Lecture Notes: Concolic Testing

Jonathan Aldrich and Claire Le Goues
aldrich@cs.cmu.edu, clegoues@cs.cmu.edu

1 Motivation

Companies today spend a huge amount of time and energy testing software to determine whether it does the right thing, and to find and then eliminate bugs. A major challenge is writing a set of test cases that covers all of the source code, as well as finding inputs that lead to difficult-to-trigger corner case defects.

Symbolic execution, discussed in the last lecture, is a promising approach to exploring different execution paths through programs. However, it has significant limitations. For paths that are long and involve many conditions, SMT solvers may not be able to find satisfying assignments to variables that lead to a test case that follows that path. Other paths may be short but involve computations that are outside the capabilities of the solver, such as non-linear arithmetic or cryptographic functions. For example, consider the following function:

```c
int testme(int x, int y) {
    if (bbox(x) == y) {
        ERROR;
    } else {
        // OK
    }
}
```

If we assume that the implementation of `bbox` is unavailable, or is too complicated for a theorem prover to reason about, then symbolic execution may not be able to determine whether the error is reachable.

Concolic testing overcomes these problems by combining concrete execution (i.e. testing) with symbolic execution. Symbolic execution is used to solve for inputs that lead along a certain path. However, when a part of the path condition is infeasible for the SMT solver to handle, we substitute values from a test run of the program. In many cases, this allows us to make progress towards covering parts of the code that we could not reach through either symbolic execution or randomly generated tests.

2 Goals

We will consider the specific goal of automatically unit testing programs to find assertion violations and run-time errors such as divide by zero. We can reduce these problems to input generation: given a statement $s$ in program $P$, compute input $i$ such that $P(i)$ executes $s$.

---

1. The word concolic is a portmanteau of concrete and symbolic
2. This formulation is due to Wolfram Schulte

---
if we have a statement `assert x > 5`, we can translate that into the code:

1. if (!(x > 5))
2.   ERROR;

Now if line 2 is reachable, the assertion is violated. We can play a similar trick with run-time errors. For example, a statement involving division `x = 3 / i` can be placed under a guard:

1. if (i != 0)
2.   x = 3 / i;
3. else
4.   ERROR;

3 Overview

Consider the testme example from the motivating section. Although symbolic analysis cannot solve for values of `x` and `y` that allow execution to reach the error, we can generate random test cases. These random test cases are unlikely to reach the error: for each `x` there is only one `y` that will work, and random input generation is unlikely to find it. However, concolic testing can use the concrete value of `x` and the result of running `bbox(x)` in order to solve for a matching `y` value. Running the code with the original `x` and the solution for `y` results in a test case that reaches the error.

In order to understand how concolic testing works in detail, consider a more realistic and more complete example:

```
int double (int v) {
   return 2*v;
}

void bar(int x, int y) {
   z = double (y);
   if (z == x) {
      if (x > y+10) {
         ERROR;
      }
   }
}
```

We want to test the function `bar`. We start with random inputs such as `x = 22, y = 7`. We then run the test case and look at the path that is taken by execution: in this case, we compute `z = 14` and skip the outer conditional. We then execute symbolically along this path. Given inputs `x = x_0, y = y_0`, we discover that at the end of execution `z = 2 * y_0`, and we come up with a path condition `2 * y_0 == x_0`.

In order to reach other statements in the program, the concolic execution engine picks a branch to reverse. In this case there is only one branch touched by the current execution path; this is the branch that produced the path condition above. We negate the path condition to get `2 * y_0 == x_0` and ask the SMT solver to give us a satisfying solution.

Assume the SMT solver produces the solution `x_0 = 2, y_0 = 1`. We run the code with that input. This time the first branch is taken but the second one is not. Symbolic execution returns the same end result, but this time produces a path condition `2 * y_0 == x_0 ∧ x_0 ≤ y_0 + 10`. 

2
Now to explore a different path we could reverse either test, but we’ve already explored the path that involves negating the first condition. So in order to explore new code, the concolic execution engine negates the condition from the second if statement, leaving the first as-is. We hand the formula \(2 \times y_0 = x_0 \land x_0 > y_0 + 10\) to an SMT solver, which produces a solution \(x_0 = 30, y_0 = 15\). This input leads to the error.

The example above involves no problematic SMT formulas, so regular symbolic execution would suffice. The following example illustrates a variant of the example in which concolic execution is essential:

```c
int foo(int v) {
    return v*v\%50;
}

void baz(int x, int y) {
    z = foo(y);
    if (z == x) {
        if (x > y+10) {
            ERROR;
        }
    }
}
```

Although the code to be tested in `baz` is almost the same as `bar` above, the problem is more difficult because of the non-linear arithmetic and the modulus operator in `foo`. If we take the same two initial inputs, \(x = 22, y = 7\), symbolic execution gives us the formula \(z = (y_0 \times y_0)\%50\), and the path condition is \(x_0! = (y_0 \times y_0)\%50\). This formula is not linear in the input \(y_0\), and so it may defeat the SMT solver.

We can address the issue by treating `foo`, the function that includes nonlinear computation, concretely instead of symbolically. In the symbolic state we now get \(z = foo(y_0)\), and for \(y_0 = 7\) we have \(z = 49\). The path condition becamse \(foo(y_0)! = x_0\), and when we negate this we get \(foo(y_0) == x_0\) or \(49 == x_0\). This is trivially solvable with \(x_0 == 49\). We leave \(y_0 = 7\) as before; this is the best choice because \(y_0\) is an input to `foo(y_0)` so if we change it, then setting \(x_0 = 49\) may not lead to taking the first conditional. In this case, the new test case of \(x = 49, y = 7\) finds the error.

4 Implementation

Ball and Daniel [1] give the following pseudocode for concolic execution (which they call dynamic symbolic execution):

```c
i = an input to program P
while defined(i):
    p = path covered by execution P(i)
    cond = pathCondition(p)
    s = SMT(Not(cond))
    i = s.model()
```

Broadly, this just systematizes the approach illustrated in the previous section. However, a number of details are worth noting:
First, when negating the path condition, there is a choice about how to do it. As discussed above, the usual approach is to put the path conditions in the order in which they were generated by symbolic execution. The concolic execution engine may target a particular region of code for execution. It finds the first branch for which the path to that region diverges from the current test case. The path conditions are left unchanged up to this branch, but the condition for this branch is negated. Any conditions beyond the branch under consideration are simply omitted. With this approach, the solution provided by the SMT solver will result in execution reaching the branch and then taking it in the opposite direction, leading execution closer to the targeted region of code.

Second, when generating the path condition, the concolic execution engine may choose to replace some expressions with constants taken from the run of the test case, rather than treating those expressions symbolically. These expressions can be chosen for one of several reasons. First, we may choose formulas that are difficult to invert, such as non-linear arithmetic or cryptographic hash functions. Second, we may choose code that is highly complex, leading to formulas that are too large to solve efficiently. Third, we may decide that some code is not important to test, such as low-level libraries that the code we are writing depends on. While sometimes these libraries could be analyzable, when they add no value to the testing process, they simply make the formulas harder to solve than they are when the libraries are analyzed using concrete data.

5 Acknowledgments

The structure of these notes and the examples are adapted from a presentation by Koushik Sen.

References