# Example

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Given statement *Alice* says  $(s_1 \wedge s_2)$  how do we conclude that *Alice* says  $s_1$ . We use the following steps.

 $\begin{array}{ll} (\mathsf{s}_1 \wedge \mathsf{s}_2) \rightarrow \mathsf{s}_1 & & \mathrm{by} \ (1) \\ \\ \hline \textit{Alice} \ \mathsf{says} \ ((\mathsf{s}_1 \wedge \mathsf{s}_2) \rightarrow \mathsf{s}_1) & & \mathrm{by} \ (4) \\ \\ \\ \hline \textit{Alice} \ \mathsf{says} \ \mathsf{s}_1 & & & \mathrm{by} \ (3) \end{array}$ 

#### Axioms about principals

- $5 \hspace{0.2cm} (P \wedge Q) \hspace{0.2cm} \text{says s} \equiv (P \hspace{0.2cm} \text{says s}) \wedge (Q \hspace{0.2cm} \text{says s})$
- $6 \ (P \mid Q) \text{ says s} \equiv P \text{ says } (Q \text{ says s})$
- 7  $(P = Q) \rightarrow (P \text{ says s} \equiv Q \text{ says s})$ 
  - = is equality on principals.
- 8  $(P_1 | (P_2 | P_3)) = ((P_1 | P_2) | P_3)$

Quoting is associative.

 $(P_1 | (P_2 \land P_3)) = (P_1 | P_2) \land (P_1 | P_3)$ 

Quoting distributes over conjunction

- $(P \Rightarrow Q) \equiv (P = P \land Q)$
- $(P \text{ says } (Q \Rightarrow P)) \rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P)$

A principal is free to choose a representative.

Example We want to conclude  ${\sf s}$  from the three statements:

- $-(Alice \land Bob)$  says  $(Charlie \Rightarrow (Alice \land Bob))$
- $Charlie \mid Alice \text{ says s}$
- $-(Alice \text{ says s}) \rightarrow s$

 $\begin{array}{ll} (Alice \land Bob) \text{ says } (Charlie \Rightarrow (Alice \land Bob)) \\ \rightarrow (Charlie \Rightarrow (Alice \land Bob)) & \text{by } (11) \\ (Charlie \Rightarrow (Alice \land Bob)) & \text{by } (2) \\ Charlie = (Charlie \land Alice \land Bob) & \text{by } (10) \\ Charlie \text{ says } (Alice \text{ says s}) & \text{by } (6) \\ (Charlie \land Alice \land Bob) \text{ says } (Alice \text{ says s}) & \text{by } (7,2) \end{array}$ 

Alice says (Alice says s) by (5,1,2)Alice says  $((Alice \text{ says s}) \rightarrow s)$ by (4)by (3)Alice says s by (2)

S

Modeling Java stack inspection using ABLP

Wallach, Felten, 1998

Code can be digitally signed by a signer. We treat code, public keys and signers as principals. Stack frames created during execution of code are also treated as principals. Targets (resources to be protected) are also treated as principals.

#### Modeling Java stack inspection using ABLP

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#### Modeling Java stack inspection using ABLP

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Code can be digitally signed by a signer. We treat code, public keys and signers as principals. Stack frames created during execution of code are also treated as principals. Targets (resources to be protected) are also treated as principals. If K is a public key of S then we have the statement

$$K \Rightarrow S$$
 (S1)

If some code C was signed and K is the corresponding public key then we have the statement

$$K \text{ says } (C \Rightarrow K)$$
 (S2)

If F is the stack frame generated for executing code C then we have the statement

$$F \Rightarrow C$$
 (S3)

Frame credentials  $\Phi$  = set of all valid statements of the form S1,S2 and S3.

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Note that from K says  $(C \Rightarrow K)$  using (11) we can conclude  $C \Rightarrow K$ .

Further we can show transitivity of  $\Rightarrow$ : given  $A \Rightarrow B$  and  $B \Rightarrow C$  we have:  $A = A \land B$  by (10)  $B = B \land C$  by (10) Hence  $A = A \land B \land C = A \land C$ Hence we have  $A \Rightarrow C$  If F is the stack frame generated for executing code C then we have the statement

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Hence from S1, S2 and S3 we can conclude  $F \Rightarrow S$ .

For each target T we treat Ok(T) as an atomic statement.

It means that access to T is permitted.

We consider the axiom

 $(T \text{ says } Ok(T)) \rightarrow Ok(T)$  (S4)

A target is always free to grant permission to itself.

Targets are dummy principals. They never speak, but other (non-dummy) principals representing them may speak for them.

Target credentials  $\mathcal{T}$  is the set of such axioms for all targets T.

Policy for a virtual machine M is defined by a set access credentials  $\mathcal{A}_{M}$  of statements of the form  $P \Rightarrow T$  where P is a principal

and T is a target.

This rule means that the local policy of virtual machine M allows P to access T.

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Starting the program For the initial stack frame  $F_0$  $\mathcal{B}_{F_0} = \{ \mathsf{Ok}(T) \mid T \text{ is a target} \}.$ 

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# Enabling privileges

If stack frame F calls enable  $\mathsf{Privilege}(T)$  then we update:  $\mathcal{B}_F := \mathcal{B}_F \cup \{\mathsf{Ok}(T)\}.$ 

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# Function calls

Function call from stack frame F creates a new stack frame G.

 $\mathcal{B}_G = \{F \text{ says s} \mid s \in \mathcal{B}_F\}.$ 

# Disabling privileges

If stack frame F calls disablePrivilege(T) then we update  $\mathcal{B}_F := \mathcal{B}_F \setminus \{s \mid Ok(T) \text{ occurs in } s\}$ 

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#### Checking privileges

When F calls checkPrivilege(T) then we check that Ok(T) can be concluded from the set

 $\Phi \cup \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}} \cup \{F \text{ says s} \mid \mathsf{s} \in \mathcal{B}_{F}\}.$ 

Example Assume at the beginning that  $\mathcal{B}_{F_1} = \{\}$ .

Now  $F_1$  calls enablePrivilege $(T_1)$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}_{F_1} = \{\mathsf{Ok}(T_1)\}$ .

 $F_1$  calls checkPrivilege $(T_1)$ .

Hence we take the statement  $F_1$  says  $Ok(T_1)$ .

Let  $S_1$  be the signer of the code which produced the frame  $F_1$ . Then we conclude  $F_1 \Rightarrow S_1$  from the frame credentials  $\Phi$ .

If the access credentials set  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}$  has a statement  $S_1 \Rightarrow T_1$ then using the statement  $(T_1 \text{ says } \mathsf{Ok}(T_1)) \rightarrow \mathsf{Ok}(T_1)$  from Twe conclude  $\mathsf{Ok}(T_1)$ . Now  $F_1$  makes a function call and the new frame  $F_2$  calls enablePrivilege $(T_2)$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}_{F_2} = \{F_1 \text{ says Ok}(T_1), \text{Ok}(T_2)\}$ 

 $F_2$  makes function call and the new frame  $F_3$  calls disablePrivilege $(T_1)$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}_{F_3} = \{F_2 \text{ says Ok}(T_2)\}.$ 

 $F_3$  makes function call and the new frame  $F_4$  calls enablePrivilege $(T_2)$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}_{F_4} = \{(F_3 \mid F_2) \text{ says Ok}(T_2), \text{Ok}(T_2)\}.$ 

 $F_4$  calls revertPrivilege $(T_2)$ .

We have  $\mathcal{B}_{F_4} = \{(F_3 \mid F_2) \text{ says } \mathsf{Ok}(T_2)\}.$ 

Now  $F_4$  calls checkPrivilege $T_2$ .

We take the statement  $(F_4 | F_3 | F_2)$  says  $Ok(T_2)$  i.e.

# $F_4$ says $(F_3$ says $(F_2$ says $Ok(T_2)))$ .

Suppose from the frame credentials  $\Phi$  imply that

 $F_4 \Rightarrow S_4 \quad F_3 \Rightarrow S_3 \quad F_2 \Rightarrow S_2$ 

Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}$  further has statements

 $S_4 \Rightarrow T_2 \quad S_3 \Rightarrow T_2 \quad S_2 \Rightarrow T_2$ 

Then we conclude:

 $T_2$  says  $(F_3$  says  $(F_2$  says  $Ok(T_2)))$  $T_2$  says  $(T_2$  says  $(F_2$  says  $Ok(T_2)))$ 

```
T_2 says (T_2 says (T_2 says Ok(T_2)))
```

```
Further (T_2 \text{ says } Ok(T_2)) \rightarrow Ok(T_2) is in \mathcal{T}.
```

```
Hence T_2 says (T_2 says ((T_2 \text{ says Ok}(T_2)) \rightarrow \text{Ok}(T_2))).
```

```
Hence T_2 says (T_2 \text{ says Ok}(T_2)).
```

```
Similarly T_2 says Ok(T_2).
```

```
Hence Ok(T_2).
```

# **Security protocols**

For secure communication over an insecure network.

- Adversary can spy on messages,
- delete messages,
- modify messages,
- impersonate as Alice to Bob,
- deny having sent or received a message
- . . .

Encrypting and decrypting messages

... the naive way:

Instead of Alice  $\longrightarrow$  Bob: This is Alice. My credit card number is 1234567890123456 We have Alice  $\longrightarrow$  Bob: 6543210987654321 si rebmun drac tiderc yM .ecilA si sihT

Alice and Bob agree on the method of encryption and decryption.



# Cryptography with keys

Today we instead have the following picture:



The encryption and decryption algorithms are assumed to be publicly known. The security lies in the (secret) keys.



Cryptography of the pre-computer age Substitution ciphers: each character is mapped to the another character. The famous Caesar cipher:  $A \rightarrow D, B \rightarrow E, \ldots, Z \rightarrow C$ .

transposition cipher: shuffling around of characters.

Plaintext: this is alice my credit card number is 1234567890123456

thisisalic emycreditc ardnumberi s123456789 0123456

Ciphertext: teas0 hmr11 iyd22 scn33 iru44 sem55 adb66 lie7i tr8cc i9

# Private key cryptography



- The same key k is used for encryption and decryption
- Given message m and key k, we can compute the encrypted message  $\{m\}_k$
- Given the encrypted message  $\{m\}_k$  and the key k, we can compute the original message m

Suppose  $K_{ab}$  is a private key shared between A and B. A can send a message m to B using private key cryptography:

 $A \longrightarrow B : \{m\}_{K_{ab}}$ 

Only B can get back the message m.

A and B need to agree beforehand on a key  $K_{ab}$  which should not be disclosed to any one else

# Public key cryptography



• A chooses pair  $(K_a, K_a^{-1})$  of keys such that

- messages encrypted with  $K_a$  can be decrypted with  $K_a^{-1}$
- $K_a^{-1}$  cannot be calculated from  $K_a$
- A makes  $K_a$  public: this is the public key of A
- A keeps  $K_a^{-1}$  secret: this is the private key of A

## Public key cryptography

Then any B can send a message to A which only A can read:

 $B \longrightarrow A : \{m\}_{K_a}$ 

Sometimes we have the additional property: messages encrypted with  $K_a^{-1}$  can be decrypted with  $K_a$ 

Then A can send a message m to B

 $A \longrightarrow B : \{m\}_{K_a^{-1}}$ 

and B is sure that the message m was encrypted by A. Hence we have authentication

Properties of a one way hash function H:

- Given M, it is easy to compute H(M) (called message digest).
- Given H(M) is is difficult to find M' such that H(M) = H(M').

A sends to B the message M together with the encrypted hash value  $\{H(M)\}_{K_{ab}}$ .

Efficient means of demonstrating authenticity, since H(M) is of a fixed size.

Cryptography is not enough!

Intruder is more clever. He can attack even if the cryptographic algorithms are perfect.

Alice tells Bank to transfer  $\pounds 5000$  to Charlie's (intruder) account:

 $A \longrightarrow B : \{A, B, \text{ transfer 5000 euros } \ldots \}_{K_{ab}}$ 

- B believes that message comes from A
- Charlie has no way to decrypt the message

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- B believes that message comes from A
- Charlie has no way to decrypt the message
- But: Charlie can send the same message again to the bank

Intruder can replay known messages (freshness attack)

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A sends to B the new key  $K_{ab}$  at the beginning of the session:

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And then uses it during that session.

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Doesn't work. What about

 $A \longrightarrow B : \{K_{ab}\}_{K_{long}}$ 

Using a long term key to agree on a session key.

- 1.  $A \longrightarrow B : \{A, N_a\}_{K_b}$
- 2.  $B \longrightarrow A : \{N_a, N_b\}_{K_a}$

3. 
$$A \longrightarrow B : \{N_b\}_{K_b}$$

1.  $A \longrightarrow B : \{A, N_a\}_{K_b}$ 2.  $B \longrightarrow A : \{N_a, N_b\}_{K_a}$ 3.  $A \longrightarrow B : \{N_b\}_{K_b}$ 

The second message is to assure A that B is active and  $N_b$  is fresh. The third message is to assure B that A is active and  $N_a$  is fresh.

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Expected security property:  $N_a$  and  $N_b$  are known only to A and B. Expected authentication property: A and B are assured that they are talking to each other.

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318-b

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How secure is this ? How to guarantee security ?