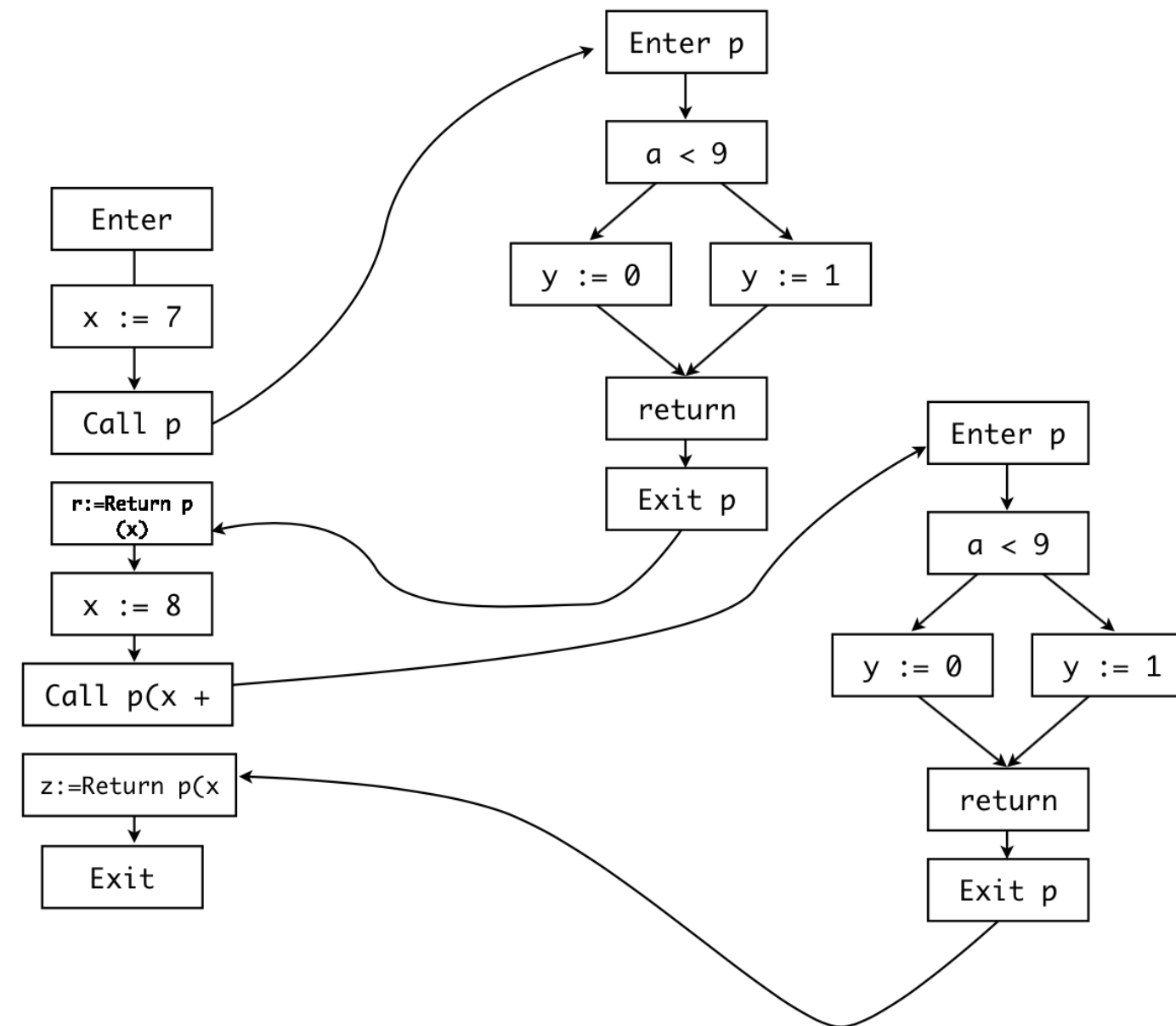
# Invalid Paths

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- Problem: dataflow facts from one call site “tainting” results at other call site
  - p analyzed with merge of dataflow facts from all call sites
- How to address?

# Inlining

- Inlining
  - Use a new copy of a procedure's CFG at each call site
- Problems? Concerns?
  - May be expensive! Exponential increase in size of CFG
    - $p() \{ q(); q(); \}$     $q() \{ r(); r() \}$   
 $r() \{ \dots \}$
  - What about recursive procedures?
    - $p(\text{int } n) \{ \dots p(n-1); \dots \}$
    - More generally, cycles in the call graph







# Context Sensitivity

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- Solution: make a **finite** number of copies
- Use context information to determine when to share a copy
  - Results in a context-sensitive analysis
- Choice of what to use for context will produce different tradeoffs between precision and scalability
- Common choice: approximation of call stack

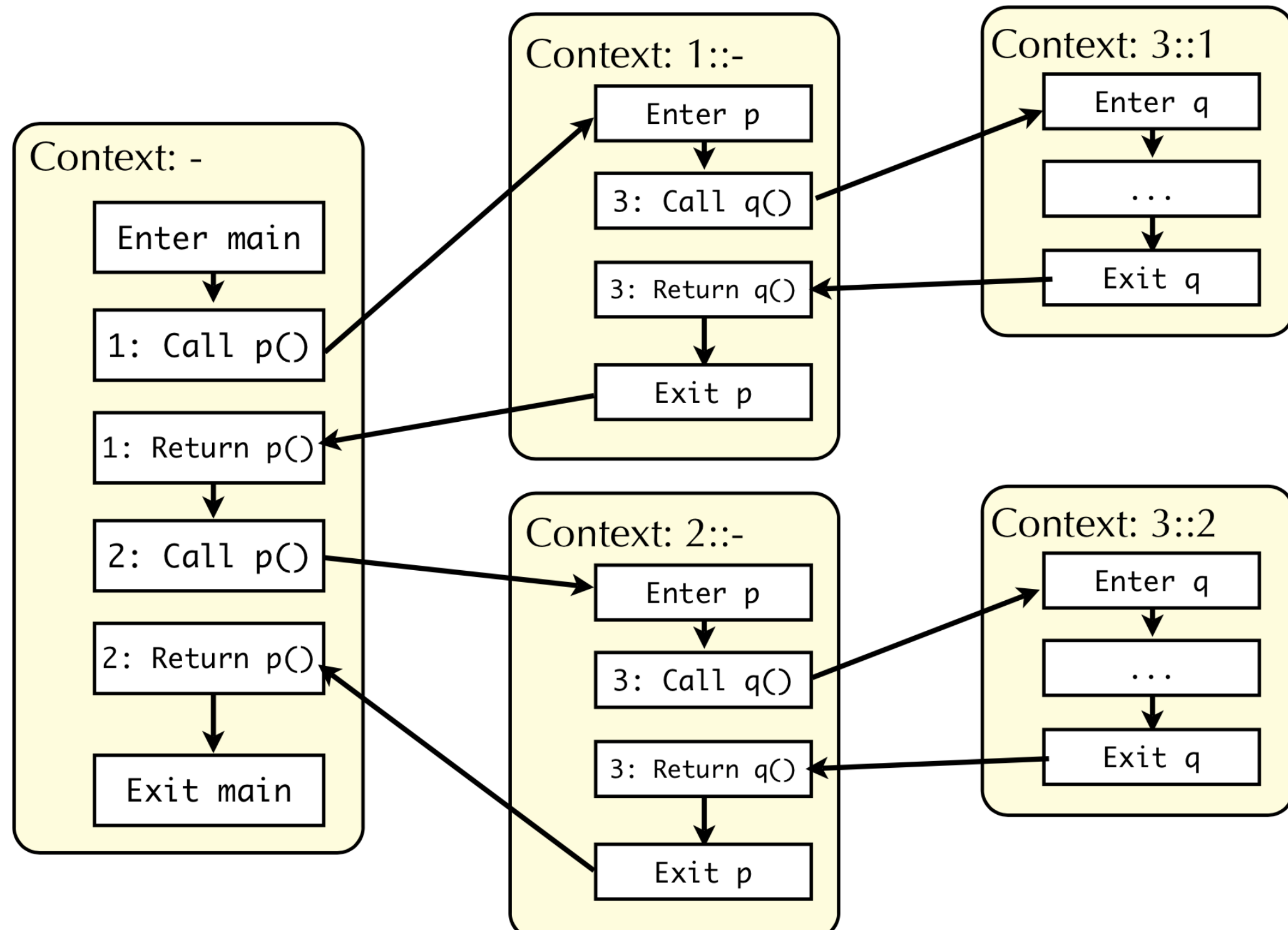


# Context Sensitivity Example

```
main() {  
  1: p();  
  2: p();  
}
```

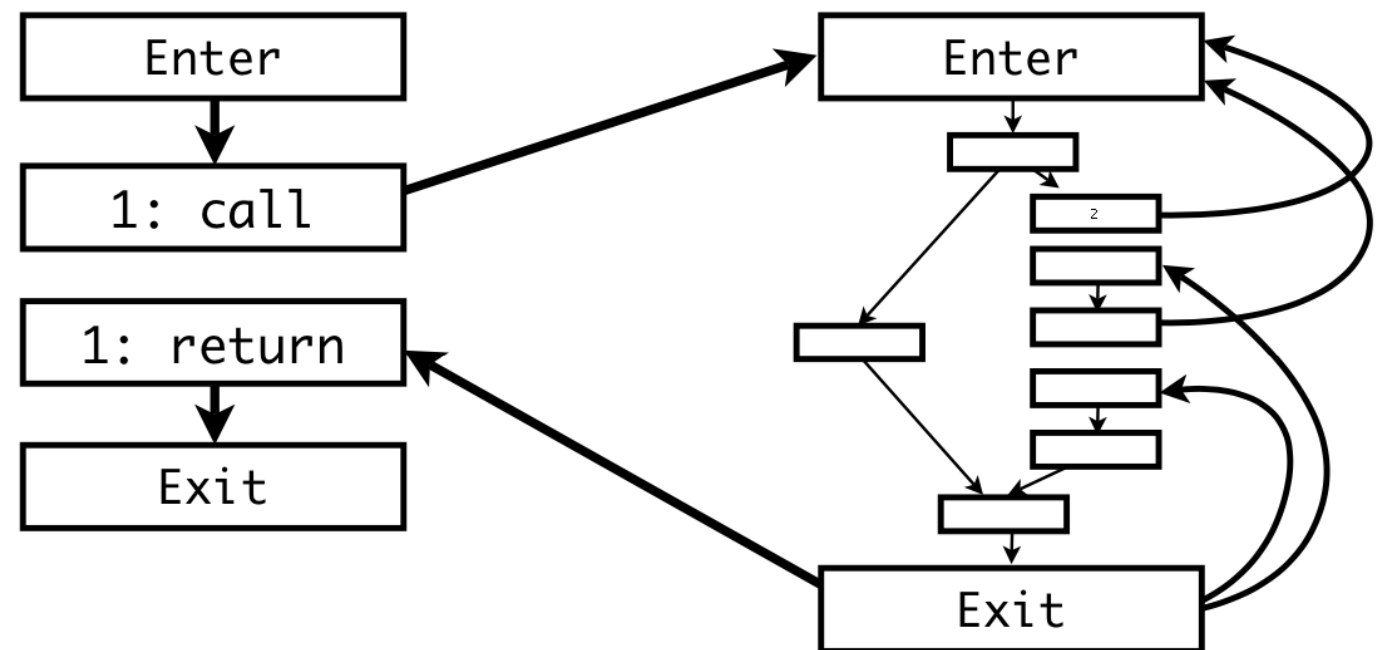
```
p() {  
  3: q();  
}
```

```
q() {  
  ...  
}
```



# Fibonacci: context insensitive

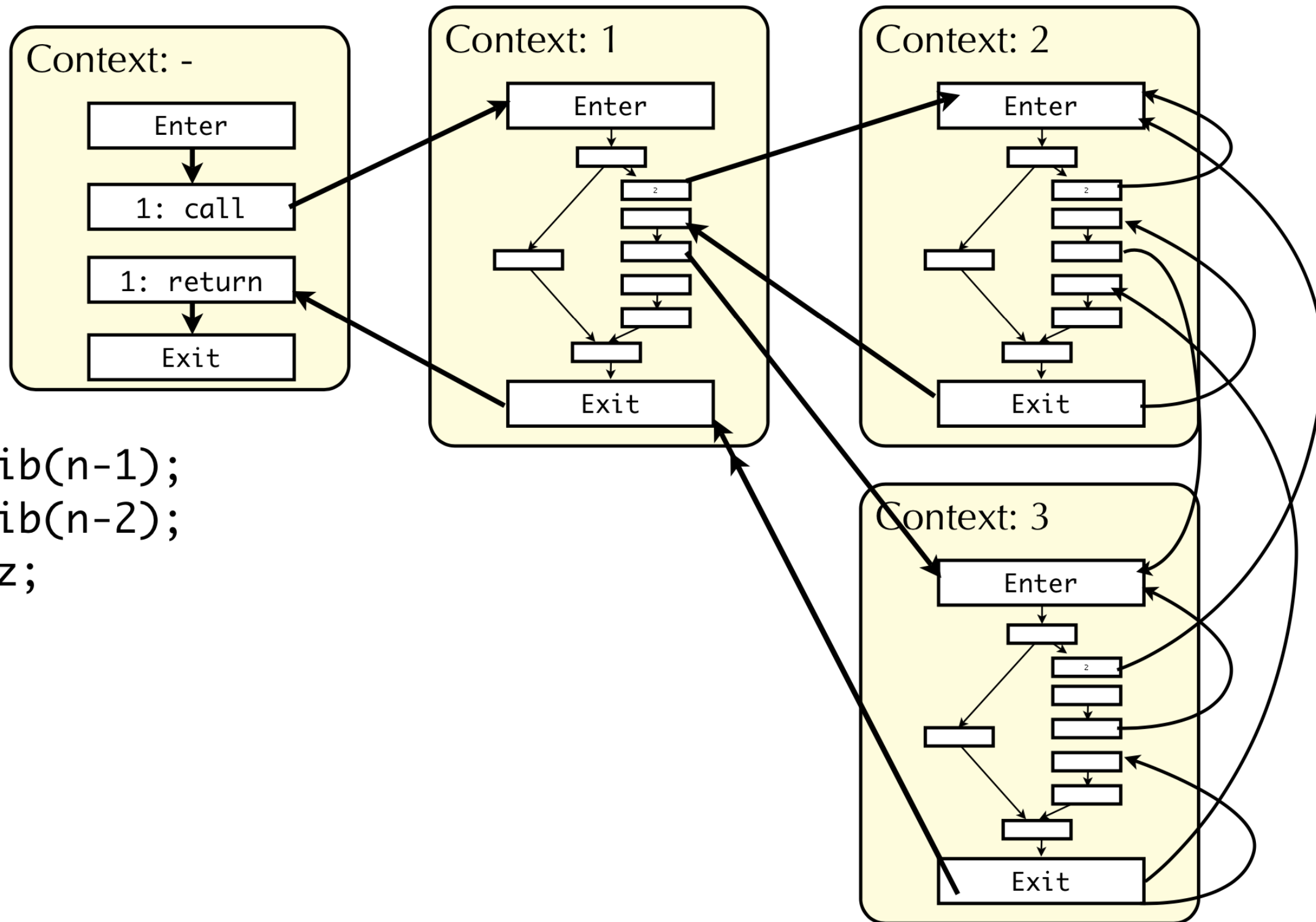
```
main() {  
  1: fib(7);  
}  
  
fib(int n) {  
  if n <= 1  
    x := 0  
  else  
    2: y := fib(n-1);  
    3: z := fib(n-2);  
    x := y+z;  
  return x;  
}
```



# Fibonacci: context sensitive, stack depth 1

```
main() {
  1: fib(7);
}

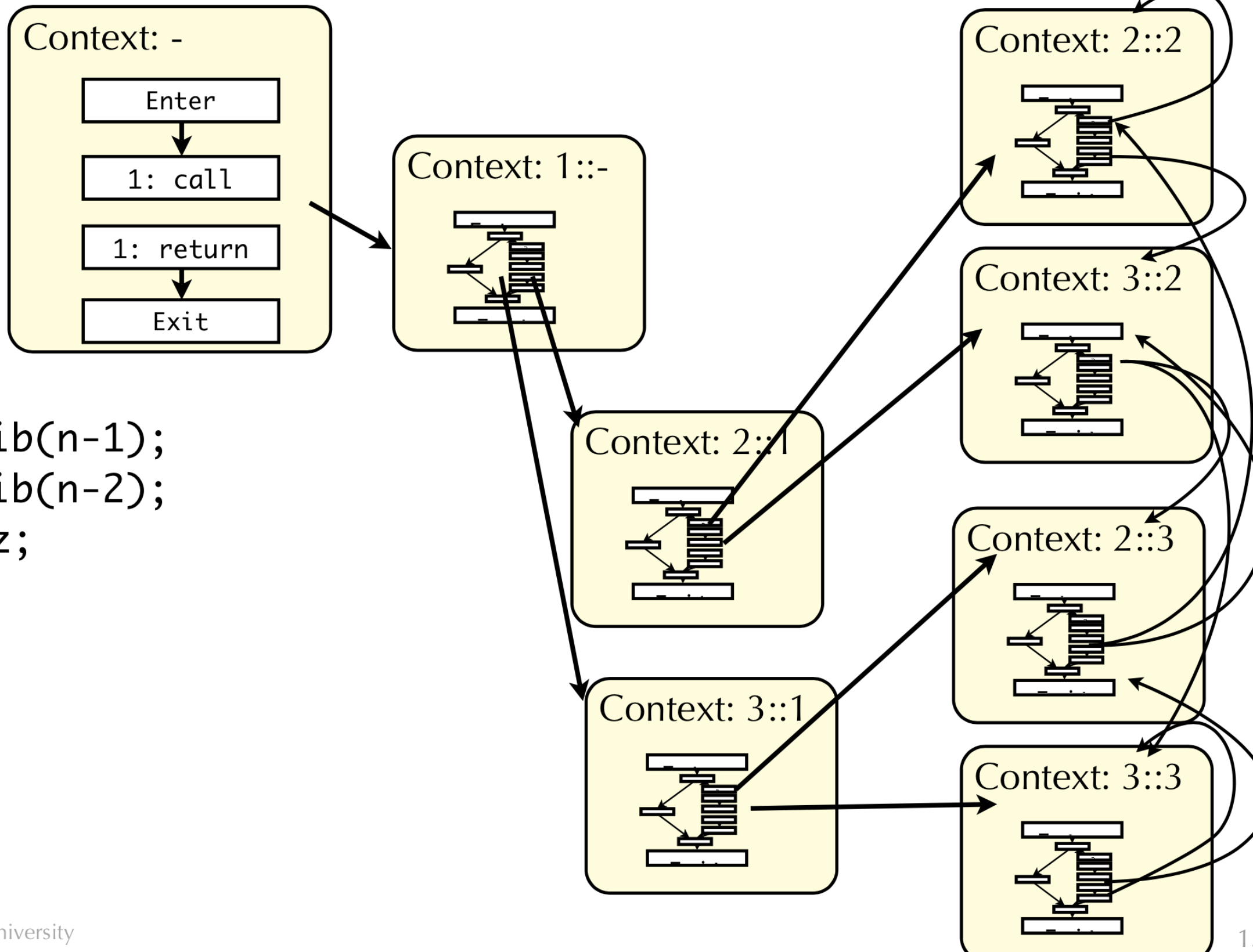
fib(int n) {
  if n <= 1
    x := 0
  else
    2: y := fib(n-1);
    3: z := fib(n-2);
    x := y+z;
  return x;
}
```



# Fibonacci: context sensitive, stack depth 2

```
main() {
  1: fib(7);
}
```

```
fib(int n) {
  if n <= 1
    x := 0
  else
    2: y := fib(n-1);
    3: z := fib(n-2);
    x := y+z;
  return x;
}
```



# Other contexts

---

- Context sensitivity distinguishes between different calls of the same procedure
  - Choice of contexts determines which calls are differentiated
- Other choices of context are possible
  - Caller stack
    - Less precise than call-site stack
    - E.g., context “2::2” and “2::3” would both be “fib::fib”
  - Object sensitivity: which object is the target of the method call?
    - For OO languages.
    - Maintains precision for some common OO patterns
    - Requires pointer analysis to determine which objects are possible targets
    - Can use a stack (i.e., target of methods on call stack)



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# Common Concepts

# Concepts in Static Analysis



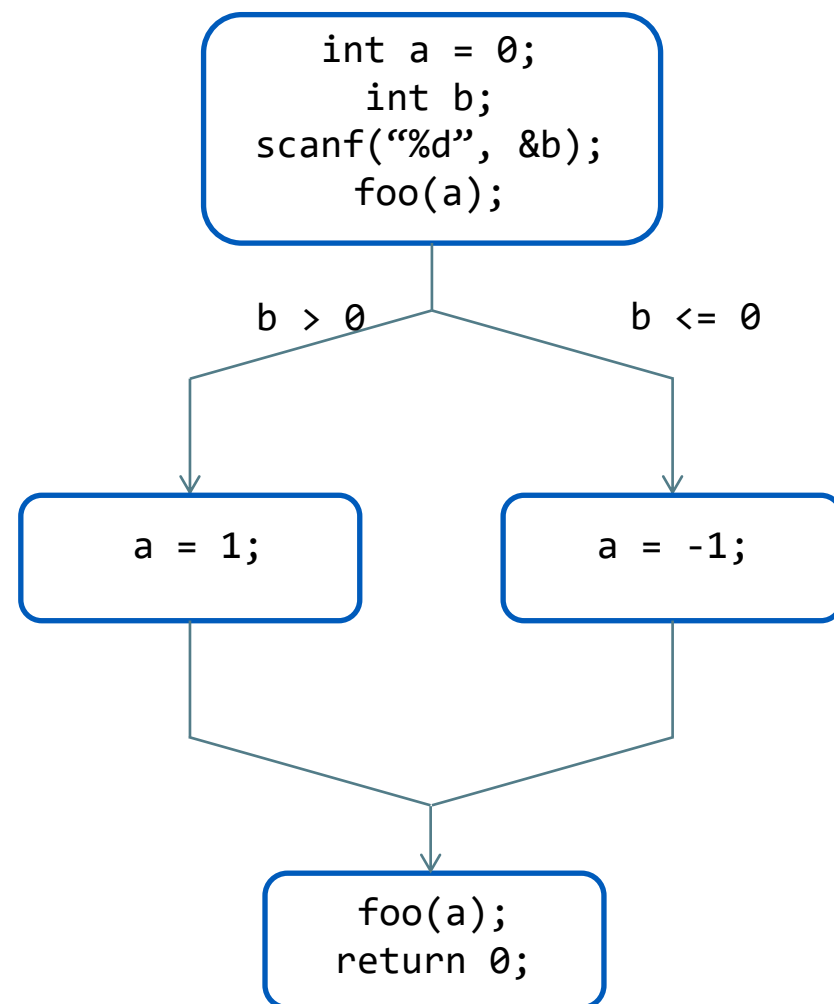
- 
- Analysis scope
    - intra- and inter-procedural
    - flow sensitive, context sensitive and path sensitive



- Question: what is printed during execution of main()?
  - How many times is printf called in main?
  - What is the value of a?
  - What is the value of param?

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         a = 1;
14     } else {
15         a = -1;
16     }
17     foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

# Building CFG



```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         a = 1;
14     } else {
15         a = -1;
16     }
17     foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

# Intra- and Inter-procedural



- Problem: how many times is printf called in main?
- Intra-procedural: printf is not called
- Inter-procedural: printf is called twice

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         a = 1;
14     } else {
15         a = -1;
16     }
17     foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

Unknown

Unknown

A red arrow originates from the 'foo(a);' call on line 11, points to the 'foo' function definition, and then returns to line 11. Another red arrow originates from the 'foo(a);' call on line 17, points to the 'foo' function definition, and then returns to line 17. The two 'foo(a);' lines (11 and 17) are highlighted with red boxes, and the word 'Unknown' is written in red next to each box.



- Problem: what is the value of a?
- Flow-insensitive: value of a may be -1, 0, or 1

- Flow-sensitive:

$a_8 = a_{11} = 0$

$a_{13} = 1$

$a_{15} = -1$

$a_{17}$  can be -1 or 1

- SSA form computation in LLVM IR are already flow sensitive

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      →int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     →foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         →a = 1;
14     } else {
15         →a = -1;
16     }
17     →foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

不记录路径

# Context Sensitivity



- Problem: what is the value of param?
- Context insensitive: value of param may be -1, 0, or 1
- Context sensitive:
  - (main,11) foo: param = 0
  - (main,17) foo: param = -1 or 1

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     →foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         a = 1;
14     } else {
15         a = -1;
16     }
17     →foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

Two red dashed arrows originate from the function calls 'foo(a)' on lines 11 and 17 of the code. One arrow points from line 11 to the 'foo' function definition on line 2. The other arrow points from line 17 to the 'foo' function definition on line 2. The arrows are dashed and red, highlighting the context-sensitive nature of the function calls.

- Path insensitive: value of  $a_{17}$  may be -1 or 1

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  int foo(int param) {
3      printf("%d", param);
4      return 0;
5  }
6
7  int main() {
8      int a = 0;
9      int b;
10     scanf("%d", &b);
11     foo(a);
12     if (b > 0) {
13         a = 1;
14     } else {
15         a = -1;
16     }
17     →foo(a);
18     return 0;
19 }
```

# Path Sensitivity



- Path sensitive:

- $path_1$ :  $b > 0$ ;  $a_{17} = 1$ , printed = (0, 1)
- $path_2$ :  $b \leq 0$ ;  $a_{17} = -1$ , printed = (0, -1)

- Precise but cost a lot

