

Static Analysis by Abstract Interpretation

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Table of Contents

1 Background

- What is static analysis?
- Why static analysis?
- How to do static analysis?

2 CS1231S speedrun

- Primer: Partially ordered sets
- Primer: Lattices

3 Formal framework

- Abstract interpretation
- Guaranteeing soundness, optimality, and termination

Table of Contents

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What is static analysis?

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All non-trivial semantic properties of programs are undecidable.

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Rice's Theorem

All non-trivial semantic properties of programs are undecidable.

Static analysis "cheats" by approximating the property, e.g. giving more than one possible outcome

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Why static analysis?

Static analysis can provide solutions to some issues programmers are interested in:

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- Not writing bugs
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- Type checking and inference
- Faster compiled code
- Solve the halting problem?

Example: Halt analysis

```
x = input()
if x == "67":
    print("haha")
else:
    print("tung tung tung sahur")
```

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A simple static analysis can decide that both code paths will halt.

Example: Halt analysis

```
x = 100
while x > 67:
    x = x + 1
```

Example: Halt analysis

```
x = 100
while x > 67:
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A simple static analysis can decide that the while loop is unescapable

Example: Halt analysis

```
def collatz(n):  
    if n == 1:  
        return n  
  
    if n % 2 == 0:  
        return collatz(n // 2)  
    else:  
        return collatz(3 * n + 1)  
  
collatz(int(input()))
```

Example: Halt analysis

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def collatz(n):  
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collatz(int(input()))
```

No analysis can figure out whether the collatz conjecture is true or false (as of today), hence the analysis can only say the program will **maybe** halt.

Soundness and completeness

One way of achieving decidability is by over approximating on the set of possible outcomes. e.g. if a program has 3 possible outcomes $\{O_1, O_2, O_3\}$, an analysis may over approximate and give $\{O_1, O_2, O_3, O_4, O_5\}$

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An analysis method is complete if it does not output a behaviour that can never happen*

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An analysis method can not be both sound and complete, typically most analysis choose soundness at the cost of completeness.

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- How to guarantee the analysis will terminate

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A partially ordered set (poset) is a set with a partial order ($\leq$) on it.

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For example, $\mathbb{Z}$ is partially ordered by $\leq$.

However, $\leq$ on $\mathbb{Z}$ is also a total order, as any two elements of $\mathbb{Z}$ can be compared. In contrast, any two elements in a set with a partial order may not necessarily be comparable.

Powerset example

The powerset of any set $\mathcal{P}(S)$ is partially ordered by inclusion $\subseteq$.

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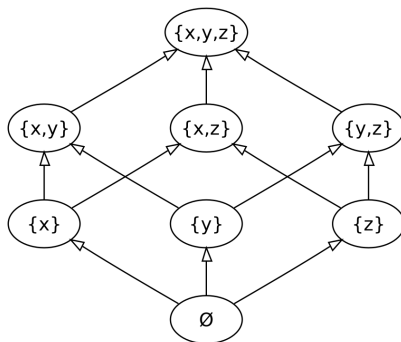


Table of Contents

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Join

A join is a binary function that returns the **least upper bound** between the two arguments. Formally, j is a join of x and y if $x \leq j$ and $y \leq j$, and for any $w \in S$, $x \leq w$ and $y \leq w \implies j \leq w$

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Meet

A meet is a binary function that returns the **greatest lower bound** between the two arguments. Formally, m is a meet of x and y if $m \leq x$ and $m \leq y$, and for any $w \in S$, $w \leq x$ and $w \leq y \implies w \leq m$

Remark

Every finite lattice has a maximal top element ($\top$) and a minimal bottom element ($\perp$).

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$\perp$ acts as the identity for join and $\top$ acts as the identity for meet.

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- We define an abstraction that maps the concrete states to an **abstract domain**
- We model the **concrete semantics** of the program in the abstract domain as **abstract semantics**
- Our analysis implements the abstract semantics on the abstract domain, hence an “abstract interpreter”

Concrete and abstract domains

The concrete domain represents the actual possible states of a program.

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Far too expensive to keep track of all possible values of an integer! Sets could be as large as 2^{32} elements

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Instead of tracking every possible integer i could be, we could use an interval instead, representing i as $[0, 1000000]$

We lose precision, but now we only need to store 2 integers.

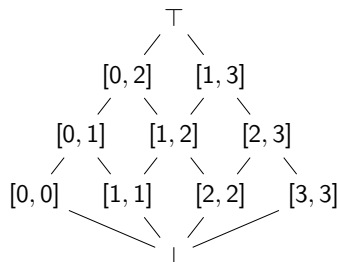
Lattices as domains

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A point on the lattice can be thought of as a specific program state

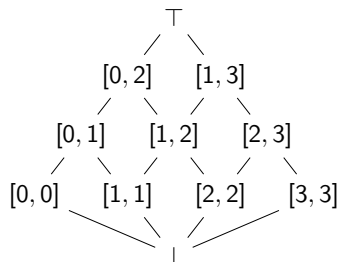


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As we go up the lattice, we have less precise information about the program state



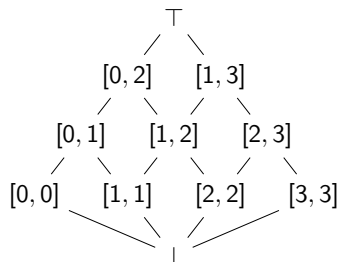
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We can use the join to represent two program states merging.



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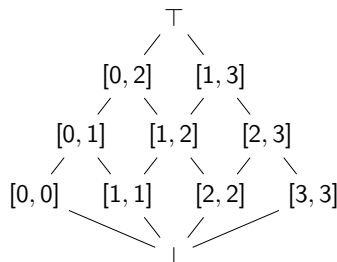
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A point on the lattice can be thought of as a specific program state

As we go up the lattice, we have less precise information about the program state

We can use the join to represent two program states merging.

We can also use the meet to “refine” program states when new constraints are introduced



Concrete vs abstract semantics

The concrete semantics of a language describes exactly how the program will execute on the actual values

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Concrete semantics don't work on our abstract domains, we need to define a new **abstract semantics**

Transfer functions

Transfer functions are what implement the abstract semantics.

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For example, if working with the interval domain, then

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- 2 If $u_2 \leq l_1$, then result is False

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- ❸ Otherwise, the result is $\top$

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Another example: $[l_1, u_1] < [l_2, u_2]$

- ① If $u_1 < l_2$, then result is True
- ② If $u_2 \leq l_1$, then result is False
- ③ Otherwise, the result is $\top$

In the end, we just have to make sure the transfer functions are sound

Interval analysis example

```
x = 1
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before analysis:

```
# x:  $\perp$   
x = 1  
while x < 11:  
    x += 2  
  
if x == 11:  
    x = 12  
  
print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 1]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

At the end of iteration 1:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 1]
while x < 11:
    x += 2
    # x: [3, 3]

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 2:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 1] ∪ [3, 3]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 2:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 3]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

At the end of iteration 2:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 3]
while x < 11:
    x += 2
    # x: [3, 5]

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 3:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 3] ∪ [3, 5]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 3:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 5]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 4:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 7]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 5:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 9]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

Before iteration 6:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 11]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

During iteration 6:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 11]
while x < 11:
    # x: [1, 11]  $\cap$  [-inf, 10]
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

During iteration 6:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 11]
while x < 11:
    # x: [1, 10]
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After iteration 6:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 11]
while x < 11:
    x += 2
    # x: [3, 12]

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After iteration 6:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 12]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After the loop:

```
x = 1
# x: [1, 12]
while x < 11:
    x += 2

# x: [1, 12]  $\cap$  [11, inf]
if x == 11:
    x = 12

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After the loop:

```
x = 1
while x < 11:
    x += 2

# x: [11, 12]
if x == 11:
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print(x)
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Interval analysis example

After the loop:

```
x = 1
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# x: [11, 12]
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    x = 12
    # x: [12, 12]

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After the loop:

```
x = 1
while x < 11:
    x += 2

# x: [11, 12]
if x == 11:
    x = 12
    # x: [12, 12]
else:
    pass
    # x: [12, 12]

print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After iteration 6:

```
x = 1
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```
while x < 11:
```

```
    x += 2
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```
if x == 11:
```

```
    x = 12
```

```
# x: [12, 12]
```

```
print(x)
```

Interval analysis example

After iteration 6:

```
x = 1
while x < 11:
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if x == 11:
    x = 12

# x: [12, 12]
print(x)
```

Our analysis stops when there is nothing else we can update, i.e. we have reached a **fixed point**.

Interval analysis example

After iteration 6:

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if x == 11:
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# x: [12, 12]
print(x)
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Fixed points

Abstract interpretation aims to find fixed points in the presence of loops or recursion

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Let γ be a function that maps elements from L_A to L_C , known as the **concretization function**

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Let L_C be our concrete domain and L_A be the abstract domain.

Let α be a function that maps elements from L_C to L_A , known as the **abstraction function**

Let γ be a function that maps elements from L_A to L_C , known as the **concretization function**

α approximates our concrete values, γ converts the approximations back to real world values.

Soundness

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Abstraction never loses any information but it may include some extra “false” information.

Galois connection

For any concrete set S and any abstract value a , if our abstraction and concretization functions satisfy:

$$\alpha(S) \leq a \iff S \subseteq \gamma(a),$$

then we have a **galois connection**.

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Galois connection

For any concrete set S and any abstract value a , if our abstraction and concretization functions satisfy:

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then we have a **galois connection**.

Galois connections gives soundness and optimality.

Let $a = \alpha(S)$, since $\alpha(S) \leq \alpha(S)$, by the galois connection we have $S \subseteq \gamma(\alpha(S))$

Suppose $S \subseteq \gamma(a)$, then a is a valid approximation of S . By the galois connection, $\alpha(S)$ is always at least as precise as a .

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Our transfer functions are monotonic if they preserve the ordering of the lattice.

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Since we are guaranteed to find this fixed point, we are guaranteed termination!

Wrapping things up

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Monotonic transfer functions guarantees finding the most precise possible analysis in the abstract domain