

# Dataflow Analysis

Martin Kellogg

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# Agenda: dataflow analysis

- **last few slides of static vs dynamic analysis**
- key ideas in static analysis design
- dataflow analysis
  - nullness analysis example
  - secure information flow analysis example
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

# Review: static vs dynamic analyses

## Dynamic analyses:

- Concrete execution
  - slow if exhaustive
- Precise
  - no approximation
- Unsound
  - does not generalize

## Static analyses:

- Abstract domain
  - slow if precise
- Conservative
  - due to abstraction
- Sound
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  - more precise for data or control described by the abstraction
  - typically **conservative** / **pessimistic** elsewhere
    - i.e., assume that unmodeled state is unsafe

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- **key ideas in static analysis design**
- dataflow analysis
  - nullness analysis example
  - secure information flow analysis example
- limitations of static analysis
- static analysis in practice

# Review: what is a static analysis?

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

- 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!

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- 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)

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  - **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

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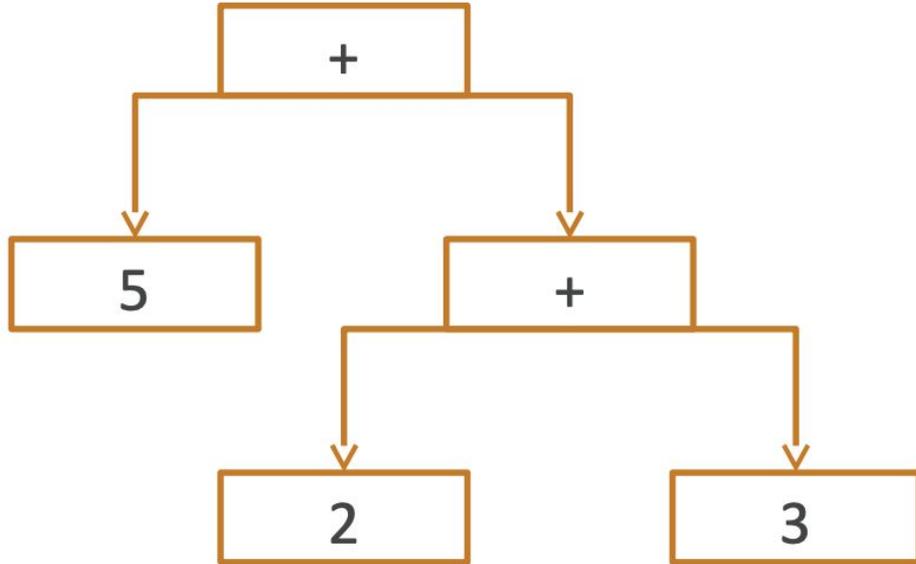
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- usually produced by a **parser**
- nodes in the tree represent syntactic constructs
  - parent-child relationships in the AST represent **compound expressions** in the source code (e.g., a “plus node” might have two children: the left and right side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

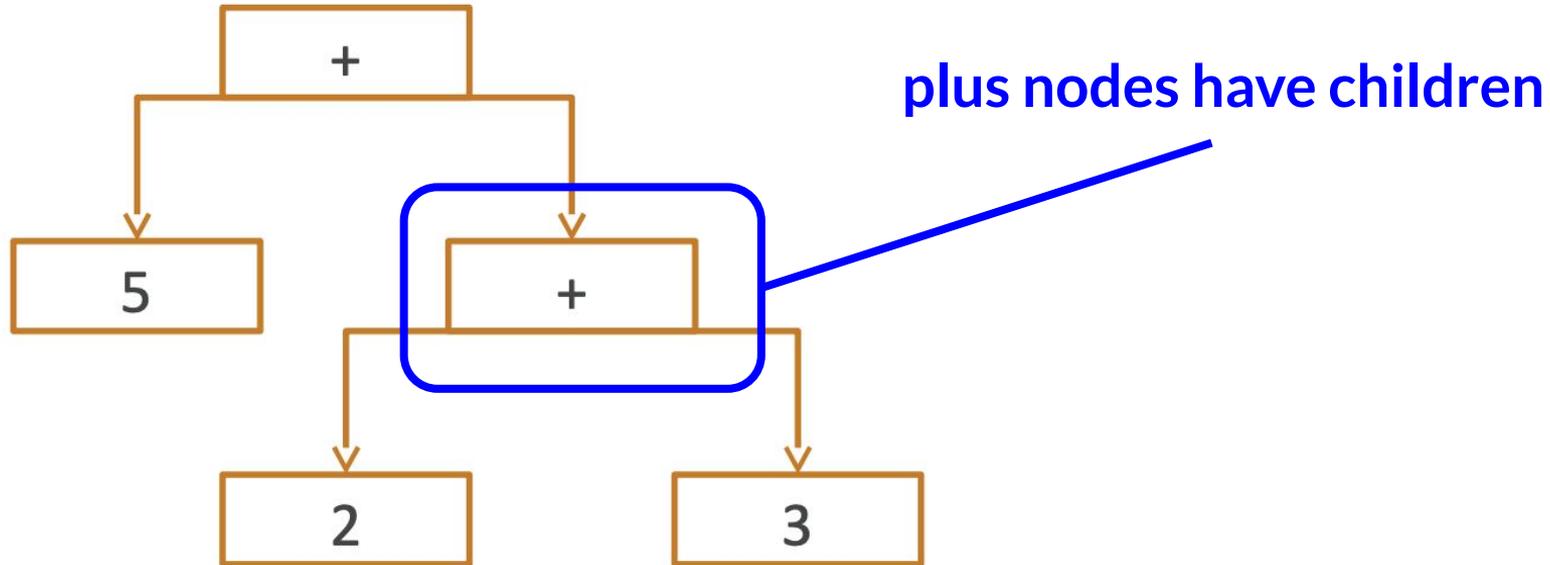
# Treating programs as data: AST example

Example:  $5 + (2 + 3)$



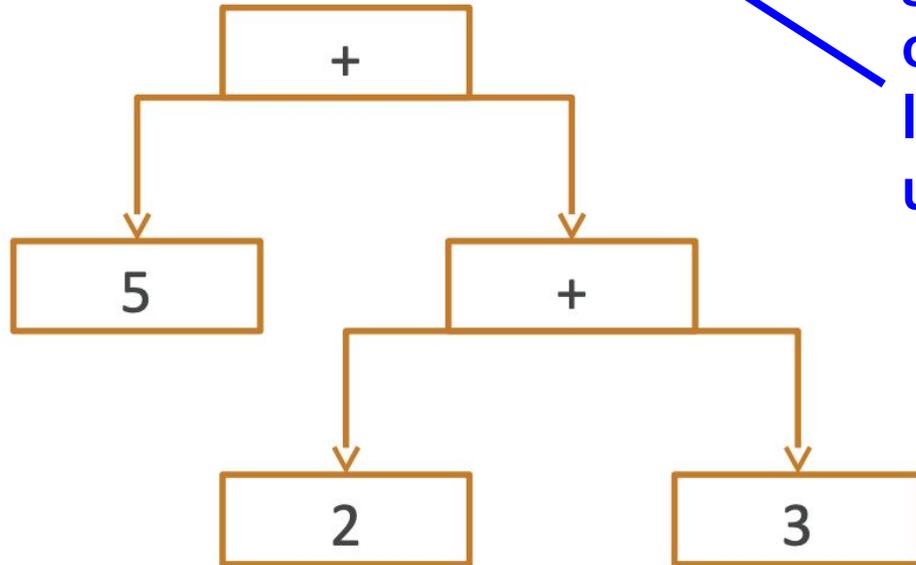
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grouping parentheses and other disambiguation is no longer necessary (AST is unambiguous, unlike text)

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- this is the internal representation used by most static analysis tools

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  - Dataflow analyses take programs as input

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1. an analysis for finding **definite** null-pointer dereferences

“Whenever execution reaches `*ptr` at program location `L`, `ptr` will be `NULL`”

2. 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 if 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

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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

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		<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>
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Useful analyses in practice often have **both** false positives and false negatives.

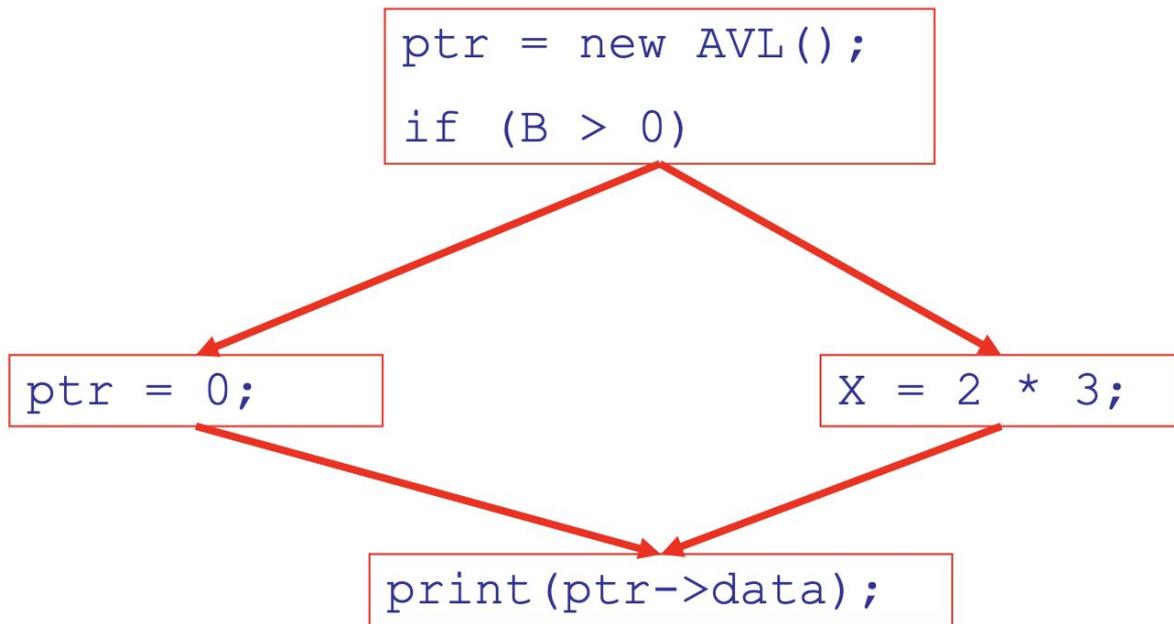
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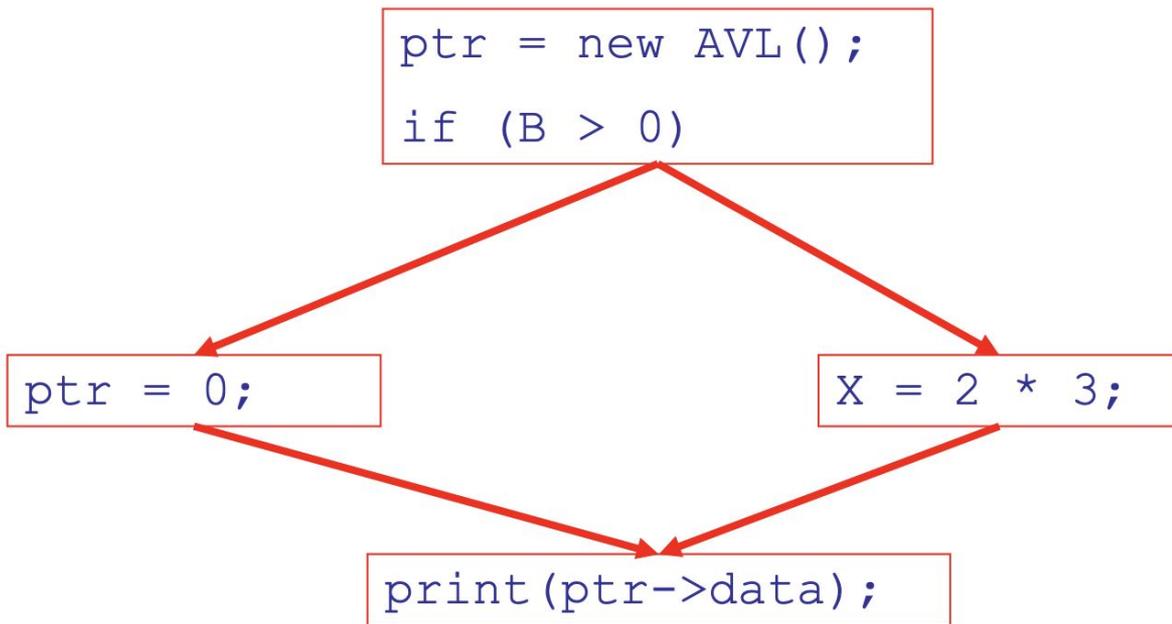
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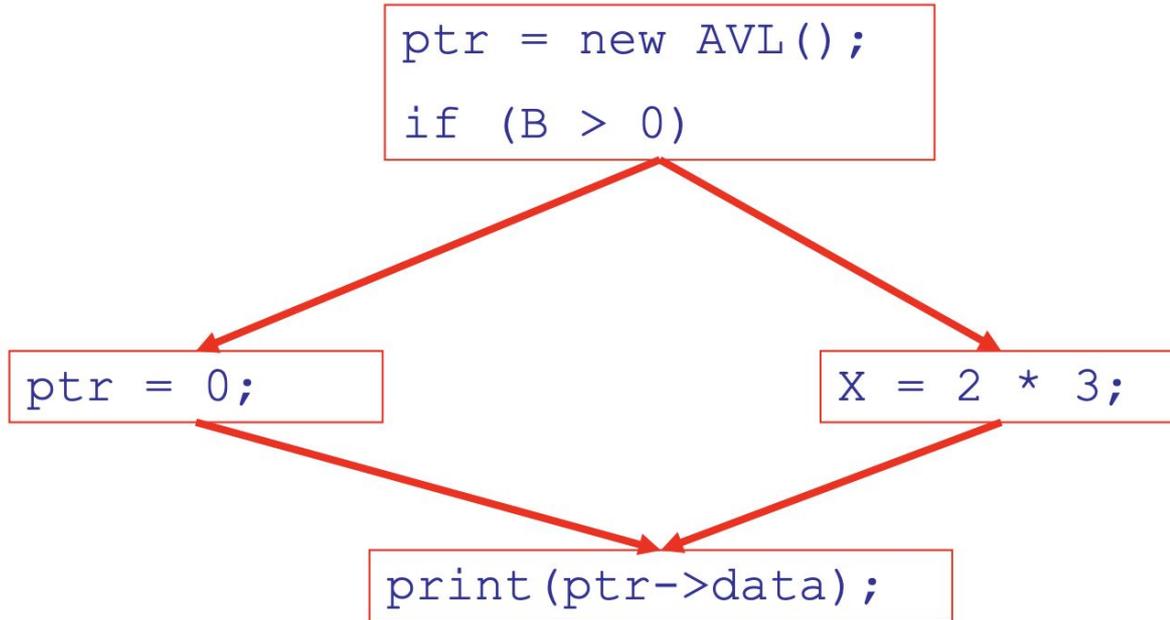


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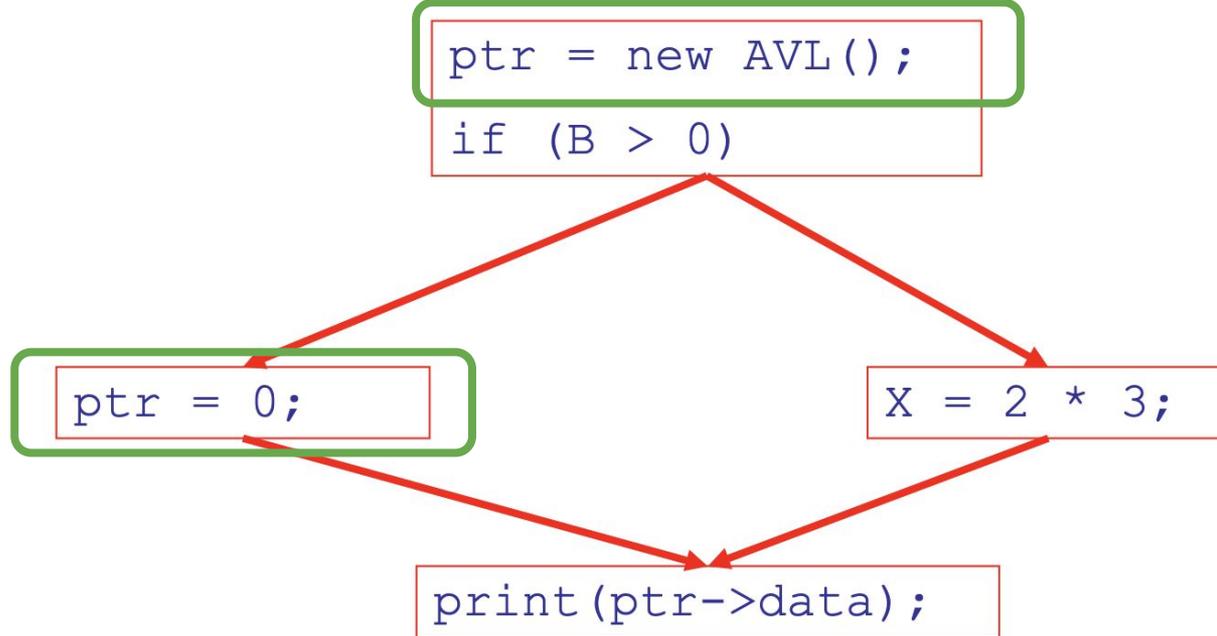


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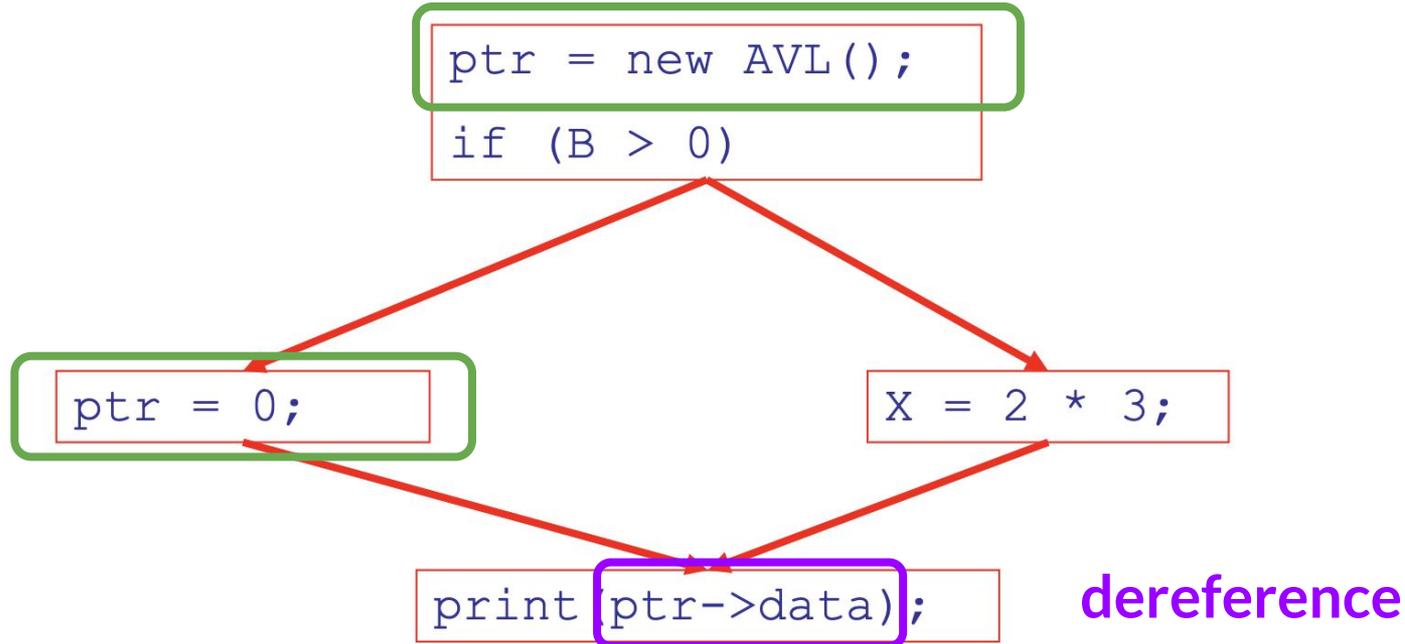


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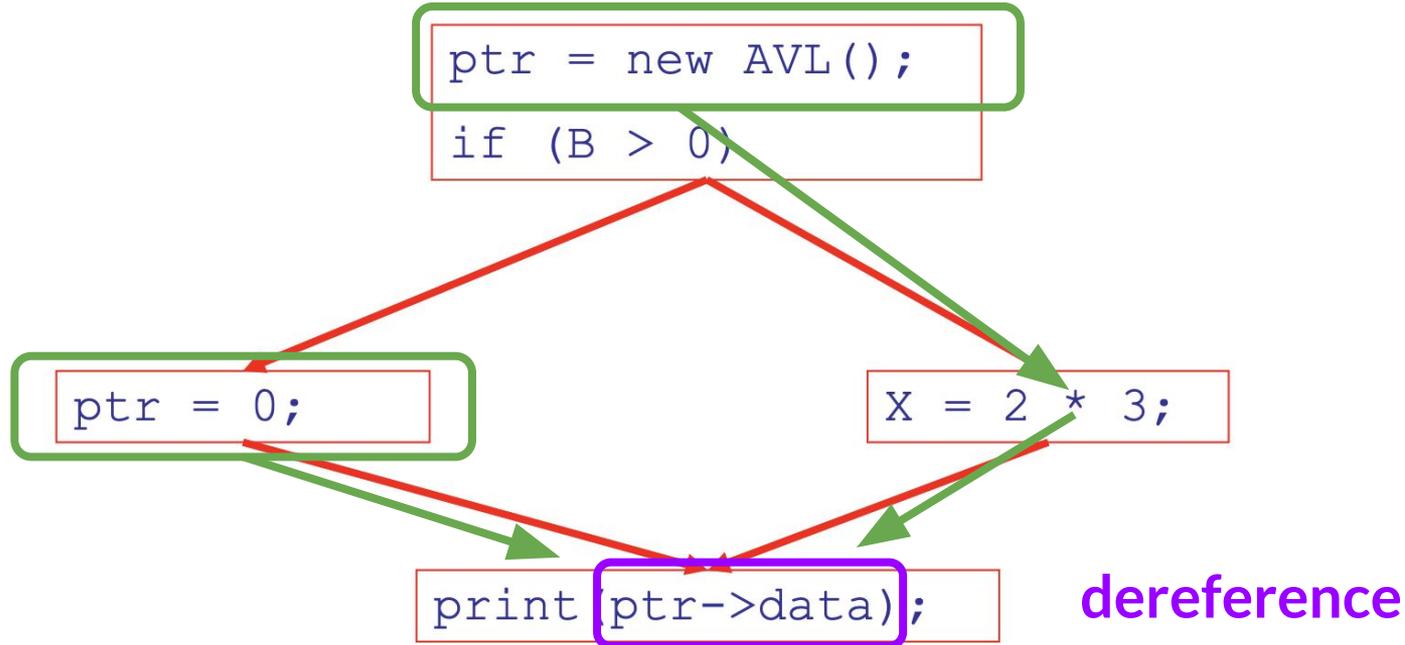


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“**interesting**” in this context means “not trivial”, i.e., not uniformly true or false for all programs

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## Rice's theorem caveats:

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

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- An **algorithm** always terminates (remember your theory class!)
  - 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

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

- always answers “I don't know” if there isn't a **definite** bug

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  - also relevant in practice: “fast”, “easy to use”, etc.

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- Which is more important: **soundness** or **completeness**?

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    - type systems are just another static analysis!
  - few complete static analyses exist in practice
    - theory is underdeveloped, but another area of active research! (ask me more after class!)

# Null-pointer analysis example

Question: is `ptr` *always* null when it is dereferenced?

```
ptr = new AVL();  
if (B > 0)
```

```
graph TD; A["ptr = new AVL();  
if (B > 0)"] --> B["ptr = 0;"]; A --> C["X = 2 * 3;"]; B --> D["print(ptr->data);"]; C --> D;
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ptr = 0;
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graph TD; A["ptr = 0;  
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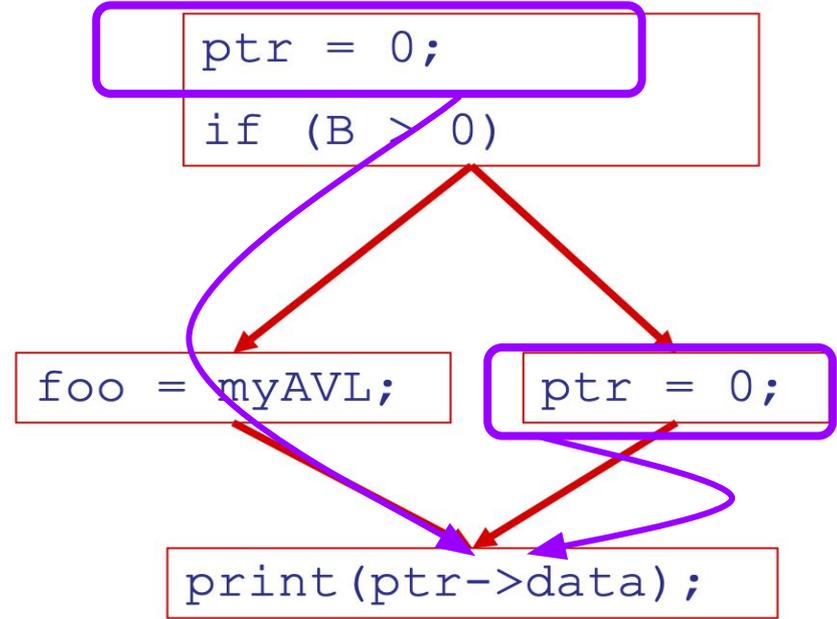
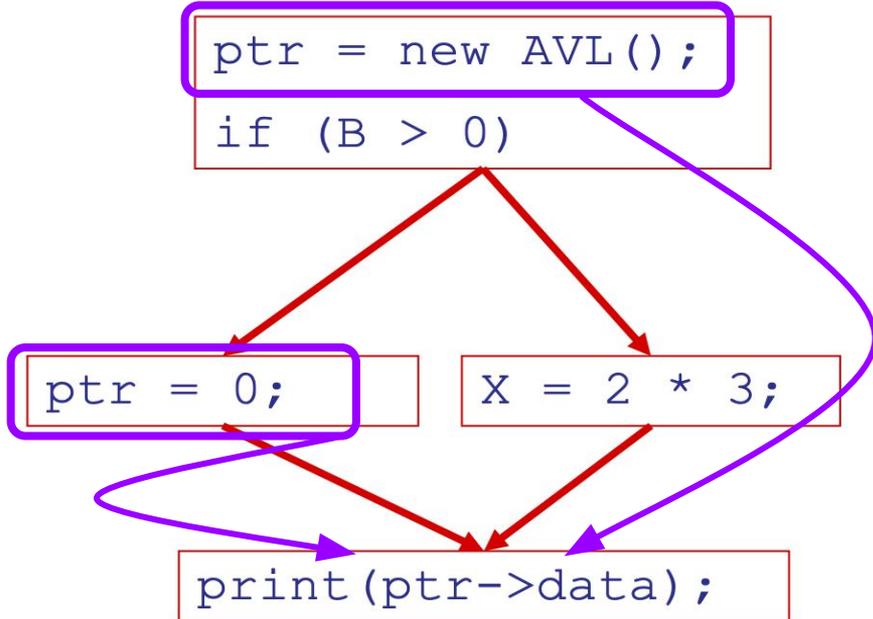
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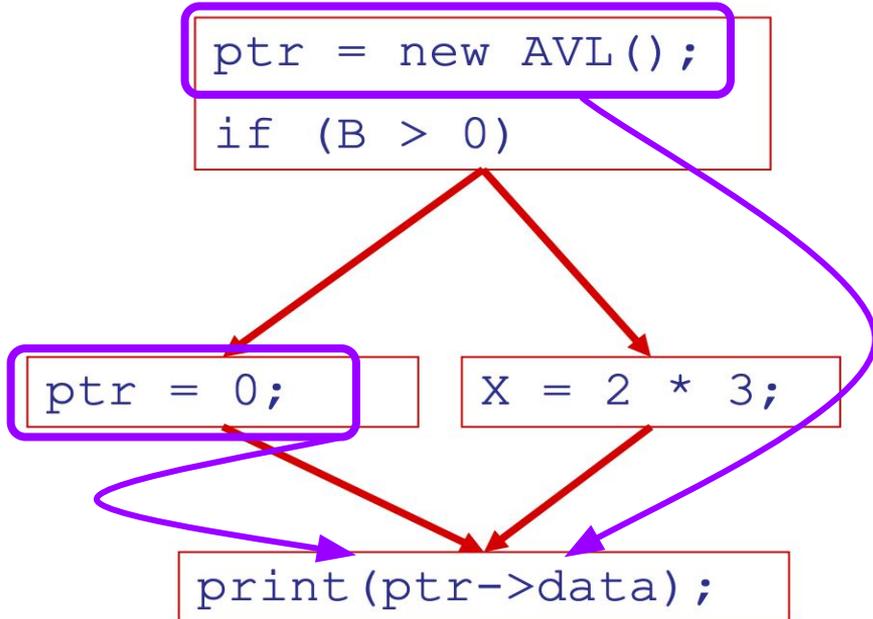
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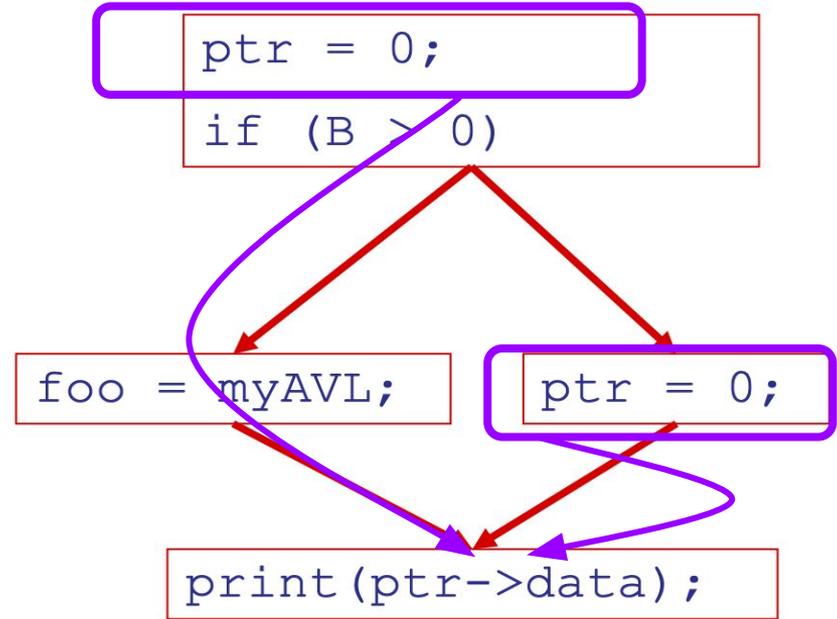


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Question: is `ptr` *always* null when it is dereferenced?



**NO:** only sometimes null



**YES:** always null

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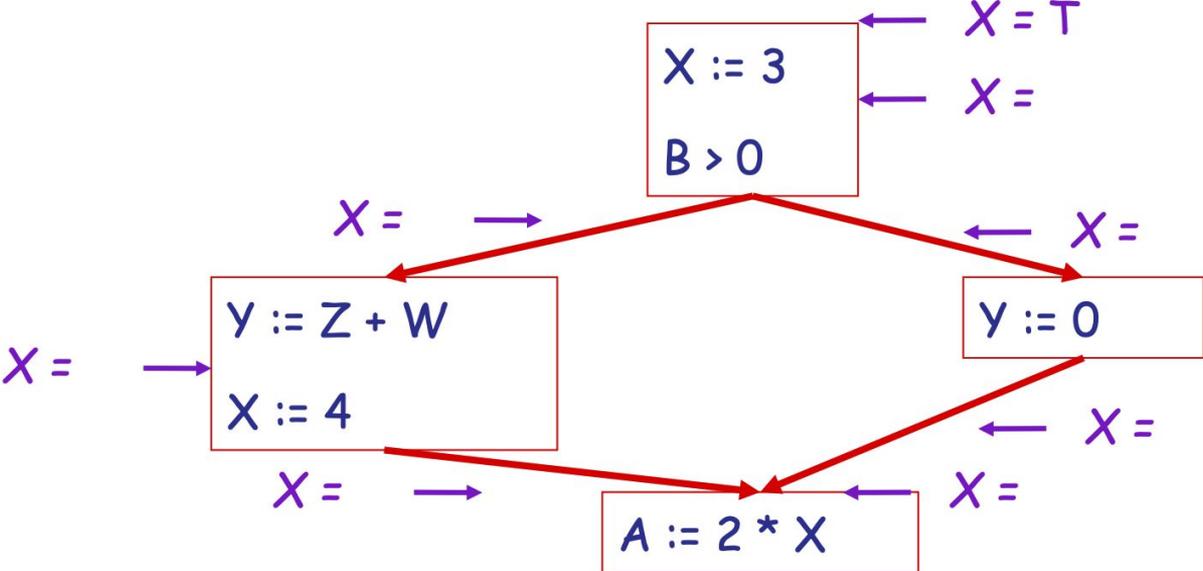
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  - $\perp$  (“bottom”) = “ $X$  has no value here”

# Null-pointer analysis example: formalized

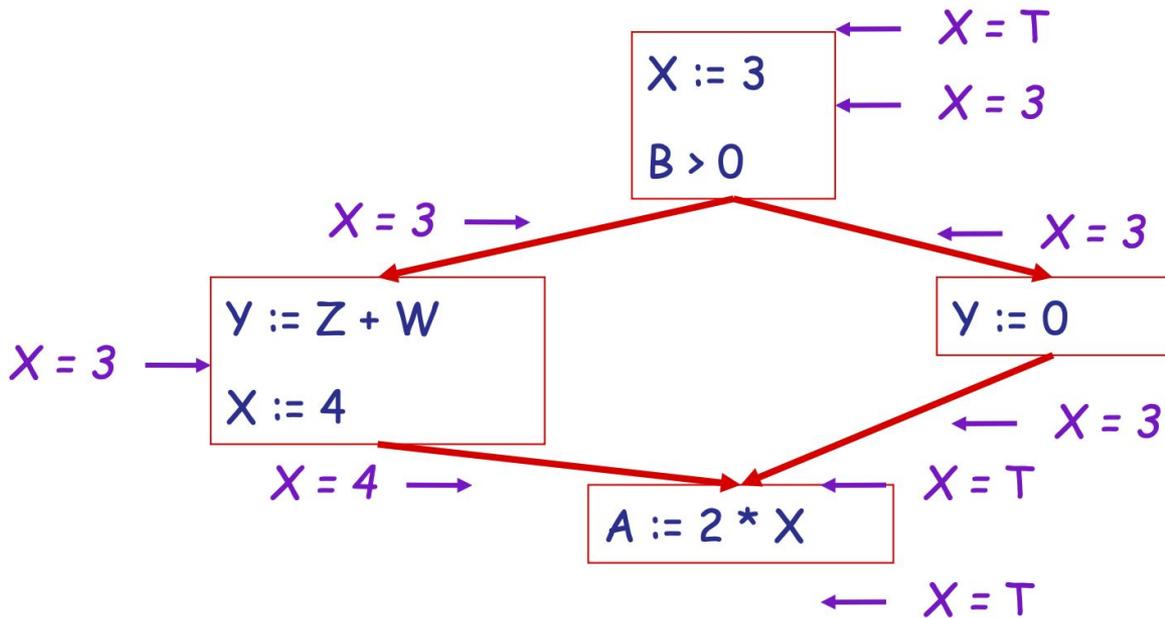
Get out a piece of paper. Fill in these blanks:



Recall:  
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  - Simply inspect the  $x = ?$  associated with a statement using  $x$
  - If  $x$  is the constant **0** at that point, issue a warning!
- But how can an **algorithm** compute  $x = ?$

# Key idea behind dataflow analysis

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

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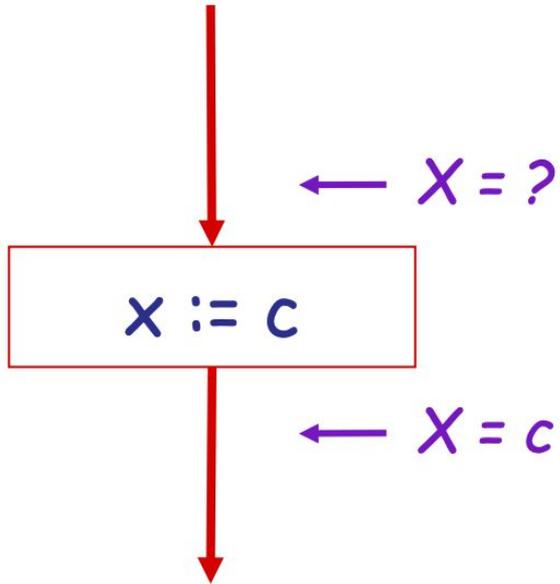
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**Definition:** a *transfer function* expresses the relationship between  $C_{in}(x, s)$  and  $C_{out}(x, s)$

# Transfer functions: rule 1

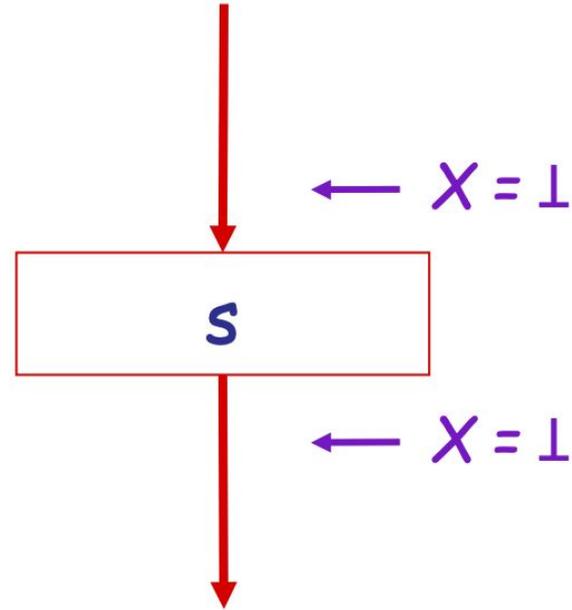


$C_{\text{out}}(x, x := c) = c$  if  $c$  is a constant

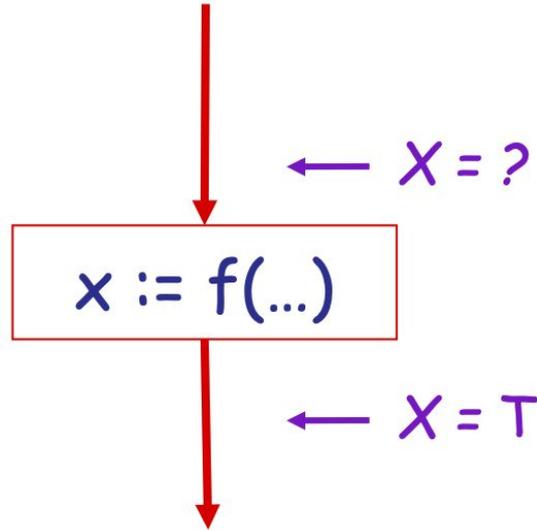
# Transfer functions: rule 2

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

Recall bottom =  
“unreachable code”



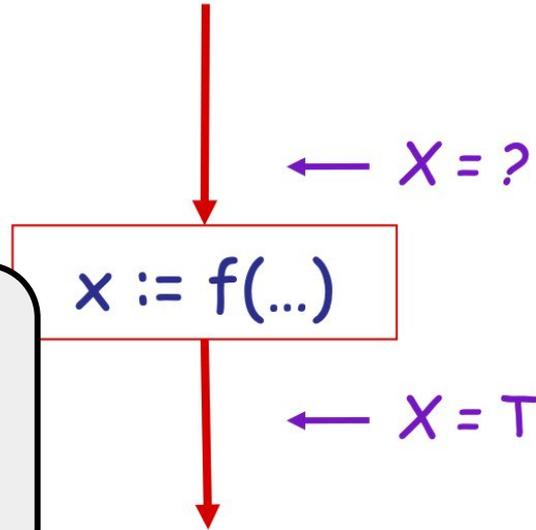
# Transfer functions: rule 3



$$C_{\text{out}}(x, x := f(\dots)) = T$$

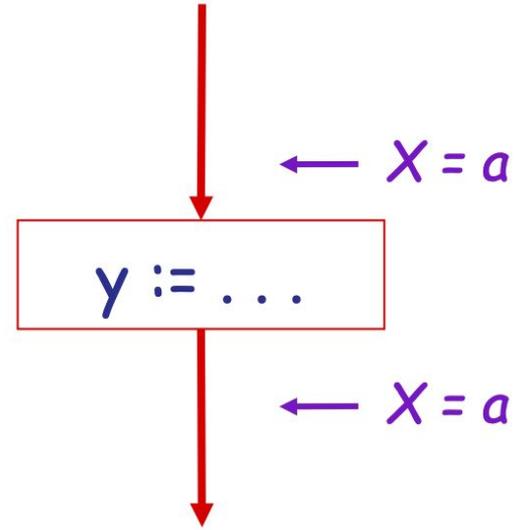
# Transfer functions: rule 3

This is a **conservative approximation**!  $f(\dots)$  might always return 0, but we don't even try!



$$C_{\text{out}}(x, x := f(\dots)) = T$$

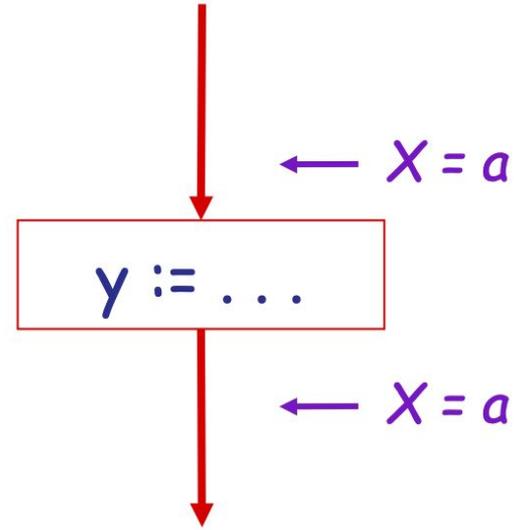
# Transfer functions: rule 4



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

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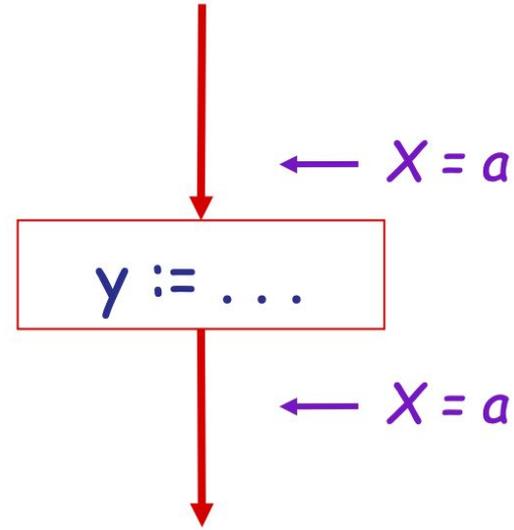
How hard is it to check if  $x \neq y$  on all executions?



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# Transfer functions: rule 4

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



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

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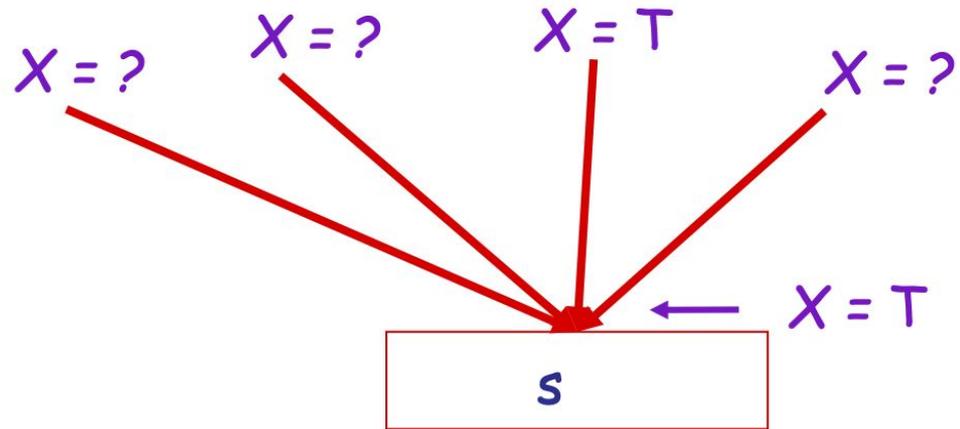
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- In the following rules, let statement  $s$  have immediate predecessor statements  $p_1, \dots, p_n$

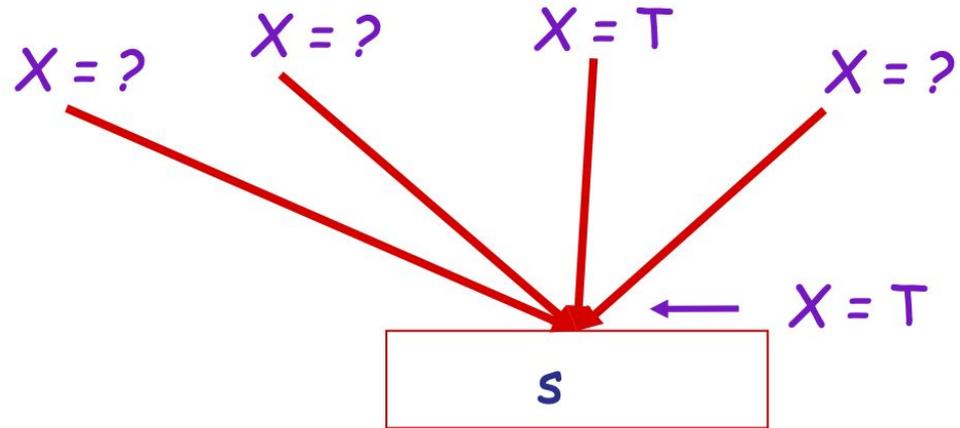
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if  $C_{\text{out}}(x, p_i) = T$  for some  $i$ , then  $C_{\text{in}}(x, s) = T$

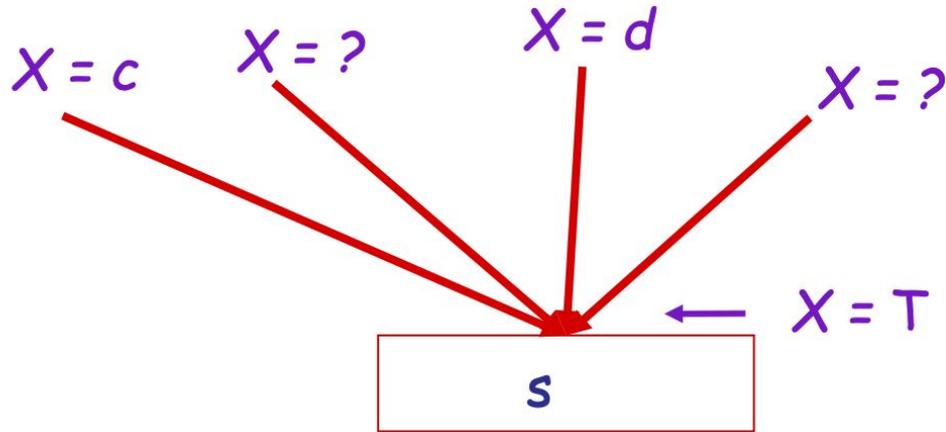
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If there's **any** path on which we don't know, then we don't know at all



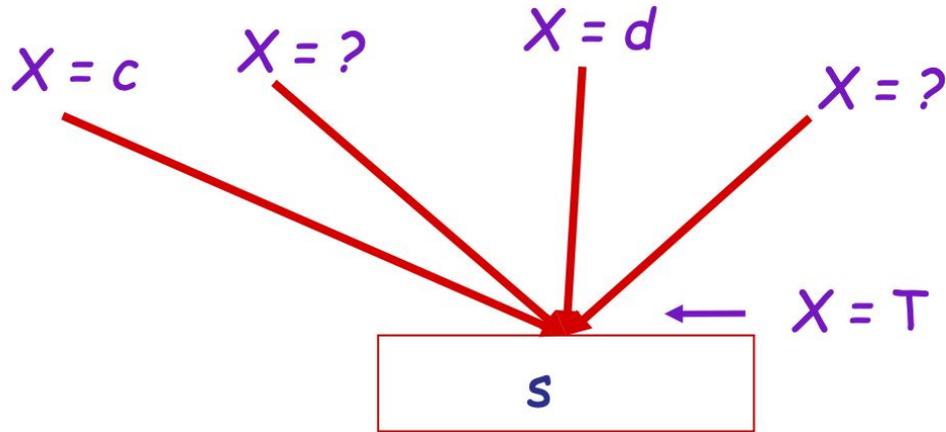
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# Transfer functions: rule 6



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

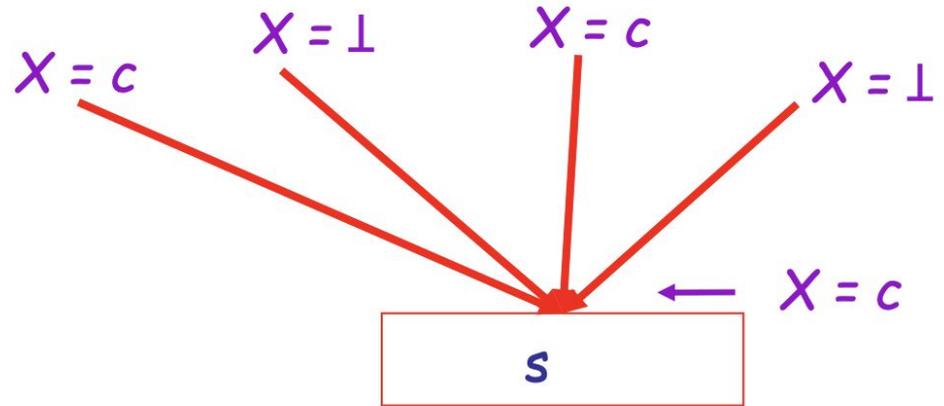
# Transfer functions: rule 6



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

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

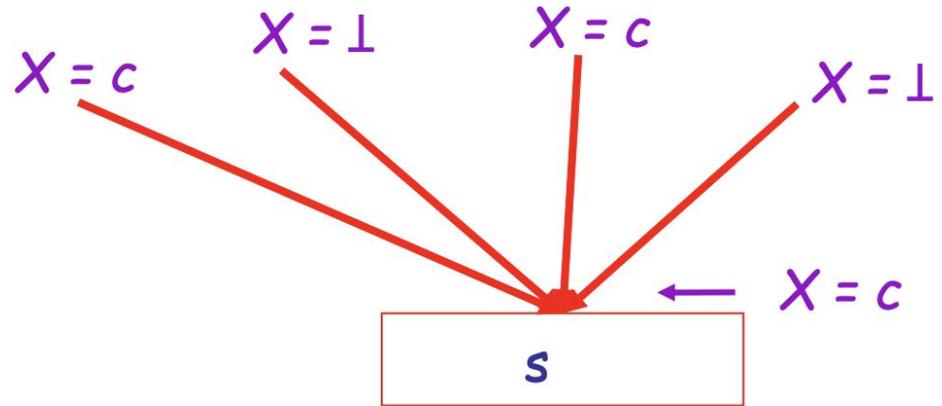
# Transfer functions: rule 7



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

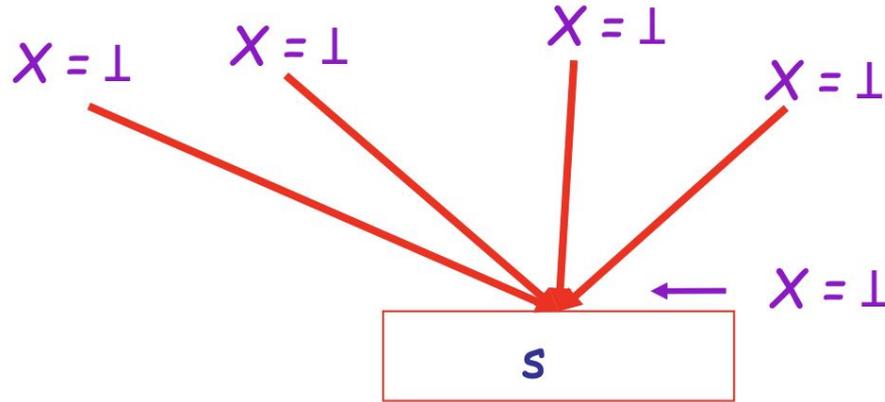
# Transfer functions: rule 7

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



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

# Transfer functions: rule 8



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

A static analysis algorithm

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

A static analysis algorithm

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

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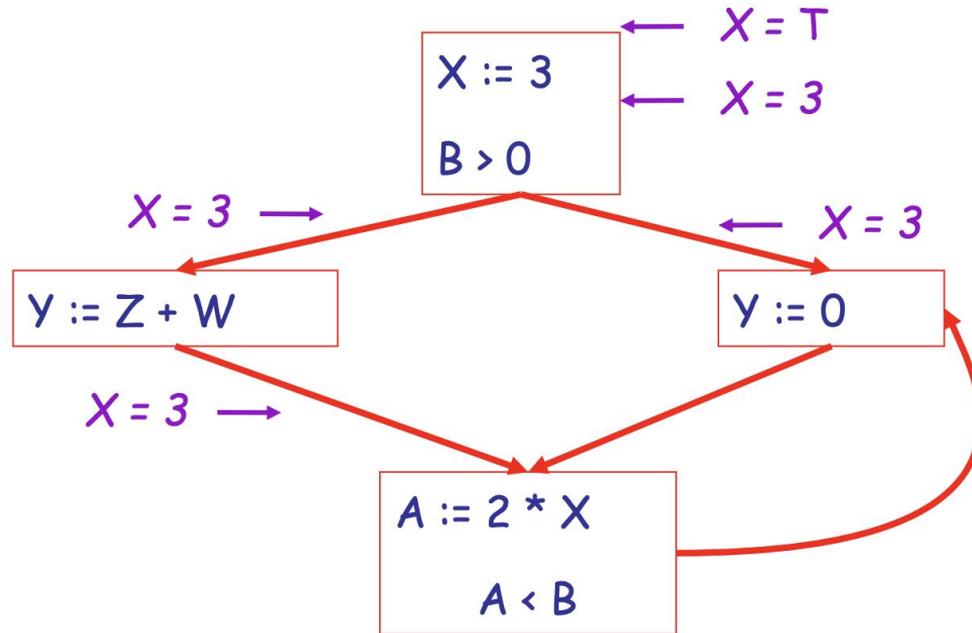
This is a **fixpoint** (or **fixed point**) **iteration** algorithm. Such algorithms are characterized by a finite set of rules, which are applied until they “reach fixpoint”, which means that applying any rule produces no change.

- For every **entry point**  $e$  to the program
  - why top? Top models the entry point of the program
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- Set  $C_{in}(x, s) = C_{out}(x, s) = \text{bottom}$
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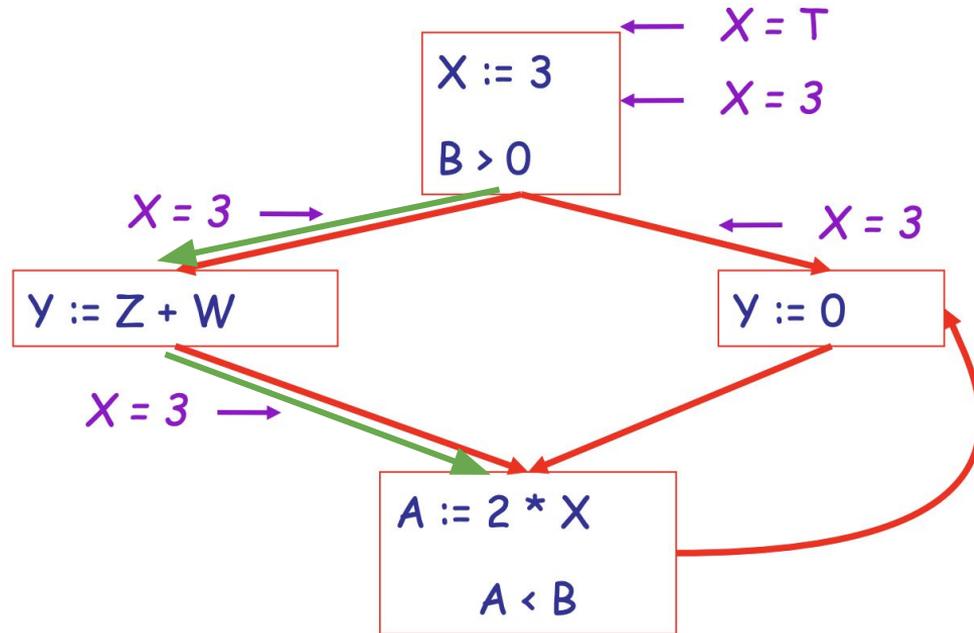
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This way  
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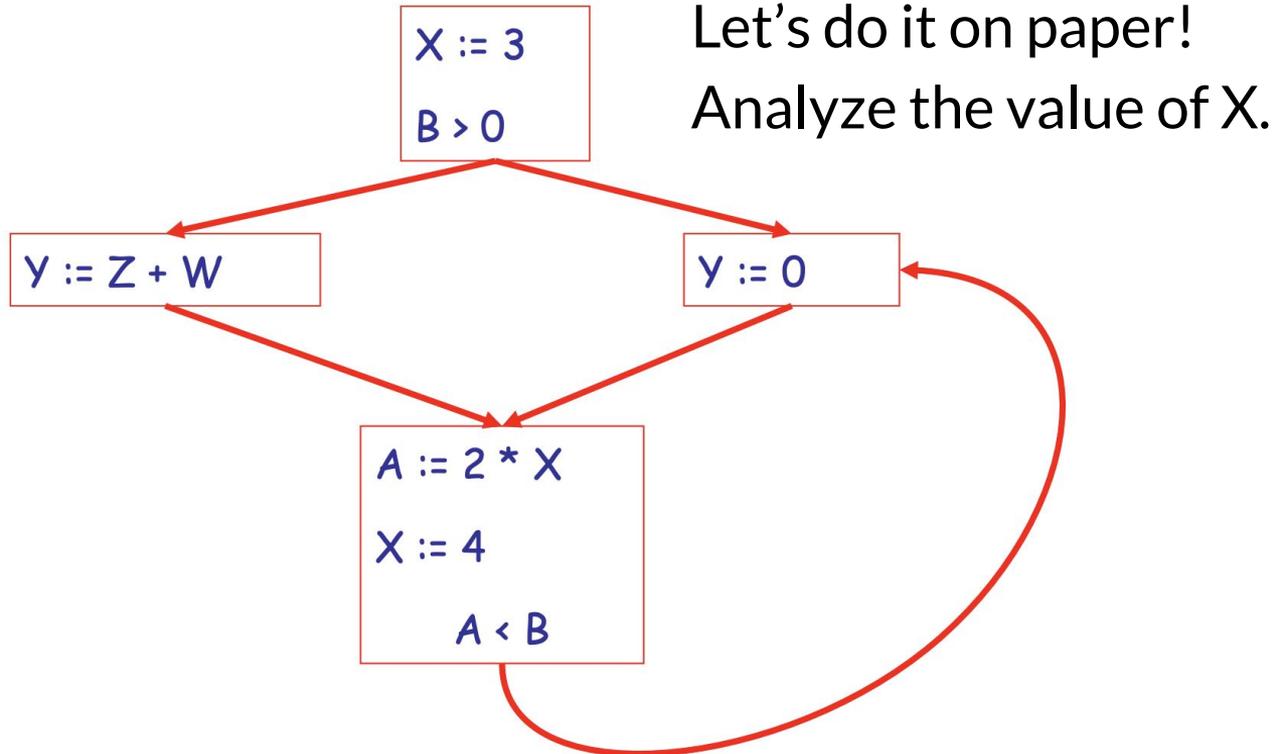
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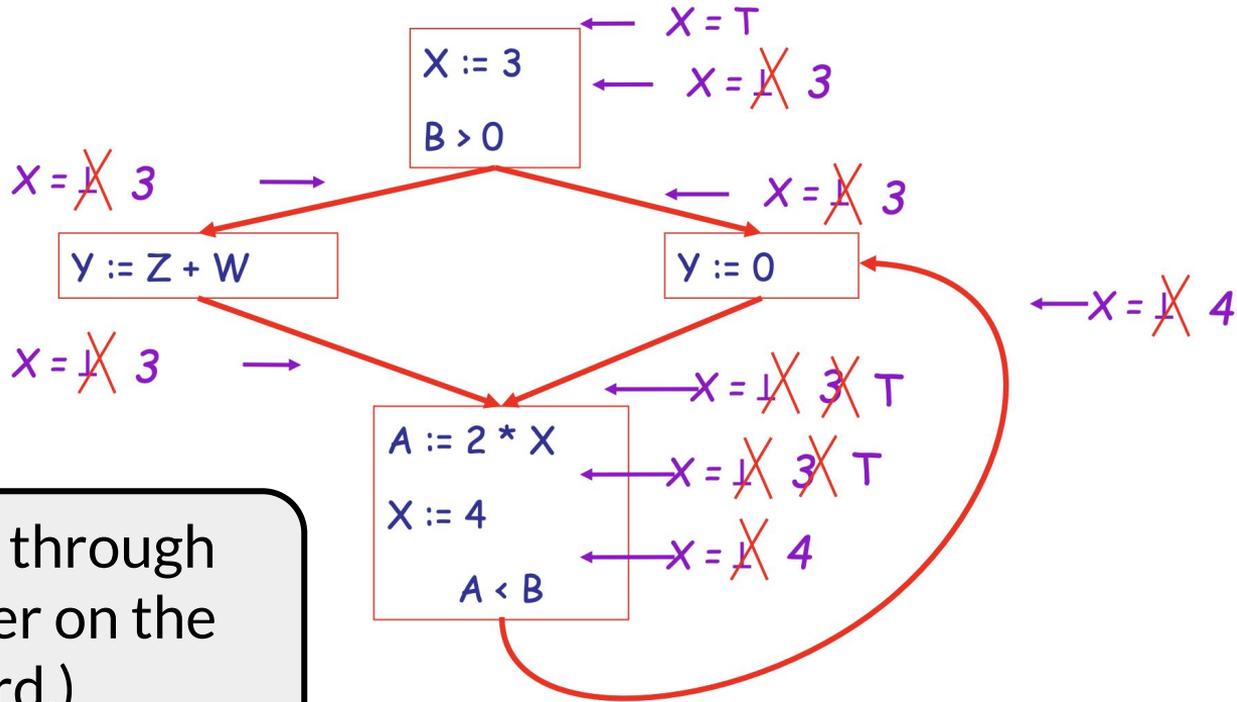
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- Intuitively, assigning some initial value allows the analysis to **break cycles**
- The initial value bottom means “**we have not yet analyzed control reaching this point**”

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(We went through this answer on the whiteboard.)

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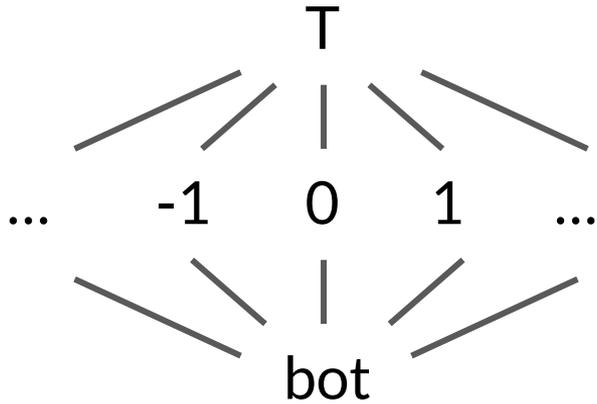
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    - but never go back to bottom!
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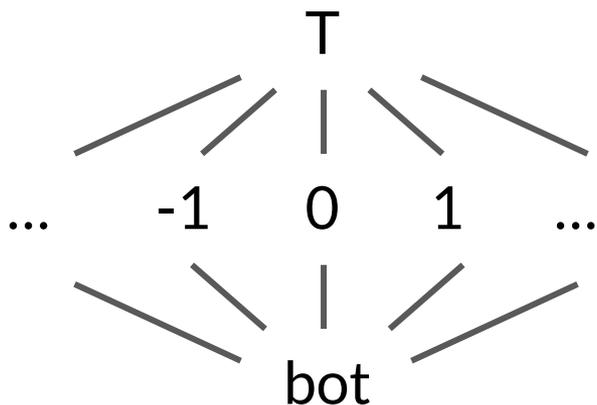
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How to read a lattice:

- 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

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  - we can rewrite rules 5-8 in our nullness analysis using lub:

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

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

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**

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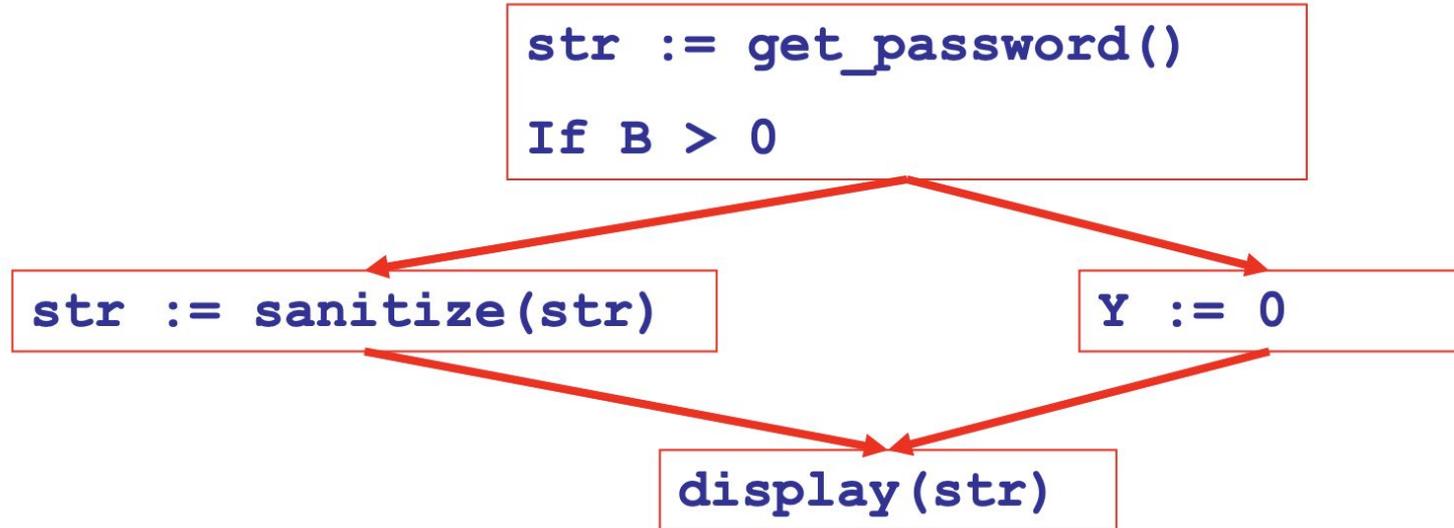
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  - values start as bottom and only increase
  - bottom can change to a constant, and a constant to T
  - thus,  $C_-(x, s)$  can change at most **twice** (= lattice height minus one)

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**Analysis goal:** report a warning if any *source* of secure information (e.g., a password) potentially connects to a public *sink*, like a display function

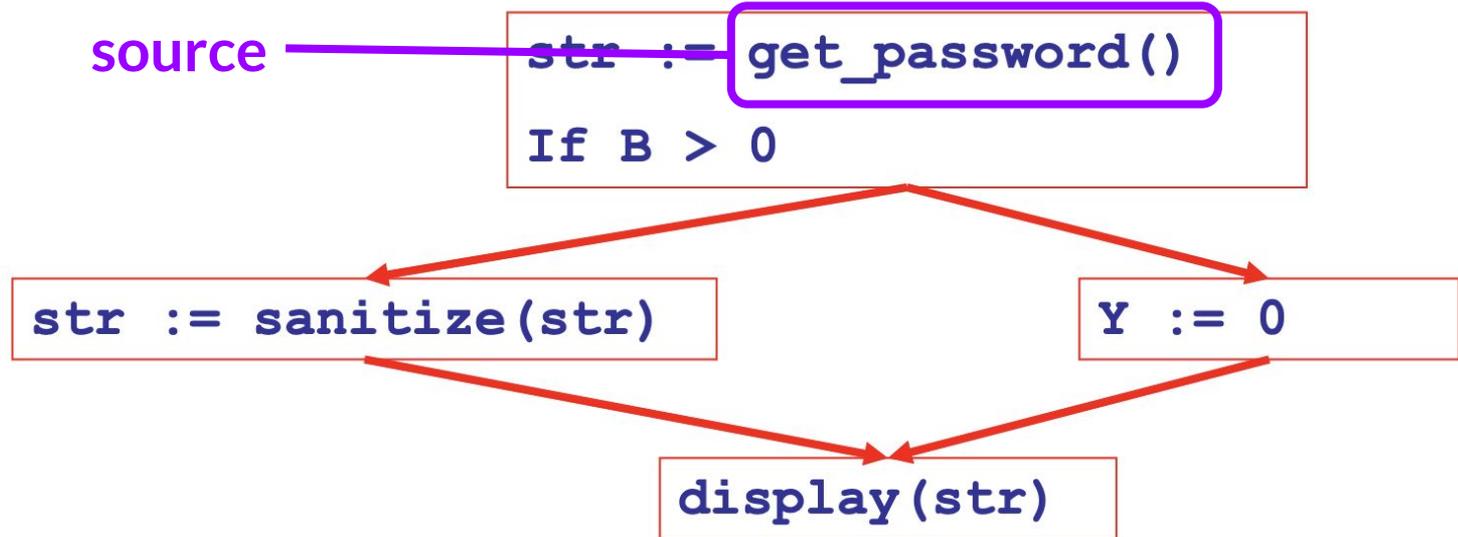
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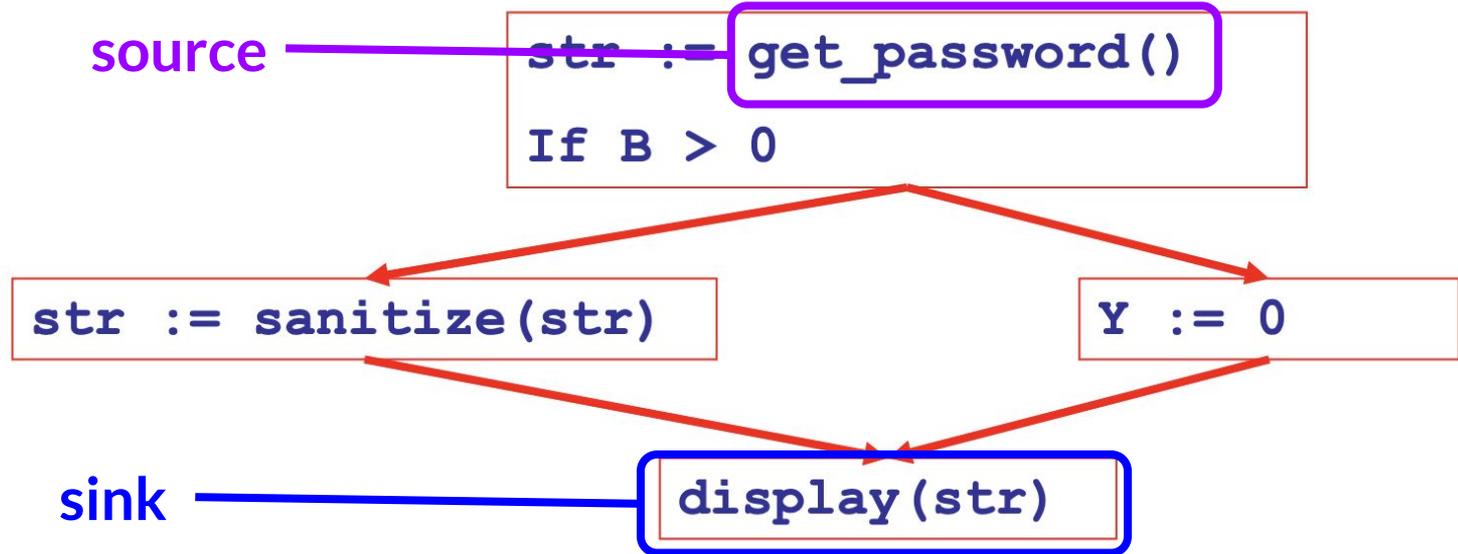
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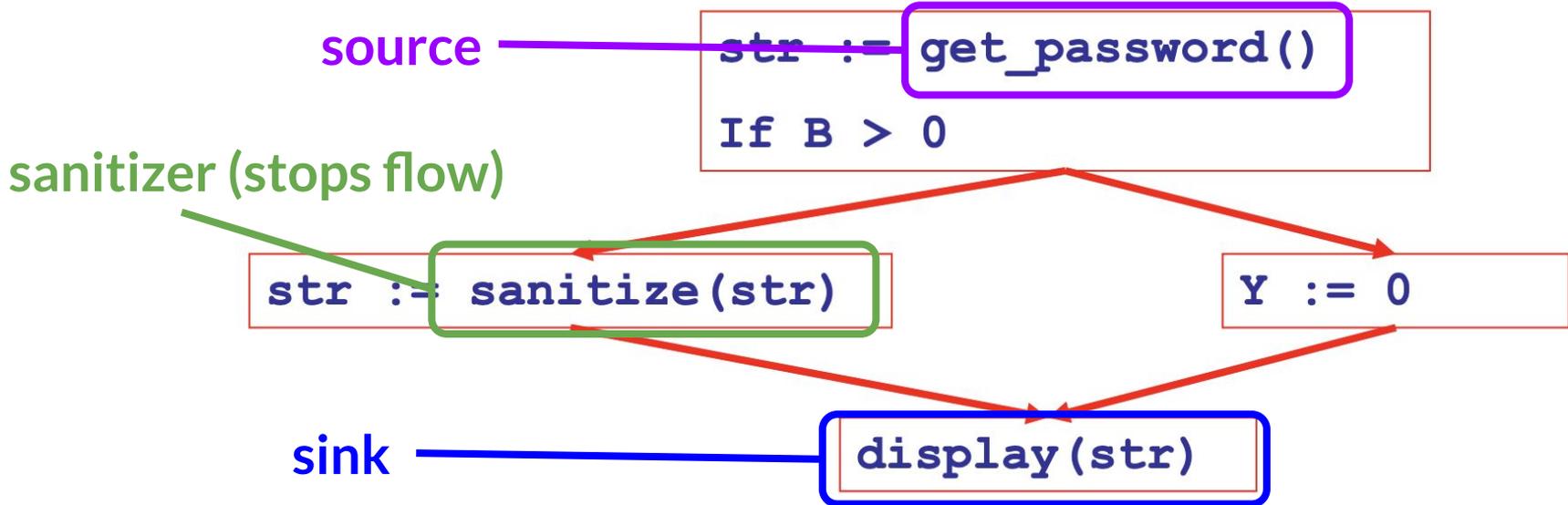
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**Analysis goal:** report a warning if any *source* of secure information (e.g., a password) potentially connects to a public *sink*, like a display function



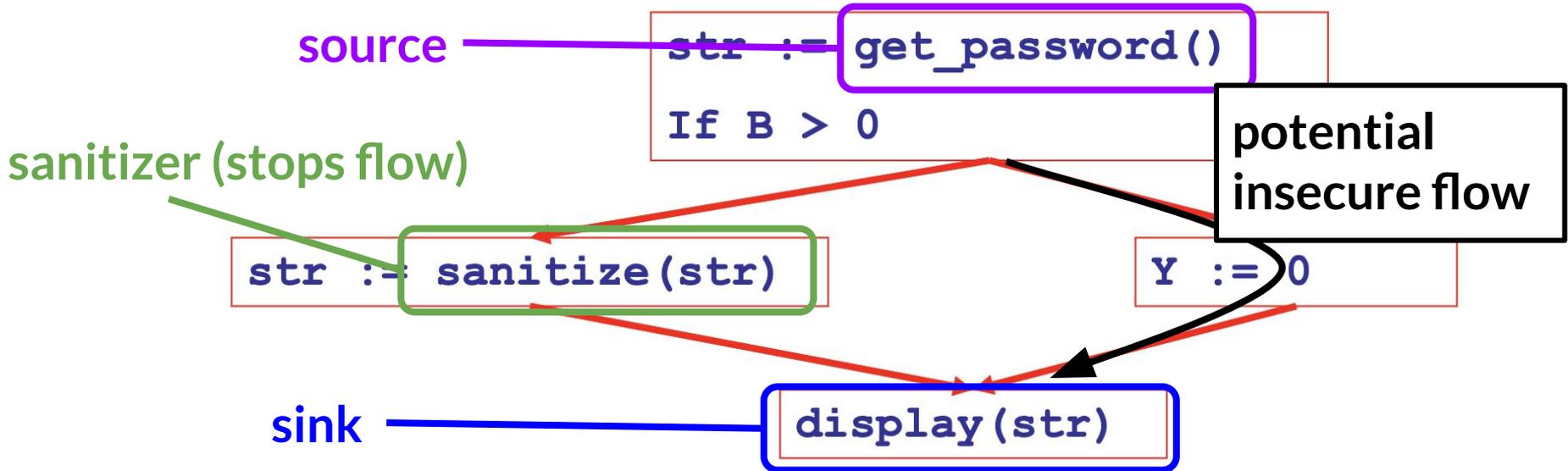
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- applications in security: e.g., secure information flow
- stand-in here for a broad class of dataflow analyses
- how would we build it?
  - we'll write a set of rules, just as we did for our nullness analysis

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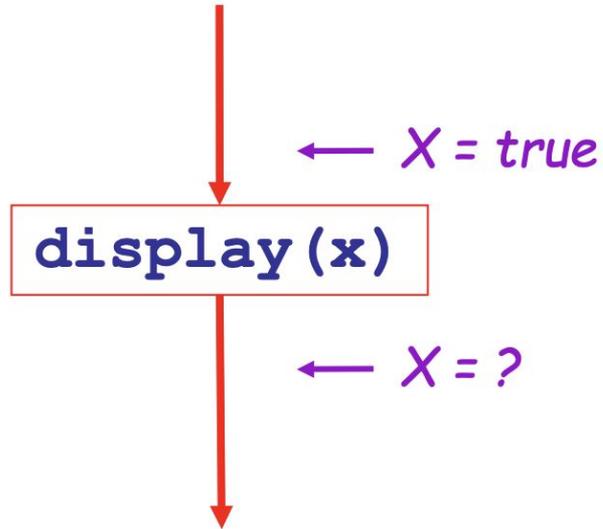
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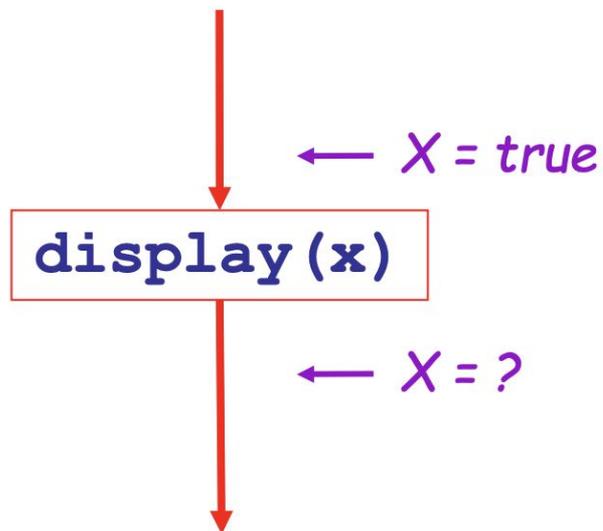
Note that the rules for this analysis are intended to be applied “backwards”

# Secure information flow analysis: rule 1



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

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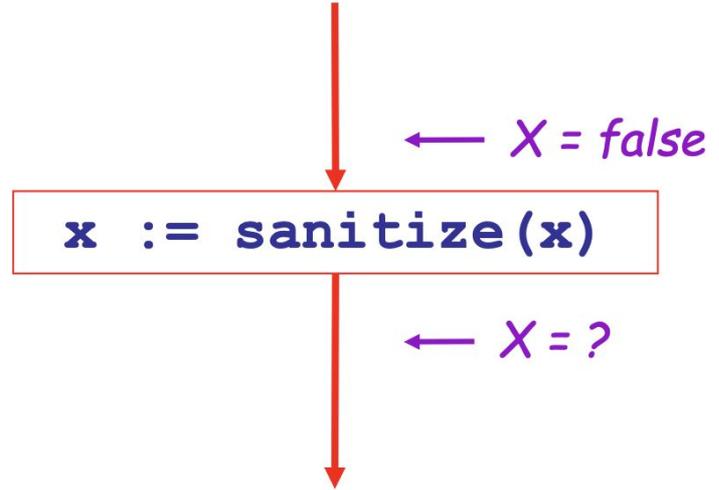


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Recall, true means “if this ends up being a secret variable then we have a bug!”

# Secure information flow analysis: rule 2

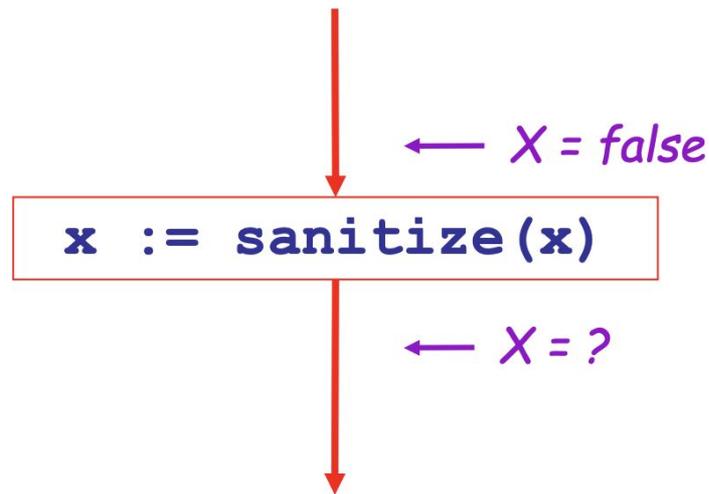
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Does this rule say anything about the sanitize() method?

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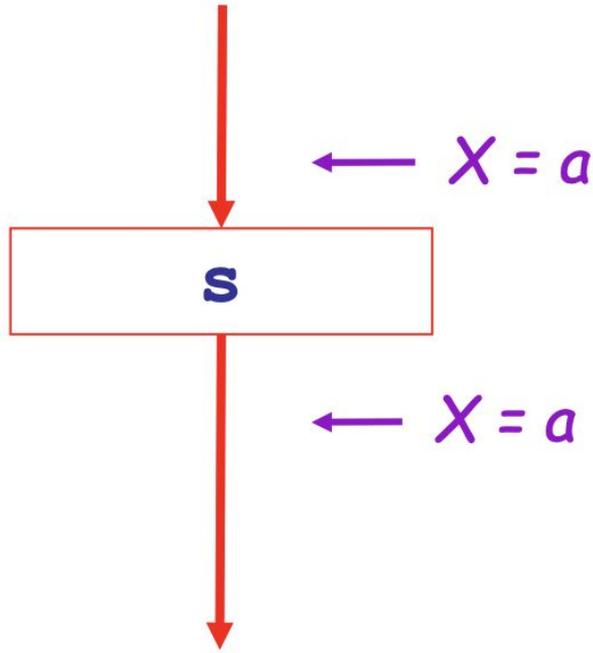
This means any value that is sanitized is not sensitive

**x := sanitize(x)**

←  $X = \text{false}$

←  $X = ?$

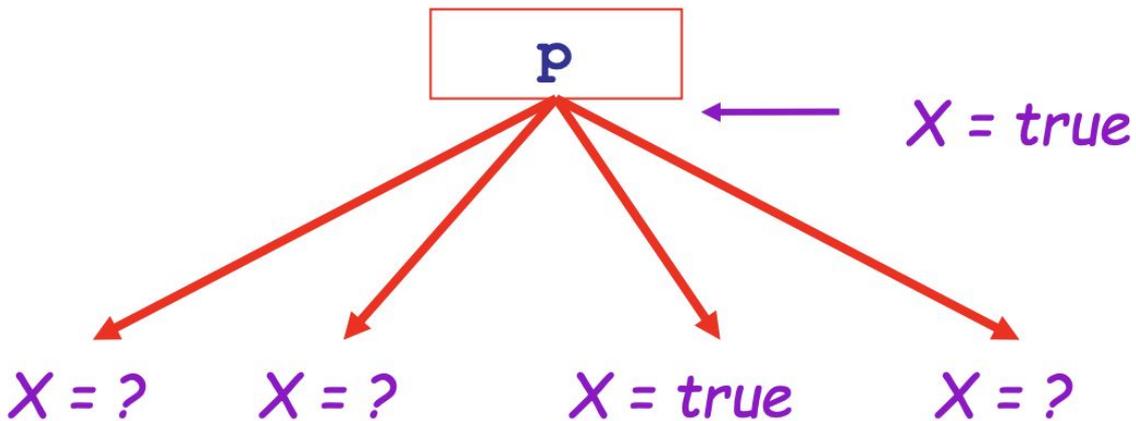
# Secure information flow analysis: rule 3



$$H_{\text{in}}(x, s) = H_{\text{out}}(x, s)$$

(if  $s$  does not refer to  $x$ )

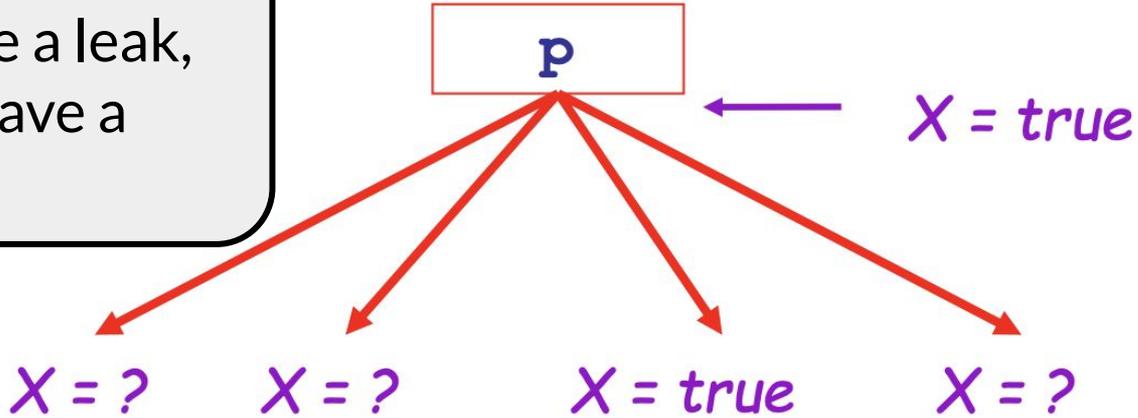
# Secure information flow analysis: rule 4



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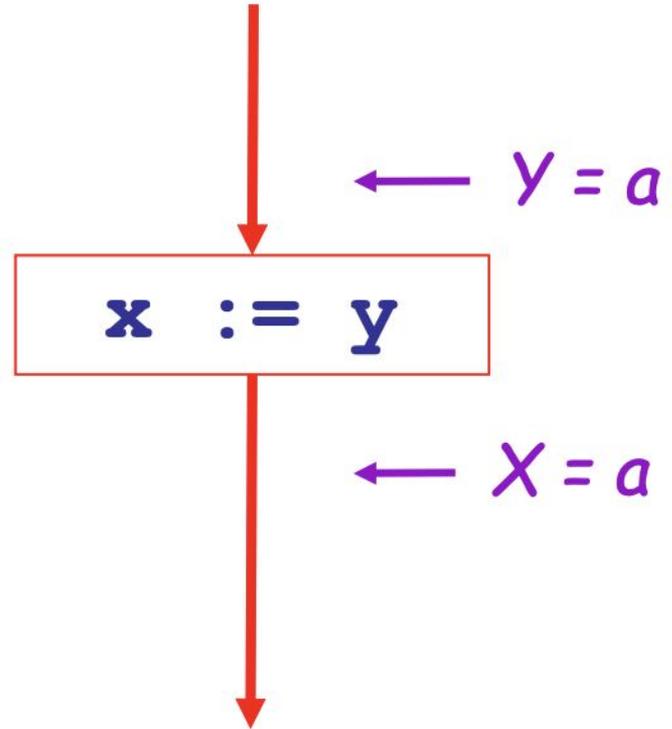
if there is **even one** way to have a leak, we might have a leak!



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

# Secure information flow analysis: rule 5

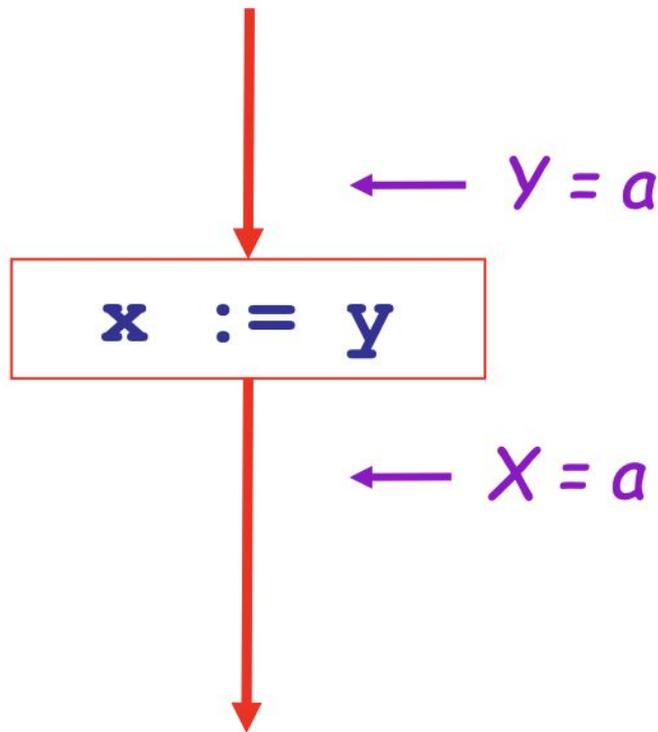
$$H_{\text{in}}(y, x := y) = H_{\text{out}}(x, x := y)$$



# Secure information flow analysis: rule 5

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

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



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false is like bottom in our nullness analysis!

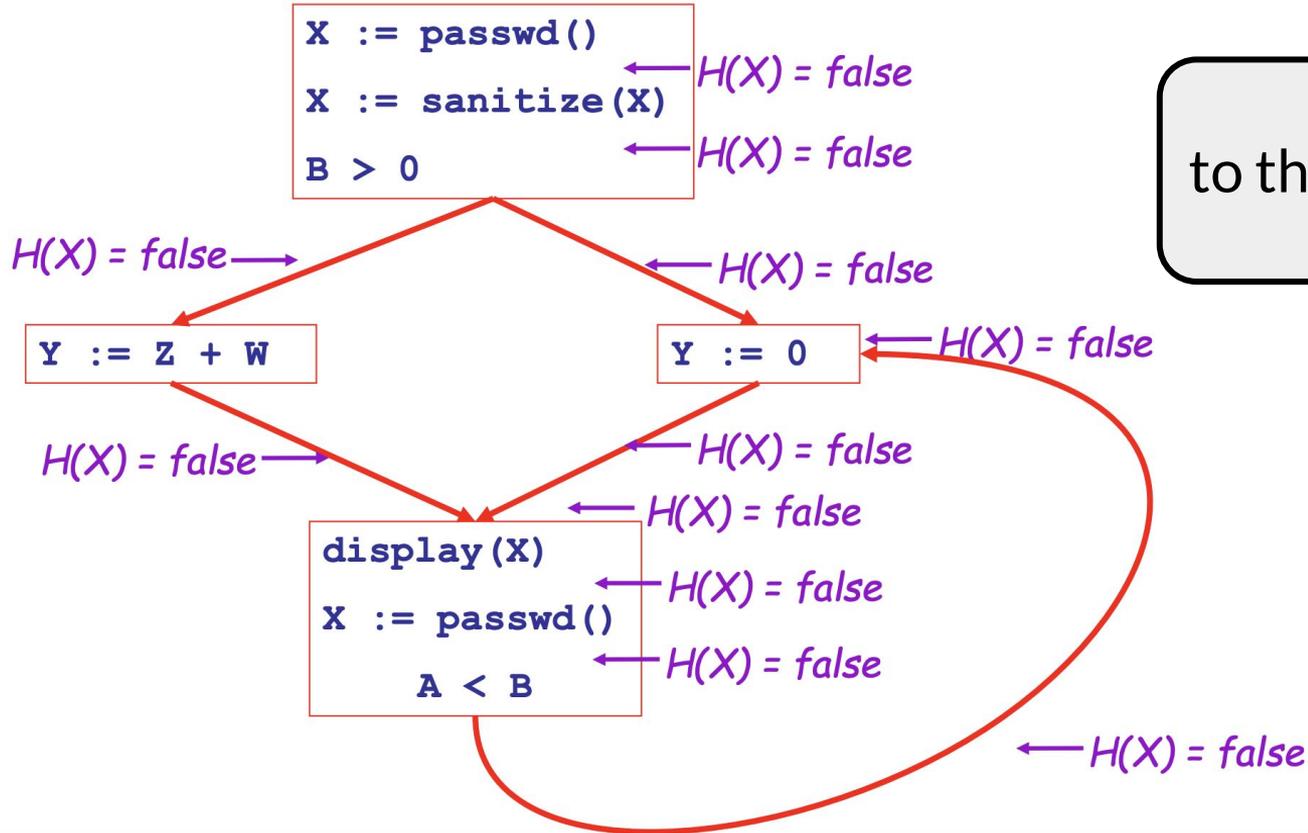
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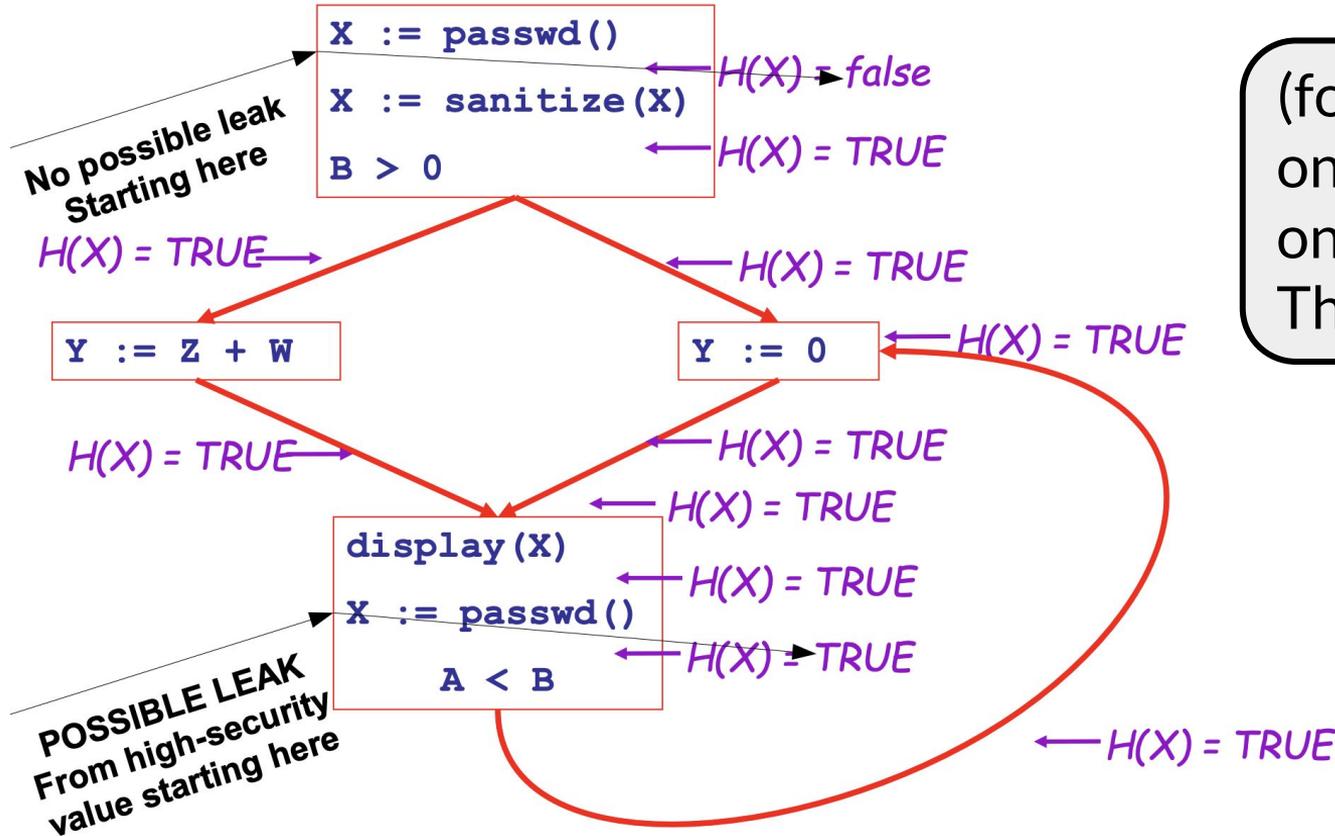
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3. once the analysis reaches a fixed point, **issue a warning** at any source  $(x, s)$  where  $H_{out}(x, s)$  is true (= leaks sensitive information)

# Secure information flow analysis: example



to the whiteboard!

# Secure information flow analysis: example



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

# Agenda: dataflow analysis

- last few slides of static vs dynamic analysis
- key ideas in static analysis design
- dataflow analysis
  - nullness analysis example
  - secure information flow analysis example
- **limitations of static analysis**
- static analysis in practice

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    - but, in practice, we can get very close

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    - security rules, etc.

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**heuristic** is a fancy word for “best effort”

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used in HW7

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Type qualifier      Basetype

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`@Negative int x`

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`@NonConstant int x`

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Qualified type

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

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  - tool verifies that code matches that specification
  - very high effort, but enables sound reasoning about complex properties (= worth it for very high value systems)

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    - 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)

# Course announcements

- Any remaining time today: start HW7
  - HW7 involves running the Infer static analyzer on some subject programs and then analyzing the results (by hand)
- I have your midterms with me at the front of the room if you'd like them back
  - (they are sorted by UCID, so please tell me your UCID)