

Java Bytecode Verification Using Model Checking^{*}

Joachim Posegga and Harald Vogt

Deutsche Telekom AG
Technologiezentrum
IT Security
D-64307 Darmstadt
Tel. +49 6151 83-7881, Fax -4090
{posegga|vogth}@tzd.telekom.de

Abstract. We provide an abstract interpretation for Java bytecode programs to build finite state models of these programs. We describe the bytecode constraints as CTL formulas which can be checked against the finite models by a (standard) model checker. We see a practical way to perform bytecode verification on a formal basis in that it could help to achieve higher security and open the door for further extensions to prove additional properties of Java bytecode.

1 Introduction

Java bytecode verification aims at proving that a given bytecode program (e.g., a compiled Java method) conforms to certain security requirements intended to protect the executing platform from malicious code. For reasons of efficiency, the necessary checks are performed once before the program is executed rather than during runtime. Current implementations of this process use techniques from data flow analysis to assure the required properties. Although there exists at least one formalization of the process of bytecode verification ([Gol97]) and one thorough implementation of the bytecode verifier ([SGB98]), there seems to be no implementation which actually is built upon a rigid formal description.

The goal of this work is to show how Java bytecode verification can be implemented as solving a model checking problem¹. We are aiming at using a standard model checker tool like SMV [McM93], so that we are able to describe bytecode verification at a very high level in terms of CTL formulas. This gives us both a distinct description of the problem and an efficient implementation. The ideas presented in this paper were introduced in [PV98] in the context of Java smart cards where the demand for security is very high.

In this paper, we will not treat all bytecode instructions in every detail but rather concentrate on the `jsr/ret` instructions which are used for implementing

^{*} The opinions expressed in this paper are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of Deutsche Telekom AG.

¹ The idea of implementing a data flow analysis as a model checking problem seems to have been first published in [Ste91].

subroutines within bytecode programs. This is because they are rarely treated in the literature and they raise special problems for bytecode verification. The paper [SA98] deals with these instructions by tracking subroutine calls in a stack-like structure. We take up this idea and introduce a structure for recording the active subroutines at each program point.

Bytecode subroutines impose certain difficulties on bytecode verification. First, the variables used by the subroutine must have appropriate types for the subroutine; this limits the use of these variables in the code before the subroutine call. (In our approach, this is easily solved: for each instruction, the type of the used variables is checked the same way, regardless of the path the instruction was reached.) Second, the `ret` instruction must be used in a well-structured way such that the variable used by `ret` contains a (valid) return address. Additionally, subroutines may not be called recursively, and several subroutines can be completed by returning from an inner subroutine call. By using a list-like structure to record the active subroutines at each program point, we are able to decide if an execution of `jsr/ret` instructions is possibly violating these constraints.

We start by introducing an abstract interpretation for bytecode instructions and programs in Section 2. This interpretation is finite, allowing us to build a finite state system from a bytecode program which is amenable to model checking. In Section 3, we show how to actually build such a system for the SMV model checker from our description. The properties which have to be checked on the finite state system are constructed in Section 4.

2 An Abstract Interpretation for Bytecode

2.1 Bytecode Programs

The operational semantics of bytecode instructions are given in terms of transition rules on a state system. We are employing the formalism of Abstract State Machines [Gur95] to describe bytecode programs. Given one rule for every instruction of a bytecode program, we compose a rule for the whole program.

A bytecode program is a sequence of instructions $I_1; I_2; \dots; I_n$. Given a rule R_I for every bytecode instruction I , the semantics of a bytecode program is given as the (block) rule

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{if } pc = 1 \text{ then } R_{I_1} \\ \text{if } pc = 2 \text{ then } R_{I_2} \\ \dots \\ \text{if } pc = n \text{ then } R_{I_n} . \end{array}$$

The rules R_{I_i} are instantiations of rule schemes for the respective instructions, where certain placeholders (e.g., denoting the goal of a `jsr` instruction) are substituted by concrete values.

2.2 Semantics of Instructions

We supply a generic ASM rule (a rule scheme) for every considered bytecode instruction. A rule R_I is the composition of rules S_I and S'_I . S_I denotes the rule

which gives the “standard” semantics of the bytecode instruction I , whereas S'_I gives an extension to the standard semantics. We will use the latter to explain how the instructions behave on additional state variables, namely the *subroutine call chain* which records the active subroutines. It is required that rules do not *clash*, i.e. the rules S_I and S'_I may not perform contradictory updates. As the rules S'_I make updates on additional state variables only, this is guaranteed.

The standard semantics of bytecode instructions is given by the following rules:

$$S_{jsr} L \equiv \begin{array}{l} opds := push(opds, pc+1) \\ pc := L \end{array}$$

$$S_{ret} x \equiv \begin{array}{l} pc := loc(x) \end{array}$$

$$S_{astore} x \equiv \begin{array}{l} loc(x) := top(opds) \\ opds := pop(opds) \\ pc := pc+1 \end{array}$$

The extension to the standard semantics is given by the following rules:

$$S'_{jsr} L \equiv \begin{array}{l} sr := L \cdot sr \end{array}$$

$$S'_{ret} x \equiv \begin{array}{l} let (_, sr') = split(sr, loc(x)) \\ in \\ sr := sr' \end{array}$$

L serves as a placeholder for the goal of the `jsr` instruction. It is replaced by a concrete address (of a program point) when the rule is instantiated to build the ASM for a bytecode program. (The underscore `_` in the `let` statement denotes an anonymous variable the value of which is not used subsequently.)

The functions *push*, *pop* and *top* are used as the common operations on stacks. The plus sign $+$ denotes the addition on natural numbers. The subroutine call chain is implemented as a sequence of labels with ε denoting the empty sequence, the \cdot operator used as adding a label to a sequence. Later on, we will use the predicate \in , $a \in u$ to be true iff the label a occurs in the sequence u . *split* is a function which splits a sequence into two parts at a location pointed to by the first occurrence of a given value (suppose $a \notin u$):

$$split(uav, a) = (ua, v).$$

All of these function are *external* or *static* w.r.t. the ASM. This means, they are not updated by ASM rules and are not part of the dynamic aspects of the ASM. To build a finite abstraction of the ASM, it is required to give finite abstractions of these functions.

2.3 Concrete Types and their Abstraction

By providing finite abstractions of the (external) functions used in the rules, we define the corresponding abstract rules which can be translated into a finite state system.

To create a finite state system from a bytecode program (represented as the corresponding composite ASM rule) it is necessary to restrict the universes used in the ASM rule to finite sets and to give finite interpretations of the used functions.

First, we describe the used concrete types. For a given bytecode program, the number of used variables is fixed. They are numbered onwards from 0, so their index range $Varnum$ is an interval of the natural numbers starting from 0. Nat denotes the natural numbers. The universe $Word$ contains all values of primitive types. The type identifiers are given in the left column, and the state components (internal ASM functions) in the right one:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 Pc == Nat & pc : Pc \\
 Loc == Varnum \rightarrow Word & loc : Loc \\
 Opd == Stack(Word) & opd : Opd \\
 Sr == Nat^* & sr : Sr .
 \end{array}$$

Now, we give finite abstractions of the types in the left column. Their structure is generic but their size depends on the given bytecode program. However, they are fixed for and can be computed from a given bytecode program. Also, the maximum height h of the operand stack is fixed for a given bytecode program (and supplied in the header of the bytecode program). Suppose the bytecode instructions are given in an array $code$ with the length $codelength$.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 Pc == \{1, \dots, codelength\} \cup \{undef\} \\
 PrimType == Pc \\
 Loc == Varnum \rightarrow PrimType \\
 Opd == Stack_h(PrimType) \\
 Lab == \{L : ex. i \text{ with } code(i) = jsr L\} \\
 Sr == Lab^* \cup \{undef\}
 \end{array}$$

Pc is explicitly restricted to the possible addresses of instructions in the $code$ array, extended by a special value $undef$ denoting an invalid address. $PrimType$ substitutes $Word$, and Lab substitutes the natural numbers Nat in Sr . These universes are sufficient for our purpose, as we consider a very limited set of instructions only. However, they can be extended if more instructions are needed.

In ASMs, the value $undef$ is actually contained in any universe by default. However, we include this value explicitly to make clear which values are used and that they must be properly included later in the description of the finite state system.

The structure of the instruction rules is not changed when building a finite ASM. But the external functions are substituted with finite abstractions. We give the definitions of the abstracted functions:

$$push(u, a) = \begin{cases} \{au\} & \text{if } |u| < h \\ \{undef\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$pop(u) = \begin{cases} \{v\} & \text{for } u = av \\ \{undef\} & \text{if } u \in \{\varepsilon, undef\} \end{cases}$$

$$top(u) = \begin{cases} \{a\} & \text{for } u = av \\ \{undef\} & \text{if } u \in \{\varepsilon, undef\} \end{cases}$$

$$n + i = \begin{cases} \{m\} & \text{with } m = n+i, \text{ if } n+i \leq \text{codelength} \\ \{undef\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$a \cdot u = \begin{cases} \{au\} & \text{if } a \notin u \\ \{undef\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$split(u, a) = \begin{cases} \{(wa, v)\} & \text{if } u = wav \\ \{undef\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

By substituting these definitions in the ASM rule for a bytecode program, we get a *finite ASM* since all universes are finite and no universe extensions occur. This ASM can be seen as a description of a *finite state system* where the state space is defined by the possible values of the (internal) functions.

Note that in the general case, the abstract functions are *nondeterministic* (though there are no nondeterministic functions for the subset of bytecode instructions we consider here). Therefore, the right hand sides of the defining equations are sets of possible values. During “execution” of the ASM rule, one of the possible values is actually chosen to determine the successor state.

Note also that the abstracted functions have to be *homomorphic* w.r.t. to the concrete functions, i.e. the condition

$$y = f(x) \Rightarrow h(y) \in f_h(h(x))$$

must hold. This ensures that conditions that are proven to hold in the abstract system carry over to the concrete system. In CTL, this applies only to formulas that are quantified over all execution paths, therefore we will forbid the use of the E quantifier (stating the existence of a path) in specifying bytecode properties. See [CGL94] for further details.

3 Building a Finite State System

Our approach is based on unlabelled transitions, since a bytecode program takes no input during execution. The choice of the successor state depends only on the internal state of the program.

A bytecode program is executed deterministically by the VM. By abstracting to finite types, conditional branches become nondeterministic choices since the branching depends on concrete values that are not accessible anymore. Therefore,

a successor state is nondeterministically chosen in the abstract system from the set of possible successor states which is determined by the transition relation. Thus, we define finite state systems as follows.

Definition 1. *A finite state system is a tuple $M = (S, R, I)$ where S is a finite set of states; $R \subseteq S \times S$ is the transition relation; $I \subseteq S$ is the set of initial states.*

3.1 Translation of ASM Rules

For model checking, we are interested in a representation of the state system on which the necessary computations can be performed efficiently. The model checker SMV, for example, takes a propositional formula as an input description of the transition relation where two variable sets X and X' occur. The variables $x \in X$ denote the *current* values of the state variables and $x' \in X'$ denote the *successor* values. By internally representing a propositional formula as a BDD, the transition relation can be concisely represented and the Boolean operations can be computed efficiently.

The state space S consists of the ASM functions *pc*, *loc*, *opd*, *sr*. For SMV, the following variables are used to represent the state variables:

<code>pc</code>	<i>pc</i>
<code>loc0, ..., locN</code>	for the array <i>loc</i>
<code>opd0, ..., opdH₁</code>	for the stack positions on <i>opds</i>
<code>opdsize</code>	holding the current size of <i>opds</i>
<code>sr0, ..., srH₂</code>	for the positions in the list <i>sr</i>
<code>srsiz</code>	holding the current size of <i>sr</i> .

(Note that this is just a suggestion how the state space can be represented in SMV. There are many possibilities to translate a finite ASM into a SMV model.)

The initial state is determined as follows. `pc` is set to 1. The `loci` variables are set to initial values according to the signature of the bytecode program. All `opdi` and `srj` are initialized to *undef* and `opdsize` and `srsiz` are set to 0. This matches the initializations made by the JVM when starting to execute a bytecode program.

To feed our transition relation (represented by an ASM rule) into a model checker, we have to translate it into a propositional formula ϕ . The transition relation R_ϕ represented by this formula must fulfill the condition

$$R_\phi = \{(s, t) : \text{the rule fires at } s \text{ and results in } t\}.$$

(An efficient algorithm to construct a representation of R from a given rule set is currently being implemented.)

3.2 Atomic Propositions

State properties are described in terms of propositional formulas built from atomic propositions. With SMV atomic propositions are essentially equations or

integer comparisons. All common propositional connectives may be used. However, we require that negations occur only at the level of state propositions (i.e., formulas without any CTL quantifiers) to be able to carry over properties of the abstract system to the concrete one (see [CGL94]).

4 Security Properties

The constraints on bytecode programs are informally described in [LY96]. We give a formalization in terms of CTL formulas and argue that they meet the informal description. We could also show (semi-)formally that they correspond/are equivalent to other descriptions like [Gol97, Qia98, SA98].

We concentrate here on the `jsr/ret` instructions.

4.1 No Recursion

It must be assured that no subroutine is recursively called. As we are recording the active subroutines in the sequence sr , this constraint can be expressed as the following pre-condition of the `jsr` instruction:

$$L \notin sr$$

To be able to write this condition as a CTL formula in SMV syntax, we have to expand the predicate \in to a propositional formula. The predicate \in can be coded as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} L \in sr \equiv & \\ & (\text{srsize} = 0 \rightarrow \text{false}) \ \& \\ & (\text{srsize} = 1 \rightarrow L = \text{sr0}) \ \& \\ & (\text{srsize} = 2 \rightarrow L = \text{sr0} \mid L = \text{sr1}) \ \& \\ & \dots \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for each program point n with $\text{code}(n) = \text{jsr } L$ we have to check the following formula:

$$\text{AG } \text{pc} = n \rightarrow \neg(L \in sr)$$

The preceding quantifier **AG** says that the following formula must hold on every state in every execution path. By the antecedent $\text{pc} = n$ of the implication we restrict the succedent to those states that represent the program point n (which are those with a `jsr` instruction).

4.2 Returning from Subroutines

Another constraint is that whenever a `ret x` instruction is executed, x must contain a return address value and the respective subroutine must be active. This is expressed as a pre-condition to the `ret` instruction:

$$\bigvee_{(r,L) \in Z} (x = r \rightarrow L \in sr)$$

where $Z = \{(r, L) : code(r - 1) = jsr L, r > 1\}$ which is the set of valid return addresses associated with the respective subroutine entry labels. This formula expands to a SMV formula φ in a straightforward way.

The CTL formula we have to check for each program point n where a `ret` instruction occurs then is:

$$AG \text{ pc} = n \rightarrow \varphi$$

5 Related and Future Work

Our approach is based on a formal semantics of Java bytecode. Our description builds mainly upon the original description in [LY96] but we are aware of the existing formalizations in [Ber97, ZG97, BS98, Qia98].

Some notations were used from [BS98] where Abstract State Machines are used to describe the Java Virtual Machine with the goal of defining a platform for correct compilation of Java code.

It remains to connect our approach to other formalizations of bytecode verification, e.g. the one in [Gol97]. This could lead to higher confidence in our approach and reveal if there are flaws in any of the formalizations.

By providing a generic tool which takes an abstract interpretation of bytecode semantics and formulas describing system properties, we hope to extend bytecode verification to check further properties of bytecode programs. One candidate, especially important in the field of Java smart cards, could be the resource consumption of bytecode programs. One would have to take into consideration certain garbage collection strategies used with smart cards to check that a bytecode program leaves no objects on the heap and give an appropriate abstract interpretation for the bytecode instructions and appropriate formulas.

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