

# Cryptographically Sound Theorem Proving\*

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## Abstract

*We describe a faithful embedding of the Dolev-Yao model of Backes, Pfitzmann, and Waidner (CCS 2003) in the theorem prover Isabelle/HOL. This model is cryptographically sound in the strong sense of blackbox reactive simulatability/UC, which essentially entails the preservation of arbitrary security properties under active attacks and in arbitrary protocol environments. The main challenge in designing a practical formalization of this model is to cope with the complexity of providing such strong soundness guarantees. We reduce this complexity by abstracting the model into a sound, light-weight formalization that enables both concise property specifications and efficient application of our proof strategies and their supporting proof tools. This yields the first tool-supported framework for symbolically verifying security protocols that enjoys the strong cryptographic soundness guarantees provided by reactive simulatability/UC. As a proof of concept, we have proved the security of the Needham-Schroeder-Lowe protocol using our framework.*

## 1. Introduction

Security proofs of cryptographic protocols are known to be difficult and work towards the automation of such proofs has started soon after the first protocols were developed. From the beginning, the actual cryptographic operations used in the protocols were idealized into so-called Dolev-Yao models, following [16]; see [36] for an overview. This idealization simplifies protocol analysis by freeing proofs from cryptographic details such as computational restrictions, probabilistic behavior, and error probabilities.

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The first Dolev-Yao model with a cryptographic justification under arbitrary active attacks was introduced by Backes, Pfitzmann, and Waidner in [6]. This model, henceforth called the *BPW model*, can be implemented in the sense of blackbox reactive simulatability (BRSIM) by real cryptographic systems that are secure according to standard cryptographic definitions. The security notion of BRSIM means that one system (here, the cryptographic realization) can be plugged into arbitrary protocols instead of another system (here, the BPW model) [33, 11]; it is also called UC for its universal composition properties. The BPW model currently constitutes the only Dolev-Yao model that fulfills this strong security notion, as other soundness results are restricted to specific security properties or protocol classes.

The BPW model constitutes a deterministic, symbolic abstraction of a comprehensive set of cryptographic operations and allows one to prove the security of arbitrary protocols built from these operations with respect to the cryptographic definitions by means of symbolic reasoning techniques. In order to relate the BPW model to a cryptographic realization in the sense of BRSIM/UC, the BPW model maintains certain *non-standard aspects* compared to other Dolev-Yao models. For example, abstract ciphertexts in the BPW model do not hide the length of their respective plaintexts, a signature over a message can be transformed by the adversary into another signature over the same message, and the protocols built on top of the BPW model do not directly manipulate messages, but use pointers (called *handles*) to refer to the messages being manipulated. While these aspects prevent the direct use of existing tools for symbolic protocol analysis, they are necessary to achieve the cryptographic soundness of the BPW model with respect to the strong soundness notion of BRSIM/UC.

The complexity of the BPW model raises the following question, whose answer was initially unclear to us: Is it possible to reason efficiently about protocols based on this model using a theorem prover, without sacrificing the

strong soundness guarantees? The main obstacle for an efficient mechanization is the complex state space, which includes message buffers, references to messages via handles, and the representation of messages themselves by a pointer-like data structure. Standard techniques for reasoning about state-based systems, such as Hoare logics and weakest precondition calculi, scale poorly to complex state spaces and pointer structures. It is helpful to distinguish two types of complexity in the BPW model: the inherent complexity required for BRSIM/UC cryptographic soundness, which cannot be eliminated, and the complexity due to particular modeling choices. Fortunately, we are able to reduce the latter kind of complexity, by employing a series of carefully chosen abstractions, to the point where we can positively answer the question raised above.

**Our Contributions** Our main contribution is a simplified and more abstract version of the BPW model and its formalization in the theorem prover Isabelle/HOL [31], the higher-order logic (HOL) [13] instance of the generic logical framework Isabelle. Our Isabelle/HOL theories are conservative extensions of HOL (i.e., the proofs rely only on the axioms of HOL) and constitute the first framework that combines machine-assisted symbolic reasoning about security protocols with the strong cryptographic soundness provided by the notion of BRSIM/UC.

This contribution has two parts. First, to support reasoning about state-based programs, we have embedded several *program logics* in Isabelle/HOL, including a weakest precondition calculus (WPC) and a Hoare logic for pre-/postcondition properties, and a linear-time temporal logic (LTL) for temporal properties. Using standard techniques, proofs of temporal properties are reduced to pre-/postcondition assertions in Hoare logic, which can in turn be reduced to the WPC. These embeddings constitute general-purpose reasoning tools, which can be reused in other contexts. Our general *proof strategy* is to employ the WPC, which uses rewriting to efficiently compute weakest preconditions, to automatically prove lemmas about the lower layers of our model (e.g., the functions of the BPW model). These lemmas are then combined in Hoare logic proofs at the higher layers (e.g., the protocol). Second, we have produced two formalizations of the BPW model, which gradually abstract features of the original model, while both faithfully represent its non-standard aspects.

In the first formalization, called the *indexed BPW model*, the component and communication model are abstracted into a light-weight, shallow embedding in Isabelle/HOL: machines and message buffers are simplified into state-manipulating components providing a set of interface functions and communicating by function invocation. However, the data representation closely follows the original BPW version: messages are represented by pointer-like struc-

tures with sharing of submessages between different protocol participants. Unfortunately, this abstraction step is insufficient in itself; our first attempt to prove the security of the Needham-Schroeder-Lowe protocol based on the indexed BPW model in Isabelle/HOL failed, essentially due to a lack of abstraction in both the model (complex pointer structures) and the specifications (complicated invariants). As a consequence, the WPC was either too slow to be useful or produced very large expressions that were difficult to understand. Moreover, they could not be adequately simplified, since an appropriate equational theory was not available. Thus, we had to resort to Hoare logic reasoning at low layers of the model, which required substantial user interaction and complicated intermediate preconditions.

In our second formalization, called the *term-based BPW model*, we address these problems by replacing the pointer-like messages with a simple inductive data type of messages. Since the new representation eliminates message sharing between users and, moreover, handles asymmetric key pairs and message lengths differently, its equivalence with the indexed model is non-trivial. To ensure the correctness of this step, we have proved in Isabelle/HOL that our two formalizations are strongly bisimilar. Since bisimilarity preserves BRSIM/UC, it is safe to replace the indexed model with the term-based model in protocol security proofs. The term-based model makes efficient automatic reasoning possible in two ways. First, it provides messages with a simple inductive structure that enables standard structural induction. This was not possible in the indexed model. Second, it enables concise property specifications using functional DY-like closure operators, such as Paulson’s *analyze* and *parts* [32], which close a set of messages under cryptographically accessible submessages and all submessages, respectively. In fact, we were able to transfer Paulson’s corresponding Isabelle/HOL theories to this term-based setting. The equational theories associated with these operators enable the efficient use of Isabelle’s term rewriter for simplification. Overall, the combination of these two enhancements dramatically improves the usability and performance of the WPC on the term-based BPW model when compared to the indexed version.

Our second contribution is the specification and verification of the security of the Needham-Schroeder-Lowe (NSL) protocol in the term-based BPW model (and thus, by BRSIM/UC, also for the actual cryptographic implementation of the protocol). We consider this a proof of concept for our formalization and proof techniques. Note in this regard that [3, 37] have presented sound paper-and-pencil proofs of the NSL protocol. Moreover, sound, tool-supported proofs have been given by [28] and [12] (exploiting a soundness result without/with compositionality guarantees for specific protocol classes, respectively). However, our proof demonstrates that relatively efficient cryp-

tographically sound proofs in the sense of BRSIM/UC are indeed possible and thereby provides evidence that our formal framework can be successfully applied to reason about many commonly studied protocols.

**Other Related Work** Early work on linking Dolev-Yao-style symbolic models and cryptography [1, 17, 22] only considered passive attacks, and therefore cannot make general statements about protocols. The same holds for [18].

The security notion of BRSIM was first defined generally in [33], based on simulatability definitions for secure (one-step) function evaluation. It was extended in [34, 11], the latter with somewhat different details and called UC (universal composability), and has been widely applied to prove individual cryptographic systems secure and to derive general theoretical results. In particular, BRSIM/UC allows for plugging one system into arbitrary protocols instead of another system while retaining essentially arbitrary security properties [33, 11, 5].

A cryptographic justification of a Dolev-Yao model in the sense of BRSIM/UC was first given in [6] with extensions in [7, 4]. Later papers [28, 23, 12] considered to what extent restrictions to weaker security properties or less general protocol classes allow simplifications compared with [6]: Laud [23] has presented cryptographic foundations for a Dolev-Yao model of symmetric encryption but specific to certain confidentiality properties where the surrounding protocols are restricted to straight-line programs. Warinschi et al. [28, 14] have presented cryptographic underpinnings for a Dolev-Yao model of public-key encryption, yet for a restricted class of protocols and protocol properties that can be analyzed using this primitive. Baudet, Cortier, and Kremer [8] have established the soundness of specific classes of equational theories in a Dolev-Yao model under passive attacks. We stress that the imposed restrictions on protocol classes or protocol properties in the aforementioned works eliminated at least some of the complications that are necessary if soundness in the stronger sense of BRSIM/UC is desired, and that these Dolev-Yao models are thus accessible to existing verification tools without major adaptations.

Canetti and Herzog [12] have recently shown that a Dolev-Yao-style symbolic analysis can be conducted using the framework of universal composability for a restricted class of protocols, namely mutual authentication and key exchange protocols with the additional constraint that the protocols must be expressible as loop-free programs using public-key encryption as their only cryptographic operation. Concentrating on this specific protocol class permitted the direct use of the automatic verification tool ProVerif [9] to symbolically analyze secrecy aspects of the Needham-Schroeder-Lowe protocol by considering the exchanged nonces as secret keys. This work is the closest to ours

since it achieves universal composition guarantees (for the case where this protocol class is composed into larger protocols), in contrast to all of the aforementioned results. However, the results are restricted to the functionalities noted above and hence do not provide soundness guarantees of a Dolev-Yao model in the sense of BRSIM/UC (which guarantees soundness for composing arbitrary protocols). Extending their work to achieve this stronger notion would require augmenting their model with at least some of the non-standard aspects of the BPW model, thus raising the need for a tailored verification framework as well.

Laud [24] has designed a type system for proving secrecy aspects of security protocols based on the BPW model. He shows that if a protocol is typable in his system, then the protocol keeps its payload inputs cryptographically secret. The proof of this fact exploits the BRSIM/UC soundness result of [6, 4] for carrying over symbolic proofs of secrecy in the BPW model to the actual cryptographic realization. Laud's type system has not yet been implemented.

Efforts are also under way to formulate syntactic calculi with a probabilistic, polynomial-time semantics, including approaches based on process algebra [29, 25], security logics [20, 15] and cryptographic games [10]. In particular, Datta et al. [15] have proposed a promising logical deduction system to prove computational security properties. We are not aware of any implementations of these frameworks, except for Blanchet's [10], who has recently presented an automated tool for proving secrecy properties of security protocols based on transforming cryptographic games.

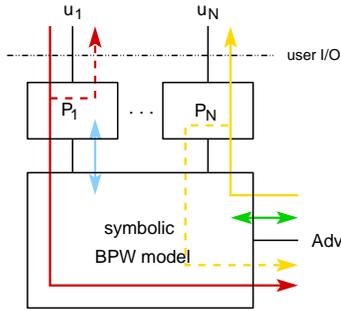
**Organization** In Sect. 2, we briefly review the BPW model and describe the component and communication model underlying its Isabelle/HOL implementation. We introduce our formalization of the indexed and the term-based BPW models in Sect. 3 and sketch the proof of their strong bisimilarity. In Sect. 4, we define generic protocols and their composition with the BPW model in Isabelle. This yields a flexible template that can be instantiated with concrete protocol specifications. We specify the NSL protocol and sketch its proof of security in Sect. 5. Finally, in Sect. 6, we draw conclusions and discuss future work.

## 2. BPW Model and Formalization Overview

In this section, we review the BPW model and discuss the principal abstractions and design choices that we made in its formalization. The cryptographic realization of the BPW model and details from the proof of cryptographic soundness are not necessary for understanding the contributions of this paper and can be found in the original papers.

## 2.1. BPW Model

The BPW model constitutes a library of cryptographic operations, which keeps track of, and controls access to, the terms known by each party. The BPW model provides *local functions* for operating on terms and *send functions* for exchanging terms between an arbitrary, but fixed, number  $N$  of users and the adversary. Some of these functions reflect distinguished attack capabilities and are only offered to the adversary. At the interface, terms are referred to indirectly by *handles* (also called *pointers* or *local names* elsewhere). This indirection is necessary for the cryptographic soundness proof of the BPW model in the strong sense of BRSIM/UC, since the BPW model and its cryptographic realization work with vastly different objects: abstract terms and bitstrings, respectively. Handles present these syntactically different objects in a uniform manner to the users and hence avoid that the BPW model can be trivially distinguished from its realization due to different interfaces.



**Figure 1. Components and control flow**

To analyze a security protocol based on the BPW model, one reasons about a system where each user  $u_i$  runs its own protocol component  $P_i$ , which is implemented by invoking the respective functions of the BPW model (Fig. 1). Each protocol component maintains its own local state (e.g., to store the nonces it has generated) and provides interfaces for communicating with its user and with the BPW model. Fig. 1 depicts some typical control flows through the system. These flows can be classified according to whether they are initiated by a user or the adversary. First, a user may give input to initiate the protocol, which then constructs a term corresponding to the first protocol message through a series of local interactions with the BPW model. Local means that term construction does not involve any interaction with the adversary; hence terms can be arbitrarily nested without revealing their structure or the contents of subterms to the adversary during construction. The term constructed may then be sent to the network (i.e., the adversary). Second, the adversary may decompose terms and construct new ones by local interactions with the BPW model, and send terms to users. The BPW model delivers

terms sent by the adversary to the protocol component of the respective user, where they are then processed according to the protocol description.

The compositionality and property preservation theorems of BRSIM/UC imply that a large variety of protocol security properties carry over from the symbolic abstraction to the cryptographic implementation.

## 2.2. Isabelle/HOL Preliminaries

Isabelle is a generic theorem prover, in which a variety of logics have been implemented. We use an implementation of higher-order logic (HOL), which can roughly be seen as logic on top of functional programming. We will assume that the reader has basic familiarity with both logic and typed functional programming. Proof automation in Isabelle is supported by a powerful simplifier, which performs term rewriting, and a tableau reasoner. These are invoked in isolation or in combination using different proof tactics.

In Isabelle notation,  $t :: T$  denotes a term  $t$  of type  $T$ . The expression  $c \equiv t$  defines the constant  $c$  as the term  $t$ . A functional constant  $f$  can be defined by  $f x \equiv t$  instead of  $f \equiv \lambda x. t$ . Definitions constitute the principal mechanism for producing conservative extensions of HOL. Type variables are identified by a leading apostrophe, as in  $'a$ . Given types  $'a$  and  $'b$ ,  $'a \Rightarrow 'b$  is the type of (total) functions from  $'a$  to  $'b$ ,  $'a \times 'b$  is the product type, and  $'a$  set is the type of sets of elements of type  $'a$ . The type *unit* contains a single element. There are several mechanisms to define new types. A **datatype** definition introduces an inductive data type. For example, the option type is defined by **datatype**  $'a$  option = None | Some  $'a$ , which is polymorphic in the type variable  $'a$ . This definition also introduces the constructors  $\text{None} :: 'a$  option and  $\text{Some} :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a$  option. Pattern matching is used to decompose elements of inductive types. For example, the expression **case**  $o$  of  $\text{None} \Rightarrow t \mid \text{Some } x \Rightarrow f x$  evaluates to  $t$  if  $o$  evaluates to  $\text{None}$  and to  $f x$  if  $o$  evaluates to  $\text{Some } x$ . Functions of type  $'a \Rightarrow 'b$  option are used to model partial functions from  $'a$  to  $'b$ . The declaration **types**  $T1 = T2$  merely introduces a new name for the type  $T2$ , possibly with parameters, as in **types**  $'a \rightarrow 'b = 'a \Rightarrow 'b$  option.

Isabelle/HOL includes a package supporting record types. For example, **record**  $\text{point} = x :: \text{nat } y :: \text{nat}$  defines a record type for points, of which the record  $\{\!|x=1, y=2|\!\}$  is an element. Records are extensible: **record**  $\text{cpoint} = \text{point} + c :: \text{color}$  extends points with a color field. Behind the scenes, the definition of a record type  $r$  creates a record scheme  $'a$   $r$ \_scheme, which extends the declared type  $r$  with a polymorphic field *more* of type  $'a$ . The type  $r$  is derived as  $\text{unit } r$ \_scheme. Record extensibility is based on the instantiation of the record scheme parameter  $'a$  with one or more additional fields. Important for our formal-

ization is that all extensions of  $r$  are compatible with the scheme  $r\_scheme$ . For example,  $cpoint$  is compatible with  $'a\ point\_scheme$  (but not with  $point$ ).

### 2.3. Overview of the Formalization

We now summarize the abstraction steps and design choices that we have employed to simplify the component and communication model as well as the operational semantics underlying the BPW model. These simplifications enable a sound, light-weight formalization of the BPW model, the protocols, and their properties.

**Component and Communication Model** From a typed perspective, the BPW model and the protocol components can be represented by deterministic machines with transition functions of type  $\Sigma \times I \Rightarrow (O\ option) \times \Sigma$ , where  $\Sigma$  is the machine's state space and  $I$  and  $O$  are inputs and outputs, respectively. The types  $I$  and  $O$  as can be seen as (non-recursive) inductive data types, where each constructor corresponds to a port name and its arguments correspond to the values communicated over that port. A state transition either terminates normally and produces an output value of type  $O$  or results in an exception (error condition) in which case there is no output. The general communication framework underlying the BPW model stores messages in transit in so-called buffers, until the messages are scheduled by the designated scheduler for the respective connection. The most important special case is that machines are in charge of their outgoing connections themselves and schedule outgoing messages immediately, i.e., messages are passed on directly from sender to recipient. Since this is the case for the communication between the BPW model and the protocol components, these buffers can be safely omitted in the formalization leading to a substantial simplification.

Essentially, each machine transition can be seen as a function call (with parameters passed at some input port) and producing either a return value (at some output port) or an exception. Therefore, our formalization replaces the machine description of the BPW model by components consisting of a set of interface functions manipulating a common state, where communication over ports is replaced by function calls. Since state and exceptions play a central role in the BPW model, they are handled by appropriate abstractions in our formalization. In a purely functional context, such as Isabelle/HOL, such abstractions are provided by monads [30]. Generally speaking, a monad  $M$  is a type constructor equipped with unit and composition operations, enjoying unit and associativity properties, respectively. A monadic interpretation of an operation with input type  $A$  and output type  $B$  has the function type  $A \Rightarrow B\ M$ . Different monads can represent a wide range of computational phenomena including state, exceptions, and non-determinism.

Here, we use the deterministic state-exception monad  $S$ :

```

-- monad type definitions
datatype 'a result = Exception | Value 'a
types ('a,'s) S = 's  $\Rightarrow$  'a result  $\times$  's

-- monad unit
return :: 'a  $\Rightarrow$  ('a, 's) S
return a  $\equiv$   $\lambda s$ . (Value a, s)

-- monad composition
bind :: ('a,'s) S  $\Rightarrow$  ('a  $\Rightarrow$  ('b,'s) S)  $\Rightarrow$  ('b,'s) S
bind m k  $\equiv$   $\lambda s$ .
  case m s of (a, t)  $\Rightarrow$ 
    case a of
      Exception  $\Rightarrow$  (Exception, t)
      | Value x  $\Rightarrow$  k x t

```

Note that the monad  $S$  is polymorphic in both the type of values and the type of states. The type of results is isomorphic to the option type. The monad unit (called **return** here) embeds a value in the monad without transforming the state. The monad composition  $bind$  is a sequential composition, which passes results (values or exceptions) between function calls. More precisely,  $bind\ m\ k$  first evaluates  $m$  on the initial state  $s$ , producing a result  $a$  and a successor state  $t$ . If  $m$  produces an exception then so does  $bind\ m\ k$ . Otherwise, if  $m$  returns a value  $x$  then  $k$  is evaluated in state  $t$  with input  $x$ . We write **do**  $x \leftarrow m; k\ x$  instead of  $bind\ m\ k$ . There are also monad-specific operations for state assignment and for throwing and catching exceptions. The set of all these monad operations forms a simple imperative language that we use to formulate our models.

**Runs and observations** In the general modeling framework underlying the BPW model, a system run is defined as a sequence of local transitions of the form  $(M, s, i, o, t)$ , where  $M$  names the machine making the transition from the local state  $s$  and the input  $i$  to the local state  $t$ , and producing the output  $o$  (if any). This corresponds to a *small step semantics*, where the transitions of all individual machines are considered. The *user view* is derived by projecting runs on the transitions performed by the honest users. Our formalization uses a *big step semantics*, where internal transitions and communication are hidden. A transition consists of a pair of states  $(s, t)$ , where  $t$  is reached from  $s$  by calling an interface function. Formally, the transition relation for a monadic function  $f :: A \Rightarrow (B, S)\ M$  is defined by  $tr\ f \equiv \{(s, t) \mid \exists r\ a. f\ a\ s = (r, t)\}$ . The transition relation of a component is the union of the relations derived from the components' interface functions. A run is a sequence of states arising from component transitions, triggered by external input. The big step semantics arises naturally given our procedural view of communication, and it clearly preserves BRSIM/UC since system-internal transitions do not affect the user view. Most importantly, a

big step semantics facilitates proofs, since it supports the top-down case analysis of the system interface functions in invariant proofs, without the need to show that the invariant is preserved by each internal transition. Another design choice leading to simpler proofs is that we do not model user I/O events as part of each transition; instead we record I/O traces in a global history variable, which is extended with every I/O event. This can be seen as an observer component that logs all communication with the users. The advantage of having the entire trace available in each state is that precedence properties with reference to the past can be expressed as simple invariants (sets of states).

**Polynomial Bounds** In the definition of reactive simulatability, users and the adversary constitute probabilistic, polynomially-bounded machines. In our formalization, we model them by universal quantification over all possible inputs, i.e., a single unbounded machine which non-deterministically produces arbitrary input to the system in each transition. This safely over-approximates the original setting, since the unbounded machine can (weakly) simulate any set of probabilistic, polynomially-bounded users and the adversary. Moreover, the BPW model includes polynomial bounds on the length of handled messages and on the number of steps that each machine can perform. We have formalized the enforcement of the message-length bound using an uninterpreted function of the security parameter as the bound. This comprises, in particular, all polynomial functions and thus constitutes a safe over-approximation. Step bounds are dealt with similarly.

**Program Logics and Verification Tools** We conclude this section with a brief overview of the specification and proof machinery that we have constructed for verifying protocol properties. While the present paper concentrates on the *modeling* of the BPW model in Isabelle/HOL, a companion paper will be devoted to proof tools and techniques. We use several program logics and proof systems to specify and verify security properties: first, a weakest precondition calculus (WPC) based on Pitts' evaluation logic [35] and a Hoare logic [19] on top of it, both tailored to our state-exception monad and, second, a linear-time temporal logic (LTL) to specify temporal behavior such as invariants or precedence properties [26]. We have derived a set of proof rules, similar to those of [27], to reduce LTL properties to pre-/postcondition statements in Hoare logic, i.e., Hoare triples. We prove these Hoare triples by using the rules of Hoare logic or by unfolding them to statements of the WPC. The WPC allows us to automate proofs to a large extent, whereas the Hoare logic gives us manual control, when automation fails. These logics and tools are problem-independent and can be reused in different contexts.

### 3. Formalization of the BPW Model

Building on the simplified modeling framework outlined in Sect. 2.3, we present two formalizations of the BPW model in Isabelle/HOL. The first one, called the *indexed BPW model*, closely adheres to the original data representation of the BPW model. The second one, called the *term-based BPW model*, abstracts the representation of messages to inductively defined terms. Finally, we describe the bisimulation relation used in the proof of their equivalence. Both versions share the types of *parties* and *knowledge maps*:

```
datatype party = User user | Adv
types 'a kmap = party  $\Rightarrow$  hnd  $\rightarrow$  'a
```

Here, *user* denotes the type of honest users, which is isomorphic to the set  $\{1..N\}$ , and *hnd* is the type of handles, which is isomorphic to the set of natural numbers. Knowledge maps keep track of who knows what. They also serve as an access control mechanism by mediating between the handles at the interface and the internal representation of messages (of generic type 'a).

#### 3.1. The Indexed BPW Model

Our first formalization of the BPW model remains close to the original BPW model by using a pointer-like structure to represent messages. The state consists of a database storing messages, which are referred to by indices (of type *ind*, isomorphic to the natural numbers), together with a knowledge map instantiated to indices.

```
record 'd iLibState =
  db :: ind  $\Rightarrow$  'd entry    -- the database
  knowsI :: ind kmap       -- knowledge map
```

The database can be seen as a heap where entries are allocated. The knowledge map records which entries are known by which parties. We say that a database index is *defined*, if it is known by some party. Database entries have a content and a length field. Our presentation covers public-key encryption, but omits signatures for brevity.

```
datatype 'd content =
  iNonce          -- nonce
  | iGarbage      -- garbage
  | iPke ind      -- public encryption key
  | iSke          -- private encryption key
  | iData 'd      -- payload data
  | iPair ind ind -- pair
  | iEncv ind ind -- valid ciphertext
  | iEnci ind     -- invalid ciphertext
```

```
record 'd entry =
  cont :: 'd content    -- content
  len  :: nat           -- length of entry
```

Elements of the data type  $'d$  *content* correspond to message constructors, polymorphic in the type  $'d$  of payload messages, which depends on the application. Constructor arguments of type *ind* point to other entries in the database corresponding to submessages. For example, in the term *iEncv pki mi*, which represents a valid encryption, the first argument points to the public key used and the second to the message being encrypted. Also, each public key points to the matching secret key of the key pair. In contrast to commonly used Dolev-Yao models, our adversary may create garbage entries (constructor *iGarbage*) or invalid ciphertexts (constructor *iEnci*). In a well-formed database, each defined index determines a directed acyclic graph, the indexed BPW model representation of a *message*. We call payload data and pairs *non-cryptographic* messages and all others *cryptographic* messages. The length field in each entry enables the length leakage to the adversary and is used to enforce a bound on the message length.

The BPW model interface functions manipulate the knowledge map and the database. As examples of local interface functions, the main operations for public key encryption have the following types:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gen\_enc\_keypairI} &:: \\ \text{party} &\Rightarrow (\text{hnd} \times \text{hnd}, ('d, 's) \text{iLibState\_scheme}) S \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{encryptI}, \text{decryptI} &:: \\ \text{party} &\Rightarrow \text{hnd} \Rightarrow \text{hnd} \Rightarrow (\text{hnd}, ('d, 's) \text{iLibState\_scheme}) S \end{aligned}$$

The function *gen\_enc\_keypairI* returns a public/secret key pair, *encryptI* takes a public key and a cleartext and returns the ciphertext, and *decryptI* takes a secret key and a ciphertext and returns a cleartext. Message arguments and results are referred to by handles. If some argument is invalid, an exception is raised. Note that these functions operate on the record scheme  $('d, 's) \text{iLibState\_scheme}$  instead of the plain state record  $'d \text{iLibState}$ . Here,  $'s$  stands for future extensions of the state, for example, with the protocol state (Sect. 4). By using extensible records, all invariants proved about the BPW model automatically carry over to all future extensions of the state without any explicit lifting. We apply the same technique to the term-based BPW model.

One of the main differences between this model and other Dolev-Yao models is that each encryption of a given message with the same public key (both referred to by handles) results in a different ciphertext, that is, a fresh database entry. This reflects the fact that secure encryption is necessarily probabilistic and shows the role of indices in modeling idealized randomness. In fact, all functions constructing cryptographic messages, including explicit key generation, produce fresh database entries with each invocation. The situation is different for non-cryptographic messages, which are allocated only once and are shared between users. Another important difference with other Dolev-Yao models is that the adversary (but not honest users) can learn the length

of the cleartext underlying a ciphertext (via a separate function *adv\_parse*, not shown here), thus modeling a length-revealing crypto system.

We have proved three basic invariants of the indexed BPW model, which are needed in the bisimulation proof (Sect. 3.3) and express well-definedness conditions: the knowledge map has a finite domain for each user and it is injective on that domain, and the arguments of entries at defined indices are themselves defined.

With respect to the original BPW model, we have made a number of simple abstractions in our formalization. First, we have factored out the access control lists in the entries of the original version into our isomorphic representation using knowledge maps, thus isolating a common element of our two formalizations. Second, we have replaced lists by pairs, without loss of generality. Pairs are sufficient for modeling concrete protocols and, because they are not recursively defined, simplify reasoning by obviating the need for certain inductive arguments. Third, we have abstracted the allocation of new objects, such as indices and handles, from a counting scheme to an arbitrary (but still deterministic) allocation scheme<sup>1</sup>. As a consequence, public key pairs are linked via an explicit pointer from the public to the secret key, instead of allocating them at successive indices. Again, this abstraction pays off by simplifying reasoning: an extra invariant making the link between key pairs explicit becomes obsolete.

As explained in the introduction, these abstractions turned out to be insufficient for a practically useful automated verification framework. The main problems arose from the lack of an inductive message structure supported by standard structural induction and from complicated ad hoc property specifications expressed without subterm and knowledge derivation operators (such as Paulson's *parts* and *analyze* [32]). Even though such operators could be defined in the indexed model, the fact that messages in this model do not exist independently of the state would complicate their definition and the derivation and application of the associated equational theories. These problems are addressed by our second, term-based formalization of the BPW model.

### 3.2. The Term-Based BPW Model

Fortunately, the sharing of messages between different users in the indexed BPW model is inessential and can be eliminated. A more abstract representation of messages can be obtained using an inductive data type of messages. Isabelle automatically generates an induction scheme for each inductive data type. Again, we omit signatures for the sake of brevity.

<sup>1</sup>We use Hilbert's  $\varepsilon$ -operator, where  $\varepsilon x. x \notin A$  denotes some fresh  $x$  not in  $A$ , if there is one, and an arbitrary element otherwise.

```

datatype 'd msg =
  mNonce tag           -- nonce
| mGarbage tag len     -- adversary garbage
| mPke key             -- public key
| mSke key             -- private key
| mData 'd            -- data item
| mPair ('d msg) ('d msg) -- pair of messages
| mEncv tag key ('d msg) -- valid ciphertext
| mEnci tag key len    -- invalid ciphertext

```

This data-type definition replaces the previous index arguments in the content fields of database entries by recursive message arguments. There are two other notable changes in moving to this representation. First, the role played by indices in allocating fresh database entries for cryptographic messages is taken by the elements of a new, but isomorphic, type *tag*, which can be thought of as an (abstraction of) random coins. The type *key* is just another name for *tag*. Matching key pairs are then simply those of the form  $(mPke\ k, mSke\ k)$ . Instead of replacing the first argument of the encryption constructors by a recursive message argument, we directly record the corresponding key, thus avoiding unnecessary well-formedness conditions on messages. Second, we now determine the length of messages by a partially interpreted recursive function  $len\_ofM :: 'd\ msg \Rightarrow len$ , which allows us to remove redundant length information from the state. Length fields are still required for garbage and invalid ciphertexts, as the adversary can choose an arbitrary length for these two atomic message types.

This abstraction step substantially simplifies the structure of states by eliminating the database and (largely) the length fields: a state of the term-based BPW model simply consists of a knowledge map storing messages:

```

record 'd mLibState = knowsM :: 'd msg kmap

```

This economy of state variables, together with our ability to reason inductively about messages, leads to a dramatic improvement in proof automation.

The second substantial improvement, which leads to more concise specifications and improved proof automation, stems from adapting to our setting the closure operators *parts* and *analyze* and their equational theories developed by Paulson [32]. The term  $parts\ H$  denotes the closure of the set of messages  $H$  under all submessages, whereas  $analyze\ H$  closes  $H$  under all cryptographically accessible submessages. Hence, the expression  $analyze\ (ran\ (knowsM\ s\ u))$  denotes the set of messages that the party  $u$  can derive from his knowledge in state  $s$  ( $ran\ f$  denotes the range of the partial function  $f$ ). Using *analyze* and *parts*, we define secrecy of a message  $m$  as follows:

```

secret :: ('a, 'b) mLibState_scheme =>
  'a msg => party set => bool
secret s m U ≡ ∀ u. parts {m} = {m} ∧
  m ∈ analyze (ran (knowsM s u) ∪ ran (knowsM s Adv))
  → u ∈ U

```

Without the term  $ran\ (knowsM\ s\ Adv)$  denoting the adversary knowledge the proposition  $(secret\ s\ m\ U)$  means that in state  $s$  message  $m$  is a secret shared by (at most) the parties in the set  $U$ . The inclusion of the adversary knowledge strengthens the definition, which is exploited in invariant proofs, as we will see in Sect. 5.3. Note that we require secrets to be atomic. For the definition of non-atomic secrets we would need a *synthesize* operation corresponding to message construction on top of *analyze*, since secrets could possibly be built from already known messages.

### 3.3. Bisimulation with Indexed Model

We now establish the bisimilarity of our two formalizations of the BPW model. By this result, both versions yield identical views to the honest users, which trivially preserves BRSIM/UC. Due to the close correspondence described by the bisimulation, even state-based properties can be easily translated from the term-based to the indexed version.

The bisimulation proof shows that all pairs of interface functions transform bisimilar states into bisimilar states with identical output on all possible inputs. Since the interface functions are deterministic, this is sufficient to establish a bisimulation between the two versions<sup>2</sup>. We are thus using a shallow embedding of bisimulation: the notion of bisimulation itself is not formalized explicitly. The message abstraction relation

```

message s i2t :: (ind × 'd msg) set

```

is the central element of our bisimulation relation: it associates database indices to messages and is parametrized by a state  $s$  of the indexed BPW model and a function  $i2t$  mapping indices to tags. The latter witnesses the fact that tags assume the role of indices for message freshness. Note that this relation is defined independently of the states of the term-based BPW model. The inductive definition of *message* contains a rule for each constructor of the type *'d content*. For example, the rule for valid ciphertexts reads:

```

[[ s ∈ contains i (iEncv pki mi); tg = i2t i;
  (pki, mPke k) ∈ message s i2t; (mi, m) ∈ message s i2t ]]
⇒ (i, mEncv tg k m) ∈ message s i2t

```

This rule states that, at some fixed state  $s$ , an index  $i$  abstracts to the ciphertext message  $(mEncv\ tg\ k\ m)$  if the index  $i$  contains  $(iEncv\ pki\ mi)$ , the index  $pki$  abstracts to the public key message  $(mPke\ k)$ , the index  $mi$  abstracts to message  $m$ , and the tag  $tg$  is the image of  $i$  under  $i2t$ . The main property proved for *message* is its functionality.

The bisimulation relation essentially consists of pairs of states for which the domains of the knowledge maps are identical and the message at  $knowsM\ s\ u\ h$  (if defined) is an abstraction of the index at  $knowsI\ s\ u\ h$ .

<sup>2</sup>Formally, this can be explained as a coalgebraic bisimulation [21].

$$\begin{aligned}
I2M &:: (ind \Rightarrow tag) \Rightarrow \\
&((d, 's) iLibState\_scheme \times \\
&(d, 's) mLibState\_scheme) set \\
I2M \ i2t &\equiv \{(s, t). \text{bij } i2t \wedge \\
&(\forall u. \text{dom } (knowsI \ s \ u) = \text{dom } (knowsM \ t \ u)) \wedge \\
&(\forall u \ h \ i \ m. \\
&\text{knowsI } s \ u \ h = \text{Some } i \wedge \text{knowsM } t \ u \ h = \text{Some } m \\
&\longrightarrow (i, m) \in \text{message } i2t \ s)\}
\end{aligned}$$

We have actually defined a family of relations parametrized by a function  $i2t$  of type  $ind \Rightarrow tag$ , which is required to be a bijection in order to map different database entries to different messages. The proper bisimulation relation is the union over all family members, i.e., the second-order property  $R = \bigcup i2t. I2M \ i2t$ . Since both indices and tags are freely allocated, but not all indices are associated with a tag (e.g. payload data is untagged), the parameter  $i2t$  cannot be determined statically. Defining  $R$  as the union over all parameters allows us to update  $i2t$  with mappings  $(i, tg)$ , where  $i$  is a fresh index and  $tg$  is a fresh tag. Since the resulting map must again be a bijection, we achieve this update by swapping the values of  $i2t$  at  $i$  and  $i2t^{-1}(tg)$ .

For the proof of bisimulation, we use a set of derived proof rules similar to those of Hoare logic, but involving two components instead of just one as for invariant proofs. The proof relies on basic invariants proved for the indexed and the term-based BPW model.

## 4. Protocol Verification Framework

Based on the term-based BPW model, we model a generic framework for the specification and cryptographically sound verification of security protocols. Afterwards, we instantiate this framework to the concrete protocols.

### 4.1. Protocols and Observer

The global state extends the BPW model state with the local state for each protocol component and the trace observed at the user interface.

```

record ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) globState = 'd mLibState +
  loc :: user => 's          -- local state
  trace :: ('i, 'o) trace  -- observed user i/o trace

```

Our setup is polymorphic in four types: the type  $'d$  of payload data (from the BPW model), the type  $'s$  of local states, as well as  $'i$  and  $'o$ , the types of user input and output, respectively. Concrete protocols later instantiate these type parameters to concrete types.

Next, we define the interface of protocol components. Similarly to other models (e.g. [2, 36]), we define protocols in a role-based, process-oriented way by specifying the reaction of the protocol components to user and network input. Each protocol component therefore provides a user and

a network input handler. Each of these handlers may manipulate the component's local state to reflect the progress of the current protocol sessions and may produce output either to the user or the network (cf. Fig. 1). A protocol is then defined as a function from users to protocol components.

```

datatype 'o proto_out = pToUser 'o | pToNet netmsg

```

```

record ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) proto_comp =
  proto_user_handler :: 'i =>
    ('o proto_out, ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) globState) S

```

```

  proto_net_handler :: user => hnd =>
    ('o proto_out, ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) globState) S

```

```

types ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) protocol =
  user => ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) proto_comp

```

Note that we do not explicitly represent protocol sessions, we leave the handling of sessions to the protocol implementation. Typically, each protocol session is initiated and terminated by explicit, observable, user I/O events, possibly with additional user interaction in between. This user interaction enables the formulation of cryptographically meaningful properties about user I/O traces.

The observer trace is a history variable, where all user I/O events are recorded. Its type is a list of pairs of a user name and an input or output event:

```

datatype ('i, 'o) uio = uIn 'i | uOut 'o  -- user i/o
types ('i, 'o) trace = (user x ('i, 'o) uio) list

```

The observer has a single interface function  $log$ , which simply adds an I/O event to the trace.

### 4.2. The Complete System

We compose the BPW model with the protocol and the observer, yielding the complete system. This system has two types of interface functions: the system user and network handlers and the local functions provided by the BPW model to the adversary. We restrict our presentation to the system user and network handlers, whose types are:

```

sys_user_handler :: ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) protocol =>
  user => 'i => ('o sys_out, ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) globState) S

```

```

sys_net_handler :: ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) protocol =>
  netmsg => ('o sys_out, ('i, 'o, 'd, 's) globState) S

```

Both handlers produce a system output of type  $'o \text{ sys\_out}$ , which is just the system-level version of type  $'o \text{ proto\_out}$ . The user handler takes an input from the user (of type  $'i$ ), while the network handler takes a network message as an argument. Network messages are triples  $(u, v, h)$ , where  $u$  is the supposed sender,  $v$  is the receiver, and  $h$  is a message handle. The BPW model provides two send functions, one for users and one for the adversary:

```

send_i, adv_send_i ::
  netmsg ⇒ (netmsg, ('d, 's) mLibState_scheme) S

```

By invoking  $send_i(u, v, uh)$ , the user  $u$  sends the message denoted by his handle  $uh$  to the adversary (intended for user  $v$ ). The result is a network message  $(u, v, ah)$ , where  $ah$  is the adversary's handle for the same message. Such a handle is created if it does not exist yet. The call  $adv_send_i(u, v, ah)$  has a similar effect, but this time the message is sent from the adversary to user  $v$ . Note that the adversary is free to falsify the name  $u$  of the originator. This gives the adversary complete control over the network, as in other Dolev-Yao models.

In order to illustrate the message flow through the system (cf. Fig. 1), let us consider the system network handler:

```

sys_net_handler proto anm ≡
  do (v, u, mh) ← adv_send_i anm;  -- receive msg
  do pout ← proto_net_handler (proto u) v mh;
  case pout of
  | pToUser uom ⇒
    do log (u, uOut uom);  -- log output
    return (sToUser u uom)  -- output to user
  | pToNet unm ⇒
    do anm' ← send_i unm;  -- send reply
    return (sToNet anm')

```

Its input is a network message from the adversary, which he sends to the receiver  $u$  using the send function  $adv_send_i$ . The resulting network message contains a message for  $u$ , which is fed into the protocol network handler of the receiver's protocol component. The output of the handler is either intended for the user, in which case the output is logged by the observer and returned to the user, or it is a reply message that is sent back to the network (adversary) via the user send function  $send_i$ .

When specifying a concrete protocol in this framework, we need to provide the user and network handlers for our protocol. This determines concrete types for user I/O, payload data, and the local state of protocol components, instantiating the type variables ' $i$ ', ' $o$ ', ' $d$ ', and ' $s$ '. Once this is done, we are ready to specify and verify protocol properties.

## 5. A Cryptographically Sound Proof of NSL

We model and verify the well-known three message version of the NSL protocol:

```

NSL1.  u → v :  {N_u, u}_{K_v}
NSL2.  v → u :  {N_u, N_v, v}_{K_u}
NSL3.  u → v :  {N_v}_{K_v}

```

Here, we assume that each user has generated an asymmetric key pair and that the authentic public keys of all users are known to every party. Below, we introduce our formal specification of the NSL protocol. Afterwards, we describe

the invariants we have verified and sketch the proof of one such invariant. Finally, we discuss the benefits gained from the abstractions we have made.

### 5.1. Protocol specification

We specify the NSL protocol in our framework by defining a protocol component for each user. Each such component  $P_u$  records the set of nonces it generates in protocol sessions with user  $v$  in the local variable  $nonces$ , under the name of user  $v$ :

```

record ustate = nonces :: user ⇒ hnd set

```

We can initiate a protocol run by indicating the name of the responder. The protocol is terminated by returning the name of the initiator to the responder. Thus, both user input and output are of type  $user$ . Moreover, the only payload data used in the NSL protocol are user names. Therefore, we use an abbreviation for the states of the protocol:

```

types NSLstate = (user, user, user, ustate) globState

```

The NSL protocol is then specified by instantiating the user and network handlers:

```

NeedhamSchroederLowe ::
  (user, user, user, ustate) protocol
NeedhamSchroederLowe u ≡ (|
  proto_user_handler = λv.  -- initiate with v
  do enforceb (u ≠ v);  -- no talking to self
  mk_msg1 u v,  -- 1st message

  proto_net_handler = λv emh.  -- reply to messages
  do enforceb (u ≠ v);  -- no talking to self
  do pm ← parse_msg u v emh;
  case pm of
  | msg1 vnh vid ⇒ mk_msg2 u v vnh  -- 2nd msg
  | msg2 unh vnh vid ⇒ mk_msg3 u v vnh  -- 3rd msg
  | msg3 vnh ⇒ return (pToUser v) |)  -- terminate

```

The user handler for user  $u$  initiates a protocol session with user  $v$  by constructing the first protocol message. This can be done any time and thus there is no limit on the number of possible sessions. The network handler takes the name  $v$  of the sender and a message handle  $emh$ , parses the message and, depending on the result, replies by either producing a reply message or by terminating the protocol, indicating which user has (supposedly) been authenticated. Besides parsing messages, the function  $parse_msg$  also ensures correct message sequencing by verifying that all necessary conditions for replying to an incoming message are satisfied. For example, after successfully parsing a message of format NSL2, this function checks that the nonce in the first message component was indeed generated for a session with the user indicated in the third message field and raises an exception otherwise. The  $enforceb$  statements throw an exception if a protocol component tries to talk to itself.

As an example, we show the definition of  $mk\_msg1\ u\ v$ , which constructs the first protocol message (NSL1):

```

mk_msg1 :: user ⇒ user ⇒ (user proto_out, NSLstate) S
mk_msg1 u v ≡
  do nh ← gen_add_nonce u v;    -- fresh nonce
  do uih ← store (User u) u;
  do mh ← pair (User u) (nh, uih)
  do emh ← encrypt (User u) (pke (User u) v) mh;
  return (pToNet (u, v, emh))    -- send 1st msg

```

In this definition,  $pke\ (User\ u)\ v$  denotes the handle by which user  $u$  refers to user  $v$ 's public key  $mPke\ (ukey\ v)$ . The statement  $gen\_add\_nonce\ u\ v$  generates a fresh nonce and adds it to  $nonces\ (loc\ s\ u)\ v$ , i.e. the nonces used by user  $u$  in sessions with user  $v$ . The subsequent calls incrementally construct the message.

## 5.2. Verified Properties

The main property we have proved is that the responder authenticates the initiator. This is formulated as a property of the observed user I/O trace and therefore transfers to the cryptographic level.

```

authRI :: NSLstate set
authRI ≡ {s. ∀ I R.
  Commit RI ∈ set (trace s) ∧ I ≠ R →
  Init I R ∈ set (trace s)}

```

Here  $Init\ I\ R$  is a nicer syntax for  $(I, uIn\ R)$  and  $Commit\ RI$  for  $(R, uOut\ I)$ . We require that the initiator and responder are distinct. The observer history variable  $trace\ s$ . To express the authentication property it is sufficient to consider  $set\ (trace\ s)$ , the unordered  $set$  of I/O events at state  $s$ . The use of a history variable to record I/O traces has the advantage of reducing temporal precedence properties with reference to the past to simple invariants (i.e. sets of states). The actual theorem states that  $authRI$  is an invariant. This is formulated in Isabelle as the LTL property:

**theorem**  $authRI\_invariant$ :  $NSLtrsys \models \Box(Pred\ authRI)$

This theorem says that all states on all runs of the transition system  $NSLtrsys$  derived from the NSL protocol system satisfy  $authRI$ . The proof of this invariant is based on the auxiliary invariants listed in Fig. 2, along with their dependencies.

The basic invariants  $correctNonceOwner$  and  $uniqueNonceUse$  state properties of the local variable  $nonces$ : handles stored in this variable do indeed denote nonces and each nonce recorded in this variable is created by a unique user for a protocol session with a unique responder. The invariants  $uniqueInitNonce$  and  $uniqueResponseNonce$  express that the initiator nonce in message NSL1 and the responder nonce in NSL2 uniquely

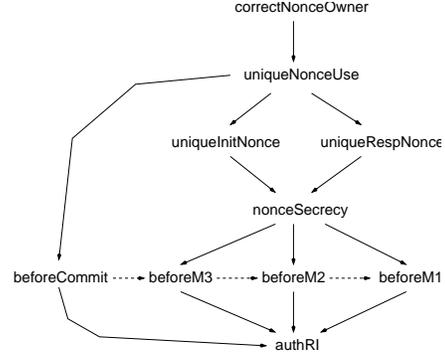


Figure 2. Invariants of the NSL protocol

determine all the other fields of the respective message. Based on these invariants we can prove that the protocol nonces remain secret (invariant  $nonceSecrecy$ ) between the protocol participants:

```

nonceSecrecy :: NSLstate set
nonceSecrecy ≡ {s. ∀ u v n.
  n ∈ Nonces s u v →
  secret s (mNonce n) {User u, User v}}

```

Here,  $Nonces$  is the set of nonces denoted by handles stored in the variable  $nonces$ :

```

Nonces :: NSLstate ⇒ user ⇒ user ⇒ tag set
Nonces s u v ≡ {n.
  ∃ h. knowsM s (User u) h = Some (mNonce n) ∧
  h ∈ nonces (loc s u) v}

```

The notion of secrecy was already defined in Sect. 3.2. Finally, the authentication property  $authRI$  is derived from the conjunction of four auxiliary invariants,  $beforeCommit$ ,  $beforeM3$ ,  $beforeM2$ , and  $beforeM1$ , each of these going one message back in the protocol (dashed line in Fig. 2).

## 5.3. A Typical Invariant Proof

A protocol invariant is usually proved by showing that it is preserved by all system interface functions. As an example, let us consider the proof of  $nonceSecrecy$ . Here, we focus on the most interesting points of this proof and we defer the discussion of our general proof strategy to Sect. 5.4.

We proceed bottom-up by showing that the invariant is preserved by all BPW model interface functions. Unsurprisingly, the most interesting cases are the send functions, where messages are exchanged between parties. The lemma for the user send function  $send\_i$  reads as follows:

**lemma**  $nonceSecrecy\_send\_i$ :

```

{ nS_send_pre u h ∩ nonceSecrecy ∩
  correctNonceOwner ∩ finiteKnowsM }
send_i (u, v, h)
{ > λx. nonceSecrecy }

```

This Hoare triple states that if  $send.i$  is called in a state satisfying the precondition and terminates normally, then the resulting state again satisfies  $nonceSecrecy$ . Note that previously proved invariants are used to strengthen the precondition. The basic auxiliary invariants  $correctNonceOwner$  and  $finiteKnowsM$  are sufficient to establish the preservation of  $nonceSecrecy$  by all BPW model interface functions except  $send.i$ , where we need an additional precondition:

$$\begin{aligned}
nS\_send\_pre &:: user \Rightarrow hnd \Rightarrow NSLstate \ set \\
nS\_send\_pre \ u \ h &\equiv \{s. \forall m \ n \ w \ ua \ va. \\
&\quad knowsM \ s \ (User \ u) \ h = Some \ m \longrightarrow \\
&\quad n \in Nonces \ s \ ua \ va \longrightarrow \\
&\quad mNonce \ n \in analyze \ (\{m\} \cup \\
&\quad \quad ran \ (knowsM \ s \ w) \cup ran \ (knowsM \ s \ Adv)) \longrightarrow \\
&\quad \quad w \in \{User \ ua, \ User \ va\} \}
\end{aligned}$$

Note the similarity with the definition of  $nonceSecrecy$  (after unfolding the definition of  $secret$ ), which is obtained by ignoring the third line, which fixes a message  $m$ , and the singleton subterm  $\{m\}$ . Intuitively, this predicate states that the message  $m$  to be sent (and referred to by the handle  $h$ ) can be added to the knowledge of the adversary without compromising the secrecy of any protocol nonces. This precondition is formulated in a largely protocol-independent manner. It remains to show that our concrete protocol messages satisfy this condition.

Interestingly, the strengthening of the definition of secrecy obtained by adding the adversary knowledge under the  $analyze$  operator is essential. It has the effect that nonce secrecy is trivially preserved by the adversary’s send function  $adv\_send.i$ . Without this strengthening, the predicate  $nS\_send\_pre$  would arise as a precondition of  $adv\_send.i$  and make that case unprovable, since we cannot control what messages the adversary may send to users. The strengthening shifts the precondition to the user side, where the protocol determines which messages are sent.

Using invariants  $keySecrecy$ ,  $uniqueInitNonce$ , and  $uniqueRespNonce$ , we can indeed show that the protocol messages satisfy the precondition  $nS\_send\_pre$  (the BPW-model invariant  $keySecrecy$  guarantees that secret keys do not leak to the adversary). For example, for the preservation of  $nonceSecrecy$  by the system user handler, we have proved that  $proto\_user\_handler$  establishes a postcondition stating that message  $NSL1$  has been constructed with a fresh nonce. Together with the invariant  $keySecrecy$ , this fact implies  $nS\_send\_pre$  for message  $NSL1$ . The cases for messages  $NSL2$  and  $NSL3$  are similar, but require the additional use of  $uniqueInitNonce$  and  $uniqueRespNonce$ , respectively.

The preservation results on the BPW-model level are easily lifted to protocol functions not calling  $send.i$  (e.g.  $mk\_msg1$ ) by repeated application of the Hoare proof rule for sequential composition, “pulling” the invariant over the individual function calls.

## 5.4. Discussion and Evaluation

Reasoning in the BPW model is inherently stateful and, as originally proposed involves complex pointer-based data structures. As observed in the introduction, our main task in formalizing this model was to develop abstractions, proof strategies, and supporting proof tools to allow us to reduce this complexity and reason efficiently about the state and the state-transitions that result from calls to the interface functions. One of our strategies was to automate as much reasoning as possible using the WPC. The main enabling factors for this strategy were the model abstraction provided by moving from the indexed to the term-based model and the property abstraction introduced by using the operators  $analyze$  and  $parts$  along with their equational theories. We now routinely use the WPC up to the level of BPW-model interface functions and switch to Hoare logic only at the protocol and system levels.

More precisely, we have adopted the following proof strategy for systematically proving invariants, which we illustrate using the NSL protocol and a hypothetical invariant  $I$  as an example. We explain our three-step strategy in a top-down manner, although we often proceed bottom-up in practice. First, we apply a LTL proof rule to reduce the temporal statement that  $I$  is an NSL invariant (expressed as  $NSLtrsys \models \Box(Pred \ I)$ ) to a set of Hoare triples of the form:

$$\{I \cap J\} \ h \ x \ \{\> \ \lambda z. \ I\}$$

There is one such triple for each system interface function  $h$ , stating that  $h$  preserves  $I$  on all inputs  $x$ . The LTL proof rule achieving this reduction embodies an induction over positions in system runs and uses auxiliary invariants (here represented by  $J$ ) in order to strengthen the induction hypothesis. Second, we use the rules of Hoare logic to decompose these preservation statements into similar statements about the BPW-model interface functions. However, as illustrated in Sect. 5.3, the preservation of the invariant  $I$  by BPW-model interface functions  $f$  may require auxiliary preconditions ( $pre.f \ x$ ):

$$\{(pre.f \ x) \cap I \cap J\} \ f \ x \ \{\> \ \lambda z. \ I\}$$

We must ensure that we can derive any such auxiliary precondition ( $pre.f \ x$ ) of a BPW-model interface function  $f$  called in a protocol handler  $h$  from the postconditions of functions called in  $h$  before  $f$ .<sup>3</sup> In order to minimize the use of ad hoc lemmas, we prove characteristic Hoare triples for the auxiliary functions appearing in the protocol handlers (such as  $parse\_msg$  and  $mk\_msg1$  in the NSL protocol). These Hoare triples have only auxiliary invariants in the precondition and a strong postcondition characterizing

<sup>3</sup>Note that since the adversary’s interface functions are also system-level interface functions, they are not allowed to have such auxiliary preconditions if  $I$  is to be system invariant.

the effect of the respective function. The idea is to collect all the information we need to prove  $(pre_f x)$  from these postconditions. The difficulty of this step depends on the number of BPW interface functions requiring auxiliary preconditions, which are generally few (often only  $send_i$ ). In the third step, we prove the preservation lemmas for the BPW-model interface functions by unfolding them into the WPC and then applying the automatic proof tools including the simplifier and the tableau reasoner. The former makes heavy use of the equational theories of  $analyze$  and  $parts$ . The automatic tools may require additional lemmas about consequences of auxiliary invariants to complete the proof.

After abstracting most of the non-inherent complexity of the BPW model, we obtained a framework in which cryptographically sound protocol verification in the sense of BR-SIM/UC is possible. However, due to the pointer-like nature of handles we are constrained to the fine-grained BPW interface functions to handle messages in a constructor-wise manner. This is the main remaining intrinsic complexity in our model. In contrast, the complexity added by the non-standard aspects of the cryptographic operations (e.g. length-revealing ciphertexts, probabilistic encryption and signature transformations) do not complicate proofs significantly.

Paulson's security protocol proofs in Isabelle/HOL provide a natural benchmark for our own proofs and for judging the cost of this remaining complexity. Ideally, the cost would be zero. That is, we could construct proofs using cryptographically sound abstractions with an effort comparable to that required when using the considerably simpler abstractions provided by the Dolev-Yao model. For the moment, we are still some distance from this ideal as our proofs are roughly two orders of magnitudes larger than Paulson's. Whereas he uses a few lines to prove an invariant, we need an entire Isabelle theory of several hundred lines. A similar picture arises at the global level: his NSL proof needs roughly 3 pages (counting the automatically generated Isabelle documentation), while ours occupies 140 pages. However, the length of a proof is a poor measure of its complexity. A substantial part of this difference can be attributed to the fact that we have to show preservation of every invariant by all 17 BPW-model interface functions before we can start reasoning at the protocol level. However, as explained above, most lemmas can be derived systematically and largely automatically using the WPC. A typical proof script for a preservation lemma in an invariant proof requires 2–6 lines of tactics and the variations between them are small. We think that the complexity of the property specifications and the proofs (e.g., the invention of invariants) is comparable to Paulson's and we are optimistic about being able to further reduce this gap in the future.

## 6. Conclusion

We have developed an abstraction of the BPW model, along with strategies and proof tools, that enables practical protocol security proofs in Isabelle/HOL with strong soundness guarantees. In doing so, we have substantially reduced the non-inherent complexity of the BPW model in a way that brings us closer to the considerably simpler abstractions provided by the standard Dolev-Yao model and inductive proof techniques used, e.g., by Paulson.

We see a number of directions for future work. First, we would like to develop methods to reduce the impact of the inherent complexity. One possibility is to investigate changes to the model, either by building a higher-level interface for protocols or even changing the model itself (which would, however, necessitate a new soundness proof). For example, it would simplify proofs to reduce the number of interface functions from 17 to 3, namely functions for building, parsing, and sending messages. This would enable more compact protocol specifications as well as shorter proofs based on general results about these functions. Second, we have built basic proof tools and have developed systematic strategies for constructing proofs using the general automated reasoning tools provided by Isabelle, mainly rewriting and tableau theorem proving. However we have not yet developed any specialized proof tactics tailored to our strategies. As mentioned in Sect. 5.4, we see considerable potential for improvement here. Finally, we intend to carry out further case studies in order to broaden our experience with our formalization and proof strategies. It would be useful here to incorporate more features into our formalization such as symmetric encryption and MACs. The technical details have been worked out [7, 4] and await implementation.

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