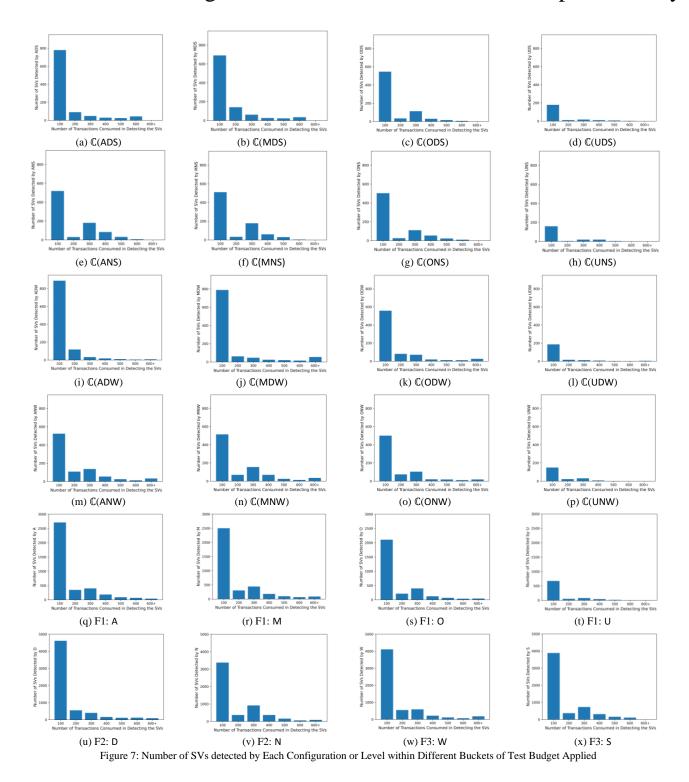
# Supplementary Document of

# The Effects of Blockchain Environment on Security Vulnerability Detection in Fuzzing Ethereum Smart Contracts: An Empirical Study



## Appendix I

Figure 7 presents the number of SVs detected by each configuration (in subfigures (a) to (p)) and each level of each design factor (in subfigures (q) to (x)). For ease of presentation, the detected SVs are placed into incremental buckets of 100 transactions, representing the number of transactions needed to detect these SVs. In the figure, higher bars for a configuration or level represent higher effectiveness in terms of the number of SVs detected, while higher bars in the initial buckets represent higher cost-effectiveness in terms of the number of transactions consumed to detect the SVs.

#### APPENDIX II - APPLICABILITY TO GREYBOX FUZZING

In this section, we compare the performance of a well-known coverage-guided greybox fuzzer AFL [44] adopted for smart contracts, referred to as AFL<sub>Blockchain</sub>. We first configure AFL<sub>Blockchain</sub> with  $\mathbb{C}(\mathsf{ANS})$  as we infer it to be its default configuration used in AFL [44]. We infer Level A for F1 because AFL randomly mutates any part of the seed input (including the sender's address). Level N is inferred for F2 because AFL does not control any execution environment, and Level S is inferred for F3 because AFL allows an equal distribution of test resources among the test subjects. We refer to this configuration of AFL as AFLans. For comparison, we configure AFL<sub>Blockchain</sub> with  $\mathbb{C}(\mathsf{ADW})$ , the most cost-effective configuration obtained from answering RQ4. We refer to it as AFL<sub>ADW</sub>.

In this case study, our main goal is to show the applicability of the most cost-effective configuration to greybox fuzzing. We believe, based on our understanding of the current test framework (adopted from ContractFuzzer [26]), the three factors are well-suited for the application of AFL (a vanilla greybox fuzzer that uses code coverage to guide the testing process).

Other smart contract fuzzers use different techniques and heuristics to guide the fuzzing process, and understanding their implementations would be error-prone and challenging to us, raising a threat of committing implementation mistakes. In existing works [23][26][32][43], their experiments used third-party tools without putting them into the same test framework to facilitate stricter comparisons. Since we aim at comparisons on the same test framework, therefore, we choose not to implement other fuzzers in the current case study.

# A. AFL for Ethereum Smart Contracts

To show the applicability of the studied design factors to greybox fuzzing, Algorithm 2 presents  $AFL_{Blockchain}$  for greybox fuzzing of Ethereum smart contracts. The algorithm generates and executes the seed transactions in lines 6–18, while the main fuzzing process is performed in lines 19–38.

Like Algorithm 1, this algorithm accepts a set of smart contracts  $\Pi$  along with two accounts,  $a_1$  (*owner*) and  $a_2$  (*unknown*), and a test budget B.

Algorithm 1: AFL<sub>Blockchain</sub> Algorithm  $\Pi$ : a set of smart contracts to test a1: owner account as: unknown account B: test budget **Output:** V: a list of triples 1 foreach  $sc_i$  in  $\mathbb{II}$ 2. 3  $Deploy(SC_i)$  on the test framework with  $a_1$ 4 budget = ResourceAllocationStrategy (SC<sub>i</sub>,  $\mathbb{H}$ , B) //Factor F3 5 // Transaction counter 6  $Q = \langle \rangle$ // Seed Oueue 7 **foreach** *fn* in SC<sub>i</sub>.functions: // Seed generation and execution 8  $t_s$  = generate a random seed test case for fn9  $SA = AddressSelectionStrategy(SC_b, a_1, a_2)$ //Factor F1 10 foreach account a in SA 11  $Q.append(t_s.senderAddress = a)$ 12 end for 13  $cov(O) = ExecutionStrategy(SC_i, O)$ //Factor F2 14 **foreach** transaction tx in Q: 15 **foreach** security vulnerability  $v_i$  found in tx16  $V = V \cup \{\langle SC_i, v_j, tx \rangle\}$ 17 end for 18 count += length(Q)19 do 20  $I_{\cdot} = \langle \rangle$ 21 **foreach** transaction t in O 22  $t_{mut} = t.mutate(t.input())$ 23  $SA = AddressSelectionStrategy(SC_i, a_1, a_2)$ //Factor F1 24 foreach account a in SA 25  $L.append(t_{mut}.senderAddress = a)$ 26 end for 27 **if** (count + length(L)) > budget28 L = L[0: (budget-(count+length(L)))]29  $cov(L) = ExecutionStrategy(SC_i, L)$ 30 **foreach** transaction *tx* in *L*: 31 **if** cov(tx) contains an element not in  $cov(\forall tx_i \in Q)$ 32  $Q = \langle tx, Q \rangle$ 33 **foreach** security vulnerability  $v_i$  found in tx34  $V = V \cup \{\langle SC_i, v_i, tx \rangle\}$ 35 36 count += length(L)37 while count < budget

An empty list V is initialized at line 1. The algorithm then iterates over all the smart contracts in  $\Pi$ .

38

In the iteration for a smart contract  $SC_i$ , the smart contract is first deployed on the test framework using  $a_1$  as the owner account at line 3. The algorithm then determines a *budget*, which is the number of transactions for fuzzing  $SC_i$  (line 4) via *ResourceAllocationStrategy*(). Then, a transaction counter, *count*, is initialized at line 5, and an empty list of seed transactions Q is initialized at line 6. From lines 7–12, the algorithm iteratively generates seed transactions and appends them to Q. Each function fn of  $SC_i$  is iteratively selected (line 7), and a seed test case  $t_s$  is randomly generated for fn (line 8). At line 9, the algorithm gets a list of sender accounts SA via AddressSelectionStrategy(). At line 10–11, for each account a in SA, the test case  $t_s$  is converted into a transaction with its sender address set to a

and appended to Q. The transactions in Q are executed via the *ExectuionStrategy*() at line 13, and the code coverage (cov) is recorded. Each security vulnerability  $v_j$  of  $SC_i$  detected by transaction tx in Q is added to V as a triple  $\langle SC_i, v_j, t_k \rangle$  (lines 14–17). The algorithm increases count by the length of Q at line 18.

Inside the loop at lines 19-38, an empty list of transactions L is initialized at line 20. The algorithm initiates a loop for the total number of transactions in Q at lines 21–26. It then iteratively generates a mutant test case  $t_{mut}$  at line 22 for each transaction in the Q. At line 23, the algorithm gets a list of sender accounts SA via AddressSelectionStrategy(). At line 24-25, for each account a in SA, the test case  $t_{mut}$  is converted into a transaction with its sender address set to a and appended to L. The algorithm at lines 27–28 checks whether executing the full L exceeds the budget and truncates L accordingly if this is the case. The transactions in L are executed via the ExectuionStrategy() at line 29, and the code coverage (cov) is recorded. The algorithm at lines 30–35 iterates over each transaction tx in L. tx is added to the head position of the Q at lines 31–32 if a previously uncovered coverage item is discovered. Each security vulnerability  $v_i$  of  $SC_i$  detected by transaction tx is added to V as a triple  $\langle SC_i, v_i, t_k \rangle$  (lines 33–34). The algorithm increases *count* by the length of L at line 36. The algorithm checks at line 37 whether the budget has been exhausted.

The algorithm terminates at line 38.

# B. Experimental Procedure

The experiment to compare the cost-effectiveness of AFLans and AFLadw is conducted on the same experimental setup presented in Section V on dataset  $\Omega$ . The procedure of the two experiments (referred to as E17 and E18) are summarized as follows.

To support greybox fuzzing, the test framework used in the above controlled experiment is extended with mutation operators. Algorithm 2 is also implemented. Two types of mutation operators are implemented for E17 and E18 below. The first mutation operator is to randomly flip the bits of an input parameter and the second one is an addition of random bits to the input parameter. For an address type input parameter, no mutations are applied. For fixed-length input parameters like bools, uints, and ints, only the first mutation operator is applied, and for other input parameters such as bytes and strings, any one or both mutation operators are applied. The *value* (amount of ether) sent with the test case is chosen between zero and non-zero values for test cases that call a payable function externally. For non-payable functions, the value parameter is always kept at zero, as providing a non-zero value to a non-payable function could revert the transaction.

For code coverage profiling, the test framework implements the basic block coverage.

The test framework generates one random test case for each SAF of each smart contract in  $\Omega$  via line 8 in Algorithm

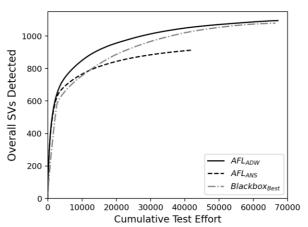


Figure 8: Comparison of AFL, AFL<sub>Blockchain</sub>, and Blackbox<sub>Best</sub> on Cumulative Test Effort in SecurityVulnerability Detection

2. It is also extended so that in each repeated trial, it executes E17 and E18.

**E17:** We conduct this experiment by initializing the test framework with an empty testnet. It then applies AFLans with  $\langle \Omega, a_1, a_2, B \rangle$  as the input. All other settings are the same as E2.

**E18:** We conduct this experiment by repeating E17 with AFL<sub>ADW</sub> instead of AFL<sub>ADS</sub>.

## C. Answering RQ5

We denote the technique in the most cost-effective configuration for blackbox fuzzing, which is  $\mathbb{C}(ADW)$  in E14, by Blackbox<sub>Best</sub>.

The results for E17 and E18 are presented in Figure 8, which can be interpreted similarly to Figure 5. The figure presents the cumulative test effort to detect SVs by AFLans, AFLadw, and Blackbox $_{Best}$ . The total numbers of SVs detected by AFLans and AFLadw are 913 and 1096, respectively, in five repeated trials, resulting in a 19.7% improvement.

The solid black line representing AFL<sub>ADW</sub> is observed to be located consistently higher than both the dot-dashed-grey line representing Blackbox<sub>Best</sub> and the dashed-black line representing AFL<sub>ANS</sub>. The graph shows that compared to AFL<sub>ANS</sub>, AFL<sub>ADW</sub> can consistently detect more SVs for the same amount of total test budget. It can further be observed from the figure that AFL<sub>ADW</sub> detected 1050 SVs with the same cumulative test effort that was consumed by AFL<sub>ANS</sub> in detecting the 913 SVs it detected, which is 14.9% more.

We also conduct *Tukey's HSD* test for the pair (AFL<sub>ADW</sub>, AFL<sub>ANS</sub>) to obtain a *p*-value of less than 0.001. Furthermore, *Pearson's r* value for the pair is larger than 0.50, showing a *large* effect size.

These results further strengthen the results obtained in answering RQ1-RQ4 that the three design factors identified in this work play a pivotal role in fuzz testing of smart

contracts. The results also demonstrate that AFLadw can significantly improve the performance of a smart contract fuzzer (represented by AFL) to detect security vulnerabilities.

**Summary of Findings in the Case Study:** In comparison to AFLans, an improvement of 19.7% was shown by AFLadw in the detection of SVs, and AFLadw can spend fewer transactions to detect the same number of SVs detected by AFLans in the case study.