Static Analysis (1/2)

Martin Kellogg

Static Analysis (Part 1/2)

Today's agenda:

- Reading Quiz
- Motivations for static analysis
- Basics of dataflow analysis

Static Analysis (Part 1/2)

Today's agenda:

- Reading Quiz
- Motivations for static analysis
- Basics of dataflow analysis

Reading quiz: static analysis (1)

- Q1: FindBugs _____.
- **A.** always warns about line X if it is possible there is a bug on line X
- **B.** never warns about line X unless there is definitely a bug on line X
- C. both A and B
- **D.** neither A nor B

Q2: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: Successfully injecting FindBugs into Google's development process was not as simple as making all warnings available outside of an engineer's normal workflow

Reading quiz: static analysis (1)

- Q1: FindBugs _____.
- **A.** always warns about line X if it is possible there is a bug on line X
- **B.** never warns about line X unless there is definitely a bug on line X
- C. both A and B
- D. neither A nor B

Q2: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: Successfully injecting FindBugs into Google's development process was not as simple as making all warnings available outside of an engineer's normal workflow

Reading quiz: static analysis (1)

- Q1: FindBugs _____.
- **A.** always warns about line X if it is possible there is a bug on line X
- **B.** never warns about line X unless there is definitely a bug on line X
- C. both A and B
- D. neither A nor B

Q2: TRUE or FALSE: Successfully injecting FindBugs into Google's development process was not as simple as making all warnings available outside of an engineer's normal workflow

Static Analysis (Part 1/2)

Today's agenda:

- Reading Quiz
- Motivations for static analysis
- Basics of dataflow analysis

Quality assurance is critical to software engineering

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:
 - code review, the most common static QA technique

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:
 - code review, the most common static QA technique
 - testing, the most common dynamic QA technique

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:
 - code review, the most common static QA technique
 - testing, the most common dynamic QA technique
- We've seen that both code review and testing have significant limitations in practice:

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:
 - code review, the most common static QA technique
 - testing, the most common dynamic QA technique
- We've seen that both code review and testing have significant limitations in practice:
 - code review is limited by human error

- Quality assurance is critical to software engineering
- We've already covered two important QA techniques:
 - code review, the most common static QA technique
 - testing, the most common dynamic QA technique
- We've seen that both code review and testing have significant limitations in practice:
 - code review is limited by human error
 - testing is limited by your choice of tests (Dijkstra again)

- Quality assurance is critical to.
- We've already covered two im
 - code review, the most com
 - testing, the most common
- We've seen that both code rev limitations in practice:

Today's goal: discuss other automated static analysis techniques that complement testing and code review in a quality assurance process

- code review is limited by human error
- testing is limited by your choice of tests (Dijkstra again)

 Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing
- Executing or dynamically analyzing all paths concretely to find such defects is not feasible (cf. exhaustive testing is infeasible)

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing
- Executing or dynamically analyzing all paths concretely to find such defects is not feasible (cf. exhaustive testing is infeasible)
- We want to learn about "all possible runs" of the program for particular properties

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing
- Executing or dynamically analyzing all paths concretely to find such defects is not feasible (cf. exhaustive testing is infeasible)
- We want to learn about "all possible runs" of the program for particular properties
 - Without actually running the program!

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing
- Executing or dynamically analyzing all paths concretely to find such defects is not feasible (cf. exhaustive testing is infeasible)
- We want to learn about "all possible runs" of the program for particular properties
 - Without actually running the program!
 - Bonus: we don't need test cases!

- Many interesting defects are on uncommon or difficult-to-exercise execution paths
 - So it's hard to find them via testing
- Executing or dynamically analysuch defects is not feasible (cf.)
- We want to learn about "all poperties
 - Without actually running t
 - Bonus: we don't need test continued

This is especially true for certain kinds of hard-to-test-for defects that might not be apparent even if you do exercise them, such as resource leaks

 Defects that result from inconsistently following simple, mechanical design rules

- Defects that result from inconsistently following simple, mechanical design rules
 - Security: buffer overruns, input validation
 - Memory safety: null pointers, initialized data
 - Resource leaks: memory, OS resources
 - API Protocols: device drivers, GUI frameworks
 - Exceptions: arithmetic, library, user-defined
 - Encapsulation: internal data, private functions
 - Data races: two threads, one variable

- Defects that result from inconsister mechanical design rules
 - Security: buffer overruns, input
 - Memory safety: null pointers, in
- doing each of these things **correctly**, and a static analysis can automate those rules.

There are rules for

- Resource leaks: memory, OS resources
- API Protocols: device drivers, GUI frameworks
- Exceptions: arithmetic, library, user-defined
- Encapsulation: internal data, private functions
- Data races: two threads, one variable

Definition: *static analysis* is the systematic examination of an abstraction of program state space

static analysis does not execute the program

- static analysis does not execute the program
 - in contrast to a dynamic analysis, such as testing, which does execute the program

- static analysis does not execute the program
 - in contrast to a dynamic analysis, such as testing, which does execute the program
- an abstraction, in this context, is a selective representation of the program that is simpler to analyze

- static analysis does not execute the program
 - in contrast to a dynamic analysis, such as testing, which does execute the program
- an abstraction, in this context, is a selective representation of the program that is simpler to analyze
 - key idea: the abstraction will have fewer states to explore
 - hopefully, many fewer!

Key ideas in static analysis design

When thinking about static analyses, two key ideas to keep in mind:

Key ideas in static analysis design

When thinking about static analyses, two key ideas to keep in mind:

Abstraction

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details
 - Elide other details

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details
 - Elide other details
 - Handle "I don't know": think about developers

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details
 - Elide other details
 - Handle "I don't know": think about developers
- Programs As Data

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details
 - Elide other details
 - Handle "I don't know": think about developers
- Programs As Data
 - Programs are just trees, graphs or strings

- Abstraction
 - Capture semantically-relevant details
 - Elide other details
 - Handle "I don't know": think about developers
- Programs As Data
 - Programs are just trees, graphs or strings
 - And we know how to analyze and manipulate those (e.g., visit every node in a graph)

#1: treat the program as a string

• allows us to easily decide syntactic properties

- allows us to easily decide syntactic properties
 - for example, checking if a program contains the text "foo"

- allows us to easily decide syntactic properties
 - for example, checking if a program contains the text "foo"
- key downside: cannot use the program's semantics

- allows us to easily decide syntactic properties
 - for example, checking if a program contains the text "foo"
- key downside: cannot use the program's semantics
 - semantics is a fancy word for "meaning"

- allows us to easily decide syntactic properties
 - for example, checking if a program contains the text "foo"
- key downside: cannot use the program's semantics
 - semantics is a fancy word for "meaning"
 - semantics are relevant for properties related to context that is, where the question to be decided depends on the rest of the program

#2: treat the program as a tree

#2: treat the program as a tree

Definition: an *abstract syntax tree* (or *AST*) is a tree-based representation of a program's syntactic structure

#2: treat the program as a tree

Definition: an *abstract syntax tree* (or *AST*) is a tree-based representation of a program's syntactic structure

usually produced by a parser

#2: treat the program as a tree

Definition: an *abstract syntax tree* (or *AST*) is a tree-based representation of a program's syntactic structure

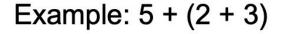
- usually produced by a parser
- nodes in the tree represent syntactic constructs

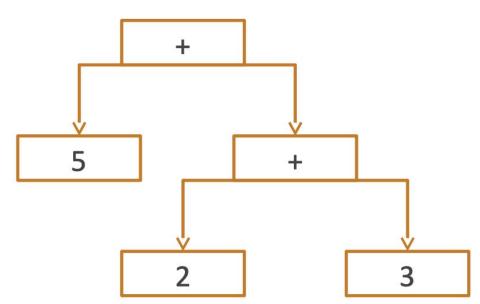
#2: treat the program as a tree

Definition: an *abstract syntax tree* (or *AST*) is a tree-based representation of a program's syntactic structure

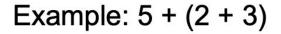
- usually produced by a parser
- nodes in the tree represent syntactic constructs
 - parent-child relationships in the AST represent compound expressions in the source code (e.g., a "plus node" might have two children: the left and right side expressions)

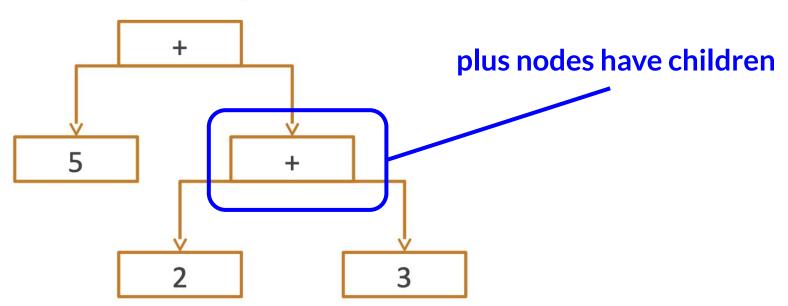
Treating programs as data: AST example



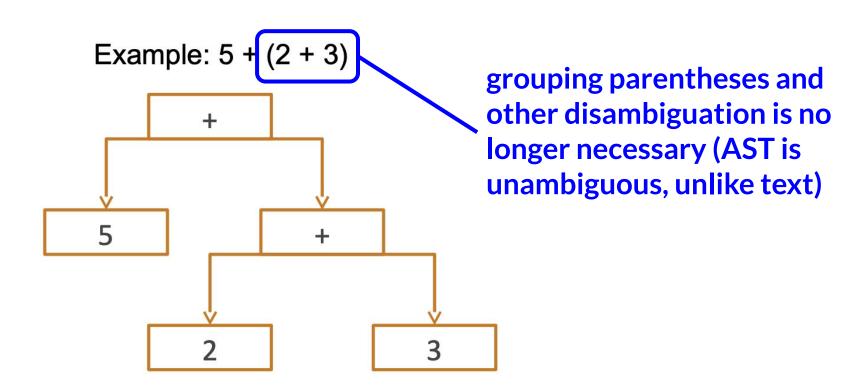


Treating programs as data: AST example





Treating programs as data: AST example



#3: treat the program as a graph

Definition: a control flow graph (or CFG) is a TODO definition

TODO CFG example

 Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program

- Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program
 - Dataflow analysis is the core idea behind most static analyses

- Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program
 - Dataflow analysis is the core idea behind most static analyses
- We first abstract the program to an AST or CFG

- Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program
 - Dataflow analysis is the core idea behind most static analyses
- We first abstract the program to an AST or CFG
- We then abstract what we want to learn (e.g., to help developers)
 down to a small set of abstract values

- Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program
 - Dataflow analysis is the core idea behind most static analyses
- We first abstract the program to an AST or CFG
- We then abstract what we want to learn (e.g., to help developers) down to a small set of abstract values
- We finally give rules for computing those abstract values

- Dataflow analysis is a technique for gathering information about the possible set of values calculated at various points in a program
 - Dataflow analysis is the core idea behind most static analyses
- We first abstract the program to an AST or CFG
- We then abstract what we want to learn (e.g., to help developers) down to a small set of abstract values
- We finally give rules for computing those abstract values
 - Dataflow analyses take programs as input

Example dataflow analyses

Throughout this lecture, we'll use two examples of dataflow analyses:

Example dataflow analyses

Throughout this lecture, we'll use two examples of dataflow analyses:

1. an analysis for finding definite null-pointer dereferences

"Whenever execution reaches *ptr at program location L, ptr will be NULL"

Example dataflow analyses

Throughout this lecture, we'll use two examples of dataflow analyses:

- an analysis for finding definite null-pointer dereferences
 "Whenever execution reaches *ptr at program location L, ptr will be NULL"
- an analysis for finding potential secure information leaks
 "We read in a secret string at location L, but there is a possible future public use of it"

Definite vs potential

A "definite" null-pointer dereference exists if and only the pointer is NULL on every program execution

A "potential" secure information leak exists if and only if the secure information leaks on any program execution

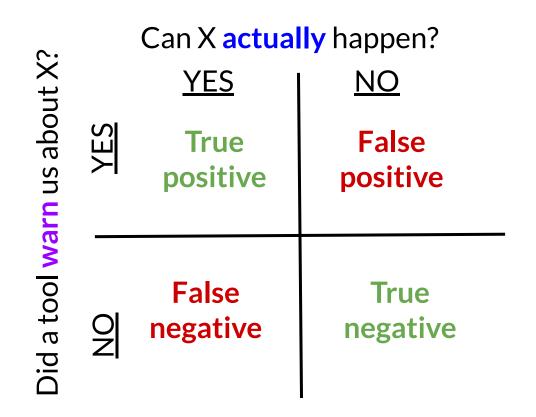
Definite vs potential

A "definite" null-pointer dereference exists if and only the pointer is NULL on every program execution

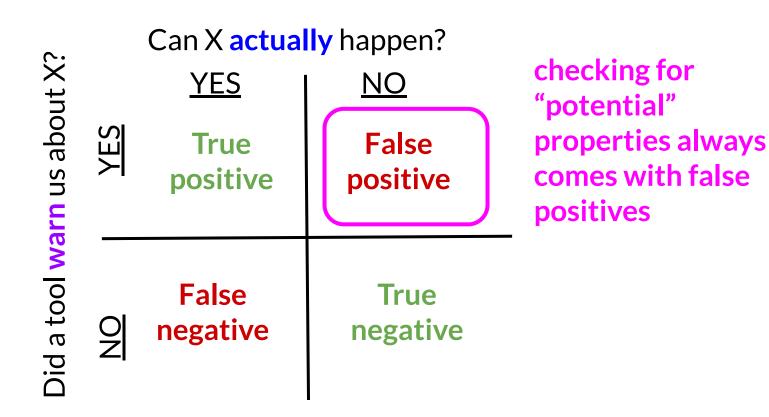
A "potential" secure information leak exists if and only if the secure information leaks on any program execution

The use of "every" and "any" here guarantee that we must reason about all paths through the program!

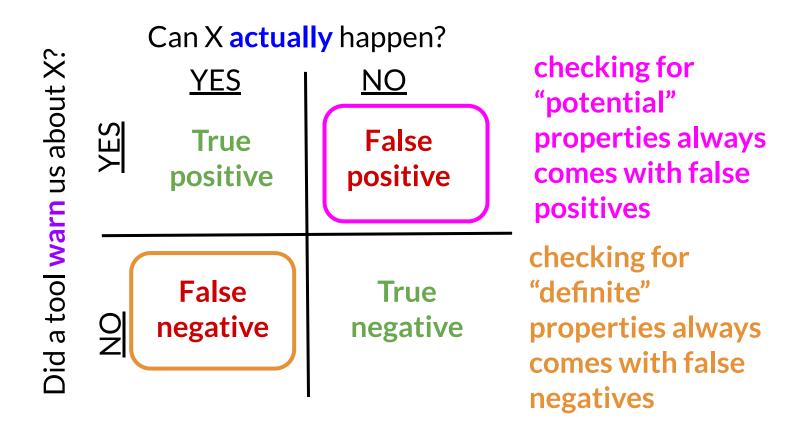
Definite vs potential = false positives vs negatives



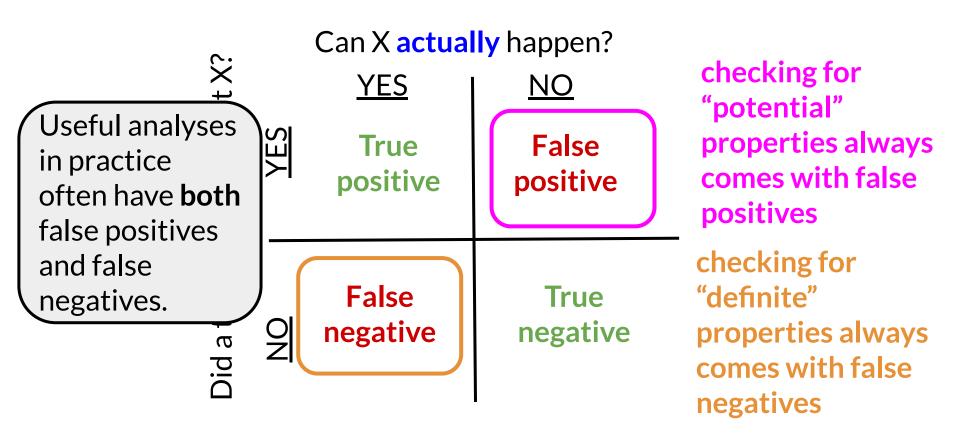
Definite vs potential = false positives vs negatives



Definite vs potential = false positives vs negatives



Definite vs potential = false positives vs negatives



Null-pointer analysis example

Null-pointer analysis example

Question: is ptr always null when it is dereferenced?

```
ptr = new AVL();
             if (B > 0)
                             X = 2 * 3;
ptr = 0;
             print(ptr->data);
```

Q: what does "ptr always null" actually require about assignments to ptr?

Question: is ptr always null when it is dererenced:

```
= new AVL();
ptr = 0;
             print(ptr->data);
```

Q: what does "ptr always null" actually require about assignments to ptr?
A: on all paths, the last assignment to ptr must have been null (= 0 in C)

Question: is ptr always null when

```
= new AVL();
ptr = 0;
             print(ptr->data);
```

Q: what does "ptr always null" actually require about assignments to ptr?
A: on all paths, the last assignment to ptr must have been null (= 0 in C)

Question: is ptr always null when

```
= new AVL();
ptr = 0;
             print(ptr->data);
```

Q: what does "ptr always null" actually require about assignments to ptr?
A: on all paths, the last assignment to ptr must have been null (= 0 in C)

Question: is ptr always null wner

```
= new AVL();
                             X = 2 * 3;
ptr = 0;
                                    dereference
             print(ptr->data);
```

Q: what does "ptr always null" actually require about assignments to ptr?
A: on all paths, the last assignment to ptr must have been null (= 0 in C)

Question: is ptr always null wner

```
= new AVL();
                                      3;
ptr =
                                     dereference
                   ptr->data);
```

 The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?
 - for "potential" analyses: does there exist an execution for which P is true at this point?

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?
 - for "potential" analyses: does there exist an execution for which P is true at this point?

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?
 - for "potential" analyses: does there exist an execution for which P is true at this point?

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?
 - for "potential" analyses: does there exist an execution for which P is true at this point?
- Knowing P at any specific program point usually requires knowledge of the entire method body

- The analysis depends on knowing a property P at a particular point in program execution
 - for "definite" analyses: for all executions, is P true at this point?
 - for "potential" analyses: does there exist an execution for which P is true at this point?
- Knowing P at any specific program point usually requires knowledge of the entire method body
- Property P is typically undecidable

 Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:

Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:

"interesting" in this context means "not trivial", i.e., not uniformly true or false for all programs

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the halting problem

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - \circ Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the halting problem
 - Is the result of a function F always positive?

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the halting problem
 - Is the result of a function F always positive?
 - Assume we can answer this question precisely

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the halting problem
 - Is the result of a function F always positive?
 - Assume we can answer this question precisely
 - Oops: We can now solve the halting problem.

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the **halting problem**
 - Is the result of a function F always positive?
 - Assume we can answer this question precisely
 - Oops: We can now solve the halting problem.
 - Take function H and find out if it halts by testing function $F(x) = \{ H(x); return 1; \}$ to see if it has a positive result

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program halt on all (some) inputs?
 - This is called the halting problem
 - o Is the result of a function F always positive?
 - Assume we can answer this question precisely
 - Oops: We can now solve the halting problem.
 - Take function H and find out if it halts by testing function $F(x) = \{ H(x); return 1; \}$ to see if it has a positive result
 - Contradiction!

- Rice's Theorem: Most interesting dynamic properties of a program are undecidable:
 - Does the program half
 - This is called the h
 - Is the result of a funct
 - Assume we can an:
 - Oops: We can nov
 - Take function H an

Rice's theorem caveats:

- only applies to semantic properties (syntactic properties are decidable)
- "programs" only includes programs with loops

```
F(x) = \{ H(x); return 1; \} to see if it has a positive result
```

Contradiction!

Loops

- Almost every important program has a loop
 - Often based on user input

Loops

- Almost every important program has a loop
 - Often based on user input
- An algorithm always terminates
 - So a dataflow analysis algorithm must terminate even if the input program loops

Loops

- Almost every important program has a loop
 - Often based on user input
- An algorithm always terminates
 - So a dataflow analysis algorithm must terminate even if the input program loops
- This is one source of imprecision
 - "imprecision" = "not always getting the right answer"
 - Suppose you dereference the null pointer on the 500th iteration but we only analyze 499 iterations

 Because our analysis must run on a computer, we need the analysis itself to be decidable

- Because our analysis must run on a computer, we need the analysis itself to be decidable
- But, because of Rice's Theorem, we know that finding the right answer all the time is undecidable:(

- Because our analysis must run on a computer, we need the analysis itself to be decidable
- But, because of Rice's Theorem, we know that finding the right answer all the time is undecidable:(
- Solution: when in doubt, allow the analysis to answer "I don't know"

- Because our analysis must run on a computer, we need the analysis itself to be decidable
- But, because of Rice's Theorem, we know that finding the right answer all the time is undecidable:(
- Solution: when in doubt, allow the analysis to answer "I don't know"
 - this is called conservative analysis

• It's always correct to say "I don't know"

- It's always correct to say "I don't know"
 - key challenge in program analysis: say "I don't know" as rarely as possible

- It's always correct to say "I don't know"
 - key challenge in program analysis: say "I don't know" as rarely as possible

Definition: a sound program analysis has no false negatives

- It's always correct to say "I don't know"
 - key challenge in program analysis: say "I don't know" as rarely as possible

Definition: a sound program analysis has no false negatives

always answers "I don't know" if there is a potential bug

- It's always correct to say "I don't know"
 - key challenge in program analysis: say "I don't know" as rarely as possible

Definition: a sound program analysis has no false negatives

always answers "I don't know" if there is a potential bug

Definition: a *complete* program analysis has no false positives

- It's always correct to say "I don't know"
 - key challenge in program analysis: say "I don't know" as rarely as possible

Definition: a sound program analysis has no false negatives

always answers "I don't know" if there is a potential bug

Definition: a complete program analysis has no false positives

always answers "I don't know" if there isn't a definite bug

Building a sound or complete analysis is easy

- Building a sound or complete analysis is easy
 - trivially sound analysis: report a bug on every line

- Building a sound or complete analysis is easy
 - trivially sound analysis: report a bug on every line
 - trivially complete analysis: never report a bug

- Building a sound or complete analysis is easy
 - trivially sound analysis: report a bug on every line
 - trivially complete analysis: never report a bug
- Building a sound and precise (= "few false positives") analysis or a complete analysis with high recall (= "few false negatives") is very hard

- Building a sound or complete analysis is easy
 - trivially sound analysis: report a bug on every line
 - trivially complete analysis: never report a bug
- Building a sound and precise (= "few false positives") analysis or a complete analysis with high recall (= "few false negatives") is very hard
 - "sound and precise" analyses are my research area:)

- Building a sound or complete analysis is easy
 - trivially sound analysis: report a bug on every line
 - trivially complete analysis: never report a bug
- Building a sound and precise (= "few false positives") analysis or a complete analysis with high recall (= "few false negatives") is very hard
 - "sound and precise" analyses are my research area:)
 - also relevant in practice: "fast", "easy to use", etc.

• Which is more important: soundness or completeness?

- Which is more important: soundness or completeness?
- Answer: it depends!

- Which is more important: soundness or completeness?
- Answer: it depends!
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for websites that show pictures of cats? False positives waste time, so choose completeness.

- Which is more important: soundness or completeness?
- Answer: it depends!
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for websites that show pictures of cats? False positives waste time, so choose completeness.
 - "I don't know" = don't issue a warning

- Which is more important: soundness or completeness?
- Answer: it depends!
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for websites that show pictures of cats? False positives waste time, so choose completeness.
 - "I don't know" = don't issue a warning
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for aircraft autopilots?
 False negatives cause crashes, so choose soundness.

- Which is more important: soundness or completeness?
- Answer: it depends!
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for websites that show pictures of cats? False positives waste time, so choose completeness.
 - "I don't know" = don't issue a warning
 - Are you writing a bug-finding analysis for aircraft autopilots?
 False negatives cause crashes, so choose soundness.
 - "I don't know" = do issue a warning

• In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete

- In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete
 - e.g., FindBugs from today's reading has both false positives and false negatives

- In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete
 - e.g., FindBugs from today's reading has both false positives and false negatives
 - most common exception: most type systems are sound

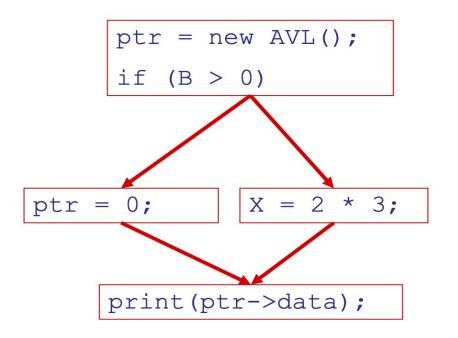
- In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete
 - e.g., FindBugs from today's reading has both false positives and false negatives
 - most common exception: most type systems are sound
 - remember: type systems are just another static analysis

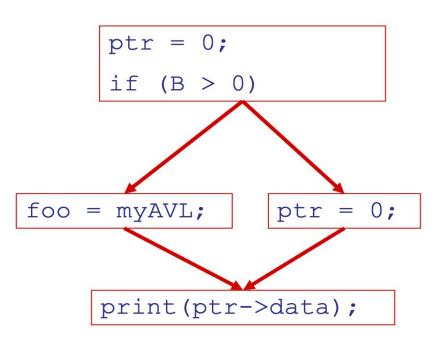
- In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete
 - e.g., FindBugs from today's reading has both false positives and false negatives
 - most common exception: most type systems are sound
 - remember: type systems are just another static analysis
 - few complete analyses exist in practice

- In practice, most static analyses are neither sound nor complete
 - e.g., FindBugs from today's reading has both false positives and false negatives
 - most common exception: most type systems are sound
 - remember: type systems are just another static analysis
 - few complete analyses exist in practice
 - theory is underdeveloped, but another area of active research!

Null-pointer analysis example

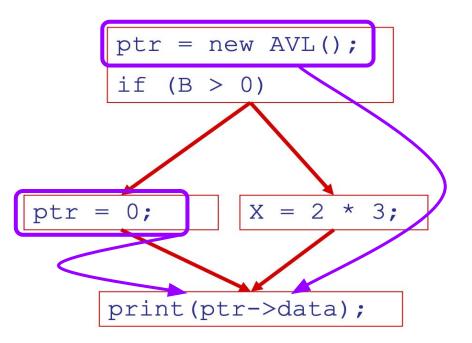
Question: is ptr always null when it is dereferenced?

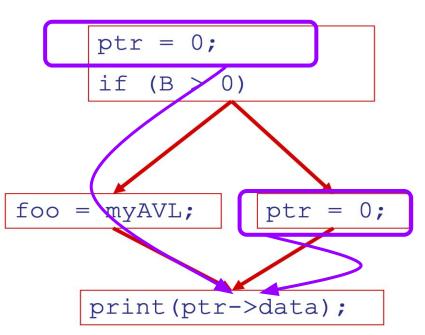




Null-pointer analysis example

Question: is ptr always null when it is dereferenced?





- reading quiz
- nullness analysis: how it works
- secure information flow analysis
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

- reading quiz
- nullness analysis: how it works
- secure information flow analysis
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

Announcements:

- reminder: revised project plan due today (submit on Canvas)
- optional reading #1 due at the end of the week
 - Saturday night
- sprint 1 mentor meetings:
 schedule for ~3/20, 3/21

- reading quiz
- nullness analysis: how it works
- secure information flow analysis
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

Reading Quiz: static analysis (2)

Q1: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: the verifier described by the author is too expensive to run in continuous integration, so AWS provisioned special weekly jobs to re-check the codebase

Q2: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: to use the verifier, engineers were taught how to use a special, declarative programming language that was not similar to their regular development language (C). The author's ICSE paper reports on how easy it was to teach this language to C developers.

Reading Quiz: static analysis (2)

Q1: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: the verifier described by the author is too expensive to run in continuous integration, so AWS provisioned special weekly jobs to re-check the codebase

Q2: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: to use the verifier, engineers were taught how to use a special, declarative programming language that was not similar to their regular development language (C). The author's ICSE paper reports on how easy it was to teach this language to C developers.

Reading Quiz: static analysis (2)

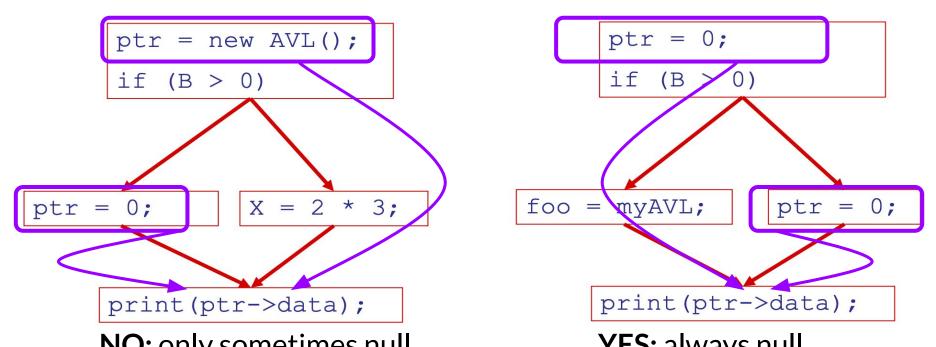
Q1: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: the verifier described by the author is too expensive to run in continuous integration, so AWS provisioned special weekly jobs to re-check the codebase

Q2: **TRUE** or **FALSE**: to use the verifier, engineers were taught how to use a special, declarative programming language that was not similar to their regular development language (C). The author's ICSE paper reports on how easy it was to teach this language to C developers.

- reading quiz
- nullness analysis: how it works
- secure information flow analysis
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

Null-pointer analysis example

Question: is ptr always null when it is dereferenced?



Formalizing our reasoning:

Formalizing our reasoning:

 We associate one of the following abstract values with ptr at every program point:

Formalizing our reasoning:

 We associate one of the following abstract values with ptr at every program point:

```
T ("top") = "don't know if X is a constant"
```

Formalizing our reasoning:

 We associate one of the following abstract values with ptr at every program point:

```
T ("top") = "don't know if X is a constant"
```

 \circ constant c = "the last assignment to X was X = c"

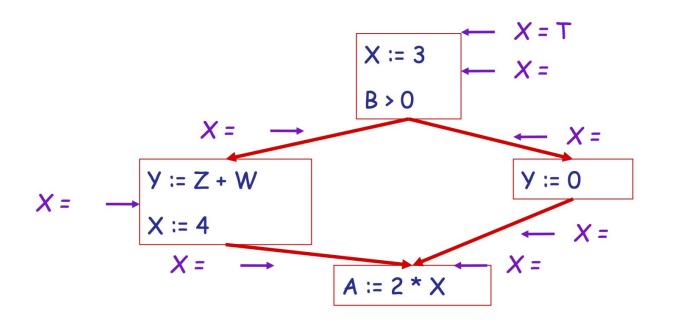
Null-pointer analysis example: abstraction

Formalizing our reasoning:

- We associate one of the following abstract values with ptr at every program point:
 - o T ("top") = "don't know if X is a constant"
 - \circ constant c = "the last assignment to X was X = c"
 - 【 ("bottom") = "X has no value here"

Null-pointer analysis example: formalized

Get out a piece of paper. Fill in these blanks:



Recall:

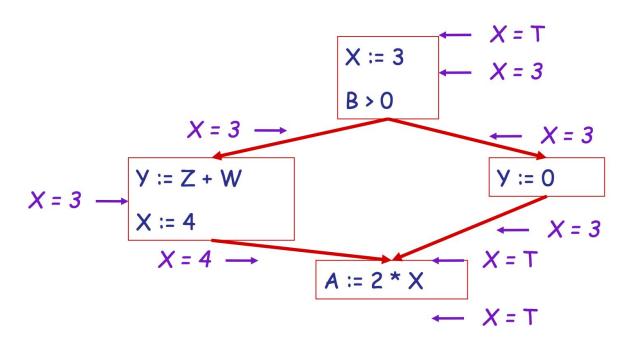
T = "don't know"

c = constant

 \perp = unreachable

Null-pointer analysis example: formalized

Get out a piece of paper. Fill in these blanks:



Recall:

T = "don't know"

c = constant

 \perp = unreachable

 Given analysis information (and a policy about false positives/negatives), it is easy to decide whether or not to issue a warning

- Given analysis information (and a policy about false positives/negatives), it is easy to decide whether or not to issue a warning
 - \circ Simply inspect the x = ? associated with a statement using x

- Given analysis information (and a policy about false positives/negatives), it is easy to decide whether or not to issue a warning
 - \circ Simply inspect the x = ? associated with a statement using x
 - If x is the constant 0 at that point, issue a warning!

- Given analysis information (and a policy about false positives/negatives), it is easy to decide whether or not to issue a warning
 - \circ Simply inspect the x = ? associated with a statement using x
 - o If x is the constant 0 at that point, issue a warning!

• But how can an algorithm compute x = ?

The analysis of a complicated program can be expressed as a combination of simple rules relating the change in information between adjacent statements

Explanation:

Explanation:

 The idea is to "push" or "transfer" information from one statement to the next

Explanation:

- The idea is to "push" or "transfer" information from one statement to the next
- For each statement s, we compute information about the value of x immediately before and after s:

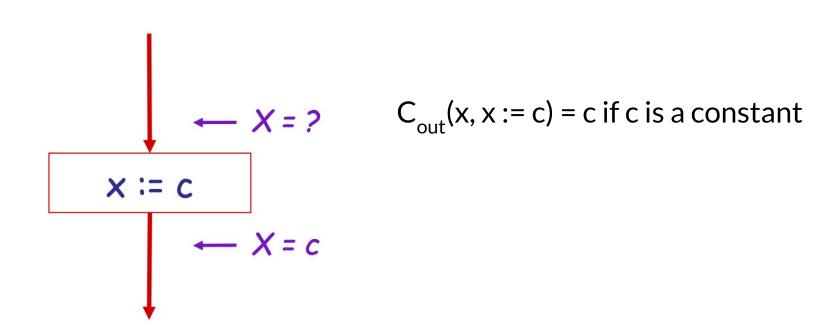
Explanation:

- The idea is to "push" or "transfer" information from one statement to the next
- For each statement s, we compute information about the value of x immediately before and after s:
 - \circ C_{in}(x,s) = value of x before s
 - \circ C_{out}(x,s) = value of x after s

Explanation:

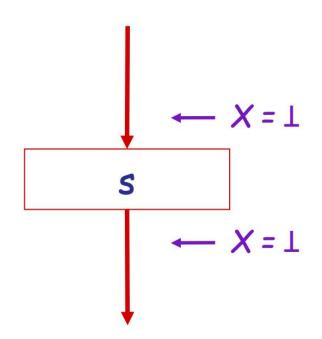
- The idea is to "push" or "transfer" information from one statement to the next
- For each statement s, we compute information about the value of x immediately before and after s:
 - \circ C_{in}(x,s) = value of x before s
 - \circ C_{out}(x,s) = value of x after s

Definition: a transfer function expresses the relationship between $C_{in}(x, s)$ and $C_{out}(x, s)$

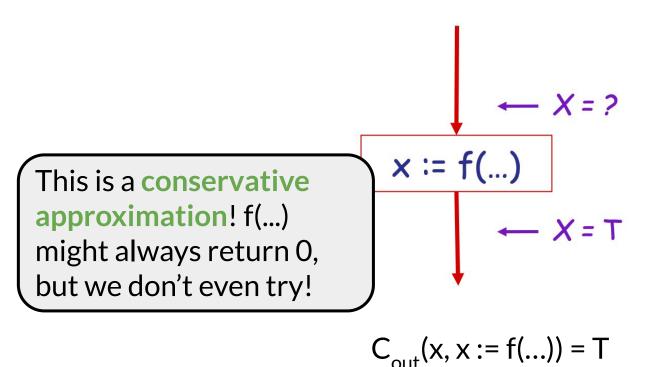


$$C_{out}(x, s) = \Box \text{ if } C_{in}(x, s) = \Box$$

Recall □ = "unreachable code"



$$C_{out}(x, x := f(...)) = T$$



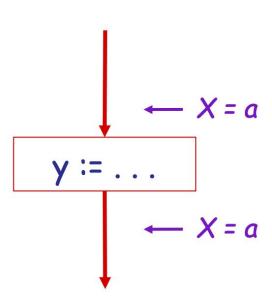
$$Y := \dots$$

$$X = a$$

$$X = a$$

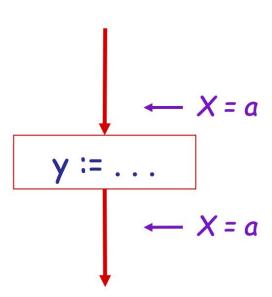
$$C_{out}(x, y := ...) = C_{in}(x, y := ...)$$
 if $x \neq y$

How hard is it to check if x ≠ y on all executions?



$$C_{out}(x, y := ...) = C_{in}(x, y := ...)$$
 if $x \neq y$

How hard is it to check if x ≠ y on all executions? (oh no)



$$C_{out}(x, y := ...) = C_{in}(x, y := ...)$$
 if $x \neq y$

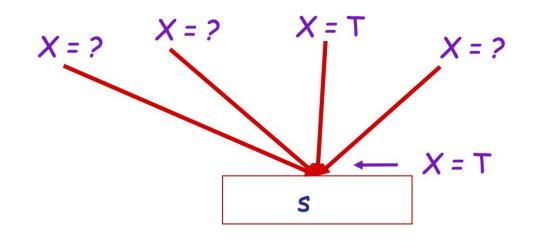
 Rules 1-4 relate the *in* of a statement to the *out* of the same statement

- Rules 1-4 relate the in of a statement to the out of the same statement
 - they propagate information across statements

- Rules 1-4 relate the in of a statement to the out of the same statement
 - they propagate information across statements
- We also need rules relating the *out* of one statement to the *in* of the successor statement

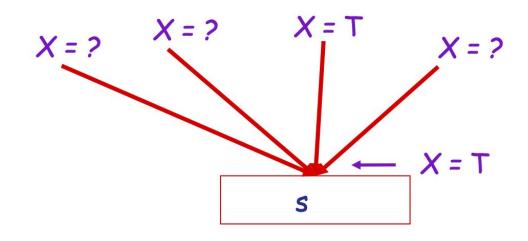
- Rules 1-4 relate the *in* of a statement to the *out* of the same statement
 - they propagate information across statements
- We also need rules relating the *out* of one statement to the *in* of the successor statement
 - to propagate information forward along paths

- Rules 1-4 relate the in of a statement to the out of the same statement
 - they propagate information across statements
- We also need rules relating the *out* of one statement to the *in* of the successor statement
 - to propagate information forward along paths
- In the following rules, let statement s have immediate predecessor statements $p_1, ..., p_n$

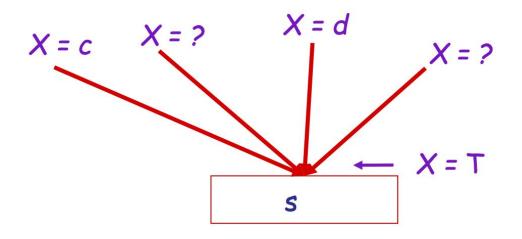


if $C_{out}(x, p_i) = T$ for some i, then $C_{in}(x, s) = T$

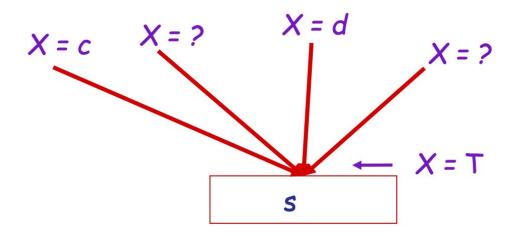
If there's any path on which we don't know, then we don't know at all



if $C_{out}(x, p_i) = T$ for some i, then $C_{in}(x, s) = T$

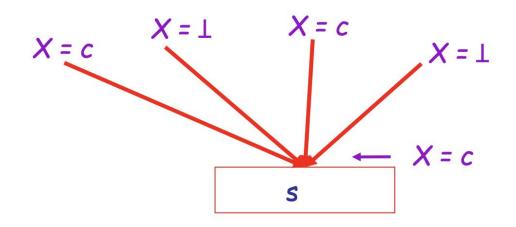


if
$$C_{out}(x, p_i) = c$$
 and $C_{out}(x, p_i) = d$ and $d \neq c$ then $C_{in}(x, s) = T$



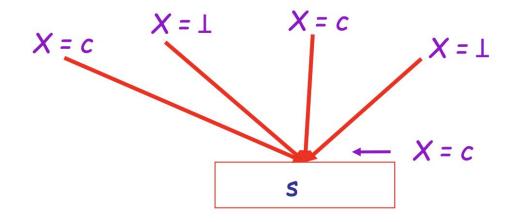
We don't know which of the paths a given execution will take (so assume T)

if
$$C_{out}(x, p_i) = c$$
 and $C_{out}(x, p_i) = d$ and $d \neq c$ then $C_{in}(x, s) = T$

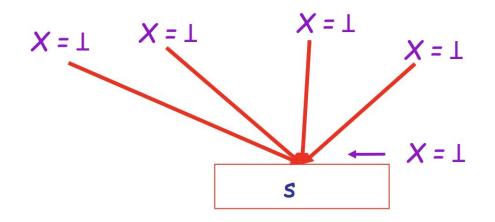


if
$$C_{out}(x, p_i) = c$$
 or \Box for all i, then $C_{in}(x, s) = c$

If x has the same value (or □) on all input edges, it has that value in s



if
$$C_{out}(x, p_i) = c$$
 or \Box for all i, then $C_{in}(x, s) = c$



if
$$C_{out}(x, p_i) = \Box$$
 for all i, then $C_{in}(x, s) = \Box$

A static analysis algorithm

A static analysis algorithm

• For every entry point e to the program, set $C_{in}(x, e) = T$

A static analysis al

Definition: an *entry point* of a program is any program location *L* for which there exists an execution trace beginning with *L*

• For every entry point e to the program, set $C_{in}(x, e) = \frac{1}{2}$

A static analysis algorithm

- For every entry point e to the program, set $C_{in}(x, e) = T$
 - why top? Top models "we don't know", and we don't know the inputs to the program.

A static analysis algorithm

- For every entry point e to the program, set $C_{in}(x, e) = T$
 - why top? Top models "we don't know", and we don't know the inputs to the program.
- Set $C_{in}(x, s) = C_{out}(x, s) = \square$ everywhere else

A static analysis algorithm

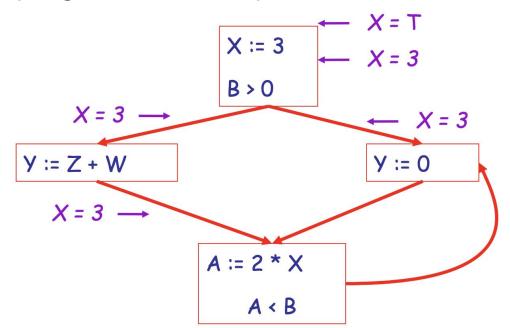
- For every entry point e to the program, set $C_{in}(x, e) = T$
 - why top? Top models "we don't know", and we don't know the inputs to the program.
- Set $C_{in}(x, s) = C_{out}(x, s) = \Box$ everywhere else
- Repeat until all points satisfy rules 1-8:
 - Pick s not satisfying rules 1-8 and update using the appropriate rule

A static analysis alg

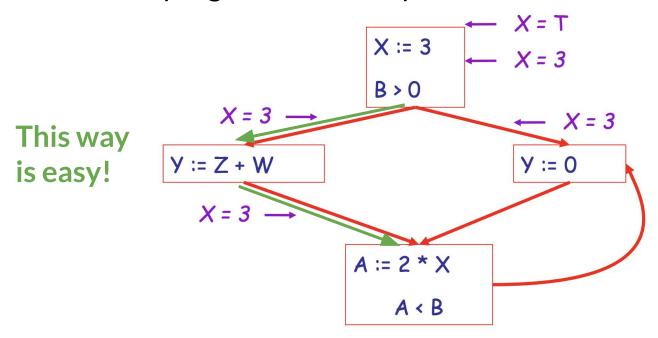
- For every entry point e to
 - why top? Top models inputs to the program
- Set $C_{in}(x, s) = C_{out}(x, s) = C$
- Repeat until all points satisfy rules 1-8:
 - Pick s not satisfying rules 1-8 and update using the appropriate rule

This is a fixpoint (or fixed point) iteration algorithm. Such algorithms are characterized by a finite set of rules, which are applied until they "reach fixpoint", which means that applying any rule produces no change.

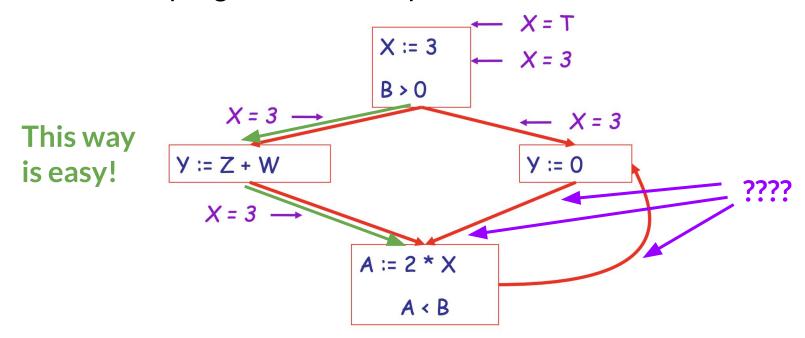
 To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop:



 To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop:



 To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop:

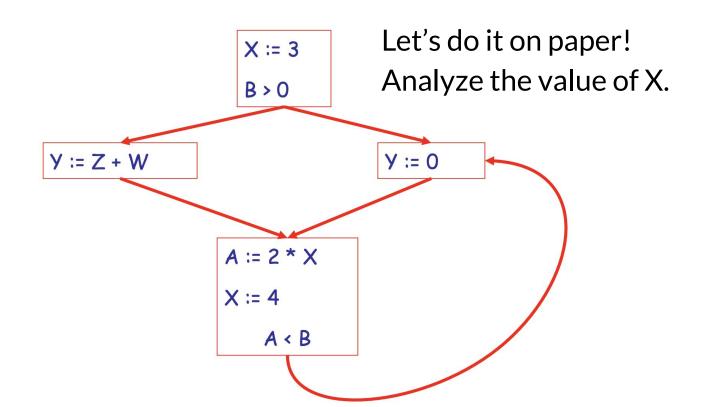


- To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop.
- Because of cycles, all points must have values at all times during the analysis

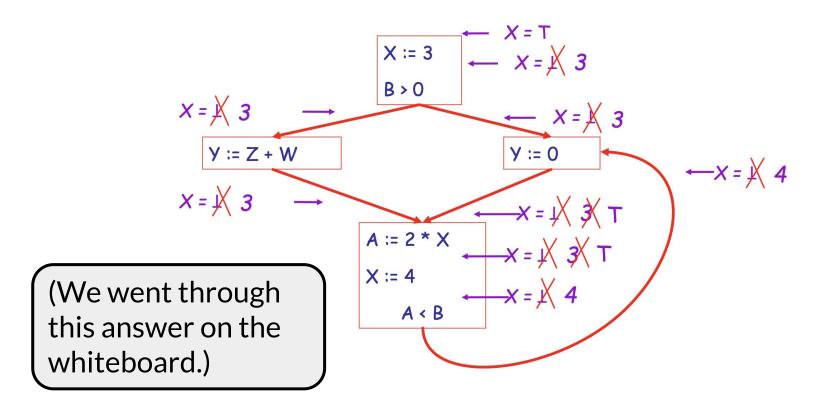
- To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop.
- Because of cycles, all points must have values at all times during the analysis
- Intuitively, assigning some initial value allows the analysis to break cycles

- To understand why we need to set non-entry points to □ initially, consider a program with a loop.
- Because of cycles, all points must have values at all times during the analysis
- Intuitively, assigning some initial value allows the analysis to break cycles
- The initial value □ means "we have not yet analyzed control reaching this point"

Another example: dealing with loops



Another example: dealing with loops



 You may have observed that there is a natural order to the different abstract values in our nullness analysis

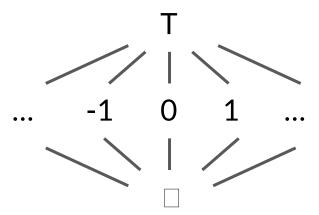
- You may have observed that there is a natural order to the different abstract values in our nullness analysis
 - \circ (Most) locations start as \square

- You may have observed that there is a natural order to the different abstract values in our nullness analysis
 - $\circ \hspace{0.1in}$ (Most) locations start as \square
 - \circ Locations whose current value is \square might become c or T

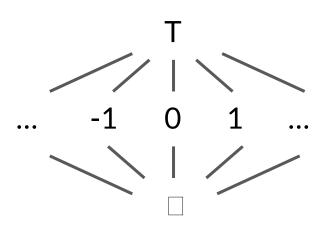
- You may have observed that there is a natural order to the different abstract values in our nullness analysis
 - \circ (Most) locations start as \square
 - \circ Locations whose current value is \square might become c or T
 - Locations whose current value is c might become T
 - but never go back to □!

- You may have observed that there is a natural order to the different abstract values in our nullness analysis
 - \circ (Most) locations start as \square
 - \circ Locations whose current value is \square might become c or T
 - Locations whose current value is c might become T
 - but never go back to □!
 - Locations whose current value is T never change

This structure between values is called a *lattice*:



This structure between values is called a *lattice*:



How to read a lattice:

- abstract values higher in the lattice are more general (e.g., T is true of more things than 0)
- easy to compute *least upper* bound: it's the lowest common
 ancestor of two abstract values

least upper bound ("lub") has useful properties:

- least upper bound ("lub") has useful properties:
 - monotonicity: implicitly captures that values only flow in one direction as the analysis progresses

- least upper bound ("lub") has useful properties:
 - monotonicity: implicitly captures that values only flow in one direction as the analysis progresses
 - we can rewrite rules 5-8 in our nullness analysis using lub:

```
C_{in}(x, s) = \text{lub} \{ C_{out}(x, p) \mid p \text{ is a predecessor of } s \}
```

- least upper bound ("lub") has useful properties:
 - monotonicity: implicitly captures that values only flow in one direction as the analysis progresses
 - we can rewrite rules 5-8 in g

$$C_{in}(x, s) = lub \{ C_{out}(x, p) | p i \}$$

lub is the reason dataflow analysis is an algorithm: because lub is monotonic, we only need to analyze each loop as many times as the lattice is tall

- let's formalize the argument that our nullness analysis terminates
 - saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes, after all

- let's formalize the argument that our nullness analysis terminates
 - saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes, after all
- the use of <u>lub</u> explains why the algorithm terminates:

- let's formalize the argument that our nullness analysis terminates
 - saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes, after all
- the use of lub explains why the algorithm terminates:
 - values start as

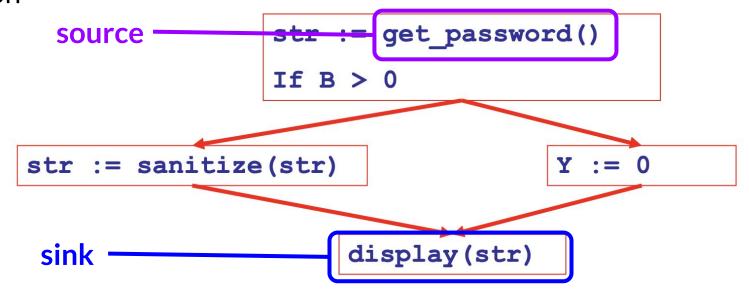
 and only increase

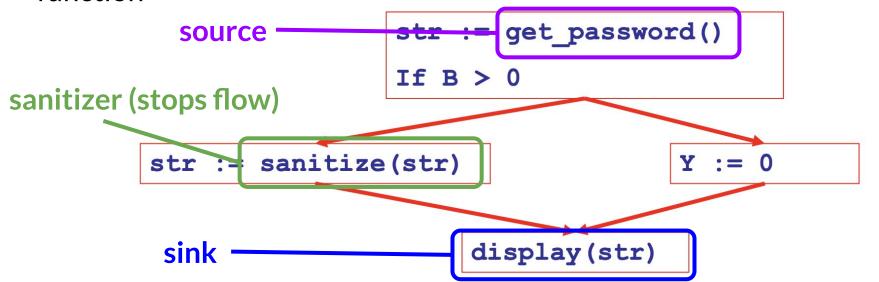
- let's formalize the argument that our nullness analysis terminates
 - saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes, after all
- the use of lub explains why the algorithm terminates:
 - values start as

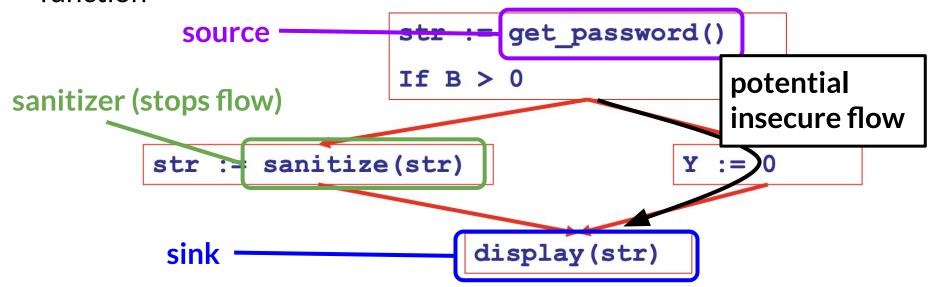
 and only increase
 - $\circ \quad \Box$ can change to a constant, and a constant to T

- let's formalize the argument that our nullness analysis terminates
 - saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes, after all
- the use of lub explains why the algorithm terminates:
 - values start as

 and only increase
 - an change to a constant, and a constant to T
 - thus, C_(x, s) can change at most twice (= lattice height minus one)







Taint analysis

Definition: A *taint analysis* (or *reachability analysis*) tracks whether (any/all) value(s) from a set of sources reach a set of sinks

applications in security: e.g., secure information flow

Taint analysis

Definition: A *taint analysis* (or *reachability analysis*) tracks whether (any/all) value(s) from a set of sources reach a set of sinks

- applications in security: e.g., secure information flow
- stand-in here for a broad class of dataflow analyses

Taint analysis

Definition: A *taint analysis* (or *reachability analysis*) tracks whether (any/all) value(s) from a set of sources reach a set of sinks

- applications in security: e.g., secure information flow
- stand-in here for a broad class of dataflow analyses
- how would we build it?
 - we'll write a set of rules, just as we did for our nullness analysis

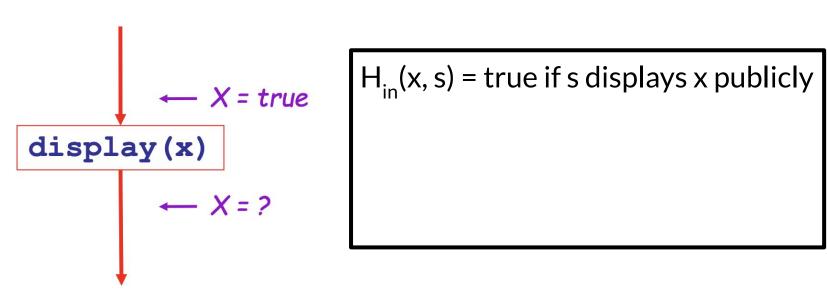
• first step: decide what abstract values to track

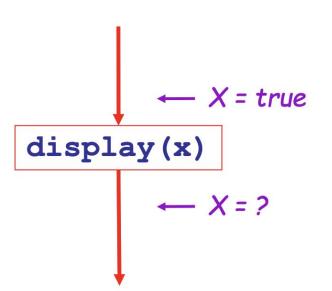
- first step: decide what abstract values to track
 - only need a single boolean: can it be sensitive

- first step: decide what abstract values to track
 - only need a single boolean: can it be sensitive
 - o define $H_{in/out}(x, s)$ = true if variable x can be sensitive before/after statement s, = false otherwise

- first step: decide what abstract values to track
 - only need a single boolean: can it be sensitive
 - o define $H_{in/out}(x, s)$ = true if variable x can be sensitive before/after statement s, = false otherwise
 - note that we are abstracting away almost everything!

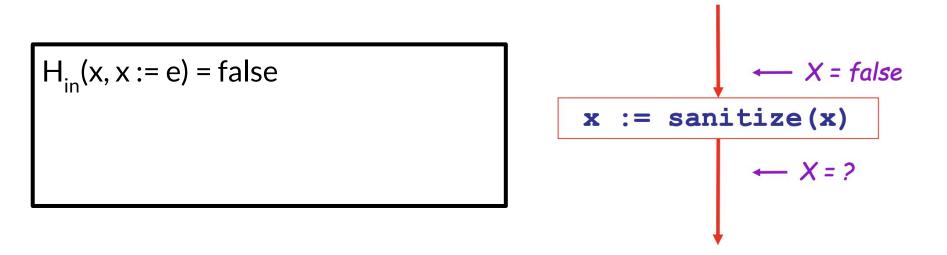
- first step: decide what abstract values to track
 - only need a single boolean: can it be sensitive
 - o define $H_{in/out}(x, s)$ = true if variable x can be sensitive before/after statement s, = false otherwise
 - note that we are abstracting away almost everything!
- second step: statement-by-statement rules to express how this works





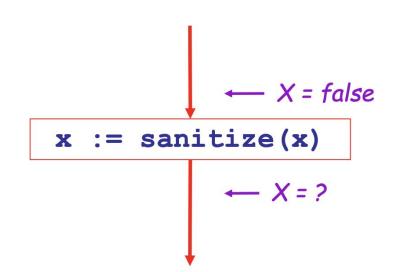
 $H_{in}(x, s) = true if s displays x publicly$

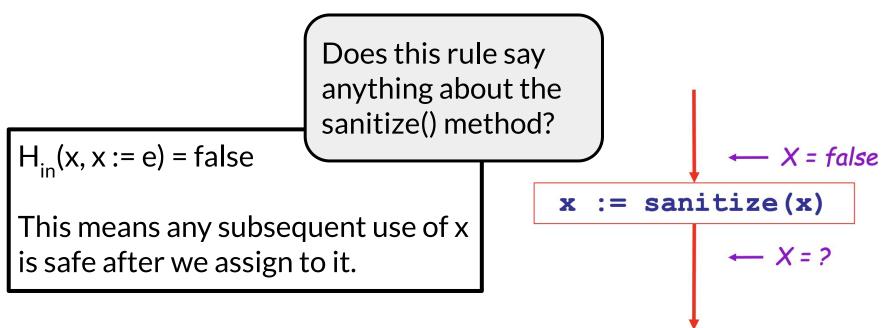
Recall, true means "if this ends up being a secret variable then we have a bug!"

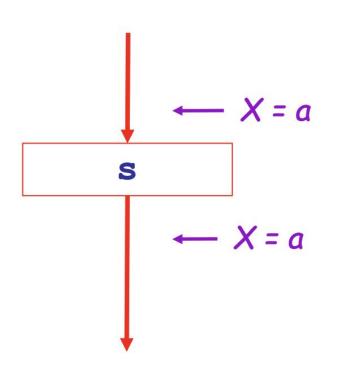


 $H_{in}(x, x := e) = false$

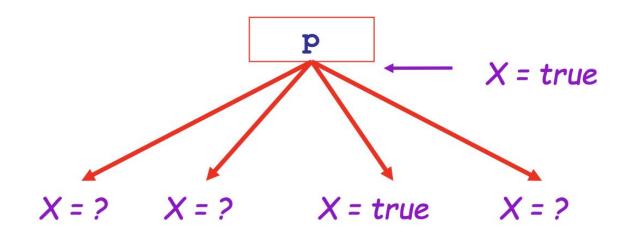
This means any subsequent use of x is safe after we assign to it.



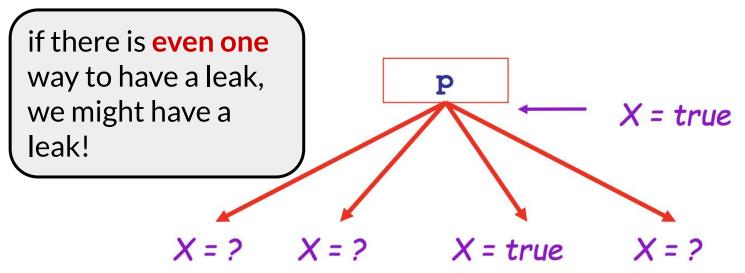




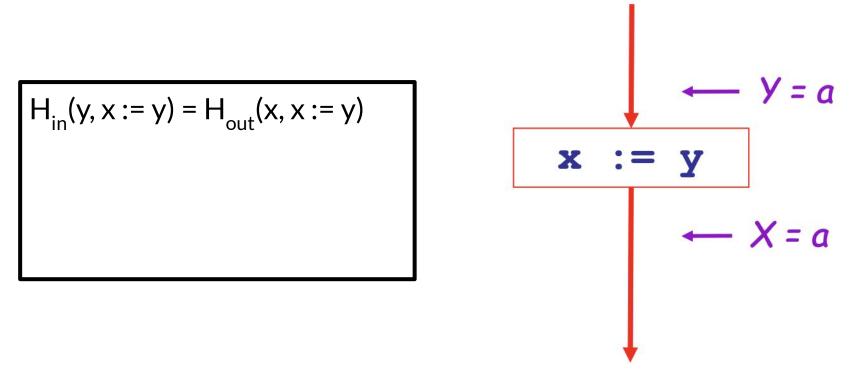
 $H_{in}(x, s) = H_{out}(x, s)$ (if s does not refer to x)



$$H_{out}(x, p) = v \{ H_{in}(x, s) | s \text{ is a successor of } p \}$$

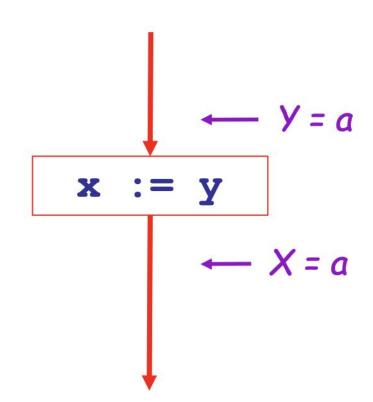


$$H_{out}(x, p) = v\{H_{in}(x, s) \mid s \text{ is a successor of } p\}$$



 $H_{in}(y, x := y) = H_{out}(x, x := y)$

(To see why, imagine the next statement is display(x). Do we care about y?)



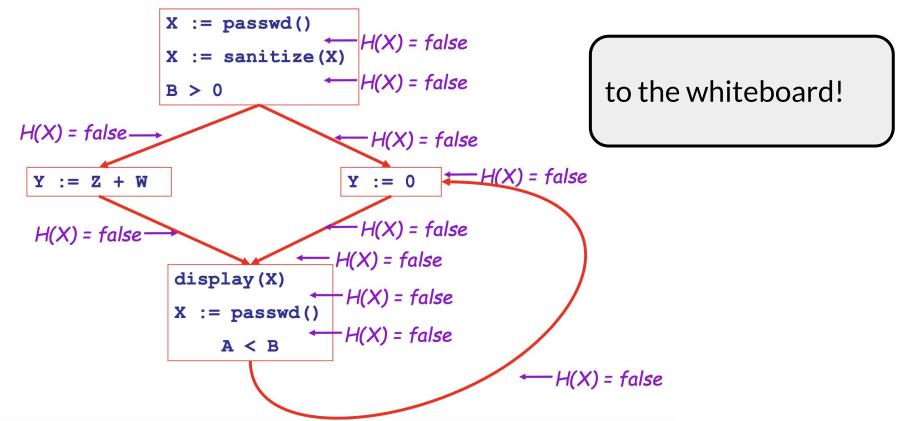
1. let all H_(...) = false initially

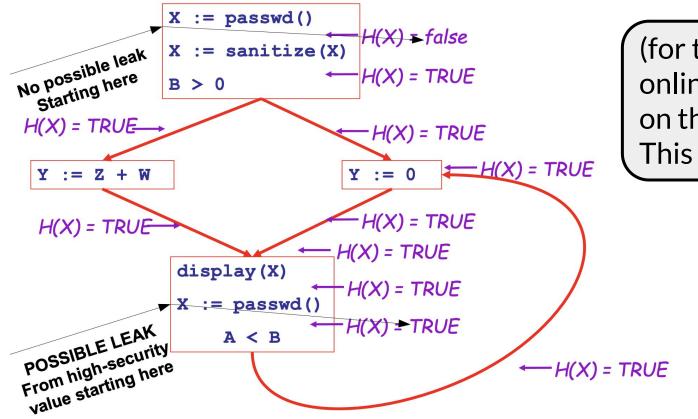
1. let all H_(...) = false initially

false is like □ in our nullness analysis!

- 1. let all H_(...) = false initially
- 2. repeat until all statements s satisfy rules 1-5:
 - pick a statement where one of the rules does not hold and update using the appropriate rule

- 1. let all H_(...) = false initially
- 2. repeat until all statements s satisfy rules 1-5:
 - pick a statement where one of the rules does not hold and update using the appropriate rule
- 3. once the analysis reaches a fixed point, issue a warning at any source (x, s) where $H_{out}(x, s)$ is true (= leaks sensitive information)





(for those reading online later, solved on the whiteboard. This is the solution.)

• static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable

- static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable
 - potential problem: what if the information that was abstracted away is important?

- static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable
 - potential problem: what if the information that was abstracted away is important?
 - can we come up with a program for which one of our example static analyses "gets the wrong answer"?

- static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable
 - potential problem: what if the information that was abstracted away is important?
 - can we come up with a program for which one of our example static analyses "gets the wrong answer"?
 - can we ever have a "perfect" abstraction?

- static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable
 - potential problem: what if the information that was abstracted away is important?
 - can we come up with a program for which one of our example static analyses "gets the wrong answer"?
 - can we ever have a "perfect" abstraction?
 - of course not (Rice's theorem again)

- static analysis abstracts away information to remain decidable
 - potential problem: what if the information that was abstracted away is important?
 - can we come up with a program for which one of our example static analyses "gets the wrong answer"?
 - can we ever have a "perfect" abstraction?
 - of course not (Rice's theorem again)
 - but, in practice, we can get very close

static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply
- implication: if you find yourself struggling to follow a well-defined (but complicated for a human) rule set while writing code, it might be time to reach for a static analysis

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply
- implication: if you find yourself struggling to follow a well-defined (but complicated for a human) rule set while writing code, it might be time to reach for a static analysis
 - this sort of situation comes up often:

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply
- implication: if you find yourself struggling to follow a well-defined (but complicated for a human) rule set while writing code, it might be time to reach for a static analysis
 - this sort of situation comes up often:
 - x86/64 calling convention

Limitations of static analysis

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply
- implication: if you find yourself struggling to follow a well-defined (but complicated for a human) rule set while writing code, it might be time to reach for a static analysis
 - this sort of situation comes up often:
 - x86/64 calling convention
 - complex API protocols ("call A then B then C then ...")

Limitations of static analysis

- static analysis is best when the rules it enforces are:
 - simple to express to the computer
 - hard for a human to apply
- implication: if you find yourself struggling to follow a well-defined (but complicated for a human) rule set while writing code, it might be time to reach for a static analysis
 - this sort of situation comes up often:
 - x86/64 calling convention
 - complex API protocols ("call A then B then C then ...")
 - security rules, etc.

You're likely to encounter:

static type systems (sound)

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)
- "heuristic" bug-finding tools backed by dataflow analyses

You're likely to encounter:

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)
- "heuristic" bug-finding tools backed by dataflow analyses

heuristic is a fancy word for "best effort"

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)
- "heuristic" bug-finding tools backed by dataflow analyses
 - built into modern IDEs

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)
- "heuristic" bug-finding tools backed by dataflow analyses
 - built into modern IDEs
 - aim for low false positive rates

- static type systems (sound)
- linters or other style checkers (syntactic = not dataflow)
- "heuristic" bug-finding tools backed by dataflow analyses
 - built into modern IDEs
 - aim for low false positive rates
 - widely used in industry:
 - <u>ErrorProne</u> at Google, <u>Infer</u> at Meta, <u>SpotBugs</u> at many places (including Amazon), <u>Coverity</u>, <u>Fortify</u>, etc.

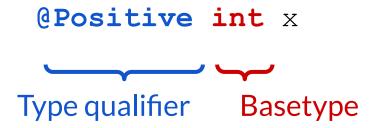
Less common, but useful to know about:

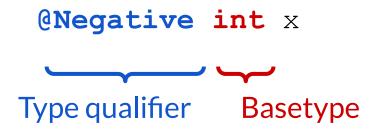
pluggable type systems

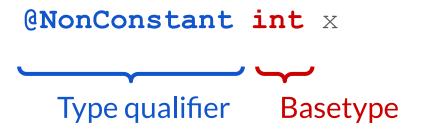
- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java

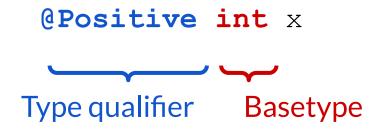
- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java
 - most common sound analysis (used by Google, Uber, others)

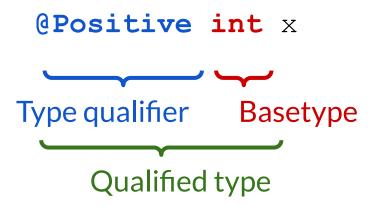
@Positive int x











 developers already use static type systems, so they're familiar with the general idea of types => relatively easy to use (compared to other sound static analyses)

- developers already use static type systems, so they're familiar with the general idea of types => relatively easy to use (compared to other sound static analyses)
- type qualifiers encode property of interest
 - effectively a "second" type system

- developers already use static type systems, so they're familiar with the general idea of types => relatively easy to use (compared to other sound static analyses)
- type qualifiers encode property of interest
 - effectively a "second" type system
- qualified types are a Cartesian product of a type from the pluggable type system and a type from the base type system

- developers already use static type systems, so they're familiar with the general idea of types => relatively easy to use (compared to other sound static analyses)
- type qualifiers encode property of interest
 - effectively a "second" type system
- qualified types are a Cartesian product of a type from the pluggable type system and a type from the base type system
- typechecking is naturally modular = fast
 - but this comes at a cost: programmers need to write types

- developers already use static type the general idea of types => relativ other sound static analyses)
- type qualifiers encode property of
 - effectively a "second" type syst
- qualified types are a Cartesian product or a type in our time
 pluggable type system and a type from the base type system
- typechecking is naturally modular = fast
 - but this comes at a cost: programmers need to write types

ith

designing better (more expressive, more usable, etc.) pluggable type systems is an area of active research (mine!)

- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java
 - most common sound analysis (used by Google, Uber, others)
- formal verification (subject of 3/7 reading)

- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java
 - most common sound analysis (used by Google, Uber, others)
- formal verification (subject of 3/7 reading)
 - you write a specification

- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java
 - most common sound analysis (used by Google, Uber, others)
- formal verification (subject of 3/7 reading)
 - you write a specification
 - tool verifies that code matches that specification

- pluggable type systems
 - these are extensions to a type system that lets it prove more properties, e.g., adding nullness-checking to Java
 - most common sound analysis (used by Google, Uber, others)
- formal verification (subject of 3/7 reading)
 - you write a specification
 - tool verifies that code matches that specification
 - very high effort, but enables sound reasoning about complex properties (= worth it for very high value systems)

all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)

- all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)
 - the TCB is the code whose correctness must be assumed for the analysis to actually be sound

- all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)
 - the TCB is the code whose correctness must be assumed for the analysis to actually be sound
- TCB size is an important differentiator between "sound" analyses

- all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)
 - the TCB is the code whose correctness must be assumed for the analysis to actually be sound
- TCB size is an important differentiator between "sound" analyses
 - e.g., TCB for many of my pluggable type systems includes the entire Java compiler (limits soundness a lot!)

- all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)
 - the TCB is the code whose correctness must be assumed for the analysis to actually be sound
- TCB size is an important differentiator between "sound" analyses
 - e.g., TCB for many of my pluggable type systems includes the entire Java compiler (limits soundness a lot!)
 - TCB for some formal verifiers is very small (< 1000 LoC)
 - but these tools (e.g., Coq) are much harder to use

- all "sound" static analyses have a trusted computing base (TCB)
 - the TCB is the code whose correctness must be assumed for the analysis to actually be sound
- TCB size is an important differentiator between "sound" analyses
 - e.g., TCB for many of my pluggable type systems includes the entire Java compiler (limits soundness a lot!)
 - TCB for some formal verifiers is very small (< 1000 LoC)
 - but these tools (e.g., Coq) are much harder to use
- soundness theorems also usually make some assumptions about the code being analyzed (e.g., no calls to native code, no reflection)

Static analysis: summary

- static analysis is very good at enforcing simple rules
 - much better than humans at this
- all interesting semantic properties of programs are undecidable, so all static analyses must approximate
 - goal in analysis design is to abstract away unimportant details, but keep important details
 - dataflow analysis is one technique for static analysis
 - trade-offs between false positives, false negatives, analysis time
- soundness & completeness are possible, but rare
 - all soundness guarantees come with caveats about the TCB