A Uniform Framework for the Formal Specification and Verification of Information Flow Security

Heiko Mantel

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Dekan Prof. Dr. Philipp Slusallek
Vorsitzender Prof. Dr. Gert Smolka
Gutachter Prof. Dr. Jörg H. Siekmann, Universität des Saarlandes
Prof. Dr. David Basin, ETH Zürich, Schweiz
Dr. John D. McLean, Naval Research Laboratory, Washington, D.C., USA
Short Abstract

In this thesis, we elaborate a uniform basis for the systematic investigation of possibilistic information flow properties. These properties are suitable for specifying security requirements formally such that they can be verified with mathematical rigor. We analyze the variety of known properties, propose new ones, and develop techniques that simplify their verification.

To this end, we introduce MAKS, a uniform framework for the investigation of information flow properties. The two basic ideas underlying MAKS are: firstly, to separate application-specific aspects of an information flow property from more application-independent aspects and, secondly, to express the latter aspects by assembling primitive building blocks. This modular representation provides a basis for reducing complex reasoning about information flow properties to reasoning about conceptually simpler building blocks. Following this approach, we analyze several information flow properties from the literature, elaborate their advantages and disadvantages, and derive a taxonomy of these properties. In this process, we discover several novel information flow properties that constitute improvements of known ones. Moreover, we exploit the modular representation for developing verification techniques for information flow properties. In particular, we derive unwinding results that reduce the verification of information flow properties to the verification of simpler unwinding conditions. We also derive compositionality results that support the verification of complex systems by reducing the overall verification task to the verification of the individual system components.

The applicability of our results is demonstrated by several examples and also by a complex case study from the area of language-based security.
Deutsche Kurzzusammenfassung


Die Verwendung der vorgestellten Ergebnisse und vorgeschlagenen Konzepte wird in vielen kleinen Beispielen illustriert. Außerdem wird die praktische Verwendbarkeit an einer komplexen Fallstudie aus dem Bereich der statischen Programmanalyse gezeigt.
Extended Abstract

The security of information systems is of critical importance. For instance, many customers in electronic banking are concerned about keeping the balance of their accounts confidential. The integrity of bank accounts is important for their owners and also for the banking industry. In electronic commerce, some customers do not want their transactions to become public. For the success of electronic voting, the confidentiality and integrity of electronic votes are obvious prerequisites as they are the basis of democracy. However, the various security needs are opposed by manifold possibilities for attacks, in particular, since the advent of the Internet.

The key question is: How can we, as computer scientists, make sure that the critical systems that we build are indeed secure? To this end, formal methods offer a rigorous solution: By verifying formally that a system meets its requirements, one ensures with mathematical precision that this is indeed the case. Further advantages of formal methods are that requirements can be specified without ambiguities and that specifying a system and its requirements formally leads to a better understanding, which often reveals flaws before the actual verification begins.

In this thesis, we focus on the formal specification and verification of security requirements concerning confidentiality and integrity. The security properties that we investigate for this purpose belong to the class of probabilistic information flow properties. Using these properties, for instance, the confidentiality of data is expressed by the requirement that observations of untrusted users are not influenced by any confidential data. This means, in particular, that untrusted users must not be able to directly read the data. Expressing confidentiality by the lack of dependencies excludes also more subtle attacks that exploit malfunctioning or malicious programs with legitimate access to the confidential data (e.g. that a Trojan horse sends the data in some encoded form to an untrusted user). This is what makes information flow properties superior to access control policies. Another advantage of information flow properties is that they do not constrain the security mechanism (e.g. access control) that is used in a system for enforcing the security requirements. In other words, they capture what the requirements are without prescribing how they should be fulfilled.

To date, there is a (confusing) variety of different information flow properties that have been proposed for various reasons. For some of these properties, verification techniques have been developed already. However, information flow properties differ fundamentally from "usual" system properties like safety or liveness as they are properties of sets of traces.

In this thesis, our main objectives are: to provide a basis for the systematic investigation of information flow properties, to elaborate a better understanding of the properties known from the literature, to improve them where possible, and to develop techniques that simplify their verification. We sketch our main contributions in these respects in the following.

In Chapter 3, we introduce the Modular Assembly Kit for Security Properties (abbreviated MAKS), a framework for probabilistic information flow properties. The uniform representation in our framework provides a basis for the systematic investigation of a large number of properties. Formally, an information flow property is represented in MAKS by a pair consisting of a set of views and a security predicate. This representation cleanly separates the application-specific restrictions on the flow of information (expressed by the set of views) from the application-independent semantics of such restrictions (expressed by the security predicate). Security predicates are defined in a modular way by assembling basic security predicates (abbreviated BSPs) from a given set. These BSPs are the building blocks of MAKS. Based on this modular representation, the investigation of a complex information flow property can
be reduced to the investigation of each individual BSP from which the property is assembled. We exploit this possibility at several points of this thesis to simplify our investigations.

In Chapter 4, we analyze information flow properties from the literature, elaborate their relationship, and point out their advantages and disadvantages. So far, the diversity of information flow properties has been confusing and the relationship between many properties was not well understood. In particular, the selection of a suitable information flow property has been a difficult task during formal developments. Beyond the investigation of known properties, we show how novel properties can be derived in MAKs. The possibility to derive a new property in a goal-directed fashion when it is needed is preferable to inventing the property in an ad-hoc manner.

In Chapters 5 and 6, we develop techniques for simplifying the verification of information flow properties. Without such techniques, the verification of these properties is quite involved because they are closure properties of sets of traces. The unwinding approach reduces the verification of information flow properties to the verification of so-called unwinding conditions. These conditions are easier to handle during verification because they involve only individual computation steps rather than complete system behaviors. We show for several information flow properties how they can be proved by unwinding. Moreover, we simplify the verification of unwinding conditions by dropping an assumption made in previous work on unwinding (namely that unwinding relations must be equivalence relations). We show that this assumption is not essential for the soundness of the unwinding technique. For the verification of complex systems, the unwinding technique can be used in combination with a divide-and-conquer approach. To this end, we derive several compositionality results that reduce the verification of the overall system to the (conceptually simpler) verification of individual system components. We also present a classification of compositionality results that provides a more structured perspective on these results. Furthermore, we propose a novel information flow property, weakened forward correctness, that is preserved under composition, and we point out the improvement in comparison to previously proposed properties. All of our verification techniques are developed in a uniform way by exploiting the concepts of MAKs, i.e. we firstly develop the corresponding technique for the individual BSPs and then lift it over the assembling operation. A side effect of this approach is that verification techniques can be easily derived for an information flow property after this property has been represented in MAKs. This facilitates the use of novel information flow properties during formal developments.

We illustrate the applicability of our results in a complex case study from the domain of language-based security in Chapter 7. In the course of the case study, we provide also more general guidelines for such applications.
Ausführliche Zusammenfassung


Die vorliegende Arbeit behandelt die formale Spezifikation und Verifikation von Sicherheitsanforderungen hinsichtlich Vertraulichkeit und Integrität. Zu diesem Zweck werden Sicherheitseigenschaften betrachtet, die zur Klasse der possibilistischen Informationsflusseigenschaften gehören. Die Vertraulichkeit von Daten wird mit diesen Eigenschaften zum Beispiel durch die Anforderung ausgedrückt, dass die Beobachtungen von Nutzern, die nicht vertrauenswürdig sind, nicht von diesen Daten beeinflußt werden dürfen. Dadurch wird insbesondere sichergestellt, dass nicht vertrauenswürdige Nutzer die vertraulichen Daten nicht unmittelbar lesen können. Darüberhinaus schließt eine solche Modellierung von Vertraulichkeit auch subtile Attacken aus, die die Existenz fehlerhafter oder vorsätzlich bösertiger Programme mit erlaubtem Zugriff auf die vertraulichen Daten ausnutzen (z.B. Trojanische Pferde, die die vertraulichen Daten kodiert an nicht vertrauenswürdige Nutzer schicken). Dieses ist ein wesentlicher Vorteil gegenüber Sicherheitsmodellen, die auf Zugriffskontrolle basieren. Ein weiterer Vorteil von Informationsflusseigenschaften ist, dass sie offenlassen, mit welchen Mechanismen die Sicherheitsanforderungen im System realisiert werden, d.h. sie beschreiben, was die Anforderungen sind, ohne die Realisierungsmöglichkeiten einzuschränken.

Es gibt eine Vielzahl von Informationsflusseigenschaften, die jeweils aus unterschiedlichen Gründen vorgeschlagen wurden, wobei für manche dieser Eigenschaften bereits entsprechende Verifikationsmethoden entwickelt wurden. Es ist auch bekannt, dass es zwischen Informationsflusseigenschaften und herkömmlichen Systemeigenschaften, wie z.B. Lebendigkeit oder Sicherheit im Sinne von safety, grundsätzliche Unterschiede gibt.

Die wesentlichen Ziele dieser Arbeit sind, eine Grundlage für die systematische Untersuchung von Informationsflusseigenschaften zu schaffen, ein besseres Verständnis der bekannten Eigenschaften herauszuarbeiten, diese weiter zu verbessern und Techniken für ihre Verifikation zu entwickeln. Im folgenden wollen wir unsere Beiträge kurz skizzieren.

In Kapitel 3 wird ein Rahmen MAKS (für: Modular Assembly Kit for Security Properties) für die einheitliche Darstellung von Informationsflusseigenschaften vorgestellt. Dieser uniforme Rahmen bildet die Grundlage für die systematische Untersuchung einer Vielzahl von Informationsflusseigenschaften. Formal setzt sich die Darstellung einer Informationsflusseigen-
schaft in MAKS aus zwei Komponenten zusammen, nämlich einer Menge von sogenannten *views* (zur Spezifikation von Einschränkungen an den Informationsfluss) und einem *security predicate* (zur Definition der Semantik solcher Einschränkungen). Die anwendungsabhängigen Einschränkungen an den Informationsfluss werden also von der anwendungsunabhängigen Semantik klar getrennt. Weiterhin werden die *security predicates* in einer modularen Weise definiert, indem primitive Bausteine (*basic security predicates*, abgekürzt BSPs) zusammengesetzt werden, wofür eine Menge von BSPs zur Verfügung gestellt wird, die die Bausteine von MAKS bilden. Diese modulare Darstellung erlaubt es, die Untersuchung komplexer Informationsflusseigenschaften auf die Untersuchung der weniger komplexen BSPs zurückzuführen. Von dieser Technik werden wir im Verlauf der Arbeit häufig Gebrauch machen, um unsere Untersuchungen zu vereinfachen.

In Kapitel 4 werden die verschiedenen aus der Literatur bekannten Informationsflusseigenschaften untersucht, wobei die Vor- und Nachteile der einzelnen Eigenschaften detailliert herausgearbeitet werden. Ein tieferes Verständnis dieser Eigenschaften ist hilfreich, um die Auswahl einer geeigneten Eigenschaft für die formale Spezifikation gegebener Anforderungen zu erleichtern. Bisher war diese Auswahl recht schwierig, zum einen wegen der Vielzahl der bekannten Informationsflusseigenschaften und zum anderen, weil die Zusammenhänge zwischen den einzelnen Eigenschaften in vielen Fällen nicht hinreichend geklärt waren. Über die Untersuchung bereits bekannter Informationsflusseigenschaften hinausgehend wird aufgezeigt, wie neue Eigenschaften in MAKS synthetisiert werden können. Werden neue Eigenschaften benötigt, so ist diese zielgerichtete Synthese einem Ad-hoc-Vorgehen bei der Konstruktion vorzuziehen.

was wiederum die Verwendung neuer Eigenschaften in formalen Entwicklungen wesentlich erleichtert.

Die praktische Verwendung der vorgestellten Resultate und vorgeschlagenen Konzepte wird in vielen Beispielen illustriert und außerdem in Kapitel 7 an einer komplexen Fallstudie aus dem Bereich der statischen Programmanalyse im Detail gezeigt. Im Verlauf der Fallstudie werden auch Leitlinien für eine allgemeinere Verwendung unserer Resultate gegeben.
Publications

We have published excerpts from this thesis as follows:

An early version of MAKs was presented in [Man00c]. This version was less expressive and less generic than the one described in Chapter 3. Nevertheless, several information flow properties from the literature could be represented in this version already. These properties were also ordered by implication based on this representation. More recent versions of our framework and of the taxonomy were described as preliminaries in [Man02] and brief overviews on MAKs were given in [Man00a, Man00b].

Preliminary versions of our unwinding results were described in [Man00d]. These results were based on more restrictive assumptions than those in Chapter 5. Moreover, the relationship between information flow properties and refinement statements was pointed out, providing a basis for using simulation techniques to verify information flow properties. Appendix C elaborates these aspects in much more detail.

An earlier version of our compositionality results was published in [Man02]. Chapter 6 describes these results in more detail and, in particular, presents the complete proofs.

The case study in Chapter 7 is based on joint work with Andrei Sabelfeld. Previous versions of this case study have been presented in [MS01, MS03a]. These versions differ slightly from the one presented here (see Section 7.7).

Additional publications during my PhD studies have not been incorporated into this thesis for reasons of space and time. They are concerned with intransitive information flow [Man01a], refinement of secure systems [Man01b], language-based security [SM02], other applications of information flow properties [MSK+01, HMS03], tool support for information flow properties and, more generally, for formal methods [HMR+98, AHMS99, AHMS00, AHL+00, MS03b], formal methods for fault tolerance [MG00a, MG00b], and theorem proving [KMOS97, AM98, AMS98, Man98, MK98, MO99, KM03]. The contributions most closely related to this thesis are briefly discussed in Chapter 8.
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Chapter 1
Introduction

The important and still growing role information systems play in many aspects of today's life requires systems that can be trusted. However, the development of trustworthy systems is not an easy task. There are numerous examples of failures of computer systems and in many situations users have even become used to the fact that their computers do not work properly. Given that failures of computer systems can put life, liberty, and property at tremendous risk (cf. [Neu95]), there is a desperate need for improvements in the current situation.

Malfunctions of information systems can be attributed either to conceptual errors or to flaws in the implementation. In either case, the application of formal methods appears to be most promising for avoiding such errors during system development [Jon01]. The construction of formal models enforces that system requirements have been thoroughly understood when a system is built, formal notions are helpful to avoid ambiguities in requirement descriptions, and, moreover, they provide a basis for the verification of critical requirements.

Of course, the intended application determines which of the requirements are of critical importance for a given system. Besides functional correctness, i.e. proper outputs are produced for all inputs, at least four main classes of critical system properties can be distinguished: safety properties, real-time properties, fault-tolerance properties, and security properties [Rus94]. While safe or real-time systems usually operate in relatively benign environments, fault-tolerant or secure systems have to be reliable even if the environment is hostile. In fault tolerance, this hostility can be attributed to random events like, e.g., a processor crash or the notorious cosmic ray that flips a bit in memory. However, in security, the hostility of the environment is not accidental. Rather, pest programs like, e.g., Trojan horses or computer viruses, are hostile on purpose and countermeasures against attacks are being outmaneuvered in a goal-directed and increasingly sophisticated fashion.

Security engineering is the area of computer science that tackles the challenge to construct information systems that are reliable even if they operate in these hostile environments. When engineering secure systems, difficulties arise not only from possible attacks but also from the complexity of those systems. For example, it must be taken into account that the widespread interconnection of information systems, in particular by the Internet, allows various forms of almost borderless communication. Moreover, the information exchanged increasingly itself consists of software and it is very difficult, often practically impossible, for a user to fully assess what this software will do on their systems [Sch99]. This complexity makes it particularly important to have precise criteria for the security of systems as well as the possibility to rigorously check whether these criteria are fulfilled by a given system.
The aim of this thesis is to improve formal development techniques for secure systems. More precisely, the focus is on the formal specification and verification of a special class of security properties, namely restrictions on the information flow within a system. This class of security properties can express confidentiality as well as integrity requirements. Historically, this approach to specifying and verifying security requirements has evolved from Goguen and Meseguer's well known noninterference [GM82, GM84]. Based on the ideas underlying noninterference, numerous other information flow properties have been proposed in order to cope with issues like, e.g., nondeterministic system behavior or compositional system design. By providing a unified perspective on the various information flow properties, this thesis contributes to a deeper understanding of these properties. Beyond this, the state-of-the-art in the area of information flow security is advanced in several directions. In particular, we propose new information flow properties, derive compositionality results, and present novel unwinding theorems that ease the verification of information flow properties during formal developments in practice.

We propose a modular framework, MAKs, for the uniform representation of information flow properties. This framework supports the comparison of already known information flow properties and also the goal-directed development of new ones. This has led us to several novel information flow properties that turn out to be improvements of previously proposed properties. Based on the concepts of MAKs, we propose verification techniques that simplify the verification of information flow properties by reducing the overall verification task to the verification of simpler local conditions (unwinding technique) or by reducing the verification of the overall system to the verification of individual system components (compositional verification). The unwinding techniques presented are applicable for every information flow property represented in our framework, i.e. by representing an information flow property in MAKs, one obtains unwinding techniques without any further effort. Hence, the tedious derivation of unwinding techniques for every individual information flow property has become obsolete. The derivation of compositionality results is simplified in a similar way. Using our techniques, compositionality results for a given information flow property can be easily derived based on its representation in MAKs. The applicability of our results is demonstrated in a case study from the area of language-based security. More precisely, we show that a particular language-based analysis technique is sound wrt. some information flow property in our framework and apply our unwinding techniques and compositionality results in this process. This case study is also interesting in its own right because it establishes a rigorous connection between two different areas of computer security: language-based and specification-based information flow control. Further contributions, including results on refinement, intransitive information flow, language-based security, tool support, and further case studies are briefly summarized at the end of the thesis. We have published these results elsewhere in more detail (see page x).

In the remainder of this introduction, we will briefly review the state-of-the-art (in Section 1.1) in order to put our main contributions into perspective (in Sections 1.2–1.5). An overview of the structure of the thesis will be given in Section 1.6.

1.1 A Formal Methods Approach to Security Engineering

In this thesis, we pursue a formal methods approach. Using formal methods, the behavior of systems as well as properties of these systems can be modeled in precise terms. This makes it possible to specify requirements without ambiguities and to verify critical requirements with
mathematical rigor. More generally, it has been argued that formal methods can provide the thinking tools for the future of computer science [Jon01].

1.1.1 Formal Security Models

The formal specification of a system's security requirements is referred to as a formal security model. As depicted in Figure 1.1, a formal security model usually comprises: a system component, a security component, a satisfaction relation between the first two components, and a proof in some calculus that this satisfaction relation holds (e.g. [GM82]). While the system component specifies how the system operates, the security component specifies what security properties are required, and the verified satisfaction relation ensures that these security requirements are, indeed, fulfilled by the system.

```
  system behavior   proof    security properties
                satisfies
  system model / specification formalism
```

Figure 1.1: Structure of a formal security model

Security models can be constructed at different levels of detail. However, in general, a security model incorporates a “model” of the system, rather than the “real” system, and a “model” of the security properties, rather than the “real” properties. Simplifying from reality is done in model building, in particular, because the objective is to obtain representations that are easier to reason about than the real systems or real properties themselves. In model building, the two fundamental concepts used for simplification are abstraction (in order to leave out technical details) and decomposition (in order to distinguish different parts and then to focus on the particularly critical ones). The inverse operations for abstraction and decomposition, i.e. refinement and composition, are necessary in order to map the insights gained from a simplified model back to reality.

From a different perspective, refinement and composition provide a basis for a formal stepwise development process for critical systems. Starting from an abstract specification of a system's requirements, one refines the specification, e.g. by making design decisions or by adding technical details, and decomposes it into simpler specifications such that implementations of the component specifications can be composed to a suitable overall system (divide-and-conquer approach). This stepwise approach allows one to accompany different phases of system development by formal methods like, e.g. the definition phase, the design phase or the implementation phase, and to ensure that critical system properties that have been established in one phase are preserved when moving to the next phase. In particular, this allows one to apply formal methods already before system development has been completed. Applying formal methods during system development has the advantage that conceptual errors can be detected before they result in costly misdevelopments. It is widely accepted that constructing a formal model of a system's requirements, its architecture, and its behavior results in a deeper understanding of the system at the respective level. A positive side effect of the modeling process is that flaws like, e.g., requirements errors or omissions are often detected at this stage [Som96, p. 160]. Further confidence in the system is gained from a formal verification process, which usually reveals further flaws. To date, formal methods have become an integral part of the software engineering process for very critical systems.
For example, evaluation criteria like ITSEC [ITS91] or CC [CC99] require the construction of formal security models during early development phases (for E4/EAL 5 or higher).

1.1.2 A Trace-Based System Model

Usually, all components of a security model are based on a common (semantic) system model or a common (syntactic) specification formalism. The system model that we employ throughout this thesis is a trace-based model, i.e. the behavior of a system is modeled by a set of traces where every trace models a possible execution sequence of the system. Formally, a trace is a sequence of events where every event models an atomic action like, e.g. sending a message or receiving a message. Nondeterministic behavior is modeled by the possibility of different execution sequences, i.e. we employ a probabilistic system model (rather than a probabilistic one). Probabilities with which the different possible execution sequences will occur need not be specified in a probabilistic specification. This considerably simplifies the construction of system specifications, which, nevertheless, often remains a nontrivial task.

Similarly, system properties can be distinguished depending on whether they are only concerned with possible executions (probabilistic properties) or also with the probability of these executions (probabilistic properties). In this thesis, we focus on probabilistic properties, i.e. properties that are expressed in terms of possible executions and that do not depend on probabilities of these executions. For simplicity, we refer by “properties” always to “probabilistic properties” in the following. In a trace-based system model, many system properties, including safety (e.g. invariants) and liveness properties (e.g. termination), can be modeled by sets of traces. Properties of this kind are referred to as properties of traces because they are satisfied if every possible trace of the given system is contained in the set that specifies the property (cf. e.g. [AS85]). However, not every critical system property can be modeled by a set of traces. For example, many security properties are properties of sets of traces, i.e. they need to be modeled by sets of sets of traces. In particular, this is true for information flow properties [McL94b], i.e. the security properties investigated in this thesis.

The particular trace-based system model that we employ is that of event systems. This system model has been quite popular for the investigation of information flow properties (e.g. [McC87, GN88, JT88, Mil94, ZL97]). Using event systems, a given system is specified not only by a set of traces (modeling the system’s behavior) but also by sets of input events and output events (modeling the system’s interface). Event systems provide a suitable basis for the specification of complex systems, e.g. by composing a system from components that operate concurrently and communicate with each other via their interfaces. Nevertheless, this system model is conceptually quite simple and easy to apply.

1.1.3 Modeling Security Requirements

It is not trivial to specify the security requirements for a given system correctly. Let us give an example in order to illustrate the kind of mistakes that can easily be made.

The confidentiality of some value within a system might naively be expressed by the requirement that this value must never leave the system. For example, if you have $5,342 in your bank account then confidentiality of your balance would be expressed by the requirement that the number 5,342 must not leave your PC (e.g. as part of an e-mail). In particular, this implies that a program that helps you to administer your bank account does not send your balance to the supplier of the program. However, this naive approach has serious deficiencies.
Firstly, it is too restrictive: e.g. if 5,342 happens to be the registration number of your software license then it would be impossible to e-mail a license agreement (containing the registration number) to the supplier of the program. Nevertheless, it is quite obvious that this would not reveal your balance. Secondly, the naïve approach is too liberal: e.g. the program might increment the confidential value, then send 5,343 (instead of 5,342) to its supplier, and the supplier would obtain the balance by decrementing the received number.

This illustrates that the critical issue is not whether any output of the system contains confidential values but rather whether it depends on confidential information. Hence, confidentiality should be expressed as the lack of dependencies on confidential information. This approach is taken by the security properties considered in this thesis. More specifically, information flow properties are investigated that are based on the idea of noninterference, which is the topic of the following section.

1.1.4 Specifying Security Requirements with Noninterference

Numerous different information flow properties have been proposed, including noninterference [GM82], nondeducibility [Sut86], restrictiveness [McC87], separability [McL94], and many others. These properties differ in their formal definitions, sometimes in quite subtle ways. Nevertheless, they share the following common intuitive understanding of noninterference:

A group of processes is noninterfering with another group of processes if the actions of the first group have no effect on the observations of the second group.

Hence, if a group of processes is noninterfering with another group then there is no information flow from the first group to the second group (the observations do not depend on the actions). This means, on the one hand, that processes in the first group cannot reveal any secrets (e.g. passwords, encryption keys, classified data, or private information like your balance) to processes in the second group and, on the other hand, that processes in the second group cannot be corrupted by processes in the first group. These observations provide the basis for modeling confidentiality requirements as well as integrity requirements between processes.

However, noninterference is not limited to specifying security requirements between processes. Namely, restrictions on the flow of information between any subjects (e.g. processes, threads, or users) can be specified. Moreover, noninterference can also be used to specify restrictions on the flow of information within processes or within threads. For example, this is necessary to specify security requirements for a process that accesses confidential information, that also communicates with untrusted users, but that must not communicate any confidential information to these untrusted users. In order to express security requirements with this fine granularity, it must be possible to require noninterference between individual atomic actions. However, it would be quite inconvenient to specify for every pair of events whether they may interfere with each other or not. Therefore, the concept of security domains is introduced. Related events are grouped into security domains and noninterference is specified in terms of security domains rather than in terms of individual events. Giving names \( D_1, D_2, \ldots \) to security domains allows one to specify security requirements abstractly (e.g. by the statement \( D_1 \not\Rightarrow D_2 \)) without having to consider the specific sets of events.

Note that the only difference between confidentiality requirements and integrity requirements (when expressed in terms of noninterference) is the direction in which security domains must not interfere. In case of confidentiality, the protected security domains must not interfere with the environment and, in case of integrity, the environment must not interfere with
the protected security domains. Therefore, the integrity problem is the dual of the confidentiality problem. Throughout this thesis, we will take the viewpoint of confidentiality, i.e. we interpret a noninterference statement \( D_1 \not\to D_2 \) as “the activities in domain \( D_1 \) are confidential for domain \( D_2 \)”. However, most of our explanations can be translated to integrity by exploiting the duality between confidentiality and integrity. Since we focus on confidentiality in the presentation, we will use the term “security” synonymously with “confidentiality”.

1.1.5 Noninterference Definitions

In Section 1.1.4, we have informally introduced noninterference but in order to verify that noninterference statements like \( D_1 \not\to D_2 \) are actually satisfied by a given system we need a formal definition.

The system model underlying Goguen and Meseguer’s definition of noninterference is that of deterministic state machines. In this model, a system accepts commands from its various users as input, processes these commands according to a deterministic transition function, and returns outputs to the users according to a deterministic output function. For a given system, noninterference holds between two users \( U_1 \) and \( U_2 \) (expressed by \( U_1 \not\to U_2 \)) if the output given to \( U_2 \) does not depend on whether \( U_1 \) provides input to the system or not. More precisely, \( U_1 \not\to U_2 \) holds if for every sequence of commands the output to \( U_2 \) after execution of this sequence is identical to the output to \( U_2 \) after execution of the purged sequence, i.e. the sequence that results after removing all commands issued by \( U_1 \).\(^1\) Intuitively, the idea is: if \( U_2 \)'s output does not depend on whether \( U_1 \) inputs any commands then there cannot be any information flow from \( U_1 \) to \( U_2 \). In particular, it is not possible that confidential information flows from \( U_1 \) to \( U_2 \).

There are many other formal definitions of noninterference. Even the noninterference definition by Goguen and Meseguer [GM82] is predated by earlier work in this direction [FLR77, Rus81b]. Numerous further variants of noninterference have been proposed over the last 20 years (e.g. [Sut86, McC87, Fol87, Jac88, JT88, GN88, McL90, WJ90, O’H90, Gra91, Rya91, BC92, MC92, Rus92, McL94a, FG95, Ros95, ZL97, RG99, Scho01, FR02]). In order to avoid confusion with Goguen and Meseguer’s notion of noninterference, these later variants were given different names like, e.g., nondeducibility, generalized noninterference, restrictiveness, or noninterference. Nevertheless, all of these information flow properties intuitively share the same underlying idea, namely the one of noninterference.

1.1.6 Related Work on Noninterference

This section focuses just on the main developments on noninterference that are relevant for the contributions of this thesis. It is not intended as a complete overview on all work in this area. Further discussions of related work are contained in the introductions and summaries of the various chapters in this thesis. For a general overview on noninterference and other security models, we refer to [McL94b]. More specific overviews on intransitive information flow and on refinement of information flow properties can be found in the related work sections of our articles on these topics [Man01a, Man01b].

One major line of research has been concerned with finding formal definitions of noninterfe-
ence that are appropriate for deterministic systems as well as for nondeterministic systems.

Goguen and Meseguer's definition of noninterference is only adequate for deterministic systems because the underlying system model, i.e. that of deterministic state machines, is not well suited for modeling nondeterministic systems. Historically, Sutherland's nondeducibility [Sut86] was the first information flow property suitable for nondeterministic systems. Subsequently, many other information flow properties that are also suitable for deterministic as well as for nondeterministic systems followed, e.g., generalized noninterference [McCS87], noninterference [O'H90], or separability [McL94a]. Typical motivations for proposing a new property were examples of systems that are intuitively insecure although they satisfy a previously proposed information flow property (motivating the definition of a more restrictive property), examples of systems that violate a previously proposed information flow property although they are intuitively secure (motivating the definition of a less restrictive property), or the choice of a system model for which previously no information flow property had been proposed. As a consequence of this line of research, to date, multiple information flow properties co-exist, none of them being superior to all others, in general.

The confusing diversity of information flow properties has made comparisons necessary because it is sometimes hard to see the similarities and differences of these properties. In particular, it is hardly possible to compare two properties directly if the underlying system models differ considerably. System models used in the context of information flow security include event systems [McC87, JT88, MiH94, ZL97], other trace-based models [McL94a], nondeterministic state machines [McC90, WJ90], the process algebra CSP [Hoa85] with different semantics [RS99] (trace semantics [Jac89, Sch01], ready sets semantics [Rya91], and failure divergence semantics [Ros95]), the process algebra SPA [FG95], and probabilistic models [McL90, WJ90, Gra91]. Therefore, before comparing information flow properties that are based on different system models, their definitions need to be translated into a common system model. This means, rather than comparing information flow properties directly, their translations are compared. For example, McLean translated information flow properties into a trace-based model before comparing them to each other [McL94a, McL96]. In contrast to this, Focardi/Gorrieri based their comparison of information flow properties on labeled transition systems and the process algebra SPA [FG95] and Zakinthinos/Lee used event systems [Zak96, ZL97]. Common to all these comparisons is that they focus on possibilistic information flow properties rather than probabilistic ones. As we also focus on possibilistic properties in this thesis, we use the term "information flow property" synonymously with "possibilistic information flow property" in the following.

The previous comparisons of information flow properties have led to a better understanding of these properties. In particular, taxonomies have been derived that show which information flow properties are more restrictive than others. Moreover, uniform representations of information flow properties from the literature revealed similarities between properties that look very different in their original definitions. It has even become possible to derive general

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\[\text{Ppossibilistic information flow properties are conceptually simpler than probabilistic information flow properties. Moreover, possibilistic properties do not require the construction of a probabilistic system specification (a possibilistic system specification suffices) and, hence, they are easier to apply in formal developments. The price paid for these advantages is that probabilistic covert channels (ones that could be exploited based on Shannon's information theory [Sha48]) cannot be ruled out by possibilistic information flow properties [WJ90]. For a description of probabilistic information flow properties like the (applied) flow model [McL90, Gra91] or probabilistic noninterference [Gra91] and a discussion of the trade-off between possibilistic information flow properties and probabilistic ones, we refer to [WJ90, McL94b].} \]
results concerning compositionality that hold for whole classes of information flow properties rather than only for individual properties. However, none of the previous comparisons covers all the important information flow properties from the literature. Moreover, a clear identification of the kinds of systems for which the various properties are good for is missing. Finally, there seems to be a trade-off between expressiveness and uniformity in the underlying frameworks. While the uniform framework (selective interleaving functions) underlying McLean's comparison [McL94a, McL96] provides a basis for deriving general compositionality results for classes of information flow properties, this framework is not expressive enough to represent all properties that are of interest. In contrast to this, the frameworks underlying the comparisons by Focardi/Gorrieri [FG95], Peri/Wulf/Kienzle [PWK96], and Zakinthinos/Lee [Zak96, ZL97] are, in principle, quite expressive but they lack uniform concepts for the representation of information flow properties that could be used to show general results about classes of properties.

**Verification Techniques.** Another line of research has been concerned with the development of techniques that simplify the verification of information flow properties. Although a direct verification of information flow properties is also possible (cf. [McL92]), this is usually a complex task. The key observation for the development of verification techniques for information flow properties was that the global requirement imposed by an information flow property can be reduced to more local conditions that involve only individual transitions [GM84] and, hence, are easier to handle during verification. The proof that the local conditions imply the given information flow property involves an inductive argument and, therefore, this approach is known under the name unwinding. The local verification conditions are called unwinding conditions and the theorem ensuring the implication of the information flow property is called the unwinding theorem.

Traditionally, unwinding assumes that system states can be grouped into classes such that states in the same class are indistinguishable from each other for a potential attacker. If actions that involve confidential information (like, e.g., the receipt of a secret message) always cause a transition from a state in one class to another state in the same class then, intuitively, these actions do not interfere with the observations of the attacker. This is because the states before and after these actions are indistinguishable for him. Another typical unwinding condition is that the classification of states must be preserved under stepwise execution, a requirement that bears similarities to the requirement imposed on congruence relations. Formally, the grouping of states into classes is usually given by a relation, the so called unwinding relation that must be specified before the unwinding conditions can be proven.

Starting with an unwinding theorem for noninterference [GM84], unwinding theorems for various other information flow properties have been proposed [HY87, Jac90, GCS91, Rya91, MC92, Rus92, Mil94, Pin95, Zak96, RS99]. Each of these unwinding theorems aims at the verification of one particular information flow property. Examples of properties for which unwinding theorems have been developed are noninterference, generalized noninterference, forward correctability, and the perfect security property.

However, unwinding results do not exist for all information flow properties of interest. Moreover, it is somewhat annoying that unwinding theorems for different properties are derived separately although the proofs of different unwinding theorems often have a lot in common. One might hope that these similarities provide a basis for more general results on unwinding. However, no such general results have been proposed so far.
Preservation under Composition. The development of large and complex systems is only feasible if a divide-and-conquer approach is applied: Requirements for the overall system are divided into subtasks, these subtasks are assigned to system components, and, after the specification of component interfaces, components can be developed independently. Upon composing the system, the satisfaction of the overall requirements should follow from the fact that all components fulfill their specifications. Any need to inspect implementation details of system components in this process would not only violate the idea of the divide-and-conquer approach, but it would also lead to an undesired increase of complexity. Moreover, since vendors are often unwilling to reveal details about their products, implementation details about some components might simply not be available.

Unfortunately, information flow properties are not preserved under composition, in general [McC87]. However, certain information flow properties are known to be preserved under composition. For example, McCullough's restrictiveness is, in general, composable [McC87]. In fact, historically, restrictiveness was the first composable information flow property. Other information flow properties that are preserved under arbitrary composition are, e.g., forward correctability [JT88], separability [McL94a], and the perfect security property [ZL97]. For certain information flow properties that are not preserved under composition in general, restrictions are known under which these properties are preserved [McL94a, McL96, ZL96]. For example, generalized noninterference is preserved if components are composed sequentially in the form of a cascade such that communication occurs only in one direction. There are many other studies that have investigated the compositionalty of information flow properties (e.g. [GN88, Mil90, O'H92, BCC94, RW95, Jü00, Sch01]).

Nevertheless, a couple of important problems have remained unsolved. In particular, a uniform theory of composition for secure systems is still missing. To date, the various compositionalty results are only loosely connected. Deeper insights, on how these results are related, would be desirable. It would also be helpful to more deeply understand why some properties are composable while others are not. Moreover, the derivation of compositionalty results is often a quite difficult task and one might wish to have techniques that simplify the derivation of such results. McLean's framework of selective interleaving functions [McL94a, McL96] is certainly a step towards a uniform theory of composition for secure systems. This framework also simplifies the derivation of compositionalty results. However, several information flow properties cannot be represented in the framework and, hence, it obviously cannot help in the derivation of compositionalty results for such properties. An example for a known result that cannot be derived in that framework is the compositionalty of forward correctability.

1.2 MAKS: A Framework for Information Flow Properties

In this thesis, we propose the Modular Assembly Kit for Security Properties (abbreviated by MAKS in the following), a uniform framework for information flow properties. The main objective of our framework is to serve as a basis for reasoning about information flow properties. This means, MAKS is intended as a thinking tool for a particular class of security properties.

The three main features of MAKS are:

Expressiveness The well known information flow properties can be represented in our framework including generalized noninterference [McC87, McL94a, ZL97], forward correctability [JT88], nondeducibility for outputs [GN88], noninference [O'H90], generalized non-inference [McL94a], separability [McL94a], the perfect security property [ZL97], and
several further novel properties that we propose in this thesis.

**Uniformity** Information flow properties are represented in a uniform way as they are specified by pairs consisting of a set of views and a security predicate. The set of views defines the application-specific security requirements where each view roughly corresponds to a noninterference statement. The security predicate provides a formal definition of noninterference. Security predicates are assembled from so-called basic security predicates (abbreviated by BSPs in the following), the basic building blocks of MAKs. This modular representation of information flow properties is the reason why we call our framework an assembly kit. Intuitively, each BSP from which a given information flow property is assembled can be regarded as a “basic ingredient” of that property. Formally, a BSP is a very primitive information flow property.

**Simplification** The modular representation of information flow properties in MAKs allows one to reduce reasoning about complex information flow properties to reasoning about BSPs. For example, information flow properties can be compared to each other by identifying common BSPs in their respective representations and then comparing the BSPs in which they differ. Similarly, an information flow property can be verified by verifying each BSP from which it is assembled. Moreover, proving compositionality results for information flow properties can be reduced to proving compositionality results for BSPs. These reductions simplify reasoning about information flow properties considerably. Moreover, after a result has been proven for a given BSP, this result can be exploited during the investigation of multiple information flow properties.

Other frameworks either emphasize expressiveness (at the cost of uniformity) or uniformity (at the cost of expressiveness). For example, the frameworks by Focardi/Gorrieri [FG95] and by Peri/Wulf/Kienzle [PWK96] are, in principle, expressive enough to represent most information flow properties. However, these frameworks lack concepts that are specifically targeted at a uniform representation of information flow properties. In contrast to this, the framework by McLean [McL94a, McL96] provides concepts for the uniform representation of information flow properties. However, these concepts are not expressive enough to represent all information flow properties that are of interest.

Among the previously proposed frameworks, McLean’s framework of selective interleaving functions is the only one that considerably simplifies the investigation of information flow properties. In particular, it provides a basis for deriving general compositionality results for classes of information flow properties. In this respect, it is the only framework that is comparable to MAKs. However, the limited expressiveness of McLean’s framework implies that the number of properties that can be investigated is quite restricted. Moreover, the derivation of unwinding theorems appears to be outside the scope of that framework. In other words, using MAKs more results can be derived for a greater number of properties.

The concepts for the uniform representation of information flow properties in MAKs differ considerably from the concepts used in the prior frameworks [McL94a, McL96, Zak96, ZL97]. A key novelty of MAKs is that information flow properties are represented in a modular way. To find basic concepts that are sufficiently general to represent the most important information flow properties as well as sufficiently specific to simplify reasoning about the represented properties was one of the main difficulties in the development of MAKs. After these concepts had been defined, another difficulty was to identify suitable building blocks that resemble “basic ingredients” of known information flow properties, i.e. the various BSPs.
The benefit of our modular representation based on these concepts is that reasoning about complex information flow properties can be reduced to reasoning about simpler BSPs. Following this approach, we derive several results with the objective of deepening our understanding of information flow properties. For example, we present a taxonomy of known information flow properties. Based on the insights gained from our investigations, we derive novel information flow properties with the objective of overcoming certain deficiencies of known ones. For example, we derive weakened forward correctability from forward correctability [JT88] because the latter property is unnecessarily restrictive. Other examples of novel information flow properties that we propose are GNI*, IBGNI*, NDO*, and FC* (see Chapter 4).

1.3 Verification Techniques

The verification techniques that we propose in this thesis follow the unwinding approach [GM84]. We introduce a collection of unwinding conditions and prove corresponding unwinding theorems, each of which states that some combination of unwinding conditions implies some information flow property. Unwinding a given information flow property requires one to choose an unwinding theorem for this property, to prove all unwinding conditions named in this theorem, and then to apply the unwinding theorem in order to complete the proof. In comparison to verifying an information flow property directly, the advantage of unwinding is that unwinding conditions are easier to handle during verification. This is because unwinding conditions are expressed in terms of individual actions and, hence, are conceptually simpler than information flow properties, which are expressed in terms of complete execution sequences. Like in most other approaches to unwinding, we use so called unwinding relations (i.e. binary relations between states) in the definition of our unwinding conditions. Typical requirements are that the states before and after certain actions must be related by the unwinding relation or that the unwinding relation is preserved under stepwise execution.

In unwinding theorems, the unwinding relation is existentially quantified. Hence, an unwinding relation must be chosen before the unwinding conditions can be proven. In practice, constructing an appropriate unwinding relation is often more difficult than the actual proof of the unwinding conditions. Therefore, it is quite unfortunate that prior approaches to unwinding further complicate this construction by imposing additional side conditions on the unwinding relation, namely that it must be an equivalence relation (e.g. in [HY87, Rya91, GCS91, MC92, Rus92, Mil94, Zak96, RS99]). An interesting improvement of our approach is that we do not impose any such side conditions and, in particular, do not require that unwinding relations are reflexive, transitive or symmetric. Having no side conditions is convenient in practice because it permits more freedom in the construction of unwinding relations. Eliminating the need for side conditions has also more fundamental advantages. Namely, there are cases where suitable unwinding relations exist but none of them is an equivalence relation. In these cases, proof attempts with the known unwinding techniques would be doomed to fail while the proof can be completed with our techniques.

Our approach is not targeted at verifying a particular information flow property. Rather, we present unwinding techniques that can be used for all information flow properties represented in MAKS. This includes not only properties known today but also further properties that might be proposed in the future. This general applicability of our unwinding techniques has become possible by the modular representation of information flow properties. Since BSPs are assembled by conjunction, an information flow property can be verified by verifying
each BSP from which it is assembled. The unwinding conditions and unwinding theorems that we propose aim at the verification of BSPs and, hence, can be exploited during the verification of all information flow properties that are assembled from these BSPs. This means, by representing an information flow property in MAKS, one obtains unwinding techniques “for free”. In particular, our verification techniques can be applied to nondeducibility for outputs [GN88], separability [McL94a], and many other information flow properties for which previously no unwinding techniques existed. Previous unwinding results do not offer this generality because they aim at the verification of some specific information flow property only. For example, the unwinding result in [GM84] is only applicable to the original definition of noninterference [GM82]; the respective unwinding results in [HY87, Rus92, Pin95] each aim at the verification of a particular variant of intransitive noninterference; the unwinding results in [Rya91] aim at verifying CSP-noninterference; and the unwinding result in [Mil94] aims at verifying forward correctability [JT88]. Zakinthinos suggested a more uniform approach and used this approach to derive unwinding theorems for generalized noninterference, forward correctability, the perfect security property, and generalized noninference. However, he still had to derive these theorems separately for each information flow property [Zak96].

**Summarizing, our main improvements are:**

**No side conditions on the unwinding relation** We do not require that unwinding relations must be reflexive, transitive, or symmetric. The unwinding techniques in this thesis improve on our earlier attempt, in which we showed that the symmetry requirement for unwinding relations is unnecessary [Man00d].

**General applicability** We present unwinding theorems (for BSPs) that can be exploited during the verification of all information flow properties represented in MAKS, including several properties for which previously no unwinding results were available. That is, we do not have to derive unwinding theorems for each individual property from scratch.

In addition to our results on unwinding, we also show that various forms of simulation techniques can be used in the verification of information flow properties. In other words, we propose verification techniques that provide alternatives to the unwinding approach. Simulation techniques like, e.g., forward simulation or backward simulation were originally developed in order to show that one specification refines another specification rather than for the verification of information flow properties.

### 1.4 Compositionality Results

In this thesis, we propose several compositionality results that provide a basis for a modular verification of large and complex systems. Rather than verifying directly that a complex system is “secure”, one verifies that each of its components is “secure” (e.g. by unwinding) and then applies a compositionality result in order to conclude the “security” of the overall system from the “security” of the components.

The various information flow properties behave quite differently under composition. Some information flow properties are preserved under composition in general while others are only preserved if certain, sometimes quite restrictive, conditions are satisfied. An example of a novel compositionality result that we derive is: if two systems each satisfy weakened forward correctability then their composition also satisfies weakened forward correctability. Weakened forward correctability, i.e. our novel information flow property, is an improvement of
Johnson and Thayer's forward correctability [JT88]. This is very interesting because forward correctability itself is an improvement of McCullough's restrictiveness [McC87] (a quite complicated property), which historically was the first information flow property with a general compositionality result. The possibility to further improve this line of composable information flow properties had remained undetected for the last fifteen years.

However, our objective is not only to present a collection of novel compositionality results but rather to provide a basis for deriving such results in a uniform and systematic way. We reduce the problem of preserving a given property under composition to the problem of preserving all BSPs from which it is assembled. This is possible because BSPs are assembled by conjunction. To this end, we derive compositionality results for various BSPs from which compositionality results for more complex information flow properties can be obtained easily.

Previous work on compositionality of information flow properties often focused on one particular property only (like e.g. in [McC87, JT88, GN88, Mil90, BCC94, ZL97]). Moreover, if different information flow properties were considered then compositionality results were derived separately for each of these properties from scratch (like e.g. in [FG95, ZA96]). Prior to our work, the only positive exception to this was McLean's work on compositionality in the context of his framework of selective interleaving functions [McL94a, McL96]. However, several information flow properties for which we derive compositionality results in this thesis could not be investigated by McLean because of the limited expressiveness of his framework.

We also use MAKS to re-justify several already known compositionality results in order to illustrate that our uniform approach works rather generally. As a side effect of these re-justifications, we deepened our understanding of the known compositionality results. The insights that we gained also led to a classification of compositionality results. This classification groups compositionality results that hold for the same reasons into the same class. McLean [McL94a] grouped compositionality results depending on whether they can be applied in similar settings.\(^3\) These two classifications complement each other: while we put more emphasis on understanding the reasons why the various results are valid, McLean puts more emphasis on explaining in which settings these results can be applied.

Summarizing, two main features of our approach to deriving compositionality results are:

**Uniformity** We derive compositionality results in a uniform way. Namely, we reduce the problem of preserving a given information flow property under composition to the problem of preserving all BSPs from which this property is assembled.

**General applicability** We present compositionality results for BSPs that can be used during the derivation of compositionality results for more complex information flow properties. That is, our approach is not targeted to only a single information flow property. Rather, it is applicable to all information flow properties that can be represented in MAKS. We demonstrate by numerous examples that it, indeed, provides a suitable basis for the derivation of a wide range of compositionality results.

### 1.5 Case Study

In order to illustrate how our results can be applied in a concrete setting, we perform a case study of considerable size and complexity. This case study is concerned with a rigorous

\(^3\)More specifically, results are grouped together if they impose the same restriction on the composition operation. Possible restrictions are product, cascade, and general composition.
justification of Sabelfeld and Sands’s approach to language-based security [SS00].

Sabelfeld and Sands proposed a security type system that can be used to check mechanically whether a given program is “secure”. For this type system, they derived a soundness result, stating that every type-correct program satisfies the strong security condition. However, the strong security condition is somewhat non-standard and has been derived by Sabelfeld and Sands in an ad hoc fashion. In the case study, we show that every program that is strongly secure also satisfies a particular information flow property in MAKS. An immediate consequence of this implication is that the security type system is sound wrt. this information flow property. This is a more convincing soundness result than the original one because it relates the security type system to a security condition from a well established class of information flow properties.

The programming language that we consider is DMWL, an imperative language with features for multi-threaded as well as for distributed programming. This language is an extension of the language originally considered by Sabelfeld and Sands. We start the case study by specifying the behavior of DMWL programs in an event-based formalism. Rather than specifying the behavior of a particular program, we specify the behaviors of all DMWL programs. In other words, we specify the operational semantics of DMWL by an event system. This (generic) specification is the system component of our security model. We proceed in the case study by expressing the security requirements for DMWL programs with an information flow property. In this process, we show how a suitable information flow property can be constructed in a goal-directed and application-driven way with the help of MAKS. Interestingly, the information flow property at which we arrive is completely novel. With the help of our taxonomy of information flow properties, we obtain a basic understanding of this novel property and its relation to known properties. The specification of the information flow property constitutes the security component of our security model. Finally, we verify that this information flow property holds for all strongly secure programs. For this purpose, we firstly prove that the property holds for primitive system components (i.e. for individual, strongly secure processes) with the help of our unwinding techniques. Secondly, we prove that the information flow property holds for more complex systems (i.e. for distributed systems consisting of multiple, strongly secure processes) by exploiting a compositionality result that is derived using our uniform approach to deriving compositionality results.

Summarizing, the case study encompasses all areas to which we contribute in this thesis. Namely, we use MAKS to derive a suitable information flow property; we use the taxonomy in order to deepen our understanding of this property; we apply our unwinding techniques to verify this property for individual processes; and we exploit our approach to deriving compositionality results for verifying that the property holds for distributed programs.

1.6 Overview

After this introductory chapter and the description of preliminaries in Chapter 2, the thesis is structured as follows:

The presentation of our own contributions begins in Chapter 3 with the description of MAKS. We formally define all basic concepts of MAKS and propose a collection of BSPs. These BSPs will be used to assemble information flow properties throughout this thesis. We also derive a taxonomy of our BSPs that can be used to compare BSPs with each other.

In Chapter 4, we show how the information flow properties from the literature can be
represented with MAKS in a modular way. Thereby, we demonstrate that MAKS is expressive enough to serve as a basis for the investigation of information flow properties. Based on the modular representation, we clarify several issues about the represented properties and, in particular, present a taxonomy of known information flow properties.

Unwinding techniques are proposed in Chapter 5. We present unwinding conditions and unwinding theorems for our BSPs. We also show how these unwinding results for BSPs can be exploited during the verification of more complex information flow properties. This chapter is complemented by Appendix C in which we propose further verification techniques.

In Chapter 6, we show how compositionality results can be derived following a uniform approach. This approach builds on the modular representation of information flow properties in MAKS. We apply our approach in order to re-justify several already known compositionality results, which culminates in a classification of compositionality results. We also derive several novel compositionality results and propose a novel composable information flow property.

In Chapter 7, the applicability of the results presented in Chapters 3–6 is demonstrated in a concrete case study from the area of language-based security. In the case study, we show how to derive a suitable information flow property in MAKS, make use of our taxonomy of information flow properties, apply our unwinding techniques, derive a compositionality result following our uniform approach to derive such results, and then apply the compositionality result in order to verify the information flow property for complex distributed systems. Besides illustrating the applicability of our results, this case study is also interesting from the perspective of language-based security and it already inspired some improvements of the language-based techniques.

A summary of the contributions of this thesis, a brief description of ongoing work, and a list of interesting directions for future research is given in Chapter 8.
Chapter 2

Notions and Notation

In this chapter, we introduce basic notions and formal notation to be used in later chapters. In particular, we introduce a trace-based system model, namely the model of event systems, that will provide the common semantic basis of our investigations throughout this thesis. Event systems have been quite popular for the investigation of information flow properties (e.g. [McC87, GN88, JT88, Mil94, ZL97]) because they are suitable for modeling deterministic as well as nondeterministic systems but, nevertheless, are conceptually quite simple and easy to apply. A second system model, namely that of state-event systems, is introduced because its use will simplify the presentation in some parts of this thesis. Event systems and state-event systems are closely related. A state-event system can be obtained from an event system by enriching it with a notion of system state.

We will also present abstract definitions of classes of system properties, namely of properties of traces and of properties of sets of traces. The security properties that we investigate in this thesis, i.e. information flow properties, belong to the second class of properties. More specifically, they are closure properties of sets of traces. In order to illustrate the wide spectrum of information flow properties, we briefly review three concrete information flow properties from the literature, further information flow properties follow in later chapters.

Overview. Event systems and state-event systems are defined in Section 2.1. Section 2.2 describes how system properties can be specified. In Section 2.3, it is explained how system models, other than event systems or state-event systems, can be adopted.

2.1 System Model

2.1.1 Traces

The behavior of a system can often be adequately specified by a set of traces where each trace in this set models a possible execution sequence of the given system. Formally, traces are defined as sequences of events where an event models an atomic action like, e.g., sending a message, receiving a message, or performing a computation step. Every occurrence of an event in a trace models the occurrence of the respective atomic action.

Definition 2.1.1 (Trace). Let $E$ be a set of events. A trace over $E$ is a (possibly empty) finite sequence of events in $E$.  

$\Diamond$
In this thesis, we focus on finite traces. The set of all finite traces over some set $E$ is denoted by $E^*$. For simplicity, we use “trace” as synonym for “finite trace” in the following.

As a notational convention, we separate adjacent events in a trace by dots and surround traces by angle brackets. For example, $\langle \rangle$ denotes the empty trace, $\langle e_1 \rangle$ denotes the trace in which a single event $e_1$ occurs, and $\langle e_1.e_2.e_3 \rangle$ denotes the trace in which $e_1$, $e_2$, $e_3$ occur (in this order). Concatenation of traces is also denoted by dots, i.e. $\langle e_1.e_2 \rangle.\langle e_3 \rangle = \langle e_1.e_2.e_3 \rangle$. We use the letters $\tau$ and $t$ (possibly with indices or primes) to denote traces where the Greek letter $\tau$ is only used for traces that model possible behaviors of the system under consideration.

**Example 2.1.2.** Let $E_{\text{RND}} = \{ \text{term} \} \cup \{ \text{out}(n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ be a set of events where the event term models that the system terminates and an event out$(n)$ models that the natural number $n$ is output. The behavior of a random generator that outputs a sequence of random natural numbers and then terminates can be modeled by the smallest set $T_{\text{RND}} \subseteq E_{\text{RND}}^*$ satisfying:

1. $\langle \rangle \in T_{\text{RND}}$,  
2. $\langle \text{term} \rangle \in T_{\text{RND}}$, and  
3. if $\tau \in T_{\text{RND}}$ then $\langle \text{out}(n) \rangle.\tau \in T_{\text{RND}}$.

The traces $\langle \text{term} \rangle$, $\langle \text{out}(42) \rangle$, $\langle \text{out}(42).\text{out}(13).\text{term} \rangle$, and $\langle \text{out}(1).\text{out}(2).\text{out}(3).\text{out}(4) \rangle$ are examples of possible traces in $T_{\text{RND}}$. The last two of these traces are also illustrated in Figure 2.1 using a graphical notation where events are viewed as arrows.

![Figure 2.1: Some possible traces for the random generator (cf. Example 2.1.2)](image)

Note that the trace $\langle \text{out}(1).\text{out}(2).\text{out}(3).\text{out}(4) \rangle$ models an incomplete run of the system (no occurrence of event term) while $\langle \text{out}(42).\text{out}(13).\text{term} \rangle$ models a complete run. Typically, a set of traces that models the possible behaviors of a system contains all traces that model possible behaviors (including the ones that model incomplete runs). Formally, this means that the set of traces is closed under prefixes.

**Remark 2.1.3.** Specifying a system by the set of its possible traces can be seen as a semantic approach. There are various syntactic specification languages for specifying sets of traces, including process algebras like, e.g., CSP [Hoa85], and temporal logics like, e.g., TLA [Lam94]. The main advantage of basing our investigations on a semantic system model rather than a specific syntactic specification language is that our results become applicable to different specification languages (also cf. Section 2.3).

### 2.1.2 Event Systems

Using event systems, a system is modeled not only in terms of its behavior (by a set of traces) but also in terms of its interface (i.e. by sets of input events and output events).

**Definition 2.1.4 (Event system).** An event system ES is a tuple $(E, I, O, Tr)$ where $E$ is a set of events, $I \subseteq E$, $O \subseteq E$ are the sets of input events and output events, respectively, and $Tr \subseteq E^*$ is the set of possible traces. $I$ and $O$ must be disjoint, i.e. $I \cap O = \emptyset$, and $Tr$ must be closed under prefixes, i.e. every prefix of a trace in $Tr$ must also be in $Tr$.  

\[\]
Example 2.1.5. Let $E_R$ and $T_R$ be defined like in Example 2.1.2. Moreover, let $I_R = \emptyset$ and $O_R = \{\text{out}(n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. The event system $RD = (E_R, I_R, O_R, T_R)$ provides a more detailed specification of the random generator than the one in Example 2.1.2. $RD$ makes explicit that term is an internal event (term $\notin I \cup O$) and out(n) is an output event.

Example 2.1.5 illustrates how nondeterministic systems can be modeled by event systems. After a trace $\tau$ (without occurrences of event term) has occurred, any of the events out(0), out(1), out(2), ... can occur. That is, nondeterministic behavior is reflected in the specification by the possibility that different (output) events can occur.

Let us introduce a few more notions for traces that we need at various points of this thesis.

Definition 2.1.6 (Totality in a set of events). $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ is total in a subset $E'$ of $E$, denoted by total($ES, E'$), iff $\forall \tau. \tau. (e) \in Tr$ holds for all $\tau \in Tr$ and all $e \in E'$.

Definition 2.1.7 (Input totality). $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ is input total iff total($ES, I$).

Definition 2.1.8 (Projection). The projection $t_{|E'}$ of a trace $t \in E^*$ to a subset $E'$ of $E$ results from $t$ by deleting all events not in $E'$, i.e. $\forall \epsilon \in E$. if $e \notin E'$ then $(t.\epsilon)|_{E'} = t|_{E'}$, and if $e \in E'$ then $(t.\epsilon)|_{E'} = t|_{E'}.\epsilon$.

Example 2.1.9. The projections of $t = \langle\text{out}(1).\text{out}(2).\text{out}(3).\text{out}(4)\rangle$ to output events that involve, respectively, only odd or only even numbers are:

\[
\begin{align*}
t\mid_{\{\text{out}(n) \mid n \, \text{mod} \, 2 = 1\}} &= \langle\text{out}(1).\text{out}(3)\rangle \\
(\text{out}(2).\text{out}(4)\rangle)
\end{align*}
\]

Definition 2.1.10 (Interleaving). The set of all interleavings of two traces $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ is defined inductively by

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{interleaving}(t_1, \langle\rangle) &= \{t_1\} \\
\text{interleaving}(\langle\rangle, t_2) &= \{t_2\} \\
\text{interleaving}(\langle e_1 \rangle . t_1, \langle e_2 \rangle . t_2) &= \{\langle e_1 \rangle . t' \mid t' \in \text{interleaving}(t_1, \langle e_2 \rangle . t_2)\} \\
&\cup\{\langle e_2 \rangle . t' \mid t' \in \text{interleaving}(\langle e_1 \rangle . t_1, t_2)\}
\end{align*}
\]

Example 2.1.11. Let $t_1 = \langle\text{out}(1).\text{out}(3)\rangle$ and $t_2 = \langle\text{out}(2).\text{out}(4)\rangle$. There are 6 possible interleavings of $t_1$ and $t_2$. In each of these interleavings, out(1) occurs before out(3) and out(2) occurs before out(4). For example, $\langle\text{out}(1).\text{out}(2).\text{out}(3).\text{out}(4)\rangle \in \text{interleaving}(t_1, t_2)$, but $\langle\text{out}(4).\text{out}(3).\text{out}(2).\text{out}(1)\rangle \notin \text{interleaving}(t_1, t_2)$.

Remark 2.1.12. Historically, event systems can be regarded as a descend of the trace-based semantics of Hoare’s CSP [Hoar85]. According to these semantics, every process corresponds semantically to a pair consisting of an alphabet, i.e. a set of events, and a set of possible traces. McCullough further refined this trace-based model by distinguishing input events and output events from internal events [McC87]. The intuition behind this distinction was that input events are controlled by the environment while output events as well as internal events are controlled by the system. The sets of input events and output events also specify the interface that shall be used for interacting with the system.

In many publications, the definition of event systems incorporates the assumption of input totality (cf. e.g. [JT88, ZL97]). We refrain from making input totality a general assumption.

\footnote{As usual, we abbreviate “if and only if” by “iff.”}
because this is often an unnecessary restriction. According to Definition 2.1.4, an event system may be, but need not to be, input total. Consequently, all results that we derive for our definition of event systems are also valid for event systems that are input total. ⊓⊔

2.1.3 State-Event Systems

State-event systems result from enriching event systems with a notion of state. Using states, the set of possible traces can be specified in an inductive manner by a transition relation.

Definition 2.1.13 (State-event system). A state-event system\(^{2}\) SES is a tuple \((S, s_0, E, I, O, T)\) where \(S\) is a set of states\(^{3}\), \(s_0 \in S\) is the initial state, \(E\) is a set of events, \(I, O \subseteq E\) are the sets of input events and output events, respectively, and \(T \subseteq S \times E \times S\) is the transition relation. \(I\) and \(O\) must be disjoint and \(T\) must correspond to a (partial) function of type \(S \times E \rightarrow S\), i.e. for all \(s \in S\) and \(e \in E\), there is at most one \(s' \in S\) with \((s, e, s') \in T\). ⊓⊔

Despite our assumptions (i.e. that there is only one initial state \(s_0\) and that for every \(s \in S\) and every \(e \in E\) there is at most one \(s' \in S\) with \((s, e, s') \in T\)), state-event systems are suitable for the specification of nondeterministic systems. The reason for this is that the output is not completely determined by the state: if a given system is in some state \(s\) then different sequences of output events might be possible. Hence, nondeterminism arises from the choice between different enabled events (rather than from a nondeterministic choice of the state after an event has occurred). This is illustrated by the following example.

Example 2.1.14. Let \(E_{\text{RND}}, I_{\text{RND}}, O_{\text{RND}}\) and let \(T_{\text{RND}}\) be defined like in Example 2.1.5. Moreover, let \(S_{\text{RND}} = \{s_0, s_1\}\) be a set of states and \(T_{\text{RND}} = \{(s_0, \text{out}(n), s_0) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}\) be a transition relation. The random generator can be specified by the state-event system \(S_{\text{RND}} = (S_{\text{RND}}, s_0, E_{\text{RND}}, I_{\text{RND}}, O_{\text{RND}}, T_{\text{RND}})\). Note that all events in \(E\) are enabled in the initial state \(s_0\). The state remains unaffected if a natural number is output in state \(s_0\). After an occurrence of the event \(\text{term}\), the system moves to the terminal state \(s_1\), in which no events are enabled. This means that the same traces are possible for \(S_{\text{RND}}\) and for RND. ⊓⊔

Let us introduce a few further notions and some notation for state-event systems.

Instead of \((s, e, s') \in T\) we sometimes use the notation \(s \xrightarrow{e} T s'\) where \(s, s' \in S\) are states and \(e \in E\) is an event. If the transition relation \(T\) is obvious from the context then we omit the index and write \(s \xrightarrow{e} s'\) instead of \(s \xrightarrow{e} T s'\). To abbreviate sequences of transitions, we use the notation \(s \xrightarrow{t} T s'\) (or \(s \xrightarrow{t} s'\) if \(T\) is obvious) where \(t \in E^*\) is a trace. For a state event system \(SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)\), the relation \(\xrightarrow{t}\) is defined by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if } s = s' & \quad s \xrightarrow{} s', \\
\text{if } \exists s'' \in S. (s \xrightarrow{c} s'' \land s'' \xrightarrow{t} s') & \quad s \xrightarrow{(c,t)} s'.
\end{align*}
\]

Definition 2.1.15 (Reachable). A state \(s \in S\) is reachable for \(SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)\), denoted by \(\text{reachable}(SES, s)\), if there is a trace \(t \in E^*\) such that \(s_0 \xrightarrow{t} s\) holds. ⊓⊔

\(^{2}\)We use the term “state-event system” rather than the term “state machine” (e.g. used in [McC90]). The term “state machine”, in this context, often leads to misunderstandings because it emphasizes states over events despite the fact that communication with the environment is assumed to occur by synchronization on the occurrence of shared events rather than by sharing part of the state space (cf. Definition 7.3.6).

\(^{3}\)It is possible to view states as mappings from state variables to values. However, also other notions are possible because the notion of state is left transparent in Definition 2.1.13.
Definition 2.1.16 (Enabled). For SES = (S, s₀, E, I, O, T), a trace t ∈ E⁺ is enabled in a state s ∈ S, denoted by enabled(SES, s, t), if there is a state s' ∈ S such that s → s' holds.

Definition 2.1.17 (Possible trace). For SES = (S, s₀, E, I, O, T), a trace t ∈ E⁺ is possible if t is enabled in s₀. The set of all possible traces for SES is denoted by Tr SES.

Definition 2.1.18 (Induced event system). The event system ESES that is induced by the state-event system SES = (S, s₀, E, I, O, T) is defined by ESES = (E, I, O, Tr SES).

Remark 2.1.19. It is easy to check that the set of traces Tr SES generated by the state-event system SES and from Example 2.1.14 is identical to the set Tr and in Example 2.1.5. Recall that, in Example 2.1.5, Tr and had to be specified by a meta-level induction (in the text). In contrast to this, state-event systems incorporate a transition relation that can be used for an inductive specification of the set of possible traces on the object level.

Remark 2.1.20. Many syntactic specification formalisms, including most programming languages, are based on a state-transition model. Hence, one often obtains the information necessary for defining a state-event system (rather than an event system) for free.

2.2 Specifying System Properties

While a system specification expresses how a system behaves, the specification of system properties expresses what the system's requirements are. In order to formally verify that a system satisfies its requirements, it is necessary to specify system properties in precise terms and to state formally what it means for a system specification to satisfy a given system property (also cf. Figure 2.2).

![Figure 2.2: Structure of a formal specification](image)

In this section, we present abstract definitions of classes of system properties and define corresponding satisfaction relations. Concrete property specifications are special instances of these abstract definitions, just like concrete system specifications are special instances of the abstract definition of event systems.

2.2.1 Properties of Traces

System requirements can often be specified by properties of traces, i.e. properties that are satisfied by an event system if they are satisfied by every possible trace of the event system. Examples for properties of traces are, e.g., that a particular invariant holds during program execution or that a program will eventually terminate.
Definition 2.2.1 (Property of traces). A property of traces over a set $E$ of events is a predicate $P : E^* \rightarrow \text{Bool}$.\footnote{\text{Bool} = \{\text{True}, \text{False}\} is the set of truth values. A predicate $P : E^* \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ holds for $t \in E^*$ if $P(t) = \text{True}$.} An event system $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ satisfies $P : E^* \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ iff $P(\tau)$ holds for all $\tau \in Tr$. \hfill \diamond

Example 2.2.2. For the random generator from Example 2.1.5, no events are enabled after an occurrence of term. This statement can be formalized by the property of traces $P_{\text{term}}$ defined by: $P_{\text{term}}(\tau) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^* : (\tau = (\beta, \text{\langle term\rangle } \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha = \langle \rangle)$. The event system $ES_{\text{ND}}$ defined in Example 2.1.5 fulfills $P_{\text{term}}$. This is shown by induction on the length of possible traces and a case distinction according to the definition of $T_{\text{ND}}$: In the base case $P_{\text{term}}$ holds for the traces $\langle \rangle$ and $\langle \text{term}\rangle$; in the step case, $P_{\text{term}}(\tau)$ obviously implies $P_{\text{term}}(\langle \text{out}(n)\rangle . \tau)$. \hfill \diamond

Remark 2.2.3. The property $P_{\text{term}}$ is an example of a safety property because it ensures that nothing bad happens, i.e. after an occurrence of the event term no other events will occur. This means that the system has terminated after an occurrence of term rather than that it will eventually terminate. Properties of the latter kind are different from safety properties because they ensure that eventually something good will happen. Properties of this kind are referred to as liveness properties.\footnote{Interestingly, safety and liveness properties are fundamental for properties of traces because every property of traces can be expressed as the conjunction of a safety and a liveness property. This is shown in \cite{AS85} for infinite traces that are state-based. The two classes of properties of traces can be characterized as follows: If a safety property holds for every finite prefix of a given infinite trace then it must also hold for the complete trace and for every finite trace $t$ there must be an infinite trace with prefix $t$ for which the liveness property holds. In particular, this means that liveness properties cannot distinguish between different finite traces. Hence, they cannot be investigated in a system model that permits only finite traces (like our definition of event systems). However, this does not matter because we are interested in a different class of system properties.}

2.2.2 Properties of Sets of Traces

There are system requirements that cannot be specified by properties of traces. Let us consider the following simple example: Assume a system that takes a request as input, processes the request, outputs a response, and then terminates. A critical requirement of such a system might be that the average response time is below a certain time limit $t$. Obviously, the validity of this requirement depends on the set of all possible system executions. Therefore, this requirement is no property of traces. Rather it is a property of sets of traces.

Definition 2.2.4 (Property of sets of traces). A property of sets of traces over a set $E$ of events is a predicate $Q : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$.\footnote{As usual, $\mathcal{P}$ denotes the powerset construction, i.e. $\mathcal{P}(E^*)$ denotes the set of all subsets of $E^*$.} An event system $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ satisfies a property $Q : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ of sets of traces iff $Q(Tr)$ holds. \hfill \diamond

The class of properties of sets of traces subsumes the class of properties of traces in the sense that each property of traces can be expressed by an equivalent property of sets of traces.\footnote{Every property of traces $P : E^* \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ induces a property of sets of traces $Q_P : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ defined by $Q_P(Tr) = \forall \tau \in Tr. P(\tau)$. The property $Q_P$ is equivalent to $P$ in the sense that $Q_P$ is satisfied for a given event system iff $P$ is satisfied for that event system.} Moreover, there are properties of sets of traces for which there is no equivalent property of traces. As an interesting side note, the following remark elaborates in more detail which properties of sets of traces can be expressed by equivalent properties of traces.
Remark 2.2.5 (Relating properties of sets of traces and properties of traces).
Let us investigate more closely, which properties of sets of traces are induced by properties of traces. The characteristic set \( \Gamma_P \) of a property of traces \( P \) is defined by \( \Gamma_P = \{ \tau \in E^* | P(\tau) \} \).

The characteristic set \( \Gamma_Q \) of a property of sets of traces \( Q \) is defined by \( \Gamma_Q = \{ \mathcal{T} \subseteq E^* | Q(\mathcal{T}) \} \). For each property of traces \( P \), the characteristic set \( \Gamma_{Q_P} \) of the property of sets of traces \( Q_P \) (i.e. the property induced by \( P \)) is the set of all subsets of \( \Gamma_P \), i.e. \( \Gamma_{Q_P} = \{ \mathcal{T} | \mathcal{T} \subseteq \Gamma_P \} \). Clearly, \( \Gamma_{Q_P} \) is closed under subsets and has a maximal element (namely \( \Gamma_P \)). Likewise, every property of sets of traces \( Q \) with a characteristic set that is closed under subsets and that contains a maximal element induces an equivalent property of traces \( P_Q \). The characteristic set \( \Gamma_{P_Q} \) is simply the maximal element of \( \Gamma_Q \). Consequently, the set of all properties of traces is isomorphic to the set of all properties of sets of traces with a characteristic set that is closed under subsets and that contains a maximal element.

The following remark illustrates that some properties of sets of traces that cannot be expressed by equivalent properties of traces can at least be conservatively approximated.

Remark 2.2.6 (Approximating properties of sets of traces). According to Remark 2.2.5, properties of sets of traces with a characteristic set that is not closed under subsets or that has no maximal element cannot be expressed by an equivalent property of traces. Nevertheless, some of these properties can be approximated by properties of traces. For example, the average-response-time property (a property of sets of traces) can be approximated by a worst-response-time property (a property of traces) in the sense that if the worst response time of a system is below a time limit \( t \) then the average response time is also below this time limit. Hence, the worst-response-time property is a conservative approximation of the average-response-time property.

Almost all properties of sets of traces can be conservatively approximated by properties of traces.\(^8\) However, the approximation often results in such a restrictive requirement that it is not appropriate for replacing the original property.\(^9\) In particular, the information flow properties that we investigate in this thesis are closure properties of sets of traces [McL94a] and, hence, no good approximations by properties of traces are known for them.\(^10\)

2.2.3 Closure Properties of Sets of Traces

Intuitively, a closure property requires for a given set that whenever certain elements are members of the set then certain other elements also must be members of the set.

Definition 2.2.7 (Closure property of sets of traces). A property of sets of traces \( Q : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \to \text{Bool} \) is a closure property of sets of traces iff for all \( \mathcal{T} \subseteq E^* \) there is a set \( \overline{\mathcal{T}} \subseteq E^* \) with \( \overline{\mathcal{T}} \supseteq \mathcal{T} \) and \( Q(\overline{\mathcal{T}}) \).

\(^8\)The property INCONS : \( E \to \text{Bool} \) defined by \( \forall \tau \in E^*. \text{INCONS}(\tau) \Leftrightarrow \text{False} \), i.e. the property that does not hold for any trace, is a conservative approximation of all properties of sets of traces except for the property \( Q : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \to \text{Bool} \) defined by \( \forall \mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{P}(E^*). Q(\mathcal{T}) \Leftrightarrow \text{False} \). The reason why \( Q \) cannot be approximated is that \( Q(\emptyset) \) does not hold while every property of sets of traces induced by a property of traces holds for \( \emptyset \).

\(^9\)The inappropriateness of approximating a given property of sets of traces becomes most obvious if \text{INCONS} is the only possible conservative approximation. However, even if there are approximations different from \text{INCONS} then using the approximations is often inappropriate. For example, one usually wants to enforce tighter bounds on the average response time than on the worst response time.

\(^10\)Access control provides a means to implement the security requirements expressed by information flow properties. As access control models correspond to safety properties [Sch00a], they are, in general, not suitable alternatives for expressing the abstract security requirements.
Note that for each set of traces there is a superset for which a given closure property holds. In other words, a closure property can always be made true by adding elements to a given set of traces. Let us consider a simple example of a closure property of sets of traces.

**Example 2.2.8.** The random generator behaves chaotically until the event \( \text{term} \) has occurred. This can be formalized by the following closure property of sets of traces:

\[
Q_{\text{chaotic}}(\text{Tr}) \iff \forall \tau \in \text{Tr}. (\tau |_{\text{term}} = \langle \rangle ) \iff \forall e \in E. \tau.\langle e \rangle \in \text{Tr}
\]

The property \( Q_{\text{chaotic}} \) requires: If \( \tau \) is in \( \text{Tr} \) and does not contain occurrences of \( \text{term} \) then for all \( e \in E \), the trace \( \tau.\langle e \rangle \) must also be in \( \text{Tr} \). For instance, \( Q_{\text{chaotic}}(\text{Tr}_{\text{RND}}) \) holds (for system \( \text{RND} \) from Example 2.1.5) because every event in \( E_{\text{RND}} \) can occur until \( \text{term} \) has occurred.\[\square\]

### 2.2.4 Specifying Secure Information Flow

Now we are ready to give a more formal introduction to information flow properties than in Chapter 1. To this end, we present the specification of a simple example system and then illustrate using three different information flow properties from the literature how a formal analysis reveals that this system is insecure.

**Example 2.2.9.** Consider a system that receives confidential input from some trusted user (the so called high-level user) and that also outputs data to some untrusted user (the so called low-level user) who should not obtain the confidential information. We model that the high-level user inputs a secret number \( n \in \text{IN} \) by the event \( h_i_n \) and model that a number \( n' \in \text{IN} \) is output to the low-level user by \( l_o_n \). The sets of all high-level events and all low-level events are denoted by \( H \) and \( L \), respectively (i.e. \( H = \{h_i_n | n \in \text{IN} \} \) and \( L = \{l_o_n | n \in \text{IN} \} \)).

Define the event system \( \text{LEAK} = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}}) \) where \( I_{\text{LEAK}} = \{h_i_n | n \in \text{IN} \} \), \( O_{\text{LEAK}} = \{l_o_n | n \in \text{IN} \} \), \( E_{\text{LEAK}} = I_{\text{LEAK}} \cup O_{\text{LEAK}} \), and \( \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}} \subseteq E_{\text{LEAK}}^* \) is the smallest set with:

1. \( \langle \rangle \in \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}}, \)
2. if \( n \in \text{IN} \) then \( \langle h_i_n \rangle \in \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}}, \)
3. if \( n \in \text{IN} \) and \( \tau \in \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}} \) then \( \langle h_i_n, l_o_n \rangle \cdot \tau \in \text{Tr}_{\text{LEAK}}. \)

According to this specification, \( \text{LEAK} \) receives a number \( n \) as high-level input (event \( h_i_n \)) and immediately outputs this number to the low-level (event \( l_o_n \)). This means that if the low-level user receives, e.g., the sequence (42).\([13]\) from the system then he can deduce that the high-level user has previously input \( \langle 42 \rangle .\langle 13 \rangle \). Clearly, this is a security violation.

More formally, the low-level user observes the sequence \( \langle l_{o2}, l_{o13} \rangle \) and deduces from this observation and his knowledge of the system specification\(^{11}\) that some trace in

\[
\{ \langle h_i_{42}, l_{o2}, h_i_{13}, l_{o13} \rangle \cdot \tau | \tau = \langle \rangle \vee \exists n \in \text{IN}. \tau = \langle h_i_n \rangle \}
\]

must have occurred (cf. Figure 2.3). All traces in this set have a common prefix, namely \( \langle h_i_{42}, l_{o2}, h_i_{13}, l_{o13} \rangle \) and, thus, the low-level user can deduce that \( \langle 42 \rangle .\langle 13 \rangle \) has been input by the high-level user.\[\square\]

\(^{11}\)In investigations of secure information flow, it is commonly assumed that untrusted users might have complete knowledge of the system specification. This is a worst case assumption.
2.2 Specifying System Properties

\[ \tau : \quad h_{i42} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow l_{o42} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow h_{i13} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow l_{o13} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow ? \rightarrow \] trace that has occurred

\[ \tau|_L : \quad l_{o42} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow l_{o13} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow ? \rightarrow \] observation of low-level user

\[ \tau|_H : \quad h_{i42} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow h_{i13} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow ? \rightarrow \] actions of high-level user

Figure 2.3: A trace and its projections to low-level and high-level events (cf. Example 2.2.9)

The problem with system LEAK is that the low-level user can narrow down the traces that could possibly have generated his observation \( \langle l_{o12}, l_{o13} \rangle \) to a set of traces that is small enough such that he can infer confidential information. In other words, the problem with system LEAK is that the set of possible traces \( T_{LEAK} \) is too small. If, e.g., the trace \( \langle l_{o12}, l_{o13} \rangle \) (modeling that \( \langle 42 \rangle \) is output to the low-level user although no input has been provided by the high-level user) also would be possible then the low-level user could not tell from his observation \( \langle l_{o12}, l_{o13} \rangle \) whether some trace in the set (2.1) or the trace \( \langle l_{o12}, l_{o13} \rangle \) has actually occurred. This means, he would not know if the sequence that he obtains corresponds to confidential information from the high-level user or if it is some arbitrary sequence that has been invented by the system. Hence, there is no security violation.

More generally, a given system can be made “secure” by adding possible behaviors. In other words “security” is a closure property of sets of traces (also cf. Definition 2.2.7).

Let us now briefly review three information flow properties from the literature, namely noninference, separability, and generalized noninterference. For these properties, we will illustrate with system LEAK how insecurities can be detected in a formal analysis. Let us first provide the formal definitions of these properties.

Noninference [O’H90, McL94a, ZL97] is formally defined as follows:

\[ NF(ES) \equiv \forall \tau \in Tr. \tau|_L \in Tr \]

This means, noninference holds for a given event system \( ES \) iff the projection of each possible trace to the set of low-level events also is a possible trace.

Separability [McL94a, ZL97] is formally defined as follows:

\[ SEP(ES) \equiv \forall \tau_1, \tau_h \in Tr. \text{interleaving}(\tau_h|_H, \tau|_L) \subseteq Tr \]

That is, separability holds iff each interleaving of the high-level sequence in one possible trace with the low-level sequence in another possible trace is also a possible trace.

Generalized noninterference [McC87] is formally defined as follows:

\[ GNI(ES) \equiv \forall t_1, t_2, t_3 \in E^*. \]

\[ ((t_1, t_2 \in Tr \land t_3|_{E\setminus (H \cap I)} = t_2|_{E\setminus (H \cap I)})) \]

\[ \Rightarrow \exists t_4 \in E^*. (t_1, t_4 \in Tr \land t_4|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t_3|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}) \]

Hence, generalized noninterference holds iff for every trace \( t_1, t_3 \) that differs from a possible trace \( t_1, t_2 \) only in occurrences of high-level input events there is a possible trace \( t_1, t_4 \) that differs from \( t_1, t_3 \) only in occurrences of high-level internal events and high-level output events.

Let us now illustrate how system LEAK can be analyzed with these properties.
Example 2.2.10. $NF(\text{LEAK})$ does not hold. This is because $\tau = \langle hi_{12}.lo_{12}.hi_{13}.lo_{13} \rangle$ is a possible trace but its projection to $L$, i.e. $\tau|_L = \langle lo_{12}.lo_{13} \rangle$ is not a possible trace. $\Diamond$

Example 2.2.11. $SEP(\text{LEAK})$ does not hold. This is because $\tau_1 = \langle hi_{12}.lo_{12}.hi_{13}.lo_{13} \rangle$ and $\tau_2 = \langle \rangle$ are possible traces but $\langle lo_{12}.lo_{13} \rangle \in \text{interleaving}(\tau_1|_H, \tau_2|_L)$ is not a possible trace. $\Diamond$

Example 2.2.12. Let $t_1 = \langle \rangle$, $t_2 = \langle hi_{12}.lo_{12}.hi_{13}.lo_{13} \rangle$, and $t_3 = \langle lo_{12}.lo_{13} \rangle$. The trace $t_1.t_2$ is a possible trace of $\text{LEAK}$ and $t_3$ differs from $t_2$ only in occurrences of high-level input events. There are no high-level internal events or high-level output events and, hence, the only trace that differs from $t_3$ at most in high-level internal events or high-level output events is $t_4 = t_3$. For these choices, generalized noninterference requires that $t_1.t_4$ is a possible trace. However, this is not the case and, consequently, $GNI(\text{LEAK})$ does not hold. $\Diamond$

Examples 2.2.10–2.2.12 show that noninference, separability, and generalized noninterference all detect the insecurity of the system LEAK in Example 2.2.9, i.e. neither $NF(\text{LEAK})$ nor $SEP(\text{LEAK})$ nor $GNI(\text{LEAK})$ holds. Hence, wrt. this particular example, the three information flow properties are equivalent in the sense that they yield the same result. However, in general, these three information flow properties are not equivalent. A deeper understanding of information flow properties (including $NF$, $SEP$, $GNI$, and many others) as well as an identification of their precise differences and similarities is one of the main objectives of this thesis. This objective will be pursued in Chapter 4.

2.3 Using Other Specification Formalisms

The model of event systems provides the common semantic basis of our investigation, however, this does not exclude the specification of a system’s behavior with other (semantic) system models or (syntactic) specification formalisms. The only condition is that there must be a mapping from that system model or specification formalism to event systems such that each specification is mapped to a unique event system. We say that a given system property is satisfied by such a specification if it is satisfied by the induced event system.

Example 2.3.1. Let $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$ be a state-event system, $P : E^* \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ be a property of traces, and $Q : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ be a property of sets of traces. The property $P$ is satisfied by $SES$ iff $P$ is satisfied by $ES_{SES}$ (formally: $\forall \tau \in T_{SES}. P(\tau)$). The property $Q$ is satisfied by $SES$ iff $Q$ is satisfied by $ES_{SES}$ (formally: $Q(T_{SES})$). $\Diamond$

In Chapter 5, we shall adopt the model of state-event systems when we elaborate verification techniques for information flow properties. Moreover, we will use state-event systems in our case study in Chapter 7 where we also introduce a convenient syntax for specifying concrete state-event systems.

2.4 Summary

In this chapter, we have introduced basic notions and some notation and we are now ready to move to the first central chapter of this thesis: the introduction of the MABS framework.
Chapter 3

MAKS: A Modular Framework for Information Flow Properties

3.1 Introduction

The overwhelming variety of known information flow properties (e.g. [Str86, McC87, GN88, JT88, O'H90, WJ90, McL94a, FG95, ZL97, Sch01]) and the rather subtle technical differences in their respective formal definitions makes it difficult to achieve a thorough understanding of all these properties. Hence, there is a need to analyze these properties, to compare them to each other, and to classify them wrt. their applicability.

In this chapter, we propose MAKS, the Modular Assembly Kit for Security Properties. MAKS provides a framework in which information flow properties can be represented in a uniform way, which is helpful in understanding the differences and similarities of the various properties. Besides simplifying comparisons, it also provides a suitable basis for other investigations of information flow properties. Examples are the derivation of unwinding theorems and of compositionality results to be presented in later chapters of this thesis.

In MAKS, an information flow property is defined by two elements: a set of views and a security predicate. The set of views defines where the flow of information is restricted. This means, a view demands that some set of confidential events (modeling the actions involving confidential information) does not interfere with some other set of visible events (modeling the observations by a potential attacker). The security predicate defines formally what non-interference means in this context. This means, an information flow property is satisfied by a given system if the security predicate holds for every view in the set.

The main novelty of our framework is its modular structure. Security predicates are assembled from simpler basic security predicates (abbreviated by BSPs in the following). These BSPs are primitive security predicates that constitute the building blocks of our assembly kit MAKS. A key step in the development of this modular representation was the observation that, for some information flow properties, noninterference means that an observer cannot deduce that confidential events have occurred while, for other properties, it also means that he cannot deduce that confidential events have not occurred. Separating these two aspects helped us to elaborate further differences between known information flow properties. Ultimately, our investigation led to the identification of “basic ingredients” of known information flow properties, i.e. the BSPs. These BSPs can be used to assemble known properties. However, they can also be used to assemble new information flow properties.
Overall, this results in security models with the structure depicted in Figure 3.1. Note that this structure is a specialization of the general structure of a security model (cf. Figure 1.1).

![Figure 3.1: Structure of a security model based on MAKS](image)

The representation of an information flow property in MAKS makes it very clear where the property requires noninterference (expressed by the set of views) and what the underlying definition of noninterference is (expressed by the security predicate). Moreover, the modular representation of security predicates allows one to reduce reasoning about complex information flow properties to reasoning about the much simpler BSPs.

**Overview.** In Section 3.2, the concepts for representing information flow properties in MAKS are defined, including views and security predicates. In Section 3.3, the notion of flow policies is introduced as a means to specify sets of views in an intuitive way based on a graphical notation. A collection of BSPs from which security predicates can be assembled is proposed in Section 3.4. In Section 3.5, these BSPs are compared to each other, and the main results of this chapter are summarized in Section 3.6.

**Notational Conventions.** \( E \) denotes a set of events, \( I \) and \( O \) are disjoint subsets of \( E \), and \( Tr \subseteq E^* \) is a set of traces. Let \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) be the resulting event system.

### 3.2 Assembling Information Flow Properties

Security requirements like confidentiality or integrity can be expressed as restrictions on the information flow within a system. As stated before, an information flow property is defined in MAKS by two elements: a set of views and a security predicate. While the former specifies where the flow of information is restricted, the latter defines what these restrictions mean.

#### 3.2.1 Views

A **view** specifies concrete restrictions on the permitted flow of information within a system.

**Definition 3.2.1 (View).** A view \( \mathcal{V} = (V, N, C) \) in \( E \) is a triple such that \( V, N, C \) forms a disjoint partition of \( E \).

Intuitively, a view describes the perspective of a (potentially malicious) observer of the system. For a given view \( \mathcal{V} = (V, N, C) \), the set \( V \) specifies the events that are **visible** for the observer. For example, a user can observe the input that he provides to a system (i.e. occurrences of all input events he can engage in) and the output that he obtains from the system (i.e. occurrences of all output events he can engage in). Internal events might also be observable, e.g., if the user is located within the system (as an insider) or if he has some possibility to circumvent the system’s interface. This means, all events in which an observer can engage are visible
to him. Events in $V$ can be directly observed when they occur. Occurrences of all other events (i.e. events in $N \cup C$) are not directly observable. Hence, if a trace $\tau \in Tr$ occurs then the observer only sees the projection $\tau|_V$. The set $C$ specifies the set of events that are confidential for the observer, i.e. the observer must not be able to deduce if events in $C$ have or have not occurred (based on his observations and other knowledge he might have about the system).

\footnote{As usual in investigations of secure information flow, we assume that the observer has complete knowledge of the system specification. This is a worst-case assumption.} Occurrences of all other events (i.e. events in $V \cup N$) are not confidential. Since the sets $V$, $N$, $C$ are a disjoint partition of $E$, a view is completely determined by the sets $V$ and $C$. The remaining events are collected in the set $N$. Intuitively, these events are neither visible nor confidential for the observer. The sets $V$, $N$, $C$ cover all sensible combinations of visibility and confidentiality because, if some event were visible as well as confidential then this would result in an immediate security breach (cf. Figure 3.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$e$ confidential for observer</th>
<th>$e$ invisible for observer</th>
<th>$e$ visible for observer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$e \in C$</td>
<td>$e \in N$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$e \in V$</td>
<td>$e \in V$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2: Relating events wrt. confidentiality and visibility

**Example 3.2.2.** Let us investigate a two-level security policy where a low-level user must not be able to obtain high-level information. We divide the events of $ES$ into two disjoint sets $L, H \subseteq E$ ($L$ for low level, $H$ for high level) such that $L$ contains the events that are visible for a given observer when they occur and $H$ contains events that are invisible for him. The view $V_L = (L, \emptyset, H)$ intuitively specifies the following security requirement: no high-level information must flow to the low-level user under the assumption that occurrences of events in $L$ are visible and occurrences of events in $H$ are invisible for this user.

The security requirements specified by a view are specific for a particular event system (more precisely: for its set of events). A graphical notation for specifying restrictions on the information flow in a more abstract and generic way will be introduced in Section 3.3.

### 3.2.2 Security Predicates

A security predicate defines what it means for the restrictions of a given view $V = (V, N, C)$ to be satisfied, i.e. under which conditions can we say that no information about occurrences or nonoccurrences of events in $C$ can be deduced from observations of events in $V$. Hence, a security predicate can be understood as a definition of what critical information flow means: there is critical information flow for a view if the security predicate does not hold for this view and there is no critical information flow otherwise.

In MAKS, security predicates are specified in a modular fashion by assembling them from basic security predicates where a basic security predicate defines a closure property on sets of traces. This modular representation of security predicates is one of the key novelties of MAKS that distinguishes it from all other frameworks for information flow properties.

**Definition 3.2.3 (Basic security predicate).** A basic security predicate BSPs is a property of sets of traces that is parametric in a view. Moreover, for every set $E$ of events and every view $V$ in $E$, $\text{BSP}_V : \mathcal{P}(E^*) \to \text{Bool}$ must be a closure property.

\diamond
This definition of basic security predicates is somewhat abstract. A collection of concrete basic security predicates will be introduced in Section 3.4.

**Definition 3.2.4 (Security predicate).** A security predicate $SP$ is defined by a set $\{BSP^j | j \in J\}$ of basic security predicates where $J$ is a nonempty index set. A security predicate $SP$ holds for a view $V$ in a set $E$ of events and a set of traces $Tr \subseteq E^*$ (denoted by $SP_V(Tr)$) iff $BSP^j_V(Tr)$ holds for all $j \in J$.

Note that the BSPs from which a security predicate is assembled are conjoined, i.e., a given security predicate holds if all BSPs hold from which it is assembled. Therefore, we also use the notation $\bigwedge_{j \in J} BSP^j$ instead of $\{BSP^j | j \in J\}$ for security predicates.

**Theorem 3.2.5.** Let $SP$ be a security predicate. For every view $V$ in $E$, $SP_V : P(E^*) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ is a closure property of sets of traces.

**Proof.** According to Definition 3.2.3, BSPs are closure properties of sets of traces. From Definition 2.2.7, we obtain that all BSPs hold for the set of all traces over $E$ (i.e., $E^*$). Since BSPs are conjunctively connected, $SP_V(E^*)$ holds. From Definitions 2.2.7, we obtain that $SP_V$ is a closure property ($E^*$ is a superset of any other set of traces over $E$).

3.2.3 Information Flow Properties

In MAKS, an information flow property consists of a set of views and a security predicate.

**Definition 3.2.6 (Information flow property).** An information flow property is a pair $(VS, SP)$ where $VS$ is a set of views and $SP$ is a security predicate.

An information flow property is satisfied by a system if for all views the security predicate is satisfied by the set of possible traces.

**Definition 3.2.7 (Satisfaction).** Let $(VS, SP)$ be an information flow property. $E$ satisfies $(VS, SP)$ iff $SP_V(Tr)$ holds for every view $V \in VS$.

3.3 From Abstract to Concrete Security Requirements

The restrictions on the permitted flow of information specified by a set of views are rather concrete as they are formulated in terms of the events of a specific system. In this section, we introduce the notion of flow policies, which can be used to specify restrictions on the permitted flow of information in a more abstract way. A graphical notation for flow policies provides the basis for an intuitive description of such restrictions. Using flow policies, the concrete set of views of an information flow property need not be specified explicitly but is rather generated from the flow policy using some additional information, the so-called domain assignment.

3.3.1 Flow Policies

In a flow policy, restrictions on the permitted flow of information are expressed in terms of security domains. Typical security domains are, e.g., groups of users, sets of processes, collections of files, or memory sections. The benefit of expressing restrictions in terms of security domains, rather than in terms of the events of a specific event system (like it is done in a view), is that flow policies can be defined independently of the particular event system.
After the set of security domains $\mathcal{D}$ has been determined, the information flow between domains is specified by three binary relations $\leadsto_V, \leadsto_N, \not\leadsto$ over $\mathcal{D}$. The noninterference relation $\not\leadsto$ specifies where information flow is forbidden. For two security domains $D_1, D_2 \in \mathcal{D}$, $D_1 \not\leadsto D_2$ expresses that information must not flow from $D_1$ to $D_2$. Rather than leaving it implicit where information flow is not forbidden, allowed information flow is specified explicitly by two relations $\leadsto_V, \leadsto_N$. The relations $\leadsto_V$ and $\leadsto_N$ differ in whether the activities of one domain are directly visible for another domain or not. The interference relation $\leadsto_V$ specifies that the activities of certain security domains are directly visible for other security domains. This means: $D_1 \leadsto_V D_2$ expresses that occurrences of events in $D_1$ are visible for $D_2$. The relation $\leadsto_N$ specifies between which domains (limited) indirect information flow is permitted although direct information flow is impossible (in contrast to $\leadsto_V$). In other words, $D_1 \leadsto_N D_2$ expresses that occurrences of events in $D_1$ are invisible for $D_2$ and that we do not care whether these occurrences can be deduced by $D_2$.

Since activities cannot be confidential and visible at the same time for a security domain, there are no other sensible possibilities to relate two security domains in terms of visibility and confidentiality. Therefore, any two domains should be related by exactly one of $\leadsto_V$, $\leadsto_N$, and $\not\leadsto$. Note the similarity to the classification of events in a view (cf. Figure 3.2).

**Definition 3.3.1 (Flow policy).** Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a set of security domains. A flow policy $Pol$ is a quadruple $(\mathcal{D}, \leadsto_V, \leadsto_N, \not\leadsto)$ where $\leadsto_V, \leadsto_N, \not\leadsto \subseteq \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}$. $\leadsto_V$ must be a reflexive relation and $\leadsto_V, \leadsto_N, \not\leadsto$ must form a disjoint partition of $\mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}$. \hfill $\Diamond$

**Definition 3.3.2.** A flow policy $Pol = (\mathcal{D}, \leadsto_V, \leadsto_N, \not\leadsto)$ is called transitive if $\leadsto_V$ is a transitive relation and, otherwise, intransitive.

Flow policies can be depicted as graphs where every node corresponds to a security domain. The relations $\leadsto_V$, $\leadsto_N$, and $\not\leadsto$ are, respectively, depicted as solid, dashed, and crossed arrows. For the sake of readability, the reflexive sub-relation of $\leadsto_V$ is usually omitted. This graphical representation is illustrated in Figure 3.3 for the flow policies $Pol_H$, $Pol_{MLS}$, $Pol_P$, and $Pol_{HI}$ that are discussed in the following examples.

![Figure 3.3: Example flow policies](image)

**Example 3.3.3.** As depicted in Figure 3.3, the flow policy $Pol_H$ consists of two security domains $L$ (low-level events) and $H$ (high-level events). According to this flow policy, occurrences of low-level events are visible for the high-level domain ($L \leadsto_V H$) and no information about occurrences of high-level events must be deducible for the low-level domain ($H \not\leadsto L$).
CHAPTER 3: MAKS: A Modular Framework for Information Flow Properties

The flow policy $Pol_H$ is a very simple example of a multi-level security policy (often abbreviated by $MLS$-policy) that is suitable for systems operating at two levels of confidentiality. For example, $Pol_H$ could be used to specify the confidentiality requirements for a personal computer that on the one hand is used to process private data like, e.g., information about the financial assets of its user, and on the other hand is connected to the Internet. In this example, the main confidentiality requirement is that the private data cannot be communicated into the Internet (neither accidentally nor on purpose by some Trojan horse program). In order to express the informal security requirement correctly, it is necessary that all events concerned with processing of private data are associated with domain $H$ and that all events involving accesses to the Internet are associated with domain $L$. If a system fulfills $Pol_H$ then every adversary, who observes only occurrences of events in $L$ (e.g. only Internet accesses), cannot deduce any information about the private data of the user.

The 2-level flow policy $Pol_H$ is well known in the literature on secure information flow (e.g. [GN88, McL94a, ZL97]).\footnote{To be precise, in the literature the 2-level flow policy is defined using only two relations $\rightsquigarrow$ and $\not\rightsquigarrow$ where $\not\rightsquigarrow$ roughly corresponds to the union of our relations $\not\rightsquigaro$ and $\rightsquigaro$. Our definition of flow policies based on three relations $\rightsquigaro$, $\rightsquigaro$, and $\not\rightsquigaro$ is novel (cf. Remark 3.3.7).} There are two reasons for the popularity of $Pol_H$: firstly, it is a very simple flow policy and, secondly, reasoning about arbitrary transitive flow policies (with $\rightsquigaro = \emptyset$) can be reduced to reasoning about $Pol_H$. Let us explain the latter using the example of a three-level security policy.

**Example 3.3.4.** The flow policy $Pol_{MLS}$ (cf. Figure 3.3) has three domains $U$ ("unclassified"), $S$ ("secret"), and $TS$ ("top secret"). The restrictions are that no information must flow from secret to unclassified ($S \not\rightsquigaro U$) and no information must flow from top secret to secret or unclassified ($TS \not\rightsquigaro S$, $TS \not\rightsquigaro U$).

The requirements described by $Pol_{MLS}$ can, alternatively, also be expressed by multiple instances of the flow policy $Pol_H$. For this purpose, we put ourselves successively in the perspective of a top secret user, in the perspective of a secret user, and in the perspective of an unclassified user who operate in the security domains $TS$, $S$, and $U$, respectively. For the top secret user, no confidentiality requirements exist because this user may observe occurrences of events in all three domains. The secret user must not be able to deduce any information about occurrences of events in $TS$. This user can only observe occurrences of events that are in domain $S$ or $U$. Consequently, the security requirements for the secret user can be expressed by an instance of the flow policy $Pol_H$ (associating $H$ with all events that are associated with domain $TS$ in $Pol_{MLS}$ and associating $L$ with all events that are associated with one of the domains $S$ or $U$ in $Pol_{MLS}$). The unclassified user must not be able to deduce any information about occurrences of events in $S$ or $TS$. This user only observes occurrences of events that are in domain $U$. Consequently, the requirements for the unclassified user can be expressed by another instance of the flow policy $Pol_H$ (associating $H$ with all events that are associated with $TS$ or $S$ in $Pol_{MLS}$ and associating $L$ with all events that are associated with $U$ in $Pol_{MLS}$).

Since every user operates in one security domain, it is equivalent to enforce either $Pol_{MLS}$ or to enforce the two instances of $Pol_H$.

The reduction to the two-level flow policy is only possible for flow policies that are transitive. Let us provide a simple example of an intransitive flow policy.

**Example 3.3.5.** The flow policy $Pol_P$ (cf. Figure 3.3) has three domains $P$ (for "printer"), $L$ (for "labeler"), and $F$ (for "file system"). The restrictions on the information flow are
similar to the ones in $Pol_{MLS}$ (if one identifies $TS$ with $P$, $S$ with $L$, and $U$ with $F$). The only important difference between the two flow policies is that no information must flow from $F$ to $P$ according to $Pol_f$ while information may flow from $U$ to $TS$ according to $Pol_{MLS}$.

$Pol_f$ is an intransitive flow policy because $F \nrightarrow_V L$ and $L \nrightarrow_V P$ but $F \not\rightarrow P$. At first sight, it might appear somewhat counterintuitive to restrict information flow from $F$ to $P$ but to allow information flow from $F$ to $P$ via the communication channel $L$. However, intransitive policies are often very useful in practice in order to express exceptions to restrictions on the information flow. For example, for a system that consists of a file system with multiple security levels (domain $F$), a labeler (domain $L$), and a printing service (domain $P$), the flow policy $Pol_f$ imposes the restriction that the contents of files must pass the labeler before being printed. If the labeler operates correctly, i.e. if any data that passes the labeler is augmented by a label with security information on the respective data, then $Pol_f$ enforces that all files have been labeled before being printed.

In this thesis, we focus on transitive flow policies. Nevertheless, intransitive flow policies can be integrated into MAKS. We refer to [Man01a] for a description of how this can be done.

The following example illustrates the motivation of our distinction between three relations $\nrightarrow_V$, $\nrightarrow_N$, and $\not\rightarrow$.

**Example 3.3.6.** In order to ensure confidentiality, we have the following: If a system does not generate any secret data and also does not increase the secrecy of input that it receives then it suffices to rule out that information about occurrences of high-level input events can be deduced [MC92]. Under these conditions, it is not necessary to explicitly prevent deductions about occurrences of high-level internal or output events because if any confidential information is deduced then something about the occurrence of high-level input events is also deduced. The underlying line of thought has been nicely explained by Guttman and Nadel (for systems that do not make any nondeterministic choices that are secret):

"High-level output is attributable partly to high-level input, partly to low-level input, and partly to the basic working of the system. A low-level user has access to information of the second and third kind anyway. Thus, if the user could determine something significant about high-level output, he would be able to attribute it to something about high-level input. Consequently, if we know that the user is unable to deduce anything about high-level input, it should follow that he cannot deduce anything [critical] about high-level output." [GN88, page 37]

These assumption might hold, e.g., for a crypto-component that is used to encrypt secret data. The data is secret when it is input into the crypto-component and encrypting it does not make it more secret. Here, we assume that the encrypted data is only send to the high-level users as we are not concerned with issues of downgrading\(^3\) and, therefore, the security requirement can be captured by the flow policy $Pol_{HI}$ (cf. Figure 3.3).\(^4\) $Pol_{HI}$ consists of three domains $HI$, $L$, and $H \setminus I$. All high-level input events (events in $H \cap I$) are associated with domain $HI$ (in particular, events that model receiving secret data). All high-level internal and output events (including computations of encryptions and sending of encrypted data) are associated with domain $H \setminus I$. All low-level events (whatever activities of the system that

\(^3\)We refer to [Man01a] for how to integrate downgrading into MAKS.

\(^4\)This security requirement could also be expressed by $Pol_I$. However, $Pol_I$ is more restrictive than necessary and, therefore, $Pol_{HI}$ is more appropriate under our assumptions.
are visible to potential adversaries) are associated with domain \( L \). Consequently, according to \( \text{Pol}_{HI} \), occurrences of low-level events are visible for both high-level domains \( (L \rightarrow_{V} HI, L \rightarrow_{N} H \setminus I) \). Information about occurrences of high-level input events must not be deducible for the low-level domain \( (HI \not\rightarrow L) \). Occurrences of other high-level events are invisible for the low-level domain but information about such occurrences may be deduced (due to \( H \setminus I \rightarrow_{N} L \)) if they do not reveal any information about occurrences of high-level inputs. \( \diamond \)

**Remark 3.3.7.** Traditionally, two relations, \( \sim \) and \( \not\rightarrow \), have been used to specify information flow policies. However, with only two relations it is not possible to distinguish all three possibilities to relate security domains. Rather, one either has to focus on visibility or on confidentiality. If one focuses on confidentiality then \( \sim_{V} \) and \( \sim_{N} \) fall together. If one focuses on visibility then \( \sim_{V} \) and \( \not\rightarrow \) fall together. Note that the latter possibility corresponds to the traditional viewpoint, i.e. the traditional \( \sim \) corresponds to our relation \( \sim_{V} \) and the traditional \( \not\rightarrow \) corresponds to the union of our relations \( \sim_{N} \) and \( \not\rightarrow \). The benefit of our approach with three relations over the traditional approach is a more precise specification of which events are confidential and which events are visible. \( \diamond \)

### 3.3.2 Domain Assignments

Flow policies are generic in the sense that they can be applied to different event systems. In order to relate a flow policy to a given event system, all events must be associated with security domains in the flow policy. This is the purpose of *domain assignments*.

**Definition 3.3.8 (Domain assignment).** Let \( \mathcal{D} \) be a set of security domains. A *domain assignment* is a function \( \text{dom} : E \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \) that assigns a security domain to every event. \( \diamond \)

For a given security domain \( D \in \mathcal{D} \), we denote the subset of events that have this domain, also by the name of the domain, i.e. we use \( D \) to denote \( \{ e \in E \mid \text{dom}(e) = D \} \). Moreover, we use that name in lower case, possibly with indices or primes, e.g., \( d_1, d_2, \ldots \), to denote events in that domain.

### 3.3.3 Deriving Sets of Views from Flow Policies

For defining what it means that the restrictions of a flow policy are satisfied, we consider every domain separately. Like in Example 3.3.4, we put ourselves in the perspective of a user who operates in one particular domain and distinguish events depending on visibility and confidentiality. The result is the *view of that domain*.

**Definition 3.3.9 (View of domain).** Let \( \text{Pol} = (\mathcal{D}, \sim_{V}, \sim_{N}, \not\rightarrow) \) be a flow policy and \( \text{dom} : E \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \) be a domain assignment. The *view* \( \mathcal{V}_{D} = (V_{D}, N_{D}, C_{D}) \) of a security domain \( D \in \mathcal{D} \) in \( \text{Pol} \) under \( \text{dom} \) is defined by

\[
\begin{align*}
V_{D} &= \{ e \in E \mid \text{dom}(e) \rightarrow_{V} D \} \\
N_{D} &= \{ e \in E \mid \text{dom}(e) \rightarrow_{N} D \} \\
C_{D} &= \{ e \in E \mid \text{dom}(e) \not\rightarrow D \}
\end{align*}
\]

\( \diamond \)

**Example 3.3.10.** The views of all security domains in the flow policies \( \text{Pol}_{HI}, \text{Pol}_{HI}, \text{Pol}_{MLS} \), and \( \text{Pol}_{P} \) from Figure 3.3 are depicted in Figure 3.4 where the domain assignment is left implicit. For example, for domain \( L \) in \( \text{Pol}_{HI} \) occurrences of events in \( L \) are visible. Occurrences of events in \( H \setminus I \) and \( HI \) are not observable for \( L \). While information about events
in $H \setminus I$ may be deduced, no information about occurrences of events in $HI$ may be deduced. Consequently, the view of $L$ in $Pol_H$ is $\mathcal{H}_L = (L, H \setminus I, HI)$.  

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Pol} & \mathcal{H}_H & \mathcal{H}_L \\
\hline
Pol_H & (E, \emptyset, \emptyset) & (L, \emptyset, H) \\
\hline
Pol_{HI} & \mathcal{H}_H & \mathcal{H}_L & \mathcal{H}_{HI} \\
\hline
Pol_{MLS} & (E, \emptyset, \emptyset) & (S \cup U, \emptyset, TS) & (U, \emptyset, TS \cup S) \\
\hline
Pol_P & P_F & P_L, P_F & P_F \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Figure 3.4: Views for all domains in flow policies from Figure 3.3

The view of a given domain expresses what the restrictions on the information flow are for this domain. The views of all domains in a flow policy under a given domain assignment are collected in a basic scene.

**Definition 3.3.11 (Basic scene).** Let $Pol = (\mathcal{D}, \sim_V, \sim_N, \sim_P)$ be a flow policy and $dom : E \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a domain assignment. The basic scene $\mathcal{BS}$ for $Pol$ and $dom$ is the set of the views of all domains in $\mathcal{D}$, i.e. $\mathcal{BS} = \{V_D | D \in \mathcal{D}\}$ where $V_D$ is the view of $D$ in $Pol$ under $dom$.  

**Example 3.3.12.** All views in the basic scenes for the flow policies $Pol_H, Pol_{HI}, Pol_{MLS}$, and $Pol_P$ from Figure 3.3 are depicted in Figure 3.4.  

Rather than specifying the set of views of an information flow property directly, flow policies and domain assignments can be used for this purpose. Given a flow policy and a domain assignment a set of views is uniquely determined, i.e. the basic scene (cf. Definition 3.3.11).

We now turn our attention to the other ingredient of information flow properties, i.e. the security predicate or, more specifically, the BSPs from which it can be assembled.

### 3.4 A Collection of Basic Security Predicates

In this section, we present a collection of concrete basic security predicates. Each of these BSPs is a closure property of sets of traces that is parametric in a view. In other words, the BSPs defined in this section comply with Definition 3.2.3. Given a view $V = (V, N, C)$ and a possible trace $\tau$, a BSP requires that a particular perturbation of $\tau$ can be corrected to another possible trace $\tau'$. Perturbing a possible trace $\tau$ means to modify occurrences of confidential events (i.e. events in $C$) in this trace. Examples of perturbations are the deletion of the last confidential event in a trace or the insertion of a confidential event at a point where no other occurrences of confidential events follow. In general, the sequence $t$ that results from perturbing $\tau$ needs not to be a possible trace of the given system. However, the requirement imposed by a BSP is that $t$ can be corrected in some way to a sequence $\tau'$ that is a possible trace of the system. Correcting a sequence $t$ means to modify occurrences of invisible events that are not confidential (i.e. events in $N$). Note that the sequences $\tau$, $t$, and $\tau'$ are all...
indistinguishable from each other for an observer with the view \( V \) because \( \tau|_V = t|_V = \tau'|_V \) holds. If a BSP holds then the observation of the sequence \( \tau|_V \) does not reveal whether \( \tau \) or \( \tau' \) has occurred (both traces are possible and could have generated this observation). More generally, if a BSP holds then there are sufficiently many possible traces that could have generated a given observation such that an adversary cannot deduce any information of a particular kind (depending on the respective BSP). For example, if a BSP holds that perturbs traces by deleting the last occurrence of a confidential event then the adversary cannot tell whether a trace with an occurrence of some confidential event or a trace without this occurrence has generated the given observation. The BSP ensures that for every possible trace with an occurrence of the confidential event there is another possible trace without this occurrence that yields the same observation. Hence, an adversary cannot deduce from his observation that the confidential event must have occurred.

The various BSPs that we define differ in the particular perturbation that they require and/or in the corrections that they permit. The structure underlying all definitions of BSPs in this section is viewed in Figure 3.5.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{required perturbation} \\
\tau \in \text{Tr} \quad \rightarrow \quad t \in E^* \\
\text{affecting occurrences} \\
of\text{events in } C \\
\rightarrow \quad \tau' \in \text{Tr} \\
\text{permitted corrections} \\
\text{affecting occurrences} \\
of\text{events in } N
\end{array}
\]

Figure 3.5: Pattern underlying the definition of all BSPs

For names of BSPs, we employ a uniform scheme. The name of each BSP that we define is a word according to the following regular expression:

\[
(S \mid BS \mid FC)\? (R \mid D \mid I \mid IA)
\]

The terminal symbols \( R, D, I, \) and \( IA \) in the name of a BSP indicate what kind of perturbation is required by that BSP. The (optional) terminal symbols \( S, BS, \) and \( FC \) indicate that the permitted corrections are restricted in some way. The syntactic expansions of all terminal symbols are listed in Figure 3.6. \( S \) stands for “Strict” and \( BS \) for “Backwards Strict”. For example, a BSP with the name \( BSIA \) would be read as “Backwards-Strict Insertion of Admissible events”. What it means for a BSP, e.g., to permit only “backwards-strict” corrections or to perturb a trace by “inserting admissible events” will be explained at different places of this section. Figure 3.7 gives an overview on where the concepts corresponding to each of these terminal symbols will be explained. A number next to each node in the diagram points to the respective section. The syntax diagram in the figure also specifies more precisely which words of the previously introduced grammar will be used as names of BSPs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( S )</th>
<th>( BS )</th>
<th>( FC )</th>
<th>( R )</th>
<th>( D )</th>
<th>( I )</th>
<th>( IA )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>Backwards Strict</td>
<td>Forward Correctable</td>
<td>Removal of confidential events</td>
<td>Deletion of confidential events</td>
<td>Insertion of confidential events</td>
<td>Insertion of Admissible confidential events</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.6: Abbreviations used in names of BSPs

Simple BSPs \( (R, D, I) \) that perturb a possible trace by removing all confidential events or by either deleting or inserting a single occurrence of a confidential event will be introduced
in Sections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2. These BSPs permit arbitrary corrections of perturbed traces. All other BSPs that we introduce (in Sections 3.4.3–3.4.6) are modifications of $R$, $D$, and $I$ that result from relaxing the required perturbations or by restricting the permitted corrections. The different BSPs that we define will be compared to each other in Section 3.5.

3.4.1 Preventing Deductions about Occurrences of Events

We introduce two BSPs, $R$ (for Removal) and $D$ (for Deletion) that perturb a given trace, respectively, by removing all confidential events or by deleting the last occurrence of a confidential event. As we will show, these BSPs can be used to specify that an observer must not be able to deduce information about occurrences of confidential events.

Removal of Events. Given a view $V = (V, N, C)$, $R_V(Tr)$ perturbs a trace $\tau \in Tr$ by removing all occurrences of events in $C$ and requires that this perturbation can be corrected by adapting occurrences of events in $N$ to a possible trace $\tau' \in Tr$. Other corrections are not permitted. This means, no confidential events may occur in $\tau'$ ($\tau'|_C = \emptyset$) and $\tau'$ must yield the same observation as $\tau$ ($\tau'|_V = \tau|_V$). In summary, we obtain the following definition.

Definition 3.4.1. Let $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The BSP $R$ (Removal) is defined by:

$$R_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \tau \in Tr. \exists \tau' \in Tr. (\tau'|_C = \emptyset) \land \tau'|_V = \tau|_V)$$

The intuitive idea underlying the definition of $R$ is as follows: If for every possible trace $\tau$ there is another possible trace $\tau'$ that does not contain any confidential events and that yields the same observation as $\tau$ then an adversary who observes $\tau|_V$ cannot tell whether $\tau$ or $\tau'$ has occurred. Both traces are possible and could have generated his observation. Therefore, if $R_V(Tr)$ holds then every observation (in $V$) can be generated by a possible trace without any confidential events. This means, for an adversary who observes occurrences of events in $V$, it is impossible to deduce any information about occurrences of confidential events (in $C$) from his observations. We illustrate the use of this BSP by the following two examples.

Example 3.4.2. Let us revisit the system from Example 2.2.9 that transmits high-level inputs directly to the low level. This system is intuitively insecure. Recall that $\text{LEAK} = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, Tr_{\text{LEAK}})$ where $E_{\text{LEAK}} = \{h_i, l_0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $I_{\text{LEAK}} = \{h_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $O_{\text{LEAK}} = \{l_0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, and $Tr_{\text{LEAK}} \subseteq E_{\text{LEAK}} \times I_{\text{LEAK}} \times E_{\text{LEAK}}$ is the smallest set satisfying:

5 More generally, he can deduce from his observation $\tau|_V$ and his knowledge of $Tr$ that some trace from the $V$-equivalence set of $\tau$, i.e. $\{\tau' \in Tr \mid \tau'|_V = \tau|_V\}$, has occurred but cannot narrow down the trace any further.
1. $\emptyset \in T_{\text{LEAK}}$.
2. if $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $(h_n) \in T_{\text{LEAK}}$, and
3. if $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\tau \in T_{\text{LEAK}}$ then $(h_n, l_n) \cdot \tau \in T_{\text{LEAK}}$.

In this example, occurrences of high-level inputs are confidential and occurrences of low-level outputs are visible. The resulting view $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ is defined by $V = \{ l_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$, $N = \emptyset$, $C = \{ h_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$. Note that no corrections are permitted for this view because $N = \emptyset$ holds. Hence, $R_V(T_{\text{LEAK}})$ requires that removing all occurrences of events in $C$ from a possible trace results again in a possible trace. For example, the perturbation of $(h_{i42})$ is $\emptyset$. Since $\emptyset \in T_{\text{LEAK}}$ holds, the requirements of $R$ are satisfied for this trace. However, the perturbation of the trace $(h_{i42}, l_{i42})$, i.e. $(l_{i42})$, is not a possible trace. Consequently, $R_V(T_{\text{LEAK}})$ does not hold, i.e. the insecurity of system LEAK is correctly detected by $R$.

Let us now illustrate how the insecurity of the system can be repaired by enlarging the set of possible traces.

**Example 3.4.3.** Let $\text{LEAK} = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, T_{\text{LEAK}})$ be defined like in Example 3.4.2 and let $\text{LEAK}_R = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, T_R)$ be defined by $T_R = T_{\text{LEAK}} \cup \{ \tau \mid \{ l_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \mid \tau \in T_{\text{LEAK}} \}$. That is, $T_R$ results from $T_{\text{LEAK}}$ by adding the projections of all traces in $T_{\text{LEAK}}$ to low-level outputs. The difference in the behavior of $\text{LEAK}$ and $\text{LEAK}_R$ is that $\text{LEAK}_R$ may also output sequences of random numbers to the low level without receiving any high-level input while $\text{LEAK}$ only outputs numbers that it has received before from the high level. This means, a low-level observer of system $\text{LEAK}_R$ cannot distinguish whether he has received a (confidential) sequence from the high level or a (non-confidential) random sequence. Therefore, he cannot deduce anything about occurrences of high-level inputs, i.e. the insecurity has been repaired.

Since the set $\{ \tau \mid \{ l_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \mid \tau \in T_{\text{LEAK}} \}$ contains all traces that result from removing all confidential events from possible traces in $T_R$, $R_V(T_R)$ also holds for the repaired system.

Let us proceed with the introduction of the next BSP.

**Stepwise Deletion of Events.** Given a view $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$, $D_V(Tr)$ perturbs a possible trace $\tau \in Tr$ by deleting the last occurrence of an event in $C$ and requires that this perturbation can be corrected by adapting occurrences of events in $N$ to a possible trace $\tau' \in Tr$. Hence, for a possible trace $\beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha$ (where $\beta \in E^*$ is arbitrary, $\alpha \in E^*$ contains no occurrences of events in $C$, and $c \in C$), another trace must be possible that can be represented by $\beta' \cdot \alpha'$ (with $\alpha', \beta' \in E^*$) where the projection of $\alpha'$ and $\beta'$ to $V \cup C$ must, respectively, equal the projections of $\alpha$ and $\beta$. In summary, we obtain the following definition.

**Definition 3.4.4.** Let $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The BSP $D$ (Deletion) is defined by:

$$D_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^* \cdot \forall c \in C.
[(\beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha) \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \emptyset] \Rightarrow \exists \alpha', \beta' \in E^* \cdot (\beta' \cdot \alpha') \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \emptyset \land \beta'|_{V \cup C} = \beta|_{V \cup C}]$$

The intuitive idea underlying the definition of $D$ is as follows: If for every possible trace $\beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha$ there is another possible trace $\beta' \cdot \alpha'$ that yields the same observation as $\beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha$ then an adversary who observes $\langle \beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha\rangle|_V$ cannot tell whether $\beta \cdot \langle c \rangle \cdot \alpha$ or $\beta' \cdot \alpha'$ has occurred. Both
traces are possible and could have generated his observation. In particular, he cannot deduce that the confidential event \(c\) must have occurred.

Note that \(D\) perturbs a trace by deleting only a single occurrence of a confidential event rather than removing all occurrences of confidential events. This is the difference between the BSPs \(D\) and \(R\). However, Definition 3.4.4 can be applied recursively: If \(\beta_1.\langle c \rangle.\beta_2.\langle \rangle.\alpha \in Tr\) (with \(c, c' \in C, \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle, \beta_2|C = \langle \rangle\)) then \(D_\gamma(Tr)\) implies that there are \(\beta_1', \beta_2', \alpha' \in E^*\) with \(\beta_1'.\langle c' \rangle.\beta_2'.\alpha' \in Tr, \beta_1'|VUC = \beta_1|VUC, \beta_2'|VUC = \beta_2|VUC,\) and \(\alpha'|VUC = \alpha|VUC.\) Since \(\beta_1'.\langle c' \rangle.\beta_2'.\alpha' \in Tr\) (with \(c' \in C, \beta_2'.\alpha' \in E^*\) with \(\beta_1', \beta_2', \alpha' \in E^*\) with \(\beta_1'|VUC = \beta_1|VUC, \beta_2'|VUC = \beta_2|VUC,\) and \(\alpha'|VUC = \alpha|VUC.\) If \(\beta_1'\) contains further occurrences of confidential events then \(D\) can be applied again and so on. A consequence of this recursive applicability is that, if \(D_\gamma(Tr)\) holds then an adversary is prevented not only from deducing information about the last occurrence of a confidential event but also from deducing that any confidential events have occurred at all.

We illustrate the use of this BSP with the following examples.

**Example 3.4.5.** Let \(\text{LEAK}, Tr_{\text{LEAK}},\) and \(\mathcal{V}\) be defined like in Example 3.4.2. Matching the pattern \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha\) with the trace \(\langle hi_{42}, lo_{42} \rangle\) yields \(\beta = \langle \rangle, c = hi_{42},\) and \(\alpha = \langle lo_{42} \rangle.\) The preconditions of Definition 3.4.4 are satisfied because \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha \in Tr_{\text{LEAK}}\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\) hold. Since \(N = \emptyset\) holds, no corrections are permitted and, hence, \(D_\gamma(Tr_{\text{LEAK}})\) demands that \(\beta.\alpha\) again is a possible trace. However, deleting \(hi_{42}\) in \(\langle hi_{42}, lo_{42} \rangle\) results in \(\beta.\alpha = \langle lo_{42} \rangle,\) a trace that is not contained in \(Tr_{\text{LEAK}}.\) Consequently, \(D_\gamma(Tr_{\text{LEAK}})\) does not hold, i.e. the insecurity of system \(\text{LEAK}\) is correctly detected by \(D.\) □

Let us now illustrate how the system can be modified in order to satisfy \(D.\)

**Example 3.4.6.** Let \(\text{LEAK}_R, Tr_R,\) and \(\mathcal{V}\) be defined like in Example 3.4.3. Matching the pattern \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha\) with the trace \(\langle hi_{42}, lo_{42}, hi_{13}, lo_{13} \rangle\) yields \(\beta = \langle hi_{42}, lo_{42} \rangle, c = hi_{13},\) and \(\alpha = \langle lo_{13} \rangle.\) The preconditions of Definition 3.4.4 are satisfied because \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha \in Tr_R\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\) hold. However, deleting \(c\) from \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha\) results in \(\beta.\alpha = \langle hi_{42}, lo_{42}, lo_{13} \rangle,\) a trace that is not contained in \(Tr_R.\) Consequently, \(D_\gamma(Tr_R)\) does not hold (although \(R_\gamma(Tr_R)\) holds for this system).

In order to satisfy \(D\) it is necessary to add further traces to \(Tr_{\text{LEAK}}.\) Let \(\text{LEAK}_D = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, Tr_D)\) where \(Tr_D \subseteq E^*_{\text{LEAK}}\) is defined to be the smallest set satisfying:

1. If \(\tau \in Tr_{\text{LEAK}}\) then \(\tau \in Tr_D\) and

2. if \(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha \in Tr_D, c \in C,\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\) then \(\beta.\alpha \in Tr_D.\)

This means, for a low-level observer it is impossible to tell whether a particular confidential event has occurred or not. There always is a possible trace without this event that could have generated the given observation. Therefore, he cannot deduce any information about occurrences of confidential events, i.e. the insecurity has been repaired.

Since \(Tr_D\) contains all traces that result from deleting the last occurrence of a confidential event in a possible trace in \(Tr_D, D_\gamma(Tr_D)\) also holds for the repaired system. □

Obviously, \(D\) requires more possible traces to be added for repairing \(\text{LEAK}\) than \(R\) does (\(Tr_{\text{LEAK}} \subseteq Tr_R \subseteq Tr_D\) holds). However, this seems not to have any important advantages for preventing deductions about occurrences of confidential events. \(\text{LEAK}_R\) and \(\text{LEAK}_D\) both are intuitively “secure” in this sense. The main advantage of \(D\) over \(R\) is that its recursive definition makes various useful modifications possible (i.e. further BSPs to be introduced in Sections 3.4.4 and 3.4.5) that resemble basic ingredients of known information flow properties.
(to be shown in Chapter 4). Let us illustrate the BSPs $R$ and $D$ with a few further very simple examples, which are illustrated also in Figure 3.8.

**Example 3.4.7.** Let $ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, T_1)$ be an event system where $E_1 = \{l_1, h_1\}$ and $T_1 = \{\langle l_1, l_1, h_1, h_1, l_1, l_1, h_1, h_1 \rangle\}$. Let $\mathcal{V}_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$ be the view with $V_1 = \{l_1\}$, $N_1 = \emptyset$, and $C_1 = \{h_1\}$. The trace $\langle l_1, h_1, l_1 \rangle$ yields the observation $\langle l_1, l_1 \rangle$. However, no trace is possible that also yields this observation and in which no confidential events occur. Therefore, neither $R_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_1)$ nor $D_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_1)$ hold for this system. However, for the event system $ES_2 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, T_2)$ with $T_2 = T_1 \cup \{\langle l_1, l_1 \rangle\}$, $R_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_2)$ and $D_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_2)$ are both satisfied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Removal</th>
<th>Deletion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$ES_1$</td>
<td>$ES_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\in T_1$</td>
<td>$\in T_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\notin T_1$</td>
<td>$\notin T_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ES_2$</td>
<td>$ES_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\in T_2$</td>
<td>$\in T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\notin T_2$</td>
<td>$\notin T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ES_3$</td>
<td>$ES_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\in T_3$</td>
<td>$\in T_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\notin T_3$</td>
<td>$\notin T_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ES_4$</td>
<td>$ES_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow n_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow h_1 \rightarrow n_1 \rightarrow l_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\in T_4$</td>
<td>$\in T_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
<td>$l_1 \rightarrow$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\in T_4$</td>
<td>$\in T_4$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3.8: Illustration of Example 3.4.7**

Let us illustrate the difference between $R$ and $D$ with another example. Define $ES_3 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, T_3)$ and $T_3 = \{\langle l_1, l_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1, l_1, h_1, l_1, h_1 \rangle \}$. While $R_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_3)$ holds, $D_{\mathcal{V}_1}(T_3)$ does not hold because $\langle l_1, h_1, l_1, l_1 \rangle \in T_3$ and $\langle l_1, h_1, l_1 \rangle \notin T_3$.

Let us now investigate $R$ and $D$ in the context of a view for which $N \neq \emptyset$ holds. Define $ES_4 = (E_4, I_1, O_1, T_4)$, $E_4 = \{l_1, h_1, n_1\}$, $T_4 = \{\langle l_1, l_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1, n_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1, n_1, l_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, l_1 \rangle \}$ (i.e. after $h_1$ has occurred an event $n_1$ must occur before $l_1$ becomes enabled again) and $\mathcal{V}_4 = (\{l_1\}, \{n_1\}, \{h_1\})$. For this system, $R_{\mathcal{V}_4}(T_4)$ as well as $D_{\mathcal{V}_4}(T_4)$ hold. When checking that $D_{\mathcal{V}_4}(T_4)$ holds, e.g., the trace $\langle l_1, h_1, n_1, l_1 \rangle$ is matched with $\beta, \langle c, \alpha \rangle$, resulting in $\beta = \langle l_1 \rangle$, $c = h_1$, and $\alpha = \langle n_1, l_1 \rangle$. For the choices $\beta' = \beta$ and $\alpha' = \langle l_1 \rangle$, the requirements $\beta', \alpha' \in T_4$, $\alpha'_V = \alpha'_V$, $\alpha'_C = \emptyset$, and $\beta'|_{V \cup C} = \beta|_{V \cup C}$ of Definition 3.4.4 are, indeed, satisfied. Note that, in this example, it is correct to perturb the perturbation because the perturbation itself (i.e. $\langle l_1, n_1, l_1 \rangle$) is not a possible trace of the system.

**3.4.2 Preventing Deductions about Nonoccurrences of Events**

The BSPs $R$ and $D$ that we defined in the preceding section prevent that information about occurrences of confidential events can be deduced. However, they do not rule out that it can be deduced that a particular confidential event has not occurred.

**Example 3.4.8.** Let $\text{LEAK}_D$, $T_D$, and $\mathcal{V}$ be defined like in Example 3.4.6. An adversary who observes $\langle lo_{12}, lo_{13} \rangle$ can deduce that a trace from the $\mathcal{V}$-equivalence set of $\langle lo_{12}, lo_{13} \rangle$, i.e.

$$
\{\langle lo_{12}, lo_{13} \rangle, \langle hi_{12}, lo_{12}, hi_{13}, lo_{13} \rangle, \langle hi_{14}, lo_{12}, hi_{13}, lo_{13} \rangle, \langle hi_{14}, lo_{12}, hi_{13}, lo_{13}, hi_n \rangle | n \in \mathbb{N} \}
$$
must have occurred. From this set, he can conclude, e.g., that $hi_7$ has not occurred before the occurrence of $lo_{12}$ and that $hi_{12}$ has not occurred in between the occurrence of $lo_{12}$ and $lo_{13}$. Many further deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are possible. This means, although $R_D(Tr_D)$ and $D_Y(Tr_D)$ hold, the adversary can deduce information about nonoccurrences of confidential events.

If an adversary can deduce that certain confidential events have not occurred then this may be problematic for the security of a system. In particular, it is possible to establish a covert channel from a high-level Trojan horse to a low-level adversary by exploiting deductions about nonoccurrences of events. Let us illustrate the problem with two examples.

**Example 3.4.9.** Assume that $\text{LEAK}_D$ is used by a high-level Trojan horse that is capable of providing input to the system faster than $\text{LEAK}_D$ can send output to the low-level user (the adversary). The Trojan horse can transmit a sequence of natural numbers as follows: It inputs the first number $n_1$ (occurrence of event $hi_{n_1}$) before the system has output any number to the low-level user, it waits until the system has output a number to the low-level user that, according to $Tr_D$, must be $n_1$ (occurrence of event $lo_{n_1}$), inputs the next number $n_2$ (occurrence of event $hi_{n_2}$), etc. The low-level user observes a trace $(lo_{n_1}, lo_{n_2}, \ldots)$. From this observation and the knowledge of the set $Tr_D$ of possible traces for $\text{LEAK}_D$, the adversary can deduce that high-level events other than $hi_{n_1}$ cannot have occurred before $lo_{n_1}$, that high-level events other than $hi_{n_2}$ cannot have occurred in between $lo_{n_1}$ and $lo_{n_2}$, and so on. This information about nonoccurrences of events together with the knowledge of the protocol used by the Trojan horse is already enough to deduce the sequence that has been input by the Trojan horse. It is precisely the sequence that the adversary has received.

**Example 3.4.10.** Another example, where deductions about nonoccurrences of events are problematic is a system that logs the actions of low-level users in order to discourage undesired actions. However, logs are not created permanently but only upon request. Clearly, low-level users should not know if their actions are logged or not and, consequently, the request to log the actions of a particular low-level user is a confidential event. If a low-level user could deduce from his observations that this event has not occurred then he would know when his actions *definitely are not logged* (no log-request has been issued). Deductions about occurrences of confidential events are not so problematic in this example: If the user deduces that the confidential event has occurred then he only learns that his actions *definitely are logged*. Consequently, in this setting a malicious low-level user is more interested in deducing nonoccurrences of confidential events than in deducing occurrences of these events. Conversely, for the security of the system it is more important to prevent deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events than to prevent deductions about occurrences.

We now introduce the BSP $I$ (for *Insertion*) that perturbs a possible trace by *inserting* occurrences of confidential events. As we will show, this BSP can be used to prevent information about nonoccurrences of confidential events from being deduced.

**Insertion of Events.** Given a view $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$, $I_V(Tr)$ perturbs a trace $\tau \in Tr$ by inserting an event in $C$ at a position where it is not followed by other confidential events and demands that this perturbation can be corrected by adapting occurrences of events in $N$ to a possible trace $\tau' \in Tr$. Hence, for a possible trace $\beta.\alpha$ (where $\beta \in E^*$ is arbitrary and $\alpha \in E^*$ contains no occurrences of events in $C$) and an event $c \in C$, another trace must be possible
that can be represented by $\beta.(c).\alpha'$ where the projection of $\alpha'$ and $\beta$ to $V \cup C$ must equal the projections of $\alpha$ and $\beta$, respectively. In summary, we obtain the following definition.

**Definition 3.4.11.** Let $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The BSP $I$ (Insertion) is defined by:

$$ I_{\mathcal{V}}(\mathcal{T}) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C. $$

$$ ([\beta.\alpha \in \mathcal{T} \land \alpha|_C = \emptyset]) $$

$$ \Rightarrow \exists \alpha', \beta' \in E^*. (\beta'.(c).\alpha' \in \mathcal{T} \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \emptyset) \land \beta'|_V U C = \beta|_V U C $$

The intuitive idea underlying the definition of $I$ is the following: If for every possible trace $\beta.\alpha$ there is another possible trace $\beta'.(c).\alpha'$ that yields the same observation as $\beta.\alpha$ then an adversary who observes $(\beta.\alpha)|_V$ cannot tell whether $\beta.\alpha$ or $\beta'.(c).\alpha'$ has occurred. Both traces are possible and could have generated his observation. In particular, he cannot deduce that the confidential event $c$ has *not* occurred.

Note that Definition 3.4.11 can be applied recursively: If $\beta.\alpha_1.\alpha_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ (with $\alpha_1|_C = \emptyset$, $\alpha_2|_C = \emptyset$) and $c \in C$ then $I_{\mathcal{V}}(\mathcal{T})$ implies that there are $\beta', \alpha'_1, \alpha'_2 \in E^*$ with $\beta'.(c).\alpha'_1.\alpha'_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, $\beta'|_V U C = \beta|_V U C$, $\alpha'_1|_V U C = \alpha_1|_V U C$, and $\alpha'_2|_V U C = \alpha_2|_V U C$. Since $\beta'.(c).\alpha'_1.\alpha'_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ (where $\alpha'_2|_C = \emptyset$), $I_{\mathcal{V}}(\mathcal{T})$ implies for $c' \in C$ that there are $\beta'', \alpha''_1, \alpha''_2 \in E^*$ with $\beta''.(c').\alpha''_1.\alpha''_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, $\beta''|_V U C = \beta|_V U C$, $\alpha''_1|_V U C = \alpha_1|_V U C$, and $\alpha''_2|_V U C = \alpha_2|_V U C$. To insert further occurrences of confidential events, $I$ can be applied again and so on.

**Remark 3.4.12.** The recursive application of $I$ is similar to the recursive application of $D$. However, a difference is that, for $I$, the resulting trace $\beta'.(c).\alpha'$ always satisfies the precondition of the definition such that the process of stepwise insertion of occurrences of confidential events does not terminate. This is not the case for the definition of $D$. Consequently, sets of traces that satisfy $I$ are of infinite size, unless $C = \emptyset$ holds, while sets of traces that satisfy $D$ may be finite even if $C \neq \emptyset$. \hfill $\Diamond$

In Example 3.4.9, we explained how a Trojan horse could transmit information across the system LEAK$_D$. The BSPs $R$ and $D$ did not detect this possibility for information leakage. Let us now check whether the newly introduced BSP $I$ detects this insecurity.

**Example 3.4.13.** Let LEAK$_D$, $T_{RD}$, and $\mathcal{V}$ be defined like in Example 3.4.8. For $\beta = \langle hi_{02}.lo_{02}.hi_{13} \rangle$ and $\alpha = \langle lo_{13} \rangle$, the preconditions of Definition 3.4.11 are satisfied because $\beta.\alpha \in T_{RD}$ and $\alpha|_C = \emptyset$ hold. However, inserting the confidential event $c = hi_2$ into $\beta.\alpha$ results in $\beta.(c).\alpha = \langle hi_{42}.lo_{02}.hi_{13}.hi_{17}.lo_{13} \rangle$, a trace that is not contained in $T_{RD}$. Consequently, $I_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{RD})$ does not hold, i.e. the insecurity of the system is detected by $I$. \hfill $\Diamond$

Again, we show how the insecurity of the system can be repaired by adding possible traces.

**Example 3.4.14.** Let LEAK$_I = (E_{LEAK}, I_{LEAK}, O_{LEAK}, T_{RI})$ where $T_{RI} \subseteq E_{LEAK}^*$ is defined to be the smallest set satisfying:

1. If $\tau \in T_{RD}$ then $\tau \in T_{RI}$ and

2. if $\beta.\alpha \in T_{RI}$, $c \in C$, and $\alpha|_C = \emptyset$ then $\beta.(c).\alpha \in T_{RI}$.

That is, for a low-level observer it is impossible to deduce that a particular confidential event cannot have occurred. For each observation, there is a possible trace that could have generated the observation and in which this event occurs. Therefore, the observer cannot deduce any information about nonoccurrences of confidential events. The insecurity has been repaired.
Since $Tr_I$ contains all traces that result from inserting a confidential event into a possible trace at a point where it is not followed by other confidential events, $I_v(Tr_I)$ also holds for the repaired system.

3.4.3 Compatibility with Confidential Computations

If $I_v(Tr)$ holds for a given system then occurrences of visible events do not depend on non-occurrences of confidential events. Therefore, an adversary cannot deduce from his observations that some confidential event has not occurred. To prevent such deductions from being possible is the whole purpose of the BSP $I$. Moreover, if $I_v(Tr)$ holds for $V = (V, N, C)$ then the enabledness of events in $C$ does not depend on the history, i.e. $I$ requires that confidential events can be inserted at any point of a trace (where no other occurrences of confidential events follow). Consequently, a necessary condition for the satisfaction of $I_v(Tr)$ is that all sequences of events in $C^*$ are possible for the system under consideration, i.e. $\{\tau_C \mid \tau \in Tr\} = C^*$ must hold (recall that $\emptyset \in Tr$ because $Tr$ is closed under prefixes). While this might be no problem with systems like LEAK in Example 3.4.14 because all confidential events are also input events, it poses a major problem with other systems. If $\{\tau_C \mid \tau \in Tr\} = C^*$ holds for a system then it behaves chaotically in its confidential events. Conversely, if meaningful (non-chaotic) computations are modeled by sequences of events in $C$ then $I_v(Tr)$ is unlikely to hold. Let us investigate a simple example.

**Example 3.4.15.** Define $\text{PIPE} = (E_{\text{PIPE}}, I_{\text{PIPE}}, O_{\text{PIPE}}, Tr_{\text{PIPE}})$, $E_{\text{PIPE}} = \{ h_n, h_0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$, $I_{\text{PIPE}} = \{ h_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$, and $O_{\text{PIPE}} = \{ h_0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$. Let $Tr_{\text{PIPE}} \subseteq E_{\text{PIPE}}^*$ be the smallest set satisfying:

1. $\emptyset \in Tr_{\text{PIPE}}$,
2. if $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $\langle h_n \rangle \in Tr_{\text{PIPE}}$, and
3. if $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\tau \in Tr_{\text{PIPE}}$ then $\langle h_n, h_0 \rangle, \tau \in Tr_{\text{PIPE}}$.

According to this specification, PIPE receives a number $n$ as high-level input (event $h_n$) and immediately outputs this number to the high level (event $h_0$). Hence, the difference from the system LEAK is that PIPE outputs the number to the high level rather than to the low level. For the view $V = (V, N, C)$ with $V = \emptyset$, $N = \emptyset$, $C = E$, intuitively the security of PIPE is obvious. In particular, it is clear that information about nonoccurrences of confidential events cannot be deduced because the only observation possible is $\emptyset$ (there are no visible events). Nevertheless, PIPE does not satisfy $I_v(Tr_{\text{PIPE}})$. Moreover, repairing PIPE by adding possible traces results in $\text{CHAOSS} = (E_{\text{PIPE}}, I_{\text{PIPE}}, O_{\text{PIPE}}, Tr_{\text{CHAOSS}})$ where $Tr_{\text{CHAOSS}} = E_{\text{PIPE}}^*$ is the set of all traces over $E_{\text{PIPE}}$. Hence, with respect to the intended functionality of PIPE, $\text{CHAOSS}$ is not a very useful system. Summarizing, the BSP $I$ rejects the system PIPE although it intuitively is secure and the only repair of this system that satisfies $I$ is not very useful.

The previous example has shown that the requirement $I_v(Tr)$ is sometimes too strong. Although the deduction of information about nonoccurrences of confidential events is impossible across a given system this system might not satisfy $I_v(Tr)$. The problem is that in order to satisfy $I_v(Tr)$, all sequences of confidential events must be possible for the given system. However, this implies that sequences of confidential events cannot model meaningful computations.
A straightforward solution to this problem would be to insert the formula
\[
\exists \gamma \in E^* \cdot (\gamma,c) \in Tr \land \gamma|_C = \beta|_C
\]  
(3.1)
as an additional assumption into the definition of \( I \), which results in:
\[
\forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C. \\
\left( (\beta, \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \emptyset) \land \exists \gamma \in E^* \cdot (\gamma,c) \in Tr \land \gamma|_C = \beta|_C \right) \\
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha', \beta' \in E^*. (\beta',\alpha') \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \emptyset \land \beta'|_{VUC} = \beta|_{VUC}
\]  
(3.2)

Adding Condition (3.1) as an assumption weakens \( I \) in the sense that fewer perturbations are required. Confidential events only need to be insertable at a given position of a possible trace if they are enabled at this position in some possible trace. More precisely, an event \( c \in C \) need only be insertable after \( \beta \) in \( \beta, \alpha \) if \( (\beta|_C).\langle c \rangle \) is a possible sequence of confidential events, i.e. if there is a possible trace \( \gamma, \langle c \rangle \) such that \( (\gamma, \langle c \rangle)|_C = (\beta|_C).\langle c \rangle \) holds. The positive effect of this relaxation is that occurrences of confidential events may depend on which confidential events have occurred so far. This means that (3.2) does not rule out meaningful confidential computations and, e.g., is satisfied for the intuitively secure system PIPE. However, unfortunately (3.2) does not ensure that deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are completely impossible and, hence, some insecurity might remain undetected (unless additional BSPs are enforced). This is illustrated by the following example.

Example 3.4.16. The system LEAKONCE is a modified version of system LEAK that stops after exactly one number has been leaked to the low level. That is, \( \text{LEAKONCE} = (E_{\text{LEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, T_{\text{LEAKONCE}}) \) where \( E_{\text{LEAK}} = \{ h_{in}, lo_n \mid n \in \mathbb{IN} \} \), \( I_{\text{LEAK}} = \{ h_{in} \mid n \in \mathbb{IN} \} \), \( O_{\text{LEAK}} = \{ lo_n \mid n \in \mathbb{IN} \} \), and \( T_{\text{LEAKONCE}} = \{ \emptyset \} \cup \{ \langle h_{in} \rangle \mid n \in \mathbb{IN} \} \cup \{ \langle h_{in}, lo_n \rangle \mid n \in \mathbb{IN} \} \). For example, after observing \( \langle lo_1 \rangle \), an adversary can deduce that \( h_{i2} \) cannot have occurred and after observing \( \langle lo_2 \rangle \) he can deduce that \( h_{i1} \) cannot have occurred. Consequently, it is possible for him to deduce some information about nonoccurrences of confidential events with system LEAKONCE. Nevertheless, LEAKONCE satisfies (3.2).

The reason why deductions of information about nonoccurrences of confidential events are possible in the previous example is that the low-level observation reveals enough information in order to infer whether Condition (3.1) holds or not. This problem can be avoided if \( R \) or \( D \) is enforced in addition to (3.2). Note that neither \( R_V(T_{\text{LEAKONCE}}) \) nor \( D_V(T_{\text{LEAKONCE}}) \) hold for LEAKONCE. In general, if \( R_V(Tr) \) or \( D_V(Tr) \) as well as (3.2) are satisfied for a view \( V = (V, N, C) \) in \( E \) and a set \( Tr \subseteq E^* \) then the following equation holds for all \( \tau, \tau' \in Tr \):
\[
\{ t|_C \mid t \in Tr \land t|_V = \tau|_V \} = \{ t'|_C \mid t' \in Tr \land t'|_V = \tau'|_V \}.
\]  
(3.3)

Consequently, all sequences of confidential events that are possible with some observation (here: \( \tau|_V \)) are also possible with every other observation (here: \( \tau'|_V \)). This means, an observer might be able to deduce that certain sequences of confidential events cannot have occurred. However, which sequences can be excluded does not depend at all on observations of the dynamic system behavior but only on \( Tr \), i.e. the specification of the system. Hence, the information that can be deduced is quite limited.

Moreover, if \( R_V(Tr) \) or \( D_V(Tr) \) and (3.2) hold then for every \( \tau \in Tr \) and every possible sequence \( t_c \in C^* \) (i.e. \( \exists \tau' \in Tr. \tau'|_C = t_c \)) we have:
\[
\forall t \in E^*. \left( \left( t|_C = t_c \land t|_V = \tau|_V \right) \Rightarrow \exists t' \in Tr. t'|_{VUC} = t|_{VUC} \right).
\]  
(3.4)
Consequently, every interleaving (here: \( t \)) of a possible sequence of confidential events (here: \( t_c \)) with an observation (here: \( \tau|_V \)) can be corrected to a possible trace (here: \( t' \)) by adapting occurrences of events in \( N \). This means, an observer cannot narrow down the possible interleaving (of occurrences of confidential events and occurrences of visible events) that has generated his observation. That no information about the interleaving can be deduced is very important for security, as Guttman and Nadel have shown [GN88].

In summary, if \((3.2)\) is required for a system then one of \( R_V(Tr) \) or \( D_V(Tr) \) should be required in addition. If this advice is respected then an observer (of occurrences of events in \( V \)) cannot narrow down the behavior that has occurred with the help of his observations. All the information about nonoccurrences of confidential events that he obtains can already be obtained statically from the system specification. More specifically, he can only deduce that sequences of confidential events not in \( \{\tau|_C \mid \tau \in Tr\} \) cannot occur. With most systems, the possibility of such deductions will not be problematic. However, there might also be systems for which this is not true. Therefore, when requiring \((3.2)\) instead of \( I_V(Tr) \) then one should justify that these deductions are not problematic for the system under consideration.

A more serious problem is that \((3.2)\) is still too restrictive in the sense that this condition does not hold for some systems although they are intuitively secure. The problem is that Condition \((3.1)\) only permits that confidential events depend on previous occurrences of confidential events in \( C \) but not on previous occurrences of events in \( V \). However, information flow from \( V \) to \( C \) is noncritical and, hence, need not be prevented. The following example illustrates that \((3.2)\) is too restrictive for some intuitively secure systems.

**Example 3.4.17.** Let \( \text{UP} = (E_{\text{UP}}, I_{\text{UP}}, O_{\text{UP}}, Tr_{\text{UP}}) \) with \( E_{\text{UP}} = \{l_n, ho_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( I_{\text{UP}} = \{l_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( O_{\text{UP}} = \{ho_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), and \( Tr_{\text{UP}} \subseteq E_{\text{UP}}^* \) be defined as the smallest set satisfying:

1. \( \emptyset \in Tr_{\text{UP}} \).
2. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in Tr_{\text{UP}} \) then \( \langle l_n \rangle . \tau \in Tr_{\text{UP}} \), and
3. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in Tr_{\text{UP}} \) then \( \langle l_n . ho_n \rangle . \tau \in Tr_{\text{UP}} \).

According to this specification, \( \text{UP} \) receives a number \( n \) as low-level input (event \( l_n \)) and either immediately outputs this number to the high level (event \( ho_n \)) and waits for the next low-level input or waits for the next input without outputting anything. The main difference to the system PIPE is that \( \text{UP} \) receives the input from the low level rather than from the high level. Hence, \( \text{UP} \) creates a partial log of the low-level operations. For the view \( V = (V, N, C) \) with \( V = \{l_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( N = \emptyset \), \( C = \{ho_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), intuitively no critical information about nonoccurrences of confidential events can be deduced because the system simply *upgrades* information that it receives from the low level. Nevertheless, \( \text{UP} \) does not satisfy \((3.2)\).

Let us now try to repair the system by adding possible traces. Let \( Tr_{\text{MOD}} \subseteq E_{\text{UP}}^* \) be the smallest set satisfying:

1. \( \emptyset \in Tr_{\text{MOD}} \).
2. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in Tr_{\text{MOD}} \) then \( \langle l_n \rangle . \tau \in Tr_{\text{MOD}} \), and
3. if \( t \in O_{\text{UP}}^* \) and \( \tau \in Tr_{\text{MOD}} \) then \( t . \tau \in Tr_{\text{MOD}} \).

Obviously, \((3.2)\) holds for \( Tr_{\text{MOD}} \) (and \( R_V(Tr_{\text{MOD}}) \), \( D_V(Tr_{\text{MOD}}) \) hold also). However, the resulting system is not very useful wrt. the intended functionality. The sequence of high-level
outputs is not a recording of low-level inputs any more (not even an incomplete one). Rather, a possible trace in $Tr_{\text{MOD}}$ may contain spurious high-level outputs. When investigating the high-level output, e.g. the log, it is completely unclear whether a particular event $ho_n$ records some low-level input that actually occurred or not.

The previous example has demonstrated that our first modification of the BSP $I$ is still too restrictive for some secure systems. The problem is that information flow from $V$ to $C$ is ruled out although such information flow is not security critical. A straightforward solution to permit noncritical information flow would be to replace Condition (3.1) in (3.2) by the following stronger condition:

$$\exists \gamma \in E^* . (\gamma.(c) \in Tr \land \gamma|_E = \beta|_E)$$

(3.5)

It is easy to check that the resulting (weaker) modification of $I$ is satisfied, e.g., for the intuitively secure system $UP$ from Example 3.4.17.

However, this modified version must be applied with care. Replacing Condition (3.1) by Condition (3.5) results in a property that might be fulfilled for a given system although information about nonoccurrences of confidential events can be deduced. For instance, for the system $UP$ in Example 3.4.17 it can be deduced from the observation $(li,3)$ that the next event cannot be $ho_7$ or $ho_{12}$ (rather it must be either $ho_{13}$ or some arbitrary low-level event). Hence, our second modification of $I$ does not prevent that information about future nonoccurrences of confidential events can be deduced. Such deductions are possible even if $R$ or $D$ is enforced in addition (e.g. $UP$ satisfies $R_V(Tr_{UP})$ as well as $D_V(Tr_{UP})$). Depending on the particular application these deductions might be problematic or not. Therefore, when requiring our second modification of $I$ one needs to justify that the permitted deductions do no pose a problem for security of the system under consideration.

Note that Conditions (3.1) and (3.5) differ only in the set for which the projection is constructed (set $C$ in (3.1) and set $E$ in (3.5)). This set is used to construct the projection. The following definition generalizes these two conditions by leaving the set for which the projection is constructed parametric. More specifically, the parameter is a function that takes a view as parameter and returns a set of events.

**Definition 3.4.18 ($\rho$-admissibility).** Let $\rho$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$. An event $e \in E$ is $\rho$-admissible in $Tr$ after a possible trace $\beta \in Tr$ for a view $\mathcal{V} = (V,N,C)$ in $E$ if $Adm_\rho^E(Tr,\beta,e)$ holds. $Adm$ is defined as follows:

$$Adm_\rho^E(Tr,\beta,e) \equiv \exists \gamma \in E^* . (\gamma.(c) \in Tr \land \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)}$$

Hence, $Adm_\rho^E(Tr,\beta,e)$ holds if there is a possible trace $\gamma.(c) \in Tr$ that coincides with $\beta.(c)$ in all occurrences of events in $\rho(V)$.

We are now ready to introduce the general version of our modification of the BSP $I$.

**Insertion of $\rho$-Admissible Events.** Inserting $\rho$-admissibility as an additional assumption in the definition of $I$ results in $I_A$. $IA$ is not only parametric in the view but also in the function $\rho$. Hence, we obtain a family $IA^\rho$, $IA^{\rho'}$, $IA^\rho''$, ... of BSPs.

**Definition 3.4.19.** Let $\rho$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$ and $\mathcal{V} = (V,N,C)$ be a view in $E$. The BSP $IA^\rho$ (insertion of $\rho$-Admissible events) is formally defined by:

\footnote{Note that Condition (3.5) is equivalent to $\beta.(c) \in Tr$.}
\[ IA_V^\rho(Tr) \equiv \\
\forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*, \forall c \in C. \\
[\beta.\alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \{\} \land Adm_V^\rho(Tr, \beta, c)] \\
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha', \beta' \in E^*, (\beta'.\alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \beta'|_{V \cup C} = \beta|_{V \cup C}) \]

The intuitive idea underlying the definition of \( IA^\rho \) is like the one underlying the definition of \( I \). However, \( IA^\rho \) requires for a given view \( V = (V, N, C) \) only that one cannot deduce from observations in \( V \) that a \( \rho \)-admissible event in \( C \) has not occurred. Let us illustrate the use of \( IA^\rho \) with an example, which illustrates also the effects of using different parameters \( \rho \).

**Example 3.4.20.** Let \( \rho_C \) and \( \rho_E \) be functions from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) that, respectively, are defined by \( \rho_C(V, N, C) = C \) and \( \rho_E(V, N, C) = V \cup N \cup C = E \). For the system PIPE from Example 3.4.15 and the view \( V = (V, N, C) \) with \( V = \{h_i, h_o \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( IA_{V}^{\rho_C}(Tr_{\text{PIPE}}) \) and \( IA_{V}^{\rho_E}(Tr_{\text{PIPE}}) \) both hold. However, for the system BP from Example 3.4.17 and the view \( V = (V, N, C) \) with \( V = \{h_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( N = \emptyset \), \( C = \{h_o \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \), \( IA_{V}^{\rho_C}(Tr_{\text{BP}}) \) holds but \( IA_{V}^{\rho_E}(Tr_{\text{BP}}) \) does not hold.

This example suggests that the set returned by \( \rho \) should be as large as possible in order to avoid secure systems from being ruled out (e.g. \( IA_{V}^{\rho_C}(Tr_{\text{BP}}) \) does not hold for \( BP \) but \( IA_{V}^{\rho_E}(Tr_{\text{BP}}) \) holds). However, there is a trade-off in the choice of this set because if it is too large then it might remain undetected that deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are possible. Apparently, it can be quite difficult to comprehend the impact of a particular choice of \( \rho \) on the extent of possible deductions and the consequences for security. The following remark summarizes our previous discussions on this aspect.

**Remark 3.4.21 (Impact of \( \rho \)-admissibility assumption).** Let \( \rho \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \). If \( ES \) satisfies \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \) for a view \( V = (V, N, C) \) then some information about the nonoccurrence of events in \( C \) might still be deducible.

In particular, if \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \) holds then it is possible to deduce that the subsequence of events in \( C \) for any given possible trace is in the set \( \{\tau|_C \mid \tau \in Tr\} \). If \( \rho(V) \subseteq C \), \( R_V(Tr) \) (or \( D_V(Tr) \)), and \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \) hold then no other information about nonoccurrences of events in \( C \) can be deduced (cf. the discussion after Example 3.4.16). However, unlike for \( I_V(Tr) \), \( \{\tau|_C \mid \tau \in Tr\} = \mathbb{C}^* \) is not implied by \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \). This means, one can deduce that certain sequences of confidential events cannot occur.

If \( R \) and \( D \) are not required or \( \rho(V) \not\subseteq C \) does not hold then \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \) does not prevent observations of the dynamic system behavior from being exploited to deduce additional information about nonoccurrences of confidential events (cf. the discussion after Example 3.4.17). For example, if \( \rho(V) \not\subseteq C \) then an observer might be able to learn that some event \( c \in C \) cannot occur although \( IA_{V}^{\rho}(Tr) \), \( R_V(Tr) \), and \( D_V(Tr) \) hold. The reason for this is that an observation in \( V \) could reveal information about occurrences of events in \( \rho(V) \setminus C \) (e.g. that an event \( e \in \rho(V) \setminus C \) must have occurred), which together with the knowledge of the specification \( Tr \) might be enough (e.g. if each trace \( \tau \in Tr \) only contains occurrences of either \( e \) or \( c \) to deduce that \( c \) is not enabled).

If this is problematic or not heavily depends on the system under consideration. Therefore, when applying \( IA^\rho \) instead of \( I \) one should justify carefully that no critical deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events can be made despite \( IA^\rho \) holding. In particular, one should choose the parameter \( \rho \) with care.
3.4.4 Backwards-Strict Basic Security Predicates

While the BSPs $R$, $D$, $I$, and $IA^\rho$ differ in the perturbations that they require, they all permit the same corrections, i.e. the corrected trace may differ from the perturbed trace arbitrarily in occurrences of events in $N$. The following example demonstrates that permitting arbitrary corrections of occurrences of events in $N$ sometimes is too liberal.

**Example 3.4.22.** The system **NOISYLEAK** is a modified version of **LEAK** that is defined by the state-event system $S_{\text{NOISYLEAK}} = (S_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}, S_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}, E_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}, I_{\text{LEAK}}, O_{\text{LEAK}}, T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}})$ where $S_{\text{NOISYLEAK}} = \{\text{flag} : \text{BOOL}, \text{var} : \text{IN}\}$, $S_{\text{NOISYLEAK}} = \{\text{flag} \rightarrow \text{ff}, \text{var} \rightarrow 0\}$ and $E_{\text{NOISYLEAK}} = I_{\text{LEAK}} \cup O_{\text{LEAK}} \cup \{r_n \mid n \in \text{IN}\}$. Hence, **NOISYLEAK** consists of two state objects: a boolean flag $\text{flag}$ (initially $\text{ff}$) and a variable $\text{var}$ (initially $0$). For every $n \in \text{IN}$, there are three events $h_n$, $l_n$, and $r_n$. An occurrence of $h_n$ models that number $n$ is input to the system from the high-level environment. An occurrence of $l_n$ models that the number $n$ is output to the low-level environment. An occurrence of event $r_n$ models that a random number $n$ has been chosen internally. The transition relation $T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}$ is defined as follows (also cf. Figure 3.9): $h_n$ is always enabled (no preconditions). If $h_n$ occurs then $\text{flag}$ remains unaffected and $\text{var}$ is set to $n$. The event $r_n$ is only enabled if $\text{flag} = \text{ff}$ holds. If $r_n$ occurs then $\text{flag}$ is set to $\text{tt}$ (for “true”) and $\text{var}$ is set to $n$. $l_n$ is only enabled if $\text{flag} = \text{tt}$ and $\text{var} = n$ hold. If $l_n$ occurs then $\text{flag}$ is reset to $\text{ff}$ and $\text{var}$ remains unaffected.

![Figure 3.9: The transition relation $T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}$ in Example 3.4.22](image)

According to this specification, **NOISYLEAK** accepts high-level inputs at any time. If the flag is not set ($\text{flag} = \text{ff}$) then the high-level input can be overwritten by some random number. However, this happens exactly once before a low-level output because an occurrence of the random event $r_n$ sets the flag ($\text{flag} = \text{tt}$). The internal variable can only be output if the flag is set ($\text{flag} = \text{tt}$) and, hence, the variable must have been overwritten by a random number at some prior point of time (after the last output of a number). The occurrence of a low-level output resets the flag ($\text{flag} = \text{ff}$) in order to enable the random event again and so on.

Let the view $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be defined by $V = \{l_n \mid n \in \text{IN}\}$, $N = \{r_n \mid n \in \text{IN}\}$, and $C = \{h_n \mid n \in \text{IN}\}$. Let $T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}} \subseteq F_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}^*$ be the set of possible traces that is induced by $T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}}$. $D_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}})$, $R_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}})$, $I_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}})$, and $IA^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{NOISYLEAK}})$ are all satisfied (where $\rho$ is arbitrary). Nevertheless a Trojan horse that is part of the high-level environment can transmit information to the low-level environment.
For this purpose, the Trojan horse simply waits for the occurrence of the random event \( r_0 \) before it inputs a value to the system (event \( h_i \)) and thereby rules out that the value is overwritten before it is output to the low-level environment. By repeatedly applying this procedure, the Trojan horse can easily transmit a sequence of natural numbers. For example, the transmission of the sequence \( \langle 42.13.7 \rangle \) would result in a trace of the following form: (every occurrence of \( r_* \) is a place-holder for \( r_m \) where \( m \in \mathbb{N} \) is arbitrary)

\[
\langle r_* . hi_{42} . lo_{42} . r_* . hi_{13} . lo_{13} . r_* . hi_7 . lo_7 \rangle .
\]

Note that the sequence of numbers that is observed on the low level is identical to the sequence that the Trojan horse wanted to transmit.

The above example demonstrates that a Trojan horse might be able to abuse a system for leaking information although this system satisfies \( D_V(Tr) \), \( R_V(Tr) \), \( I_V(Tr) \), and \( IA^\rho(Tr) \) (for arbitrary \( \rho \)). Let us investigate more closely at the example of the BSP \( I \) why this possibility to leak information remains undetected.

**Example 3.4.23.** For example, \( \langle r_0 . lo_0 \rangle \) is a possible trace of \texttt{NOISY LEAK} (i.e. \( \langle r_0 . lo_0 \rangle \in T_{\text{NOISY LEAK}} \)). The trace \( \langle r_0 . hi_1 . lo_0 \rangle \) is a perturbation of \( \langle r_0 . lo_0 \rangle \) that results from inserting \( hi_1 \). This trace is not possible for system \texttt{NOISY LEAK}. However, it can be corrected to the trace \( \langle hi_1 . r_0 . lo_0 \rangle \), which is a possible trace (i.e. \( \langle hi_1 . r_0 . lo_0 \rangle \in T_{\text{NOISY LEAK}} \)). Note that the correction involves the deletion of \( r_0 \) before the occurrence of \( hi_1 \) (a change in the past) and the insertion of \( r_0 \) after the occurrence of \( hi_1 \) (a change in the future). This correction is not causal in the sense that it affects events that occur before the perturbation (deletion of \( r_0 \) before \( hi_1 \)). Correcting occurrences of events before a perturbation corresponds to changing the past, which is not possible without making time warps. This is what the Trojan horse in Example 3.4.22 exploits in order to leak information to the low-level environment. It waits until a random event has occurred before it inputs a number and thereby makes sure that no correction is possible (the random event has already occurred and, hence, cannot be changed any more).

The reason why the insecurity of system \texttt{NOISY LEAK} is not detected is that arbitrary corrections (including noncausal ones) are permitted by the BSP. Note that the BSPs \( R \), \( D \), and \( IA^\rho \) also do not detect this insecurity because they hold for \texttt{NOISY LEAK}.

In general, in order to prevent information leakage like in Example 3.4.22, it is necessary to restrict the permitted corrections. Corrections that are not causal, i.e. that affect events that occur before the perturbation in a trace (changes in the past), should be ruled out. This is the purpose of the basic security predicates \texttt{BSD}, \texttt{BSI}, and \texttt{BSIA} that result, respectively, from \( D \), \( I \), and \( IA^\rho \) by restricting the permitted corrections to causal ones. An additional \texttt{BS} (for \texttt{Backwards Strict}) in the name of these BSPs indicates that noncausal corrections (i.e. corrections that affect the past) are forbidden by these BSPs.

**Definition 3.4.24.** Let \( \rho \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) and \( V = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \). The basic security predicates \texttt{BSD} (Backwards-Strict Deletion), \texttt{BSI} (Backwards Strict Insertion), and \texttt{BSIA} (Backwards-Strict Insertion of Admissible events) are formally defined by:

\[^7\text{For example, } \langle r_1 . lo_0 \rangle \text{ is a } D\text{-perturbation that results from the possible trace } \langle r_1 . hi_0 . lo_0 \rangle \text{ by deleting } hi_0. \text{ The perturbation can be corrected to the possible trace } \langle r_0 . lo_0 \rangle.\]
\( BSD_v(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle)
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\]

\( BSI_v(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle)
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\]

\( BSIA^\rho_v(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle \land Adm^\rho_\nu(Tr, \beta, c))
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\) \quad \diamond

The above definition disallows any adaptations in \( \beta \), and, in this respect, it differs from the definitions of \( D, I \), and \( IA^\rho \) (on the right hand side of the implications: \( \beta \) rather than \( \beta' \) occurs). This means, corrections can only occur after the perturbation (i.e. all corrections are causal). All of these BSPs reject the intuitively insecure system \textsc{NoisyLeak}. We leave the detailed check to the reader.

Let us proceed with the definition of further BSPs.

### 3.4.5 Forward-Correctable Basic Security Predicates

We obtain \( FCD_\nu^T, FCI_\nu^T, FCIA^{\rho,T}_\nu \) from \( BSD, BSI, BSIA^\rho \) by further restricting the permitted corrections and by relaxing the required perturbations. These BSPs are parametric in \( T \in \mathcal{P}(E)^3 \), a triple of sets of events that we denote by \( \nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon \), respectively. Hence, we obtain three families of BSPs: \( FCD_\nu^T, FCD_\nu^{\Delta,T}, \ldots; FCI_\nu^T, FCI_{\nabla,T}^{\Delta,T}, \ldots; \) and \( FCIA^{\rho,T}_\nu, FCIA^{\rho,T}_{\nabla,T}, \ldots \). These BSPs perturb possible traces only immediately before the occurrence of visible events.

**Definition 3.4.25.** Let \( \rho \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \), \( V = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \), and \( \Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon) \) be a triple where \( \nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon \) are subsets of \( E \). The basic security predicates \( FCD_\nu^T \) (Forward-Correctable Deletion), \( FCI_\nu^T \) (Forward-Correctable Insertion), and \( FCIA^{\rho,T}_\nu \) (Forward-Correctable Insertion of \( \rho \)-Admissible events) are formally defined by:

\( FCD_\nu^T(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C \cap \Upsilon. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle)
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* . (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\]

\( FCI_\nu^T(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C \cap \Upsilon. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle)
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* . (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\]

\( FCIA^{\rho,T}_\nu(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C \cap \Upsilon. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla.
\[(\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_C = \langle \rangle \land Adm^\rho_\nu(Tr, \beta, c))
\Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in E^*. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* . (\beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha' \in Tr \land \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle)\) \quad \diamond

Let us point out the technical differences between the forward-correctable BSPs and their backwards-strict counterparts using \( BSD \) and \( FCD_\nu^T \) as an example. Unlike \( BSD_v(Tr) \), \( FCD_v^T(Tr) \) only requires that confidential events in \( C \cap \Upsilon \) that occur immediately before a visible event in \( V \cap \nabla \) can be deleted (assumptions \( c \in C \cap \Upsilon, v \in V \cap \nabla, \beta.\langle c,v \rangle. \alpha \in Tr \)).
Like BSD, $FCD^\Gamma$ disallows corrections in $\beta$ but permits corrections after the perturbation. However, corrections in between $\beta$ and $\nu$ may only involve the insertion of events from $N \cap \Delta$ ($\delta' \in (N \cap \Delta)^*$, $\beta.\delta'.(\nu).\alpha' \in Tr$). Summarizing, $FCD^\Gamma$ requires fewer perturbations and permits fewer adaptations than BSD. The other pairs of corresponding BSPs, i.e. BSI and $FCI^\Gamma$ as well as $BSIA^\rho$ and $FCIA^\rho,\Gamma$, are related to each other like BSD and $FCD^\Gamma$. Forward-correctable BSPs are mainly of interest for issues of compositionality. Compositionality of information flow properties will be investigated in Chapter 6.

### 3.4.6 Strict Basic Security Predicates

All BSPs that we have defined so far permit perturbations to be corrected by adapting occurrences of events in $N$ in some way. We now introduce BSPs that do not permit any corrections. These BSPs are very restrictive because they require that every perturbation of a possible trace is again a possible trace (without corrections). An additional $S$ (for Strict) in the name of these BSPs indicates that corrections are completely forbidden.

**Definition 3.4.26.** Let $\rho$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$ and $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The basic security predicates $SR$ (Strict Removal), $SD$ (Strict Deletion), $SI$ (Strict Insertion), and $SIA^\rho$ (Strict Insertion of $\rho$-Admissible events) are formally defined by:

- $SR_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \tau \in Tr. \tau|_{E \setminus C} \in Tr$
- $SD_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^* \forall c \in C. [(\beta.(c).\alpha \in Tr \wedge \alpha|_C = (\nu)) \Rightarrow \beta.\alpha \in Tr]$
- $SI_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^* \forall c \in C. [(\beta.\alpha \in Tr \wedge \alpha|_C = (\nu)) \Rightarrow \beta.(c).\alpha \in Tr]$
- $SIA^\rho_V(Tr) \equiv \forall \alpha, \beta \in E^* \forall c \in C. [(\beta.\alpha \in Tr \wedge \alpha|_C = (\nu)) \wedge Adm^\rho_{\rho}(Tr, \beta, c) \Rightarrow \beta.(c).\alpha \in Tr]$

Since strict BSPs are very restrictive (neither corrections in $\alpha$ nor in $\beta$ are permitted), they are mostly of theoretical interest.

### 3.4.7 Other Basic Security Predicates

We have proposed a collection of BSPs that constitute the basic building blocks of MAKS. They suffice for the purposes of this thesis. In particular, they suffice for the representation of various known information flow properties. Nevertheless, it might be that further BSPs will be added in the future (for convenience or for theoretical reasons). MAKS is defined as an open framework that permits such additions.

### 3.5 Basic Security Predicates in Comparison

In the previous section, we have introduced a collection of BSPs that can be used to assemble security predicates. Two dimensions of BSPs can be distinguished in this collection. BSPs in the first dimension perturb a trace by removing or deleting occurrences of confidential events. These BSPs can be used to specify that deductions about occurrences of confidential events must not be possible. BSPs in the second dimension perturb a trace by inserting occurrences of confidential events. These BSPs can be used to specify that deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events must not be possible.

When specifying an information flow property, one needs to decide whether it is necessary to rule out that information about occurrences of confidential events can be deduced
and whether it is necessary to rule out that information about nonoccurrences of confidential events can be deduced. Depending on this decision, the security predicate needs to be assembled only from BSPs in the first dimension, only from BSPs in the second dimension, or from BSPs in both dimensions. In this section, we compare the various BSPs that we have proposed to each other and derive a taxonomy of BSPs for each dimension. We start with the comparison of BSPs in the first dimension.

3.5.1 First Dimension of Basic Security Predicates

The BSPs \( R, D, BSD, SR, SD, \) and \( FCD^\Gamma \) constitute the first dimension in our collection of BSPs. All of these BSPs perturb a given trace by removing or by deleting occurrences of confidential events. Let us now review these BSPs in more detail.

From the perspective of security, the BSPs \( R \) and \( D \) are equally well suited to rule out that critical information about occurrences of confidential events can be deduced. Therefore, if the choice is between these two BSPs then one can safely select the less restrictive BSP (i.e. \( R \)). However, \( R \) and \( D \) cannot detect certain possibilities for information leakage, as has been demonstrated by Example 3.4.22. This problem occurs because both of these BSPs permit arbitrary corrections of occurrences of events in \( N \). The culprit is that noncausal corrections are permitted, i.e. corrections that may affect occurrences of events in a given trace before the point where the actual perturbation occurs. The BSPs \( BSD, SR, \) and \( SD \) do not permit noncausal corrections and, hence, they do not suffer from the problem pointed out in Example 3.4.22. The strict BSPs \( SR \) and \( SD \) do not even permit any corrections at all. However, forbidding corrections completely is quite restrictive and causal corrections do not cause any problems wrt. undetected possibilities of information leakage (at least no such problems are known to date). Therefore, if the choice is between \( BSD, SR, \) and \( SD \) then one can safely select the BSP that permits at least some corrections (i.e. BSD). Forward correctable BSPs should only be used in combination with another BSP from the same dimension. The motivation of using a forward correctable BSP in the definition of an information flow property is to obtain a composable property. Compositionality of information flow properties will be discussed in Chapter 6.

In summary, \( BSD \) appears to be superior to all other BSPs in the first dimension. \( R \) and \( D \) are too liberal for certain applications. \( SR \) and \( SD \) are unnecessarily restrictive. However, this does not mean that, when specifying an information flow property, \( BSD \) is the only sensible choice of a BSP in the first dimension. For example, if information leakage like in Example 3.4.22 cannot occur with the system under consideration\(^8\) then \( R \) or \( D \) could be used instead of \( BSD \). Moreover, as we will show in Chapter 4, all of \( R, D, BSD, SR, SD, \) and \( FCD^\Gamma \) correspond to basic ingredients of previously proposed information flow properties.

In our discussion, we stated that some BSPs are more restrictive than others. Let us now justify these statements by deriving a taxonomy of BSPs in the first dimension.

**Theorem 3.5.1 (Ordering BSPs).** Let \( V = (V,N,C) \) be a view in \( E \). The following implications are valid:

1. \( D_V(Tr) \Rightarrow R_V(Tr), \)
2. \( BSD_V(Tr) \Rightarrow D_V(Tr), \)

\(^8\)For instance, because no program in the high-level environment can observe occurrences of the random events \( r_n \).
3. $SD_V(Tr) \Rightarrow BSD_V(Tr)$,
4. $SR_V(Tr) \Rightarrow R_V(Tr)$, and
5. $SD_V(Tr) \Rightarrow SR_V(Tr)$. ∎

Proof. The validity of implications 2, 3, and 4 follows immediately from the definitions of the involved BSPs because all corrections that comply with the definition of a BSP on the left hand side of these implications also comply with the definition of the respective BSP on the right hand side. For proving 2, choose $\beta' = \beta$; for proving 3, choose $\alpha' = \alpha$; for proving 4, choose $\tau' = \tau$ in the definition of the respective BSP on the right hand side.

The validity of implications 1 and 5 can be shown by a simple inductive argument. As an example, we prove $D_V(Tr) \Rightarrow R_V(Tr)$ in detail. Assume that $D_V(Tr)$ holds. Moreover, assume $C \neq \emptyset$ because, otherwise, $R_V(Tr)$ would hold trivially. Let $\tau \in Tr$ be arbitrary. By induction on the length of $\tau|_C$ we prove that there is a trace $\tau' \in Tr$ for which $\tau'|_C = \emptyset$ and $\tau'|_V = \tau|_V$ hold: In the base case, $\tau|_C = \emptyset$ holds and the proposition follows with the choice $\tau' = \tau$. In the induction step, there are $n > 0$ occurrences of events in $C$ in $\tau$ and $\tau$ can be represented by $\beta.(c).\alpha$ where $c \in C$ and $\alpha|_C = \emptyset$, i.e., $c$ is the last occurrence of an event in $C$. From $D_V(Tr)$ we obtain that there are traces $\alpha',\beta' \in E^*$ with $\beta'.\alpha' \in Tr$, $\alpha'|_C = \emptyset$, $\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V$, and $\beta'|_V = \beta|_V$. Since $\beta'.\alpha'$ has $n - 1$ occurrences of events in $C$, the proposition follows from the induction assumption. The argument for the fifth implication is along the same lines. □

Theorem 3.5.2 (Ordering BSPs). Let $\mathcal{V}_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$, $\mathcal{V}_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2)$ be views in $E$ for which $V_2 \subseteq V_1$, $C_2 \subseteq C_1$, $N_2 \supseteq N_1$ hold. The following implications are valid:

1. $R_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow R_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr)$
2. $D_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow D_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr)$
3. $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow BSD_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr)$ ∎

Proof. The validity of implication 1 follows immediately from the definition of $R$.

The validity of implications 2 and 3 can be shown by induction. As an example, we prove $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow BSD_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr)$ in detail. Assume that $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr)$ holds. Moreover, assume that $C_2 \neq \emptyset$ because, otherwise, $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr)$ would hold trivially. Let $\beta.(c).\alpha \in Tr$ be arbitrary with the restriction that $c \in C_2$ and $\alpha|_{C_2} = \emptyset$ hold. By induction on the length of $\alpha|_{C_1}$ we prove that there is a trace $\alpha' \in E^*$ with $\beta.\alpha' \in Tr$, $\alpha'|_{C_1} = \emptyset$ (implies $\alpha'|_{C_2} = \emptyset$), $\alpha'|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1}$ (implies $\alpha'|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2}$): In the base case, $\alpha|_{C_1} = \emptyset$ holds and we obtain from $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr)$ that there is a trace $\alpha' \in E^*$ with $\beta.\alpha' \in Tr$, $\alpha'|_{C_1} = \emptyset$, and $\alpha'|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1}$ ($c \in C_1$ holds because $C_2 \subseteq C_1$). Thus, the proposition holds in the base case. In the step case, there are $n > 0$ occurrences of events from $C_1$ in $\alpha$. Thus, $\alpha$ can be represented by $\gamma.(c').\delta$ such that $c' \in C_1$ and $\delta|_{C_1} = \emptyset$. We obtain from $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr)$ that there is a trace $\delta' \in E^*$ such that $\beta.(c).\gamma.\delta' \in Tr$, $\delta'|_{C_1} = \emptyset$, and $\delta'|_{V_1} = \delta|_{V_1}$. Since $(\beta.(c).\gamma.\delta)|_{V_1} = (\beta.(c).\alpha)|_{V_1}$ and since $\beta.(c).\gamma.\delta'$ has $n - 1$ occurrences of events in $C_1$, the proposition follows from the induction assumption. The argument for implication 2 is along the same lines. □

Theorems 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 give rise to the following theorem, which establishes a taxonomy of BSPs in the first dimension. Together with the corresponding theorem for the second dimension (Theorem 3.5.12), it constitutes the main contribution of the current section.
Theorem 3.5.3 (Taxonomy first dimension). Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \), \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \) for which \( V_2 \subseteq V_1 \), \( C_2 \subseteq C_1 \), \( N_2 \supseteq N_1 \) hold. The BSPs in the first dimension are ordered by implication like depicted in Figure 3.10.

Proof. The proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.1 and 3.5.2.

\[ \begin{array}{c}
SD_{V_1}(Tr) \\
SR_{V_1}(Tr) \\
SR_{V_2}(Tr) \\
R_{V_2}(Tr) \\
D_{V_2}(Tr) \\
BSD_{V_2}(Tr) \\
BSD_{V_1}(Tr) \\
SD_{V_2}(Tr) \\
SD_{V_1}(Tr) \\
SD_{V_1}(Tr)
\end{array} \]

Figure 3.10: Ordering BSPs in first dimension according to Theorem 3.5.3

The following two theorems show how \( FCD^\Gamma \) can be integrated into the taxonomy.

Theorem 3.5.4 (Ordering BSPs). Let \( V = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \). Let \( \Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon) \) where \( \nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon \) are subsets of \( E \).

If \( SD_{\Gamma}(Tr) \) then \( FCD_{\Gamma}^\Upsilon(Tr) \) holds.

Proof. The implication follows immediately from the definitions of \( SD \) and \( FCD^\Gamma \).

Theorem 3.5.5 (Ordering BSPs). Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \), \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \) for which \( V_2 \subseteq V_1 \), \( C_2 \subseteq C_1 \), \( N_2 \supseteq N_1 \) hold. Let \( \Gamma_1 = (\nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1) \) and \( \Gamma_2 = (\nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2) \) where \( \nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1, \nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2 \) are subsets of \( E \) for which \( V_2 \cap V_1 \subseteq V_1 \cap \nabla_1 \), \( C_2 \cap \Upsilon_2 \subseteq C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1 \), and \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \supseteq N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \) hold.

If \( FCD_{\Gamma_1}^{\Upsilon_1}(Tr) \) then \( FCD_{\Gamma_2}^{\Upsilon_2}(Tr) \) holds.

Proof. Assume \( FCD_{\Gamma_1}^{\Upsilon_1}(Tr) \), \( \beta.(c.v).\alpha \in Tr \), \( c \in C_2 \cap \Upsilon_2 \), \( v \in V_2 \cap \nabla_2 \), and \( \alpha|_{C_2} = \{ \} \). From \( C_2 \cap \Upsilon_2 \subseteq C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1 \), we obtain \( c \in C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1 \). From \( V_2 \cap \nabla_2 \subseteq V_1 \cap \nabla_1 \), we obtain \( v \in V_1 \cap \nabla_1 \). From \( C_2 = C_1 \), we obtain \( \alpha|_{C_1} = \{ \} \). Hence, \( FCD_{\Gamma_1}^{\Upsilon_1}(Tr) \) is applicable and an application yields that there are \( \alpha', \delta' \in E^* \) for which \( \beta.\delta'.(v).\alpha' \in Tr \), \( \alpha'|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1} \), \( \alpha'|_{C_1} = \{ \} \), and \( \delta' \in (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)^* \). From \( V_2 \subseteq V_1 \), we obtain \( \alpha'|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2} \). From \( C_2 = C_1 \), we obtain \( \alpha'|_{C_2} = \{ \} \). From \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \supseteq N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \), we obtain \( \delta' \in (N_2 \cap \Delta_2)^* \). Consequently, \( FCD_{\Gamma_2}^{\Upsilon_2}(Tr) \) holds.

Let us now investigate the effects of specific views on the validity of BSPs in the first dimension. Firstly, let us assume that \( N = \emptyset \) holds. Under this assumption there is no difference between the strict version, the backwards-strict version, and the non-strict version of a BSP. This is generalized by the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5.6. Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \) and \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \). If \( V_2 = V_1 \cup N_1 \), \( N_2 = \emptyset \), and \( C_2 = C_1 \) hold then the following equivalences are valid:
1. $SR_{V_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow R_{V_2}(Tr)$
2. $SD_{V_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow BSD_{V_2}(Tr)$
3. $BSD_{V_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow D_{V_2}(Tr)$

Proof. All equivalences follow immediately from the definitions of the respective BSPs.

If there are no confidential events or no visible events in the given view then most BSPs in the first dimension are trivially fulfilled. This is summarized by the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.5.7 (Trivially-fulfilled BSPs).** Let $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The following statements are valid:

1. If $C = \emptyset$ then $R_V(Tr), D_V(Tr), BSD_V(Tr), SR_V(Tr), SD_V(Tr)$, and $FCD^\Gamma_V(Tr)$ hold.
2. If $V = \emptyset$ then $R_V(Tr), D_V(Tr), BSD_V(Tr)$, and $FCD^\Gamma_V(Tr)$ hold.

Proof. All propositions follow immediately from the definitions of the respective BSPs.

For certain choices of parameters, $FCD^\Gamma$ holds trivially or follows from $BSD$. These facts about the forward correctable BSP will be of interest in Chapter 6.

**Theorem 3.5.8 (Trivially-fulfilled BSPs).** Let $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$ and $\Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon)$ where $\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon$ are subsets of $E$. The following statements are valid:

1. If $\nabla = \emptyset$ or $\Upsilon = \emptyset$ then $FCD^\Gamma_V(Tr)$ holds.
2. If $N \subseteq \Delta$ then $BSD_V(Tr)$ implies $FCD^\Gamma_V(Tr)$.

Proof. Both propositions follow immediately from the definitions of the respective BSPs.

### 3.5.2 Second Dimension of Basic Security Predicates

The BSPs $I, BSI, SI, FCI^\Gamma, IA^\rho, BSIA^\rho, SIA^\rho$, and $FCIA^\rho_\Gamma$ constitute the second dimension of our collection of BSPs. All of these BSPs perturb a given trace by inserting occurrences of confidential events. Thus, they prevent deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events. Let us now review these BSPs in more detail.

The BSPs $I, BSI, SI$, and $FCI^\Gamma$ are related to each other similarly to how $D, BSD, SD$, and $FCD^\Gamma$ are related to each other (in the first dimension). Hence, $I$ permits arbitrary corrections and, hence, information leakage like in Example 3.4.22 cannot be detected by this BSP. $BSI$ and $SI$ do not suffer from this problem because they do not permit noncausal corrections. $SI$ does not even permit any corrections at all. However, forbidding corrections completely is quite restrictive and causal corrections do not cause any problems wrt. undetected possibilities of information leakage (at least no such problems are known to date). Therefore, if the choice is between $BSI$ and $SI$ then one can safely select the BSP that permits at least some corrections (i.e. $BSI$). The forward correctable BSP, i.e. $FCI^\Gamma$, should always be used in combination with another BSP. This is like in the first dimension.

One shortcoming of $I, BSI$, and $SI$ is that these BSPs only hold for systems for which all sequences of confidential events are possible. This is a very restrictive requirement because it implies that systems must behave chaotically in the confidential events and, hence, the sequences of confidential events cannot model meaningful computations. Obviously, there are
systems that do not satisfy this requirement although they are intuitively secure (e.g. system PIPE in Example 3.4.15 or system UP in Example 3.4.17). To overcome this shortcoming was the motivation for introducing the BSPs $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, $SIA^\rho$, and $FCIA^{\rho,T}$, which do not require that all sequences of confidential events must be possible but, otherwise, are identical to $I$, $BSI$, $SI$, and $FCI^\Gamma$, respectively.

$IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, $SIA^\rho$, and $FCIA^{\rho,T}$ only require the insertion of confidential events at points in a trace where their occurrence “makes sense”. What it means to “make sense” is defined by the functional parameter $\rho$ that, given a view $V$, returns some set of events. Examples are the function $\rho_C$ that returns the set of confidential events (i.e. $\rho_C(V,N,C) = C$) or the function $\rho_E$ that returns the set of all events (i.e. $\rho_E(V,N,C) = V \cup N \cup C = E$). For a trace $\beta, \alpha \in Tr$ (with $\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle$), e.g., $SIA^\rho_C(Tr)$ only requires that an event $c \in C$ can be inserted in between $\beta$ and $\alpha$ if there is a trace $\gamma \cdot c \in Tr$ such that $\gamma|_\rho(V) = \beta|_\rho(V)$ holds.

That $\gamma \cdot c$ is a possible trace shows that the sequence $\gamma|_\rho(V) \cdot c$ “makes sense” and, hence, also $\beta|_\rho(V) \cdot c$ “makes sense” ($\gamma|_\rho(V) = \beta|_\rho(V)$ holds). If there is no such sequence, i.e. the occurrence of $c$ does not “make sense” at this point, then $SIA^\rho_C(Tr)$ does not require the insertion of this event at this point. For example, for the parameter $\rho_C$, the event $c$ need only be insertable in between $\beta$ and $\alpha$ if the sequence $\beta|_C \cdot c$ makes sense, i.e. if there is some possible trace that has the same projection to $C$ like $\beta \cdot c$. This means, although $SIA^\rho_C(Tr)$ holds, the enabledness of confidential events may depend on previous occurrences of confidential events. Having dependencies between occurrences of events in $C$ implies that there might be information flow from $C$ to $C$. Obviously, information flow within $C$ is not problematic. If the parameter $\rho_E$ is chosen instead then the enabledness of events in $C$ may also depend on previous occurrences of events in $V$ and $N$. Having information flow from $V$ and $N$ to $C$ is also non-critical. We only want to prevent that information flows from $C$ to $V$ but do not want to limit information flow in the other direction. In general, the larger the set $\rho(V)$ is, the more non-critical information flow is permitted.

Unfortunately, the side effect of permitting non-critical information flow is that also some information leakage from $C$ to $V$ becomes possible. This means, $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, and $SIA^\rho$ may fail to detect that it is possible to deduce information about nonoccurrences although $I$, $BSI$, and $SI$ would detect this possibility. This has been illustrated by the system LEAKONCE in Example 3.4.16. Moreover, $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, and $SIA^\rho$ may fail to detect a possibility to leak information for other choice of the parameter $\rho$ that they would detect with a different choice of this parameter. In general, the smaller the set $\rho(V)$ is, the fewer possibilities for information leakage will remain undetected. However, even if the parameter $\rho_0$ (defined by $\rho_0(V) = \emptyset$) is chosen, an observer can deduce that certain confidential events cannot have occurred (i.e. the confidential events that are never enabled). Usually, this possibility to deduce information about nonoccurrences of confidential events will not be problematic. However, this depends on the system under consideration. If the parameter $\rho_C$ is chosen instead of $\rho_0$ then even more information can be deduced about nonoccurrences of confidential events (cf. Example 3.4.16). However, if a corresponding BSP from the first dimension is enforced in addition to $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, or $SIA^\rho$ then the possibility to deduce information is quite limited. In this case, an observer can only deduce that certain sequences of confidential events cannot occur (i.e. the sequences of confidential events that are impossible, in general). Again, this possibility to deduce information about nonoccurrences of confidential events

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Note that $I$, $BSI$, and $SI$ do not hold for systems where some confidential events are never enabled while $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, and $SIA^\rho$ may hold for such systems.
usually will not be problematic. In both of these cases (i.e. parameter \( \rho_0 \) or parameter \( \rho_C \) in combination with a corresponding BSP from the first dimension), an observer does not obtain additional information when the system runs. The information that he can obtain is limited to what can already be deduced statically from the system specification. For a different choice of the parameter \( \rho \), this is not true anymore. More specifically, if \( \rho(\mathcal{V}) \) contains events in \( N \) or \( V \) then the observer might be capable to deduce additional information from his observations of the dynamic system behavior (cf. Remark 3.4.21). To what extent deductions are possible and whether they are problematic or not depends on the system under consideration.

In summary, the backwards-strict BSPs \( BSI \) and \( BSIA^\rho \) appear superior to all other BSPs in the second dimension. The non-strict BSPs \( I \) and \( IA^\rho \) are too liberal for certain applications. The strict BSPs \( SI \) and \( SIA^\rho \) are unnecessarily restrictive. However, this does not mean that all BSPs except for \( BSI \) and \( BSIA^\rho \) are useless. As we will show in Chapter 4, \( I \), \( IA^\rho \), and \( SIA^\rho \) also correspond to basic ingredients of previously proposed information flow properties. When choosing between \( BSI \) and \( BSIA^\rho \) the only choice that definitely prevents all deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events is \( BSI \). In other words, preferring \( BSI \) over \( BSIA^\rho \) is always safe. However, for certain systems that intuitively are secure, \( BSI \) is a too restrictive requirement. In these cases, one has to choose \( BSIA^\rho \). However, if \( BSIA^\rho \) is chosen, one has to be very careful that no possibility to deduce critical information about nonoccurrences of confidential events remains undetected. In order to limit the deductions that are not detected by \( BSIA^\rho \), it is advisable to enforce a corresponding BSP from the first dimension in addition (i.e. \( BSD \)). Moreover, when choosing the parameter \( \rho \), one has to pay attention to the trade-off between permitting non-critical information flow from \( V \), \( N \), and \( C \) to \( C \) (favoring a large set \( \rho(\mathcal{V}) \)) and ruling out potentially critical information flow (favoring a small set \( \rho(\mathcal{V}) \)). In general, there is no choice of \( \rho \) that is best for all purposes.

Let us now derive a taxonomy of BSPs in the second dimension.

**Theorem 3.5.9 (Ordering BSPs).** Let \( \mathcal{V} = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \) and \( \rho \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \). The following implications are valid:

1. \( SI_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow BSI_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \),
2. \( BSI_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow I_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \),
3. \( SIA^\alpha(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow BSIA^\alpha(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \),
4. \( BSIA^\beta(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow IA^\beta(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \),
5. \( SI_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow SIA^\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \),
6. \( BSI_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow BSIA^\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \), and
7. \( I_\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \Rightarrow IA^\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}) \).

**Proof.** The validity of implications 1–4 follows immediately from the definitions of the involved BSPs because all corrections that comply with the definition of a BSP on the left hand side of these implications also comply with the definition of the respective BSP on the right hand side. For proving 1 or 3, choose \( \alpha' = \alpha \); for proving 2 or 4, choose \( \beta' = \beta \) in the definition of the respective BSP on the right hand side.

Implications 5–7 hold because the BSPs on the right hand side of these implications differ from the ones on the left hand side only in that they have an additional assumption, i.e. \( Adm^\rho(\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{V}, \beta, c) \).
Theorem 3.5.10 (Ordering BSPs). Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \), \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \) for which \( V_2 \subseteq V_1, C_2 = C_1, N_2 \supseteq N_1 \) hold and \( \rho_1, \rho_2 \) be functions from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) for which \( \rho_1(V_1) \subseteq \rho_2(V_2) \) holds. The following implications are valid:

1. \( I_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow I_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \),
2. \( BSI_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow BSI_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \),
3. \( SI_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow SI_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \),
4. \( IA^{\rho_1}_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow IA^{\rho_2}_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \),
5. \( BSIA^{\rho_1}_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow BSIA^{\rho_2}_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \), and
6. \( SIA^{\rho_1}_{V_1}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow SIA^{\rho_2}_{V_2}(\text{Tr}) \).

Before proving Theorem 3.5.10, let us introduce a lemma that is helpful in that proof.

Lemma 3.5.11. Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \), \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \), \( e \in E \), and \( \beta \in \text{Tr} \). For any two functions \( \rho_1, \rho_2 \) from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) with \( \rho_1(V_1) \subseteq \rho_2(V_2) \) holds \( \text{Adm}^{\rho_2}_{V_2}(\text{Tr}, \beta, e) \Rightarrow \text{Adm}^{\rho_1}_{V_1}(\text{Tr}, \beta, e) \).

Proof. If \( \text{Adm}^{\rho_2}_{V_2}(\text{Tr}, \beta, e) \) and \( \beta \in \text{Tr} \) then, according to Definition 3.4.18, there is a trace \( \gamma \in E^* \) for which \( \gamma(e) \in \text{Tr} \) and \( \gamma|_{\rho_2(V_2)} = \beta|_{\rho_2(V_2)} \) hold. From \( \rho_1(V_1) \subseteq \rho_2(V_2) \), we obtain \( \gamma|_{\rho_1(V_1)} = \beta|_{\rho_1(V_1)} \). Consequently, \( \text{Adm}^{\rho_1}_{V_1}(\text{Tr}, \beta, e) \) holds.

Proof (of Theorem 3.5.10). Implications 1–3 hold because the only requirements concerning the sets \( N \) and \( V \) in the definitions of the involved BSPs are \( \beta'|_V = \beta|_V \) and \( \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \); these formulas occur only on the right hand side of the implication in each of these definitions (positive polarity); and, hence, changing the view by moving elements from \( V \) to \( N \) cannot make any of \( I, BSI, SI \) false. The same argument can be applied to prove implications 4–6 where Lemma 3.5.11 is used in order to deal with \( \rho \)-admissibility. Note that the assumption \( C_1 = C_2 \) is essential for the validity of these implications.

Theorems 3.5.9 and 3.5.10 give rise to the following theorem. This theorem establishes a taxonomy of BSPs in the second dimension. Together with the corresponding theorem for the first dimension (Theorem 3.5.3), it constitutes the main contribution of the current section.

Theorem 3.5.12 (Taxonomy second dimension). Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \) and let \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be views in \( E \) for which \( V_2 \subseteq V_1, C_2 = C_1, N_2 \supseteq N_1 \) hold. Let \( \rho_1, \rho_2 \) be functions from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) for which \( \rho_1(V_1) \subseteq \rho_2(V_2) \) holds. The BSPs in the second dimension are ordered by implication like depicted in Figure 3.11.

Proof. The proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.9 and 3.5.10.

The following two theorems integrate \( FC^{I}_{V} \) and \( FC^{\rho, I}_{V} \) into the taxonomy.

Theorem 3.5.13 (Ordering BSPs). Let \( V = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \), \( \rho \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \), and \( \Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon) \) where \( \nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon \) are subsets of \( E \). The following implications are valid:

1. \( SI_{\Gamma}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow FC^{I}_{\Gamma}(\text{Tr}) \),
2. \( SIA^{\rho}_{\Gamma}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow FCIA^{\rho, I}_{\Gamma}(\text{Tr}) \), and
3. $FCI_{V_1}^\Gamma(Tr) \Rightarrow FCIA_{V_2}^{\rho_2\Gamma}(Tr)$. 

Proof. The implications follow immediately from the definitions of $SI$, $SIA^{\rho}$, $FCI^\Gamma$, and $FCIA^{\rho\Gamma}$. 

Theorem 3.5.14 (Ordering BSPs). Let $V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$, $V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2)$ be views in $E$ for which $V_2 \subseteq V_1$, $C_2 = C_1$, $N_2 \supseteq N_1$ hold, $\rho_1, \rho_2$ be functions from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$ for which $\rho_1(V_1) \subseteq \rho_2(V_2)$ holds, $\Gamma_1 = (V_1, \Delta_1, Y_1)$, and $\Gamma_2 = (V_2, \Delta_2, Y_2)$ where $\Delta_1, Y_1, \Delta_2, Y_2$ are subsets of $E$ for which $V_2 \cap V_2 \subseteq V_1 \cap \Delta_1, C_2 \cap \Delta_1 \subseteq C_1 \cap \Delta_1$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \supseteq N_1 \cap \Delta_1$ hold. The following implications are valid:

1. $FCI_{V_1}^{\Gamma_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow FCIA_{V_2}^{\rho_2\Gamma_2}(Tr)$ and
2. $FCIA_{V_1}^{\rho_1\Gamma_1}(Tr) \Rightarrow FCIA_{V_2}^{\rho_2\Gamma_2}(Tr)$. 

Proof. The implications follow from the definitions of $FCI^\Gamma$ and $FCIA^{\rho\Gamma}$. 

Let us now investigate the effects of specific views on the validity of BSPs in the second dimension. Firstly, let us assume that $N = \emptyset$ holds. Under this assumption there is no difference between the strict version, the backwards-strict version, and the non-strict version of a BSP. This is generalized by the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5.15. Let $V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$, $V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2)$ be views in $E$ and $\rho_1, \rho_2$ be functions from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$. If $V_2 = V_1 \cup N_1$, $N_2 = \emptyset$, $C_2 = C_1$, and $\rho_1(V_1) = \rho_2(V_2)$ hold then the following equivalences are valid:

1. $SI_{V_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow BSI_{V_2}(Tr)$,
2. $SIA_{V_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow BSIA_{V_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr)$,
3. $BSI_{V_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow I_{V_2}(Tr)$, and
4. $BSIA_{V_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr) \Leftrightarrow IA_{V_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr)$. 

Diagram: 

Figure 3.11: Ordering BSPs in second dimension according to Theorem 3.5.12
Proof. All equivalences follow immediately from the definitions of the respective BSPs. □

If there are no confidential events or no visible events then most BSPs in the second dimension are trivially fulfilled. This is summarized in the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.5.16 (Trivially-fulfilled BSPs).** Let $\rho$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$ and $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$. The following statements are valid:

1. If $C = \emptyset$ then $I_V(Tr)$, $IA^C_V(Tr)$, $BSI_V(Tr)$, $BSIA^C_V(Tr)$, $SL_V(Tr)$, $SIA^C_V(Tr)$, $FCI^{\rho}_{N}(Tr)$, and $FCIA^{\rho}_{N}(Tr)$ hold.

2. (a) If $V = \emptyset$ then $FCI^{\rho}_{N}(Tr)$ and $FCIA^{\rho}_{N}(Tr)$ hold.
   (b) If $V = \emptyset$ and $\rho(V) \supseteq C \cup N$ then $IA^C_V(Tr)$ and $BSIA^C_V(Tr)$ hold.
   (c) If $V = \emptyset$ and total($ES$, $C$) then $I_Y(Tr)$ and $BSI_Y(Tr)$ hold.

For certain choices of parameters, $FCI^{\rho}_{N}$ and $FCIA^{\rho}_{N}$ hold trivially or follow from $BSI$. These facts about the forward correctable BSP will be of interest in Chapter 6.

**Theorem 3.5.17 (Trivially-fulfilled BSPs).** Let $V = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$, $\rho$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$, and $\Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon)$ where $\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon$ are subsets of $E$. The following statements are valid:

1. If $\nabla = \emptyset$ or $\Upsilon = \emptyset$ then $FCI^{\rho}_{V}(Tr)$ and $FCIA^{\rho}_{V}(Tr)$ hold.

2. If $N \subseteq \Delta$ then $BSI(Tr)$ implies $FCI^{\rho}_{V}(Tr)$ and $BSIA^C(Tr)$ implies $FCIA^{\rho}_{V}(Tr)$. □

**Proof.** These propositions follow immediately from the definitions of the respective BSPs. □

### 3.6 Summary

In this chapter, we have proposed MAKS, the Modular Assembly Kit for Security Properties, which is a framework for the uniform representation of information flow properties.

In MAKS, every information flow property is represented by two components: a set of views and a security predicate. The purpose of the set of views is to specify the security requirements of a given application. Each view $V = (V, N, C)$ in this set specifies a particular restriction on the permitted flow of information from the perspective of a (potentially malicious) observer: observing occurrences of events in $V$ (i.e. the visible events) may not reveal any information about which events in $C$ (i.e. the confidential events) have or have not occurred. Sets of views can be specified by flow policies using an intuitive graphical notation (cf. Section 3.3). Our notion of flow policies is based on the three relations $\sim^V$, $\sim^N$ and $\not\sim$, which allows one to express all sensible relationships between security domains wrt. visibility and confidentiality. This was not possible with the traditional approach to specifying flow policies, which was based on only two relations. The purpose of the security predicate is to define formally what it means that there is no information flow, i.e. under which conditions does a system satisfy the restrictions specified by a given view. A key novelty of MAKS, in comparison to prior frameworks [McL94a, FG95, McL96, Zak96, ZL97], is that information flow properties are specified in a modular way: every security predicate is specified by a
conjunction of a nonempty set of BSPs. This modular representation of security predicates provides a basis for reducing complex reasoning about information flow properties to reasoning about quite simple BSPs. In the following chapters, we will extensively exploit this possibility in order to simplify our investigation of information flow properties.

Each concrete BSP has been defined by a quite simple closure condition on sets of traces: after perturbing a possible trace (by modifying occurrences of events in C) it must be possible to correct this perturbation (by adapting occurrences of events in N) to a possible trace. Since occurrences of visible events (i.e. events in V) are left unchanged, a BSP ensures that so many traces possibly could have generated a given observation that it is impossible for an adversary to deduce confidential information from his observation. The name of a BSP indicates the required perturbation: if all occurrences of confidential events are removed then an R occurs in the name; if the last occurrence is deleted then a D occurs in the name; and if an occurrence of a confidential event is inserted then an I occurs in the name. If the insertion of confidential events is only required at positions where they are ρ-admissible then the I is followed by a Aρ (resulting in IΑρ). BSPs that perturb traces by removing or deleting confidential events prevent the observer from deducing information about occurrences of confidential events, and BSPs that perturb traces by inserting confidential events prevent him from deducing information about nonoccurrences of confidential events. Hence, in our collection of BSPs, preventing information flow amounts to preventing deductions about occurrences and nonoccurrences of confidential events. This suffices to represent the well known information flow properties from the literature, as we will demonstrate in Chapter 4.

The name of a BSP also indicates whether the permitted corrections are constrained: if none of BS, S or FC occurs in the name then arbitrary corrections are permitted; if BS (for backwards strict) occurs in the name then only causal corrections are permitted; and if S (for strict) occurs in the name then no corrections are permitted at all. Forward correctable BSPs (FC occurs in the name) perturb traces only at positions that are immediately followed by a visible event and, moreover, they only permit causal corrections where the corrections before the visible event are constrained even further (cf. Section 3.4.5).

In order to facilitate their intuitive understanding, we have compared the various BSPs and have derived a taxonomy that clarifies which BSPs are more restrictive than others. We have also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of each BSP. This has resulted in quite concrete advice regarding which BSPs should be used under which circumstances.

All BSPs that we introduced have been carefully motivated in order to avoid any “out of the blue” definitions of BSPs. However, this does not exclude the addition of further BSPs in the future if these are found to be useful. In other words, MAKS is an open framework.

MAKS will serve as the basis for our investigations throughout this thesis.

\[\text{Note that a formal justification that our BSPs are “right” for specifying security is impossible. BSPs are used to define what security means. Hence, they constitute the formal point of reference in our considerations. In general, it is impossible to verify this point of reference formally and, at best, its value can be justified with appeal to our intuitive understanding by informal explanations and examples (as we have done).}\]
Chapter 4

A Comparison of Information Flow Properties

4.1 Introduction

It is both tedious and expensive to verify the security of a given system. Hence, one better makes sure that the specification of the security requirements is adequate (before the verification begins). This means, on the one hand, that the chosen security property, indeed, expresses the intuitive security requirements and, on the other hand, that the security property is not more restrictive than necessary to express these requirements.

In this chapter, we analyze well known information flow properties from the literature in order to gain a deeper understanding of these properties. In particular, we want to clarify for each of these properties what restrictions are imposed on the permitted flow of information (i.e. where noninterference is demanded by a property) and under which conditions these restrictions are satisfied by a given system (i.e. what noninterference means for this property). Moreover, we want to show which information flow properties are more restrictive than others and what is gained by using a particular property instead of a less restrictive one.

More specifically, we show how generalized noninterference [McC87], forward correctability [JT88], nondeducibility for outputs [GN88], noninference [O’H90], generalized noninference [McL94a], separability [McL94a], and the perfect security property [ZL97] can be represented in MAKS. Each of these information flow properties is expressed using the uniform representation of MAKS, i.e. by specifying a set of views and a security predicate. From this representation, we immediately obtain where noninterference is demanded by a given property (explicated by the set of views) and what noninterference means for this property (explicated by the security predicate). Moreover, the modular definition of the security predicate reveals if an information flow property prevents deductions about occurrences of confidential events (use of a BSP in the first dimension) and if it prevents deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events (use of a BSP in the second dimension). Although these facts are rather obvious, given the representation of an information flow property in MAKS, they often are not as obvious from the original definition of this property. The modular representation of information flow properties in MAKS also allows us to reduce the comparison of information flow properties to the comparison of simpler BSPs. This reduction considerably simplifies the process of comparing complex information flow properties to each other. Our comparison culminates in a taxonomy of known information flow properties.
In the following, we derive some interesting insights about the various known information flow properties. For example, we show that generalized noninference [McL94a] permits noncausal corrections and, hence, it cannot be used to rule out possibilities of information leakage like the one explained in Example 3.4.22. Using noninference [O’H90], which is a more restrictive property than generalized noninference, has the advantage that this possibility of information leakage will be detected. The reason for this is that noninference does not permit noncausal corrections. Hence, from the view point of security, noninference is preferable to generalized noninference. These are the kind of insights that we aim for with our analysis of known information flow properties in this chapter.

We also propose some novel information flow properties that overcome deficiencies of previously proposed ones. For example, we derive GNI* from generalized noninference [McC87] (abbreviated by GNI) by replacing BSI with BSIA^pc. The advantage of GNI* is that it can also be used for systems that are not input total while GNI cannot be used for such systems.

By representing the well known information flow properties in MAKS, we demonstrate that our framework is quite expressive. Nevertheless, it is possible to exploit the uniform representation of information flow properties in MAKS to simplify reasoning about these properties. That is, the concepts of our framework provide enough structure for this purpose. More specifically, reasoning about complex information flow properties can be reduced to reasoning about simpler BSPs. In this chapter, we exploit this possibility to simplify the comparison of information flow properties. Further exploitations of this possibility will follow in subsequent chapters. In summary, MAKS combines expressiveness with uniformity. As we will show, this is a major improvement over prior frameworks because these either emphasized expressiveness (at the cost of uniformity) or uniformity (at the cost of expressiveness).

**Overview.** In Section 4.2, it is shown how various information flow properties from the literature can be represented in MAKS. Based on this representation, the properties are compared to each other in Section 4.3. In Section 4.4, the main results of this chapter are summarized and are put into perspective with results obtained with other frameworks.

**Notational Conventions.** $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ denotes an event system and $V = (V, N, C)$ denotes a view in $E$. $L$ and $H$ denote subsets of $E$ that are referred to as “low-level events” and “high-level events”, respectively. Moreover, let $\mathcal{H}_L = (L, H, I, H \cap I)$ and $\mathcal{H}_L = (L, \emptyset, H)$ denote the views of domain $L$ in $Pol_H$ and $Pol_H$, respectively (cf. Examples 3.3.3 and 3.3.6). For brevity, we also write $\mathcal{H}_L$ and $\mathcal{H}$ instead of $\mathcal{H}_L$ and $\mathcal{H}_L$, respectively.

### 4.2 Assembling Known Information Flow Properties

In this section, we demonstrate how various information flow properties from the literature can be represented in MAKS. The known information flow properties that we investigate include generalized noninterference [McC87, McL94a, ZL97], forward correctability [JT88], nondeducibility for outputs [GN88], noninference [O’H90], generalized noninference [McL94a], separability [McL94a], and the perfect security property [ZL97]. Although all of these properties have been originally defined for a two-level security policy that distinguishes a high level.

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1. In Chapter 5, we will use this approach to simplify the derivation of verification techniques for information flow properties. In Chapter 6, we will use it to derive compositionality results.
and a low level, they differ in where they require absence of information flow. For example, separability requires that there is absolutely no information flow from the high level to the low level while generalized noninterference requires only that no information flows from high-level input to the low level. From the representation of these properties in MAKS that we will present in this section, these facts are very obvious: separability enforces the view $\mathcal{H}$ while generalized noninterference enforces the view $\mathcal{HI}$. More generally, each of the known information flow properties enforces one of these two views (as we will show). The definitions of noninterference that underly the various information flow properties are even more diverse.

### 4.2.1 Generalized Noninterference

We start our investigation with McCullough’s generalized noninterference [McC87]. The motivation for defining this property was to overcome deficiencies of an earlier information flow property, namely nondeducibility [Sut86]. Historically, nondeducibility was the first generalization of Goguen and Meseguer’s noninterference [GM82] suitable for deterministic as well as nondeterministic systems. However, it was found that nondeducibility is too weak as a security property because it cannot detect various forms of information leakage. After the proposal of generalized noninterference it had become obsolete. Generalized noninterference has received much attention by different researchers and, to date, is one of the most investigated information flow properties. In particular, there are several compositionality results for this property, positive as well as negative ones (e.g. [McC87, McL94a, ZL95, ZL96, ZL98]). Moreover, there are different variants of generalized noninterference, most notably, the original definition [McC87] and an interleaving-based version [McL94a, ZL97]. As we will show, these two variants are not equivalent to each other, neither in the mathematical sense nor in their value as security properties. Let us now show how the two variants of generalized noninterference can be represented in MAKS and what we gain from this representation.

**The Original Definition of Generalized Noninterference.** An event system $ES$ satisfies generalized noninterference, denoted by $GNI(ES)$, iff for every possible trace $\tau \in Tr$ and every perturbation $t \in E^*$ formed from $\tau$ by adding and deleting high-level inputs there is a possible trace $\tau' \in Tr$ such that $\tau'$ is the same as $t$ in the constant portion and differs from $t$ in the changed portion only in high-level non-inputs. $GNI$ can be formally defined as follows.

**Definition 4.2.1 (Generalized noninterference [McC87]).**

\[
GNI(ES) \equiv \forall t_1, t_2, t_3 \in E^*. \\
((t_1.t_2 \in Tr \land t_3|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)} = t_2|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)}) \\
\Rightarrow \exists t_4 \in E^*. (t_1.t_4 \in Tr \land t_4|_{LU(H \cap I)} = t_3|_{LU(H \cap I)}) \]

In this definition, $t_1.t_3$ is the perturbation of the possible trace $t_1.t_2$ that is constructed by modifying occurrences of high-level inputs in $t_2$ (i.e. $t_1$ is the constant portion of $\tau = t_1.t_2$). The trace $t_1.t_4$ is a correction of this perturbation (i.e. $\tau' = t_1.t_4$ does not differ from $\tau$ in the constant portion). We refrain from trying a more intuitive explanation of generalized noninterference at this point. In our opinion, generalized noninterference can be much easier understood from its representation in MAKS than from its original definition. This is also true for most other information flow properties investigated in this section.

In the following lemma, we show which BSPs are implied by $GNI$ and, conversely, which combination of BSPs implies $GNI$. 


Lemma 4.2.2. The following implications are valid:

\[ GNI(ES) \Rightarrow BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \]  
(4.1)

\[ GNI(ES) \Rightarrow BSI_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \]  
(4.2)

\[ (BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \land BSI_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr)) \Rightarrow GNI(ES) \]  
(4.3)

Proof. For proving \( BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \) in (4.1), let \( \alpha, \beta \in E^* \) and \( hi \in H \cap I \) be arbitrary. Moreover, assume that \( \beta, (hi), \alpha \in Tr \) and \( \alpha|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset \) hold. Applying Definition 4.2.1 for \( t_1 = \beta, t_2 = (hi), \alpha \), and \( t_3 = \alpha \) yields that there is a trace \( t_4 \in E^* \) with \( t_1, t_4 \in Tr \) and \( t_4|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t_3|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} \). Hence, for \( \alpha' = t_4 \), we have \( \beta, \alpha' \in Tr \), \( \alpha'|_L = t_3|_L = t_2|_L = \alpha|_L \), and \( \alpha'|_{H \cap I} = t_3|_{H \cap I} = \alpha|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset \), i.e. \( BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \) holds.

The proof of (4.2) is similar to the one of (4.1) where \( t_1 = \beta, t_2 = \alpha, \) and \( t_3 = (hi), \alpha \) should be chosen when applying Definition 4.2.1.

For proving (4.3), two inductive arguments are used. Let \( t_1, t_2, t_3 \in E^* \) be arbitrary such that \( t_1, t_2 \in Tr \) and \( t_3|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)} = t_2|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)} \) hold. By induction on the number of occurrences of high-level input events in \( t_2 \), we obtain from \( BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \) that there is a trace \( t' \in E^* \) with \( t_1, t' \in Tr \), \( t'|_L = t_2|_L \), and \( t'|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset \), i.e. \( t_1, t' \) results from \( t_1, t_2 \) by deleting all occurrences of high-level inputs in \( t_2 \) in a stepwise manner (from right to left). From \( t_3|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)} = t_2|_{E \setminus (H \cap I)} \) and \( t'|_L = t_2|_L \), we obtain that \( t'|_L = t_3|_L \) holds. By applying \( BSI_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \), the occurrences of high-level inputs in \( t_3 \) can now be inserted into \( t_1, t' \) in a stepwise manner (from left to right). By induction over the number of occurrences of high-level input events in \( t_3 \), we obtain that there is a trace \( t_4 \in E^* \) with \( t_1, t_4 \in Tr \) and \( t_4|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t_3|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} \).

The representation of \( GNI \) in \( MAKS \) is an immediate consequence of Lemma 4.2.2.

Theorem 4.2.3 (Assembling \( GNI \)). The following equivalence is valid:

\[ GNI(ES) \Leftrightarrow (BSD_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr) \land BSI_{\mathcal{H}(T)}(Tr)) \]

Proof. The equivalence follows from Lemma 4.2.2.

Interleaving-Based Generalized Noninterference. McLean proposed a variant of generalized noninterference that requires that every interleaving of a sequence of high-level inputs with every possible observation can be corrected to a possible trace by adapting occurrences of high-level internal events and high-level output events [McL94a]. Since this variant of generalized noninterference is based on the construction of interweavings, we refer to it as interleaving-based generalized noninterference (abbreviated by \( IBGNI \)). The following definition reflects the event-based formalization of \( IBGNI \) proposed in [ZL97].

Definition 4.2.4 (Interleaving-based generalized noninterference [ZL97]).

\[
IBGNI(ES) \equiv \forall \eta \in Tr. \forall t_{hi} \in (H \cap I)^*. \forall t \in E^*.
[t \in \text{interleaving}(t_{hi}, \eta|_L) \Rightarrow \exists \tau' \in Tr. \tau'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t]
\]
For deriving a representation of IBGNI, we proceed like for GNI: we prove a lemma that shows which BSPs are implied by IBGNI and, conversely, which combination of BSPs implies IBGNI. The representation theorem for IBGNI is then a simple consequence of this lemma. The same approach will be used to derive representations of all other information flow properties in MAKS. However, for clarity of the presentation, we only present the representation theorems from now on. The corresponding lemmas can be found in Appendix A.

The following theorem shows how to represent IBGNI in MAKS.

**Theorem 4.2.5 (Assembling IBGNI).** The following equivalence is valid:

\[
IBGNI(ES) \iff D_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr) \land I_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr) 
\]

*Proof.* The equivalence follows from Lemma A.1.1 and Theorem 3.5.3.\(^2\)

**Insights from Representation in MAKS.** Both variants of generalized noninterference, i.e. GNI and IBGNI, require that there is no information flow from high-level inputs to the low-level. This is an immediate consequence of the use of the view \(\mathcal{H}_L\) in the representation of these properties (cf. Theorems 4.2.3 and 4.2.5). Recall that \(\mathcal{H}_L = (L, H \setminus I, H \cap I)\) holds, which means that the high-level inputs are the confidential events \((C = H \cap I)\) holds and the low-level events are the visible events \((V = L)\) holds. Another consequence of using \(\mathcal{H}_L\) is that information flow from other high-level events (internal events and output events) to the low level is not explicitly forbidden by these properties. Therefore, neither GNI nor IBGNI should be used as security properties for systems that generate new secrets internally.

Another immediate consequence of the representation theorems is that both properties prevent deductions about occurrences as well as about nonoccurrences of high-level inputs. This is because BSPs from both dimensions are used in the representation of these properties.

The representation theorems also clarify what the differences are between GNI and IBGNI. While GNI is assembled from backwards-strict BSPs (i.e. BSD and BSI), IBGNI is assembled from the corresponding non-strict BSPs (i.e. D and I). This implies that GNI and IBGNI are not equivalent to each other in the mathematical sense. Moreover, they also differ in the degree of security that they ensure. In Example 3.4.22, we have shown that non-strict BSPs fail to detect certain possibilities for information leakage because they permit non-causal corrections. Consequently, IBGNI also fails to detect such insecurities because it is assembled from non-strict BSPs. However, backwards-strict BSPs can be used for detecting such insecurities and so can GNI. Hence, from the viewpoint of security, the original definition of generalized noninterference is preferable to the later proposed interleaving-based variant.

Since BSI is used in the representation of GNI, a necessary condition for the satisfaction of GNI is that all high-level inputs are always enabled. In other words, GNI(ES) implies total(ES,H \cap I). IBGNI is more liberal in this respect because it does not require totality in the set of high-level inputs, however, it is not much more liberal. Both of these information flow properties require that all sequences of confidential events are possible. That is, if GNI(ES) or IBGNI(ES) holds then \(\{\tau | \mathcal{H}_L(I) | \tau \in Tr\} = (H \cap I)^*\) must also hold. This is because BSI and I are used, respectively, in the representations of GNI and IBGNI. If these conditions are too restrictive for a given system then one might want to use slightly

\(^2\)Alternatively, IBGNI can also be represented by \(R_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr) \land I_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr)\). The equivalence \(IBGNI(ES) \iff R_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr) \land I_{\mathcal{H}_L}(Tr)\) also follows from Lemma A.1.1 and Theorem 3.5.3.
more liberal variants of generalized noninterference instead. We will propose such variants in Remark 4.2.6.

The representation of GNI and IBGNI in MAKS makes the similarities and differences of these properties very clear. All facts that we have pointed out above could be easily read off this representation. In our opinion, these facts are not as obvious from the original definitions of these properties (cf. Definitions 4.2.1 and 4.2.4), and this is why we claim that the representation in MAKS helps to understand information flow properties better.

Remark 4.2.6. In our above discussion, we pointed out that GNI and IBGNI both presume all sequences of high-level inputs to be possible. If this assumption is not satisfied by a given system then GNI and IBGNI reject this system as “insecure”. However, in Section 3.4.3, we have shown that there are systems that are intuitively secure although they do not satisfy this assumption. This was the motivation for introducing the basic security predicates \( I^\rho \), \( BSIA^\rho \), and \( SIA^\rho \), which do not make this problematic assumption. They only require the insertion of confidential events at points of a trace where they are \( \rho \)-admissible.

By replacing BSI with \( BSIA^{\rho C} \) in the representation of GNI and by replacing \( I \) with \( IA^{\rho C} \) in the representation of IBGNI, we obtain the two information flow properties \( GNI^* \) and \( IBGNI^* \) that do no require that all sequences of confidential events are possible. This means, these novel information flow properties do not rule out that sequences of confidential events model meaningful computations.\(^3\) Since \( \rho(V) = C \) holds for every \( V = (V, N, C) \) and also a corresponding BSP from the first dimension is enforced in addition to the respective BSP from the second dimension (i.e. BSD in addition to \( BSIA^{\rho C} \) and D in addition to \( IA^{\rho C} \)), a low-level observer cannot exploit his observations of the running system to deduce information beyond what he knows already from the system specification (for a more detailed discussion of these issues cf. Remark 3.4.21 and Section 3.5.2). Hence, despite \( GNI^* \) and \( IBGNI^* \) being more liberal wrt. meaningful confidential computations than GNI and IBGNI, respectively, they do not differ much wrt. the degree of security that they ensure.

\[ \diamond \]

Let us summarize the definitions of our novel information flow properties \( GNI^* \) and \( IBGNI^* \).

Definition 4.2.7 (\( GNI^* \)). \( GNI^*(ES) \equiv BSD_{\mathcal{HZ}}(Tr) \land BSIA^{\rho C}_{\mathcal{HZ}}(Tr) \)

Definition 4.2.8 (\( IBGNI^* \)). \( IBGNI^*(ES) \equiv D_{\mathcal{HZ}}(Tr) \land IA^{\rho C}_{\mathcal{HZ}}(Tr) \)

The most important facts about the information flow properties GNI, IBGNI, \( GNI^* \), and \( IBGNI^* \) that can be obtained from their representation in MAKS are viewed in Table 4.1. How to read this table is explained in Remark 4.2.9. The same kind of table will also be used for summarizing facts about all other information flow properties in this section. This uniformity will simplify comparisons between different properties.

Remark 4.2.9 (Reading the summaries of facts). The first three columns in Table 4.1 indicate where noninterference is demanded by a given property. Depending on the set \( C \) in the view that is used in the representation of a property, an information flow property prevents information flow from high-level inputs to the low level (if \( H \cap I \subseteq C \) holds), from high-level internals to the low level (if \( H \setminus (I \cup O) \subseteq C \) holds), or from high-level outputs to the low level (if \( H \cap O \subseteq C \) holds). The fourth column indicates whether an information

\(^3\)McLean’s interleaving-based variant of generalized noninterference [McL94a] neither requires systems to be input total nor all sequences of high-level input events to be possible. In this respect, his property is more closely resembled by our property \( IBGNI^* \) than by the property \( IBGNI \) as introduced in [ZL97].
### 4.2 Assembling Known Information Flow Properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>set $C$ in the view</th>
<th>BSPs from which dimensions and $\rho$-admissibility</th>
<th>strict BSPs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information flow from high inputs to low is prevented</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| $GNI$ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | $\emptyset$ | ✓ |
| $IBGNI$ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | $H \setminus I$ | ✓ |
| $GNI^*$ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | $H \cap I$ | ✓ |
| $IBGNI^*$ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | $H$ | ✓ |

Table 4.1: Facts about $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $GNI^*$, and $IBGNI^*$ in summary

The information flow property prevents deductions about occurrences of confidential events or, in other words, whether a BSP from the first dimension is used in the representation of the property. The next three columns indicate whether deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented and to what extent. Deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented completely (fifth column) if one of $I$, $BSI$, or $SI$ occurs in the representation of an information flow property. If $IA^\rho$, $BSIA^\rho$, or $SIA^\rho$ is used in the representation instead then such deductions are only prevented to some extent (7th column). Depending on the choice of the parameter $\rho$, the possible deductions are limited to information that the observer can already deduce from the system specification without observing the dynamic behavior of the system (i.e. his static knowledge). To prevent information beyond this static knowledge from being deduced is desirable (sixth column). Whether this is the case or not can be easily read off the representation of a property in $MAKS$ (Does $\rho(V, N, C) \subseteq C$ hold and is a corresponding BSP from the first dimension enforced in addition?). Note that the entries in the fifth columns for $GNI$ and $IBGNI$ differ from the ones for $GNI^*$ and $IBGNI^*$. What is gained by giving up that deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented completely is reflected in columns 8–10. Column 8 indicates whether a given property is also applicable for systems that are not input total (true for $IBGNI$, $GNI^*$, $IBGNI^*$ but not for $GNI$). Column 9 indicates whether sequences of confidential events may correspond to meaningful computations (not demanding chaotic behavior in $C$). Note that for the information flow properties in Table 4.1, the entries in this column are inverse to the ones in the fifth column. Column 10 explicates more precisely on which events the enabledness of events in $C$ may
depend. For example, GNI requires totality in $H \cap I$ and, hence, the enabledness of events in $C$ may not depend on any other events (entry $\emptyset$). In contrast to this, GNI* permits that the enabledness of confidential events may depend on previous occurrences of high-level inputs (entry $H \cap I$) because BSIA$^bc$ is used in its representation and $\rho(HI) = H \cap I$ holds.

Information flow properties that are assembled from non-strict BSPs permit that occurrences of events in $C$ also depend on previous occurrences of events in $N$. This is why the sets for $IBGNI$ and $IBGNI^*$ in the 10th column contain high-level internal events and high-level output events (entries $H \setminus I$ and $H$). In general, the larger the set on which the enabledness of events in $C$ may depend, the more noncritical dependencies are permitted. However, if non-strict BSPs are used then certain possibilities for information leakage may remain undetected (as pointed out in Example 3.4.22). Whether an information flow property prevents such insecurities is indicated by column 11. For example, GNI prevents such information leakage because it is assembled from backwards strict BSPs while $IBGNI$ does not because it is assembled from non-strict BSPs.

In general, check marks in the table indicate a desirable fact about a property. 

### 4.2.2 Forward Correctability

The next information flow property that we investigate is Johnson and Thayer’s forward correctness [JT88]. The motivation for defining this property was to overcome a deficiency of an earlier information flow property, namely restrictiveness [McC87]. Historically, restrictiveness was the first information flow property that is preserved under composition in general (generalized noninterference is not compositional in general). However, restrictiveness imposes very strong requirements on a system. That these requirements can be liberalized while retaining compositionality as well as the desired restrictions on the information flow, was the key observation that led to the definition of forward correctness. After the proposal of forward correctness, restrictiveness had become obsolete. Besides forward correctness, Johnson and Thayer proposed a family of information flow properties, namely 2-forward correctness, 3-forward correctness, .... All of these properties are also improvements over restrictiveness but none of them has advantages over forward correctness (also named 1-forward correctness). If a security property is needed that prevents information leakage from high-level input to the low level and that is also composable then forward correctness still appears to be the best choice available to date.\(^4\)

**Definition 4.2.10 (Forward correctness [JT88]).**\(^5\)

\[
\text{FC(ES)} \equiv \forall t_1,t_2 \in E^*. \forall hi \in H \cap I. \forall li \in L \cap I.
\]

\[
((t_1,\langle li \rangle), t_2 \in \text{Tr} \land t_2|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle) \implies \exists t_3 \in E^*. (t_1,\langle hi \rangle, \langle li \rangle, t_3 \in \text{Tr} \land t_3|_L = t_2|_L \land t_3|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle)
\]

\[
((t_1,\langle hi \rangle, \langle li \rangle), t_2 \in \text{Tr} \land t_2|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle) \implies \exists t_3 \in E^*. (t_1,\langle hi \rangle, t_3 \in \text{Tr} \land t_3|_L = t_2|_L \land t_3|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle)
\]

Forward correctability perturbs a possible trace $t_1,\langle li \rangle, t_2$ by inserting an occurrence of an arbitrary high-level input event $hi$ before the occurrence of the low-level input event $li$, which

\(^4\)In Chapter 6, we will propose weakened forward correctness, a novel information flow property that constitutes an improvement over forward correctness.

\(^5\)In the definition of forward correctness, $\langle li \rangle$ is a place holder that can be replaced by the empty trace $\langle \rangle$ or by $\langle li \rangle$. Implicitly, Johnson and Thayer assume that this replacement is done consistently for every trace when the definition is applied.
results in the trace \( t_1, (h_i), (l_i), t_2 \). The requirement is that this trace can be corrected by adapting occurrences of high-level internal events and high-level output events in \( t_2 \) to a possible trace \( t_1, (h_i), (l_i), t_3 \) that yields the same observation. Note that forward correctability does not permit arbitrary causal corrections of this trace but rather only permits corrections after the occurrence of \( l_i \). However, this restriction on the correction only applies if the high-level input event is inserted at a position that is immediately followed by an occurrence of a low-level input event. Hence, if a possible trace has the form \( t_1, t_2 \) where \( t_2 \) does not start with an occurrence of a low-level input event then arbitrary causal corrections of the perturbation \( t_1, (h_i), t_2 \) are permitted. The second implication in Definition 4.2.10 requires that possible traces can also be perturbed by deleting an occurrence of a high-level input event where the constraints on the correction are like for the insertion of high-level inputs events. We refrain from trying an intuitive explanation of forward correctability at this point because it is much easier to understand this property given its representation in MAKS.

Let us now show how forward correctability can be represented in MAKS.

**Theorem 4.2.11 (Assembling FC).** For \( \Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I) \), we have the following equivalence:

\[
FC(ES) \iff BSD_{\mathcal{HI}}(Tr) \land BSI_{\mathcal{HI}}(Tr) \land FCD_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}}(Tr) \land FCI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}}(Tr)
\]

**Proof.** The equivalence follows immediately from Lemma A.2.1. \( \square \)

**Insights from Representation in MAKS.** A comparison of the representation of forward correctability (Theorem 4.2.11) with the representation of generalized noninterference (Theorem 4.2.3) reveals that these two information flow properties are very similar to each other. Both of them enforce the view \( \mathcal{HI} \) and are assembled from BSD and BSI. Moreover, all facts about GNI that we have pointed out in Section 4.2.1 are also true for forward correctability. The only difference between these two properties is that \( FCD_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) and \( FCI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) are used in the representation of forward correctability but not in the representation of generalized noninterference. This means that \( FCD_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) and \( FCI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) correspond to basic ingredients of forward correctability that generalized noninterference does not have. This difference is responsible for the fact that forward correctability is preserved under composition in general, while generalized noninterference is not. This is a first example for the value of forward correctable BSFs. Further will follow in Chapter 6 where we investigate the compositionality of information flow properties in detail.

**Remark 4.2.12.** Like GNI, FC also requires totality in the set of high-level input events, i.e. \( FC(ES) \) implies \( total(ES, H \cap I) \). By replacing BSI and \( FC_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) with \( BSI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) and \( FCI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}} \) in the representation of forward correctability, we arrive at a novel information flow property (namely \( FC^* \)) that does not make this totality assumption. \( \diamond \)

**Definition 4.2.13 (FC*).** Let \( \Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I) \).

\[
FC^*(ES) \equiv BSD_{\mathcal{HI}}(Tr) \land BSI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}}(Tr) \land FCD_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}}(Tr) \land FCI_{\mathcal{HI}}^{\Gamma_{FC}}(Tr)
\]

The most important facts about the information flow properties \( FC \) and \( FC^* \) that can be obtained from their representation in MAKS are viewed in Table 4.2 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

**4.2.3 Nondeducibility for Outputs.** Generalized noninterference and forward correctability are not adequate security properties for systems that generate secrets internally because they only prevent the inference of information
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>set $C$ in the view</th>
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<th>strict BSPs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deductions about occurrences of events in $C$</td>
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<td></td>
<td>deductions about nonocc. of events in $C$</td>
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<td></td>
<td>totally in high inputs not required</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not all sequences of events in $C$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$FC$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$FC^*$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Facts about $FC$ and $FC^*$ in summary

about occurrences and nonoccurrences of high-level inputs. This limitation motivated the definition of nondeducibility for outputs by Guttman and Nadel [GN88]. In comparison to generalized noninterference or forward correctability, nondeducibility for outputs is a more appropriate security property for systems that generate secrets because this information flow property prevents deductions of information about occurrences and nonoccurrences of all high-level events, including high-level input, internal, and output events.

Nondeducibility for outputs permits noncritical information flow from the low level to the high level to some extent. More specifically, the high-level behavior may depend on input that is provided by low-level users (but not on any other low-level behavior). The possible user inputs are modeled by a set $UI \subseteq I$ of input events. Moreover, nondeducibility for outputs is a composable information flow property.\(^6\)

An event system $ES$ satisfies nondeducibility for outputs, denoted by $NDO(ES)$, iff every trace $t \in E^*$ is a possible trace of $ES$ under the assumption that $t$ equals some possible trace in its occurrences of low-level events (i.e. $\exists \tau \in \text{Tr.} \tau|_L = t|_L$) and $t$ equals some possible trace in its occurrences of events in $H \cup (L \cap UI)$ (i.e. $\exists \tau_{\text{hui}} \in \text{Tr.} \tau|_{\text{hui}}|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)} = t|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)}$). In other words, $t$ only needs to be a possible trace if the sequence of low-level events and the sequence of $H \cup (L \cap UI)$-events both make sense.

**Definition 4.2.14 (Nondeducibility for outputs [GN88]).** Let $ES$ be input total. For a set $UI \subseteq I$ of user inputs, nondeducibility for outputs is defined as follows:

$$NDO(ES) \equiv \forall \tau_{\text{hui}} \in \text{Tr.} \forall t \in E^*,$$

$$[(t|_L = \tau|_L \land t|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)} = \tau|_{\text{hui}}|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)}) \Rightarrow t \in \text{Tr}]$$

\(^6\)To be precise, compositionality of nondeducibility for outputs is only ensured if events in $UI$ are not used for communicating between system components. This means, the set of user inputs of one component must be disjoint from the sets of events of all other components.
Nondeducibility for outputs has been introduced under the assumption of input totality, i.e. that \( \text{total}(ES, I) \) holds. The following example illustrates that \( \text{NDO} \) is not satisfactory from the viewpoint of security if the assumption of input totality were dropped.

**Example 4.2.15.** Let \( ES_{\text{NDO}} = (E_{\text{NDO}}, I_{\text{NDO}}, O_{\text{NDO}}, Tr_{\text{NDO}}) \) be an event system such that \( E_{\text{NDO}} = \{h_1, l_1\} \), \( I_{\text{NDO}} = \{h_1, l_1\} \), \( O_{\text{NDO}} = \emptyset \), \( Tr_{\text{NDO}} = \left\{ \langle h_1, l_1 \rangle, \langle l_1, h_1 \rangle \right\} \), and \( U_{\text{NDO}} = \{l_1\} \). Note that \( ES_{\text{NDO}} \) is not input total. However, for this example, let us assume that the definition of \( \text{NDO} \) would nevertheless be applicable. Under this assumption, \( \text{NDO}(ES_{\text{NDO}}) \) holds (\( t|_{U(L \cup UI)} = \tau_{h_1l_1} \) implies \( t = \tau_{h_1l_1} \) because \( L = L \cap UI_{\text{NDO}} \)). Nevertheless, one can deduce from the observation \( \langle l_1 \rangle \) that \( \langle h_1, l_1 \rangle \) has occurred, i.e. there is information leakage from the high level to the low level although \( \text{NDO} \) holds. This shows that simply dropping the assumption of input totality in the definition of \( \text{NDO} \) is not a good idea because one arrives at a security property that is too weak to detect some insecurities. \( \diamond \)

Let us now show how nondeducibility for outputs can be represented in \( \text{MAKS} \).

**Theorem 4.2.16 (Assembling \( \text{NDO} \)).** For a set \( UI \subseteq I \) of user inputs and the function \( \rho_{UI} \) defined by \( \rho_{UI}(V, N, C) = C \cup (V \cap UI) \) the following equivalence is valid if \( \text{total}(ES, I) \) holds:

\[
\text{NDO}(ES) \iff \text{BSD}_H(Tr) \land \text{BSIA}^{\rho_{UI}}_H(Tr)
\]

**Proof.** The equivalence follows from Lemma A.3.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12. \( \square \)

**Insights from Representation in \( \text{MAKS} \).** That nondeducibility for outputs prevents deductions about occurrences as well as nonoccurrences of confidential events can be easily read off its representation in \( \text{MAKS} \) (BSPs from both dimensions are used). Moreover, the use of the view \( H \) (rather than of the view \( HI \) in this representation clarifies that \( \text{NDO} \) indeed prevents deductions about occurrences and nonoccurrences of all high-level events rather than only of high-level inputs (recall that \( C = H \) holds for the view \( H \)). In this respect, \( \text{NDO} \) differs from all information flow properties that we have considered so far in this chapter. Hence, \( \text{NDO} \) is a more appropriate security property for systems that generate secrets internally than any of \( \text{GNI}, \text{IBGNI}, \text{GNI}^*, \text{IBGNI}^*, \text{FC}, \) and \( \text{FC}^* \).

\( \text{BSIA}^{\rho_{UI}} \) is used in the representation of \( \text{NDO} \) and \( \rho_{UI}(V, N, C) \subseteq C \) does not hold in general. From this, we learn that \( \text{NDO} \) does not rule out possibilities for deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events completely. More specifically, despite \( \text{NDO}(ES) \) holding an observer might be able to deduce from his observations of the running system up to some point of time that some confidential event cannot occur in the future (because it will not be enabled). The reasons for these kind of deductions have been discussed in detail already in Chapter 3 (cf. Remark 3.4.21 and Section 3.5.2). Whether the possibility of such deductions poses a problem for the security of a given system depends on the particular system and cannot be answered in general. This means, when applying \( \text{NDO} \) one should justify carefully that \( \text{NDO} \) is indeed an appropriate security property for the system under consideration, in particular that the permitted deductions about the impossibility of high-level events to occur in the future do not constitute a security breach.

\( ^7 \) There are various alternative representations of \( \text{NDO} \) in \( \text{MAKS} \). This is mostly due to the fact that the view \( H \) does not permit any corrections and, hence, the non-strict, backwards-strict, and strict version of a BSP are equivalent to each other (cf. Theorems 3.5.6 and 3.15). More specifically, for \( \text{BSP}' \in \{ R, SR, D, BSD, SD \} \) and \( \text{BSP}^\# \in \{ IA \#^\#, BSIA \#^\#, IA \#^\#, BSIA \#^\#, IA \#^\# \} \), the equivalence \( \text{NDO}(ES) \iff \text{BSP}'_H(Tr) \land \text{BSP}^\#_H(Tr) \) holds. All instances of this equivalence follow from Lemma A.3.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>set $C$ in the view</th>
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<tr>
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<td>not all sequences of events in $C$ are possible</td>
<td>set of events on which enablingness is avoided because of noncausal corrections is avoided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>deductions about occurence of events in $C$</td>
<td>information leakage because of noncausal corrections is avoided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information flow from high outputs to low is prevented</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>information flow from high outputs to low is prevented</td>
<td>deductions about monocc. of events in $C$ not required</td>
<td>information leakage because of noncausal corrections is avoided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Facts about $NDO$ and $NDO^*$ in summary

**Remark 4.2.17 ($NDO^*$).** Dropping the assumption of input totality in the definition of $NDO$ results in an unsatisfactory security property because insecurities like, e.g., the one in Example 4.2.15 remain undetected. However, the representation of $NDO$ in MAKS (cf. Theorem 4.2.16) would detect the insecurity in Example 4.2.15. $BSD_H(Tr_{NDO})$ does not hold for the example system. This means, the representation of $NDO$ in MAKS is equivalent to the original definition for systems that are input total and, for systems that are not input total, it even is preferable to the original definition. By dropping the input totality assumption we obtain a novel information flow property $NDO^*$.

**Definition 4.2.18 ($NDO^*$).** $NDO^*(ES) \equiv BSD_H(Tr) \land BSIA_H^R(Tr)$

The most important facts about $NDO$ and $NDO^*$ that follow from their representation in MAKS are summarized in Table 4.3 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

### 4.2.4 Noninference

The information flow property that, to date, is known under the name *noninference* has evolved from three different information flow properties, namely Jacob’s *ignorance of progress* [Jac89], O’Halloran’s *noninference* [O’H90], and O’Halloran’s *weak ignorance of progress* [O’H90]. All three properties prevent that some user can leak information through his “window” of the system (i.e. the part of the interface that he can access) to the “window” of another user. However, none of them provides any protection against the collaboration of users. That is, collaborating users might be able to leak confidential information across a given system although this system satisfies ignorance of progress, noninference, and weak ignorance of progress. The differences between the three properties are not very substantial and, hence, have disappeared over time. Moreover, in order to rule out information leakage by
collaborating users, the window-based approach to formulating restrictions on the permitted flow of information has been replaced by multi-level security policies. This has resulted in the property that, to date, is known under the name noninference [McL94a, ZL97].

An event system $ES$ satisfies noninference, denoted by $NF(ES)$, iff every trace $\tau' \in E^*$ that results by removing all occurrences of high-level events from a possible trace $\tau$ (i.e. $\tau' = \tau|_L$) is also a possible trace. $NF$ can be formally defined as follows.

**Definition 4.2.19 (Noninference [ZL97]).**

$$NF(ES) \equiv \forall \tau \in Tr. \tau|_L \in Tr$$

Interestingly, it has been found that two other information flow properties that were developed independently from noninference are equivalent. Focardi and Gorrieri showed that Wittbold and Johnson's *nondeducibility on strategies* [WJ90] is equivalent to noninference in a trace-based setting [FG95].

Schneider showed that *may-noninterference*, another information flow property, is also equivalent to noninference [Sch01].

**Theorem 4.2.20 (Assembling $NF$).** The following equivalence is valid:

$$NF(ES) \iff R_h(Tr)$$

**Proof.** The equivalence follows from Lemma A.4.1 and Theorem 3.5.3.

**Insights from Representation in MAKs.** The most prominent difference of noninference to all other information flow properties that we have investigated so far is that its representation involves only a single BSP. Hence, noninference is a very primitive information flow property that prevents deductions about occurrences of confidential events but not about nonoccurrences of confidential events ($R$ is a BSP from the first dimension). In [McL94a], it has been already noted that noninference does not prevent low-level observations from being influenced by the insertion of *high-level inputs*. Our statement is a generalization of this observation: noninference does not prevent low-level observations from being influenced by the insertion of *arbitrary high-level events*. The representation of noninference in MAKs provides a suitable basis for deriving a modification of noninference that prevents such dependencies in a goal-directed way. Namely, by adding some BSP from the second dimension (e.g. $BSIA^{pc}$), noninference can be strengthened such that the insertion of high-level events cannot influence low-level observations in any essential way.

Further facts about noninference that can be easily obtained from its representation in MAKs are viewed in Table 4.4 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

### 4.2.5 Generalized Noninference

McLean derived *generalized noninference* from noninference by relaxing the restrictions on the permitted flow of information [McL94a]. The motivation for defining generalized noninference was the observation that noninference does not permit the enabledness of high-level outputs to...
depend closely on occurrences of low-level events. For example, a system where the occurrence of some low-level input enforces that this event is recorded by some high-level output before the next low-level input can occur would be rejected by noninference as “insecure”, even if the system only constructs a high-level log of the low-level input that always is up-to-date and, hence, intuitively is secure [Man00c]. Generalized noninference is much more liberal wrt. dependencies between high-level outputs and low-level events and, in particular, would not reject the example system.

Rather than preventing information flow from all high-level events to the low level, generalized noninference only prevents information flow from high-level inputs to the low level.

**Definition 4.2.21 (Generalized noninference [ZL97]).**

\[
GNF(ES) \equiv \forall \tau \in Tr, \exists \tau' \in Tr, [\tau']_{H \cap I} = (\) \land \tau'_{L} = \tau_{L}
\]

Generalized noninference perturbs a possible trace \(\tau\) by removing all occurrences of high-level input events (resulting in the trace \(\tau'_{E \setminus (H \cap I)}\)) and requires that this perturbation can be corrected to a possible trace \(\tau'\) by adapting occurrences of high-level internal events and occurrences of high-level output events.

Representing \(GNF\) in \(MAKS\) is straightforward.

**Theorem 4.2.22 (Assembling \(GNF\)).** The following equivalence is valid:

\[
GNF(ES) \iff R_{\mathcal{H}I}(Tr)
\]

**Proof.** The equivalence follows from Lemma A.5.1. \(\square\)

**Insights from Representation in \(MAKS\).** The representation of generalized noninference in \(MAKS\) reflects the similarity to noninference. The only difference to the representation of noninference (cf. Theorem 4.2.20) is that the view \(\mathcal{H}I\) is used (instead of \(\mathcal{H}\)). This also confirms that generalized noninference is a very weak security property. It does not prevent deductions about nonoccurrences of high-level events and it does not prevent any information flow from high-level internal or output events to the low level.

Further facts about \(GNF\) that can be read of its representation in \(MAKS\) are summarized in Table 4.4 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

### 4.2.6 Separability

**Separability** is another information flow property that was proposed by McLean [McL94a]. The motivation for defining this property was to combine the advantages of noninference and generalized noninference (i.e. having a simple definition) with the advantages of restrictiveness and forward correctability (i.e. being composable and being more restrictive than generalized noninference and noninference).

Separability is a very restrictive information flow property because it rules out information flow between the high level and the low level in both directions. This means, if separability holds for a given system then there is neither information flow from the high level to the low level nor information flow from the low level to the high level. Logically, this is equivalent to a physical separation of the high level part of the system from the low level part. In
other words, separability can be used to logically simulate physical air-gaps between system components, the same idea as in Rush's separation kernel [Rus81a].

An event system ES satisfies separability, denoted by SEP(ES), if every interleaving of a possible sequence of high-level events with a possible low-level observation is a possible trace.

**Definition 4.2.23 (Separability [ZL97]).**

\[
SEP(ES) \equiv \forall \tau_h, \tau_l \in Tr. \text{interleaving}(\tau_h|H, \tau_l|L) \subseteq \{ \tau \in Tr \mid \tau|L = \tau_l\} \\
\]

Let us now show how separability can be represented in MAKS.

**Theorem 4.2.24 (Assembling SEP).** For the function \( \rho_C \) that is defined by \( \rho_C(V, N, C) = C \) the following equivalence is valid:

\[
SEP(ES) \iff BSD_H(Tr) \land BSD^\rho_C(Tr) \\
\]

**Proof.** The equivalence follows from Lemma A.6.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12.\(^{11}\) \(\square\)

\(^{10}\)Intuitively, the underlying idea was to build secure systems from physically separated components that each satisfy a component-specific security policy. In such a system, the communication channels between components would be easily identifiable because they correspond to physical connections, i.e., wires. Having only a limited number of communication channels could then be exploited in order to simplify the proof that the overall system satisfies its security policy under the assumption that each component satisfies its local security policy. However, rather than implementing the chosen distributed architecture physically (in hardware) this architecture would be simulated by the separation kernel (in software). Following this approach, the role of information flow properties would be to specify when a particular physical distribution is simulated correctly, thereby providing a basis for a formal verification of the simulation. More recently, ideas have been related to the problem of simulating the partitioning of different system modules in embedded fault-tolerant systems in the context of Integrated Modular Avionics (IMA) [Rus99].

\(^{11}\)There are various alternative representations of SEP in MAKS. This is mostly due to the fact that the view \( \mathcal{H} \) does not permit any corrections and, hence, the non-strict, backwards-strict, and strict version of a BSP are equivalent to each other (cf. Theorems 3.5.6 and 3.5.15). More specifically, for BSP \( \in \{R, SR, D, BSD, SD\} \) and BSP\(^c \in \{IA^{pc}, BSD^{pc}, ISA^{pc}\} \), the equivalence SEP(ES) \(\iff\) BSP\(^c\)(Tr) \(\land\) BSP\(^\rho\)(Tr) holds. All instances of this equivalence follow from Lemma A.6.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12.
Insights from Representation in MAKS. Most notably, the representation of separability in MAKS reveals that this property has close similarities with nondeducibility for outputs. More specifically, both properties establish the view $\mathcal{H}$ and they are assembled from BSD and an instance of BSIA. The only difference between these properties is how BSIA is instantiated (parameter $\rho_{UI}$ in NDO and $\rho_{C}$ in SEP). The benefit of using $\rho_{C}$ instead of $\rho_{UI}$ is that deductions about nonoccurrences are limited to what an observer could already deduce from the system specification without observing the running system (his static knowledge). This means, a system that satisfies separability is more “secure” than a system that satisfies nondeducibility for outputs but does not satisfy separability. The price paid for being more conservative in this respect is that noncritical information flow from the low level to the high level is also ruled out (recall that NDO permitted at least some information flow from low-level user inputs to the high level). Depending on what is more important for a given application, being restrictive wrt. deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events or being liberal wrt. noncritical information flow, separability is preferable over nondeducibility for outputs or vice versa.

Also note that separability is assembled from the same BSPs like GNI* (cf. Definition 4.2.7). This means, these two properties are based on the same definition of noninterference. The only difference between these properties is where information flow is restricted (views $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{H}_L$, respectively).

Further facts about SEP that follow from its representation in MAKS are summarized in Table 4.5 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

4.2.7 Perfect Security Property

Zakinthinos and Lee derived the perfect security property [ZL97] by weakening separability. The motivation for the definition of the perfect security property was the observation that separability prevents not only critical information flow from the high-level to the low-level but also noncritical information flow from the low-level to the high-level. The perfect security property was defined with the objective to have a security property that rules out critical information flow like separability but that does not restrict noncritical information flow.

An event system $ES$ satisfies the perfect security property, denoted by $PSP(ES)$, iff for every possible trace $\tau \in Tr$ the projection of $\tau$ to low-level events is a possible trace and if a trace $t \in E^*$ is formed from a possible trace by adding a single high-level event $h$ at a position where $h$ is enabled and is not followed by other high-level events then $t$ is a possible trace. This is summarized in the following definition.

**Definition 4.2.25 (Perfect security property [ZL97]).**

$$PSP(ES) \equiv (\forall \tau \in Tr. \tau|_L \in Tr)$$
$$\land (\forall \alpha, \beta \in E^*.([\beta, \alpha \in Tr \land \alpha|_H = \emptyset])$$
$$\Rightarrow \forall h \in H. (\beta, h \in Tr \Rightarrow \beta, h, \alpha \in Tr)$$

In order to better understand this property, let us now represent it in MAKS.

**Theorem 4.2.26 (Assembling $PSP$).** For the function $\rho_E$ that is defined by $\rho_E(V, N, C) = V \cup N \cup C = E$ the following equivalence is valid:

$$PSP(ES) \iff BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_E}(Tr)$$
Proof. The equivalence follows from Lemma A.7.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12. \(\square\)

Insights from Representation in MAKs. Interestingly, the close similarity between the perfect security property and separability is even more obvious from the representation of these properties in MAKs \((BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{P_{out}}(Tr))\) than from their definitions (cf. Definitions 4.2.23 and 4.2.25). Moreover, from the representation of the perfect security property in MAKs, it is obvious that this property is also quite similar to nondeducibility for outputs (represented by \(BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{P_{out}}(Tr))\). All three properties \((PSP, SEP, \text{ and } NDO)\) enforce the view \(\mathcal{H}\), and they are assembled from \(BSD\) and an instance of \(BSIA\). The parameter \(\rho_E\) used in the representation of \(PSP\) indicates that \(PSP\) is the most liberal of these properties w.r.t. noncritical information flow from the low level to the high level\(^{13}\) (a desirable property). However, \(PSP\) is also more liberal than \(SEP\) or \(NDO\) w.r.t. the possibility of deductions of information about future nonoccurrences of high-level events (an undesirable property). Which of the three properties is best depends on the particular system under consideration and cannot be answered in general (because of the trade-off between permitting noncritical information flow and ruling out that deductions about future nonoccurrences are possible). This means, the name perfect security property is slightly misleading because \(PSP\) is not in general “the perfect” security property.

Further facts about \(PSP\) that follow from its representation in MAKs are summarized in Table 4.5 (cf. Remark 4.2.9 for how to read this kind of table).

4.3 Information Flow Properties in Comparison

In the previous section, we have demonstrated how generalized noninterference, forward correctness, nondeducibility for outputs, noninfERENCE, generalized noninfERENCE, separability, and the perfect security property can be represented in MAKs. The representation in MAKs clarified several facts about these well known information flow properties, many of them being not as obvious from the original definitions of these properties (cf. the summary of Tables 4.1–4.5 in Table 4.6). Moreover, for some of these properties, we have proposed modifications that overcome limitations of the original properties. This has led to the novel information flow properties \(GNI^*, IBGI^*, FC^*, \text{ and } NDO^*.\)

In this section, we investigate the relations between these information flow properties more closely. In order to structure the comparison, we start with properties that enforce the view \(\mathcal{H}\), then turn our attention to properties that enforce the view \(\mathcal{H}_I\), and, finally, relate properties that enforce different views.

4.3.1 Information Flow Properties with the View \(\mathcal{H}\)

The view \(\mathcal{H}\) is used in the representation of nondeducibility for outputs (cf. Theorem 4.2.16), of noninfERENCE (cf. Theorem 4.2.20), of separability (cf. Theorem 4.2.24), and of the perfect security property (cf. Theorem 4.2.26). This means that each of these properties prevents

\(^{12}\) There are various alternative representations of \(PSP\) in MAKs. This is mostly due to the fact that the view \(\mathcal{H}\) does not permit any corrections and, hence, the non-strict, backwards-strict, and strict version of a BSP are equivalent to each other (cf. Theorems 3.5.6 and 3.5.15). More specifically, for \(BSP' \in \{R, SR, D, BSD, SD\}\) and \(BSP^* \in \{IA^{PE}, BSIA^{PE}, SIA^{PE}\}\), the equivalence \(PSP(ES) \Leftrightarrow BSP_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSP_{\mathcal{H}}^*(Tr)\) holds. All instances of this equivalence follow from Lemma A.7.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12.

\(^{13}\) \(\rho_C(V) \supseteq \rho_{CV}(V) \supseteq \rho_C(V)\) holds.
Table 4.5: Facts about SEP and PSP in summary

deductions about occurrences or nonoccurrences of all high-level events with the same rigor, no matter whether they are input events, internal events, or output events. The difference between the four properties lies in the BSPs from which they are assembled or, in other words, what deductions they rule out. Noninference is assembled from a single BSP only, namely $R$. Since $R$ is a BSP from the first dimension, noninference only prevents deductions about occurrences of high-level events. The representations of nondeducibility for outputs, of separability, and of the perfect security property comply with the pattern $BSD_H(T) \wedge BSIA^p_H(T)$. Hence, these properties prevent deductions about occurrences of high-level events (due to $BSD$) and, unlike noninference, also about nonoccurrences of high-level events (due to $BSIA^p$). The parameter used for instantiating $BSIA$ differs: $\rho_{UI}$ is used for nondeducibility for outputs, $\rho_C$ for separability, and $\rho_E$ for the perfect security property. This means, these information flow properties differ only in the extent to which deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented (separability is the most rigorous among them in this respect) and in the extent to which noncritical information flow is permitted (the perfect security property is the most liberal among them in this respect). In Table 4.6, this is reflected by the different entries for these properties in columns 6 and 10.

Interestingly, for nondeducibility for outputs, the representation in $MAKS$ even is preferable to the original definition because it also makes sense for systems that are not input total while the original definition can only be applied to systems that are input total. This observation was the motivation for using the representation of nondeducibility for outputs as the definition of a novel information flow property, namely $NDO^*$ (also cf. column 8 of Table 4.6). Since $NDO^*$ is preferable to $NDO$, we will only consider $NDO^*$ from now on and, in particular, will use the term “nondeducibility for outputs” to refer to $NDO^*$.

Given the representation in $MAKS$ it becomes a straightforward task to order these information flow properties. On the left hand side of Figure 4.1 it is shown how separability,
nondeducibility for outputs, the perfect security property, and noninference can be ordered by implication. This ordering can be easily justified given the representation of these properties in MAKS (cf. the right hand side of Figure 4.1) and the ordering of BSPs in each dimension (cf. Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12). The ordering reflects that separability requires more perturbations than nondeducibility for outputs (because it requires the insertion of high-level events at positions where they are $\rho_C$-admissible rather than only at positions where they are $\rho_{UI}$-admissible). Moreover, the ordering reflects that nondeducibility for outputs requires more perturbations than the perfect security property and that the perfect security property requires more perturbations than noninference. Recall that none of these four properties permits any corrections.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{SEP}(ES) & \quad \text{BSD}_H(\text{Tr}) \land \text{BSIA}^{OC}_H(\text{Tr}) \\
\text{NDO}^*(ES) & \quad \text{BSD}_H(\text{Tr}) \land \text{BSIA}^{VI}_H(\text{Tr}) \\
\text{PSP}(ES) & \quad \text{BSD}_H(\text{Tr}) \land \text{BSIA}^{EF}_H(\text{Tr}) \\
\text{NF}(ES) & \quad R_H(\text{Tr})
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 4.1: Ordering information flow properties (cf. Theorem 4.3.1)

For future reference, the ordering of these information flow properties is summarized in the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.3.1.** Let $UI \subseteq I$ be a set of user inputs. The following implications are valid:

1. $\text{SEP}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{NDO}^*(ES)$,
2. $\text{NDO}^*(ES) \Rightarrow \text{PSP}(ES)$, and
3. $\text{PSP}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{NF}(ES)$.

Proof. These implications follow from the representations of $\text{SEP}$, $\text{NDO}^*$, $\text{PSP}$, and $\text{NF}$ in MAKS and the taxonomies of BSPs (cf. Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12).

Given the ordering, a natural question is why one should enforce a more restrictive information flow property rather than a less restrictive one. What is gained by enforcing $\text{SEP}$ instead of $\text{NDO}^*$; what is gained by enforcing $\text{NDO}^*$ instead of $\text{PSP}$; and what is gained by enforcing $\text{PSP}$ instead of $\text{NF}$? Table 4.6 provides a good basis for answering these kind of questions about information flow properties without having to look at the formal details of their respective representation in MAKS (or their original definitions). While the entries in many columns are identical for $\text{NF}$, $\text{PSP}$, $\text{NDO}^*$, and $\text{SEP}$, the differences between these properties are reflected in columns 6, 7, and 10. Column 7 indicates that by moving from $\text{NF}$ to the more restrictive $\text{PSP}$, one gains that *deductions about nonoccurrences of high-level events are prevented to some extent*. $\text{NDO}^*$ further limits the information that can be deduced about nonoccurrences of high-level events but it is difficult to quantify this difference more precisely. However, for $\text{SEP}$ the difference to $\text{PSP}$ (or $\text{NDO}^*$) can be easily quantified.
because *SEP limits the information* about nonoccurrences of high-level events that can be deduced by an observer to what the observer can deduce already from the system specification without observing the running system (i.e. his static knowledge). This is what one gains when moving from *PSP* or *NDO* to *SEP* (indicated by column 6 in Table 4.6). However, there are also disadvantages when moving to a more restrictive property and the entries in column 10 provide some evidence for this. For example, *SEP* rules out information flow from the low level to the high level although such information flow is not critical wrt. security. The entry *H* in column 10 shows that the enabledness of high-level events, indeed, may only depend on previous occurrences of high-level events (but not on occurrences of low-level events). *NDO* permits some noncritical information flow from the low level to the high level, namely from low-level user inputs to the high level (entry *H* ∪ (*L* ∩ *U*)). Finally, *PSP* does not restrict noncritical information flow at all (entry *H* ∪ *L*). These differences between *SEP*, *NDO*, and *PSP* are due to the different parameters that are used to instantiate *BSIA* (respectively *ρC*, *ρU*, and *ρE*). Apparently, other choices of this parameter are also possible in combination with the pattern *BSDR*(*r*) ∨ *BSIA*(*a*)(*r*). However, so far no other parameters than these three have been used to define information flow properties. It is the representation in *MAKS* that has revealed this possibility. The possibility to use arbitrary parameters *ρ* allows one to determine more precisely which deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented and what noncritical information flow is permitted than this would be possible by choosing only between *ρC*, *ρU*, and *ρE*. In other words, one obtains a finer granularity in this decision. In particular, the parameter *ρ* can be defined such that it closely matches the needs of a particular application (wrt. permitted noncritical information flow and wrt. preventing deductions about nonoccurrences of high-level events).

### 4.3.2 Information Flow Properties with the View *H*I

The view *H*I is used in the representations of generalized noninterference (cf. Theorem 4.2.3), interleaving-based generalized noninterference (cf. Theorem 4.2.5), forward correctability (cf. Theorem 4.2.11), and generalized noninterference (cf. Theorem 4.2.22). It is also used in the definitions of *GNI* (cf. Definition 4.2.7), *IBGNI* (cf. Definition 4.2.8), and *FC* (cf. Definition 4.2.13), the novel properties that we proposed in Section 4.2. The use of *H*I means that each of these information flow properties prevents deductions about occurrences or nonoccurrences of high-level inputs but not about occurrences or nonoccurrences of high-level internal or output events. The difference between these properties lies in the BSPs from which they are assembled or, in other words, *what* deductions they rule out. Generalized noninterference is assembled from a single BSP only, namely *R*. Since *R* is a BSP from the first dimension, generalized noninterference only prevents deductions about *occurrences* of high-level inputs. The representations of generalized noninterference, interleaving-based generalized noninterference, and forward correctability all involve a BSP from the second dimension (i.e. *I* or *BSI*). Hence, these properties prevent deductions about *occurrences* of high-level inputs and, unlike generalized noninterference, also about *nonoccurrences* of high-level inputs. However, these three information flow properties differ in the corrections that they permit after the perturbation (forward correctability is most rigorous among them in this respect).

Given the representation in *MAKS* it becomes a straightforward task to order these information flow properties. In Figure 4.2 one can see how *FC*, *GNI*, *IBGNI*, *GNF*, *FC* *, *GNI*, and *IBGNI* can be ordered by implication. This ordering can be easily justified given the representation of these properties in *MAKS* (cf. Figure 4.3) and the ordering of BSPs in each
dimension (cf. Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12). The ordering reflects that IBGNI requires more perturbations than GNF (i.e. the insertion of high-level inputs), that GNI requires the same perturbations as IBGNI but permits fewer corrections (i.e. only backwards-strict corrections), and that FC permits even fewer corrections. Moreover, the ordering reflects that each of the novel properties IBGNI*, GNI*, and FC* requires slightly fewer perturbations than the respective property from which it has been derived (because high-level inputs are only inserted at positions of a trace where they are $\rho_C$-admissible).

Figure 4.2: Ordering information flow properties (cf. Theorem 4.3.2)

$$\begin{align*}
\text{IBGNI}(ES) & \rightarrow GNI(ES) \\
\text{IBGNI}^*(ES) & \rightarrow GNI^*(ES) \\
\text{GNI}(ES) & \rightarrow FC(ES) \\
\text{FC}^*(ES) & \rightarrow GNI^*(ES)
\end{align*}$$

Figure 4.3: Ordering the representations (cf. Theorem 4.3.2)

For future reference, the ordering of these information flow properties is summarized in the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.3.2.** The following implications are valid:

1. $\text{FC}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{GNI}(ES)$,
2. $\text{GNI}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{IBGNI}(ES)$,
3. $\text{FC}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{FC}^*(ES)$,
4. $\text{GNI}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{GNI}^*(ES)$,
5. $\text{IBGNI}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{IBGNI}^*(ES)$,
6. $\text{FC}^*(ES) \Rightarrow \text{GNI}^*(ES)$,
7. \( GNI^*(ES) \Rightarrow IBGNI^*(ES) \), and
8. \( IBGNI^*(ES) \Rightarrow GNF(ES) \).

\( \diamond \)

Proof. These implications follow from the representations of \( FC \), \( GNI \), \( IBGNI \), and \( GNF \) in \( MAKS \), the definitions of \( FC^* \), \( GNI^* \), and \( IBGNI^* \), and the taxonomies of BSPs (cf. Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12).

Again, we ask what is gained by enforcing a more restrictive information flow property instead of a less restrictive one. Like in Section 4.3.1, we exploit Table 4.6 for answering this question without having to look at the formal details of the representation of information flow properties in \( MAKS \) (or the original definitions). The entries in the first four columns are identical for \( FC \), \( GNI \), \( IBGNI \), \( GNF \), \( FC^* \), \( GNI^* \), and \( IBGNI^* \) but the entries in columns 5–11 are not. Column 7 indicates that by moving from \( GNF \) to the more restrictive \( IBGNI^* \) one gains that deductions about nonoccurrences of high-level inputs are prevented to some extent. According to column 6, \( IBGNI^* \) limits the information that can be deduced about nonoccurrences of high-level inputs to what an observer can deduce already from the system specification without observing the running system. Column 5 reveals what is gained by moving from \( IBGNI^* \) to \( IBGNI \), namely \( IBGNI \) prevents deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events (almost) completely. When \( IBGNI \) holds for a given system then the only possibility to deduce information about occurrences or nonoccurrences of high-level inputs is by exploiting the fact that \( IBGNI \) permits noncausal corrections (indicated by the missing check mark in column 11). In Example 3.4.22, we have illustrated how this possibility for deductions can be exploited by a Trojan horse for leaking information from the high level to the low level. By moving to the more restrictive \( GNI \), this danger of information leakage is avoided (cf. column 11). In comparison to \( GNI \), the advantage of \( FC \) is that it is a composable information flow property.\(^{14}\) However, there are also disadvantages when moving to a more restrictive property and the entries in column 10 provide some evidence for this. For example, \( FC \) and \( GNI \) do not permit that the enabledness of high-level inputs depend on other occurrences of events (entry \( \emptyset \)). More specifically, \( FC \) and \( GNI \) require that high-level input events are always enabled (column 8). \( IBGNI \) is slightly less restrictive in this respect (entry \( H \setminus I \)), which is achieved at the price of permitting noncausal corrections (column 11). The novel properties \( FC^* \), \( GNI^* \), and \( IBGNI^* \) have the advantage that the enabledness of high-level inputs may depend on previous occurrences of high-level inputs. Note that by moving to these properties one trades the check mark in column 5 for the check marks in columns 8 and 9 (together with a more liberal entry in column 10). Whether it is better to use an information flow property that has a check mark in column 5 or one that has check marks in columns 8 and 9 cannot be answered in general. This depends on the particular application under consideration.

4.3.3 Information Flow Properties with Different Views

In Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, we have compared information flow properties to each other that enforce the same view (i.e. view \( \mathcal{H} \) in Section 4.3.1 and view \( \mathcal{HL} \) in Section 4.3.2). In this section, we relate these two classes of information flow properties to each other.

\(^{14}\)In the table, this advantage of \( FC \) is not reflected. Compositionality of information flow properties will be the topic of Chapter 6.
In general, properties in the second class (enforcing view $\mathcal{HI}$) do not imply properties in the first class (enforcing view $\mathcal{H}$) because the view $\mathcal{HI}$ imposes fewer restrictions on the permitted flow of information than the view $\mathcal{H}$ does. However, properties in the first class might imply properties in the second class. Let us now investigate more closely which implications are valid.

Noninference and generalized noninference are both assembled from a single BSP only, namely $R$. The difference between these properties lies in the view that they enforce. Since noninference enforces the view $\mathcal{H}$, it prevents deductions about occurrences of high-level inputs as well as about occurrences of high-level internal and output events. In contrast to this, generalized noninference prevents only deductions about occurrences of high-level inputs. This already suggests that noninference is a more restrictive property than generalized noninference. The following theorem shows that this is, indeed, the case.

**Theorem 4.3.3.** If $NF(ES)$ holds then $GNF(ES)$ also holds.

**Proof.** This implication follows from the representations of $NF$ and $GNF$ in MAK$S$ and the taxonomy of BSPs in the first dimension (cf. Theorem 3.5.3). $\square$

By transitivity of logical implication, we obtain from Theorems 4.3.1 and 4.3.3 that $PSP$, $NDO^*$, and $SEP$ also imply $GNF$. Let us now try to establish a relation between $SEP$, $NDO^*$, $PSP$, $NF$ and our novel properties $FC^*$, $GNI^*$, $IBGNI^*$. As we will show, the connection between these two sets of properties is not very close because only the strongest property from the first set (i.e. $SEP$) implies the weakest property from the second set (i.e. $IBGNI^*$). The following example demonstrates that $SEP$, $NDO^*$, $PSP$, $NF$ do not imply $GNI^*$ or $FC^*$.

**Example 4.3.4.** Recall the system PIPE from Example 3.4.15. For this system, we have $\mathcal{HI} = (\emptyset, \{h_o \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}, \{h_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\})$ and $\mathcal{H} = (\emptyset, \emptyset, \{h_i, h_o \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\})$. Obviously, SE$P$(PIPE) holds. From Theorem 4.3.1, we obtain that $NDO^*(PIPE)$, $PSP$(PIPE), and $NF$(PIPE) also hold. However, $GNI^*(PIPE)$ does not hold because $(h_{i_1}, h_{i_2})$ is a perturbation of $(h_{i_1})$ (resulting from the insertion of $h_{i_2}$) but there is no causal correction of $(h_{i_1}, h_{i_2})$ to a possible trace of PIPE. From Theorem 4.3.2, we obtain that $FC^*(PIPE)$ also does not hold.

The reason why $SEP$(PIPE) holds despite $GNI^*(PIPE)$ not holding is that $\rho_C(\mathcal{H}) = \{h_i, h_o \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ differs from $\rho_C(\mathcal{HI}) = \{h_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Hence, $GNI^*$ require the insertion of $h_{i_2}$ immediately after $h_{i_1}$ in the trace $(h_{i_1})$ ($h_{i_2}$ is $\rho_C$-admissible after $h_{i_1}$ wrt. the view $\mathcal{HI}$) but $SEP$ does not require that $h_{i_2}$ can be inserted at this position of this trace ($h_{i_2}$ is not $\rho_C$-admissible after $h_{i_1}$ wrt. the view $\mathcal{H}$). $\square$

The following theorem shows that, in contrast to $GNI^*$ and $FC^*$, $IBGNI^*$ is implied by $SEP$.

**Theorem 4.3.5.** If $SEP(ES)$ holds then $IBGNI^*(ES)$ also holds.

**Proof.** According to Theorem 4.2.24, we have $SEP(ES) \Leftrightarrow (BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^P(Tr))$. According to Definition 4.2.8, we have $IBGNI^*(ES) \Leftrightarrow (D_{\mathcal{HI}}(Tr) \land IA_{\mathcal{H}}^P(Tr))$.

From Theorem 3.5.3, we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \Rightarrow D_{\mathcal{HI}}(Tr)$ because $H \cap \mathcal{I} \subseteq H$ holds (choose $\mathcal{V}_1 = \mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{V}_2 = \mathcal{HI}$ in Theorem 3.5.3).

It remains to be shown that $(BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \land BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^P(Tr)) \Rightarrow IA_{\mathcal{H}}^P(Tr)$ also holds. Assume $BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)$ and $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^P(Tr)$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $h_i, h_i \in H \cap \mathcal{I}$ such that $\beta, \alpha \in Tr$, $\alpha|_{H\cap\mathcal{I}} = \emptyset$, and $Adm_{\mathcal{HI}}^P(Tr, \beta, h_i)$. From $BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)$, we obtain $(\beta, \alpha)|_{L} \in Tr$ (inductive argument). $Adm_{\mathcal{HI}}^P(Tr, \beta, h_i)$ implies that there is a trace $\gamma \in E^*$ with $\gamma, (h_i) \in Tr$ and $\gamma|_{H\cap\mathcal{I}} = \beta|_{H\cap\mathcal{I}}$. $\square$
We now insert the sequence $(\gamma, \langle h_i \rangle)|_H$ into $(\beta, \alpha)|_L$ in a stepwise manner. $BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$ implies that there is a trace $\beta' \in \mathcal{E}^*$ with $\beta'|_{L(H \cap I)} = \beta'|_{L(U(H \cap I))}$, $\beta'|_H = \gamma|_H$, and $\beta', \langle h_i \rangle, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$ (detailed argument is by induction over the length of $(\gamma, \langle h_i \rangle)|_H$). From $\beta', \langle h_i \rangle, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$, $(\alpha|_L)|_L = \alpha|_L$, $(\alpha|_L)|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$, $\beta'|_{L(H \cap I)} = \beta'|_{L(U(H \cap I))}$, and Definition 3.4.11, we conclude that $IA_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr)$ holds (choose $\alpha' = \alpha|_L$).

Recall that $NDO^*$ and $IBGNI^*$ are defined by $BSD_{H}(Tr) \land BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$ and $R_{HI}(Tr) \land IA_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr)$, respectively. This means, $NDO^*$ requires the insertion of high-level events only at positions where they are $\rho_U$-admissible (wrt. the view $\mathcal{H}$) while $IBGNI^*$ requires the insertion of high-level inputs at positions where they are $\rho_{C}$-admissible (wrt. the view $\mathcal{H}I$). Since $\rho_U(\mathcal{H}) \subseteq \rho_{C}(\mathcal{H}I)$ does not hold, in general, $NDO^*$ does not imply $IBGNI^*$. Moreover, since $PSP$ and $NF$ are weaker than $NDO^*$, they also do not imply $IBGNI^*$.

Let us now try to establish a relationship between $SEP$, $NDO^*$, $PSP$, $NF$ and $FC$, $GNI$, $IBGNI$. The entries in column 9 in Table 4.6 show that $FC$, $GNI$, and $IBGNI$ require all sequences of high-level inputs to be possible. Moreover, the entries in column 8 reveal that $FC$ and $GNI$ even require high-level input events to be always enabled, i.e. the system under consideration must be total in the set $H \cap I$. The properties $SEP$, $NDO^*$, $PSP$, and $NF$ do not impose such requirements. Therefore, none of $SEP$, $NDO^*$, $PSP$, and $NF$ implies any of $FC$, $GNI$, and $IBGNI$, in general. However, if we restrict our attention to systems that are total in $H \cap I$ then $PSP$ implies $FC$. This is shown by the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.3.6.** If $PSP(ES)$ and $total(ES, H \cap I)$ hold then $FC(ES)$ also holds.

**Proof.** According to Theorem 4.2.26, we have $PSP(ES) \Leftrightarrow (BSD_{H}(Tr) \land BSIA^p_{H}(Tr))$. From Theorem 4.2.11, we obtain $FC(ES) \Leftrightarrow (BSD_{HI}(Tr) \land BSI_{HI}(Tr) \land FCD_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr) \land FCI_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr))$.

From Theorem 3.5.3, we obtain $BSD_{H}(Tr) \Rightarrow BSD_{HI}(Tr)$ because $H \cap I \subseteq H$ holds (choose $V_1 = H$ and $V_2 = \mathcal{H}I$ in Theorem 3.5.3).

It remains to prove the following three implications:

$$(BSD_{H}(Tr) \land BSIA^p_{H}(Tr) \land total(ES, H \cap I)) \Rightarrow BSI_{HI}(Tr) \quad (4.4)$$

$$(BSD_{H}(Tr) \land BSIA^p_{H}(Tr) \land total(ES, H \cap I)) \Rightarrow FCD_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr) \quad (4.5)$$

$$(BSD_{H}(Tr) \land BSIA^p_{H}(Tr) \land total(ES, H \cap I)) \Rightarrow FCI_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr) \quad (4.6)$$

For proving (4.4), assume $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, $BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$, and $total(ES, H \cap I)$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{E}^*$ and $h_i \in H \cap I$ such that $\beta, \alpha \in Tr$ and $\alpha|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$. From $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, we obtain $\beta, \langle h_i \rangle \in Tr$ (inductive argument). $Adm^p_{\mathcal{C}}(Tr, \beta, h_i)$ holds because $total(ES, H \cap I)$ and $h_i \in H \cap I$ hold. $BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$ implies $\langle h_i, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr \rangle$. From $\beta, \langle h_i, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr \rangle$, $(\alpha|_L)|_L = \alpha|_L$, $(\alpha|_L)|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$, and Definition 3.4.24, we conclude that $BSI_{HI}(Tr)$ holds (choose $\alpha' = \alpha|_L$).

For proving (4.5), assume $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, $BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$, and $total(ES, H \cap I)$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{E}^*$, $h_i \in H \cap I$, and $\tilde{h}_i \in L \cap I$ such that $\beta, \langle h_i, \tilde{h}_i \rangle, \alpha \in Tr$ and $\alpha|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$. From $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, we obtain $\beta, \langle h_i, \tilde{h}_i \rangle, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$ (inductive argument). $BSD_{H}(Tr)$ implies $\langle h_i, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr \rangle$. From $\beta, \langle h_i, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr \rangle$, $(\alpha|_L)|_L = \alpha|_L$, $(\alpha|_L)|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$, and Definition 3.4.25, we conclude that $FC_{\mathcal{C}}^p(Tr)$ holds (choose $\alpha' = \alpha|_L$ and $\delta' = \langle \rangle$).

For proving (4.6), assume $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, $BSIA^p_{H}(Tr)$, and $total(ES, H \cap I)$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{E}^*$, $h_i \in H \cap I$, and $\tilde{h}_i \in L \cap I$ such that $\beta, \langle h_i, \tilde{h}_i \rangle, \alpha \in Tr$ and $\alpha|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$. From $BSD_{H}(Tr)$, we obtain $\beta, \langle h_i, \tilde{h}_i \rangle, (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$ (inductive argument). $Adm^p_{\mathcal{C}}(Tr, \beta, h_i)$ holds because $total(ES, H \cap I)$ and
$h_i \in H \cap I$. $BSIA^p_H(Tr)$ implies $\beta(h_i, i), (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$. From $\beta(h_i, i), (\alpha|_L) \in Tr$, $(\alpha|_L)|_{H \cap I} = \alpha|_L$, $(\alpha|_L)|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$, and Definition 3.4.26, we conclude that $FCI^{pc}_H(Tr)$ holds. □

By transitivity of logical implication, we obtain from Theorems 4.3.1, 4.3.2, and 4.3.6 that, under the assumption that high-level input events are always enabled, each of $PSP$, $NDO^*$, and $SEP$ implies $IBGNI$, $GNI$, and $FC$.

4.3.4 A Taxonomy of Information Flow Properties

We are now ready to present the main technical result of this section, i.e. the taxonomy of all information flow properties that we have considered in this thesis so far.

Theorem 4.3.7 (Taxonomy of information flow properties). Let $UI \subseteq I$ be a set of user inputs. The implications depicted in Figure 4.4 are valid. □

Proof. Follows from Theorems 4.3.1, 4.3.2, 4.3.3, 4.3.5, and 4.3.6. □

![Taxonomy of Information Flow Properties](image)

Figure 4.4: Taxonomy of information flow properties (cf. Theorem 4.4)

Remark 4.3.8. Theorem 4.3.7 subsumes the taxonomy of information flow properties in [McL94a, McL96] that only covers $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $NF$, and $SEP$. Our taxonomy also subsumes the taxonomy in [ZL97] that covers $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $NF$, $SEP$, $PSP$, and $NDO$ (but not any of $FC$, $FC^*$, $GNI$, $GNI^*$, $IBGNI^*$). Interestingly, Zakinthinos and Lee missed that $PSP$ implies $NF$ and that $NDO$ implies $NF$, facts pointed out by our taxonomy. 15

15 The original definition of $NDO$ is equivalent to the conjunction of two conditions $ND1 \land ND2$ where $ND1$ prevents a low-level user from deducing that certain high-level events have or have not occurred and $ND2$ prevents a low-level user from deducing the interleaving of high-level and low-level events (cf. [GN88] for the formal definition of $ND1$ and $ND2$). However, the definition in [ZL97] is equivalent to $ND1$ and, in general, $ND1$ does not imply $ND2$. Consequently, the definition of $NDO$ in [ZL97] does not properly reflect the original definition. That the implication $NDO(ES) \Rightarrow NF(ES)$ is left out in [ZL97] might be due to this fact.
Moreover, all facts about information flow properties that we have read off their respective representation in MAKS are summarized in Table 4.6. Note that there are two blocks of information flow properties in the table: firstly, the properties that enforce the view \(\mathcal{H}\) (having check marks in the first three columns) and, secondly, properties that enforce the view \(\mathcal{HI}\) (having check marks in the first column but not in columns 2 and 3). Interestingly, all properties are assembled from a BSP in the first dimension (check mark in column 4). For the representation of two properties, namely \(NF\) and \(GNF\), no BSP in the second dimension was necessary (no check marks in columns 5–7). However, a BSP from the second dimension is used in the representations of all other information flow properties. Hence, these properties prevent deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events to some extent. For three properties, namely \(NDO^*\), \(NDO\) and \(PSP\), it is difficult to quantify more precisely what deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events are prevented (check mark in column 7 but not in columns 5 and 6). For four properties, namely \(SEP\), \(FC^*\), \(GNI^*\) and \(IBGNI^*\), the information that an observer can deduce about nonoccurrences of confidential events is limited to what he can already deduce from the system specification alone without observing the running system (check marks in columns 6 and 7 but not in column 5). Finally, there are three properties, namely \(FC\), \(GNI\) and \(IBGNI\), that prevent deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events completely (check marks in columns 5–7).\footnote{For \(IBGNI\), this statement is softened by the missing check mark in column 11 indicating that noncausal corrections permitted by \(IBGNI\) could be exploited for information leakage as illustrated in Example 3.4.22.} Note also that the entries in column 9 are inverse to the entries in column 5. This means, when assembling an information flow property one has to decide whether one wants either to rule out deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events completely (check mark in column 5) or to permit noncritical information flow (check mark in column 9). Moreover, if there is a check mark in each of the first three columns then there is also one in column 11. However, if there are no check marks in column 2 and 3 then nevertheless, there may be a check mark in column 11 (cf. the entries for \(FC\)). This means, if one wants to define an information flow property with a check mark in column 11 then one should use the view \(\mathcal{H}\) or, alternatively, should assemble the security predicate only from backwards-strict BSPs.

### 4.4 Summary and Comparison to Prior Frameworks

In this chapter, we have illustrated how information flow properties can be represented in MAKS. This has revealed several interesting facts about the various properties that, in many cases, are not as obvious from the original definitions of these properties. The representation in MAKS has also provided a suitable basis for the comparison of information flow properties.

For each information flow property, we have showed whether it only prevents deductions about occurrences of confidential events (only a BSP from the first dimension) or also about nonoccurrences of confidential events (BSPs from both dimensions). We have further classified the latter properties into ones that rule out deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events completely, ones that limit the information that can be deduced to what an observer could obtain already from the system specification, and ones that are even more liberal in this respect (depending on the particular BSP from the second dimension). We have also clarified which information flow properties consider all high-level events as confidential (view \(\mathcal{H}\)) and which properties only consider the high-level input events as confidential (view \(\mathcal{HI}\)). Moreover, we have pointed out to what extent the various information flow properties limit
noncritical information flow (i.e. from low to high) as an undesirable side effect of preventing critical information flow (i.e. from high to low). All these facts are summarized in Table 4.6. In this table one can also see that permitting noncritical information flow is incompatible with ruling out deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events completely as the entries in column 5 and 9 are inverse to each other. Moreover, the comparison of information flow properties has resulted in a taxonomy of these properties (cf. Figure 4.4).

The information flow properties GNI*, IBGNI*, FC*, and NDO* are another outcome of our investigation. We have derived them from known properties in order to overcome certain limitations: e.g. NDO* is applicable to systems that are not input total (unlike NDO) and FC* is applicable to systems that are not total in the high-level input events (unlike FC).

The list of known properties that we have represented in MAKS includes all (non-obsole) properties that have been represented in the prior frameworks for (trace-based) information flow properties by McLean [McL94a, McL96], Focardi/Gorrieri [FG95],17 and Zakinthinos/Lee [Zak96, ZL97]. However, we have also represented properties in MAKS that have not been represented in these prior frameworks. For example, forward correctability has not been considered in [McL94a, McL96], the perfect security property has neither been considered in [McL94a, McL96] nor in [FG95], and the original variant of nondeducibility for outputs has not been represented in any of these frameworks (cf. Table 4.7 for a more detailed comparison).18 By representing all these properties in MAKS, we have demonstrated that our framework is quite expressive.19

All information flow properties have been represented in the same way, i.e. by specifying a set of views and a set of BSPs (cf. Definition 3.2.6). This uniform representation has been helpful for the comparison of the represented properties and will also simplify our investigations in subsequent chapters. This means that MAKS combines expressiveness with a uniform representation that simplifies reasoning about information flow properties. In contrast to this, prior frameworks either emphasized expressiveness (at the cost of uniformity and simplification) or uniformity (at the cost of expressiveness). For example, the framework by Focardi and Gorrieri [FG95], in principle, is expressive enough to represent the well known information flow properties. However, this framework lacks uniform concepts that are specifically targeted at the representation of information flow properties and that would simplify the investigation of these properties. Uniformity is limited to the use of a common system model (labeled transition systems) and a common specification formalism (the process algebra SPA). In [PWK96], information flow properties are represented in a many-sorted predicate logic. Hence, the framework is quite expressive (albeit only four information flow properties actually have been considered in that article) but provides little support for reasoning about the represented properties. In contrast to this, the framework by Zakinthinos and Lee [Zak96, ZL97] provides concepts that are specifically targeted at the representation

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17The mapping of the names used by Focardi and Gorrieri for information flow properties to the established names is as follows: 

- NNI corresponds to generalized noninference, SNNI and NDC correspond to noninference.
- TNDI corresponds to nondeducibility, its-RES corresponds to restrictiveness, its-FC corresponds to forward correctability, and NDCIT corresponds to the conjunction of generalized noninference and input totality.

18For completeness: An early comparison of information flow properties by Bieber and Cuppens covered 

generalized noninference, generalized noninference, nondeducibility, and causality [BC92]. To date, 

nondeducibility is an obsolete security property and it is known that causality is restricted to deterministic systems.

19However, we do not know at this stage whether it is complete in any theoretical sense.
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Table 4.6: Facts about information flow properties in summary
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$^x_1$ A variant of nondeducibility for outputs has been considered in [ZL97] but its definition is neither equivalent to the original definition nor is it a sensible security property (cf. Remark 4.3.8).

$^x_2$ In [ZL97], $IBGNI$ has been introduced as a natural adaptation of McLean's definition of generalized noninterference to the event-based setting. However, to us $IBGNI^*$ seems at least as natural (cf. Remark 4.2.6).

Table 4.7: Information flow properties represented in the various frameworks

of information flow properties (low-level equivalence sets and a uniform schema for information flow properties). However, these concepts seem not to provide enough structure for general reasoning about classes of properties. Moreover, the use of these concepts is not enforced by the framework (e.g., the representation of separability and the perfect security property in [ZL97] do not comply with the schema). Among the previously proposed frameworks for information flow properties, McLean's framework of selective interleaving functions [McL94a, McL96] seems to be the only one that considerably simplifies the investigation of information flow properties. In that framework, information flow properties are represented in a uniform way based on a concept of selective interleaving functions where each selective interleaving function belongs to one or more types. These types can be used, e.g., to simplify the comparison of information flow properties or the derivation of compositionality results. However, selective interleaving functions are not expressive enough to represent, e.g., nonedducibility for outputs and the perfect security property [Zak96]. More specifically, closure under a set of selective interleaving functions of a particular type is equivalent to a statement of the form $R_y(Tr) \land IA_y^i(Tr)$ in MAKS. By introducing the concept of domain restrictions (or, alternatively, the concept of range restrictions) it becomes possible to represent additional properties but the expressiveness is still quite limited. Properties that are not of the
form $R_V(Tr)$ or $R_V(Tr) \land IA^1_\emptyset(Tr)$ cannot be represented in McLean’s framework of selective interleaving functions (in its current form).\textsuperscript{20}

In our opinion, it is crucial for a framework for information flow properties to be expressive, to facilitate the uniform representation of information flow properties, and to simplify their investigation. *Expressiveness* is important because if an information flow property of interest cannot be expressed in a framework then it, obviously, cannot be investigated in this framework. *Uniformity* is important because if the representations of different information flow properties are completely dissimilar then their representation in the framework provides little help for improving one’s understanding of these properties. Finally, to *simplify the investigation* of information flow properties, apparently, is the main objective when developing a framework for their investigation. As we have demonstrated in this chapter, MAKS combines these three desirable properties and, in this respect, it is an improvement over all previous frameworks for information flow properties.

\textsuperscript{20}These statements are justified in Appendix B where we investigate the relationship between McLean’s framework and MAKS in more detail.
Chapter 5

Verification Techniques for Information Flow Properties

5.1 Introduction

Once a system’s behavior and its security requirements have been formally specified, the security of this system can be verified with mathematical rigor. Naturally, verifying that a system satisfies its requirements is often difficult and time consuming.

In this chapter, we propose verification techniques for information flow properties. Our main goal is to simplify the proof that a given system satisfies a given information flow property. We show that part of this proof can be done independently of the particular system. To this end, we follow the unwinding approach [GM84, HY87, Jac90, Rya91, GCS91, MC92, Rus92, Mil94, Pin95, Zak96, RS99]. However, we go one step further than the traditional unwinding techniques by showing that most of this proof can be constructed also independently of the particular information flow property. This simplifies the verification considerably because part of the proof that a system satisfies an information flow property can be factored out and needs to be constructed only once for all systems and all information flow properties. Our framework MAKS provides the uniform basis for this effort.

More specifically, we reduce the verification of an information flow property to the verification of all BSPs from which this property is assembled. Then, we divide the verification of each BSP into two parts. To this end, we introduce unwinding conditions that serve as an intermediate specification in this process (cf. Figure 5.1). Typical requirements imposed by unwinding conditions are that the states before and after an occurrence of a confidential event are related by the unwinding relation, a binary relation between states, or that the unwinding relation is preserved under stepwise execution. Unwinding theorems ensure that these

![Diagram](image)

Figure 5.1: Proving a BSP by unwinding

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1The system model used in this chapter is that of state-event systems (cf. Definition 2.1.13).
unwinding conditions indeed imply the various BSPs by inductive arguments. This means, our unwinding theorems reduce the verification of BSPs (i.e. global requirements expressed in terms of sets of traces) to the verification of unwinding conditions (i.e. local requirements expressed in terms of single transitions). In other words, part of the argument that a system satisfies a given BSP is independent of the particular system specification. This proof is also independent of the particular information flow property because our unwinding theorems aim at the verification of BSPs and, hence, can be applied during the verification of all information flow properties that can be assembled from these BSPs. Consequently, the tedious derivation of specialized unwinding theorems for individual information flow properties is made obsolete by our results.

However, specialized unwinding theorems for individual information flow properties also can be derived from our unwinding theorems. We illustrate this for several properties, including some for which no such theorems were available previously (like, e.g., for nondeducibility for outputs and separability). For other properties (like, e.g., for the perfect security property), our unwinding theorems constitute improvements over the known theorems. All of these unwinding theorems are simple consequences of our unwinding theorems for BSPs. More generally, by representing an information flow property in MAKs, one obtains a corresponding specialized unwinding result for this property (almost) "for free".

A technical novelty of our unwinding results is that we permit arbitrary unwinding relations rather than only equivalence relations (like, e.g., in [HY87, Rya91, GCS91, Rus92, Mil94, Zak96, RS99]). We have experienced in a case study [MSK+01] how complicated and inconvenient the situation can be, if we are restricted to equivalence relations. However, our relaxation has not only practical but also some more fundamental advantages because certain information flow properties (like, e.g., noninferential) can now be captured more closely by unwinding conditions.

This chapter is complemented by Appendix C where we propose further verification techniques for information flow properties as alternatives to unwinding. More specifically, we show how simulation techniques like, e.g. forward simulation or backwards simulation, can be employed for this purpose. These simulation techniques have been originally developed for verifying that a specification refines another specification.

**Overview.** In Section 5.2, we illustrate informally the derivation of unwinding results for BSPs. Unwinding theorems that cover all BSPs from Chapter 3 are presented in Section 5.3. They are the main technical results of this chapter. In Section 5.4, we formally define the various unwinding conditions and prove all cases of the unwinding theorems. Based on the unwinding theorems for BSPs, we derive several specialized unwinding theorems for information flow properties in Section 5.5. In Section 5.6, we illustrate how to verify that a given system specification satisfies our unwinding conditions and thereby demonstrate the advantages of being able to use arbitrary unwinding relations. The main results of this chapter are summarized in Section 5.7.

**Notational Conventions.** Let \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) denote an event system and \( SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T) \) denote a state-event system. \( V = (V, N, C) \) denotes a view in \( E \), \( \rho \) denotes a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \), and \( \Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon, \gamma) \) is a triple where \( \nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon \subseteq E \). Moreover, \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) denote finite traces, i.e. \( \alpha, \beta \in E^* \), and \( c \) denotes a confidential event, i.e. \( c \in C \). Finally, let \( \mathcal{H} = (L, H \setminus I, H \cap I) \), \( \mathcal{H} = (L, \emptyset, H) \), and \( \Gamma_{PC} = (I, \emptyset, I) \).
5.2 On the Derivation of Unwinding Results

We now illustrate the derivation of unwinding results for BSPs using BSD as an example. For simplicity, we assume that \( N = \emptyset \) holds for the view \( V = (V, N, C) \), a simplifying assumption made only in this section. From Section 5.3 on, we will investigate the general case.

Recall from Section 3.4 that BSD prevents an observer from deducing information about occurrences of confidential events. If BSD holds then, for every possible trace with occurrences of confidential events, there is another possible trace without confidential events that generates the same observation. This makes it impossible for an observer to tell whether a trace with confidential events or a trace without confidential events has generated a given observation. In other words, he cannot conclude that confidential events have occurred.

Under the assumption \( N = \emptyset \), BSD\(_V\)(\( Tr \)) requires that if \( \beta.\{c\}.\alpha \) is a possible trace in \( Tr \) and \( \alpha \) contains no confidential events then deleting the occurrence of \( c \) results in a trace, namely \( \beta.\alpha \), that is also in \( Tr \). Consequently, BSD is a closure property of sets of traces. Since such global conditions are not very easy to handle during verification, we would like to have more local conditions that involve only individual transitions rather than complete traces. For expressing these local conditions, it is convenient to have a notion of state. Therefore, we use the system model of state-event systems throughout this chapter.\(^2\) For a state-event system, the requirements of BSD can be expressed as follows: If \( s \) is the state that results after some trace \( \beta \) has occurred in the initial state \( s_0 \), \( s' \) is the state that results after \( c \) has occurred in \( s \), and \( s'_n \) is the state that results after some trace \( \alpha \) without confidential events has occurred in \( s' \) then there must be a state \( s_n \) that results after \( \alpha \) has occurred in \( s \). This requirement can be viewed as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta & \quad \quad \beta \\
\alpha & \quad \quad \alpha \\
\Rightarrow \exists s_n \in S, \quad s_0 & \quad \quad s_0 \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s & \quad \quad s \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s' & \quad \quad s' \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s'_n & \quad \quad s'_n \\
\end{align*}
\]

(5.1)

In (5.1), it is implicitly assumed that \( \alpha, \beta \in E^*, \ c \in C, \) and \( s, s', s'_n \in S \) are universally quantified and that \( \alpha|_C = \emptyset \) holds. That all states in the diagram can be reached from the initial state is expressed by the condition \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} s \), which occurs on both sides of the implication. By making it an implicit assumption that all states are reachable rather than stating it explicitly, we arrive at the following simplified diagram:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha & \quad \quad \alpha \\
\Rightarrow \exists s_n \in S, \quad s & \quad \quad s \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s' & \quad \quad s' \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s'_n & \quad \quad s'_n \\
\end{align*}
\]

(5.2)

Next, we split (5.2) into two conditions where one is concerned with the transition \( s \xrightarrow{c} s' \) and the other with the transitions \( s' \xrightarrow{\alpha} s'_n \) and \( s \xrightarrow{\alpha} s_n \). To this end, we introduce a binary relation \( \kappa \) between states, the unwinding relation. The intuition is that if \( s' \kappa s \) holds then every sequence \( \alpha \) of visible events that is enabled in state \( s' \) is also enabled in the state

---

\(^2\)Using state-event systems instead of event systems is not a major change. For each state-event system \( SES \) there is an event system that has the same set of possible traces, namely \( ESES = (E, I, O, Tr_{ES}) \) (cf. Definition 2.1.18) and for each event system \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) there is a corresponding state-event system, namely \( SES_E = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T) \) where \( S = E^*, \ s_0 = \emptyset \), and \( T = \{ (s, c, s, \{c\}) \mid s, \{c\} \in Tr \}. \)
s, which can be viewed as follows:

\[ s' \xrightarrow{\alpha} T s_n' \land s' \prec s \quad (5.3) \]

\[ \Rightarrow \exists s_n \in S. \quad s \xrightarrow{\alpha} T s_n \]

Using the unwinding relation, we can reformulate (5.2) as follows:

\[ s \xrightarrow{c} T s' \Rightarrow s' \prec s \quad (5.4) \]

Note that (5.4) reflects the main requirement of BSD, namely that every sequence of visible events that is enabled after a confidential event c has occurred also must have been enabled before this occurrence.

In the diagrams, we have used boldface to mark objects that are implicitly universally quantified (e.g. s or s' in (5.3)) and we have indicated the conditions that are assumed (on the left hand side of the implication) by fat arrows and lines (e.g. \( s \xrightarrow{c} T s' \) in (5.4)). In contrast to this, existentially quantified objects have not been written in boldface (e.g. the state \( s_n \) in (5.3)) and conditions that need to be shown have been indicated by thin arrows/lines (e.g. \( s \xrightarrow{\alpha} T s_n \) in (5.3)). By rigorously obeying these conventions, it becomes unnecessary to state the logical connectives explicitly in the diagrams, which results in a more compact graphical notation in which (5.4) can be represented as follows:

\[ s \xrightarrow{c} T s' \quad \lor \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad (5.5) \]

The compact representation of (5.3) is as follows:

\[ s' \xrightarrow{\alpha} T s_n' \quad (5.6) \]

Note that (5.6) is trivially true if \( \alpha = \{\} \) holds. The interesting case is where \( \alpha \neq \{\} \) holds or, in other words, where there are \( e \in E \) and \( \alpha' \in E^* \) with \( \alpha = \{e\}, \alpha' \). This assumption allows us to split (5.6) into two diagrams:

\[ s' \xrightarrow{e} T s_2' \quad \land \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad (5.7) \]

If \( \alpha' = \{\} \) holds then the condition on the right hand side of (5.7) holds trivially. If \( \alpha' = \{e'\}, \alpha'' \) holds for some \( e' \in E \) and \( \alpha'' \in E^* \) (i.e. \( \alpha' \neq \emptyset \)) then the diagram can be split again:

\[ s' \xrightarrow{e} T s_2' \quad \land \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad (5.8) \]
The local conditions that result from splitting (cf. the two diagrams on the left hand side of (5.8)) are logically equivalent to each other. Hence, it does not matter how many times we have to split the diagram on the right hand side (or, in other words, what the length of $\alpha''$ is). If one of the local conditions that we obtain can be proven then all of them hold. This means, it is sufficient to prove the following condition:

$$\forall s, s' \in S. \forall c \in C. (\text{reachable}(SES, s) \land s \xrightarrow{c \rightarrow_T} s') \Rightarrow s' \mathrel{\bowtie} s$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.9)

Finally, we have derived a local verification condition that implies (5.6) and that is expressed in terms of individual transitions rather than in terms of complete traces.

We are now ready to translate the graphical notation used for our two unwinding conditions, i.e. (5.5) and (5.9), into logical formulas. The following formula expresses (5.5):

$$\forall s, s' \in S. \forall e \in E \setminus C. (\text{reachable}(SES, s) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s')) \land (s \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow_T} s')$$

and the following formula expresses (5.9):

$$\forall s_1, s'_1, s'_2 \in S. \forall e \in E \setminus C. (\text{reachable}(SES, s_1) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s'_1) \land s'_1 \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow_T} s'_2 \land s'_2 \mathrel{\bowtie} s_1)$$

In (5.10) and (5.11), we have underlined the expressions that correspond to parts of the diagrams in (5.5) and (5.9). All other expressions stem from our implicit assumptions.

If (5.10) and (5.11) can be shown then (5.1) also holds, i.e. $BSD_{\nu}(Tr_{SES})$ holds. Hence, instead of verifying $BSD_{\nu}(Tr_{SES})$, it suffices to prove these two unwinding conditions. The unwinding conditions are much easier to handle during verification than the BSP because they are formulated in terms of individual transitions rather than in terms of (sets of) complete traces. This is the kind of simplification we are aiming at with our verification techniques.

The purpose of this section has been to informally introduce our verification techniques and to illustrate the derivation of unwinding conditions. Our explanations are not meant as a rigorous proof that the unwinding conditions, indeed, imply $BSD_{\nu}(Tr)$. This is the purpose of the next sections, where we derive unwinding theorems that cover not only $BSD$ but also all other BSPs.

**Remark 5.2.1.** In (5.10) and (5.11), the reachability of the states $s, s_1, s_2$ is stated explicitly by assumptions. Reasoning about the reachability of states usually involves complete traces rather than only individual transitions. However, this does not mean that it is necessary to reason about complete traces when verifying our unwinding conditions. The reachability of states can be approximated by local conditions, namely by invariants of the system.\(^3\) In particular the assumptions about the reachability of states can be substituted by the invariant $True$, i.e. the condition that is always fulfilled. This means, the assumptions about reachability can, but need not, be exploited in the proofs of the unwinding conditions. \(\diamond\)

\(^3\)An invariant is a property that holds in the initial state and that is preserved under all transitions.
Remark 5.2.2. According to (5.3), if $s' \prec s$ holds for two states $s, s'$ then every sequence of visible events that is enabled in $s'$ is also enabled in $s$. However, this does not mean that $s' \prec s$ must hold if every sequence of visible events enabled in $s'$ is also enabled in $s$ because there is an implication in (5.3), not an equivalence. Consequently, although “every sequence of visible events that is enabled in $-$ is also enabled in $-$” defines a relation that is reflexive as well as transitive, this does not mean that $\prec$ also must be reflexive or transitive. Moreover, $s' \prec s$ obviously does not imply that $s \prec s'$ holds. Hence, $\prec$ need not be symmetric. ◦

5.3 Unwinding Theorem for Basic Security Predicates

The following theorem reduces the verification of BSPs to the verification of unwinding conditions. More specifically, for each BSP, two unwinding conditions are stated that imply this BSP. The unwinding theorem states the unwinding results for all backwards-strict BSPs and for all forward-correctable BSPs. Corresponding unwinding results for strict BSPs and non-strict BSPs are presented subsequently in two theorems that are immediate consequences of the following unwinding theorem.

Theorem 5.3.1 (Unwinding theorem). Let $\prec \subseteq S \times S$ be an arbitrary relation. The following implications are valid:

1. $(lr_f'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow BSD_v(T_{\prime SES})$
2. $(lr_b'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow BSI_v(T_{\prime SES})$
3. $(lrbe_v'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow BSIA_v'(T_{\prime SES})$
4. $(fcrf_v'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow FCD_v'(T_{\prime SES})$
5. $(fcrb_v'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow FCI_v'(T_{\prime SES})$
6. $(fcrbe_v'(T, \prec) \land osc_v(T, \prec)) \Rightarrow FCIA_v'(T_{\prime SES})$

Proof. Propositions 1 and 2 will be proven in Section 5.4.2, Propositions 4 and 5 will be proven in Section 5.4.3, and Propositions 3 and 6 will be proven in Section 5.4.4. ◦

Note that, in the unwinding theorem, the first unwinding condition differs depending on the particular BSP while the second unwinding condition is identical for all BSPs. For instance, the first unwinding condition for BSD, namely $lr_f'(T, \prec)$, is equivalent to the condition (5.10) in Section 5.2 and the second unwinding condition for BSD, namely $osc_v(T, \prec)$, corresponds to (5.11). We refrain from introducing the formal definitions of the various other unwinding conditions at this point. This will be done in Section 5.4 where we also present the proof of the unwinding theorem. In the remainder of the current section, let us show how to unwind other BSPs than the ones explicitly mentioned in Theorem 5.3.1.

Theorem 5.3.2 (Unwinding theorem for strict BSPs). Let $\prec \subseteq S \times S$ be an arbitrary relation. The following implications are valid where $V' = (V \cup N, \emptyset, C)$ and $\rho'(V') = \rho(V)$:

---

4We present the unwinding theorems in this section before defining the unwinding conditions formally in order to clarify what we are aiming for with these conditions. The unwinding conditions used in Theorems 5.3.1, 5.3.2, and 5.3.3 (like, e.g., $lr_f$, $osc$, or $hr$) will be defined in Section 5.4.
5.4 Unwinding Conditions and Proof of Unwinding Theorem

1. \( (\text{lr}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow SD_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

2. \( (\text{lb}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow SI_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

3. \( (\text{lrbe}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow SIA^*_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

4. \( (\text{lr}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow SR_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

\( \diamond \)

Proof. From Theorem 3.5.6(2), we obtain \( SD_V(Tr) \Leftrightarrow BSD_V(Tr) \). From Theorem 5.3.1(1), we obtain \( (\text{lr}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow BSD_V(Tr_{SES}) \). Hence, the first proposition holds. The second proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.15(1) and 5.3.1(2). The third proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.15(2) and 5.3.1(3). According to Theorem 3.5.1(4), we have \( SD_V(Tr) \Rightarrow SR_V(Tr) \). Hence, the unwinding conditions for \( SD \) also imply \( SR \), i.e. the fourth proposition holds.

Theorem 5.3.3 (Unwinding theorem for non-strict BSPs). Let \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) be an arbitrary relation. The following implications are valid:

1. \( (\text{lr}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow D_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

2. \( (\text{lb}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow I_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

3. \( (\text{lrbe}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow IA^*_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

4. \( (\text{lr}_V(T, \kappa) \land \text{osc}_V(T, \kappa)) \Rightarrow R_V(Tr_{SES}) \)

\( \diamond \)

Proof. According to Theorem 3.5.1(2), we have \( BSD_V(Tr) \Rightarrow D_V(Tr) \). Hence, the unwinding conditions for \( BSD \) (cf. Theorem 5.3.1(1)) also imply \( D \), i.e. the first proposition holds. The second proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.9(2) and 5.3.1(2). The third proposition follows from Theorems 3.5.9(4) and 5.3.1(3). According to Theorem 3.5.1(1), we have \( D_V(Tr) \Rightarrow R_V(Tr) \). Hence, the unwinding conditions for \( D \) also imply \( R \), i.e. the fourth proposition holds.

Note that Theorems 5.3.1–5.3.3 cover all BSPs that we have introduced in Chapter 3. This means that it is possible to use our unwinding techniques during the verification of every information flow property that can be represented in \( \text{MAKS} \). In particular, they can be used for verifying the information flow properties from the literature for which we have demonstrated in Chapter 4 how they can be represented in \( \text{MAKS} \). They can also be used to simplify the verification of the novel properties \( GNI^* \), \( IBGNI^* \), \( FC^* \), and \( NDO^* \) proposed in Chapter 4.

5.4 Unwinding Conditions and Proof of Unwinding Theorem

We shall now define the unwinding conditions that already have been mentioned in Theorems 5.3.1–5.3.3. Moreover, we complete the proof of the unwinding theorem by proving, for each unwinding condition, that the corresponding proposition in the unwinding theorem is valid. Thereby, we show that unwinding, as a proof technique, is sound. At the end of this section, we discuss to what extent this proof technique is complete, i.e. under which assumptions the unwinding conditions are also necessary conditions for the corresponding BSPs.
5.4.1 Unwinding Condition \( osc \)

The purpose of the unwinding condition \( osc \) (for output-step consistency) is to capture the intuitive idea of unwinding relations, namely that \( s' \preceq s \) implies that every observation that is possible in \( s' \) is also possible in \( s \). Since this intuition is completely independent of the particular restrictions that a given BSP imposes on the information flow, \( osc \) occurs in the respective unwinding result for each BSP (cf. Theorems 5.3.1–5.3.3). The formal definition of \( osc \) is similar to the condition (5.11) that we have derived in Section 5.2. The difference between the two conditions stems from the fact that we made a simplifying assumption in Section 5.2, namely that \( N = \emptyset \) holds for the view under consideration, and we do no longer make this assumption here.

**Definition 5.4.1 \( (osc) \).** Let \( \preceq \subseteq S \times S \) be a relation. The unwinding condition \( osc \) is defined as follows for \( V, T, \) and \( \preceq \):

\[
osc_V(T, \preceq) \equiv \forall s_1, s'_1, s'_2 \in S. \forall e \in E \setminus C.

\left( \text{reachable}(SES, s_1) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s'_1) \land s'_1 \xrightarrow{T} s'_2 \land s'_1 \preceq s_1 \right)

\Rightarrow \exists s_2 \in S. \exists \delta \in (E \setminus C)^* \quad \left( \delta|_V = \langle e \rangle|_V \land s_1 \xrightarrow{\delta} s_2 \land s'_2 \preceq s_2 \right)

\]

The unwinding condition \( osc \) is shown also in Figure 5.2 using the graphical notation that we have introduced in Section 5.2. The difference to (5.9) is that \( \delta \) is used in the lower part of the diagram (instead of \( e \)). This means, if a non-confidential event \( e \) is enabled in \( s'_1 \) and \( s'_1 \preceq s_1 \) holds then some trace \( \delta \) must be enabled in \( s_1 \) that does not contain any confidential events and that yields the same observation as \( \langle e \rangle \). Moreover, the resulting states, i.e. \( s'_2 \) and \( s_2 \), must be related by \( \preceq \). When proving \( osc_V(T, \preceq) \), one possible choice is to set \( \delta = \langle e \rangle \). This choice trivially satisfies the conditions \( \delta \in (E \setminus C)^* \) and \( \delta|_V = \langle e \rangle|_V \). However, other choices for \( \delta \) are possible if \( N = \emptyset \) holds. Hence, \( osc_V(T, \preceq) \) is more liberal than (5.11). To point out the differences between the two conditions, we have underlined them in Definition 5.4.1.

\[\begin{array}{c}
s_1' \\
\xrightarrow{\delta} \\
\xrightarrow{\tau} s_2'
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
s_1 \\
\xrightarrow{e} \\
\xrightarrow{\tau} s_2
\end{array}\]

**Figure 5.2:** The unwinding condition \( osc \) (where \( e \in E \setminus C, \delta \in (E \setminus C)^*, \delta|_V = \langle e \rangle|_V \))

The following lemma states that \( osc \) properly captures the intuition of unwinding relations. If \( s'_1 \preceq s_1 \) holds for two reachable states \( s_1, s'_1 \) then for every trace \( \alpha \in (E \setminus C)^* \) enabled in \( s'_1 \) there is a trace \( \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^* \) that is enabled in \( s_1 \) and yields the same observation as \( \alpha \).

**Lemma 5.4.2.** Let \( \preceq \subseteq S \times S \) be an arbitrary relation. If \( osc_V(T, \preceq) \) holds then the following proposition is valid:

\[
\forall s_1, s'_1 \in S. \forall \alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*.

\left( \text{reachable}(SES, s_1) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s'_1) \right)

\Rightarrow \left( \exists \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*. \left( \left( \text{enabled}(SES, s'_1, \alpha) \land s'_1 \preceq s_1 \right) \Rightarrow \exists \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*. \left( \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \land \text{enabled}(SES, s_1, \alpha') \right) \right) \right)
\]

\[\diamond\]
Proof. We prove the proposition by induction on the length of \( \alpha \). For \( \alpha = \langle \rangle \), it holds trivially (choose \( \alpha' = \langle \rangle \)). In the step case, i.e., for \( \alpha = \langle e_1 \rangle . \alpha_1 \), assume \( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s_1), \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s'_1), \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s'_1, \langle e_1 \rangle . \alpha_1) \), and \( s'_1 \prec s_1 \). Thus, there are states \( s'_2, s'_n \in S \) with \( s'_1 \xrightarrow{e_1} s'_2, s'_2 \xrightarrow{s_1} s'_n \). Since \( e_1 \in E \setminus C \), \( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s_1), \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s'_1), \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s'_1), \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s'_1, \langle e_1 \rangle . \alpha_1) \), hold, there are a state \( s_2 \in S \) and a trace \( \delta \in (E \setminus C)^* \) with \( \delta |_V = \langle e_1 \rangle |_V, s_1 \xrightarrow{\delta} s_2 \), and \( s'_2 \prec s_2 \). The induction hypothesis yields that there is a trace \( \alpha'' \in (E \setminus C)^* \) with \( \alpha'' |_V = \alpha_1 |_V \) and \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_2, \alpha'') \). For \( \alpha' = \delta . \alpha'' \), we obtain \( \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^* \), \( \alpha' |_V = ((\langle e_1 \rangle . \alpha_1) |_V, \text{ and } \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1, \alpha') \). \( \square \)

**Remark 5.4.3.** To credit a report by Rushby [Rus92] that inspired our unwinding results, we have derived the names for our unwinding conditions from the names Rushby uses for his unwinding conditions. For example, he proposes unwinding conditions with the names “output consistency” and “step consistency”. The first of these conditions requires that outputs are equal if they can be generated in states that are equivalent wrt. the unwinding relation (Rushby presumes unwinding relations to be equivalence relations). The second condition requires that the unwinding relation is preserved under stepwise execution. The name “output-step consistency” of our unwinding condition shall indicate that it serves a similar purpose as the two unwinding conditions “output consistency” and “step consistency” in Rushby’s approach. Rushby introduced a third unwinding condition with the name “locally respects”. This condition captures the restrictions imposed by the information flow property that he investigated, namely Goguen and Meseguer’s noninterference (for deterministic systems). In the following sections, we will introduce unwinding conditions with names like, e.g., “locally-respects backwards” or locally-respects forwards, that capture the requirements of the various BSPs in a way similar to how Rushby’s condition “locally respects” captures the requirements of noninterference. \( \diamond \)

The syntax diagram for the names of our unwinding conditions is shown in Figure 5.3.

![Figure 5.3: Syntax diagram for names of unwinding conditions and pointers to sections](image)

### 5.4.2 Unwinding Conditions \( lrf \) and \( lrb \)

Having specified the intuition of unwinding relations with the unwinding condition \( \text{osc} \), it remains to formally capture the security requirements imposed by the various BSPs. In Section 5.2, we have captured the requirements of \( BSD \) with the unwinding condition (5.10). This unwinding condition, although derived under the simplifying assumption \( N = \emptyset \), is also appropriate for the general case. For future reference, we give this unwinding condition the name \( lrf \) (abbreviates locally-respects forwards).
In contrast to BSD, BSI prevents deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events. Formally, it requires that the insertion of confidential events into possible traces results in possible traces. This means that every sequence of non-confidential events that is enabled before the occurrence of a confidential event must also be possible after the occurrence of this event. Therefore, the unwinding condition for BSI, i.e. lr\(\text{b}\) (abbreviates locally-respects backwards), requires that the state before the occurrence of a confidential event must be related to the state after this occurrence. Moreover, lr\(\text{b}\) requires that all confidential events must be enabled in all reachable states. This reflects that \(\text{BSI}_\forall(\text{Tr}_{\text{SES}})\) implies total(ES, C).

The formal definitions of lr\(\text{f}\) and lr\(\text{b}\) are as follows:

**Definition 5.4.4 (lr\(\text{f}\), lr\(\text{b}\)).** Let \(\kappa \subseteq S \times S\) be a relation. The unwinding conditions lr\(\text{f}\) (locally-respects forwards) and lr\(\text{b}\) (locally-respects backwards) are defined by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{lr}_\forall(T, \kappa) & \equiv \forall s, s' \in S. \forall c \in C. [(\text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s) \land s \xrightarrow{c} T s') \Rightarrow s' \kappa s] \\
\text{lr}_\forall(T, \kappa) & \equiv \forall s \in S. \forall c \in C. [\text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s) \Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. (s \xrightarrow{c} T s' \land s \kappa s')] \quad \Diamond
\end{align*}
\]

The unwinding conditions lr\(\text{f}\) and lr\(\text{b}\) are also shown in Figure 5.4.

![Figure 5.4: The unwinding conditions lr\(\text{f}\) and lr\(\text{b}\) (where \(c \in C\)](image)

We now prove the first two propositions of Theorem 5.3.1.

**Proof (of proposition 1 and 2 in Theorem 5.3.1).**

1. Let \(\alpha, \beta \in E^*\) and \(c \in C\) be arbitrary with \(\beta \langle c \rangle \alpha \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). There are \(s_1, s'_1 \in S\) such that \(s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s_1, s_1 \xrightarrow{c} T s'_1\), and enabled(\(\text{SES}, s'_1, \alpha\)). Since lr\(\text{f}_\forall(T, \kappa)\), reachable(\(\text{SES}, s_1\)), and \(s_1 \xrightarrow{c} T s'_1\) hold, we have \(s'_1 \kappa s_1\). Since enabled(\(\text{SES}, s'_1, \alpha\)) holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace \(\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*\) with \(\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V\) and enabled(\(\text{SES}, s_1, \alpha'\)). Consequently, \(\beta \langle c \rangle \alpha' \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}\).

2. Let \(\alpha, \beta \in E^*\) and \(c \in C\) be arbitrary with \(\beta \langle c \rangle \alpha \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). There is a state \(s_1 \in S\) such that \(s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s_1\) and enabled(\(\text{SES}, s_1, \alpha\)). Since lr\(\text{b}_\forall(T, \kappa)\) and reachable(\(\text{SES}, s_1\)) hold, there is a state \(s'_1 \in S\) such that \(s_1 \xrightarrow{c} T s'_1\) and \(s_1 \kappa s'_1\). Since enabled(\(\text{SES}, s_1, \alpha\)) holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace \(\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*\) with \(\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V\) and enabled(\(\text{SES}, s'_1, \alpha'\)). Consequently, \(\beta \langle c \rangle \alpha' \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}\). \(\Box\)

### 5.4.3 Unwinding Conditions fcr\(\text{f}\) and fcr\(\text{b}\)

In comparison to BSD, FCD\(^\Gamma\) requires fewer perturbations because occurrences of confidential events are deleted only if they are elements of \(\Gamma\) and if they occur immediately before a visible event in \(\nabla\). Moreover, FCD\(^\Gamma\) permits fewer corrections than BSD because corrections in between the position where the confidential event has been deleted and the subsequent
visible event may only be corrected in events from \( N \cap \Delta \) (cf. Definition 3.4.25). Hence, the requirements imposed by \( FCD^\Gamma \) involve two events, namely a confidential event \( c \in C \cap \Upsilon \) and a visible event \( v \in N \cap \Delta \). The unwinding condition for \( FCD^\Gamma \), i.e. \( fcrf \) (abbreviates forward-correctably respects forwards), also involves these two events. This unwinding condition requires that if the trace \( \langle c.v \rangle \) is enabled in some reachable state \( s \) then there must be a sequence \( \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \) such that \( \delta.(c) \) is enabled in \( s \) and the resulting states are related by \( \kappa \). More specifically, if \( s' \) is the state after the occurrence of \( \langle c.v \rangle \) and \( s'' \) is the state after the occurrence of \( \delta.(c) \) then \( s' \kappa s'' \) must hold.

The unwinding condition for \( FCI^\Gamma \), i.e. \( fcrb \) (abbreviates forward-correctably respects backwards), requires that the unwinding relation holds in the other direction. More specifically, if a visible event \( v \) is enabled in some reachable state \( s \) then for every confidential event \( c \in C \cap \Upsilon \) there must be a trace \( \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \) such that \( \langle c \rangle \delta.(v) \) is also enabled in \( s \) and the state after the occurrence of \( v \) is related to the state after the occurrence of \( \langle c \rangle \delta.(v) \) by the unwinding relation \( \kappa \).

Like \( FCD \) and \( FCI \), the unwinding conditions \( fcrf \) and \( fcrb \) have a triple \( \Gamma = (\varnothing, \Delta, \Upsilon) \) of sets as parameter. The formal definitions of these unwinding conditions are as follows:

**Definition 5.4.5 (fcrf, fcrb).** Let \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) be a relation. The unwinding conditions \( fcrf \) (for forward-correctably respects forwards) and \( fcrb^\Gamma \) (for forward-correctably respects backwards) are defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fcrf}^\Gamma_T(\kappa) & \equiv \forall c \in C \cap \Upsilon. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla. \forall s, s' \in S. \\
& \left( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s) \land s \xrightarrow{\langle c.v \rangle}_T s' \right) \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \exists s'' \in S. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^*. (s \xrightarrow{\delta.(v)}_T s'' \land s' \kappa s'') \\
\text{fcrb}^\Gamma_T(\kappa) & \equiv \forall c \in C \cap \Upsilon. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla. \forall s, s'' \in S. \\
& \left( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s) \land s \xleftarrow{v}_T s'' \right) \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^*. (s \xleftarrow{\langle c \rangle \delta.(v)}_T s' \land s'' \kappa s')
\end{align*}
\]

The unwinding conditions \( fcrf \) and \( fcrb \) are also viewed in Figure 5.5.

![Figure 5.5: The unwinding conditions fcrf and fcrb](image)

**Figure 5.5: The unwinding conditions fcrf and fcrb (where \( c \in C \cap \Upsilon, v \in V \cap \nabla, \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \))**

We now prove propositions 4 and 5 of Theorem 5.3.1.

**Proof (of proposition 4 and 5 in Theorem 5.3.1).**

1. Let \( \alpha, \beta \in E^\ast, c \in C \cap \Upsilon, \) and \( v \in V \cap \nabla \) be arbitrary with \( \beta.(c.v) \alpha \in Tr_{\text{SES}} \) and \( \alpha|_C = () \). There are \( s_1, s'_1 \in S \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} s_1, s_1 \xrightarrow{\langle c.v \rangle} T s'_1 \), and \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s'_1, \alpha) \).
Since \( \text{fcrfb}^\nu(T, \kappa) \), \( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s_1) \), and \( s_1 \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T \) hold, there are a state \( s_1' \in S \) and a sequence \( \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \) with \( s_1 \xrightarrow{\delta(v)} T s_1' \) and \( s_1' \sim s_1'' \). Since \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1', \alpha) \) holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace \( \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^* \) with \( \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \) and \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1', \alpha') \). Consequently, \( \beta, \delta, \alpha' \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}. \)

2. Let \( \alpha, \beta \in E^* \), \( c \in C \cap \top \), and \( v \in V \cap \nabla \) be arbitrary with \( \beta, \alpha \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}} \) and \( \alpha|_C = \emptyset \).

There are states \( s_1, s_1'' \in S \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s_1 \), \( s_1 \xrightarrow{v} T s_1'' \), and \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1'', \alpha) \). Since \( \text{fcrfb}^\nu(T, \kappa) \), \( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}, s_1) \), and \( s_1 \xrightarrow{v} T s_1'' \) hold, there are a state \( s_1' \in S \) and a sequence \( \delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \) with \( s_1 \xrightarrow{(c,\delta(v))} T s_1' \) and \( s_1' \sim s_1'' \). Since \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1'', \alpha) \) holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace \( \alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^* \) with \( \alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V \) and \( \text{enabled}(\text{SES}, s_1', \alpha') \). Consequently, \( \beta, \delta, \alpha' \in \text{Tr}_{\text{SES}}. \)

### 5.4.4 Unwinding Conditions \( \text{lrbe} \) and \( \text{fcrbe} \)

It remains to introduce the unwinding conditions for \( \text{BSIA}^\rho \) and \( \text{FCIA}^\rho_T \). Due to the similarity between \( \text{BSIA}^\rho \) and \( \text{BSI} \), the unwinding condition \( \text{lrbe}^\rho \) is also similar to \( \text{lrbe} \). The only difference between these BSPs is that \( \text{BSI} \) requires the insertion of every confidential event at every position in a trace (where it is not followed by other confidential events) while \( \text{BSIA}^\rho \) requires the insertion of confidential events only at positions where they are \( \rho \)-admissible. This is reflected by the assumption \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) in the formal definition of \( \text{BSIA}^\rho \). Hence, an unwinding condition for \( \text{BSIA}^\rho \) could be obtained by adding \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) as an assumption in the unwinding condition for \( \text{BSI} \). Unfortunately, this straightforward solution is not very appropriate because \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) is defined in terms of complete traces rather than in terms of states and individual transitions.

However, it is possible to derive a more appropriate condition from \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \). To derive this condition, let us recall the definition of \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \): An event \( e \) is \( \rho \)-admissible after trace \( \beta \) for the view \( V \) (denoted by \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \)) if there is a trace \( \gamma \) such that \( \gamma|_e \in \text{Tr} \) and \( \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \) hold (also cf. Definition 3.4.18). In other words, there must be some trace \( \gamma \) after which \( e \) is enabled and that equals \( \beta \) in its occurrences of \( \rho(V) \)-events. The diagram in Figure 5.6 shows how \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) can be adopted for state-event systems.

![Figure 5.6: Adaptation of \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) for state-event systems](image)

Figure 5.6 provides a basis for reformulating \( \text{Adm}^\rho(T, \beta, e) \) to a condition that is expressed in terms of states and that, hence, is more appropriate for use as an assumption in the definition of an unwinding condition. Guided by the state annotations in the above diagram, we obtain the condition \( \text{En}^\rho(T, s, e) \):

**Definition 5.4.6 (\( \rho \)-enabledness).** An event \( e \in E \) is \( \rho \)-enabled in a state \( s \in S \) if \( \text{En}^\rho(T, s, e) \) holds where \( \text{En}^\rho(T, s, e) \) is defined by:

\[
\text{En}^\rho(T, s, e) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } s \in T \text{ and } e \in \rho(s) \text{,} \\
0 & \text{otherwise.} 
\end{cases}
\]
\[ En^\rho(V)(T, s, e) \equiv \exists \beta, \gamma \in E^\ast \exists \overline{s}, \overline{s}' \in S. \]
\[ (s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s) \land \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \land s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma}_T \overline{s} \land \overline{s} \xrightarrow{e}_T \overline{s}' \) \]

The following theorem ensures that \( \rho \)-enabledness (for state-event systems) is equivalent to \( \rho \)-admissibility (for event systems).

**Theorem 5.4.7.** Let \( ES_{SES} = (E, I, O, Tr_{SES}) \) be the event system that is induced by \( SES \) and let \( e \in E \) be an arbitrary event. The following propositions are valid:

1. For all states \( s \in S \), if \( \text{reachable}(SES, s) \) and \( En^\rho(T, s, e) \) then there is a trace \( \beta \in E^\ast \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s \) and \( Adm^\rho(Tr_{SES}, \beta, e) \) hold.

2. For all traces \( \beta \in E^\ast \), if \( \beta \in Tr_{SES} \) and \( Adm^\rho(Tr_{SES}, \beta, e) \) then there is a state \( s \in S \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s \) and \( En^\rho(T, s, e) \) hold.

**Proof.** For the first proposition, assume \( \text{reachable}(SES, s) \) and \( En^\rho(T, s, e) \). Since \( En^\rho(T, s, e) \), there are \( \beta, \gamma \in E^\ast \) and \( \overline{s}, \overline{s}' \in S \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s \), \( \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \), \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma}_T \overline{s} \), and \( \overline{s} \xrightarrow{e}_T \overline{s}' \). Thus, \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma(e)}_T \overline{s} \). By definition of \( Tr_{SES} \), we have \( \gamma(e) \in Tr_{SES} \) and \( \beta \in Tr_{SES} \).

Since \( \beta \in Tr_{SES} \), \( \gamma(e) \in Tr_{SES} \), and \( \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \), we have \( Adm^\rho(Tr_{SES}, \beta, e) \).

For the second proposition, assume \( \beta \in Tr_{SES} \) and \( Adm^\rho(Tr_{SES}, \beta, e) \). Since \( \beta \in Tr_{SES} \) there is a state \( s \in S \) for which \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s \) holds. \( Adm^\rho(Tr_{SES}, \beta, e) \) implies that there is a trace \( \gamma \in E^\ast \) with \( \gamma(e) \in Tr_{SES} \) and \( \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \). Since \( \gamma(e) \in Tr_{SES} \), there are states \( \overline{s}, \overline{s}' \in S \) such that \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma}_T \overline{s} \) and \( \overline{s} \xrightarrow{e}_T \overline{s}' \). \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta}_T s \), \( \gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)} \), \( s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma}_T \overline{s} \), and \( \overline{s} \xrightarrow{e}_T \overline{s}' \) imply \( En^\rho(T, s, e) \).

By adding \( En^\rho(T, s, c) \) to the assumptions in the definitions of \( lrb \) and \( fcrb \), we obtain unwinding conditions that are suitable for verifying \( BSIA^\rho \) and \( FCIA^{\rho, \text{T}} \).

**Definition 5.4.8 (lrbe, fcrbe).** Let \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) be a relation. The unwinding conditions \( lrbe^\rho \) (for locally-respects backwards for enabled events) and \( fcrbe^{\rho, \text{T}} \) (for forward-correctably respects backwards for enabled events) are defined as follows:

\[
lrbe^\rho(T, \kappa) \equiv \forall s \in S. \forall c \in C. \]
\[
\left( \left( \text{reachable}(SES, s) \land En^\rho(T, s, c) \right) \right.
\]
\[
\left. \Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. \left( s \xrightarrow{c}_T s' \land s \kappa s' \right) \right)
\]

\[
fcrbe^{\rho, \text{T}}(T, \kappa) \equiv \forall c \in C \cap T. \forall v \in V \cap \nabla. \forall s, s'' \in S. \]
\[
\left( \left( \text{reachable}(SES, s) \land s \xrightarrow{v}_T s'' \land En^\rho(T, s, c) \right) \right.
\]
\[
\left. \Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. \exists \delta \in (N \cap \nabla)^*. \left( s \xrightarrow{(c, \delta, v)}_T s' \land s'' \kappa s' \right) \right)
\]

The conditions \( lrbe^\rho(T, \kappa) \) and \( fcrbe^{\rho, \text{T}}(T, \kappa) \) differ from \( lrbe(V, T, \kappa) \) and \( fcrbe^{\rho, \text{T}}(T, \kappa) \), respectively, only in the assumption \( En^\rho(T, s, c) \). To point out this difference, we have underlined the additional assumption in Definition 5.4.8.

We now prove propositions 3 and 6 of Theorem 5.3.1.
Proof (of proposition 3 and 6 in Theorem 5.3.1).

1. Let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary with $\beta.\alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ and $\alpha|C = \emptyset$. There is a state $s_1 \in S$ such that $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s_1$ and $enabled(SES, s_1, \alpha)$. We make a case distinction depending on $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$.

- Assume that $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$ holds. Since $lrbe^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ and $reachable(SES, s_1)$ hold, there is a state $s'_1 \in S$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{\kappa} T s'_1$ and $s_1 \sim s'_1$. Since $enabled(SES, s_1, \alpha)$ holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ with $\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V$ and $enabled(SES, s'_1, \alpha')$. Consequently, $\beta, (c).\alpha' \in Tr_{SES}$.

- Assume that $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$ does not hold. From Theorem 5.4.7(2), we obtain that $Adm^\beta_T(Tr_{SES}, \beta, c)$ does not hold. Hence, $BSIA^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ is fulfilled trivially.

2. Let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$, $c \in C \cap T$, and $v \in V \cap \nabla$ be arbitrary with $\beta.(v).\alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ and $\alpha|C = \emptyset$. There are states $s_1, s''_1 \in S$ such that $s_0 = \xrightarrow{\beta} T s_1$, $s_1 = \xrightarrow{v} T s''_1$, and $enabled(SES, s''_1, \alpha)$. We make a case distinction depending on $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$.

- Assume that $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$ holds. Since $fcrbe^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$, $reachable(SES, s_1)$, and $s_1 \xrightarrow{v} T s''_1$ hold, there is a state $s'_1 \in S$ and a trace $\delta \in (N \cap \Delta)^*$ with $s_1 \equiv \delta \xrightarrow{\kappa} T s'_1$ and $s'_1 \sim s_1$. Since $enabled(SES, s''_1, \alpha)$ holds, we obtain from Lemma 5.4.2 that there is a trace $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ such that $\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V$ and $enabled(SES, s'_1, \alpha')$ hold. Consequently, $\beta, (c).\delta.(v).\alpha' \in Tr_{SES}$.

- Assume that $En^\beta_T(T, s_1, c)$ does not hold. From Theorem 5.4.7(2) we obtain that $Adm^\beta_T(Tr_{SES}, \beta, c)$ does not hold. Hence, $FCIA^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ holds trivially. □

This concludes the proof of Theorem 5.3.1.

5.4.5 On Completeness

In general, backwards-strict BSPs and forward-correctable BSPs may hold although the corresponding unwinding conditions are not satisfied. Nevertheless, our unwinding conditions capture the requirements of the corresponding BSPs quite closely. Moreover, under the assumption that $N = \emptyset$ holds, our unwinding conditions also are necessary conditions for the corresponding backwards-strict BSPs and forward-correctable BSPs.

Theorem 5.4.9 (Conditional completeness).

1. If $N = \emptyset$ and $BSD^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ then there is a relation $\kappa \subseteq S \times S$ such that $lrf^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ and $osc^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ hold.

2. If $N = \emptyset$ and $BSI^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ then there is a relation $\kappa \subseteq S \times S$ such that $lrb^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ and $osc^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ hold.

3. If $N = \emptyset$ and $BSIA^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ then there is a relation $\kappa \subseteq S \times S$ such that $lrbe^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ and $osc^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ hold.

4. If $N = \emptyset$ and $FCD^\beta_T(Tr_{SES})$ then there is a relation $\kappa \subseteq S \times S$ such that $fcrf^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ and $osc^\beta_T(T, \kappa)$ hold.
5.4 Unwinding Conditions and Proof of Unwinding Theorem

5. If \( N = \emptyset \) and \( FCI^T(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( fcrb^T(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

6. If \( N = \emptyset \) and \( FCI\alpha^T(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( fcrb^T(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

Let us postpone the proof of Theorem 5.4.9 to a later point of this section. First, we want to present also completeness results for other BSPs. For the strict BSPs \( SD, SI \), and \( SIA \), the corresponding unwinding conditions are necessary, in general.

Theorem 5.4.10 (Completeness). Let \( V' = (V \cup N, \emptyset, C) \) and \( \rho'(V') = \rho(V) \).

1. If \( SD_V(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrf_V(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

2. If \( SI_V(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrb_V(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

3. If \( SIA\alpha^T(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrb\alpha^T(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold (where \( \rho'(V') = \rho(V) \)).

Proof. The propositions follow immediately from Theorems 5.4.9(1–3), 3.5.6, and 3.5.15. \( \square \)

For the non-strict BSPs \( D, I \), and \( IA \) the corresponding unwinding conditions are necessary under the assumption \( N = \emptyset \).

Theorem 5.4.11 (Conditional completeness).

1. If \( N = \emptyset \) and \( D_V(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrf_V(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

2. If \( N = \emptyset \) and \( I_V(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrb_V(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

3. If \( N = \emptyset \) and \( IA\alpha^T(Tr_{SES}) \) then there is a relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) such that \( lrb\alpha^T(T, \kappa) \) and \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) hold.

Proof. The propositions follow immediately from Theorems 5.4.9(1–3), 3.5.6, and 3.5.15. \( \square \)

Before proving Theorem 5.4.9, let us introduce a lemma that is helpful in that proof. This lemma states conditions under which \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) holds.

Lemma 5.4.12. Let \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \) be a relation. If \( N = \emptyset \) and the following condition holds for all states \( s_1, s'_1 \in S \) that are reachable:

\[
s'_1 \kappa s_1 \Leftrightarrow \forall \alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*. (enabled(SES, s'_1, \alpha) \Rightarrow enabled(SES, s_1, \alpha))
\]

then \( osc_V(T, \kappa) \) holds.
Proof. We have to prove the following formula, which results from $\text{osc}_\mathcal{V}(T, \kappa)$ under the assumption $N = \emptyset$.

$$\forall s_1, s'_1, s'_2 \in S, \forall e \in E \setminus C.
\left( (\text{reachable}(SES, s_1) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s'_1) \land s'_1 \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s'_2 \land s'_1 \equiv s_1) \Rightarrow \exists s_2 \in S. (s_1 \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s_2 \land s'_2 \equiv s_2) \right)$$

(5.12)

Assume $s_1, s'_1, s'_2 \in S$ and $e \in E \setminus C$ with $\text{reachable}(SES, s_1), \text{reachable}(SES, s'_1), s'_1 \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s'_2$, and $s'_1 \equiv s_1$. Let $\alpha_1 \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(SES, s'_2, \alpha_1)$ holds. Therefore, $\text{enabled}(SES, s'_1, (e), \alpha_1)$ holds and, according to our assumption about $\kappa$, this implies $\text{enabled}(SES, s_1, (e), \alpha_1)$. Hence, there is a state $s_2 \in S$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s_2$ and $\text{enabled}(SES, s_2, \alpha_1)$. According to the construction of $\kappa$, we obtain $s'_2 \equiv s_2$ because $\alpha_1$ was chosen arbitrarily (recall that $T$ is functional in the first two arguments).

Now we are ready to prove Theorem 5.4.9.

Proof (of Theorem 5.4.9). We define $\kappa$ by

$$s'_1 \equiv s_1 \iff \forall \alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*, (\text{enabled}(SES, s'_1, \alpha)) \Rightarrow \text{enabled}(SES, s_1, \alpha))$$

According to Lemma 5.4.12, $\text{osc}_\mathcal{V}(T, \kappa)$ holds for this definition of $\kappa$. It remains to show, for the each BSP, that the other unwinding condition is fulfilled as well. We investigate each of the six cases separately.

1. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $\text{BSD}_\mathcal{V}(TR_{SES})$ hold. Let $s, s' \in S$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(SES, s)$ and $s \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s'$ hold. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(SES, s', \alpha)$ holds. From $\text{BSD}_\mathcal{V}(TR_{SES})$ and $\beta. (c). \alpha \in TR_{SES}$, we conclude that $\beta. (c). \alpha \in TR_{SES}$ holds. Consequently, $\text{enabled}(SES, s, \alpha)$ holds. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s' \equiv s$ because $\alpha$ was chosen arbitrarily.

2. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $\text{BSI}_\mathcal{V}(TR_{SES})$ hold. Let $s \in S$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(SES, s)$ holds. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(SES, s, \alpha)$ holds. From $\text{BSI}_\mathcal{V}(TR_{SES})$ and $\beta. (c). \alpha \in TR_{SES}$, we conclude that $\beta. (c). \alpha \in TR_{SES}$ holds. Consequently, there is a state $s' \in S$ with $s \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s'$ for which $\text{enabled}(SES, s', \alpha)$ holds. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s \equiv s'$.

3. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $\text{BSIA}_\mathcal{V}^c(Tr_{SES})$ hold. Let $s \in S$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(SES, s)$ holds. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(SES, s, \alpha)$ holds. We make a case distinction:

- Assume that $\text{Adm}_\mathcal{V}^c(Tr_{SES}, \beta, c)$ holds. From $\text{BSIA}_\mathcal{V}^c(Tr_{SES})$ and $\beta. \alpha \in Tr_{SES}$, we conclude that $\beta. (c). \alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ holds. Consequently, there is a state $s' \in S$ with $s \xrightarrow{\cdot \to_T} s'$ for which $\text{enabled}(SES, s', \alpha)$ holds. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s \equiv s'$.

- Assume that $\text{Adm}_\mathcal{V}^c(Tr_{SES}, \beta, c)$ does not hold. Theorem 5.4.7(1) implies that $\text{En}_\mathcal{V}^c(T, s, c)$ also does not hold. Hence, $l_{rbc}^c(T, \kappa)$ is fulfilled trivially.
4. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $FCD^\gamma_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$ hold. Let $s, s' \in S$, $c \in C \cap \Upsilon$, and $v \in V \cap \nabla$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(S_E, s)$ and $s \xrightarrow{(c,s)} T \ s'$ hold. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \ s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(S_E, s', \alpha)$ holds. From $FCD^\gamma_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$, $\beta, \langle c, v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$, and $N = \emptyset$, we conclude that $\beta, \langle v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$ holds ($\delta = \emptyset$, because $N = \emptyset$). Consequently, there is a state $s'' \in S$ for which $s \xrightarrow{v} s''$ and $\text{enabled}(S_E, s'', \alpha)$ holds. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s' \sim \kappa \ s''$ because $\alpha$ was chosen arbitrarily and $s''$ is uniquely determined by $s \xrightarrow{v} s''$.

5. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $FCI^\gamma_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$ hold. Let $s, s'' \in S$, $c \in C \cap \Upsilon$, and $v \in V \cap \nabla$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(S_E, s)$ and $s \xrightarrow{v} T \ s''$ hold. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \ s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(S_E, s'', \alpha)$ holds. From $FCI^\gamma_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$, $\beta, \langle v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$, and $N = \emptyset$, we conclude that $\beta, \langle c, v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$ holds. Hence, there is a state $s' \in S$ with $s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} s'$ for which $\text{enabled}(S_E, s', \alpha)$ holds. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s'' \sim \kappa \ s'$.

6. Assume that $N = \emptyset$ and $FCIA^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$ hold. Let $s, s'' \in S$, $c \in C \cap \Upsilon$, $v \in V \cap \nabla$ be arbitrary such that $\text{reachable}(S_E, s)$ and $s \xrightarrow{v} T \ s''$ hold. Thus, there is a trace $\beta \in E^*$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \ s$. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\text{enabled}(S_E, s'', \alpha)$ holds. We make a case distinction:

- Assume that $\text{Adm}^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}}, \beta, \alpha)$ holds. From $FCIA^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}})$, $\beta, \langle v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$, and $N = \emptyset$, we conclude that $\beta, \langle c, v \rangle, \alpha \in T_{\text{RES}}$ holds. Consequently, there is a state $s' \in S$ for which $s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} s'$ and $\text{enabled}(S_E, s', \alpha)$ hold. According to our definition of $\kappa$, this implies $s'' \sim \kappa \ s'$.

- Assume that $\text{Adm}^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}}, \beta, c)$ does not hold. Theorem 5.4.7(1) implies that $\text{En}^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T, s'', c)$ also does not hold. Hence, $\text{fuscbe}^\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(T, \kappa)$ is fulfilled trivially.

Unwinding, as a proof technique, is not complete for backwards-strict BSPs, in general. This is demonstrated by the following examples. The first of these examples is concerned with the unwinding result for BSD and the second with the unwinding result for BSI.

**Example 5.4.13.** Let the state-event system $S_{ES_1} = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T_1)$ be defined by

\[
S = \{s_0\} \cup \{s_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq 10\} \\
E = \{c, n_1, n_2, v_1, v_2, v_3\} \\
T_1 = \{(s_0, c, s_1), (s_1, v_1, s_2), (s_2, v_2, s_3), (s_2, v_3, s_4), (s_0, n_1, s_5), (s_5, v_1, s_6), (s_6, v_2, s_7), (s_0, n_2, s_8), (s_8, v_1, s_9), (s_9, v_3, s_10)\}
\]

and let the view $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be defined by $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, $N = \{n_1, n_2\}$, and $C = \{c\}$. The transition relation $T_1$ is also depicted on the left hand side of Figure 5.7.

In the figure, it is easy to see that $S_{ES_1}$ fulfills $\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{V}}(T_{\text{RES}_1})$. Let us now try to construct an unwinding relation $\kappa$ for which $\text{hrf}_{\mathcal{V}}(T_1, \kappa)$ and $\text{osc}_{\mathcal{V}}(T_1, \kappa)$ are fulfilled. Since $s_0 \xrightarrow{v_1} T_1 \ s_1$ holds, $s_1 \sim \kappa \ s_0$ needs to hold for the satisfaction of $\text{hrf}_{\mathcal{V}}(T_1, \kappa)$. Since $s_1 \xrightarrow{v_1} T_1 \ s_2$ and $s_1 \sim \kappa \ s_0$ hold, there must be a state $s'_2 \in S$ and a sequence $\delta \in (E \setminus C)^*$ for which $\delta \vert V = \langle v_1 \rangle$, $s_0 \xrightarrow{\delta} T_1 \ s'_2$, and $s_2 \sim \kappa \ s'_2$ hold in order to satisfy $\text{osc}_{\mathcal{V}}(T_1, \kappa)$. The only two candidates for $\delta$ are $\langle n_1, v_1 \rangle$ and $\langle n_2, v_1 \rangle$ and the only two candidates for $s'_2$ are $s_6$ and $s_9$. This means, $s_2 \sim \kappa \ s_6$
or \( s_2 \bowtie s_9 \) must hold. However, while \( v_2 \) as well as \( v_3 \) are enabled in \( s_2 \), \( v_3 \) is not enabled in \( s_6 \) and \( v_2 \) is not enabled in \( s_9 \). Hence, if \( s_2 \bowtie s_6 \) or \( s_2 \bowtie s_9 \) hold then \( \osc V(T_1, \bowtie) \) is violated. Consequently, there cannot be an unwinding relation \( \bowtie \) for which \( \lr V(T_1, \bowtie) \) and \( \osc V(T_1, \bowtie) \) are fulfilled.\hfill \( \diamond \)

**Example 5.4.14.** Let the state-event system \( \text{SES}_2 = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T_2) \) be defined by

\[
S = \{s_0\} \cup \{s_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq 10\}
\]

\[
E = \{c, n_1, n_2, v_1, v_2, v_3\}
\]

\[
T_2 = \{(s_0, v_1, s_1), (s_1, v_2, s_2), (s_1, v_3, s_3), (s_0, c, s_4), (s_4, n_1, s_5), (s_5, v_1, s_6), (s_6, v_2, s_7), (s_4, n_2, s_8), (s_8, v_1, s_9), (s_9, v_3, s_{10})\}
\]

\[
\cup\{(s_j, c, s_j) \mid 1 \leq j \leq 10\}
\]

and let the view \( V = (V, N, C) \) be defined by \( V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} \), \( N = \{n_1, n_2\} \), and \( C = \{c\} \). The transition relation \( T_2 \) is also depicted on the right hand side of Figure 5.7 where the transitions \( (s_j, c, s_j) \) are omitted in the diagram for better readability.

In the diagram, it is easy to see that \( \text{SES}_2 \) fulfills \( BSI_V(\text{Tr}_{\text{SES}_2}) \). Therefore, it also fulfills the weaker property \( \text{BSIA}^p_V(\text{Tr}_{\text{SES}_2}) \) for all choices of the parameter \( p \) (cf. Theorem 3.5.9 for the ordering of these BSPs). Let us now try to construct an unwinding relation \( \bowtie \) for which \( \lrb e^p(T_2, \bowtie) \) and \( \osc V(T_2, \bowtie) \) are fulfilled. Since \( s_0 \xrightarrow{c} T_2 \ s_4 \) holds, \( s_0 \bowtie s_4 \) needs to hold for the satisfaction of \( \lrb e^p(T_2, \bowtie) \). Since \( s_0 \xrightarrow{v_1} T_2 \ s_1 \) and \( s_0 \bowtie s_4 \) hold, there must be a sequence \( \delta \in (E \setminus C)^* \) and a state \( s'_1 \) for which \( \delta V = \{v_1\} \), \( s_4 \xrightarrow{d} T_2 \ s'_1 \), and \( s_1 \bowtie s'_1 \) hold in order to satisfy \( \osc V(T, \bowtie) \). The only two candidates for \( \delta \) are \( \{n_1, v_1\} \) and \( \{n_2, v_1\} \) and the only two candidates for \( s'_1 \) are \( s_6 \) and \( s_9 \). This means, \( s_1 \bowtie s_6 \) or \( s_1 \bowtie s_9 \) must hold. However, while \( v_2 \) as well as \( v_3 \) are enabled in \( s_1 \), \( v_3 \) is not enabled in \( s_6 \) and \( v_2 \) is not enabled in \( s_9 \). Hence, if \( s_1 \bowtie s_6 \) or \( s_1 \bowtie s_9 \) hold then \( \osc V(T_2, \bowtie) \) is violated. Consequently, there cannot be an unwinding relation \( \bowtie \) for which \( \lrb e^p(T_2, \bowtie) \) and \( \osc V(T_2, \bowtie) \) are fulfilled. Since \( \lr V(T_2, \bowtie) \) implies \( \lrb e^p(T_2, \bowtie) \), there also cannot be an unwinding relation \( \bowtie \) for which \( \lr V(T_2, \bowtie) \) and \( \osc V(T_2, \bowtie) \) hold.\hfill \( \diamond \)

**Remark 5.4.15.** The proof by unwinding fails in both examples because \( \osc C \) cannot be satisfied. This is the cause for the incompleteness of the unwinding proof technique: While \( \osc \) implies that an unwinding relation is properly defined,\(^5\) there are proper unwinding relations

\(^5\)That is, if \( s'_1 \bowtie s_1 \) holds then for every trace without confidential events that is enabled in \( s'_1 \) there is a trace without confidential events that yields the same observation and that is enabled in \( s_1 \).
for which osc is not satisfied. This means, expressing the (global) intuition of unwinding relations by local conditions leads to the incompleteness of the proof technique. This also explains why Millen [Mil94] and Zakinthinos [Zak96] have been able to prove the completeness of their unwinding techniques, namely because they specified their unwinding relations by a global condition. The price paid for establishing completeness in this way is that a large fraction of the verification burden remains to be shown at every application of these unwinding results. In other words, the disadvantage is that more effort must be spent when verifying that a given system satisfies a given information flow property.

Nevertheless, it is possible to find (other) local conditions that result in a complete proof technique without the disadvantages of the approaches in [Mil94] and [Zak96]. In Appendix C, we will derive such local conditions by adapting well known simulation techniques. This provides the basis for a proof technique that is sound as well as complete. However, the resulting verification conditions are more complex than our unwinding conditions (as they involve relations between sets of states) and, hence, they are also more difficult to apply. ⊡

5.5 Unwinding Theorems for Information Flow Properties

Our unwinding results for BSPs can now be used to simplify the verification of information flow properties based on the modular representation of those properties in MAK: Using the representation theorem for a given information flow property, the task of verifying this property can be reduced to the task of verifying all BSPs from which this property is assembled. Then each of the BSPs can be proven separately with the help of our unwinding results. That is, for each BSP, one constructs an unwinding relation and proves that the unwinding conditions for that BSP are satisfied. Our unwinding results have been derived completely independently of a particular information flow property. However, specialized unwinding theorems for particular information flow properties can also be derived. In this section, we illustrate how this can be done. To this end, we derive specialized unwinding theorems for all information flow properties for which we have given a representation in MAK.

5.5.1 Generalized Noninterference

Unwinding results for all variants of McCullough's generalized noninterference [McC87] can be derived from Theorems 5.3.1 and 5.3.3.

**Theorem 5.5.1 (Unwinding theorem for GNI).** If there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $\text{lnf}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{osc}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{lb}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $\text{osc}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_2)$ hold then $\text{GNI}(ESSES)$. ⊡

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,2)), we obtain $\text{BSD}_{\text{HI}}(T_{SES})$ and $\text{BSI}_{\text{HI}}(T_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for GNI (Theorem 4.2.3), we obtain $\text{GNI}(ESSES)$. ⊡

The unwinding theorem for GNI demands that two unwinding relations $\kappa_1$ and $\kappa_2$ are constructed such that instances of lrf and osc are fulfilled for $\kappa_1$ and instances of lb and osc are fulfilled for $\kappa_2$. However, it is not necessary that $\kappa_1$ and $\kappa_2$ be different relations. Choosing the same relation for $\kappa_1$ and $\kappa_2$ has advantages, namely osc only needs to be proven once (rather than twice) because $\text{osc}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_1)$ and $\text{osc}_{\text{HI}}(T, \kappa_2)$ are identical if $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2$ holds. This means, having the option of using different unwinding relations for $\kappa_1$ and $\kappa_2$ provides some flexibility that can, but need not, be used.
Theorem 5.5.2 (Unwinding theorem for \( GNI^* \)). If there are \( \kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S \) for which \( \text{lr}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{lrbe}_{\text{HT}}^P(T, \kappa_2), \) and \( \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_2) \) hold then \( GNI^*(ES_{SES}) \).

\[ \text{Proof.} \] Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3)), we obtain \( BSD_{\text{HT}}(Tr_{SES}) \) and \( BSIA_{\text{HT}}^P(Tr_{SES}) \). From the representation of \( GNI^* \) in MAKS (Definition 4.2.7), we obtain \( GNI^*(ES_{SES}) \).

\[ \square \]

Theorem 5.5.3 (Unwinding theorem for \( IBGNI \)). If there are \( \kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S \) with \( \text{lr}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{lrbe}_{\text{HT}}^P(T, \kappa_2), \) and \( \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_2) \) then \( IBGNI(ES_{SES}) \) holds.

\[ \text{Proof.} \] Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.3(2,4)), we obtain \( R_{\text{HT}}(Tr_{SES}) \) and \( I_{\text{HT}}(Tr_{SES}) \). From the representation theorem for \( IBGNI \) (Theorem 4.2.5), we obtain \( IBGNI(ES_{SES}) \).

\[ \square \]

Theorem 5.5.4 (Unwinding theorem for \( IBGNI^* \)). If there are \( \kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S \) with \( \text{lr}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_1), \text{lrbe}_{\text{HT}}^P(T, \kappa_2), \) and \( \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T, \kappa_2) \) then \( IBGNI^*(ES_{SES}) \) holds.

\[ \text{Proof.} \] Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.3(3,4)), we obtain \( R_{\text{HT}}(Tr_{SES}) \) and \( IA_{\text{HT}}^P(Tr_{SES}) \). From the representation of \( IBGNI^* \) in MAKS (Definition 4.2.8), we obtain \( IBGNI^*(ES_{SES}) \).

\[ \square \]

Note that the difference between \( GNI \) (cf. Theorem 4.2.3 for the representation in MAKS) and \( GNI^* \) (cf. Definition 4.2.7 for the representation in MAKS) leads to a difference in the corresponding unwinding conditions. While \( \text{lrbe}_{\text{HT}}^P(T, \kappa_2) \) is an unwinding condition for \( GNI \), \( GNI^* \) has the unwinding condition \( \text{lrbe}_{\text{HT}}^P(T, \kappa_2) \) instead (cf. Theorems 5.5.1 and 5.5.2). This means, unwinding \( GNI^* \), i.e., the less restrictive information flow property, leads to weaker unwinding conditions than unwinding \( GNI \). In contrast to this, the unwinding conditions for \( GNI \) and \( IBGNI \) (cf. Theorem 4.2.5 for the representation in MAKS) are identical (cf. Theorems 5.5.1 and 5.5.3). The reason why both information flow properties have the same unwinding conditions albeit \( IBGNI \) is less restrictive than \( GNI \) is that it is difficult to capture the noncausal corrections permitted by \( IBGNI \) by local verification conditions. The unwinding conditions for \( GNI^* \) and \( IBGNI^* \) (cf. Definition 4.2.8 for the representation in MAKS) are identical for the same reasons (cf. Theorems 5.5.2 and 5.5.4). However, the difference between \( IBGNI \) and \( IBGNI^* \) is reflected by a difference in the corresponding unwinding conditions (cf. Theorems 5.5.3 and 5.5.4).

In [Zak96], Zakinthinos also presents an unwinding theorem for \( GNI \). The difference to our unwinding theorem is that the unwinding condition required by Zakinthinos’s theorem is a global condition that is expressed in terms of complete traces (more specifically, the set of all traces enabled in a given state) rather than being expressed in terms of single transitions. Hence, our unwinding conditions are easier to handle during verification. Moreover, the sets of traces that occur in his unwinding condition can be regarded as the equivalence classes of an equivalence relation while we permit the use of arbitrary relations as unwinding relations.\(^6\)

5.5.2 Forward Correctability

Using Theorem 5.3.1, unwinding results can be derived for both variants of Johnson and Thayer’s forward correctability [JT88].

\(^6\)The advantages of permitting arbitrary unwinding relations will be elaborated in detail in Section 5.6.2.
5.5 Unwinding Theorems for Information Flow Properties

**Theorem 5.5.5 (Unwinding theorem for FC).** Let $\Gamma = \Gamma_{FC}$. If there are relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3, \kappa_4 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lf_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$, $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$, $fcrf^l_H(T, \kappa_3)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_3)$, $fcrb^l_H(T, \kappa_4)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_4)$ hold then $FC(ES_{SES})$. $\diamond$

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,2,4,5)), we obtain $BSD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$, $BSI_{H}(Tr_{SES})$, $FCD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$, and $FCI_{H}(Tr_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for $FC$ (Theorem 4.2.11), we obtain $FC(ES_{SES})$. $\Box$

**Theorem 5.5.6 (Unwinding theorem for FC*).** Let $\Gamma = \Gamma_{FC}$. If there are relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3, \kappa_4 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lf_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$, $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$, $fcrf^l_H(T, \kappa_3)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_3)$, $fcrb^l_H(T, \kappa_4)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_4)$ hold then $FC^*(ES_{SES})$. $\diamond$

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3,4,6)), we obtain $BSD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$, $BSIA_{H}^{pc}(Tr_{SES})$, $FCD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$, and $FCIA_{H}^{pc}(Tr_{SES})$. From the representation of $FC^*$ in MAKS (Definition 4.2.13), we obtain $FC^*(ES_{SES})$. $\Box$

Note that the difference between $FC$ and our novel property $FC^*$ leads to a difference in the corresponding unwinding conditions. While $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$ and $fcrb^l_H(T, \kappa_4)$ are unwinding conditions for $FC$, $FC^*$ has the less restrictive unwinding conditions $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$ and $fcrb^l_H(T, \kappa_4)$ instead.

An unwinding theorem for $FC$ have also been proposed by Millen [Mil94]. The difference in our unwinding theorem is that the unwinding relation is specified by a global condition that is formulated in terms of complete traces. Moreover, Millen’s unwinding relation is an equivalence relation while we permit arbitrary unwinding relations.

5.5.3 Nondeducibility for Outputs

Based on Theorem 5.3.1, unwinding results can be derived for both variants of Guttman and Nadel’s nondeducibility for outputs [GN88].

**Theorem 5.5.7 (Unwinding theorem for NDO).** If $ES_{SES}$ is input total and there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lf_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$ hold then $NDO(ES_{SES})$. $\diamond$

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3)), we obtain $BSD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^{pc}(Tr_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for $NDO$ (Theorem 4.2.16), we obtain $NDO(ES_{SES})$. $\Box$

**Theorem 5.5.8 (Unwinding theorem for NDO*).** If there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lf_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $os_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe^c_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$ hold then $NDO^*(ES_{SES})$. $\diamond$

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3)), we obtain $BSD_{H}(Tr_{SES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^{pc}(Tr_{SES})$. From the representation of $NDO^*$ in MAKS (Definition 4.2.18), we obtain $NDO^*(ES_{SES})$. $\Box$

Naturally, there is no difference between the unwinding conditions for $NDO$ and $NDO^*$. Recall that we introduced $NDO^*$ as a generalization of $NDO$ that is also applicable for systems that
are not input total rather than as a property that imposes entirely different restrictions on the permitted flow of information.

To the best of our knowledge, no unwinding result for NDO had been published before our work. This means, using our unwinding theorems for BSPs, it has been quite simple to derive a specialized unwinding theorem for an information flow property for which no such result existed before.

**Theorem 5.5.9 (Completeness of unwinding for NDO).** If $ES_{SES}$ is input total and $NDO(ES_{SES})$ holds then there are two relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lrf_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_H(T, \kappa_2)$ hold.

\[ \diamond \]

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From the representation theorem for NDO (Theorem 4.2.16), we obtain $BSD_H(T_{RSES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T_{RSES})$. From our completeness theorem for unwinding BSPs (Theorem 5.4.9(1,3)), we obtain that there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ with $lrf_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_H(T, \kappa_2)$.

\[ \square \]

**Theorem 5.5.10 (Completeness of unwinding for NDO*).** If $NDO(ES_{SES})$ holds then there are relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lrf_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_H(T, \kappa_2)$ hold.

\[ \diamond \]

**Proof.** Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From the representation of NDO* in MAKS (Definition 4.2.18), we obtain $BSD_H(T_{RSES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T_{RSES})$. From our completeness theorem for unwinding BSPs (Theorem 5.4.9(1,3)), we obtain that there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ with $lrf_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $lrbe_{H}^{\text{sp}}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_H(T, \kappa_2)$.

\[ \square \]

### 5.5.4 Noninference

Based on Theorem 5.3.3, we derive an unwinding result for O'Halloran's noninference [O'H90].

**Theorem 5.5.11 (Unwinding theorem for NF).** If there is a relation $\kappa_1 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lrf_H(T, \kappa_1)$ and $osc_H(T, \kappa_1)$ hold then $NF(ES_{SES})$.

\[ \diamond \]

**Proof.** Let the assumption of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.3(4)), we obtain $R_H(T_{RSES})$. From the representation theorem for NF (Theorem 4.2.20), we obtain $NF(ES_{SES})$.

\[ \square \]

Another unwinding theorem for NF is due to Zakinthinos [Zak96]. His theorem requires an unwinding condition that is global in the sense that it involves sets of traces (more specifically, the set of all traces that are enabled in a given state). Interestingly, Zakinthinos's unwinding condition for NF is much more similar to our definition of BSD than to our unwinding conditions $lrf$ or $osc$.

\[ \text{The progress made by our unwinding theorem is that it requires only unwinding conditions that are local in the sense that they are expressed in terms of single transitions rather than in terms of complete traces. Hence, our unwinding conditions are easier to handle during verification.} \]

\[ \text{\footnote{In our terminology, Zakinthinos unwinding condition can be recast as: Every trace without confidential events that is enabled after a confidential event has occurred must have been enabled already in the state before this occurrence (using the version explained in the text of Section 7.7 in [Zak96] rather than the formalization in which the subset relation is obviously required in the wrong direction). This is the same requirement as in condition (5.1) in Section 5.2, namely the condition that we took as our starting point for the derivation of unwinding conditions rather than the result of these derivations.}} \]
5.5.5 Generalized Noninference

We derive an unwinding result for McLean’s generalized noninference [McL94a] based on Theorem 5.3.3.

**Theorem 5.5.12 (Unwinding theorem for GNF).** If there is a relation $\kappa_1 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $\text{lrf}_H(T, \kappa_1)$ and $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_1)$ hold then $\text{GNF}(ES_{SES})$. \hfill $\Diamond$

*Proof.* Let the assumption of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.3(4)), we obtain $R_H(T_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for GNF (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain $\text{GNF}(ES_{SES})$. \hfill $\Box$

Zakinthinos also proposed an unwinding theorem for GNF [Zak96]. The unwinding condition required by his theorem is, again, a global condition that involves complete traces unlike our unwinding conditions that are local conditions of individual transitions.

5.5.6 Separability

Using Theorem 5.3.1, we derive an unwinding result for McLean’s separability [McL94a].

**Theorem 5.5.13 (Unwinding theorem for SEP).** If there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $\text{lrf}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{lrbe}^\rho_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_2)$ hold then $\text{SEP}(ES_{SES})$. \hfill $\Diamond$

*Proof.* Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3)), we obtain $\text{BSD}_H(T_{SES})$ and $\text{BSIA}^\rho_H(T_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for SEP (Theorem 4.2.24), we obtain $\text{SEP}(ES_{SES})$. \hfill $\Box$

Note that the unwinding conditions for SEP are quite similar to the unwinding conditions for NDO. The only difference is that, for SEP, the parameter $\rho_C$ is used to instantiate $\text{lrbe}$ while, for NDO, the parameter $\rho_{UI}$ is used instead (cf. Theorem 5.5.7). This is similar to the difference between the representations of these information flow properties in MAKS where $\rho_C$ is used to instantiate BSIA in the representation of SEP while $\rho_{UI}$ is used in the representation of NDO instead.

To the best of our knowledge, no unwinding result for SEP had been published before our work.

**Theorem 5.5.14 (Completeness of unwinding for SEP).** If $\text{SEP}(ES_{SES})$ holds then there are relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $\text{lrf}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{lrbe}^\rho_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_2)$ hold. \hfill $\Diamond$

*Proof.* Assume $\text{SEP}(ES_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for SEP (Theorem 4.2.24), we obtain $\text{BSD}_H(T_{SES})$ and $\text{BSIA}^\rho_H(T_{SES})$. From our completeness theorem for unwinding BSPs (Theorem 5.4.9(1,3)), we obtain that there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ with $\text{lrf}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{lrbe}^\rho_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_2)$. \hfill $\Box$

5.5.7 Perfect Security Property

An unwinding result can be derived for the perfect security property [ZL97] as well.

**Theorem 5.5.15 (Unwinding theorem for PSP).** If there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $\text{lrf}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_1)$, $\text{lrbe}^\rho_H(T, \kappa_2)$, and $\text{osc}_H(T, \kappa_2)$ hold then $\text{PSP}(ES_{SES})$. \hfill $\Diamond$
Proof. Let the assumptions of the theorem be satisfied. From our unwinding theorem for BSPs (Theorem 5.3.1(1,3)), we obtain $BSD_H(Tr_{SES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^p(Tr_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for PSP (Theorem 4.2.26), we obtain $PSP(ES_{SES})$. 

Zakinthinos also proposed an unwinding theorem for PSP together with an (incorrect) completeness result. As in his other unwinding theorems, the unwinding condition is not a local condition because it is expressed in terms of sets of complete traces rather than in terms of individual transitions. Moreover, his unwinding condition is quite restrictive because it requires that high-level events can be inserted at every position in a trace. This is in contrast to the definition of PSP that only requires that high-level events can be inserted at positions where they are $p^E$-admissible. This is why his completeness result is incorrect.\footnote{As a side note for the reader who is familiar with Zakinthinos’s notation, a corrected version of the unwinding condition is $\forall \kappa : H \cdot \forall q : Q \cdot q/\underline{x} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \pi(q) = \pi(q/x)$ where the underlined part $x$ the difference to the condition in [Zak96].}

**Theorem 5.5.16 (Completeness of unwinding for PSP).** If $PSP(ES_{SES})$ holds then there are relations $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ for which $lr_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lr_{H}^{pe}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$ hold.

Proof. Assume $PSP(ES_{SES})$. From the representation theorem for PSP (Theorem 4.2.26), we obtain $BSD_H(Tr_{SES})$ and $BSIA_{H}^{pE}(Tr_{SES})$. From our completeness theorem for unwinding BSPs (Theorem 5.4.9(1,3)), we obtain that there are $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 \subseteq S \times S$ with $lr_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lr_{H}^{pe}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$. \hfill \Box

### 5.6 Verifying Unwinding Conditions

We will now show how an information flow property can be verified with the help of our unwinding results.

#### 5.6.1 Verification by Unwinding: An Example

After the unwinding conditions have been determined appropriate unwinding relations need to be constructed, and it has to be shown that the unwinding conditions hold for these relations. In this section, we illustrate these two steps. Further examples for proofs by unwinding can be found in Sections 6.7 and 7.5.

**Example 5.6.1.** Let the state-event system $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$ be defined by

\[
S = \{ s_k \mid 0 \leq k \leq 11 \} \\
E = \{ h_i, lo_1, lo_2 \} \\
I = \{ h_i \} \\
O = \{ lo_1, lo_2 \} \\
T = \{ (s_0, lo_1, s_1), (s_0, lo_2, s_2), (s_0, h_i, s_4), (s_1, lo_2, s_3), (s_2, lo_1, s_3), (s_4, lo_1, s_5), (s_4, lo_2, s_6), (s_4, h_i, s_8), (s_6, lo_1, s_7), (s_8, lo_2, s_10), (s_10, lo_1, s_11) \}
\]

The transition relation $T$ is also viewed in Figure 5.8.

We now illustrate how to prove that noninference holds for this system. According to Theorem 5.5.11, we have to prove the two unwinding conditions $lr_{H}(T, \kappa)$ and $osc_{H}(T, \kappa)$ where the view $H = (V, N, C)$ shall be defined by $V = \{ lo_1, lo_2 \}$, $N = \emptyset$, and $C = \{ h_i \}$. 
Figure 5.8: Transition relation from Example 5.6.1

Now, let us try to construct an unwinding relation $\kappa$ for which these unwinding conditions hold. For this purpose, we start with an empty relation and iteratively add elements to this relation in order to fulfill the unwinding conditions. Firstly, in order to fulfill $\lrf_H(T, \kappa)$, $s_0 \times s_4$ and $s_4 \times s_8$ need to hold (cf. Figure 5.9). Since $s_0 \times s_4$ and $s_4 \xrightarrow{\text{lo}_1} s_5$, $\osc_H(T, \kappa)$ requires that $s_1 \times s_5$ holds. By iterating $\osc_H(T, \kappa)$, we obtain that $s_2 \times s_6$, $s_3 \times s_7$, $s_6 \times s_{10}$, and $s_7 \times s_{11}$ need to hold as well. This results in the unwinding relation $\kappa = \{(s_4, s_0), (s_5, s_1), (s_6, s_2), (s_7, s_3), (s_8, s_4), (s_{10}, s_6), (s_{11}, s_7)\}$, which is also viewed in Figure 5.10. With the figure, it is easy to check that $\lrf_H(T, \kappa)$ and $\osc_H(T, \kappa)$, indeed, hold for the unwinding relation $\kappa$. Hence, we can conclude from our unwinding theorem for NF that $\text{NF}(ES\text{SES})$ holds.

Figure 5.9: First step in construction of $\kappa$ in Example 5.6.1

Figure 5.10: Final step in construction of $\kappa$ in Example 5.6.1
5.6.2 Advantages of Unwinding with Arbitrary Unwinding Relations

A novelty of our approach to unwinding is that we permit arbitrary unwinding relations rather than only equivalence relations or preorders.

In a case study, we investigated a mobile device where the security requirement demanded that the current location of this device must be kept confidential [MSK+01]. We expressed this requirement by an information flow property in MAK$S$ and then verified this property with the help of a previous version of our unwinding results [Man00d] that required unwinding relations to be preorders.\(^9\) We decided that the definition of the unwinding relation should be based solely on state objects and, in particular, should not incorporate transitivity as an explicit requirement of the form \(\forall s_1, s_2, s_3. ((s_1 \kappa s_2 \land s_2 \kappa s_3) \Rightarrow s_1 \kappa s_3)\). Our motivation for avoiding transitivity as an explicit requirement in this definition was that it would have complicated the proof of the unwinding conditions, in particular, of the condition osc where \(\kappa\) occurs on both sides of the implication. Since we did not require transitivity explicitly, we had to prove that our unwinding relation, indeed, was a preorder. Unfortunately, we decided to prove the unwinding conditions first, in which we succeeded, and to prove reflexivity and transitivity of the unwinding relation afterwards, in which we failed. Since the chosen relation was not transitive, all of our efforts had been wasted. In a second proof attempt (with a different unwinding relation), we succeeded to prove all conditions. However, for this it was necessary to again prove the unwinding conditions from scratch. Using the unwinding results proposed in this chapter, the initial proof attempt would have succeeded because transitivity of the unwinding relation is no longer required, i.e. the resources spent in the second proof attempt could have been saved.

However, a restriction of unwinding relations to equivalence relations is not only inconvenient in practice, but this restriction has also more fundamental disadvantages in the sense that the resulting unwinding conditions are too restrictive. For example, if unwinding relations were restricted to symmetric relations in our unwinding conditions then the distinction, e.g., between \(lrf_y(T, \kappa)\) and \(lrbe_y^{\rho_e}(T, \kappa)\) (or between \(fcrf_y^\rho(T, \kappa)\) and \(fcrbe_y^{\rho_e,\Gamma}(T, \kappa)\)) would disappear, i.e. \(lrf_y(T, \kappa)\) would hold if and only if \(lrbe_y^{\rho_e}(T, \kappa)\) holds. This means, by using symmetric unwinding relations when unwinding noninference (unwinding conditions \(lrf\) and \(osc\)), one essentially proves the perfect security property (unwinding conditions \(lrf, lrbe^{\rho_e}\), and \(osc\)). However, the perfect security property is much more restrictive than noninference. If arbitrary unwinding relations may be used then these pairs of unwinding conditions differ. In particular, this difference allows us to capture the requirements of information flow properties that are assembled from a single BSP like, e.g. noninference or generalized noninference, more closely than possible with equivalence relations.

The requirement that unwinding relations must be preorders, i.e. that they are reflexive and transitive, has been inconvenient in our case study [MSK+01]. Nevertheless, it can be shown that, at least in principle, such a restriction has no fundamental disadvantages in the sense that if there is some arbitrary unwinding relation for which a set of unwinding conditions is satisfied then there is also a preorder for which these unwinding conditions are satisfied. This result is expressed by the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.6.2.** Let \(\mathcal{UC}\) be a set of instantiations of the unwinding conditions \(lrf, lrb, lrbe^\rho, fcrf^\Gamma, fcrb^\Gamma, fcrbe^{\rho_e,\Gamma}\), and \(osc\) such that all conditions in \(\mathcal{UC}\) involve the same transition relation \(T\) and the same unwinding relation \(\kappa\).

\(^9\)A preorder on states is a binary relation on states that is reflexive and transitive.
If all unwinding conditions in $\mathcal{UC}$ are fulfilled for $\kappa$ then there is a preorder $\kappa' \subseteq S \times S$ for which all unwinding conditions in $\mathcal{UC}'$ are fulfilled where $\mathcal{UC}'$ is constructed from $\mathcal{UC}$ by replacing $\kappa$ with $\kappa'$ in every unwinding condition.

Before proving Theorem 5.6.2, let us introduce three lemmas that are helpful in this proof.

**Lemma 5.6.3.** Let $\kappa, \kappa' \subseteq S \times S$ be binary relations between states. If $\kappa \subseteq \kappa'$ holds then the implications $lrf(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrf(T, \kappa')$, $lrbv(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrbv(T, \kappa')$, $lrbe(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrbe(T, \kappa')$, $fcrf(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrf(T, \kappa')$, $fcrb(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrb(T, \kappa')$, and $fcrbe(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrbe(T, \kappa')$ hold.

**Proof.** In the definition of the respective unwinding conditions, the unwinding relation only occurs in atomic formulas with a positive polarity (on the right hand side of the top level implication). Therefore, enlarging the unwinding relation cannot make these unwinding conditions false. \qed

**Lemma 5.6.4.** Let $\kappa, \preceq \subseteq S \times S$ be binary relations between states. If $\preceq \subseteq S \times S$ is the restriction of $\kappa$ to pairs of reachable states then the implications $lrf(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrf(T, \preceq)$, $lrb(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrb(T, \preceq)$, $lrbe(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow lrbe(T, \preceq)$, $fcrf(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrf(T, \preceq)$, $fcrb(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrb(T, \preceq)$, and $fcrbe(T, \kappa) \Rightarrow fcrbe(T, \preceq)$ hold.

**Proof.** Since $lrf, lrb, lrbe, fcrf, fcrb,$ and $fcrbe$ only require that reachable states are related, these unwinding conditions remain valid if the unwinding relation is restricted to reachable states. \qed

The unwinding condition $osc$ is investigated separately:

**Lemma 5.6.5.** Let $\kappa, \preceq, \preceq^* \subseteq S \times S$ where $\preceq \subseteq S \times S$ is the restriction of $\kappa$ to reachable states and $\preceq^* \subseteq S \times S$ is the reflexive and transitive closure of $\preceq$.

If $osc(T, \kappa)$ then $osc(T, \preceq^*)$ holds.

**Proof.** Assuming that $osc(T, \kappa)$ holds, we prove that for all $s_1, s_1' \in S$ the following holds

\[ \forall s_2 \in S. \forall \gamma' \in (E \setminus C)^*. \]
\[ [\text{reachable}(SES, s_1) \land \text{reachable}(SES, s_1') \land s_1' \stackrel{\gamma'}{\rightarrow_T} s_2 \land s_1 \preceq^* s_1] \]
\[ \Rightarrow \exists s_2 \in S. \exists \gamma \in (E \setminus C)^*. (\gamma|_V = \gamma'|_V \land s_1 \stackrel{\gamma}{\rightarrow_T} s_2 \land s_2 \preceq^* s_2)] \]

By setting $\gamma' = (e)$ in (5.13), one obtains $osc(T, \preceq^*)$. This means that (5.13) is a generalization of $osc(T, \preceq^*)$.

Since $s_1' \preceq^* s_1$ holds, there must be a finite sequence of states $\bar{u} = \langle u_1, \ldots, u_n \rangle$ such that $s_1' = u_1$, $s_1 = u_n$, and $u_k \preceq u_{k+1}$ holds for all $k < n$. The induction is by the length of the shortest sequence $\bar{u}$ with the above properties. Note that $\bar{u}$ cannot be the empty sequence. The proof of (5.13) proceeds by induction on the length of $\bar{u}$.

In the base case, $\bar{u} = \langle u_1 \rangle$ holds for some state $u_1 \in S$. Hence, $s_1' = u_1 = s_1$ must hold. Since $\preceq^*$ is reflexive, (5.13) holds trivially (choose $s_2 = s_2' = s_2$ and $\gamma = \gamma'$).

In the step case, $\bar{u}' = \langle u_1', u_2' \rangle$ holds for some states $u_1', u_2' \in S$ and some (possible empty) sequence of states $\bar{u}' \in S^*$. Note that all states in $\bar{u}$ are reachable because of our construction of $\preceq^*$. Since $s_1' \stackrel{\gamma}{\rightarrow_T} s_2$, $s_1' = u_1'$, $u_1' \preceq u_2'$ (implies $u_1' \kappa u_2'$), and $\gamma' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ we obtain from $osc(T, \kappa)$ by an inductive argument (induction on length of $\gamma'$) that there are a trace
δ ∈ (E \ C)* and a state u₂\* ∈ S such that u₁ \* δ \* T u₂\* \* δ\* V = γ\* V, and s₂ \* u₂\* hold. Since s₂\* and u₂\* are reachable, s₂\* ≤ u₂\* holds. We apply the induction hypothesis on u₁\*, u₁\* (u₁\* = s₁), u₂\*, δ\* and obtain that there are a state s₂ ∈ S and a trace γ ∈ (E \ C)* with γ\* V = δ\* V, s₁ \* γ \* T s₂, and u₂\* ≤ s₂. Note that the assumptions of the induction hypothesis are all fulfilled, i.e. reachable(SES, u₁\*), reachable(SES, u₁\*), u₁\* = δ \* T u₂\*, and u₂\* ≤ s₂. From δ\* V = γ\* V and γ\* V = δ\* V, we obtain γ\* V = γ\* V. From s₂\* ≤ u₂\* and u₂\* ≤ s₂, we obtain that s₂\* ≤ s₂ holds (≤\* is transitive). Summarizing, we have γ ∈ (E \ C)*, γ\* V = γ\* V, s₁ \* γ \* T s₂, and s₂\* ≤ s₂. □

Using Lemmas 5.6.3, 5.6.4, and 5.6.5, we now prove Theorem 5.6.2.

Proof (of Theorem 5.6.2). Define κ by s₁ κ s₂ iff s₁ ≤ s₂ (where ≤\* is like in Lemma 5.6.5). Hence, κ is the reflexive and transitive closure of ≤ where ≤ is the restriction of κ to reachable states. From Lemmas 5.6.3 and 5.6.4, we obtain that all unwinding conditions in UC involving brf, lrb, lrbe, fcfl, fcrb, and fcflbe hold. From Lemma 5.6.5, we obtain that all unwinding conditions in UC involving osc hold. □

Theorem 5.6.2 states that if one has proven a set of unwinding conditions for some arbitrary unwinding relation then there is also a preorder for which these unwinding conditions are satisfied. Hence, in principle, one could use a preorder to verify the unwinding conditions. However, Theorem 5.6.2 is mainly of theoretical interest, as it may be difficult in practice to find a suitable unwinding relation that is reflexive as well as transitive and that is also appropriate for verifying the unwinding conditions. Also, it may be more difficult to prove the unwinding conditions for the preorder than for some arbitrary unwinding relation. Fortunately, our unwinding results do not impose any such restriction. This is an improvement of our earlier unwinding result [Man00d].

5.7 Summary and Comparison to Prior Frameworks

In this chapter, we have proposed novel unwinding results that simplify the verification of information flow properties. These results can be applied no matter what the particular system or information flow property is. The only prerequisites are that the system must be specified by a state-event system and that the property must be represented in MAKs.

Following our approach to unwinding, the task of verifying that a given system satisfies a given information flow property is reduced to the task of verifying the individual BSPs from which the property is assembled. Then, the verification of BSPs is reduced to the verification of unwinding conditions and, finally, all unwinding conditions are verified for the system under consideration. In the first of these three steps, our representation of information flow properties in MAKs from Chapter 4 can be exploited. The second step is completely independent of the particular information flow property and, hence, we could perform this step once and for all. For each BSP, we stated two unwinding conditions (as summarized in Table 5.1) and showed that these unwinding conditions imply the given BSP (cf. Theorems 5.3.1–5.3.3). The only part of the proof that is dependent on the particular system is the third step, i.e. the verification of the unwinding conditions. We have illustrated this step using noninference as an example (cf. Section 5.6.1). Further examples for proofs by unwinding will be presented in Sections 6.7 and 7.5.

Prior approaches to unwinding aimed at the verification of specific information flow properties (rather than being generic in the property). For example, the unwinding result in
<table>
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<th>params</th>
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<th>unwinding condition 1</th>
<th>params</th>
<th>view</th>
<th>unwinding condition 2</th>
<th>view</th>
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<tr>
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<td>osc</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>FCD</td>
<td>Γ</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCI</td>
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<td>fcrb</td>
<td>Γ</td>
<td>osc</td>
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<tr>
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<td>lrbe</td>
<td>ρ,Γ</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>R</td>
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<td>lrf</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>osc</td>
<td>V</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

where $V = (V, N, C)$, $V' = (V \cup N, \emptyset, C)$, $\rho'(V') = \rho(V)$, and $\Gamma = (\forall, \Delta, ?)$

Table 5.1: The unwinding conditions for each BSP

[GM84] is only applicable to the original definition of noninterference [GM82]; the result in [Mil94] aims at verifying forward correctability [JT88]; and the five unwinding results in [Zak96] aim at the verification of generalized noninterference, forward correctability, noninterference, generalized noninterference, and the perfect security property, respectively. In contrast, our unwinding results aim at the verification of BSPs and, hence, can be applied during the verification of every information flow property assembled from these BSPs. The advantage is that the tedious derivation of specialized unwinding results becomes unnecessary. This means, after a new information flow property has been developed (like, e.g., our novel properties $GNI^*$, $IBGNI^*$, $NDO^*$, and $FC^*$), one can immediately use this property in formal developments without having to worry about the existence of suitable unwinding techniques.

However, if desired, our unwinding theorems for BSPs can also be employed for simplifying the derivation of unwinding results for specific information flow properties. To illustrate this, we have derived unwinding theorems for all information flow properties that we have represented in MAKS in Chapter 4. Interestingly, we have been able to derive unwinding theorems for some properties for which no such results had been published so far, e.g., for nondeducibility for outputs, separability, and also our novel information flow properties. For other properties, our specialized unwinding theorems improve previous results. For example, our unwinding theorem for forward correctability is an improvement of a result by Millen [Mil94] in the sense that our unwinding conditions involve only single transitions while Millen specified the unwinding relation in terms of complete traces. In the same sense, our unwinding theorems for generalized noninterference, noninterference, generalized noninterference, and the perfect security property constitute improvements of earlier unwinding results by Zakinthinos [Zak96]. During our investigations, we have also detected a flaw in [Zak96] where it has been claimed that a given unwinding condition would be a necessary condition for the perfect
security property, which is not the case (cf. Section 5.5.7). We have corrected this flaw by presenting unwinding conditions that are, both, sufficient and necessary. All specialized unwinding results for information flow properties that we have derived in Theorems 5.5.1–5.5.8, 5.5.11–5.5.13, and 5.5.15 are listed in Table 5.2.10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unwinding Conditions for the 1st Dimension</th>
<th>Unwinding Conditions for the 2nd Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GNI(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IBGNI(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em><em>GNI</em>(ES)</em>*</td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em><em>IBGNI</em>(ES)</em>*</td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FC(ES)</strong></td>
<td>fc_{HF}^l(T, \kappa_3), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em><em>FC</em>(ES)</em>*</td>
<td>fc_{HF}^l(T, \kappa_3), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NDO(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em><em>NDO</em>(ES)</em>*</td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NF(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GNF(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SEP(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSP(ES)</strong></td>
<td>lr_{HF}(T, \kappa_1), osc_{HF}(T, \kappa_1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where \( \kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3, \kappa_4 \subseteq S \times S \) and \( \Gamma = \Gamma_{PC} = (I, \emptyset, I) \)

Table 5.2: Unwinding conditions for known information flow properties

Another novelty of our approach to unwinding is that we permit arbitrary unwinding relations. Other authors have required that unwinding relations must be equivalence relations (e.g. in [HY87, Rya91, GCS91, MC92, Rus92, Mil94, Zak96, RS99])11 and our previous approach [Man00d] required that they must be preorders. The advantage of using arbitrary unwinding relations is that some information flow properties can be captured more closely. A prominent example for this is noninference because proving the unwinding conditions of noninference with an equivalence relation would amount to proving the perfect security property, i.e. a property that is much more restrictive than noninference. Another information flow property where a restriction to equivalence relations has similar disadvantages is generalized noninference. However, even if a suitable equivalence relation exists, it is sometimes difficult to find this relation, in practice (cf. Section 5.6.2). Hence, our innovation of using arbitrary

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10 Some of these theorems involve multiple unwinding relations. It is not necessary that all of these relations are defined differently. If two unwinding relations are identical then the corresponding instances of osc are also identical. That is, this condition needs to be proven only once.

11 To be precise some of these approaches are based on equivalence classes rather than on equivalence relations (e.g. in [Zak96]). However, logically this is equivalent.
unwinding relations has advantages in theory as well as in practice.

The framework by Zakinthinos and Lee is the only one among the prior frameworks in which unwinding results have been derived. In his thesis [Zak96], Zakinthinos presents unwinding theorems for five information flow properties (cf. Table 5.3 for the detailed list), and he aimed at deriving each of them along the same lines. Nevertheless, he had to prove each of these theorems from scratch. In particular, there are no generic results that could be used in the proofs of the unwinding theorems for different properties. That is, the uniformity achieved is much more limited than in our work. Moreover, as pointed out before, Zakinthinos's unwinding conditions are global conditions on sets of traces and, hence, they are more difficult to handle during verification than our local unwinding conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unwinding theorem derived in framework by McLean</th>
<th>Unwinding theorem derived in framework by Focardi and Gorrieri</th>
<th>Unwinding theorem derived in framework by Zakinthinos and Lee</th>
<th>Unwinding theorem derived in MAKs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEP</td>
<td>✔️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>NDO</td>
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<tr>
<td>NDO*</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>PSP</td>
<td>✔️ ✔️</td>
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<tr>
<td>NF</td>
<td>✔️</td>
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<td>FC</td>
<td>✔️ ✔️</td>
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<tr>
<td>FC*</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNI</td>
<td>✔️</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNI*</td>
<td>✔️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>IBGNI</td>
<td>✔️</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBGNI*</td>
<td>✔️</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNF</td>
<td>✔️</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: Unwinding theorems derived in prior frameworks

The approach to verifying information flow properties proposed in this chapter exploits the uniform representation of these properties in MAKs. Rather than developing unwinding results for complex information flow properties, we have presented unwinding results for conceptually quite simple BSPs; rather than developing unwinding results for each property from scratch, we have presented unwinding results for basic ingredients of such properties. Hence, after representing an information flow property in MAKs, one obtains unwinding techniques for this property without spending any further effort. This is a very appealing feature of MAKs that distinguishes our framework from the ones proposed previously.
Chapter 6

Compositionality Results for Information Flow Properties

6.1 Introduction

A modular system architecture is usually chosen for the construction of large and complex systems. Thereby, a complex task, namely the development of the overall system, is reduced to a simpler development task, namely the development of the individual system components. A modular architecture can also be exploited to simplify the verification of information flow properties. Rather than verifying directly that the overall system satisfies a given property, one first verifies the property for each component and then applies a compositionality result to conclude that the overall system also satisfies this property. The existence of a suitable compositionality result is a prerequisite for applying this divide-and-conquer approach. Hence, it is unfortunate that the derivation of compositionality results is often nontrivial.

In this chapter, our main goal is to simplify the verification of compositionality results for information flow properties. For this purpose, we propose a uniform approach for deriving such results. The proposed approach is general enough for re-justifying several compositionality results from the literature as well as for deriving novel ones. It is also uniform enough for revealing similarities between compositionality results that were previously unrelated. This led to a deeper understanding of these results, which inspired the derivation of weakened forward correctability, a novel composable information flow property.

More specifically, we derive compositionality results for BSPs. These results can be applied during the derivation of compositionality theorems for more complex information flow properties according to the following observation: If all BSPs from which an information flow property is assembled are preserved under a given form of composition then the information flow property is also preserved under this form of composition. That is, deriving a compositionality theorem for a given information flow property amounts to collecting all side conditions of the compositionality results for the BSPs from which the property is assembled. Accordingly, verifying a given compositionality theorem amounts to checking that all of these side conditions are fulfilled. As we will show, this uniform approach simplifies the derivation as well as the verification of compositionality theorems considerably. This simplification does not come at the cost of the quality of the obtained results, as we will demonstrate by re-proving several results from the literature and by deriving novel compositionality results for $GNI^*$, $FC^*$, and $NDO^*$. Our uniform justifications of these results show that some hold
for similar reasons, which will lead to a classification of compositionality theorems.

While re-justifying the compositionality theorem for Johnson and Thayer’s forward correctability [JT88], we observe that forward correctability is more restrictive than necessary for obtaining a general compositionality theorem. Based on this observation, we derive a novel information flow property, weakened forward correctability, that is composable although it is less restrictive than forward correctability. That is, weakened forward correctability is an improvement of forward correctability. From a historical perspective, this is a very interesting result because it constitutes after more than fifteen years a new improvement in one of the main traditions of information flow properties (incorporating forward correctability, restrictiveness, generalized noninterference, and nondeducibility).

Interestingly, we also derive our compositionality results for BSPs, which provide the basis of the above approach, in a uniform way. This uniformity is achieved by a lemma, the generalized zipping lemma, that is applied in the derivation of each of these compositionality results. The name of this lemma is motivated by the fact that in its proof, a possible trace of the composed system is constructed by composing traces of the components in a stepwise manner that resembles closing a zipper.

Overview. In Section 6.2, we present some basics about the composition of event-based systems. In Section 6.3, we illustrate the problem of preserving information flow properties under composition with an example. In Section 6.4, we present compositionality theorems for BSPs, introduce the generalized zipping lemma, and prove the theorems with the help of this lemma. In Section 6.5, we explain our approach to verifying compositionality theorems for more complex information flow properties and illustrate this approach with several examples. Based on these results, we present a classification of compositionality theorems in Section 6.6. In Section 6.7, we propose weakened forward correctability, a novel information flow property, and derive a compositionality theorem as well as an unwinding theorem for this property. In Section 6.8, the main results of this chapter are summarized and are put into perspective with results obtained with other frameworks.

6.2 Composition of Event Systems

In event-based system models, communication between two components is modeled by the occurrence of shared events. We employ the usual notion of composition for event systems (e.g. [JT88, ZL97]), i.e. a given communication event can occur only if it is enabled in both components and, when the event occurs, the behavior of the components is synchronized by this occurrence. When composing event systems, communication events have to be output events of one component and input events of the other component. For the composed system, communication between system components is assumed to occur internally (cf. Figure 6.1). The following definitions specify more precisely what it means to compose two event systems.

Definition 6.2.1 (Composable). Let $ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1)$ and $ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2)$ be event systems. $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ are composable iff $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq (O_1 \cap I_2) \cup (O_2 \cap I_1)$ holds. ⊗

Definition 6.2.2 (Composition of event systems). Let $ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1)$ and $ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2)$ be composable event systems. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is the event system $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ (denoted by $ES_1 \parallel ES_2$) where $E$, $I$, $O$, and $Tr$ are
defined as follows:

\[ E = E_1 \cup E_2 \]
\[ I = (I_1 \setminus O_2) \cup (I_2 \setminus O_1) \]
\[ O = (O_1 \setminus I_2) \cup (O_2 \setminus I_1) \]
\[ Tr = \{ \tau \in E^* \mid \tau|_{E_1} \in Tr_1 \land \tau|_{E_2} \in Tr_2 \} \]

The operator \( \parallel \) is associative as well as commutative.

**Theorem 6.2.3 (Associativity).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \), \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \), and \( ES_3 = (E_3, I_3, O_3, Tr_3) \) be event systems that are pairwise composable.

Then \( (ES_1 \parallel ES_2) \parallel ES_3 = ES_1 \parallel (ES_2 \parallel ES_3) \) holds. \( \blacksquare \)

**Proof.** Follows immediately from Definition 6.2.2. \( \square \)

**Theorem 6.2.4 (Commutativity).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \) be composable event systems. Then \( ES_1 \parallel ES_2 = ES_2 \parallel ES_1 \) holds. \( \blacksquare \)

**Proof.** Follows immediately from Definition 6.2.2. \( \square \)

Definition 6.2.2 introduces the composition of event systems in its general form. Namely, both components may communicate with each other and with the environment. In particular, feedback between components is possible, i.e. they may communicate with each other in both directions. The components have to synchronize on occurrences of events in \( E_1 \cap E_2 \). These events are called communication events. Besides general composition, we distinguish three restricted forms of composition in this chapter (as suggested in [McL94a]): product, proper cascade, and general cascade. These are formally defined in the following and are also illustrated in Figure 6.2.

**Definition 6.2.5 (Product).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \) be composable event systems. The composition of \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) is a product if \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) do not communicate with each other, i.e. if \( E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) holds. \( \blacksquare \)

**Definition 6.2.6 (Proper cascade).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \) be composable event systems. The composition of \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) is a proper cascade if all output events of \( ES_1 \) and all input events of \( ES_2 \) are communication events of the composed system and, moreover, neither input events of \( ES_1 \) nor output events of \( ES_2 \) are communication events, i.e. if \( O_1 = E_1 \cap E_2 = I_2 \) holds. \( \blacksquare \)
**Definition 6.2.7 (General cascade).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \) be composable event systems. The composition of \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) is a **general cascade** if neither input events of \( ES_1 \) nor output events of \( ES_2 \) are communication events, i.e. if \( E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2 \) holds.

**Theorem 6.2.8.** Every product is also a general cascade and every proper cascade is also a general cascade.

**Proof.** Follows immediately from Definitions 6.2.5–6.2.7.

Here, composition is defined as the **binary** operation \( \| \) on event systems. The definition of an \( n \)-ary composition operator is straightforward.

**Definition 6.2.9 (n-ary Composition of event systems).** Let \( J = \{ j \in \mathbb{N} \mid j \leq n \} \) and, for each \( j \in J \), let \( ES_j = (E_j, I_j, O_j, Tr_j) \) be an event system. Assume that no event belongs to more than two components and that events that are shared by two components are input events of the one component and output events of the other.

The **n-ary composition** of \( (ES_j)_{j \in J} \) is the event system \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) (denoted by \( \|_{j \in J} ES_j \) where \( E, I, O, \) and \( Tr \) are defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
E &= \bigcup_{j \in J} E_j \\
I &= \bigcup_{j \in J} I_j \setminus \bigcup_{j \in J} O_j \\
O &= \bigcup_{j \in J} O_j \setminus \bigcup_{j \in J} I_j \\
Tr &= \{ \tau \in E^* \mid \forall j \in J. \tau|_{E_j} \in Tr_j \}
\end{align*}
\]
6.3 Towards Compositionality Results

In this section, we motivate the need for compositionality results by an example that illustrates why information flow properties are not preserved under composition, in general. Based on this example, we introduce conditions under which the investigated property is preserved.

Example 6.3.1. Let the event system \( ES_A = (E_A, I_A, O_A, Tr_A) \) model a system that accepts natural numbers as (confidential) input from the high-level environment (events \( h_n \)), that outputs natural numbers to the high-level environment (events \( h'_n \)), and that also outputs natural numbers to the low-level environment (events \( l'_n \)). This means, \( I_A = \{ h_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), \( O_A = \{ h'_n, l'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), and \( E_A = I_A \cup O_A \). In the possible traces of \( ES_A \), occurrences of high-level events and low-level events alternate. More formally, \( Tr_A \subseteq E_A^* \) is defined as the smallest set satisfying:

1. \( \emptyset \in Tr_A \),
2. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) then \( \langle h_n \rangle \in Tr_A \) and \( \langle h'_n \rangle \in Tr_A \), and
3. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in Tr_A \) then \( \langle h_n, l'_n, \tau \rangle \in Tr_A \) and \( \langle h'_n, l'_n, \tau \rangle \in Tr_A \).

This means, \( ES_A \) records its high-level input (modeled by events of the form \( h_n \)) in its low-level output where the recording is polluted by numbers that the system has generated at random (modeled by events of the form \( h'_n \)). The purpose of these random numbers is to prevent a low-level observer from deducing that certain high-level input events have occurred. Namely, if the observer receives a number \( n \) then he does not know whether this number corresponds to a (confidential) high-level input or to a (non-confidential) random number. In other words, it is impossible to tell that a particular high-level input has occurred because there is always a possible trace without this event that could have generated a given observation.\(^1\) Obviously, \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_A}(Tr_A) \) holds for the view \( \mathcal{V}_A = (V_A, N_A, C_A) \) defined by \( V_A = \{ l'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), \( N_A = \{ h'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), and \( C_A = \{ h_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) because a perturbation that results from a possible trace by deleting the last occurrence of a confidential event \( h_n \) can be corrected to a possible trace by inserting an occurrence of \( h'_n \) at the position where \( h_n \) has been deleted.

Let the event system \( ES_B = (E_B, I_B, O_B, Tr_B) \) model a system that accepts natural numbers as input from the high-level environment (events \( h'_n \)), that accepts natural numbers as input from the low-level environment (events \( l'_n \)), and that outputs natural numbers to the low-level environment (events \( l'_n \)). This means, \( I_B = \{ h'_n, l'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), \( O_B = \{ l'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), and \( E_B = I_B \cup O_B \). System \( ES_B \) records low-level input that it receives in its low-level output. However, the low-level output need not be a complete recording of the low-level input because the system may nondeterministically swallow low-level input. Moreover, if a high-level input is received by the system then the next low-level input is not forwarded. More formally, \( Tr_B \subseteq E_B^* \) is defined as the smallest set satisfying:

1. \( \emptyset \in Tr_B \),
2. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) then \( \langle h'_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \rangle \in Tr_B \).

\(^1\) \( ES_A \) is very similar to the system \( LEAR_D \) in Example 3.4.6, i.e. the system that we introduced to illustrate the BSP \( D \). The only essential difference between the two systems (except for differences in the names of events) is that \( LEAR_D \) does not record in its high-level outputs which numbers it has invented.
3. if \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B} \) then \( \langle l'_n \rangle \cdot \tau \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B} \) and \( \langle l'_n \cdot l''_n \rangle \cdot \tau \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B} \), and

4. if \( n, n' \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \tau \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B} \) then \( \langle h'_{n} l'_n \rangle \cdot \tau \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B} \).

Obviously, \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_B} (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B}) \) holds for the view \( \mathcal{V}_B = (V_B, N_B, C_B) \) defined by \( V_B = \{ l'_n \cdot l''_n | n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), \( N_B = \emptyset \), and \( C_B = \{ h'_{n} | n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) because every trace that results from a possible trace by deleting the last occurrence of a confidential event \( h'_{n} \) is also a possible trace of the system.

Let \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) be defined by \( ES_A \parallel ES_B \) (cf. Figure 6.3) and let the view \( \mathcal{V} = (V, N, C) \) be defined by \( V = V_A \cup V_B \), \( N = N_A \cup N_B \), and \( C = (C_A \setminus N_B) \cup (C_B \setminus N_A) \). This means that \( V = \{ l'_n \cdot l''_n | n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), \( N = \{ h'_{n} | n \in \mathbb{N} \} \), and \( C = \{ h_n | n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) hold.

\[ h_n \rightarrow ES_A \rightarrow h'_n \rightarrow l''_n \rightarrow ES_B \rightarrow l'_n \rightarrow \]

\[ \text{Figure 6.3: Composition of } ES_A \text{ and } ES_B \]

We show that \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_B} (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B}) \) does not hold by the following counterexample. The trace \( \tau = \langle h_42 \cdot l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \) is a possible trace of \( ES \) because \( \tau \mid_{ES_A} = \langle h_42 \cdot l'_2 \rangle \) is a possible trace of \( ES_A \) and \( \tau \mid_{ES_B} = \langle l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \) is a possible trace of \( ES_B \). \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_B} (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B}) \) requires that it must be possible to correct the perturbation \( t = \langle l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \) that results by deleting \( h_42 \) in \( \tau \). Let us now try to construct a correction for this perturbation: The perturbation only has an effect on the first component (because \( h_42 \notin E_B \)). Namely, the perturbation \( t \mid_{ES_A} = \langle l'_2 \rangle \) results from \( \tau \mid_{ES_A} = \langle h_42 \cdot l'_2 \rangle \) by deleting \( h_42 \). Since \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_A} (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_A}) \) holds, it must be possible to correct this perturbation to a possible trace of \( ES_A \). According to the system specification, \( h'_42 \) occurs before \( l'_2 \) in all of these corrections and, e.g., \( \tau' = \langle h'_42 \cdot l'_2 \rangle \) is one of these corrections. For the overall system, this means that correcting the perturbation for the first component results in the trace \( t' = \langle h'_42 \cdot l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \). For the second component, the correction for the first component leads to the trace \( t' \mid_{ES_B} = \langle h'_42 \cdot l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \), which results from \( \tau \mid_{ES_B} = \langle l'_2 \cdot l''_2 \rangle \) by inserting \( h'_42 \). Unfortunately, \( t' \mid_{ES_B} \) is neither a possible trace of \( ES_B \) nor can it be corrected to a possible trace (because \( N_B = \emptyset \) holds). The same problem occurs with all other corrections of \( t \mid_{ES_A} \).

For the overall system, this means that the perturbation \( t' \) of the possible trace \( \tau \) is neither a possible trace nor can it be corrected to a possible trace. Hence, \( BSD_{\mathcal{V}_B} (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}_B}) \) does not hold.

Before we discuss in more detail the reasons why \( BSD \) is not preserved under composition in the above example, let us introduce the notion of a proper separation of a view.

When reducing the verification of \( BSD \) for a complex system \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) that is composed from two event systems \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2) \) to the verification of \( BSD \) for each of these components, the view \( \mathcal{V} = (V, N, C) \) for the overall system has to be decomposed in a suitable manner into views \( \mathcal{V}_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \) and \( \mathcal{V}_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) for \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \), respectively. Obviously, events that are confidential for the overall system must also be considered confidential when verifying \( BSD \) for a component (i.e., \( C \cap E_1 \subseteq C_1 \) and \( C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2 \) must hold). Similarly, events that are visible wrt. the overall system must also be considered visible when analyzing the components (i.e., \( V \cap E_1 = V_1 \) and \( V \cap E_2 = V_2 \) must hold). Moreover, it must be ensured that changes made when correcting perturbations in one component do not reveal any secrets to the other component. This means, events that are in \( N_1 \) should be considered as confidential by \( ES_2 \) and events in \( N_2 \) should be considered
as confidential by $ES_1$ (i.e. $N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset$ must hold). Otherwise, corrections in one component would need to be synchronized with corrections in the other component, a severe restriction for compositional information flow analysis. This results in the following definition of a proper separation of a view.

**Definition 6.3.2 (Proper separation of a view).** Let $E$, $E_1$, and $E_2$ be sets of events such that $E = E_1 \cup E_2$ holds. Let $V = (V, N, C)$, $V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$, and $V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2)$ be views in $E$, $E_1$, and $E_2$, respectively. The views $V_1$ and $V_2$ constitute a proper separation of $V$ iff $V \cap E_1 = V_1$, $V \cap E_2 = V_2$, $C \cap E_1 \subseteq C_1$, $C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2$, and $N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset$ hold.

**Example 6.3.3.** The views $H_1 = (L_1, \emptyset, H_1)$ and $H_2 = (L_2, \emptyset, H_2)$ constitute a proper separation of $H = (L, \emptyset, H)$ because $L \cap E_1 = L_1$, $L \cap E_2 = L_2$, $H \cap E_1 = H_1$, and $H \cap E_2 = H_2$. 

**Example 6.3.4.** The views $H_1 = (L_1, H_1 \setminus I_1, H_1 \cap I_1)$ and $H_2 = (L_2, H_2 \setminus I_2, H_2 \cap I_2)$ constitute a proper separation of $H = (L, H \setminus I, H \cap I)$ because $L \cap E_1 = L_1$, $L \cap E_2 = L_2$, $H \cap I \cap E_1 = H_1 \cap I \cap E_1 \subseteq H_1 \cap I_1$, $H \cap I \cap E_2 = H_2 \cap I \cap E_2 \subseteq H_2 \cap I_2$, and $(H_1 \setminus I_1) \cap (H_2 \setminus I_2) \subseteq (E_1 \setminus I_1) \cap (E_2 \setminus I_2) \subseteq (E_1 \cap E_2) \setminus (I_1 \cup I_2) = \emptyset$ (recall that $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq (I_1 \cap O_2) \cup (I_2 \cap O_1)$ holds). 

In the following, let $ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1)$ and $ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2)$ be two composable event systems. Define $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ by $ES = ES_1 \parallel ES_2$. Moreover, let $V = (V, N, C)$, $V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1)$, and $V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2)$ be views in $E$, $E_1$, and $E_2$, respectively, such that $V_1$ and $V_2$ constitute a proper separation of $V$.

In Example 6.3.1, we have shown that $BSD$ is not preserved under composition, in general. More specifically, the preservation of $BSD$ under composition is not even ensured if composition is restricted to proper cascade. However, there are many special cases where $BSD$ is preserved under composition. The reason why $BSD$ is not preserved in the given example is that corrections in one component cause a perturbation for the second component (because $N_A \cap E_B \neq \emptyset$) and that the second component cannot correct these perturbations.\(^2\) These two conditions are indeed the reason why $BSD$ is not preserved under composition in the example. In the following, we generalize this observation.

For simplicity let us assume for the beginning that corrections in the second component have no effect on the first component (like in the example), i.e. $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ should hold. Note that, these assumptions do not imply that $BSD$ is preserved under composition because corrections in the first component may cause perturbations in the second component and it might not be possible to correct these perturbations for the second component (as we demonstrated in Example 6.3.1). However, if

- $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ or
- $BSIA_{\nu_2}^{p_2}(Tr_2)$ and total($ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1$)

hold then $BSD$ is preserved under composition. That is, if the first of these conditions holds then corrections in $ES_1$ cannot have any effects on $ES_2$. Alternatively, if the second condition holds then the perturbations caused by $ES_1$ can be corrected for $ES_2$.

The case where $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ does not hold but where $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ holds instead can be handled similarly because it is symmetric. This means, if $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, $BSIA_{\nu_1}^{p_1}(Tr_1)$, and total($ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2$) hold then $BSD$ is preserved under composition.

\(^2\)That $BSD_{\nu_2}(Tr_2)$ holds does not help in the example because it is needed to correct the insertion of confidential events rather than their deletion.
However, if neither $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ nor $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ holds then the situation becomes more complicated. This is because corrections in the first component may cause perturbations for the second component (like in our example composition of $ES_A$ and $ES_B$) and corrections in the second component may also cause perturbations for the first component (unlike in the example). Hence, one must not only ensure that the second component can deal with perturbations caused by corrections in the first component (e.g. by demanding that $BSIA_{v_2}^{-1}(Tr_2)$ and $\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ hold for some function $\rho_2$) but also that the first component can deal with perturbations caused by corrections in the second component (e.g. by demanding that $BSIA_{v_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr_1)$ and $\text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ hold for some function $\rho_1$). However, this is still not sufficient because correcting a perturbation for the first component might lead to perturbations for the second component, whose corrections might lead to perturbations for the first component, and so on. This means, one must ensure that the process of correcting the initial perturbation terminates. This is what our forward correctable BSPs are good for: instead of only demanding that instances of $BSIA^p$ hold for each component, we also require that instances of $FCIA^{p,\Gamma}$ hold. Intuitively, this additional requirement ensures that there is enough distance between the point in a trace where the perturbation has caused a change and the points in the trace where changes have been made in the process of correcting the perturbation.\footnote{Recall from Definition 3.4.25 that for $\Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon)$, $FCIA^{p,\Gamma}$ perturbs a trace by inserting a confidential event $e \in C \cap \Upsilon$ at a position where it is $\rho$-admissible and where it is immediately followed by an occurrence of a visible event $v \in V \cap \nabla$. Corrections must be causal, i.e. changes may only be made after the position where $c$ has been inserted. Moreover, changes before the occurrence of $v$ are limited to events in $N \cap \Delta$.} More specifically, we require that there is a function $\rho_1$ from views in $E_1$ to subsets of $E_1$, a function $\rho_2$ from views in $E_2$ to subsets of $E_2$, and triples $\Gamma_1 = (\nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1)$ and $\Gamma_2 = (\nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2)$ (where $\nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1 \subseteq E_1$ and $\nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2 \subseteq E_2$) such that

- $BSIA_{v_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr_1)$, $BSIA_{v_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)$, $\text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$, $\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$,
- $FCIA_{v_1}^{\rho_1,\Gamma_1}(Tr_1)$, $FCIA_{v_2}^{\rho_2,\Gamma_2}(Tr_2)$,
- $V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2$,
- $C_1 \cap N_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1$, $C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2$, and
- $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$.

The following remark shall provide the reader with a first understanding of the above five conditions. The detailed argument why these conditions suffice for the preservation of BSPs like $BSD$ will be presented in Section 6.4.

**Remark 6.3.5.** The set $\Upsilon_1$ contains all communication events that are confidential for $ES_1$ but not for $ES_2$ (condition $C_1 \cap N_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1$). Hence, $BSIA_{v_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr_1)$ and $\text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ ensure that every perturbation that is constructed by inserting a communication event $e \in C_1 \cap N_2$ into a possible trace of $ES_1$ can be corrected to a possible trace of $ES_1$. If the event $e$ is inserted at a position where it is immediately followed by a visible event $v \in V_1 \cap \nabla_1$ then $FCIA_{v_1}^{\rho_1,\Gamma_1}(Tr_1)$ and $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ ensure that correcting the perturbation for $ES_1$ has no effects on $ES_2$ at points of the trace before the occurrence of $v$. In other words, correcting the perturbation for $ES_1$ can affect $ES_2$ only at points of the trace after the occurrence of $v$. Similarly, $C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2$, $BSIA_{v_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)$, $\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$, $FCIA_{v_2}^{\rho_2,\Gamma_2}(Tr_2)$, and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ ensure that confidential communication events can be inserted into possible traces of $ES_2$ and
that correcting this insertion, if it occurs at a position where it is immediately followed by a visible event \( v \in V_2 \cap V'_2 \), has no effects on \( ES_1 \) except for after the occurrence of \( v \). The condition \( V_1 \cap V'_2 \subseteq V_1 \cup V'_2 \) ensures that before each occurrence of a visible communication event \( v \in V_1 \cap V'_2 \) at least one of \( FCIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \) and \( FCIA_{V'_2} (T_{R_2}) \) is applicable. This means, e.g., that if a communication event \( e \in C_1 \cap N_2 \) is inserted before a visible event \( v \in V_1 \cap V'_2 \) that is not in \( V_1 \) then, although \( FCIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \) cannot be applied for inserting \( e \) (\( BSIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \) must be used instead), this perturbation can cause only finitely many corrections before the occurrence of \( v \). The reason why there is no danger of nontermination is that the changes before the occurrence of \( v \) that are caused by the corrections in \( ES_1 \) can only lead to perturbations for \( ES_2 \) that can be corrected without inserting communication events before the occurrence of \( v \) (namely by applying \( FCIA_{V'_2} (T_{R_2}) \)). Overall, this means that there can be only finitely many corrections before a given occurrence of a visible communication event. Since there are only finitely many visible communication events in any given trace, this implies that the process of correcting perturbations also terminates for the overall trace. \( \diamond \)

In summary, the conditions for the preservation of \( BSD \) lead to the following definition.

**Definition 6.3.6 (Well-behaved composition).** Let \( ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, T_{R_1}) \) and \( ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, T_{R_2}) \) be composable event systems. Let \( V_1 = (V_1, N_1, C_1) \) be a view in \( E_1 \) and \( V_2 = (V_2, N_2, C_2) \) be a view in \( E_2 \) such that \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \) constitute a proper separation of \( V \).

The composition of \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) is a *well-behaved composition* wrt. \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \) if one of the following four conditions holds:

1. \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) hold.
2. \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \), total\((ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)\), and \( BSIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \) hold for some function \( \rho_1 \) from views in \( E_1 \) to subsets of \( E_1 \).
3. \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \), total\((ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)\), and \( BSIA_{V_2} (T_{R_2}) \) hold for some function \( \rho_2 \) from views in \( E_2 \) to subsets of \( E_2 \).
4. There are a function \( \rho_1 \) from views in \( E_1 \) to subsets of \( E_1 \), a function \( \rho_2 \) from views in \( E_2 \) to subsets of \( E_2 \), and triples \( \Gamma_1 = (V_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1) \) and \( \Gamma_2 = (V_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2) \) (where \( V_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1 \subseteq E_1 \) and \( V_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2 \subseteq E_2 \)) such that
   
   (a) \( BSIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \), \( BSIA_{V_2} (T_{R_2}) \), total\((ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)\), total\((ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)\),
   (b) \( FCIA_{V_1} (T_{R_1}) \), \( FCIA_{V_2} (T_{R_2}) \),
   (c) \( V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq V_1 \cup V_2 \),
   (d) \( C_1 \cap N_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1 \), \( C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2 \), and
   (e) \( N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \), \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) hold. \( \diamond \)

Conditions 1–4 in Definition 6.3.6 can be read as a case distinction on the truth values of \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \). If \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) holds then all communication events between the components are either visible or confidential (according to the view of the first component) and, consequently, changes made in the process of correcting a perturbation for the first component (only affect events in \( N_1 \)) cannot disturb the behavior of the second component. Similarly, if \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) holds then performing permitted corrections for the second component
cannot disturb the behavior of the first component. Hence, the four conditions in the definition differ in whether corrections in one component can have effects on the other component or not (1: no effects, 2 and 3: only in one direction, 4: in both directions).

Notational Conventions. Throughout the rest of this chapter, we assume that $ES_1 = (E_1, I_1, O_1, Tr_1)$ and $ES_2 = (E_2, I_2, O_2, Tr_2)$ denote two composable event systems. Let $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ denote the composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$, i.e. $ES = ES_1 || ES_2$. Moreover, $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ denotes a view in $E$, $\rho$ denotes a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$, and $\Gamma$ denotes a triple $(\mathcal{V}, \Delta, \mathcal{Y})$ of subsets of $E$. For $j \in \{1, 2\}$, $\mathcal{V}_j = (V_j, N_j, C_j)$ denotes a view in $E_j$, $\rho_j$ denotes a function from views in $E_j$ to subsets of $E_j$, and $\Gamma_j$ denotes a triple $(\mathcal{V}_j, \Delta_j, \mathcal{Y}_j)$ of subsets of $E_j$.

6.4 Compositionality of BSPs

We have shown with an example that BSPs like BSD are not preserved under composition, in general. However, BSPs like BSD are preserved under composition if certain conditions are fulfilled. We now demonstrate this by deriving compositionality theorems for our BSPs. The basis for proving these theorems is provided by a single lemma, the generalized zipping lemma. The use of this lemma simplifies the justification of the compositionality results that we present and also leads to uniform proofs. In our presentation, we proceed as follows: In Section 6.4.1, we present the compositionality theorems for BSPs. Then we derive the generalized zipping lemma in Section 6.4.2. Finally, we prove the compositionality theorems for BSPs with the help of this lemma in Section 6.4.3.

6.4.1 Compositionality Theorems

In the following theorem, we present compositionality results for backwards-strict BSPs and forward-correctable BSPs.

Theorem 6.4.1 (Compositionality). If $\mathcal{V}_1$ and $\mathcal{V}_2$ constitute a proper separation of $\mathcal{V}$ and the composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{V}_1$ and $\mathcal{V}_2$ then the following propositions are valid:

1. $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr_1) \land BSD_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr_2) \Rightarrow BSD_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$.

2. If $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_j}(Tr_j)$ for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$ then $BSI_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr_1) \land BSI_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr_2) \Rightarrow BSI_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$.

3. If $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_j}(Tr_j)$ and $\rho_j(\mathcal{V}_j) \subseteq \rho(\mathcal{V}) \cap E_j$ for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$ then $BSIA^{\rho_1}_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr_1) \land BSIA^{\rho_2}_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr_2) \Rightarrow BSIA^{\rho}_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$.

4. Assume $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_j}(Tr_j)$, $\nabla \cap E_j \subseteq \nabla_j$, and $\mathcal{Y} \cap E_j \subseteq \mathcal{Y}_j$ hold for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$. If $\Delta \supseteq (\Delta_1 \cap N_1) \cup (\Delta_2 \cap N_2)$, $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ then $FCD^{\Delta_1}_{\mathcal{V}_1}(Tr_1) \land FCD^{\Delta_2}_{\mathcal{V}_2}(Tr_2) \Rightarrow FCD^{\Delta}_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$.

5. Assume total($ES_j, C_j \cap \mathcal{Y}_j$), $BSD_{\mathcal{V}_j}(Tr_j)$, $BSIA^{\rho_j}_{\mathcal{V}_j}(Tr_j)$, $\nabla \cap E_j \subseteq \nabla_j$, and $\mathcal{Y} \cap E_j \subseteq \mathcal{Y}_j$ hold for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$. If $\Delta \supseteq ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (N_2 \cap \Delta_2))$ and

- $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 \subseteq \mathcal{Y}_1$, or
- $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ and $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq \mathcal{Y}_2$
then $FCI^V_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land FCI^V_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow FCI^V(T)$.

6. Assume $BSD_{\nu_j}(T_j), \rho_j(\nu_j) \subseteq \rho(\nu) \cap E_j, BSD^E_{\nu_j}(T_j), \nabla \cap E_j \subseteq \nabla_j$, and $\gamma \cap E_j \subseteq \gamma_j$ hold for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$. If total$(ES_1, C_1 \cap \gamma_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2), total(ES_2, C_2 \cap \gamma_2 \cap N_1 \cap \Delta_2)$, $\Delta \supseteq ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (N_2 \cap \Delta_2))$, and

- $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 \subseteq \gamma_1$, or
- $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ and $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq \gamma_2$

then $FCIA^{\rho_1,\Delta_1}_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land FCIA^{\rho_2,\Delta_2}_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow FCIA^\rho(\nu)$. 

In the following theorem, we present a compositionality result for the non-strict BSP $R$.

**Theorem 6.4.2 (Compositionality).** If $\nu_1$ and $\nu_2$ constitute a proper separation of $\nu$ and the composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\nu_1$ and $\nu_2$ then

1. $R_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land R_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow R_\nu(T)$.

In the following theorem, we present compositionality results for strict BSPs.

**Theorem 6.4.3 (Compositionality).** If $\nu_1$ and $\nu_2$ constitute a proper separation of $\nu$, the composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\nu_1$ and $\nu_2$, and $N \cap E_j = N_j$ holds for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$ then the following propositions are valid:

1. $SR_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land SR_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow SR_\nu(T)$.

2. $SD_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land SD_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow SD_\nu(T)$.

3. If $SD_{\nu_j}(T_j)$ for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$ then $SI_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land SI_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow SI_\nu(T)$.

4. If $SD_{\nu_j}(T_j)$ and $\rho_j(\nu_j) \subseteq \rho(\nu) \cap E_j$ for all $j \in \{1, 2\}$ then $SIA^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(T_1) \land SIA^{\rho_2}_{\nu_2}(T_2) \Rightarrow SIA^\rho(\nu)$.

### 6.4.2 Generalized Zipping Lemma

Johnson and Thayer pioneered the technique of proving compositionality results with the help of a zipping lemma [JT88]. They used this technique to prove that forward correctability is preserved under arbitrary compositions. For this purpose, they introduced a zipping lemma that is tailored to forward correctability and, hence, cannot be used for proving compositionality results for other information flow properties. However, the idea underlying this proof technique is not limited to forward correctability. In the following, we will introduce a generalized zipping lemma that can be used to prove compositionality results for a variety of information flow properties (including, but not limited to, forward correctability).

Our generalized zipping lemma ensures that possible traces of system components can be merged to possible traces of the overall system. If one views the visible events and the confidential events in the component traces as the teeth of a zipper then merging the component traces (i.e. the two sides of the zipper) corresponds to closing the zipper. For example, if $\tau \in T$ is a possible trace of the composed system and $\tau|_{E_1,t_1} \in T_1$, $\tau|_{E_2,t_2} \in T_2$ are possible traces of the components then $\tau$ can be viewed as the part of a zipper that has been closed already while $t_1$ and $t_2$ can be viewed as the two sides of the part that is still open. The generalized zipping lemma states sufficient conditions for merging $t_1$ and $t_2$ to a trace $t \in E^*$ such that $\tau.t \in T$ holds where $\tau.t$ can be viewed as the completely closed zipper.
Lemma 6.4.4 (Generalized zipping lemma). Let $\tau \in E^*$, $\lambda \in V^*$, $t_1 \in E_1^*$, and $t_2 \in E_2^*$.

If $\tau_{|E_1}, t_1 \in Tr_1$, $\tau_{|E_2}, t_2 \in Tr_2$, $\lambda_{|E_1} = t_1|_V$, $\lambda_{|E_2} = t_2|_V$, $t_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$, $t_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle$, $\gamma_1$ and $\gamma_2$ constitute a proper separation of $V$, and the composition of $E_1$ and $E_2$ is well behaved then there is a trace $t \in E^*$ with $\tau.t \in Tr$, $t|_V = \lambda$, and $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$.

We only sketch the proof of the generalized zipping lemma, here. The detailed proof can be found in Appendix D.1.

Proof Sketch (of Lemma 6.4.4). The proof starts with a case distinction on the four conditions in the definition of a well-behaved composition (Definition 6.3.6).

Let condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6 be true. In this case, the two component traces $t_1$ and $t_2$ have only visible events in common, i.e. $t_1|_{E_2} = \lambda|_{E_1 \cap E_2} = t_2|_{E_1}$. Hence, it is possible to construct a trace $t \in E^*$ by merging $t_1$ and $t_2$ such that $t|_{E_1} = t_1$, $t|_{E_2} = t_2$, $t|_V = \lambda$, and $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$. It follows from the definition of the composition operator that $\tau.t \in Tr$ holds.

Let condition 2 in Definition 6.3.6 be true. In this case, the common subsequences of the two component traces, i.e. $t_1|_{E_2}$ and $t_2|_{E_1}$, differ only in events from $N_2 \cap E_1$. We construct a trace $t'_1$ by inserting the sequence $t_2|_{N_2 \cap C_1}$ into $t_1$ in a stepwise manner from left to right such that $t_1|_{E_2} = t_2|_{E_1}$ and $\tau_{|E_1}, t'_1 \in Tr_1$ (applying $BSIA_{P}^{\gamma_1}(Tr_1)$ and $total(E_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ in the process). Now, a trace $t \in E^*$ can be constructed by merging $t'_1$ and $t_2$ such that $t|_{E_1} = t'_1$, $t|_{E_2} = t_2$, $t|_V = \lambda$, and $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$ hold. It follows that $\tau.t \in Tr$ also holds.

Let condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6 be true. The proof proceeds like in the previous case.

Let condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6 be true. In this case, the common subsequences of the two component traces, i.e. $t_1|_{E_2}$ and $t_2|_{E_1}$, might differ in events from $(N_2 \cap E_1) \cup (N_1 \cap E_2)$. The proof proceeds by induction on the length of $\lambda$ where the base case follows immediately from the assumptions. The step case is proved by a case distinction on the first event $v$ in $\lambda$:

1. $v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_1$  
2. $v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_2$  
3. $v \in V_1 \setminus E_2$  
4. $v \in V_2 \setminus E_1$

In the first case, $FCIA_{P}^{\gamma_1, \gamma_1}(Tr_1)$, $total(E_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$, $BSIA_{P}^{\gamma_2}(Tr_2)$, and $total(E_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ are applied in order to construct two component traces that can be merged to a trace $t \in E^*$ with $\tau.t \in Tr$, $t|_V = \lambda$, and $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$. The second case is symmetric to the first case. In the third case, $BSIA_{P}^{\gamma_2}(Tr_2)$ and $total(E_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ are applied in order to construct a trace $t \in E^*$ with $\tau.t \in Tr$, $t|_V = \lambda$, and $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$. The fourth case is symmetric to the third case. □

The generalized zipping lemma provides a means to construct a possible trace of a composed system from possible traces of its components. The construction leaves visible events and confidential events (i.e. the teeth of the zipper) intact. In the lemma the trace $\lambda \in V^*$ can be viewed as a specification of how visible events shall be ordered after the zipper has been closed completely. Naturally, this specification must comply with the ordering of visible events and confidential events in the component traces (expressed by the assumptions $\lambda|_{E_1} = t_1|_V$ and $\lambda|_{E_2} = t_2|_V$). The conclusion $\tau.t \in Tr$ expresses that the zipper can, indeed, be closed completely and the conclusion $t|_V = \lambda$ ensures that the ordering of visible events in $t$ is as prescribed by $\lambda$. That the teeth of the zipper (and their ordering) remain intact is ensured by the conditions $t|_V = \lambda$, $\lambda|_{E_1} = t_1|_V$, $\lambda|_{E_2} = t_2|_V$, $t|_{C} = \langle \rangle$, $t_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$, and $t_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle$. Overall, this means $t$ can be viewed as the result of “closing” $t_1$ and $t_2$ without damaging the zipper.

6.4.3 Proofs of the Compositionality Theorems for BSPs

We are now ready to prove our compositionality results for BSPs with the help of the generalized zipping lemma. Here, most of the proofs are only sketched. The corresponding detailed proofs can be found in Appendix D.2.
We first sketch the proofs of the compositionality results for backwards strict BSPs.

**Proof Sketch (of Theorem 6.4.1).** Each proposition is proved with the help of Lemma 6.4.4.

**Proposition 1:** Let \( \beta.(c)\alpha \in Tr \) be arbitrary. BSD is applied repeatedly on each component trace in order to delete all confidential events in \( \alpha|_E \) (from right to left) and \( c \). Then, the generalized zipping lemma is applied to construct from these component traces a possible trace \( \beta.\alpha' \) of the overall system that constitutes a correction of the perturbed trace \( \beta.\alpha \).

**Proposition 2:** Let \( c \in C \) and \( \beta.\alpha \in Tr \) be arbitrary. BSD is applied repeatedly on each component trace in order to make BSI applicable (deleting all confidential events in \( \alpha|_E \)). Then, BSI is applied on the resulting component traces in order to insert \( c \). Finally, the generalized zipping lemma is applied to construct from these component traces a possible trace \( \beta.(c)\alpha' \) of the overall system that constitutes a correction of the perturbed trace \( \beta.(c)\alpha \).

**Proposition 3:** The proof proceeds like for proposition 2 where BSIA instead of BSI is used to insert \( c \) and the \( \rho \)-admissibility of \( c \) is shown before applying BSIA.

**Proposition 4:** Let \( \beta.(c)\langle v \rangle\alpha \in Tr \) be arbitrary. BSD is applied repeatedly on each component trace until all occurrences of confidential events on the right of \( v \) are removed. If \( c \) is an event of the respective component then either BSD or FCD is applied (depending on whether \( v \) is an event of the component) in order to delete \( c \). Finally, the generalized zipping lemma is applied to construct from these component traces a possible trace \( \beta.\delta.(\langle v \rangle)\alpha' \) of the overall system that constitutes a correction of the perturbed trace \( \beta.\langle v \rangle\alpha \).

**Proposition 5:** Let \( c \in C \) and \( \beta.(\langle v \rangle)\alpha \in Tr \) be arbitrary. BSD is applied repeatedly on each component trace until all occurrences of confidential events on the right of \( v \) are removed. If \( c \) is an event of the respective component then either BSI or FCI is applied (depending on whether \( v \) is an event of the component) in order to insert \( c \). Finally, the generalized zipping lemma is applied to construct from these component traces a possible trace \( \beta.(\langle c \rangle)\delta.(\langle v \rangle)\alpha' \) of the overall system that constitutes a correction of the perturbed trace \( \beta.(\langle v \rangle)\alpha \).

**Proposition 6:** The proof proceeds like for proposition 5 where BSIA (FCIA) instead of BSI (FCI) is used to insert \( c \) and it is explicitly shown that \( c \) is \( \rho \)-admissible.

Next, we sketch the proof of the compositionality result for the non-strict BSP \( R \).

**Proof Sketch (of Theorem 6.4.2).** Let \( \tau \in Tr \) be arbitrary. \( R \) is applied on each component trace in order to remove all confidential events. Then, the generalized zipping lemma is applied to construct from these component traces a possible trace \( \tau' \) of the overall system that constitutes a correction of the perturbed trace \( \tau|_{VUN} \).

Finally, we prove the compositionality results for strict BSPs in detail.

**Proof (of Theorem 6.4.3).** We prove each of the four propositions:

**Proposition 1:** Assume \( SR_{Vj}(Tr_j) \) holds for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \). From Theorem 3.5.6(1), we obtain that \( R_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) holds. From Theorem 6.4.2(1), we obtain that \( R_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) holds. The preconditions of the theorem are satisfied because \( (V\cup N)\cap E_j = (V\cap E_j)\cup (N\cap E_j) = V_j\cup N_j \) holds. From Theorem 3.5.6(1), we conclude that \( SR_\tau(Tr) \) holds.

**Proposition 2:** Assume \( SD_{Vj}(Tr_j) \) holds for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \). From Theorem 3.5.6(2), we obtain that \( BSD_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) holds for all \( j \in \{1, 2\} \). From Theorem 6.4.1(1), we obtain that \( BSD_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) holds. From Theorem 6.4.2(2), we conclude that \( SD_\tau(Tr) \) holds.

**Proposition 3:** Assume that \( SD_{Vj}(Tr_j) \) and \( SI_{Vj}(Tr_j) \) hold for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \). From Theorems 3.5.6(2) and 3.5.15(1), we obtain that \( BSD_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) and \( BSI_{Vj\cup N_j,0,C}(Tr_j) \) hold. From Theorem 6.4.1(2), we obtain that \( BSI_{V\cup N,0,C}(Tr) \) holds. From Theorem 3.5.15(1), we conclude that \( SI_\tau(Tr) \) holds.
Proposition 4: Assume $SD_{V_j}(Tr_j)$ and $SIA^p_{V_j}(Tr_j)$ hold for $j \in \{1, 2\}$. From Theorems 3.5.6(2) and 3.5.15(2), we obtain $BSD_{V_j \cup N_j, \emptyset, C_j}(Tr_j)$ and $BSIA^p_{V_j \cup N_j, \emptyset, C_j}(Tr_j)$ if $\rho_j(V_j \cup N_j, \emptyset, C_j) = \rho_j(V_j)$ holds. From Theorem 6.4.1(3), we obtain $BSIA^{p'}_{V \cup N, \emptyset, C}(Tr)$ if $\rho(V \cup N, \emptyset, C) = \rho(V)$ holds. Note that $\rho_j(V_j \cup N_j, \emptyset, C_j) = \rho_j(V_j) \subseteq \rho(V) \cap E_j = \rho(V \cup N, \emptyset, C) \cap E_j$ holds for $j \in \{1, 2\}$. From Theorem 3.5.15(2), we conclude that $SIA^p(Tr)$ holds. \hfill \Box

6.5 Compositionality of Information Flow Properties

Information flow properties are not preserved under composition, in general [McC87]. However, some are preserved under certain conditions. To know precisely which properties are preserved under which conditions is a prerequisite for a modular information flow analysis of complex systems. To this end, we present several compositionality theorems that each state sufficient conditions for the preservation of some information flow property.

Based on the modular representation of information flow properties in MAKS (from Chapter 4) and the compositionality theorems for BSPs (from Section 6.4), the verification of compositionality theorems for more complex information flow properties becomes a straightforward task. Firstly, one proves that the views for the components constitute a proper separation of the view for the overall system (cf. Definition 6.3.2). Secondly, one verifies that the composition of the components is well behaved wrt. these views (cf. Definition 6.3.6). Thirdly, one verifies that the preconditions of the compositionality results for all BSPs from which the information flow property is assembled are satisfied. Finally, one applies the compositionality results in order to conclude that all BSPs are preserved. Since all BSPs from which the information flow property is assembled are preserved under composition, the property itself is also preserved. This approach considerably simplifies the, otherwise, often quite involved verification of compositionality results. We illustrate this simplicity by re-proving several known compositionality results from the literature in this section.

From a different perspective, the representation of information flow properties in MAKS and our compositionality theorems for BSPs, together, provide a basis for the derivation of compositionality theorems for more complex information flow properties. To this end, one collects the preconditions of the compositionality results for all BSPs from which the given information flow property is assembled. Then one eliminates all conditions that follow from the BSPs and the chosen form of composition. The remaining conditions become preconditions of the derived compositionality theorem. We illustrate this possibility by deriving some novel compositionality theorems in this section.

Proving known as well as novel compositionality results with our uniform approach also leads to a classification of these results to be presented in Section 6.6.

Notational Conventions. In the rest of this chapter, we assume that $L$, $L_1$, and $L_2$ denote the set of low-level events in $E$, $E_1$, and $E_2$, respectively ($L \cap E_1 = L_1$ and $L \cap E_2 = L_2$ hold). We assume that $H$, $H_1$, and $H_2$ denote the set of high-level events in $E$, $E_1$, and $E_2$, respectively ($H \cap E_1 = H_1$ and $H \cap E_2 = H_2$ hold). Moreover, $\mathcal{H} = (L, \emptyset, H)$, $\mathcal{H}_1 = (L_1, \emptyset, H_1)$, $\mathcal{H}_2 = (L_2, \emptyset, H_2)$, $\mathcal{H}_I = (L, H \setminus I, H \cap I)$, $\mathcal{H}_I_1 = (L_1, H_1 \setminus I_1, H_1 \cap I_1)$, $\mathcal{H}_I_2 = (L_2, H_2 \setminus I_2, H_2 \cap I_2)$, and $\Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I)$ shall hold.
6.5.1 Generalized Noninterference

Zakinthinos and Lee showed that, albeit GNI is not preserved under composition in general [McCS87], it is preserved if one restricts composition to a general cascade [ZL95]. Let us now illustrate how easily this result can be verified with the help of MAKs and our compositionality results for BSPs.

Theorem 6.5.1. If $GNI(ES_1)$, $GNI(ES_2)$, and $ES_1$ is composed with $ES_2$ by a general cascade then $GNI(ES)$ holds.

Proof. Let $N_i = H_i \setminus I_i$ and $C_i = H_i \cap I_i$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Assume $GNI(ES_1)$, $GNI(ES_2)$, and $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ (general cascade). From the representation theorem for $GNI$ (Theorem 4.2.3), we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ and $BSI_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{HL}_1$ and $\mathcal{HL}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{HL}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{HL}_1$ and $\mathcal{HL}_2$ (condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ and $N_2 \cap I_2 = \emptyset$,
- total($ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1$) follows from $BSI_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$, and
- $BSIA^{\rho_2}_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ follows from $BSI_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ and Theorem 3.5.9

for an arbitrary function $\rho_2$ from views in $E_2$ to subsets of $E_2$. Hence our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,2)) is applicable, and we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{HL}}(T)$ and $BSI_{\mathcal{HL}}(T)$. From the representation theorem for $GNI$ (Theorem 4.2.3), we obtain $GNI(ES)$. \hfill $\square$

Inspired by the compositionality theorem for $GNI$, we now derive a corresponding compositionality theorem for our novel property $GNI^*$ that we introduced in order to avoid a restriction to systems that are total in the set of high-level input events. Recall from Definition 4.2.7 that the difference between $GNI^*$ and $GNI$ is that $GNI^*$ is assembled from $BSD$ and $BSIA^{pc}$ while $GNI$ is assembled from $BSD$ and $BSI$. Due to this difference, the condition total($ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1$) cannot be eliminated like in the proof of Theorem 6.5.1. Therefore, we add the condition total($ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1$) (equivalent to total($ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1$)) as a precondition to the derived theorem. This means, the second component in the cascade must be total in the set of all high-level inputs that are also communication events. Thereby, we arrive at the following novel compositionality theorem for $GNI^*$.

Theorem 6.5.2. If $GNI^*(ES_1)$, $GNI^*(ES_2)$, total($ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1$), and $ES_1$ is composed with $ES_2$ by a general cascade then $GNI^*(ES)$ holds.

Proof. Let $N_i = H_i \setminus I_i$ and $C_i = H_i \cap I_i$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Assume $GNI^*(ES_1)$, $GNI^*(ES_2)$, total($ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1$), and $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ (general cascade). From the representation of $GNI^*$ in MAKs (Definition 4.2.7), we obtain that $BSD_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ and $BSIA^{\rho_2}_{\mathcal{HL}}(T_2)$ hold for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{HL}_1$ and $\mathcal{HL}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{HL}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{HL}_1$ and $\mathcal{HL}_2$ (condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ and $N_2 \cap I_2 = \emptyset$,
• \(\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)\) holds by assumption, and

• \(\text{BSIA}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(TV_2)\).

Hence, our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,3)) is applicable, and we obtain \(\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr)\) and \(\text{BSIA}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr)\). From the representation of \(\text{GNI}^*\) in MAKS (Definition 4.2.7), we obtain \(\text{GNI}^*(ES)\). \(\square\)

The following two corollaries are immediate consequences of Theorem 6.5.2.

Corollary 6.5.3. If \(\text{GNI}^*(ES_1)\), \(\text{GNI}^*(ES_2)\), \(ES_2\) is input total, and \(ES_1\) is composed with \(ES_2\) by a general cascade then \(\text{GNI}^*(ES)\) holds.

Corollary 6.5.4. If \(\text{GNI}^*(ES_1)\), \(\text{GNI}(ES_2)\), and \(ES_1\) is composed with \(ES_2\) by a general cascade then \(\text{GNI}^*(ES)\) holds.

6.5.2 Forward Correctability

Johnson and Thayer showed that \(\text{FC}\) is preserved under composition, in general [JT88]. Restrictiveness [McC87], which historically was the first composable information flow property, thereby become obsolete because forward correctability is strictly superior to restrictiveness in the sense that it is composable, logically less restrictive, and also easier to apply than restrictiveness (cf. Section 4.2.2). We now demonstrate how this compositionality result can be verified using our approach.

Theorem 6.5.5. If \(\text{FC}(ES_1)\) and \(\text{FC}(ES_2)\) then \(\text{FC}(ES)\) holds.

Proof. For \(i \in \{1, 2\}\), let \(V_i = L_i\), \(N_i = H_i \setminus I_i\), \(C_i = H_i \cap I_i\), and \(\Gamma_i = (\nabla_i, \Delta_i, \Upsilon_i)\) where \(\nabla_i = I_i\), \(\Delta_i = \emptyset\) and \(\Upsilon_i = I_i\). Assume \(\text{FC}(ES_1)\) and \(\text{FC}(ES_2)\). From the representation theorem for \(\text{FC}\) (Theorem 4.2.11), we obtain that \(\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)\), \(\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)\), \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_1}(Tr_1)\), and \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_2}(Tr_2)\) hold for all \(i \in \{1, 2\}\). From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views \(\mathcal{H}_1\) and \(\mathcal{H}_2\) constitute a proper separation of the view \(\mathcal{H}_2\). The composition of \(ES_1\) and \(ES_2\) is well behaved wrt. \(\mathcal{H}_1\) and \(\mathcal{H}_2\) (condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6) because

• \(\text{BSIA}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr_1)\) and \(\text{BSIA}_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)\) follow from \(\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)\), \(\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)\), Theorem 3.5.9;

• \(\text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)\) and \(\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)\) follow from \(\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)\) and \(\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)\);

• \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\rho_1}(Tr_1)\) and \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)\) follow from \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_1}(Tr_1)\), \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\Gamma_2}(Tr_2)\) and Theorem 3.5.13;

• \(V_1 \cup V_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2\) follows from \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)\) and \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)\).

for arbitrary functions \(\rho_1\) and \(\rho_2\) from views in \(E_1\) to subsets of \(E_1\) and from views in \(E_2\) to subsets of \(E_2\), respectively. The remaining side conditions of our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(4,5)) are also fulfilled, and we obtain \(\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr)\), \(\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr)\), \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_1}(Tr)\), and \(\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_2}(Tr)\). From the representation theorem for \(\text{FC}\) (Theorem 4.2.11), we obtain \(\text{FC}(ES)\). \(\square\)

\(^5\)In [FG95], Focardi and Gorrieri show that its-FC, i.e. their variant of forward correctability, is composable.
Inspired by the compositionality theorem for FC, let us derive a corresponding compositionality theorem for our novel property FC*. Recall that FC* is more liberal than FC in the sense that it does not require that systems must be input total. In the representation of FC*, this is reflected by the use of BSIA$^{pC}$ and FCIA$^{pC,T;pc}$ instead of BSI and FC$^{T;pc}$, respectively. Due to this difference in the representation, there are two conditions that cannot be eliminated like in the proof of Theorem 6.5.5, namely total$(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ and total$(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$. Therefore, we add the conditions total$(ES_1, I_1 \cap H_2)$ and total$(ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1)$ as preconditions to the derived theorem. We arrive at the following novel compositionality theorem.

**Theorem 6.5.6.** If FC*(ES1), FC*(ES2), total(ES1, I1 \cap H2), and total(ES2, I2 \cap H1) then FC*(ES) holds. 

**Proof.** For $i \in \{1, 2\}$, let $V_i = I_i \setminus N_i$ and $C_i = H_i \cap I_i$, and $\Gamma_i = (\nabla_i, \Delta_i, \Upsilon_i)$ where $\nabla_i = I_i$, $\Delta_i = \emptyset$ and $\Upsilon_i = I_i$. Assume FC*(ES1), FC*(ES2), total(ES1, I1 \cap H2), and total(ES2, I2 \cap H1). From the representation of FC* in MAKs (Definition 4.2.13), we obtain that $BSD_{H,1}(Tr_1)$, $BSIA_{H,2}^{pC}(Tr_1)$, $FCD_{H,1}^{T;pc}(Tr_1)$, and $FCIA_{H,2}^{pC,T;pc}(Tr_1)$ hold for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of ES1 and ES2 is also well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $BSIA_{H,1}^{pC}(Tr_1)$ and $BSIA_{H,2}^{pC}(Tr_2)$ hold;
- total$(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ and total$(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ hold by assumption;
- $FCIA_{H,1}^{pC,T;pc}(Tr_1)$ and $FCIA_{H,2}^{pC,T;pc}(Tr_2)$ hold;
- $V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2$ follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq (I_1 \cap O_2) \cup (I_2 \cap O_1)$, $\nabla_1 = I_1$ and $\nabla_2 = I_2$;
- $C_1 \cap N_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1$ and $C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2$ follow from $C_1 \subseteq I_1 = \Upsilon_1$ and $C_2 \subseteq I_2 = \Upsilon_2$; and
- $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follow from $\Delta_1 = \emptyset$ and $\Delta_2 = \emptyset$.

The remaining side conditions of our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(4,6)) are also fulfilled, and we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)$, $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{pC}(Tr)$, $FCD_{\mathcal{H}}^{T;pc}(Tr)$ and $FCIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{pC,T;pc}(Tr)$. From the representation of FC* in MAKs (Definition 4.2.13), we obtain FC*(ES). 

**6.5.3 Nondeducibility for Outputs**

Guttman and Nadel showed that NDO is preserved under composition if low-level user inputs are not connected [GN88]. Since NDO considers all high-level events as confidential (rather than only high-level inputs), the (original) proof of its compositionality result is of a different flavor than the ones for generalized noninterference or for forward treatability. We now show how this theorem can be verified using our uniform approach.

**Theorem 6.5.7.** Let $UI \subseteq I$, $UI_1 \subseteq I_1$, and $UI_2 \subseteq I_2$ be the sets of user inputs for $ES$, $ES_1$, and $ES_2$, respectively ($UI = UI_1 \cup UI_2$ holds). Moreover, let $ES$, $ES_1$, and $ES_2$ be input total.

If NDO(ES1), NDO(ES2), $UI_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, and $UI_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ then NDO(ES) holds. 

**\diamond**
Proof. Let \( N_i = \emptyset \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Assume \( \text{NDO}(\text{ES}_1), \text{NDO}(\text{ES}_2), \text{UI}_1 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset \), and \( \text{UI}_2 \cap \text{E}_1 = \emptyset \). From the representation theorem for \( \text{NDO} \) (Theorem 4.2.16), we obtain that \( \text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_i}(\text{Tr}_1) \) and \( \text{BSIA}^{\mathcal{H}_i \cup \mathcal{H}_j}(\text{Tr}_1) \) hold for all \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). From Example 6.3.3, we know that the views \( \mathcal{H}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) constitute a proper separation of the view \( \mathcal{H} \). The composition of \( \text{ES}_1 \) and \( \text{ES}_2 \) is well behaved wrt. \( \mathcal{H}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because \( N_1 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap \text{E}_1 = \emptyset \) follow from \( N_1 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 = \emptyset \). The side conditions of Theorem 6.4.1(3) are also fulfilled: 
\[
\rho_{\text{UI}_1}(\mathcal{H}_1) = H_1 \cup (L_1 \cap \text{UI}_1) = (H \cap \text{E}_1) \cup (L \cap \text{UI}_1 \cap \text{E}_1) = (H \cup (L \cap \text{UI}_1) \cap \text{E}_1 = \rho_{\text{UI}_1}(\mathcal{H}) \cap \text{E}_1 \quad \text{(where UI} \cap \text{E}_1 = \text{UI}_1 \text{follows from the assumption UI}_2 \cap \text{E}_1 = \emptyset) \text{and} \rho_{\text{UI}_2}(\mathcal{H}_2) = H_2 \cup (L_2 \cap \text{UI}_2) = (H \cap \text{E}_2) \cup (L \cap \text{UI} \cap \text{E}_2) = (H \cup (L \cap \text{UI}_2) \cap \text{E}_2 = \rho_{\text{UI}_2}(\mathcal{H}) \cap \text{E}_2 \quad \text{(where UI} \cap \text{E}_2 = \text{UI}_2 \text{follows from the assumption UI}_1 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset). \text{Hence, our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,3)) is applicable, and we obtain BSD}_\mathcal{H}(\text{Tr}) \text{ and BSIA}^{\mathcal{H}_i \cup \mathcal{H}_j}_\mathcal{H}(\text{Tr}). \text{From the representation theorem for NDO (Theorem 4.2.16), we obtain NDO}(\text{ES}). \Box
\]

The derivation of a corresponding compositionality theorem for our novel property \( \text{NDO}^* \) is quite straightforward. Recall that the representation of \( \text{NDO}^* \) in \text{MAKS} is identical to the one for \( \text{NDO} \). The only difference between the two properties is that \( \text{NDO} \) requires that systems are input total while \( \text{NDO}^* \) does not. Since the input totality assumption is not used in the proof of Theorem 6.5.7, this proof also justifies the following theorem.

**Theorem 6.5.8.** Let \( \text{UI} \subseteq I, \text{UI}_1 \subseteq I_1, \) and \( \text{UI}_2 \subseteq I_2 \) be the sets of user inputs for \( \text{ES}, \text{ES}_1, \) and \( \text{ES}_2 \), respectively (\( \text{UI} = \text{UI}_1 \cup \text{UI}_2 \) holds).

If \( \text{NDO}^*(\text{ES}_1), \text{NDO}^*(\text{ES}_2), \text{UI}_1 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset \), and \( \text{UI}_2 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset \) then \( \text{NDO}^*(\text{ES}) \) holds. \( \Box \)

**Proof.** This proof is along the same lines as the proof of Theorem 6.5.7. \( \Box \)

### 6.5.4 Noninference

For a state-based system model, McLean showed that noninference is preserved under composition [McL94a].\(^6\) The following theorem recasts this result for the system model of event systems. We verify the theorem based on the representation of \( \text{NF} \) in \text{MAKS} and our compositionality theorems for BSPs.

**Theorem 6.5.9.** If \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}_1) \) and \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}_2) \) then \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}) \) holds. \( \Box \)

**Proof.** Let \( N_i = \emptyset \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Assume \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}_1) \) and \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}_2) \). From the representation theorem for \( \text{NF} \) (Theorem 4.2.20), we obtain that \( R_{\mathcal{H}_i}(\text{Tr}_1) \) holds for all \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). From Example 6.3.3, we know that the views \( \mathcal{H}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) constitute a proper separation of the view \( \mathcal{H} \). The composition of \( \text{ES}_1 \) and \( \text{ES}_2 \) is well behaved wrt. \( \mathcal{H}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because \( N_1 \cap \text{E}_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap \text{E}_1 = \emptyset \) follow from \( N_1 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 = \emptyset \). We obtain from our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.2(1)) that \( R_{\mathcal{H}_i}(\text{Tr}_1) \) holds. From the representation theorem for \( \text{NF} \) (Theorem 4.2.20), we obtain \( \text{NF}(\text{ES}). \Box \)

\(^6\)O’Halloran already presented a compositionality result for noninference [O’H90]. However, his definition of noninference differs from the one used to date (cf. Section 4.2.4). Moreover, given that nondeducibility on strategies, \text{SNNI}, and may-noninference are equivalent to noninference (cf. Section 4.2.4), Milner’s compositionality result for nondeducibility on strategies [Mil90], Focardi and Gorrieri’s compositionality result for \text{SNNI}, and Schneider’s compositionality result for may-noninference [Sch01] are also related.
6.5.5 Generalized Noninference

For a state-based system model, McLean derived a theorem that implies that generalized noninference is preserved under product [McL94a, Theorem 3.2]. The following theorem recasts this result for the system model of event systems.

**Theorem 6.5.10.** If $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, and $ES_1$ is composed with $ES_2$ by a product then $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds. \hfill \Box

**Proof.** Assume $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, and $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ (product). From the representation theorem for $\text{GNF}$ (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain that $R_{\mathcal{H}_i}(Tr_i)$ holds for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follow from $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$. We obtain from our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.2(1)) that $R_{\mathcal{H}_i}(Tr)$ holds. From the representation theorem for $\text{GNF}$ (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain $\text{GNF}(ES)$. \hfill \Box

A limitation to product (as in Theorem 6.5.10 above) is a severe restriction because the components cannot communicate with each other. McLean proposed two alternative compositionality results for generalized noninference that are more liberal wrt. inter-component communication, namely that generalized noninference is preserved under cascade if the first component satisfies noninference and that generalized noninference is preserved under cascade if the second component satisfies generalized noninference. The following two theorems recast these results for event systems.

**Theorem 6.5.11.** If $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, $\text{NF}(ES_1)$, and $ES_1$ is composed with $ES_2$ by a general cascade then $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds. \hfill \Box

**Proof.** Let $V_1 = L_1$, $N_1 = \emptyset$, $C_1 = H_1$, $V_2 = L_2$, $N_2 = H_2 \setminus I_2$, and $C_2 = H_2 \cap I_2$. Assume $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, $\text{NF}(ES_1)$, and $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ (general cascade). From the representation theorems for $\text{NF}$ (Theorem 4.2.20) and $\text{GNF}$ (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain $R_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)$ and $R_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$. The views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of $\mathcal{H}$ because $L \setminus E_1 = L_1$, $L \cap E_2 = L_2$, $H \cap I \cap E_1 = H_1 \cap I \subseteq H_1$, $H \cap I \cap E_2 = H_2 \cap I \cap E_2 \subseteq H_2 \cap I_2$, and $\emptyset \cap (H_2 \setminus I_2) = \emptyset$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follow from $N_1 = \emptyset$ and $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$. We obtain from our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.2(1)) that $R_{\mathcal{H}_i}(Tr)$ holds. From the representation theorem for $\text{GNF}$ (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain $\text{GNF}(ES)$. \hfill \Box

**Theorem 6.5.12.** If $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, $\text{GNI}(ES_2)$, and $ES_1$ is composed with $ES_2$ by a general cascade then $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds. \hfill \Box

**Proof.** Let $N_i = H_i \setminus I_i$ and $C_i = H_i \cap I_i$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Assume $\text{GNF}(ES_1)$, $\text{GNF}(ES_2)$, $\text{GNI}(ES_2)$, and $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ (general cascade). From the representation theorems for $\text{GNF}$ (Theorem 4.2.22) and $\text{GNI}$ (Theorem 4.2.3), we obtain $R_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)$, $R_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$, $\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_2)$, and $\text{BSH}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ and $N_2 \cap I_2 = \emptyset$, 

• $\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ follows from $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$, and

• $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)$ follows from $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ and Theorem 3.5.9

for an arbitrary function $\rho_2$ from views in $E_2$ to subsets of $E_2$. Hence, our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.2(1)) is applicable, and we obtain $R_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)$. From the representation theorem for $\text{G}N\text{F}$ (Theorem 4.2.22), we obtain $\text{G}N\text{F}(ES)$. □

Note that Theorem 6.5.11 holds for similar reasons as Theorem 6.5.10, namely, corrections in one component cannot have an effect on the other component and vice versa (i.e. $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset = N_2 \cap E_1$ holds). However, this is ensured by different means: by restricting composition to product (in Theorem 6.5.10) and by restricting composition to general cascade in combination with requiring $\text{NF}$ to hold for the first component (in Theorem 6.5.11). In contrast to this, Theorem 6.5.12 holds for a different reason. Namely, corrections in the first component of a cascade can cause perturbations for the second component (i.e. $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$, $\text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$, and $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2}(Tr_2)$ hold). Differences and similarities of this kind will be investigated in more detail in Section 6.6, where we also present a classification of compositionality results.

### 6.5.6 Separability

McLean showed that separability is preserved under composition, in general [McL94a]. Separability is a pretty restrictive property because it prevents information flow between the high level and the low level in both directions. In other words, it logically simulates a physical air-gap between the two levels (cf. Section 4.2.6). Hence, it is quite natural that this property is preserved under composition. Let us recast this result for the system model of event systems and let us demonstrate how it can be verified with our approach.

**Theorem 6.5.13.** If $\text{SEP}(ES_1)$ and $\text{SEP}(ES_2)$ then $\text{SEP}(ES)$ holds. □

**Proof.** Let $N_i = \emptyset$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Assume $\text{SEP}(ES_1)$, and $\text{SEP}(ES_2)$. From the representation theorem for $\text{SEP}$ (Theorem 4.2.24), we obtain that $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_i}(Tr_i)$ and $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}_i}^{\rho_i}(Tr_i)$ hold for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.3, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follow from $N_1 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 = \emptyset$. The side conditions of Theorem 6.4.1(3) are also fulfilled: $\rho_C(\mathcal{H}_1) = H_1 = H \cap E_1 = \rho_C(\mathcal{H}_2) = H_2 = H \cap E_2 = \rho_C(\mathcal{H}) \cap E_2$. Hence, our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,3)) is applicable, and we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)$ and $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_C}(Tr)$. From the representation theorem for $\text{SEP}$ (Theorem 4.2.24), we obtain $\text{SEP}(ES)$. □

### 6.5.7 Perfect Security Property

Zakinthinos and Lee [ZL97] introduced the perfect security property as an alternative to separability that is less restrictive wrt. non-critical information flow from the low level to the high level (cf. Section 4.2.7). They also showed that the perfect security property is a composable property. We now show how easily this result can be verified using our approach.

**Theorem 6.5.14.** If $\text{PSP}(ES_1)$ and $\text{PSP}(ES_2)$ then $\text{PSP}(ES)$ holds. □
Proof. Let \( N_i = \emptyset \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Assume \( \text{PSP}(ES_1) \), and \( \text{PSP}(ES_2) \). From the representation theorem for \( \text{PSP} \) (Theorem 4.2.26), we obtain that \( BSD_H(T_{n_i}) \) and \( BSIA^R_H(T_{n_i}) \) hold for all \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). From Example 6.3.3, we know that the views \( H_1 \) and \( H_2 \) constitute a proper separation of the view \( H \). The composition of \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) is well behaved wrt. \( H_1 \) and \( H_2 \) (condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6) because \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) follow from \( N_1 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 = \emptyset \). The side conditions of Theorem 6.4.1(3) are also fulfilled: \( \rho_E(H_1) = E_1 = E \cap E_1 = \rho_E(H) \cap E_1 \) and \( \rho_E(H_2) = E_2 = E \cap E_2 = \rho_E(H) \cap E_2 \). Hence, our compositionality theorem for \( \text{BSPs} \) (Theorem 6.4.1(3)) is applicable, and we obtain \( BSD_H(T_r) \) and \( BSIA^R_H(T_r) \). From the representation theorem for \( \text{PSP} \) (Theorem 4.2.26), we obtain \( \text{PSP}(ES) \). \( \square \)

This concludes the illustration of our approach to verifying compositionality theorems for information flow properties. We are now ready to elaborate a more structured perspective on the derived results.

6.6 A Classification of Compositionality Results

Verifying a given information flow property means showing that every modification of a possible trace resulting from a perturbation can be corrected to a possible trace as permitted by this property. During the analysis of complex systems, perturbations of the overall traces are reduced to perturbations of the component traces, these local perturbations are corrected independently for each component, and a possible trace of the overall system is constructed from the corrected component traces such that it constitutes a correction of the initial perturbation. The key problem in this process is that local corrections of a perturbation for one component may have an effect on other components. This can make it difficult, or even impossible, to construct a valid trace of the overall system from the component traces. For example, if two systems \( ES_1 \) and \( ES_2 \) that each satisfy generalized noninference are composed by a proper cascade then correcting the removal of all high-level inputs in the trace of the first component may involve the insertion of high-level outputs. Since high-level outputs of \( ES_1 \) are high-level inputs of \( ES_2 \), this means that the trace of \( ES_2 \) is perturbed by inserting high-level inputs and it is not ensured that this perturbation can be corrected because generalized noninference ensures only that the removal of high-level inputs can be corrected. Hence, generalized noninference is not amenable to a modular information flow analysis.\(^7\)

There are three solutions to the problem that inter-component communication might interfere with a modular information flow analysis. The first solution is to ensure for each component that local corrections do not cause perturbations for the respective other component or, in other words, that both components are polite to each other. This means that the local corrections in each component are restricted to events not used for inter-component communication or, more formally, that \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) hold. The second solution is to tackle the problem of inter-component communication in the local information flow analysis of a single component. More specifically, this means that corrections in this component do not cause perturbations for the other component (like in the first solution) and that this component can correct all perturbations that are caused by the other component (unlike in the first solution). In other words, there is a component that is polite as well as tolerant to the other component. Formally, this means that either \( N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) or \( N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) must hold in addition to conditions that ensure the possibility to locally correct perturbations caused by

\(^7\)In fact, generalized noninference is not preserved under cascade, in general [Zak96].
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the other component. The third solution is to not constrain the local corrections permitted in
the components (neither $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ nor $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ holds) but rather to ensure that each
component can correct all perturbations caused by the respective other component. In other
words, each component is tolerant wrt. the effects of corrections in the other component.

Interestingly, the justification for each compositionality theorem that we have presented
in Section 6.5 is based on one of these three solutions. This leads to three classes of composi-
tionality theorems where theorems in the same class can be justified with the same argument,
which means that they hold for a similar reason. In the remainder of this section, we classify
all compositionality theorems from Section 6.5 and discuss the similarities and differences
between the theorems within each class.

Theorems for the Composition of Polite Components (p/p). Compositionality the-
orems in this class avoid interferences of inter-component communication with a modular
information flow analysis by restricting the permitted corrections in both components. That
is, both components are forced to be polite to each other wrt. their connections. Preventing
local corrections in one component from affecting the other component ensures that the local
information flow analyses of the components do not interfere with each other.

We have identified three approaches to ensure that $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ hold.
The first approach is to restrict composition to product. Since $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ holds for
composition by product, $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ also hold. An example for a theorem
based on this approach is the preservation of GNF under product (cf. Theorem 6.5.10).

The second approach is to choose local views for the components that consider each event
either as visible or as confidential (i.e. $N_1 = \emptyset = N_2$ holds). For a two-level security policy, this
means that all high-level events are confidential (and not, e.g., only high-level input events)
or, in other words, the view $\mathcal{H} = (L, \emptyset, H)$ must be used. The compositionality results for
NO (cf. Theorem 6.5.7), for NDO* (cf. Theorem 6.5.8), for NF (cf. Theorem 6.5.9), for SEP
(cf. Theorem 6.5.13), and for PSP (cf. Theorem 6.5.14) all follow this approach.

The third approach is to ensure one of $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ by restricting
composition and to ensure the other condition by restricting the view of one component. For
example, the result that GNF is preserved under general cascade if the first component satisfies
NF (cf. Theorem 6.5.11) follows this approach. Namely, the restriction to general cascade
ensures that $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ holds (follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$ and $\mathcal{H}I_2 = (L_2, H_2 \setminus I_2, H_2 \cap I_2)$)
and $NF(ES_1)$ ensures that $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ holds (follows from $H_1 = (L_1, \emptyset, H_1)$).

Compositionality Theorems for a Component that is Polite and Tolerant (pt).
Compositionality theorems that belong to this class reduce the global problem that inter-
component communication might interfere with a modular information flow analysis to the
following local problem of a single component: firstly, corrections in this component may not
cause perturbations for the other component and, secondly, it must be possible to correct
all perturbations that are caused by the other component, i.e. $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ or $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$
must hold. That is, this component must be polite to the other component wrt. its own
corrections and, at the same time, it must be tolerant wrt. the effects of corrections in the
other component. To simplify the presentation, let us focus on the case $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$.

The condition $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ can be established by restricting composition to general cascade
(implies $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq O_1 \cap I_2$) and to choose a view for the second component such that $N_2$
contains no input events, i.e. $I_2 \cap N_2 = \emptyset$. That it is possible to correct all perturbations in $ES_2$
that are caused by corrections in $ES_1$ is ensured by requiring an appropriate information flow property for $ES_2$. Since corrections in $ES_1$ may involve the deletion of occurrences of events in $N_1$ as well as their insertion, this information flow property must ensure that it is possible to correct the insertion as well as the deletion of events in $N_1 \cap C_2$ for $ES_2$. This is the case if $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_2)$, $total(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$, and $BSIA^{PC}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ hold. Examples for compositionality theorems that are based on this approach are the preservation of $GNI$ under general cascade (cf. Theorem 6.5.1) and the preservation of $GNI^*$ under general cascade (cf. Theorem 6.5.2). Another compositionality result based on this approach is that $GNI$ is preserved under general cascade if $GNI(ES_2)$ holds (cf. Theorem 6.5.12).

In analogy to the first class of compositionality theorems, a natural alternative to satisfy $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ would be to limit the view of $ES_2$ such that $N_2 = \emptyset$ holds. In our presentation, this possibility is quite obvious but we are not aware of any known compositionality results that follow these lines. However, using our approach, the derivation of a compositionality theorem that can be justified along these lines becomes a straightforward task.

**Theorem 6.6.1.** If $GNI(ES_1)$, $SEP(ES_2)$, and $total(ES_2, H_2)$ then $GNI(ES)$ holds. \(\diamond\)

**Proof.** Let $N_1 = H_1 \setminus I_1$, $C_1 = H_1 \cap I_1$, $N_2 = \emptyset$, and $C_2 = H_2$. Assume $GNI(ES_1)$, $SEP(ES_2)$, and $total(ES_2, H_2)$. From the representation theorems for $GNI$ (Theorem 4.2.3) and $SEP$ (Theorem 4.2.24), we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)$, $BSH_{\mathcal{H}_1}(Tr_1)$, $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$, and $BSIA^{PC}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$. From the proof of Theorem 6.5.11, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follows from $N_2 = \emptyset$,
- $total(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ holds by assumption, and
- $BSIA^{PC}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ follows by $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ and $BSIA^{PC}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$.

$BSD_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ implies $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ (cf. Theorem 3.5.2) and $BSIA^{PC}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$ imply $BSH_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr_2)$. Hence, our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,2)) is applicable, and we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr)$ and $BSH_{\mathcal{H}_2}(Tr)$. From the representation theorem for $GNI$ (Theorem 4.2.3), we obtain $GNI(ES)$. \(\square\)

**Theorems for the Composition of Tolerant Components (t/t).** Compositionality theorems in this class require that it is possible to correct for each component the perturbation caused by the respective other component. That is, each component must be tolerant wrt. the effects of corrections in the other component. For a two-level security policy, this means, on the one hand, that it must be possible to locally correct the insertion and deletion of high-level communication events in traces of $ES_2$ that are caused by local corrections in $ES_1$ and, on the other hand, that it must be possible to locally correct the insertion and deletion of high-level communication events in traces of $ES_1$ that are caused by local corrections in $ES_2$. Moreover, it must be ensured that the overall process of locally correcting perturbations terminates.

This can be achieved by requiring suitable instances of $BSD$, $BSIA^\rho$, and $FCIA^{\rho,1}$ for each component. The compositionality theorems for $FC$ (cf. Theorem 6.5.5) and for $FC^*$ (cf. Theorem 6.5.6) are based on this approach.
**Insights and Implications.** Note that compositionality theorems may belong to the same class although they impose different restrictions on the form of composition. For example, the class \((p/p)\) contains compositionality theorems that restrict composition to product, theorems that restrict composition to general cascade, and theorems that permit general composition. Our classification differs from previous ones (e.g., the one in [McL94a]) as we do not classify merely according to restrictions on the form of composition but rather according to the *effect of all constraints* (including restricted forms of composition, the choice of views with \(N = 0\), and the use of restrictive information flow properties). This reveals similarities between previously unrelated compositionality results: for example, \(GNF\) is preserved under product (cf. Theorem 6.5.10) for reasons similar to why the perfect security property is preserved under general composition (cf. Theorem 6.5.14).

Our classification of compositionality theorems is summarized in Table 6.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>class</th>
<th>preserved property</th>
<th>side conditions</th>
<th>theorem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(NDO)</td>
<td>low-level user inputs must not be connected</td>
<td>6.5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(NDO^*)</td>
<td>low-level user inputs must not be connected</td>
<td>6.5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(NF)</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>6.5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(GNF)</td>
<td>composition restricted to product</td>
<td>6.5.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(GNF)</td>
<td>composition restricted to general cascade, (ES_1) satisfies (NF)</td>
<td>6.5.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(SEP)</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>6.5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((p/p))</td>
<td>(PSP)</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>6.5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((pt))</td>
<td>(GNI)</td>
<td>composition restricted to general cascade</td>
<td>6.5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((pt))</td>
<td>(GNI)</td>
<td>(ES_2) satisfies (SEP), total((ES_2, C_2))</td>
<td>6.6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((pt))</td>
<td>(GNI^*)</td>
<td>composition restricted to general cascade, total((ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1))</td>
<td>6.5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((pt))</td>
<td>(GNF)</td>
<td>composition restricted to general cascade, (ES_2) satisfies (GNI)</td>
<td>6.5.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((t/t))</td>
<td>(FC)</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>6.5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((t/t))</td>
<td>(FC^*)</td>
<td>total((ES_1, I_1 \cap H_2)), total((ES_2, I_2 \cap H_1))</td>
<td>6.5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1: Classification of known compositionality results

**Alternative Approaches to Derive Compositionality Theorems.** In Section 6.5, we have verified compositionality theorems for complex information flow properties with the help of the modular representations of these properties in MAKS and our compositionality theorems for BSPs. Based on these theorems, further compositionality theorems can be derived by exploiting the taxonomy of information flow properties (cf. Section 4.3). For example, since \(GNI\) is preserved under general cascade and since \(SEP(ES_2)\) and total(\(ES_2, H_2 \cap I_2\)) together imply \(GNI(ES_2)\), we obtain the following corollary:\(^8\)

**Corollary 6.6.2.** If \(GNI(ES_1)\), \(SEP(ES_2)\), and total(\(ES_2, H_2 \cap I_2\)) hold and \(ES_1\) and \(ES_2\) are composed by general cascade then \(GNI(ES)\) holds.

Obviously, numerous further compositionality theorems could be obtained along these lines.

---

\(^8\)A similar result has also been presented in [McL94a].
Another possibility is to replace the form of composition in a compositionality theorem by a more restrictive form of composition. Since every product is also a general cascade (cf. Theorem 6.2.8), we obtain, for example, the following corollary.

**Corollary 6.6.3.** If $\text{GNI}(ES_1)$, $\text{SEP}(ES_2)$, and $\text{total}(ES_2, H_2 \cap I_2)$ hold and $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ are composed by product then $\text{GNI}(ES)$ holds.

Given the results of the current chapter and of Chapter 4, the above results are not very surprising. In the next section, we obtain a more interesting novel compositionality theorem.

### 6.7 A Novel Composable Information Flow Property

In this section, we show that there is an information flow property that implies generalized noninterference, that is less restrictive than Johnson and Thayer’s forward correctability [JT88], and that is preserved under arbitrary compositions. The existence of such an information flow property comes somewhat as a surprise because the possibility to further improve this line of composable information flow properties had remained unnoticed since the advent of forward correctability\(^9\) and also because a statement by Zakinthinos and Lee suggested that no further improvement in this line of properties would be possible [ZL96] (cf. Remark 6.7.7).

#### 6.7.1 Weakened Forward Correctability

Let us recall the representation of forward correctability in MAKS from Theorem 4.2.11:

$$FC(ES) \Leftrightarrow BSD_{H^1}(Tr) \land BSI_{H^1}(Tr) \land FCD_{H^1}^{FC}(Tr) \land FCI_{H^1}^{FC}(Tr).$$

Based on this modular representation, we analyze how the restrictions of $FC$ can be relaxed while retaining compositionality as well as the implication of $GNI$. Since $GNI$ implies $BSD_{H^1}(Tr)$ and $BSI_{H^1}(Tr)$ (cf. Theorem 4.2.5), the first two conjuncts in the representation of $FC$ cannot be discarded. However, the conjunction $BSD_{H^2}(Tr)$ and $BSI_{H^2}(Tr)$ does not constitute an information flow property that is composable in general and, therefore, additional BSPs must be added. Let us re-investigate the proof of Theorem 6.5.5 (compositionality of $FC$) in order to determine which other BSPs are needed. In this proof, the fact that the third conjunct in the representation of $FC$ holds for each of the components (i.e. $FCD_{H^1}^{T_1}(Tr_1)$ and $FCD_{H^2}^{T_2}(Tr_2)$ holds for $\Gamma_1 = (I_1, \emptyset, I_1)$ and $\Gamma_2 = (I_2, \emptyset, I_2)$) is only used in the argument that $FCD_{H^1}^{FC}(Tr)$ holds for the overall system (where $\Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I)$). This means, the third conjunct is not needed for the preservation of $BSD$, $BSI$, or $FCI^{FC}$ and, consequently, it can be discarded without loosing compositionality. In contrast to this, the fourth conjunct (namely $FCI_{H^1}^{FC}(Tr)$) cannot be discarded. This conjunct is used in the argument that the composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $H_1$ and $H_2$ (cf. Definition 6.3.6). However, it is possible to relax the parameters of $FCI^{FC}$ without loosing compositionality. More specifically, $\Delta = \emptyset$ can safely be relaxed to $\Delta = E \setminus (I \cup O)$. This is because condition 5(e) in the definition of a well-behaved composition does not imply that

\(^9\)Recall that forward correctability itself is an improvement of McCullough’s restrictiveness [McC87] in the sense that it is less restrictive, that restrictiveness is an improvement of generalized noninterference [McC87] in the sense that it is composable, and that generalized noninterference is an improvement of Sutherland’s nondeducibility [Sut86] in the sense that it is a better security property (also cf. Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2).
the sets $\Delta_1$ and $\Delta_2$ must be empty. Rather, only $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ need to hold. These conditions are satisfied, e.g., if $\Delta_1$ and $\Delta_2$ contain only internal events, i.e. if $\Delta_1 = E_1 \setminus (I_1 \cup O_1)$ and $\Delta_2 = E_2 \setminus (I_2 \cup O_2)$ hold. This means $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}(\text{Tr})$ can be replaced by $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{WFC}}(\text{Tr})$ (where $\Gamma_{\text{WFC}} = (I, E \setminus (I \cup O), I)$) without losing compositionality.$^{10}$

This results in the following definition of weakened forward correctability.

**Definition 6.7.1 (Weakened forward correctability).** Let $\Gamma_{\text{WFC}} = (I, E \setminus (I \cup O), I)$.

\[
\text{WFC}(ES) \equiv \text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}^2}(\text{Tr}) \land \text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}(\text{Tr}) \land \text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{WFC}}(\text{Tr}).
\]

6.7.2 Integration into Taxonomy

In comparison to forward correctability, weakened forward correctability does not require any instance of FCD. Moreover, it requires $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{WFC}}(\text{Tr})$ instead of $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{FC}}(\text{Tr})$.

The following theorem shows that weakened forward correctability implies generalized noninterference and that weakened forward correctability is implied by forward correctability.

**Theorem 6.7.2 (Ordering information flow properties).** The following implications are valid for every event system $ES$:

- $\text{WFC}(ES) \implies \text{GNI}(ES)$
- $\text{FC}(ES) \implies \text{WFC}(ES)$

**Proof.** The two implications follow immediately from Definition 6.7.1 and Theorems 4.2.3, 4.2.11, and 3.5.14. \hfill \Box

The following example demonstrates that weakened forward correctability is indeed strictly less restrictive than forward correctability in the sense that there are systems for which weakened forward correctability holds but for which forward correctability does not hold.

**Example 6.7.3.** Let $\text{SES}_{\text{WFC}} = (S_{\text{WFC}}, s_0, E_{\text{WFC}}, I_{\text{WFC}}, O_{\text{WFC}}, T_{\text{WFC}})$ be the state-event system with $S_{\text{WFC}} = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4\}$, $I_{\text{WFC}} = \{hi, li\}$, $O_{\text{WFC}} = \{ho, lo\}$, $E_{\text{WFC}} = I_{\text{WFC}} \cup O_{\text{WFC}}$, and

\[
T_{\text{WFC}} = \left\{ (s_0, hi, s_1), (s_0, ho, s_1), (s_0, li, s_4), \right. \\
\left. (s_1, hi, s_1), (s_1, ho, s_1), (s_1, li, s_2), \\
(s_2, hi, s_2), (s_2, ho, s_2), (s_2, li, s_2), (s_2, lo, s_3), \\
(s_3, hi, s_3), (s_3, li, s_3), \\
(s_4, hi, s_4), (s_4, ho, s_4), (s_4, li, s_4) \right\}
\]

The transition relation $T_{\text{WFC}}$ is also viewed in Figure 6.4. For notational convenience we use $ES$ and $Tr$ as abbreviations of $ES_{\text{SES}_{\text{WFC}}}$ and $Tr_{\text{SES}_{\text{WFC}}}$, respectively (i.e. the event system and the set of traces induced by $\text{SES}_{\text{WFC}}$).

Let $H = \{hi, ho\}$ and $L = \{li, lo\}$. For $\mathcal{H}I = \{\{li, lo\}, \{ho\}, \{hi\}\}$, we have $\text{BSD}_{\mathcal{H}^2}(\text{Tr})$, $\text{BSI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}(\text{Tr})$ and $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{WFC}}(\text{Tr})$ (as will be demonstrated in Example 6.7.5). Hence, $\text{WFC}(ES)$ holds. However, we do not have $\text{FC}(ES)$ because $\text{FCD}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{FC}}(\text{Tr})$ does not hold (where $\Gamma_{\text{FC}} = (I, \emptyset, I)$): For $\tau = \langle hi, li, lo \rangle$, we have $\tau \in Tr$ but, after deleting $hi$ in $\tau$, the only possible correction to a possible trace in $Tr$ that yields the same observation is $\langle ho, li, lo \rangle$. However, this correction requires the insertion of $ho$ before $li$, a correction that does not comply with the requirements of $\text{FCD}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{FC}}(\text{Tr})$.

$^{10}$Recall from Theorem 3.5.14(1) that $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{FC}}(\text{Tr})$ implies $\text{FCI}_{\mathcal{H}^2}^{\text{WFC}}(\text{Tr})$. 
6.7 Unwinding Theorem

Since less restrictive properties are easier to verify, weakened forward correctability seems to be, in general, preferable to forward correctability. Verification techniques for weakened forward correctability can be easily obtained by following the approach proposed in Chapter 5.

**Theorem 6.7.4 (Unwinding theorem).** Let $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$ and $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3 \subseteq S \times S$. If $lr_{f(H)}(T, \kappa_1)$, $lb_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$, $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa_3)$, $osch_{H}(T, \kappa_1)$, $osch_{H}(T, \kappa_2)$, and $osch_{H}(T, \kappa_3)$ hold then $WFC(ES_{SES})$ also holds. \hfill \Box

**Proof.** The theorem follows from Definition 6.7.1 and Theorem 5.3.1(1,2,5). \hfill \Box

Unlike in the unwinding theorem for forward correctability (cf. Theorem 5.5.5), the unwinding condition $fcrf$ is not required to hold and, moreover, instead of $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa_3)$, the less restrictive condition $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa')$ is required. Consequently, weakened forward correctability is not only a strictly less restrictive information flow property than forward correctability but also has less restrictive unwinding conditions.

**Example 6.7.5.** Based on Theorem 6.7.4, we are now ready to prove our claim from Example 6.7.3, i.e. that $WFC(ES)$ holds. For notational convenience, we abbreviate $S_{WFC}$, $E_{WFC}$, $I_{WFC}$, $O_{WFC}$, and $T_{WFC}$ in this example by $S$, $E$, $I$, $O$, and $T$, respectively.

Let $\kappa, \kappa' \subseteq S \times S$ be two relations that are defined as the smallest reflexive relations satisfying $s_0 \kappa s_0$, $s_0 \kappa' s_1$, and $s_4 \kappa' s_2$. For these relations, $lr_{f(H)}(T, \kappa)$, $lb_{H}(T, \kappa')$, $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa')$, $osch_{H}(T, \kappa)$, as well as $osch_{H}(T, \kappa')$ hold.

To prove that $lr_{f(H)}(T, \kappa)$ and $lb_{H}(T, \kappa')$ hold is a straightforward task because $hi$ is the only confidential event and, except for $(s_0, hi, s_1) \in T$, occurrences of $hi$ leave the state unchanged ($\kappa, \kappa'$ are reflexive). For $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa')$, only two transitions in $T$ require special attention, namely $s_0 \xrightarrow{hi} s_4$ and $s_1 \xrightarrow{hi} s_2$. However, since $s_0 \xrightarrow{(hi, h)} s_2$, $s_4 \kappa' s_2$, $s_1 \xrightarrow{(hi, h)} s_2$, and $s_2 \kappa' s_2$ hold, the condition $fcrb_{H}^{f_{WFC}}(T, \kappa')$ also holds. For proving $osch_{H}(T, \kappa)$ and $osch_{H}(T, \kappa')$, special attention is only required for $s_1 \kappa s_0$, $s_0 \kappa' s_1$, and $s_4 \kappa' s_2$. The only transition involving a visible event that is possible in $s_1$ is $s_1 \xrightarrow{hi} s_2$. The requirements of $osc$ are satisfied for $s_1 \kappa s_0$ because $s_0 \xrightarrow{(h, h)} s_2$ and $s_2 \kappa s_2$. The only transition involving a visible event that is possible in $s_0$ is $s_0 \xrightarrow{hi} s_4$. The requirements of $osc$ are satisfied for $s_0 \kappa' s_1$ because $s_1 \xrightarrow{(h, h)} s_2$ and $s_4 \kappa' s_2$. The only transition involving a visible event that is possible in $s_4$ is $s_4 \xrightarrow{hi} s_4$. The requirements of $osc$ are satisfied for $s_4 \kappa' s_2$ because $s_2 \xrightarrow{(h, h)} s_2$ and $s_4 \kappa' s_2$. From Theorem 6.7.4, we obtain that $WFC(ES)$ holds. \hfill \Box

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**Figure 6.4:** Transition relation from Example 6.7.3

6.7.3 Unwinding Theorem
6.7.4 Compositionality Theorem

We now show that weakened forward correctability is preserved under general composition.

**Theorem 6.7.6 (Compositionality of weakened forward correctability).** If $ES_1$ and $ES_2$, both, satisfy weakened forward correctability then $ES = ES_1 \parallel ES_2$ also satisfies weakened forward correctability.

**Proof.** For $i \in \{1, 2\}$, let $\mathcal{H}_i = (V_i, N_i, C_i)$ where $V_i = I_i$, $N_i = H_i \setminus I_i$, and $C_i = H_i \cap I_i$. Let $\Gamma_{WFC} = (\mathcal{H}, \nabla, \Upsilon)$ where $\nabla = I$, $\Delta = E \setminus (I \cup O)$, and $\Upsilon = I$. Moreover, let $\Gamma_i = (\nabla_i, \Delta_i, \Upsilon_i)$ where $\nabla_i = I_i$, $\Delta_i = E_i \setminus (I_i \cup O_i)$, and $\Upsilon_i = I_i$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Assume $WFC(ES_1)$ and $WFC(ES_2)$. From the representation of $WFC$ in MAKS (Definition 6.7.1), we obtain that $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_1}(\Gamma_1)$, $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(\Gamma_2)$ hold for all $i \in \{1, 2\}$. From Example 6.3.4, we know that the views $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ constitute a proper separation of the view $\mathcal{H}$. The composition of $ES_1$ and $ES_2$ is well behaved wrt. $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$ (condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6) because

- $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\rho_1}(\Gamma_1)$ and $BSIA_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2}(\Gamma_2)$ follow from $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_1}(\Gamma_1)$, $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(\Gamma_2)$, Theorem 3.5.9;
- $total(ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2)$ and $total(ES_2, C_2 \cap N_1)$ follow from $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_1}(\Gamma_1)$ and $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(\Gamma_2)$;
- $FCIA_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\rho_1, \Gamma_1}(\Gamma_1)$ and $FCIA_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\rho_2, \Gamma_2}(\Gamma_2)$ follow from $FCI_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{\Gamma_1}(\Gamma_1)$, $FCI_{\mathcal{H}_2}^{\Gamma_2}(\Gamma_2)$ and Theorem 3.5.13;
- $V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2$ follows from $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq (I_1 \cap O_2) \cup (I_2 \cap O_1)$, $\nabla_1 = I_1$ and $\nabla_2 = I_2$;
- $C_1 \cap N_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1$ and $C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2$ follow from $C_1 \subseteq I_1 = \Upsilon_1$ and $C_2 \subseteq I_2 = \Upsilon_2$; and
- $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ follow from $\Delta_1 = E_1 \setminus (I_1 \cup O_1)$, $\Delta_2 = E_2 \setminus (I_2 \cup O_2)$

for arbitrary functions $\rho_1$ and $\rho_2$ from views in $E_1$ to subsets of $E_1$ and from views in $E_2$ to subsets of $E_2$, respectively. Moreover, $(N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (N_2 \cap \Delta_2) \subseteq \Delta$ follows from $N_i \cap \Delta_i = (H_i \setminus I_i) \cap (E_i \setminus (I_i \cup O_i)) \subseteq H_i \setminus (I \cup O)$. The remaining side conditions of our compositionality theorem for BSPs (Theorem 6.4.1(1,2,5)) are also fulfilled, and we obtain $BSD_{\mathcal{H}_1}(\Gamma_1)$, $BSI_{\mathcal{H}_2}(\Gamma_2)$, and $FCI_{\mathcal{H}_1}^{WFC}(\Gamma_1)$. From the representation of $WFC$ in MAKS (Definition 6.7.1), we obtain $WFC(ES)$. \hfill \Box

**Remark 6.7.7.** Our results are in contrast to a statement by Zakinthinos and Lee that suggests that it would be impossible to relax the requirements of forward correctability without losing compositionality [ZL96]. The precise statement is: “forward correctability is the weakest condition of any [composable] property that solely eliminates the possible [sic!] of there being a condition on a low-level input event” [ZL96, page 100]. Note that weakened forward correctability satisfies this conditions because it only eliminates the possibility of a condition on a low-level input event (in Zakinthinos and Lee’s terminology) because $\nabla \cap V \subseteq I$ holds. \hfill \Box

6.8 Summary and Comparison to Prior Frameworks

In this chapter, we have proposed a uniform approach to deriving compositionality theorems for information flow properties. This approach simplifies the derivation of compositionality
theorems considerably, and the only prerequisite for applying it is that the information flow property under consideration must be represented in MAKS.

Rather than verifying compositionality theorems for every information flow property separately from scratch, our approach reduces the proof that a given information flow property is preserved under some form of composition to the proof that each basic ingredient of this property (i.e. each BSP from which it is assembled) is preserved under this form of composition. Using our approach, a given compositionality theorem is verified in four steps: firstly, one shows that the views for the components are a proper separation of the view for the overall system; secondly, one shows that the composition of the components is well behaved wrt. these views; thirdly, one proves the preconditions of the compositionality theorems for all BSPs from which the property is assembled; and, fourthly, one shows that the BSPs are preserved by applying these compositionality theorems. Given the representation of the information flow property in MAKS, this implies that the property is also preserved. The backbone of our approach to deriving compositionality theorems is the collection of compositionality results for BSPs that we have derived with the help of our generalized zipping lemma (cf. Section 6.4).

Using our uniform approach, we have derived several compositionality theorems for information flow properties. In particular, we have re-justified various known compositionality theorems from the literature. Thereby, we have demonstrated the generality of our approach. That the derived theorems are no more restrictive than the original ones means that the uniformity and generality of our approach does not come at the cost of the quality of the derived compositionality theorems. In addition to the re-justification of already known theorems, we have also derived novel compositionality theorems, namely for $GNI^*$, $FC^*$, and $NDO^*$. Moreover, we have discovered weakened forward correctability, a novel composable information flow property that constitutes an improvement of Johnson and Thayer's forward correctability [JT88], which itself is an improvement of McCullough's restrictiveness [McC87]. This contribution is not only interesting because the possibility to further improve this line of information flow properties has remained undetected for some time and because a statement by Zakinthisos and Lee suggested that such an improvement would not be possible (cf. Remark 6.7.7) but also because it provides evidence that our uniform approach to deriving compositionality theorems offers a new perspective on such results that is helpful in exploring new directions.\footnote{Recall from Section 6.7 that the development of weakened forward correctability was motivated by our re-justification of Johnson and Thayer's compositionality theorem for forward correctability.}

Another outcome of our investigations is a classification of compositionality theorems. This classification is based on the observation that there are three approaches to avoiding inter-component communication from interfering with a modular information flow analysis. Namely, one ensures either that no such interferences can be caused by the local information flow analysis of any component, or one tackles the problem of inter-component interaction in the local information flow analysis of a single component, or one ensures that each component can cope with the interferences caused by the respective other component. The justification of each compositionality theorem that we have presented in this chapter follows one of these three approaches. This led us to three classes of compositionality theorems: (p/p) i.e. both components are polite, (pt) i.e. one component is polite as well as tolerant, and (t/t) i.e. both components are tolerant. Interestingly, compositionality theorems that impose different restrictions on the form of composition may belong to the same class because we regard re-
stricting the form of composition only as one option for satisfying the conditions essential for the preservation of information flow properties under composition. This distinguishes our classification from McLean's classification that grouped compositionality theorems depending on which form of composition is assumed [McL94a, McL96]. The two classifications complement each other because McLean's classification clarifies better which compositionality theorems are applicable for a given system architecture while our classification clarifies better the reasons why a given compositionality theorem is valid.

Compositionality theorems have also been derived in the frameworks by McLean, by Focardi and Gorrieri, and by Zakinthinos and Lee. Focardi and Gorrieri derived compositionality theorems for noninference and forward correctability [FG95]. During the verification of these results, Focardi and Gorrieri applied rules of the process algebra SPA but, otherwise, could not exploit their representation of the investigated properties. The reason for this is that their framework lacks uniform concepts that are specifically targeted at representing information flow properties (cf. Section 4.4). In his thesis, Zakinthinos presents compositionality theorems for interleaving-based generalized noninterference, for noninference, generalized noninference, and the perfect security property [Zak96]. Unfortunately, the representation of these properties in the framework provides little support for simplifying the verification of these theorems. Except, for a simple (and somewhat straightforward) lemma that is used in the proofs of three compositionality theorems, each proof is constructed from scratch. In contrast to this, McLean's framework provides much more support for verifying compositionality theorems [McL94a, McL96]. The uniform concepts for representing information flow properties in his framework (selective interleaving functions) provide a basis for expressing general compositionality theorems that, once proven, can be instantiated for individual information flow properties. In this respect, McLean's approach to deriving compositionality theorems is closest to ours. However, technically it differs substantially. The main restriction of McLean's approach stems from the limited expressiveness of his framework (cf. Section 4.4 and Appendix B), which restricted him to the derivation of compositionality theorems for noninference, separability, interleaving-based generalized noninterference, and generalized noninference. Table 6.2 summarizes the compositionality theorems that have been derived in each of these frameworks. The entries in the table show that we have derived compositionality theorems for more properties than this has been done based on any other framework.

Summarizing, the approach to deriving compositionality results proposed in this chapter exploits the uniform representation of information flow properties in MAKs. Rather than verifying compositionality results for technically complex information flow properties directly, we verify them with the help of compositionality theorems for BSPs, which simplifies the

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12Other options are to use a restrictive view during the local information flow analysis of a component or to use a restrictive security predicate during the local information flow analysis.

13Here, we refer to the compositionality theorems for the operator || of SPA, which corresponds to our notion of composition. For completeness: Focardi and Gorrieri also presented a compositionality theorem for restrictiveness, i.e. an information flow property that is obsolete by now. In Focardi and Gorrieri's terminology, noninference, forward correctability, and restrictiveness are called strong nondeterministic noninterference, its-forward correctability, and its-restrictiveness, respectively.

14We have not derived compositionality results for IBGNI and IBGNI* because these properties are assembled from the non-strict BSPs D, I, and IA pc. Our generalized zipping lemma does not apply to these BSPs because it is tailored for causal BSPs (the definition of a well-behaved composition involves instances of BSIA pc and FCA pc). However, we are confident that compositionality results for these non-strict BSPs can be derived (using a different proof technique) such that compositionality results for IBGNI and IBGNI* (corresponding to the ones in [McL94a]) could also be re-justified based on MAKs, if desired.
Table 6.2: Compositionality theorems derived in prior frameworks

verification considerably. We have demonstrated the applicability of our approach by verifying compositionality results for several information flow properties. The only prerequisite for applying this approach is that the information flow property under consideration must be represented in MAKs. This general applicability is an appealing feature of our approach.

The compositionality results presented in this chapter and the unwinding results in Chapter 5, together, provide a basis for the modular verification of secure systems: Primitive system components are explicitly verified to be secure with the help of an unwinding theorem (from Chapter 5 and Section 6.7.3) and, when these components are composed, the security of the resulting system is ensured by applying a compositionality result (from the current chapter). How this approach can be applied during the verification of a complex system will be illustrated in detail in the case study to be presented in the following chapter.
Chapter 7

Case Study

7.1 Introduction

So far, we have applied our framework MAKS for deriving results about information flow properties: In Chapter 4, we have analyzed well known information flow properties from the literature and have compared them based on their representation in MAKS; in Chapter 5, we have developed unwinding techniques that exploit the modular representation of information flow properties in MAKS; and in Chapter 6, we have derived compositionality theorems also by exploiting the modularity of the representation. In this chapter, we want to go a step further by illustrating how our results can be used in concrete applications.

In the following sections, we explain how the various tasks during the construction of a formal security model can be performed. More specifically, we illustrate how a system’s behavior can be specified in an event-based setting, how a system’s security requirements can be expressed by information flow properties, how these security requirements can be verified for system components using our unwinding techniques, and how the security of the overall system can be verified with the help of our compositionality results. For each of these tasks, we briefly outline which subtasks must be addressed and then demonstrate how this can be done with a running example.

Our running example comes from the area of language-based security. A typical application scenario for language-based security techniques has been described by Sabelfeld and Sands [SS00]: Given you have confidential data as well as public data on your computer and you want to run an untrusted program (e.g. obtained from the Internet). The application (e.g. a spreadsheet) might require legitimate access to the confidential data in order to perform its task as well as legitimate communication with the supplier of the code (e.g. a registration process for all users). Nevertheless, you want to be sure that the program does not reveal any confidential data to the supplier of the code. After the program has been checked using some program analysis technique you know that it is “secure” (in some sense) to run this program. The objective of language-based security techniques is to check whether it is secure to execute a given program. These techniques do not aim at supporting the software engineer during the development of secure systems because they can only be applied to a system after it has been implemented. In this respect, program analysis techniques differ from the specification-based techniques considered in Chapters 3–6. To embed a particular program analysis technique into a more general specification-based framework is the objective of our case study.

Historically, the use of program analysis to rule out information leakage has been pioneered
by Denning [Den76, DD77]. More recent research in this direction has resulted in security type systems for Denning-style program analysis [VS96]. Security type systems can be used to mechanically check whether untrusted programs are "secure" in some sense. In other words, security analysis for a given program boils down to a fully automatic type check. Lately, it has become common practice that security type systems are accompanied by a formal soundness proof. These proofs increase the confidence in a type system by showing that if a program passes the type check then it also satisfies some more abstract security definition. This means, a soundness proof exemplifies in what sense a type-correct program is "secure". Given that early program analysis techniques did not feature formal soundness proofs, this is a desirable movement. However, one shortcoming is that the underlying security definitions lack a formal comparison to more established security properties and, therefore, often appear somewhat ad hoc. In particular, the relation of language-based security techniques and information flow properties in the spirit of noninterference had not been formally elaborated (although such a connection has often been conjectured [SV98, SS00]). To establish such a rigorous connection was the main motivation for performing our case study.

In this case study, we investigate an extension of Sabelfeld and Sands’s approach to language-based security [SS00] for a programming language that incorporates features for multi-threaded and distributed programming. We presume (from [SS00, SM02, MS03a]): the multi-threaded and distributed programming language DMWL, the language-based security definition strong security, a security type system, and a proof that all type-correct programs are also strongly secure. Using event systems, we model the behavior of DMWL processes and express their security requirements by an information flow property in MAK5. Finally, we show that this information flow property is implied by strong security. By relating strong security to a more established class of security definitions, our result adds to the understanding of strong security. Thereby, we further increase the confidence in this particular language-based security definition and the corresponding program analysis techniques (i.e. the security type system) for checking it.

Although the relation established by our case study is interesting in its own right, the focus in the current chapter is not on this original contribution. Rather, we use this case study to illustrate the various steps necessary in the construction of a formal security model and to point out how the results presented in previous chapters can be applied in the process.

Besides the domain of language-based security, i.e. the domain of the case study presented in the rest of this chapter, many other application domains for information flow properties can benefit from our results. Examples are the analysis of access control models [Rus92], the analysis of security protocols [FGG97, FGM99, FGM00, DFG00], the construction of formal security models for operating systems [SRS00], the security analysis of mobile devices [MSK01], and the specification of security requirements of multi-agent systems [HMS03, Sch03].

**Overview.** Section 7.2 provides some preliminaries on the language-based security techniques. A specification of DMWL processes with state-event systems is presented in Section 7.3. This specification models the semantics of DMWL. In Section 7.4, we demonstrate how the security requirements for a DMWL process can be expressed by an information flow property that we define in MAK5. In Section 7.5, we illustrate how our verification techniques

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1 For recent work on static analysis for security also cf. [HR98, SV98, Aga00, SS00, Lau01, ZM02, BN02, PHW02]. We refer to [SM03] to an up-to-date overview on language-based security.
can be exploited in a soundness proof for strong security and the security type system (for individual processes). The application of our compositionality results is demonstrated in Section 7.6 where we lift the soundness result to distributed programs (collections of processes). The case study presented in this chapter has also been performed in slightly different settings (in [MS01, SM02, MS03a]) that we review in Section 7.7. The main results of this Chapter are summarized in Section 7.8. This chapter is accompanied by an appendix that contains further details of the case study (cf. Appendix E).

### 7.2 Preliminaries on the Running Example

Sabelfeld and Sands’s investigated language-based security in the context of a simple multi-threaded programming language, the MWL language [SS00]. The MWL language is an imperative programming language that incorporates commands for assignments (\( \text{var} := \text{Exp} \)), conditional branching (\( \text{if } B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \)), while loops (\( \text{while } B \text{ do } C \)), and dynamic thread creation (\( \text{fork}(C, \vec{D}) \)).

 Concurrent threads communicate with each other via shared memory, i.e. via variables. Variables are classified either as high or low with the intuitive understanding that high variables initially contain private data while low variables only contain public data. The contents of high variables is not observable by adversaries (the ones who must not learn your private data) while the contents of low variables is (potentially) observable during program execution. In summary, the security requirement is: the initial value of high variables must not be leaked into low variables.

Before presenting more details, let us illustrate with examples the subtle possibilities for leaking information. For simplicity we assume in the following that there are only two variables: a high variable \( h \) and a low variable \( l \).

\[ l := h \] The value of \( h \) is simply copied into \( l \). This is an example of a so called explicit flow.

\[ \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } l := 1 \text{ else } l := 0 \] Depending on the value of \( h \) either the first or the second branch of the conditional is chosen and this fact is recorded in \( l \). In particular, if \( l = 1 \) holds after program execution then \( h = 1 \) did hold before program execution. This exemplifies a so called implicit flow.

\[ l := 0; (\text{while } h \neq 1 \text{ do skip}); l := 1 \] Depending on the value of \( h \), the program either terminates or not. If \( l = 1 \) holds then the program has terminated and the adversary knows that \( h = 1 \) did hold before program execution. This is an example for an information leak via termination behavior.

\[ l := 0; \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then sleep} 10000; l := 1 \] An attacker with a stop-watch can learn whether \( h = 1 \) or \( h \neq 1 \) holds by measuring the duration between the two assignments to \( l \). This is an example for an information leak via externally observable timing. Sabelfeld and Sands do not try to detect this kind of information leakage. However, they are interested in detecting the following more subtle possibility for information leakage.

---

2The command \( \text{fork}(C, \vec{D}) \) creates a vector \( \vec{D} \) of threads that run concurrently with the current thread that continues by executing the command \( C \).

3A restriction to only two variables \( h \) and \( l \) has also been made in [SS00]. However, this is only assumed for clarity of the presentation. It is not a principal limitation of the approach.

4Information leakage via externally observable timing can be prevented, for example, by denying untrusted programs access to high precision clocks.
fork\left(\begin{array}{l}
\text{if } h = 1 \text{ then while } h < 10000 \text{ do } h := h + 1; l := 0 \end{array}\right)

After execution of the fork-command, two threads run concurrently (i.e. \( l := 1 \) and if \( h = 1 \) then \( \ldots; l := 0 \)). The first thread sets \( l \) to 1 and the second thread sets \( l \) to 0 (possibly after consuming some time in the while loop). Apparently, the duration for executing the overall program depends on the initial value of \( h \). Hence, there is a danger of information leakage via externally observable timing. However, unlike in the previous example, information leakage is possible even if no clock is available. Obviously, the final value of \( l \) depends on whether \( l := 1 \) is executed before or after \( l := 0 \). With many schedulers (the likelihood of) the order in which these two commands are executed will depend on whether the loop is executed or not. If the loop is executed then it becomes more likely that the first thread executes its only command before the second thread executes its final command. Consequently, if \( h = 1 \) holds initially then it is more likely that \( l = 0 \) holds after program execution in comparison to the case where \( h \neq 1 \) holds initially. This is an example for an information leak \textit{via internally observable timing}.

Note that the danger of information leakage via internally observable timing heavily depends on the particular scheduler. For example, with a round-robin scheduler that deterministically selects the first thread after execution of a fork-command there would be no information leakage (\( l := 1 \) is always executed first). However, information leakage is possible, for instance, if the scheduler is a uniform probabilistic scheduler or a round-robin scheduler that deterministically selects the second thread after execution of a fork-command. However, the scheduler is typically not specified by the language definition (and therefore may vary from one implementation to another). In particular, the precise scheduler might not be known at the time of program analysis. In a worst-case scenario, the scheduler may even be chosen by the adversary. Therefore, it is desirable to have a security condition that does not depend on a particular scheduler. The \textit{strong security} definition proposed by Sabelfeld and Sands's is such a condition, i.e. it is scheduler independent wrt. a large class of schedulers including deterministic schedulers (e.g. round robin) as well as probabilistic schedulers (e.g. uniform).

Although the class of schedulers covered by strong security includes probabilistic schedulers, the strong security condition is a possibilistic property. This has been elaborated in [SS00], and a security type system for MWL has also been proposed. This type system is sound wrt. strong security in the sense that if a program passes a type check then it also satisfies strong security. A soundness result wrt. a different security condition that stems from a more established class of security properties, namely that of noninterference-like information flow properties has been elaborated in joint work by Sabelfeld and myself [MS01].

\textbf{Extension of MWL to DMWL.} Sabelfeld and Sands's results for MWL (including the definition of strong security, the security type system and the soundness proof) have been generalized in joint work by Sabelfeld and myself to the language DMWL [MS03a, SM02]. DMWL is an extension of MWL with (message-passing) communication primitives and a DMWL program may execute as multiple processes (each of which may have multiple threads). The (extended) program analysis techniques for DMWL constitute the starting point of our case study and are briefly introduced in the following.
7.2.1 Syntax and Semantics of DMWL

The language DMWL results from extending MWL with a non-blocking send command 
\( \text{send}(\text{cid}, \text{Exp}) \) and two receive commands, a blocking version \( \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \) and a non-blocking one \( \text{if-receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}, C_1, C_2) \). The syntax of DMWL commands is specified by the grammar in Figure 7.1. As usual, boolean expressions \( B \) range over \( BOOL \) and arithmetic expressions \( \text{Exp} \) range over \( EXP \). Let \( C, D \) (possibly with indices and primes) range over commands \( \text{CMD} \) (the DMWL-threads), and \( \bar{C}, \bar{D} \) range over vectors of commands \( \text{CMD} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \text{CMD}^n \). \( \text{VAR} \) denotes the set of variables (for simplicity \( \text{VAR} = \{ h, l \} \)), \( \text{VAL} \) denotes a set of (not further specified) values, and \( \text{CID} \) denotes a set of channel identifiers. Moreover, \( \text{var} \) denotes a variable in \( \text{VAR} \) and \( \text{cid} \) denotes a channel identifier in \( \text{CID} \).

\[
C ::= \text{skip} \mid \text{var} := \text{Exp} \mid C_1; C_2 \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } C \mid \text{fork}(C, \bar{D})
\]
\[
\mid \text{send}(\text{cid}, \text{Exp}) \mid \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \mid \text{if-receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}, C_1, C_2)
\]

Figure 7.1: Command syntax

The operational semantics of DMWL processes is defined in terms of local configurations.

**Definition 7.2.1 (Local configuration).** A local configuration for a process is a triple \( \{\bar{C}, \text{mem}, \sigma\} \) where \( \bar{C} \in \text{CMD} \), \( \text{mem} : \text{VAR} \to \text{VAL} \), and \( \sigma : \text{CID} \to \text{VAL}^* \).\( \diamond \)

The command vector \( \bar{C} \) in a local configuration models the state of all threads of the process. For \( \bar{C} = C_1 C_2 \ldots C_n \),\(^5\) the command \( C_i \) is to be executed by the \( i \)th thread of the process. The memory-status function \( \text{mem} \) models the state of the process, i.e. the values of all local variables. For example, \( \text{mem}(l) \) denotes the value of the variable \( l \). The threads of a process communicate with each other via these variables. However, variables are not intended for inter-process communication. Rather, inter-process communication follows the message-passing paradigm, i.e. messages are exchanged between processes via communication channels that can be thought of as links between processes. The channel-status function \( \sigma \) models the state of all communication channels of the overall system. For example \( \sigma(\text{cid}) \) denotes the sequence of messages that have been sent on the channel with identifier \( \text{cid} \) but that have not yet been delivered.

**Example 7.2.2.** Let \( \text{mem}(h) = 1 \), \( \text{mem}(l) = 0 \), \( \sigma(\text{cid}) = \emptyset \) (for all \( \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \)), and

\[
\bar{C} = \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{let } l := 1 \\
\text{if } h = 1 \text{ then do } h := h + 1; l := 0 \end{array} \right)
\]

Then \( \{\bar{C}, \text{mem}, \sigma\} \) is a local configuration that incorporates two concurrent threads, the memory \((1, 0)\), and a bunch of empty channels.\( \diamond \)

The deterministic part of the semantics is defined by transition rules between local configurations in Figure 7.2. Arithmetic and boolean expressions are executed atomically by \( \downarrow \) transitions. \( \downarrow^{\text{mem}} \text{val} \) denotes that \( \text{Exp} \in \text{EXP} \) evaluates to \( \text{val} \in \text{VAL} \) where the memory \( \text{mem} \) in the index is only important if \( \text{Exp} \) contains variables. Similarly, \( B \downarrow^{\text{mem}} \text{tt} \) and \( B \downarrow^{\text{mem}} \text{ff} \) denote that \( B \in \text{BOOL} \) evaluates to “true” and “false”, respectively.

\(^5\)For better readability, we usually omit angle brackets for command vectors.
commands with local effects only

[Skip]  \{\text{skip, mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[Assign]  \langle\text{var := } \text{Exp, mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem[var }\mapsto\text{ val]}, \sigma\}

[If\_u]  \langle\text{if } B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle C_1, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[If\_f]  \langle\text{if } B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[While\_u]  \langle\text{while } B \text{ do } C, \text{mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle C; \text{while } B \text{ do } C, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[While\_f]  \langle\text{while } B \text{ do } C, \text{mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[Fork]  \{\text{fork( } \bar{C}, \text{mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \{\bar{C}, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

communication commands

[Send]  \langle\text{send( } \text{cid, Exp, mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem, } \sigma[\text{cid }\mapsto\text{val}], \sigma[\text{cid}]}\}

[Receive]  \langle\text{receive( } \text{cid, var, mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem[\text{var }\mapsto\text{ val]}, \sigma[\text{cid }\mapsto\text{vals}]}\}

[IfRcv\_f]  \langle\text{if-receive( } \text{cid, var, C_1, C_2), mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\}

[IfRcv\_u]  \langle\text{if-receive( } \text{cid, var, C_1, C_2), mem, } \sigma\rangle \rightarrow \langle C_1, \text{mem[\text{var }\mapsto\text{ val]}, \sigma[\text{cid }\mapsto\text{vals}]}\}

sequencing

[Seq\_1]  \{C_1, \text{mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}

\langle C_1; C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}

[Seq\_2]  \{C_1, \text{mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}

\langle C_1; C_2, \text{mem, } \sigma\} \rightarrow \langle\rangle, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}

\text{Figure 7.2: Small-step deterministic semantics of commands}
A →-transition is deterministic and either has the form \( \{C, \text{mem}, \sigma\} \rightarrow \{\emptyset, \text{mem}', \sigma'\} \), which means termination of the thread with the final memory \( \text{mem}' \) and channel status \( \sigma' \), or \( \{C, \text{mem}, \sigma\} \rightarrow \{C', \text{mem}', \sigma'\} \), where \( C' \) is possibly empty. Here, one step of computation starting with command \( C \) in a memory \( \text{mem} \) and with channel status \( \sigma \) gives a new main thread \( C' \), a (possibly empty) vector \( D \) of spawned threads, a new memory \( \text{mem}' \), and a new channel status \( \sigma' \). For example, the rule [Assign] in Figure 7.2 applies to configurations that incorporate a single command \( \text{var} := \text{Exp} \). According to this rule, the assignment command is removed from the configuration after its execution, the memory is updated (\( \text{mem}[\text{var} \rightarrow \text{val}] \) maps \( \text{var} \) to \( \text{val} \) and maps all other variables like \( \text{mem} \)), and the channel status remains unchanged. If a configuration incorporates a single command if \( B \) then \( C_1 \) else \( C_2 \) then either the [IfL] or the [IfR]-rule applies. Which of the two rules is applicable depends on whether \( B \) evaluates to \( tt \) or \( ff \) in the current memory. The rule for the command \( \text{fork}(C, D) \), where \( D \) is required to be nonempty, dynamically creates a new vector \( D \) of threads that, afterwards, run in parallel with the main thread \( C \) (sequentially composed with the commands following the \( \text{fork} \)-command according to rule [Seq2]). This has the effect of adding \( D \) to the configuration.

The rules [Send], [Receive], [IfRecvFL], and [IfRecvFR] specify the semantics of commands for inter-process communication. Executing a \( \text{send} \)-command adds a message to a communication channel \( \sigma[cid] = \langle \text{val}, \sigma[cid] \rangle \) maps \( cid \) to \( \langle \text{val}, \sigma[cid] \rangle \) and maps all other channels like \( \sigma \) and executing a \( \text{receive} \)-command removes a message. A \( \text{receive} \)-command is only enabled if the given channel is nonempty. Besides this blocking version, which waits until there is a value on the channel, there also is a non-blocking version, the \( \text{if-receive} \)-command, which is always enabled. Depending on whether the given channel is empty or not, either the rule [IfRecvFL] or the rule [IfRecvFR] applies for this command. We assume that communication channels obey the FIFO-principle, i.e. messages sent first are received first.\(^6\)

The rule [Pick] in Figure 7.3 defines the concurrent semantics of DMWL. Whenever the scheduler (nondeterministically) picks a thread \( C_i \) in a process for execution, then a →-transition takes place updating the command, the memory, and the channel status according to a (small) computation step of \( C_i \) (i.e. a →-transition). It is assumed that the scheduler can decide to schedule a new thread after the execution of every single command.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{[Pick]} & : \{C, \text{mem}, \sigma\} \rightarrow \{\bar{C}, \text{mem}', \sigma'\} \\
\{C_1 \cdots C_n, \text{mem}, \sigma\} & \rightarrow \{C_1 \cdots C_{i-1} \bar{C} C_{i+1} \cdots C_n, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 7.3: Local concurrent semantics of programs

A distributed program is a collection \( \bar{C}_1, \ldots, \bar{C}_n \) of programs. The operational semantics of distributed DMWL programs is defined in terms of global configurations. A global configuration incorporates a pair \( (\bar{C}_i, \text{mem}_i) \) for each process. However, there is only a single channel status function for all processes.

**Definition 7.2.3 (Global configuration).** A **global configuration** is a tuple

\[\langle(\bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (\bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n); \sigma\rangle\]

where \( (\bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (\bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n) \) is a finite sequence of command vector/memory pairs and \( \sigma : CID \rightarrow VAL^* \) is a finite mapping from channel identifiers to sequences of values.

---

\(^6\)This assumption is not essential. For example, in [SM02] we did not assume the FIFO-principle.
The rule [Step] in Figure 7.4, defines the global semantics of DMWL programs. This rule ensures that a global transition (a \( \rightarrow \)-transition) takes place whenever a local transition (a \( \rightarrow \)-transition) occurs in some process.

\[
\text{[Step]} \quad \langle C_k, \text{mem}_k, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle C'_k, \text{mem}'_k, \sigma' \rangle
\]

\[
< (C_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (C_k, \text{mem}_k), \ldots, (C_n, \text{mem}_n); \sigma >
\rightarrow \langle (C_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (C'_k, \text{mem}'_k), \ldots, (C_n, \text{mem}_n); \sigma' \rangle
\]

Figure 7.4: Global concurrent semantics of programs

The reflexive and transitive closures of \( \rightarrow \) and \( \rightarrow^* \) are denoted by \( \rightarrow^* \) and \( \rightarrow^* \), respectively.

**Remark 7.2.4.** Note that the rule [Pick] is possibilistic (involving no probabilities). Although, it is, in general, important to explicitly model the scheduler for addressing flows that result from scheduling policies (possibly probabilistic), there is no reason to introduce explicit schedulers in the semantics here. This is because the security condition that we consider is scheduler independent (demonstrated in [SS00]).

### 7.2.2 Security Condition for DMWL

The definition of *strong security* is based on the notion of *low-bisimilarity*. A *low-bisimulation* \( \sim_L \) is a binary relation between DMWL commands. Intuitively, \( C \sim_L D \) expresses that, for the adversary, the behavior of \( C \) is indistinguishable from the behavior of \( D \).

Two states are indistinguishable for an adversary if they are equal in their low parts, i.e. if the values of low variables and low channels are identical in both states. In the following definitions, let \( \text{level} : (VAR \cup CID) \rightarrow \{\text{high, low}\} \) be a function that associates security levels with variables and channel identifiers such that \( \text{level}(h) = \text{high} \) and \( \text{level}(l) = \text{low} \). The intuition behind this association is that the values of high variables and the contents of high channels are not visible to the attacker while the values of low variables and the contents of low channels are fully observable.

**Definition 7.2.5 (Low-equality on memory).** Two mappings \( \text{mem}_1, \text{mem}_2 : VAR \rightarrow VAL \) are *low-equal*, denoted by \( \text{mem}_1 =_L \text{mem}_2 \), iff \( \text{mem}_1(\text{var}) = \text{mem}_2(\text{var}) \) holds for all \( \text{var} \in VAR \) with \( \text{level}(\text{var}) = \text{low} \) (i.e. if \( \text{mem}_1(l) = \text{mem}_2(l) \) holds).

**Definition 7.2.6 (Low-equality on channel status).** Two mappings \( \sigma_1, \sigma_2 : CID \rightarrow VAL^* \) are *low-equal*, denoted by \( \sigma_1 =_L \sigma_2 \), iff \( \sigma_1(\text{cid}) = \sigma_2(\text{cid}) \) holds for all \( \text{cid} \in CID \) with \( \text{level}(\text{cid}) = \text{low} \).

Two possible behaviors of (nondeterministic) programs are indistinguishable for a low-level observer if all corresponding states in the two behaviors are pairwise low-equal.

**Definition 7.2.7 (Low-bisimulation).** A *low-bisimulation* \( \sim_L \subseteq CMD \times CMD \) is a symmetric relation between command vectors of equal size such that whenever \( (C_1 \ldots C_n) \sim_L \)
\[ D_1 \ldots D_n \] then
\[
\forall \text{mem}_1, \text{mem}_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2. \forall \tilde{C'}, \text{mem}_1', \sigma_1', \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, n\},
(\{C_i, \text{mem}_1, \sigma_1\} \rightarrow \{\tilde{C'}, \text{mem}_1', \sigma_1'\} \land \text{mem}_1 = L \text{mem}_2 \land \sigma_1 = L \sigma_2
\Rightarrow \exists \tilde{D'}, \text{mem}_2', \sigma_2'.
(\{D_i, \text{mem}_2, \sigma_2\} \rightarrow \{\tilde{D'}, \text{mem}_2', \sigma_2'\} \land \text{mem}_2' = L \text{mem}_2 \\ \sigma_2' = L \sigma_2 \\ \tilde{C'} \sim_L \tilde{D'}
\]

Low-bisimilarity requires not only the low-observable parts of corresponding states to be equal but also individual \(\rightarrow\)-transitions to correspond. This is the basis for a timing-sensitive and scheduler-independent security condition.

**Definition 7.2.8 (Strong low-bisimulation).** Define strong low-bisimulation \(\cong_L \subseteq C\tilde{M}D \times C\tilde{M}D\) to be the union of all low-bisimulations.

Note that \(\cong_L\) is not a reflexive relation. In particular, a program that shows differences in its low-observable behavior for different low-equal starting states is not strongly low-bisimilar to itself. If a program shows differences in its low-observable behavior for states that differ only in values of high variables and high channels then there is a danger of information leakage. This means, a program that is not strongly low-bisimilar to itself may be insecure. This is the intuition underlying the definition of strong security.

**Definition 7.2.9 (Strong security).** A DMWL program \(\tilde{C}\) is strongly secure if and only if \(\tilde{C} \cong_L \tilde{C}\) holds.

Let us illustrate how strong security can be used to detect dangerous information leakage. In the following example, let \(\sigma\) be some arbitrary channel status function.

**Example 7.2.10 (Explicit flow).** The program \(l := h\) is not strongly secure. Choose \(\text{mem}_1 = (0, 0)\) (denotes \(\text{mem}_1(h) = 0, \text{mem}_1(l) = 0\)) and \(\text{mem}_2 = (1, 0)\) (i.e. \(\text{mem}_2(h) = 1, \text{mem}_2(l) = 0\)). Since \(\{l := h, (0, 0), \sigma\} \rightarrow \{(), (0, 0), \sigma\}\) and \(\{l := h, (1, 0), \sigma\} \rightarrow \{(), (1, 1), \sigma\}\) hold, the resulting memories are not low-equal, i.e. \((0, 0) \neq_L (1, 1)\) (although the initial memories are low-equal, i.e. \((0, 0) =_L (1, 0)\)).

More subtle examples of programs that are insecure according to Definition 7.2.9 can be found in Appendix E.2. The following example is an instance of a strongly secure program.

**Example 7.2.11 (Strongly secure program).** The program if \(h = 1\) then \(l := h+1\) else skip is strongly secure. Indeed, the timing behavior is independent of the value of \(h\), as well as the low variable \(l\). A suitable symmetric relation that makes this program low-bisimilar to itself is, e.g., the relation
\[
\begin{cases}
  \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } l := h + 1 \text{ else skip}, & \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } l := h + 1 \text{ else skip}, \\
  l := h + 1, & \text{skip}, h := h + 1, \\
  \text{skip, skip}, & ((), ())
\end{cases}
\]

For further examples, including algorithms for searching, sorting, and a simple file server, we refer to [SS00, AS01, SM02].

Definition 7.2.9 introduces strong security for programs consisting of a single vector of commands. Such programs are executed in a single (multi-threaded) process. The definition of strong security is extended to the distributed case in a straightforward way.

\[\footnote{An implicit assumption underlying the definition of strong security is that differences in the duration of \(\rightarrow\)-transitions do not have any impact on the scheduling behavior. This is, e.g., the case if there are no differences in the duration of different \(\rightarrow\)-transitions.}\]
Definition 7.2.12 (Strong security for distributed programs). A distributed program, i.e. a collection $\tilde{C}_1, \ldots, \tilde{C}_n$ of programs, is strongly secure if for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ the program $\tilde{C}_i$ is strongly secure.

To justify that Definition 7.2.12 is, indeed, a sensible definition of security for distributed programs is one of the main objectives of our case study.

7.2.3 Security Type System for DMWL

A security type system for program analysis of DMWL programs is presented in Figure 7.5. According to the typing rules, any expression may be typed $\text{high}$. On the other hand, only expressions that have no occurrences of $h$ are typed $\text{low}$ (i.e. expressions that can be safely used in assignments to $l$).

The type of a (secure) DMWL program $\tilde{C}$ (also referred to as its $\text{low slice}$) is a DMWL program that models the timing behavior of $\tilde{C}$ and in which no high variables occur. A type check of a given program either fails (program is insecure), succeeds directly (program is secure), or succeeds after transforming the program (into a secure one). The transformation rules in Figure 7.5 have the form $\tilde{C} \rightarrow \tilde{C}' : \tilde{S}l$, where $\tilde{C}$ is a program, $\tilde{C}'$ is the result of its transformation, and $\tilde{S}l$ is the low slice of $\tilde{C}'$. The objective of transforming a program by these rules is to make an insecure program strongly secure without changing its behavior in any essential way (assignment of values to variables and communication commands remain unaffected). More precisely, the transformation is capable of eliminating certain timing leaks.

For example, according to rule $[\text{Set}_{\text{low}}]$ in Figure 7.5, a command $l := \text{Exp}$ can be type checked (for type $l := \text{Exp}$) under the condition that no high variables occur in $\text{Exp}$. Otherwise, the program is rejected as insecure (identifying a potential explicit flow). In rule $[\text{If}_{\text{high}}]$, the effect of the transformation can be observed. For the security of a conditional with a high guard, it is essential that both branches make the same assignments to low variables/low channels and that their timing behavior is identical. In order to enforce identical timing behavior, the transformation sequentially composes the program in each branch with the low slice of the respective other branch. Namely, $\tilde{C}'_1$ is sequentially composed with the low slice $\tilde{S}l_2$ of $\tilde{C}'_2$ in the if-branch and the low slice $\tilde{S}l_1$ of $\tilde{C}'_1$ is sequentially composed with $\tilde{C}'_2$ in the else-branch (cf. rule $[\text{If}_{\text{high}}]$). Cross copying the low slices results in identical timing behavior of both branches. The condition $\text{all}(\tilde{S}l_1) = \text{all}(\tilde{S}l_2) = \text{ff}$ on the low slices that are cross copied ensures that no assignments to low variables and no communications on low channels are performed (preventing the introduction of implicit leaks in a conservative way). In order to avoid that the transformation introduces differences in the behavior on high variables, we employ the notation $\text{var}$ (where $\bar{l} = l$ and $\bar{h} = \cdot$) to indicate the case that $h$ is not updated after a reception (in rules $[\text{R}_{\text{low}}]$, $[\text{IR}_{\text{low}}]$). Type checking of composed programs is purely compositional (cf. rules $[\text{Seq}]$ and $[\text{Par}]$).

A successful type check of a given program in the presented security type system implies that the (possibly transformed) program is strongly secure, i.e. the type system is sound in this respect. The following soundness theorem is a specialization of a result in [SM02].

Theorem 7.2.13 ([SM02]). If $\tilde{C} \rightarrow \tilde{C}' : \tilde{S}l$ is derivable then $\tilde{C}'$ is strongly secure. 

In this section, we have briefly introduced the preliminaries for our case study. Now we are ready to move to the core of our case study in the next section.
## Expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Exp} : \text{high} \quad \frac{h \notin \text{Vars(Exp)}}{\text{Exp} : \text{low}} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Commands with local effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Skip} \quad \text{skip} \leftrightarrow \text{skip} : \text{skip} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Set}_{\text{low}} \quad l := \text{Exp} \leftrightarrow \text{l} := \text{Exp} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Set}_{\text{high}} \quad h := \text{Exp} \leftrightarrow \text{h} := \text{Exp} : \text{skip} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{If}_{\text{low}} \quad B : \text{low} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_2 : \text{S}_2 )</td>
<td>if ( B ) then ( \text{C}_1 ) else ( \text{C}_2 ) \leftrightarrow if ( B ) then ( \text{C}'_1 ) else ( \text{C}'_2 ) : if ( B ) then ( \text{S}_1 ) else ( \text{S}_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{If}_{\text{high}} \quad B : \text{high} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_2 : \text{S}_2 \quad \text{all(S}_1) = \text{all(S}_2) = \text{ff} )</td>
<td>if ( B ) then ( \text{C}_1 ) else ( \text{C}_2 ) \leftrightarrow if ( B ) then ( \text{C}'_1 ) else ( \text{C}'_2 ) : if ( B ) then ( \text{S}_1 ) else ( \text{S}_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{While} \quad B : \text{low} \quad \text{C} \leftrightarrow \text{C}' : \text{S} )</td>
<td>while ( B ) do ( \text{C} \leftrightarrow \text{C}' : \text{S} )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Fork} \quad \text{fork(C}_1\text{C}_2) \leftrightarrow \text{fork(C}'_1\text{C}'_2) : \text{fork(S}_1\text{S}_2) )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Communication commands where cid is high

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Communication command</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{S}_{\text{high}} \quad \text{send(cid, Exp)} \leftrightarrow \text{send(cid, Exp)} : \text{skip} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{IR}_{\text{high}} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_2 : \text{S}_2 \quad \text{all(S}_1) = \text{all(S}_2) = \text{ff} )</td>
<td>if-receive(cid, h, C1, C2) \leftrightarrow \text{if-receive}(\text{cid}, h, C'_1, S_1, C'_2, S_2) : \text{skip}; S_1; S_2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Communication commands where cid is low

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Communication command</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{S}_{\text{low}} \quad \text{send(cid, Exp)} \leftrightarrow \text{send(cid, Exp)} : \text{send(cid, Exp)} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{R}_{\text{low}} \quad \text{receive(cid, var)} \leftrightarrow \text{receive(cid, var)} : \text{receive(cid, var)} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{IR}_{\text{low}} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_2 : \text{S}_2 \quad \text{if-receive(cid, var, C}_1\text{C}_2) \leftrightarrow \text{if-receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}, C'_1, C'_2) : \text{if-receive(cid, var, S}_1\text{S}_2) )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Composed programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Composed program</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Seq} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_2 : \text{S}_2 )</td>
<td>( \text{C}_1; \text{C}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1; \text{S}_1; \text{S}_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{Par} \quad \text{C}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_1 : \text{S}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \text{C}_n \leftrightarrow \text{C}'_n : \text{S}_n )</td>
<td>( \langle \text{C}_1 \ldots \text{C}_n \rangle \leftrightarrow \langle \text{C}'_1 \ldots \text{C}'_n \rangle : \langle \text{S}_1 \ldots \text{S}_n \rangle )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

all(S1) is true whenever there is a syntactic occurrence of either an assignment to l or a communication primitive on low channels in the low slice S1.

Figure 7.5: Security typing of expressions and commands
7.3 Specifying System Behavior

We first briefly outline how the behavior of a system can be modeled by an event-based specification. Then we illustrate in detail how this can be done for our example. More precisely, we specify the behavior of DMWL processes by state-event systems.

7.3.1 How to Proceed

1. Select a formalism for specifying the system. If you model the system with event systems then proceed with 2. Otherwise, proceed with 3.

2. Specifying a system by an event system:
   
   (a) Model the interface of the system by two disjoint sets $I$ and $O$ of input events and output events, respectively.
   
   (b) Determine the set of all other events the system can engage in, i.e. the internal events. Define $E$ to be the union of $I$, $O$, and this set of internal events.

   (c) Model the possible behaviors of the system under consideration by a set $Tr \subseteq E^*$ of traces. The set $Tr$ must be non-empty and must be closed under prefixes.

3. Specifying system behavior with some other specification formalism:

   (a) Define a suitable mapping from the chosen specification formalism to event systems.

   (b) Specify the system in the specification formalism. The event system corresponding to this specification can be obtained by applying the previously defined mapping.

7.3.2 The Running Example

We follow the second approach in our case study, i.e. we perform steps 1 and 3(a,b).

Specification Formalism. We model the operational semantics of DMWL by a state-event system (cf. Definition 2.1.13).

Mapping into Event Systems. We use the mapping from state-event systems to event systems as specified in Definition 2.1.18.

System Specification. We proceed as follows: firstly, we model the interface, secondly, we model the internal actions, thirdly, we define the state space, fourthly, we specify the initial state, and finally, we model the possible behaviors by a transition relation. Each of these steps is performed for single processes and then it is explained how distributed systems with multiple processes are specified by composing specifications of individual processes. The resulting specification is an adequate model of DMWL programs as is shown in Appendix E.3.

Types used in the specification are summarized in Figure 7.6.
7.3 Specifying System Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abbreviation</th>
<th>description</th>
<th>comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>set of process identifiers</td>
<td>not further specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TID</td>
<td>set of thread identifiers</td>
<td>TID = IN*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CID</td>
<td>set of channel identifiers</td>
<td>not further specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR</td>
<td>set of variables</td>
<td>for simplicity: VAR = {h, l} is assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAL</td>
<td>set of values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THREAD</td>
<td>state of a thread</td>
<td>THREAD = CMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFO</td>
<td>scheduling information</td>
<td>INFO = (IN \cup {-1}) \times VAL \times \mathcal{P}(TID)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.6: Types used in the specification

**Interface Specification.** The interface of a single DMWL process is shown in Figure 7.7. The events `schedule` and `yield` model the actions of the scheduler. Since the scheduler is outside the language definition of DMWL (as usual for programming languages), the specification of the precise scheduler is not part of the process specification. An event `schedule_p(tid)` models that the (external) scheduler selects the thread with identifier \( tid \in TID \) for execution in process \( p \). An event `yield_p(info)` models that an active thread that has used up its time slice gives up control of the process. The parameter \( info \in INFO \) models information that is passed to the scheduler for determining the next thread. It includes information about the status of the previously active thread (terminated/not terminated/number of threads spawned), the value of the low variable, and information about which threads are blocked because they are waiting for a message on an empty incoming channel. This information is expected by the class of schedulers that is covered by the scheduler-independent program analysis for DMWL.

![DMWL Process Diagram](image_url)

Figure 7.7: DMWL process with interface events and state objects

In DMWL, the value of the low variable \( l \) can be observed by low-level adversaries while \( h \) is only observable by the high-level environment. This means, \( l \) is part of the interface to the low-level environment and \( h \) is part of the interface to the high-level environment. In an event-based setting, the possibility to observe values of variables is explicitly modeled by corresponding interface events because the interface consists of events (and not of variables). Therefore, we have to introduce interface events that model the observation or modification of the variables \( l \) and \( h \). An event `outvar_p(var, val)` models that it is observed that variable \( var \) of
process $p$ has value $val$. In a similar fashion, setting the (initial) value of variables is explicitly modeled by events $\text{setvar}_p(var, val)$. Values of variables can only be altered by $\text{setvar}$-events before program execution begins ($\text{setvar}$-events model the initialization of variables). The event $\text{start}$ models that the initialization phase has been completed and program execution begins. After $\text{start}$ has occurred, $\text{setvar}$-events are disabled.

Inter-process communication is performed in DMWL via communication channels. An event $\text{trans}(cid, val)$ models the transmission of a value $val$ on a channel $cid \in CID$. Since $\text{trans}$-events belong to more than one process, they are not tagged with a process identifier. Throughout this chapter, we assume that a process cannot send messages to itself directly (intra-process communication occurs via shared variables), i.e. $\forall cid \in CID. \text{sender}(cid) \neq \text{receiver}(cid)$ holds where the functions $\text{sender, receiver} : CID \rightarrow \text{PID}$ model which processes may communicate on a communication channel. For a given channel $cid$, $\text{sender}(cid)$ is the identifier of the process that may send on $cid$ and $\text{receiver}(cid)$ is the identifier of the process that may receive on $cid$. This means, $\{cid | \text{sender}(cid) = p\}$ and $\{cid | \text{receiver}(cid) = p\}$ are the sets of channels that the process $p$ may use for sending and receiving, respectively.

The interface specification is summarized in Figure 7.8 where, for improving readability, the index $p$ is omitted for all events.

$$I^p = \begin{cases} \text{schedule}(tid), & \text{tid} : \text{TID}, \\ \text{setvar}(var, val), & \text{var} : \text{VAR}, \text{val} : \text{VAL}, \\ \text{start}, & \text{cid} : \text{CID}, \\ \text{trans}(cid, val) & \text{receiver}(cid) = p \end{cases}$$

$$O^p = \begin{cases} \text{yield}(info), & \text{info} : \text{INFO}, \\ \text{outvar}(var, val), & \text{var} : \text{VAR}, \text{val} : \text{VAL}, \\ \text{trans}(cid, val) & \text{cid} : \text{CID}, \text{receiver}(cid) = p \end{cases}$$

Figure 7.8: Interface specification of a DMWL process

**Specification of Internal Actions.** For every rule of the operational semantics of DMWL (cf. Figure 7.2) that reduces a command, we specify a corresponding event. For example, the event $\text{skip}_p$ models that a command $\text{skip}$ is being executed by the active thread in process $p$ (corresponding to rule [Skip]). The event $\text{assign}_p(var, val)$ models that a command $var := Exp$ is being executed by the active thread in process $p$ where $Exp$ evaluates to $val$ under the current memory of the process (corresponding to rule [Assign]). The event $\text{ite}^t_p(B, C_1, C_2)$ models that a command if $B$ then $C_1$ else $C_2$ is being executed by the active thread in process $p$ where $B$ evaluates to $tt$ under the current memory (corresponding to rule [If$u$]). The set $E^p_{\text{local}}$ of all events that model the execution of DMWL commands in process $p$ is given in Figure 7.9 where, for improving readability, the index $p$ is omitted for all events.

**Definition 7.3.1.** The set of events for a DMWL-thread pool with identifier $p$ is specified by $E^p = I^p \cup O^p \cup E^p_{\text{local}}$ (cf. Figures 7.8, 7.9 for definitions of $I^p$, $O^p$, and $E^p_{\text{local}}$).

**Specification of State Space.** The memory in the local configuration of a process with identifier $p$ is modeled by a (functional) state object $\text{mem}_p : \text{VAR} \rightarrow \text{VAL}$. For a given
program variable \( var \), \( \text{mem}^p(var) \) denotes the current value of \( var \). The command vector in the local configuration of a process is modeled by a functional state object \( \text{thread}^p : \text{TID} \rightarrow (\text{THREAD} \cup \{\bot, \top, \{\}\}) \). For a given thread \( tid \), \( \text{thread}^p(tid) \) denotes the command to be executed by this thread (if \( \text{thread}^p(tid) \in \text{THREAD} \)). The values \( \bot, \top, \{\} \) have a special meaning. Here (and below) \( \bot \) stands for “undefined”. The value \( \top \) models that a thread with identifier \( tid \) has performed a fork command at some point in the past. This is a technical peculiarity of our assignments of thread identifiers: after a thread with identifier \( tid \) has performed a fork this thread continues execution with the new identifier \( tid.(0) \) and the spawned threads are assigned identifier \( tid.(1), tid.(2), \ldots \), respectively. The value \( \{\} \) models that the thread has terminated at some point in the past.

The state objects \( \text{inbuf}^p \), \( \text{pending}^p \), and \( \text{outbuf}^p \) model (parts of) the contents of communication channels that are adjacent to the process. More specifically, \( \text{inbuf}^p, \text{pending}^p : \text{CID} \rightarrow \text{VAL}^* \) are functional state objects where \( \text{inbuf}^p(cid) \) models the sequence of messages that have been received over channel \( cid \) but which are not yet ready for processing and \( \text{pending}^p(cid) \) models the sequence of messages that have been received over channel \( cid \) and that are ready for processing. The state object \( \text{outbuf}^p : (\text{CID} \times \text{VAL}) \cup \{\} \) stores outgoing messages until they have been sent over a communication channel. The value \( \{\} \) models that the output buffer is empty and a value \( \langle cid, val \rangle \) models that message \( val \) shall be sent over channel \( cid \). There is at most one message in the output buffer of a given process.

The state objects \( \text{atid}^p : \text{TID} \cup \{\bot\}, \text{ainfo}^p : \text{IN} \cup \{-1\} \cup \{\bot\}, \text{executed}^p : \text{BOOL}, \) and \( \text{initialized}^p : \text{BOOL} \) store status information. The identifier of the currently active thread is stored in \( \text{atid}^p \) (if there is any — otherwise: undefined). Information that shall be passed to the scheduler as parameter of the next \( \text{yield-event} \) is stored in \( \text{ainfo}^p \) (if there is any). That the active thread has terminated is indicated by \( \text{ainfo}^p = -1 \). Otherwise, \( \text{ainfo}^p \) equals the number of threads spawned after execution of a DMWL-command. The flag \( \text{executed}^p \) indicates whether the currently active thread has already performed a step (value \( tt \)) or not (value \( ff \)). The flag \( \text{initialized}^p \) indicates whether the initialization of variables has been finished (value \( tt \)) or not (value \( ff \)).

The specification of the state space is summarized in Figure 7.10 where, for improving readability, the index \( p \) is omitted for all state objects.

**Specification of the Initial State.** For the initial state \( s^0 \langle \text{initthread} \rangle \), we assume that all program variables are initialized with some (not further specified) value \( \text{initial} \). The thread with identifier \( \langle 0 \rangle \) contains the program \( \text{initthread} \) that is to be executed, i.e. \( \text{thread}^0 \langle \langle 0 \rangle \rangle = \text{initthread} \). For all other thread identifiers, \( \text{thread}^p \) returns \( \bot \). Initially, all communication
\[ S^p = \{(\text{mem, thread, inbuf, pending, outbuf, atid, ainfo, executed, initialized})\} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{mem} & : \text{VAR} \rightarrow \text{VAL} \quad \text{, current local shared memory} \\
\text{thread} & : \text{TID} \rightarrow \text{THREAD} \cup \{\bot, T, \{\}\} \quad \text{, current local state of threads} \\
\text{inbuf} & : \text{CID} \rightarrow \text{VAL}^* \quad \text{, buffer for incoming messages} \\
\text{pending} & : \text{CID} \rightarrow \text{VAL}^* \quad \text{, buffer for incoming messages} \\
\text{outbuf} & : (\text{CID} \times \text{VAL}) \cup \{\} \quad \text{, buffer for outgoing messages} \\
\text{atid} & : \text{TID} \cup \{\{\}\} \quad \text{, identifier of active thread} \\
\text{ainfo} & : \text{IN} \cup \{-\} \cup \{\} \quad \text{, actual scheduler information} \\
\text{executed} & : \text{BOOL} \quad \text{, has just a step been executed?} \\
\text{initialized} & : \text{BOOL} \quad \text{, has the initialization been finished?} \\
\end{align*}

Figure 7.10: Specification of state space for a DMWL process

Buffers \( (\text{inbuf}^p_{\text{so}}, \text{pending}^p_{\text{so}}, \text{outbuf}^p_{\text{so}}) \) are empty, no thread is active, there is no scheduler information, and the flags \( \text{executed}^p_{\text{so}} \) and \( \text{initialized}^p_{\text{so}} \) are set to \( \text{ff} \).

The specification of the initial state \( s^p_0(\text{initthread}) \) for a process with identifier \( p \) is given in Figure 7.11 where, for better readability, the index \( p \) is omitted for state objects.

\[ s^p_0(\text{initthread}) = (\text{mem}_{\text{so}}, \text{thread}_{\text{so}}, \text{inbuf}_{\text{so}}, \text{pending}_{\text{so}}, \text{outbuf}_{\text{so}}, \text{atid}_{\text{so}}, \text{ainfo}_{\text{so}}, \text{executed}_{\text{so}}, \text{initialized}_{\text{so}}) \]

\begin{align*}
\text{mem}_{\text{so}}(\text{var}) & = \text{initval} \quad \text{, for all } \text{var} \in \text{VAR} \\
\text{thread}_{\text{so}}(\langle 0 \rangle) & = \text{initthread} \\
\text{thread}_{\text{so}}(\langle \text{tid} \rangle) & = \bot \quad \text{, for all } \text{tid} \in \text{TID} \text{ with } \text{tid} \neq \langle 0 \rangle \\
\text{inbuf}_{\text{so}}(\langle \text{cid} \rangle) & = \langle \rangle \quad \text{, for all } \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \\
\text{pending}_{\text{so}}(\langle \text{cid} \rangle) & = \langle \rangle \quad \text{, for all } \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \\
\text{outbuf}_{\text{so}} & = \langle \rangle \\
\text{atid}_{\text{so}} & = \bot, \\
\text{ainfo}_{\text{so}} & = \bot, \\
\text{executed}_{\text{so}} & = \text{ff}, \\
\text{initialized}_{\text{so}} & = \text{ff} \\
\end{align*}

Figure 7.11: Specification of initial state of a DMWL process

**Specification of System Behavior.** In the following, we omit the index \( p \) when it can be concluded from the context. During the initialization phase (indicated by \( \text{initialized} = \text{ff} \)), the values of variables may be changed arbitrarily by \textit{setvar}-events. Threads are not executed in this phase (\textit{schedule}-events are disabled). The initialization phase is completed by the occurrence of the event \textit{start}. After the initialization, \textit{setvar}-events are disabled and thread execution proceeds as follows:

- If no thread is active (indicated by \( \text{atid} = \bot \)) then \textit{schedule}-events are enabled. After an occurrence of \textit{schedule}(\langle \text{tid} \rangle), \text{atid} is set to \text{tid}, the thread with local state \text{thread}(\langle \text{tid} \rangle) becomes active, and all incoming messages are prepared for processing (moving them from \text{inbuf} to \text{pending}). An event \textit{schedule}(\langle \text{tid} \rangle) is only enabled if the thread \text{tid} is alive.
(thread(tid) \notin \{\bot, \top, ()\}) and not blocked (i.e. trying to receive on an empty channel).

- If there is an active thread (indicated by atid \neq \bot \land \text{executed} = f) then this thread can run. Thread execution is formally modeled by the occurrence of events that are internal to the thread pool. During execution, a thread affects the state objects \text{mem}, \text{thread}, \text{pending}, and \text{outbuf} depending on the particular command that is executed. Additionally, status information for the scheduler is stored in \text{ainfo}. Eventually, the active thread stops executing (indicated by \text{executed} = t).

- After the active thread has stopped (\text{executed} = t), any outgoing message in the output buffer is sent on the respective channel.

- After the active thread has stopped and the output buffer is empty, the scheduler can be informed about this by a \text{yield}-event. The event \text{yield}(\text{info}) is only enabled if \text{info} corresponds to the actual scheduler information combined with the value of the low variable and information about which threads are blocked on empty channels (i.e. \text{info} = (\text{ainfo}, \text{mem}(l), \text{blocked-set})). A \text{yield}-event resets the \text{executed}-flag, \text{atid}, and \text{ainfo}.

For the formal specification of the transition relation (in Figures 7.12, 7.13, and 7.14), we employ a notation based on preconditions and postconditions. In brief, a transition \((s, e, s') \in S \times E \times S\) complies with a pre/postcondition statement (abbreviated by PP-statement in the following) if all variables not mentioned in the affects-slot have the same value in \(s\) and in \(s'\) (frame axioms), the precondition holds for the values of variables given by \(s\), and the postcondition holds for the values of unprimed and primed variables given by \(s\) and \(s'\), respectively.

Let us explain this notation in more detail with the example of the PP-statement for \text{schedule}-events in Figure 7.12. According to this PP-statement, an event \text{schedule}_p(tid) leaves all state variables except for \text{atid}^p, \text{inbuf}^p, \text{pending}^p unchanged. The precondition for this event is that no thread is currently active (\text{atid} = \bot), that a thread with identifier \text{tid} is defined (\text{thread}(\text{tid}) \notin \{\bot, \top, ()\}), that if the first command of this thread is a blocking receive then the corresponding channel is nonempty, and that the initialization phase has been finished. The postcondition ensures that \text{tid} becomes the new active thread (\text{atid}^p = \text{tid}) and that, for all channels, the messages received are prepared for processing (moving them from \text{inbuf}^p to \text{pending}^p).

A more detailed explanation of PP-statements, including a definition of the formal semantics via a translation into second-order formulas, is contained in Appendix E.1.

The behavior of interface events is specified in Figure 7.12, the behavior of local computation events in Figure 7.13, and the behavior of local communication events in Figure 7.14.

**Definition 7.3.2.** Let \(T \subseteq S^p \times E^p \times S^p\) be a transition relation such that \((s, e, s') \in T\) if and only if \((s, e, s')\) complies with all PP-statements for \(e\) in Figures 7.12, 7.13, and 7.14. ◊

**Process Specification.** The overall specification of a DMWL process by a state-event system is summarized in the following definition.

**Definition 7.3.3 (DMWL process).** Let \(p \in P\) and \text{inithread} \in CMD. We define

\[
\text{DMWLProcess}(p, \text{inithread}) = (S^p, s_0^p(\text{inithread}), E^p, I^p, O^p, T^p)
\]

◊
Figure 7.12: Preconditions and postconditions of interface events

**Definition 7.3.4 (sender, receiver).** A process \( \text{DMWLProcess}(p, \text{initThread}) \) complies with the functions \( \text{sender}, \text{receiver} : \text{CID} \to \text{PID} \) if for every command \( \text{send}(cid, Exp) \), which is a subcommand of \( \text{initThread} \), holds \( \text{sender}(cid) = p \) and for every command \( \text{receive}(cid, var) \) or \( \text{if-receive}(cid, var, C1, C2) \), which is a subcommand of \( \text{initThread} \), holds \( \text{receiver}(cid) = p \). 

In the following, we implicitly assume all DMWL processes to comply with \( \text{sender} \) and \( \text{receiver} \). Moreover, we assume \( \text{sender}(cid) \neq \text{receiver}(cid) \) for all \( cid \in \text{CID} \).

**Specification of Distributed Programs.** Distributed programs can be specified by composing process specifications (cf. Figure 7.15). The composition of state-event systems is defined along the same lines as the composition of event systems.

**Definition 7.3.5 (Composable).** Two state-event systems \( \text{SES}_1 = (S_1, s_0, E_1, I_1, O_1, T_1) \) and \( \text{SES}_2 = (S_2, s_0, E_2, I_2, O_2, T_2) \) are composable iff \( E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq (O_1 \cap I_2) \cup (O_2 \cap I_1) \) holds.
computation events

**skip** affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{skip} \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \)

**assign(var, val)** affects \( \text{mem}(\text{var}), \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land \text{Exp} \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{val} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{var} := \text{Exp} \)
- Post: \( \text{mem}'(\text{var}) = \text{val} \land \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \)

**ite**(B, C1, C2) affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land B \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{tt} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{if} B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = C_1; \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = 0 \)

**ite**(B, C1, C2) affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land B \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{ff} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{if} B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = C_2; \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = 0 \)

**while**(B, C1) affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land B \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{tt} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1 \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = C_1; \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1; \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = 0 \)

**while**(B, C1) affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land B \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{ff} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1 \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = 0 \)

**fork**(C, D1 \ldots Dn) affects \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}), \text{thread}(\text{atid}.(0)) \ldots \text{thread}(\text{atid}.(n)), \text{executed}, \text{ainfo} \)
- Pre: \( \text{ready} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \text{fork}(C D_1 \ldots D_n) \)
- Post: \( \text{thread}'(\text{atid}) = \top \land \text{thread}'(\text{atid}.(i)) = C_i \land \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \land \forall i : \{1, \ldots, n\}. \text{thread}'(\text{atid}.(i)) = D_i \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = n \)

where
- \( \text{first}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \) denotes the first command in \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}) \),
- \( \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \) results from \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}) \) by removing the first command,
- and the following abbreviations are used:
  - \( \text{ready} \iff (\text{executed} = \text{ff} \land \text{atid} \neq \bot) \)
  - \( \text{done} \iff (\text{executed}' = \text{tt}) \)
  - \( \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) \) equals \(-1\) if \( \text{rest}(\text{thread}(\text{atid})) = \bot \) and \( 0 \) otherwise.

Figure 7.13: Preconditions and postconditions of local events (1)
communication events

\[ \text{send}(cid, val) \] affects \( \text{thread}(atid), \) executed, \( \text{ainfo}, \) outbuf

\[
\text{Pre}: \ \text{ready} \land \text{Exp} \downarrow \text{mem} \land \text{first}(\text{thread}(atid)) = \text{send}(cid, \text{Exp})
\]

\[
\text{Post}: \ \text{outbuf}' = (cid, val) \land \text{thread}'(atid) = \text{rest}(\text{thread}(atid)) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(atid))
\]

\[ \text{receive}(cid, var, val) \] affects \( \text{thread}(atid), \) executed, \( \text{ainfo, mem(var)}, \) pending\( (cid) \)

\[
\text{Pre}: \ \text{ready} \land \text{pending}(cid) \neq \emptyset \land \text{last}(\text{pending}(cid)) = \text{val}
\land \text{first}(\text{thread}(atid)) = \text{receive}(cid, \text{var})
\]

\[
\text{Post}: \ \text{mem}'(\text{var}) = \text{val} \land \text{pending}'(cid) = \text{butlast}(\text{pending}(cid))
\land \text{thread}'(atid) = \text{rest}(\text{thread}(atid)) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(atid))
\]

\[ \text{ite-recv}(cid, var, val, C_1, C_2) \] affects \( \text{thread}(atid), \) executed, \( \text{ainfo, mem(var)}, \) pending\( (cid) \)

\[
\text{Pre}: \ \text{ready} \land \text{pending}(cid) \neq \emptyset \land \text{last}(\text{pending}(cid)) = \text{val}
\land \text{first}(\text{thread}(atid)) = \text{if-receive}(cid, \text{var}, C_1, C_2)
\]

\[
\text{Post}: \ \text{mem}'(\text{var}) = \text{val} \land \text{pending}'(cid) = \text{butlast}(\text{pending}(cid))
\land \text{thread}'(atid) = C_1; \text{rest}(\text{thread}(atid)) \land \text{done} \land \text{ainfo}' = 0
\]

where

\( \text{first}(\text{thread}(atid)) \) denotes the first command in \( \text{thread}(atid), \)

\( \text{rest}(\text{thread}(atid)) \) results from \( \text{thread}(atid) \) by removing the first command,

\( \text{last}(\text{pending}(cid)) \) denotes the last message in \( \text{pending}(cid), \)

\( \text{butlast}(\text{pending}(cid)) \) results from \( \text{pending}(cid) \) by removing the last message,

and the following abbreviations are used:

\( \text{ready} \Leftrightarrow (\text{executed} = \mathbf{ff} \land \text{atid} \neq \bot) \)

\( \text{done} \Leftrightarrow (\text{executed}' = \mathbf{tt}) \)

\( \text{terminates}(\text{thread}(atid)) \) equals \(-1 \) if \( \text{rest}(\text{thread}(atid)) = \emptyset \) and \( 0 \) otherwise.

Figure 7.14: Preconditions and postconditions of local events (2)

**Definition 7.3.6 (Composition state-event systems).** Let \( \text{SES}_1 = (S_1, s_0, E_1, I_1, O_1, T_1) \) and \( \text{SES}_2 = (S_2, s_0, E_2, I_2, O_2, T_2) \) be composable.

The composition of \( \text{SES}_1 \) and \( \text{SES}_2 \) (denoted by \( \text{SES}_1 \parallel \text{SES}_2 \)) is the state-event system \( \text{SES} = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T) \) where \( S, s_0, E, I, O, \) and \( T \) are defined as follows:

\[
S = S_1 \times S_2
\]

\[
s_0 = (s_0, s_0)
\]

\[
E = E_1 \cup E_2
\]

\[
I = (I_1 \setminus O_2) \cup (I_2 \setminus O_1)
\]

\[
O = (O_1 \setminus I_2) \cup (O_2 \setminus I_1)
\]

\[
T = \{(s_1, s_2), e, (s_1', s_2') \in S \times E \times S \mid (e \notin E_1 \land s_1' = s_1) \lor (e \in E_1 \land (s_1, e, s_1') \in T_1) \\
\land ((e \notin E_2 \land s_2' = s_2) \lor (e \in E_2 \land (s_2, e, s_2') \in T_2))\}
\]
Figure 7.15: Composition of processes with interface events and state objects

The following theorem shows that our definition of a composition operator for state-event system is compatible with the notion of an induced event system.

**Theorem 7.3.7.** Let $SES_1 = (S_1, s_0, E_1, I_1, O_1, T_1)$ and $SES_2 = (S_2, s_0, E_2, I_2, O_2, T_2)$ be composable. Then $ES_{SES_1 || SES_2} = ES_{SES_1} \parallel ES_{SES_2}$ holds. $\Diamond$

**Proof.** Follows from Definitions 2.1.18, 6.2.2, and 7.3.6. $\square$

Note in Definition 7.3.6, that the state space of the composed system is the product of the component’s state spaces. This means that state-event systems do not communicate via their state space (e.g., by shared variables). They communicate, like event systems, by synchronizing on occurrences of shared events. Hence, restricted forms of composition (product, proper cascade, and general cascade) could be defined just like for event systems.

We are now ready to present the event-based specification of distributed DMWL programs.

**Definition 7.3.8 (DMWL process pool).** Let $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in PID$ be a collection of process identifiers and $initthread_1, \ldots, initthread_n \in CMD$ be a collection of DMWL commands. We define

$$
DMWLProcPool((p_1, initthread_1), \ldots, (p_n, initthread_n)) = DMWLProc(p_1, initthread_1) \parallel \ldots \parallel DMWLProc(p_n, initthread_n)
$$

The state-event system specified in Definition 7.3.8 is an adequate model of DMWL process pools. This is demonstrated formally in Appendix E.3.

In Definitions 7.3.3 and 7.3.8, we have presented event-based system specifications of DMWL programs (for the non-distributed case and the distributed case, respectively). We are now ready to analyze the security of DMWL programs based on these specifications.

### 7.4 Specifying Security Requirements

We shall now outline how one can specify the security requirements of a given system with information flow properties in MAKs, and then we illustrate in detail how this can be done for our example. More precisely, we formalize the security requirements of individual DMWL processes by defining a set of views and by assembling a security predicate from appropriate BSPs.
7.4.1 How to Proceed

1. Determine all confidentiality requirements for the given system.

2. Determine all integrity requirements for the given system.

3. Select a formalism for specifying the restrictions on the information flow. If you specify the restrictions directly by a set of views then proceed with 3(a). If you use flow policies for this purpose (cf. Section 3.3.1), proceed with 3(b).
   (a) Define a set VS of views to express the security requirements for the given system and then proceed with step 4.
   (b) Define a flow policy that expresses the security requirements for the given system abstractly and specialize these abstract requirements by defining a domain assignment. The set VS of views can be calculated according to Definition 3.3.11.

4. For each view V ∈ VS, define a suitable security predicate SP:
   (a) Decide if deductions about occurrences of confidential events must be prevented. If yes, choose one or more BSPs from the first dimension (i.e. from R, D, BSD, SR, SD, FCD). Justify that this choice is appropriate. In particular, ensure that the typical pitfalls (illustrated for the various BSPs in the respective subsections of Section 3.4) are avoided.
   (b) Decide if deductions about nonoccurrences of confidential events must be prevented. If yes, choose one or more BSPs from the second dimension (i.e. from I, IA, BSI, BSIA, SI, SIA, FCI, FCIA). Justify that this choice is appropriate. In particular, ensure that the typical pitfalls (illustrated for the various BSPs in the respective subsections of Section 3.4) are avoided. If one of IA, BSIA, SIA, FCIA is chosen, then choose an admissibility function ρ and justify that ρ is appropriate (in particular, avoid the pitfalls pointed out in Remark 3.4.2).
   (c) Define SP to be the conjunction of all BSPs selected under 4(a) and 4(b).

5. Collect the set of resulting information flow properties. For each security predicate SP defined in step 4, one obtains a pair (VS_{SP}, SP) where VS_{SP} is the set of all views for which the security predicate SP has been chosen.

Remark 7.4.1. Often, the same security predicate can be used for all views in VS. This greatly simplifies the steps 4 and 5 above.

7.4.2 The Running Example

In our case study, we perform steps 1, 2, 3(a), 4(a-c), and 5.

Confidentiality Requirements. The central confidentiality requirement for a DMWL process is that the initial values of high variables are not leaked to the low level. In other words, occurrences of events observable by the low level must not depend on the occurrence of events setvar(h, val) (modeling the initialization of high variables).

Values of high variables may be communicated on high channels from one process to another. This means, messages transmitted on high channels may contain confidential information. Therefore, the receiving process must handle messages on high channels with the
same care as the initial value of its local high variable. In particular, the contents of messages received on high channels must not be leaked to the low level. Moreover, it must not be leaked whether messages are present on a high channel or not. Otherwise, it might be possible that confidential information is leaked to the low level. For example, if a process sends a message on a particular high channel only under the condition that its high (boolean) variable is true \((h = \text{true})\) then the information whether a message is present on this channel or not is all the attacker needs to deduce the value of \(h\). Therefore, the number of messages on a high channel as well as the contents of these messages must be kept confidential. In other words, the occurrence of low-level events must not depend on the occurrence of events \(\text{trans}(cid_h, val)\) (where \(cid_h\) is an incoming high channel) that model the receipt of high messages.

**Specification of Security Requirements by Flow Restrictions.** We specify the security requirements directly by a set of views.

We have three different classes of events for a given process \(p\). Firstly, there are events whose occurrences are observable for the low-level environment. These include scheduling events \((\text{schedule}_p(tid), \text{yield}_p(\text{info}))\), the completion of the initialization phase (event \(\text{start}_p\)), read events and write events on low variables \((\text{outvar}_p(l, val), \text{setvar}_p(l, val))\), and transmissions on low channels \((\text{trans}(cid_l, val))\) where \(\text{level}(cid_l) = \text{low}\). Secondly, there are events whose occurrences are not observable for the low-level environment and that are confidential. As pointed out before, these include write events on high variables \((\text{setvar}_p(h, val))\) and transmissions on incoming high channels \((\text{trans}(cid_h, val))\) where \(\text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high}\) and \(\text{receiver}(cid_h) = p\). Finally, there are events whose occurrences are not observable and that are also not confidential. These include all internal events (events in \(E^p_{\text{local}}\)), read events on high variables \((\text{outvar}_p(h, val))\), and transmissions on outgoing high channels \((\text{trans}(cid_h, val))\) where \(\text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high}\) and \(\text{sender}(cid_h) = p\). Output events that may involve high-level variables \((\text{outvar}_p(h, val))\) or high-level messages \((\text{trans}(cid_h, val))\) need not to be classified as confidential. Confidential aspects of such output events are completely attributable to high-level input events \((\text{setvar}-\text{events on high variables and going } \text{trans}-\text{events on high channels})\) and the confidentiality of high-level input events is already explicitly demanded. Note that this argument is along the same lines as the explanation given by Guttman and Nadel for the idea underlying the definition of generalized noninterference (cf. Example 3.3.6). The resulting sets of events constitute a view.

**Definition 7.4.2** \((\mathcal{H}^p)\). We define the view \(\mathcal{H}^p = (V^p, N^p, C^p)\) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
V^p = \Big\{ & \text{schedule}_p(tid), \text{yield}_p(\text{info}), \\
& \text{outvar}_p(l, val), \text{setvar}_p(l, val), \\
& \text{start}_p, \text{trans}(cid_l, val) & \text{level}(cid_l) = \text{low} \Big\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
N^p = E^p_{\text{local}} \cup \Big\{ & \text{outvar}_p(h, val), & \text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high}, \\
& \text{trans}(cid_h, val) & \text{sender}(cid_h) = p \Big\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
C^p = \Big\{ & \text{setvar}_p(h, val), & \text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high}, \\
& \text{trans}(cid_h, val) & \text{receiver}(cid_h) = p \Big\}
\end{align*}
\]

\(\Diamond\)
Security Predicate. A low-level adversary should neither be able to deduce that a high
variable has been set to a particular value nor be able to deduce that a high variable has not
been set to some particular value. Similarly, the adversary should not be able to learn whether
messages have or have not been received on some high channel. Note that it is not enough
to prevent him from learning which particular messages are on a channel (cf. paragraph on
confidentiality requirements earlier in this section). Consequently, we need to prevent deduc-
tions about occurrences as well as about nonoccurrences of confidential events. Therefore, we
choose BSPs from both dimensions when constructing the security predicate.

From the BSPs in the first dimension, we select \( BSD \). Choosing a backwards strict BSP
has the advantage (in comparison to choosing a non-strict BSP like \( R \) or \( D \)) that information
leakage like in Example 3.4.22 is ruled out. Strict BSPs or forward correctable BSPs are no
suitable alternatives. Strict BSPs (like \( SR \) or \( SD \)) are overrestrictive in the sense that they
permit no corrections and that this does not offer any advantages wrt. the degree of security
provided (in comparison to the respective backwards strict BSPs). Forward correctable BSPs
are usually used in addition to other BSPs from the same dimension (rather than instead
of these) with the objective to arrive at a composable security predicate. Here, we do not
explicitly require that a forward correctable BSP must hold, however, we will return to issues
of compositionality and forward correctable BSPs in Section 7.6.2.

From the BSPs in the second dimension, we select \( BSIA^p \). The argument for choosing a
backwards strict BSP (rather than strict or non-strict BSPs) is like for the first dimension.

The reason why we prefer \( BSIA^p \) over \( BSI \) is that we want to permit that visible events
influence the possibility of confidential events (but not vice versa). More specifically, we want
to express that the enabledness of setvar-events may depend on whether a start-event has
previously occurred or not. Namely, before start has occurred, setvar-events are enabled and
after start has occurred they are disabled. Hence, \( BSI \) would be a too restrictive BSP in our
setting because it requires that confidential events (including setvar-events on high variables)
can be inserted at every point of a trace. In contrast to this, \( BSIA^p \) requires only that
confidential events can be inserted at points of a trace where they are \( \rho^p \)-admissible.

We define \( \rho^p \) by \( \rho^p(\mathcal{H}_I^p) = \{ \text{start}_p \} \). With this choice, the possibility of setvar-events
may depend on start-events (but not on any other events). More precisely, \( BSIA^p_{\mathcal{H}_I^p, (Tr_{SES^p})} \)
requires that the event setvar(\( h, val \)) can be inserted into a possible trace \( \beta, \alpha \) after \( \beta \) if start
does not occur in \( \beta \) (i.e. if \( \beta \rangle_{\text{\text{start}}} = \) holds). In other words, setvar-events on high variables
need not to be insertable after start has occurred. Incoming trans-events are not affected by
the \( \rho \)-admissibility assumption of \( BSIA \) because they are always enabled.

It remains to be shown that \( BSIA^p \) is not too liberal in the sense that it permits leakage
of confidential information. Recall from Remark 3.4.21 that this, in principle, might be the
case for our choice \( \rho^p \) because \( \rho^p(\mathcal{H}_I^p) \subseteq C^p \) does not hold. However, in our setting the only
difference between \( BSIA^p \) and \( BSI \) (which would rule out deductions about nonoccurrences
of confidential events completely) is that a low-level adversary can deduce that no setvar-event
can occur after he has observed an occurrence of the event start. Since only the setting of
high variables during the initialization phase is confidential, this possibility for the adversary
is not problematic. Note that incoming trans-events do not depend on start (they are always
enabled). Consequently, the adversary cannot deduce any information about the occurrence
or nonoccurrence of transmissions from observing a start-event (if \( BSD \) and \( BSIA^p \) hold).

**Definition 7.4.3.** We define the security predicate \( SP^p \) by \( SP^p = BSD \land BSIA^p \) where
\( \rho^p(\mathcal{H}_I^p) = \{ \text{start}_p \} \). \( \Diamond \)
7.5 Verifying Security Requirements

Information Flow Property.

Definition 7.4.4. We define the information flow property \( IFP^p = (\{H^p\}, SP^p) \).

Remark 7.4.5. Note that \( IFP^p \) is not equivalent to any of the known information flow properties that we investigated in Chapter 4. While the view \( H^p \) is like the one in the MAKS-representations of GNF, GNI, or FC, i.e. high-level inputs are confidential, the security predicate differs substantially (cf. Theorems 4.2.22, 4.2.3, and 4.2.11). The shape of the security predicate \( BSD \land BSIA^p \) is rather like in the MAKS-representation for NDO, SEP, or PSP (cf. Theorem 4.2.16, 4.2.24, and 4.2.26). However, these information flow properties assume a different view (i.e. that all high-level events are confidential). Hence, \( IFP^p \) is a novel information flow property.

Based on the modular representation of information flow properties in MAKS, it is an easy task to relate this novel property to the known information flow properties. In particular, we obtain that \( IFP^p \) is more restrictive than GNF (i.e. \( IFP^p \) implies GNF) and that GNI is more restrictive than \( IFP^p \) (i.e. GNI implies \( IFP^p \)). Further implications (like, e.g., that FC is more restrictive than \( IFP^p \)) can be easily obtained with the help of our taxonomy of known information flow properties (cf. Figure 4.4).

Note that “inventing” a novel information flow property “on demand” with the uniform concepts provided by MAKS (i.e. views and BSPs) did not pose a major intellectual challenge. However, without MAKS, we believe it would have been much more difficult to find an appropriate information flow property. For example, it is not possible to represent \( IFP^p \) by selective interleaving functions (cf. Theorem B.2.1).

This concludes the specification of the security requirements for DMWL processes. We are now ready to prove that every process that executes a strongly secure DMWL program satisfies its security requirements.

7.5 Verifying Security Requirements

To illustrate the verification of information flow properties with the unwinding techniques proposed in Chapter 5 is the purpose of this section. We outline how to proceed in the verification and then illustrate this for the running example by showing that every DMWL process with a strongly secure program satisfies \( IFP^p \) and, for simplifying this proof, we apply our unwinding techniques.

7.5.1 How to Proceed

Let \( ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \) be a specification of the system under consideration. Moreover, let \( VS \) be a set of views in \( E \) and \( SP \) be a security predicate. In order to verify that \( ES \) satisfies the information flow property \( (VS, SP) \), one has to verify that \( BSP_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) holds for every view \( \mathcal{V} \) in \( VS \) and for every basic security predicate BSP from which \( SP \) is assembled (cf. Definitions 3.2.4 and 3.2.7). For verifying \( BSP_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \), one can proceed as follows:

1. Select a verification technique for proving \( BSP_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \). For unwinding (cf. Chapter 5), proceed with 2. For simulation (cf. Appendix C), proceed with 3.

\textsuperscript{8}Obviously, it is also possible to prove \( BSP_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) without the help of specialized verification techniques. An example for how to prove noninterference directly can be found, e.g., in [McL92].
2. Proving \( \text{BSP}_\gamma(Tr) \) by unwinding:
   (a) If an unwinding result (cf. Theorems 5.3.1, 5.3.2, and 5.3.3) is applicable then determine the unwinding conditions that are appropriate for \( \text{BSP}_\gamma(Tr) \).
   
   (b) If no unwinding result is applicable for this BSP then retrieve a more restrictive BSP for which an unwinding result is applicable by traversing the ordering of BSPs in reverse direction. Figure 7.16 summarizes the results of Theorems 3.5.3, 3.5.4, 3.5.12, and 3.5.13 that are relevant for this purpose. In the figure, BSPs for which we have presented unwinding results in Section 5.3 are marked by surrounding boxes. Afterwards, determine the unwinding conditions appropriate for verifying the more restrictive BSP using Theorems 5.3.1, 5.3.2, and 5.3.3.
   
   (c) Construct an unwinding relation \( \kappa \subseteq S \times S \).
   
   (d) Verify all previously determined unwinding conditions for this unwinding relation.

![Figure 7.16: Ordering BSPs with and without local verification conditions](image)

3. Proving \( \text{BSP}_\gamma(Tr) \) by simulation:
   (a) If Theorem C.2.1 or Theorem C.2.2 is applicable for this BSP then determine the appropriate refinement statements from these theorems.
   
   (b) If Theorems C.2.1 and C.2.2 are not applicable for this BSP then retrieve a stronger BSP for which one of these theorems is applicable by traversing the ordering of BSPs in reverse direction.\(^9\) Afterwards, determine the refinement statements appropriate for the stronger BSP using Theorems C.2.1 and C.2.2.
   
   (c) For every refinement statement that has been determined, proceed as follows:
      i. Select one of the four simulation techniques, i.e. forward, backward, forward-backward, or backward-forward simulation.
      
      ii. Determine local verification conditions appropriate for verifying the refinement statement from Definitions C.1.3 (for forward simulation), C.1.5 (for backward simulation), C.1.8 (for forward-backward simulation), and C.1.9 (for backward-forward simulation).
      
      iii. Construct a simulation relation.
      
      iv. Verify all previously determined local verification conditions for this relation.

---

\(^9\)The BSPs reformulated by refinement statements in Section C.2 are the same as the ones for which we have derived unwinding results (marked by surrounding boxes in Figure 7.16).
7.5.2 The Running Example

In our case study, we follow the unwinding approach (steps 1 and 2(a–d)). More specifically, unwinding is used in the proof of the following theorem, which shows that, for single processes, strong security implies IFP\textsuperscript{P}.

**Theorem 7.5.1 (Satisfaction of security requirements for single processes).** Let \( C \in CMD \) be a DMWL command, \( p \in PID \) be a process identifier, and \( ES \) be the event system that is induced by the state-event system \( DMWLP(p, C) \).

If \( C \) is strongly secure then \( ES \) satisfies IFP\textsuperscript{P}.

**Proof.** In the proof, we abbreviate the state-event system \( DMWLP(p, C) \) by \( SES\textsuperscript{p} = (S\textsuperscript{p}, s_0\textsuperscript{p}(C), E\textsuperscript{p}, I\textsuperscript{p}, O\textsuperscript{p}, T\textsuperscript{p}) \). For better readability, we omit the index \( p \) from state objects and events. We proceed like outlined in Section 7.5.1.

**Selection of a Verification Technique.** We prove the theorem by unwinding.

**Unwinding Conditions.** According to Theorem 5.3.1, the unwinding conditions for BSD are \( b\text{rf} \) and \( osc \) while the unwinding conditions for BSIA\textsuperscript{P} are \( b\text{re}\textsuperscript{P} \) and \( osc \). That is, we have to prove that \( b\text{rf}_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa_1), osc_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa_1), b\text{re}_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa_2), \) and \( osc_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa_2) \) hold.

**Unwinding Relation.** We define \( \kappa_1 = \kappa \) and \( \kappa_2 = \kappa \) where the (symmetric) unwinding relation \( \kappa = S\textsuperscript{P} \times S\textsuperscript{P} \) is defined as follows (where \( s, s' \in S\textsuperscript{P} \) are reachable states):

- \( s \kappa s' \) holds if and only if the following conditions are all true:
  1. \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{initialized}_{s'} \)
  2. \( \text{executed}_s = \text{executed}_{s'} \)
  3. \( \text{ainfo}_s = \text{ainfo}_{s'} \)
  4. \( \text{atid}_s = \text{atid}_{s'} \)
  5. \( \text{inbuf}_s = \text{inbuf}_{s'} \land \text{pending}_s = \text{pending}_{s'} \)
  6. \( \forall cid \in CID. \forall val \in VAL. (\text{level}(cid) = \text{low} \Rightarrow (\text{outbuf}_s = (cid, val) \leftrightarrow \text{outbuf}_{s'} = (cid, val))) \)
  7. \( \text{mem}_s = \text{mem}_{s'} \)
  8. \( \forall tid \in TID. (\text{thread}_s(tid) = \bot = \text{thread}_{s'}(tid) \lor \text{thread}_s(tid) = T = \text{thread}_{s'}(tid) \lor \text{thread}_s(tid) = (\bot = \text{thread}_{s'}(tid) \lor \text{thread}_s(tid) \equiv \text{thread}_{s'}(tid)) \)
  9. \( \text{blocked-set}_s = \text{blocked-set}_{s'} \)

**Verification of Unwinding Conditions.** According to Theorem 5.3.1, we have to prove that \( b\text{rf}_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa), b\text{re}_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa) \), and \( osc_{\text{HT}}(T\textsuperscript{P}, \kappa) \) hold. As an example, we prove the first of these unwinding conditions here. The other two unwinding conditions are proven in Appendix E.4.
Lemma 7.5.2. Let \( C \in \text{CMD} \), \( p \in \text{PID} \), and \( \text{SES}^p = (S^p, s^p_0, E^p, I^p, O^p, T^p) \), be defined by \( \text{SES}^p = \text{DMWLProcess}(p, C) \). Moreover, let \( \sqsubseteq \subseteq S \times S \) be defined like in the proof of Theorem 7.5.1. If \( C \) is strongly secure then \( l\text{rbe}^E_{\text{HT}}(T^p, \sqsubseteq) \) holds. \( \diamond \)

Proof. Let \( s, s' \in S^p \) and \( c \in C^p \) be arbitrary. Assume \( \text{reachable}(\text{SES}^p, s) \) and \( s \xrightarrow{c} T^p s' \) hold. According to the definition of \( C^p \), either \( c = \text{setvar}(h, v) \) or \( c = \text{trans}(cid_h, v) \) holds (where \( v \in \text{VAL} \), \( cid_h \in \text{CID} \) with \( \text{receiver}(cid_h) = p \) and \( \text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high} \)). We make a case distinction on these two possibilities.

Firstly, assume \( c = \text{setvar}(h, v) \). According to Figure 7.12, an occurrence of this event only affects the value of \( \text{mem}(h) \). Hence, \( \text{mem}_{s'} =_{L} \text{mem}_s \). Conditions 1–9 are true for \( s' \) and \( s \) (Condition 8 is ensured by Lemma E.4.2). Consequently, \( s' \sqsubseteq s \) holds.

Secondly, assume \( c = \text{trans}(cid_h, v) \). According to Figure 7.12, an occurrence of this event only affects the value of \( \text{inbuf}(cid_h) \). Since \( \text{level}(cid_h) = \text{high} \), we have \( \text{inbuf}_s =_{L} \text{inbuf}_{s'} \). Conditions 1–9 are true for \( s' \) and \( s \) (Condition 8 is ensured by Lemma E.4.2). Consequently, \( s' \sqsubseteq s \) holds. \( \Box \)

From Lemma E.4.1 in the appendix, we obtain that \( l\text{rbe}^E_{\text{HT}}(T^p, \sqsubseteq) \) and \( \text{osc}_{\text{HT}}(T^p, \sqsubseteq) \) hold. From Theorem 5.3.1, we obtain that \( \text{ES} \) satisfies \( \text{IFP}^p \).

This concludes the proof of Theorem 7.5.1. \( \Box \)

The following theorem shows that if a DMWL process executes a program that is the result of a successful type check with the type system from Figure 7.5 then the process satisfies its security requirements. This theorem provides a basis for checking \( \text{IFP}^p \) mechanically.

Theorem 7.5.3. Let \( C, C' \in \text{CMD} \) be DMWL commands, \( p \in \text{PID} \) be a process identifier, and \( \text{ES} \) be the event system induced by the state-event system \( \text{DMWLProcess}(p, C') \).

If \( \tilde{C} \hookrightarrow \tilde{C}' : \tilde{S}l \) is derivable then \( \text{ES} \) satisfies \( \text{IFP}^p \). \( \diamond \)

Proof. Follows immediately from Theorems 7.2.13 and 7.5.1. \( \Box \)

This concludes the security analysis of individual processes. We have shown that every process that executes a strongly secure program satisfies its security requirements (in Theorem 7.5.1) and that these security requirements can be checked with the type system in Figure 7.5.

7.6 Composing Systems

Let us now outline how information flow properties can be verified for complex systems that are composed of multiple components by exploiting a compositionality theorem. In the running example, we investigate distributed systems that are composed of one or more DMWL processes, each of which is strongly secure. We identify the security requirements for such a system along the same lines as for single processes. Then we verify that the composed system satisfies its security requirements. In order to simplify this proof, we employ a compositionality theorem.

7.6.1 How to Proceed during System Composition

In the following, we assume that each system component has already been specified by an event system, i.e. there is a finite set \( \mathcal{E}S \) of event systems where each \( \mathcal{E}S'^l \in \mathcal{E}S \) specifies one system component. Moreover, we assume that the security requirements of each component
have been specified by a set of information flow properties that have already been verified. More precisely, we assume that, for each component $ES^i \in \mathcal{E}S$, a finite set of information flow properties $\{IFP_1^i, \ldots, IFP_{n_{ES^i}}^i\}$ has been verified.

A formal security model for the composed system can be constructed as follows:

1. Specify the overall system by the event system $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ that is defined by $ES = \bigsqcup_{ES^i \in \mathcal{E}S} ES^i$. This means, $ES$ is the event system that results when composing the event systems for the system components.

2. Specify the security requirements for the composed system by a set of information flow properties $\{IFP_1, \ldots, IFP_{n_{ES}}\}$. This can be done like explained in Section 7.4.

3. For each information flow property $IFP_j$ specified in step 2, proceed as follows:
   
   (a) Check whether a known compositionality theorem is applicable in the sense that it entails that $ES$ satisfies $IFP_j$ and all of its preconditions are fulfilled. For example, the compositionality theorems in Sections 6.5–6.7 are possible candidates. If a known compositionality theorem is applicable then conclude that $ES$ satisfies $IFP_j$.
   
   (b) If none of the known compositionality theorems is applicable then try to derive a compositionality theorem (e.g. along the lines described in Section 6.5). If you have been successful and the derived result is applicable then conclude that $ES$ satisfies $IFP_j$ (and add the theorem to your collection for use in future verifications).
   
   (c) If the attempts under 3(a) and 3(b) are not successful then do one of the following:
      
      i. Choose an information flow property $IFP_j^i$ that is more restrictive and return to step 3(a) in order to verify that $ES$ satisfies $IFP_j^i$.
      
      ii. Prove $IFP_j$ without the help of a compositionality theorem (like described in Section 7.5).

7.6.2 The Running Example

In our running example, we proceed as follows. After performing steps 1, 2, 3(a–b), we will detect that no suitable compositionality theorem can be derived for $IFP$. Therefore, we will move to a more restrictive information flow property (step 3(c)i). After performing step 3(a,b) for this strengthened information property, we will succeed with our verification effort.

In the following, let $PID$ be a set of process identifiers and, for each $p \in PID$, let $initthread_p \in CMD$ be a DMWL-command.

**System Specification.** In this section, we employ the system model of event systems (rather than that of state-event systems). In the following two definitions, we specify DMWL processes and DMWL process pools, respectively, by event systems.

**Definition 7.6.1 (ES^p).** For $p \in PID$, we define $ES^p = (E^p, I^p, O^p, Tr^p)$ as the event system that is induced by the state-event system $DMWLProcess(p, initthread_p)$.

**Definition 7.6.2 (ES^P).** Let $P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\} \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. We define $ES^P = (E^P, I^P, O^P, Tr^P)$ by $ES^P = ES^{p_1} \parallel \ldots \parallel ES^{p_n}$.

The following theorem shows that $ES^P$ is the event system that is induced by the state-event system $DMWLProcPool((p_1, initthread_1), \ldots, (p_n, initthread_n))$, i.e. the state-event system that models the DMWL process pool.
Theorem 7.6.3. Let \( P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\} \subseteq \text{PID} \) be finite and nonempty. The event system induced by \( \text{DMWLProcPool}((p_1, \text{initread}_1), \ldots, (p_n, \text{initread}_n)) \) and \( \text{ES}^P \) are equal. \( \Diamond \)

Proof. Follows from Theorem 7.3.7 and Definitions 7.3.8, 7.6.1, and 7.6.2. \( \square \)

Security Specification. The security requirements for DMWL process pools can be determined along the same lines as for individual DMWL processes (cf. the paragraphs on confidentiality requirements and integrity requirements in Section 7.5.2).

The resulting security requirement is that initial values of high variables must not be leaked to the low level. In other words, occurrences of events observable for the low-level environment must not depend on the occurrence of events \( \text{setvar}_p(h, \text{val}) \) (modeling the initialization of the high variable in some process \( p \in P \)). Values of high variables may be communicated on high channels between processes and process pools. Therefore, a process pool must handle messages on incoming high channels with the same care as the initial value of high variables in any of its processes. Moreover, it must not be leaked how many messages are present on incoming high channels. The resulting security requirements are captured in the following definition of the view \( \mathcal{HT}^P \), which is very similar to the specification of the security requirements of a single DMWL process by the view \( \mathcal{HT}^p \) (cf. Definition 7.4.2).

Definition 7.6.4. For a finite and nonempty set \( P \subseteq \text{PID} \), the view \( \mathcal{HT}^P = (V^P, N^P, C^P) \) is defined as follows:

\[
V^P = \left\{ \text{schedule}_p(tid), \text{yield}_p(info), \text{outvar}_p(l, \text{val}), \text{setvar}_p(l, \text{val}), \begin{array}{c}
\text{start}_p, \text{trans}(cid, \text{val}) \\
p \in P, \text{level}(cid) = \text{low}
\end{array} \right\}
\]

\[
N^P = \bigcup_{p \in P} E_{\text{local}}^p \cup \left\{ \text{outvar}_p(h, \text{val}), \text{trans}(cid, \text{val}) \begin{array}{c}
p \in P, \text{level}(cid) = \text{high}, \\
\text{sender}(cid) \in P
\end{array} \right\}
\]

\[
C^P = \left\{ \text{setvar}_p(h, \text{val}), \text{trans}(cid, \text{val}) \begin{array}{c}
p \in P, \text{level}(cid) = \text{high}, \\
\text{receiver}(cid) \in P, \\
\text{sender}(cid) \notin P
\end{array} \right\}
\]

According to the above definition, \( V^P = \bigcup_{p \in P} V^p \) and \( N^P = \bigcup_{p \in P} N^p \) hold.

The security predicate for DMWL process pools can be determined along the same lines as for individual processes (cf. the corresponding paragraph in Section 7.5.2). Like for individual processes, this leads to the selection of BSD and an instance of BSIA\(^p\). The admissibility function \( \rho^p \) that is used to instantiate BSIA\(^p\) returns the set of all \( \text{start}-\)events of processes in the process pool, i.e. \( \rho^p(\mathcal{HT}^P) = \{\text{start}_p \mid p \in P\} \). It is important that all \( \text{start}-\)events are contained in this set because the set \( C^P \) of confidential events contains events \( \text{setvar}_p(h, \text{val}) \) for all processes in the process pool.

Definition 7.6.5. Let \( P \subseteq \text{PID} \) be finite and nonempty. Define \( SP^P = \text{BSD} \land \text{BSIA}^p \) where \( \rho^p(\mathcal{HT}^P) = \{\text{start}_p \mid p \in P\} \). \( \Diamond \)

This results in the following information flow property for process pools.

Definition 7.6.6. Let \( P \subseteq \text{PID} \) be finite and nonempty. Define the information flow property \( IFP^P = (\{\mathcal{HT}^P\}, SP^P) \). \( \Diamond \)
7.6 Composing Systems

Obviously, the event system that specifies a process pool that consists of a single process only equals the event system that specifies this process (i.e. $ES^p = ES^p$ holds). The specification of the security requirements for a process pool that consists of a single process should also equal the specification of the security requirements of that process. The following three theorems demonstrate that this is, indeed, the case.

**Theorem 7.6.7.** For each $p \in PID$, we have $\mathcal{H}^p = \mathcal{H}^p$.

*Proof.* The equations $V^p = V^p$, $N^p = N^p$, and $C^p = C^p$ follow immediately from Definitions 7.4.2 and 7.6.4. □

**Theorem 7.6.8.** For each $p \in PID$, we have $SP^p = SP^p$.

*Proof.* Follows immediately from Definitions 7.4.3 and 7.6.5. □

**Theorem 7.6.9.** For each $p \in PID$, we have $IFP^p = IFP^p$.

*Proof.* Follows from Definitions 7.4.4 and 7.6.6 and Theorems 7.6.7 and 7.6.8. □

**Verification of Security Requirements.** The following theorem states that, for arbitrary collections of DMWL processes, strong security implies that $IFP^P$ holds. In other words, if every program in a distributed system is strongly secure then the overall system satisfies its security requirements.

**Theorem 7.6.10 (Satisfaction of security requirements for DMWL process pools).** Let $P \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. If, for each $p \in P$, $initthread_p$ is strongly secure then $ES^P$ satisfies $IFP^P$.

Rather than proving from scratch that $IFP^P$ holds for $ES^P$, which would be quite tedious, we want to exploit the fact that $IFP^p$ holds for each individual process $ES^p$ (follows from Theorem 7.5.1) by applying a compositionality theorem.

The following theorem permits us to view $ES^P$ as the composition of two event systems.

**Theorem 7.6.11.** Let $P, P', P'' \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. If $P' \cap P'' = \emptyset$ and $P' \cup P'' = P$ hold then $ES^P = ES^{P'} \parallel ES^{P''}$ holds.

*Proof.* Follows immediately from Definition 7.6.2 and the associativity/commutativity of the composition operator $\parallel$ (cf. Theorems 6.2.3 and 6.2.4). □

For proving Theorem 7.6.10, we proceed like outlined in Section 7.6.1 (steps 3(a)–3(c)).

**Check for Known Compositionality Theorems.** Since $IFP^P$ is a novel information flow property, no compositionality theorem is known for it.

**Derive a Compositionality Theorem.** Unfortunately, we cannot derive a general compositionality theorem for $IFP^P$. Let us illustrate the reasons for this at the example of a system $ES^P$ that is composed of two components $ES^{P'}$ and $ES^{P''}$ that satisfy $IFP^{P'}$ and $IFP^{P''}$, respectively. Since output events of $ES^{P'}$ may be input events of $ES^{P''}$ and output events of $ES^{P''}$ may be input events of $ES^{P'}$, $N^{P'} \cap E^{P''} \neq \emptyset$ as well as $N^{P''} \cap E^{P'} \neq \emptyset$ may hold. In other words, corrections made during the local information flow analysis of $ES^{P'}$
may cause perturbations for $ES^{P''}$ and corrections made during the local information flow analysis of $ES^{P''}$ may cause perturbations for $ES^{P'}$. Since the BSPs $BSD$ and $BSIA^{P''}$ are ingredients of $IFP^P$, it is possible to locally correct for each component the perturbations caused by the respective other component. However, there is no guarantee that the overall process of locally correcting perturbations terminates because correcting a perturbation for the first component may lead to perturbations for the second component, whose corrections for the second component may lead to perturbations for the first component, and so on. In other words, we cannot conclude that the composition of $ES^{P'}$ and $ES^{P''}$ is well behaved wrt. the views $\mathcal{H}^{P'}$ and $\mathcal{H}^{P''}$ (cf. Definition 6.3.6). This is the reason why we cannot derive a compositionality theorem for $IFP^P$.

Since we cannot derive a compositionality theorem for $IFP^P$, we move to a more restrictive information flow property.

**Strengthening the Information Flow Property.** Our above observations together with the definition of a well-behaved composition (cf. Definition 6.3.6) suggest two possibilities for strengthening $IFP^P$. Firstly, we could modify the definition of $\mathcal{H}^{P}$ (aiming at making condition 1, 2, or 3 in Definition 6.3.6 true) and, secondly, we could change the definition of $SP^P$ (aiming at making condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6 true). We choose the second possibility.\[10\] More specifically, we strengthen the security predicate by adding an instance of $FCI^{\Gamma}$. Adding an instance of $FCI^{\Gamma}$ to $BSD$ and $BSIA^{P''}$ has the effect that more perturbations are demanded and that fewer corrections are permitted. Namely, for $\Gamma = (\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon)$, events in $C \cap \Upsilon$ must be insertable at every point of a trace where some event in $V \cap \Delta$ is enabled (rather than only at points where they are $\rho$-admissible) and the permitted corrections are constrained when an event in $C \cap \Upsilon$ is inserted at a point where it is immediately followed by an occurrence of some event in $V \cap \Delta$ (cf. Section 3.4.5 for how forward-correctable BSPs restrict the permitted corrections). Let us define appropriate parameters for $FCI^{\Gamma}$.\[11\]

**Definition 7.6.12.** Let $P \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. We define $\Gamma^P = (\nabla^P, \Delta^P, \Upsilon^P)$ by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\nabla^P &= \{ \text{trans}(cid, val) \mid \text{receiver}(cid) \in P, \text{sender}(cid) \notin P \} \\
\Delta^P &= \emptyset \\
\Upsilon^P &= \nabla^P
\end{align*}
\]

This results in the following modified security predicate and information flow property.

**Definition 7.6.13 ($CSP^P$).** Let $P \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. We define the security predicate $CSP^P = BSD \land BSIA^{P''} \land FCI^{\Gamma^P}$.\[\circ\]

**Definition 7.6.14 ($CIFP^P$).** Let $P \subseteq PID$ be finite and nonempty. We define the information flow property $CIFP^P =$ $\{\mathcal{H}^{P'}\}, CSP^P$.\[\circ\]

Since we have constructed $CSP^P$ from $SP^P$ by adding $FCI^{\Gamma^P}$, it is quite obvious that $CIFP^P$ implies $IFP^P$. For future references, this is stated in the following theorem.

\[10\]Choosing the first possibility would result in a quite essential change of the information flow property and there is little hope that a composable property derived along these lines would be implied by strong security.

\[11\]The parameter $\Gamma^P = (\nabla^P, \Delta^P, \Upsilon^P)$ is chosen such that the conditions demanded by Definition 6.3.6 and Theorem 6.4.1 are satisfied. That this is indeed the case will be shown in Lemmas 7.6.17, 7.6.18, and 7.6.19.

\[12\]The "C" in $CSP$ and $CIFP$ stands for "composable".
Theorem 7.6.15. Let \( P \subseteq PID \) be finite and nonempty. If \( ES^P \) satisfies \( CIFP^P \) then \( ES^P \) also satisfies \( IFP^P \). \(\Box\)

Proof. Follows immediately from Definitions 7.6.6, 7.6.5, 7.6.14, and 7.6.13. \(\Box\)

In general, \( BSIA^P \) does not imply \( FCI^P \) (i.e. for arbitrary systems). Hence, \( CIFP^P \) is more restrictive than \( IFP^P \). Fortunately, for the special case of DMWL processes, the satisfaction of \( IFP^P \) implies the satisfaction of \( CIFP^P \).

Theorem 7.6.16. Let \( p \in PID \). If \( ES^P \) satisfies \( IFP^P \) then \( ES^P \) satisfies \( CIFP^P \).

Proof. We show that if \( BSIA^P \subseteq (Tr^P) \) holds then \( FCI^P \subseteq (Tr^P) \) holds.

Assume \( \alpha, \beta \in E^*, c \in C \subseteq \{p\} \cap \{v\} \), and \( v \in V \subseteq \{p\} \cap \{v\} \) with \( \beta, \langle v,c \rangle, \alpha \in Tr^P \) and \( \alpha|_{C\{v\}} = \emptyset \). Hence, \( c = \text{trans}(cid, val) \) where \( \text{level}(cid) = \text{high} \) and \( \text{receiver}(cid) = p \). Moreover, we have \( v = \text{trans}(cid', val') \) with \( \text{level}(cid') = \text{low} \) and \( \text{receiver}(cid') = p \).

\( BSIA^P \subseteq (Tr^P) \), \( total(ES^P, \{\text{trans}(cid, val) \mid \text{receiver}(cid) = p\}) \), and Theorem 7.6.7 ensure that \( \alpha' \in E^* \) exists with \( \beta, \langle v,c \rangle, \alpha' \in Tr^P \), \( \alpha'|_{V\{v\}} = \alpha|_{V\{v\}} \), \( \alpha'|_{C\{v\}} = \emptyset \). The event \( c \) has no preconditions and affects only \( \text{inbuf}_p(cid) \) (where \( p = \text{receiver}(cid) \)). Since \( cid' \neq cid \), the occurrence of \( \text{trans}(cid', val') \) neither depends on \( \text{inbuf}_p(cid) \) nor does it affect \( \text{inbuf}_p(cid) \).

Hence, \( c \) and \( v \) can be exchanged in the trace. This means \( \beta, \langle c,v \rangle, \alpha' \in Tr^P \) holds. \(\Box\)

We are now ready to return to step 3(a) with the strengthened information flow property.

Check for Known Compositionality Theorem. Since \( CIFP^P \) is a novel information flow property, no compositionality theorem is known for it.

Try to Derive a Compositionality Theorem. We proceed like described in Section 6.5: Firstly, we show that the views for the system components constitute a proper separation of the view for the composed system. Secondly, we show that the composition of the components is well behaved wrt. the views for the components. Thirdly, we verify the preconditions of the compositionality results for all BSPPs from which \( CSP^P \) is assembled. Finally, we apply these compositionality results and conclude that \( CIFP^P \) holds for the composed system.

The following lemma shows that \( HI^P \) and \( HI^P'' \) constitute a proper separation of \( HI^P \).

Lemma 7.6.17 (Proper separation). Let \( P, P^I, P^H \subseteq PID \) be finite, nonempty sets such that \( P^I \cap P^H = \emptyset \) and \( P = P^I \cup P^H \) hold. The following propositions are valid:

1. \( V \cap E^P = V^P \) and \( V \cap E^P = V^P \) hold.
2. \( C \cap E^P \subseteq C^P \) and \( C \cap E^P \subseteq C^P \) hold.
3. \( N^P \cap N^P = \emptyset \) holds. \(\Box\)

Proof. Follows immediately from Definition 7.6.4. \(\Box\)

We show that the composition of \( ES^P \) and \( ES^P'' \) is well behaved wrt. \( HI^P \) and \( HI^P'' \).

Lemma 7.6.18 (Well-behaved composition). Let \( P, P^I, P^H \subseteq PID \) be finite and nonempty sets with \( P^I \cap P^H = \emptyset \) and \( P = P^I \cup P^H \). If \( ES^P \) and \( ES^P'' \) satisfy \( CIFP^P \) and \( CIFP^P'' \), respectively, then the composition of \( ES^P \) and \( ES^P'' \) is well behaved wrt. \( HI^P \) and \( HI^P'' \). \(\Box\)
Proof. We show that condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6 is fulfilled.

$$BSIA_{\mathcal{H}^P} (p^P, (Tr^P))$$ and $$BSIA_{\mathcal{H}^{P''}} (p^{P''}, (Tr^{P''}))$$ hold by assumption. Since trans-events that are input events of $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$ are always enabled, we have total($$ES^{P'}, C^{P'} \cap \Upsilon^{P'}$$) and total($$ES^{P''}, C^{P''} \cap \Upsilon^{P''}$$). Hence, condition 4(a) holds.

$$FCIA_{\mathcal{H}^P} (p^P, (Tr^P))$$ follows from $$FCI_{\mathcal{H}^P} (p^P, (Tr^P))$$, and $$FCIA_{\mathcal{H}^{P''}} (p^{P''}, (Tr^{P''}))$$ follows from $$FCI_{\mathcal{H}^{P''}} (p^{P''}, (Tr^{P''}))$$. Hence, condition 4(b) holds.

DMWL process pools that are composed may only have trans-events in common. Moreover, the shared events must be input events of one process pool and output events of the other. Since $$\nabla^{P'}$$ and $$\nabla^{P''}$$ contain all trans-events that are input events for $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$, respectively, we have $$V^{P'} \cap V^{P''} \subseteq \nabla^{P'} \cup \nabla^{P''}$$. Hence, condition 4(c) holds.

Since the components may only have trans-events in common, all events in $$C^{P'}$$ and $$C^{P''}$$ are input events of $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$, respectively, and $$\Upsilon^{P'}$$ and $$\Upsilon^{P''}$$ contains all trans-events that are input events for $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$, respectively, we have $$C^{P'} \cap \Upsilon^{P'} \subseteq \nabla^{P'}$$ and $$C^{P''} \cap \Upsilon^{P''} \subseteq \nabla^{P''}$$. Hence, condition 4(d) holds.

From $$\Delta^{P'} = \emptyset$$ and $$\Delta^{P''} = \emptyset$$, we obtain that $$N^{P'} \cap \Delta^{P'} \cap E^{P'} = \emptyset$$ and $$N^{P''} \cap \Delta^{P''} \cap E^{P''} = \emptyset$$. Hence, condition 4(e) holds.

Let us show that the remaining preconditions of Theorem 6.4.1(1,3,5) are satisfied.

**Lemma 7.6.19.** Let $$P, P', P'' \subseteq PID$$ be finite, nonempty sets such that $$P' \cap P'' = \emptyset$$ and $$P = P' \cup P''$$ hold. If $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$ satisfy CFP$$^{P'}$$ and CFP$$^{P''}$$, respectively, then the following propositions are valid:

1. $$\rho^{P'} (\mathcal{H}^P) \subseteq \rho^{P'} (\mathcal{H}^P) \cap E^{P'}$$ and $$\rho^{P''} (\mathcal{H}^{P''}) \subseteq \rho^{P''} (\mathcal{H}^{P''}) \cap E^{P''}$$ hold.
2. total($$ES^{P'}, C^{P'} \cap \Upsilon^{P'}$$) and total($$ES^{P''}, C^{P''} \cap \Upsilon^{P''}$$) hold.
3. $$\nabla^P \cap E^{P'} \subseteq \nabla^P$$ and $$\nabla^P \cap E^{P''} \subseteq \nabla^P$$ hold.
4. $$\Upsilon^P \cap E^{P'} \subseteq \Upsilon^P$$ and $$\Upsilon^P \cap E^{P''} \subseteq \Upsilon^P$$ hold.
5. $$\Delta^P \subseteq ((N^{P'} \cap \Delta^{P'}) \cup (N^{P''} \cap \Delta^{P''}))$$ holds.
6. $$N^{P'} \cap \Delta^{P'} \cap E^{P'} = \emptyset$$ and $$N^{P''} \cap \Delta^{P''} \cap E^{P''} = \emptyset$$ hold. 

**Proof.** We have $$\rho^{P'} (\mathcal{H}^P) = \{ \text{start}_p \mid p \in P' \} = \{ \text{start}_p \mid p \in P \} \cap E^{P'} = \rho^{P} (\mathcal{H}^P) \cap E^{P'}$$. That $$\rho^{P''} (\mathcal{H}^{P''}) \subseteq \rho^{P''} (\mathcal{H}^{P''}) \cap E^{P''}$$ holds can be shown along the same lines.

Proposition 2 has already been shown in the proof of Lemma 7.6.18.

Since $$\nabla^P$$ and $$\nabla^{P'}$$ contain only trans-events that are input events of $$ES^P$$ and $$ES^{P'}$$, respectively, $$\nabla^P \cap E^{P'}$$ equals $$\nabla^{P'}$$ minus the set of trans-events on channels that become communication events when composing the components. Hence, $$\nabla^P \cap E^{P'} \subseteq \nabla^{P'}$$ holds. That $$\nabla^P \cap E^{P''} \subseteq \nabla^{P''}$$ holds can be shown along the same lines.

Proposition 4 can be shown like proposition 2 ($$\Upsilon^P = \nabla^P$$ holds).

Propositions 5 and 6 follow immediately from $$\Delta^{P'} = \emptyset$$ and $$\Delta^{P''} = \emptyset$$. 

We are now ready to derive a compositionality theorem for CFP$^P$.

**Theorem 7.6.20.** Let $$P, P', P'' \subseteq PID$$ be finite, nonempty sets such that $$P' \cap P'' = \emptyset$$ and $$P = P' \cup P''$$ hold. If $$ES^{P'}$$ and $$ES^{P''}$$ satisfy CFP$$^{P'}$$ and CFP$$^{P''}$$, respectively, then $$ES^P$$ satisfies CFP$^P$.

$\diamond$
Proof. $ES^P$ satisfies $CIFP^P$ iff and only if $BSD_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P) \land BSD_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P) \land FCI_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P)$ (cf. Definition 7.6.14). By assumption, $BSD_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P)$, $BSD_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P')$, $BSIA_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P)$, $BSIA_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P')$, $BSIA_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P')$, $FCI_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P)$, and $FCI_{\mathcal{HT}}^P(Tr^P')$. We obtain from Lemmas 7.6.17, 7.6.18, and 7.6.19 that Theorem 6.4.1(1,3,5) is applicable.

We are now ready to prove that a DMWL process pool $ES^P$ that executes programs that are strongly secure satisfies $CIFP^P$. In the proof of the following theorem, we exploit the fact that if a DMWL Process $ES^p$ is strongly secure then it satisfies $CIFP^p$ and the fact that $CIFP^P$ is preserved when composing DMWL process pools.

**Theorem 7.6.21.** Let $P \subseteq \mathcal{PID}$ be finite and nonempty.

If, for each $p \in P$, $\text{initthread}_p$ is strongly secure then $ES^P$ satisfies $CIFP^P$.

**Proof.** We prove the theorem by induction on the size of $P$.

In the base case $P = \{p\}$ holds for some $p \in \mathcal{PID}$. Since $\text{initthread}_p$ is strongly secure, Theorem 7.5.1 implies that $ES^P$ satisfies $IFP^P$. From Theorems 7.6.9 and 7.6.16, we obtain that $ES^p$ satisfies $CIFP^p$. This concludes the proof of the base case.

In the step case, let $P', P'' \subseteq \mathcal{PID}$ be finite, nonempty sets such that $P' \cap P'' = \emptyset$ and $P = P' \cup P''$ hold. Since $P'$ and $P''$ each contain strictly fewer process identifiers than $P$, the induction hypothesis is applicable. We obtain from the induction hypothesis that $ES^{P'}$ and $ES^{P''}$ satisfy $CIFP^{P'}$ and $CIFP^{P''}$, respectively. From Theorem 7.6.20, we obtain that $ES^P$ satisfies $CIFP^P$.

Now we are ready to prove Theorem 7.6.10, which is the main result of this section.

**Proof (of Theorem 7.6.10).** According to Theorem 7.6.21, $ES^P$ satisfies $CIFP^P$. From Theorem 7.6.15, we obtain that $ES^P$ satisfies $IFP^P$.

We have finally shown that a DMWL process pool $ES^P$ that executes strongly secure programs fulfills its security requirements (modeled by the information flow property $IFP^P$).

The following theorem shows that if a DMWL process pool executes programs that are the result of a successful type check with the type system from Figure 7.5 then the process pool satisfies its security requirements. This theorem provides the basis for checking $IFP^P$ mechanically.

**Theorem 7.6.22.** Let $P \subseteq \mathcal{PID}$ be finite and nonempty. For each $p \in P$, let $C_p \in C\tilde{M}D$.

If, for each $p \in P$, $C_p \leftarrow \text{initthread}_p : \tilde{S}1$ is derivable then $ES^P$ satisfies $IFP^P$.

**Proof.** Follows immediately from Theorems 7.2.13 and 7.6.10.

Note that, by following the approach proposed in Section 6.5, the derivation of a compositionality theorem for $CIFP^P$ has been quite straightforward (cf. proof of Theorem 7.6.20). In other words, we have demonstrated by our case study that it is feasible to use novel information flow properties (for which no unwinding theorems or compositionality theorems are known) in the construction of a formal security model and to derive unwinding theorems and compositionality theorems for this property when they are needed.
Remark 7.6.23. In Theorem 7.5.1 we have shown that every strongly secure process (with identifier \( p \)) satisfies the information flow property \( IFP^p \). This theorem has been applied in the base case of the proof of Theorem 7.6.21. A comparison of the proofs of Theorems 7.5.1 and 7.6.21 shows how much simpler it is to prove the satisfaction of an information flow property with a compositionality theorem than to prove it with the help of unwinding. For a fair comparison of the two proofs, the proof of Lemmas 7.5.2, E.4.1, and E.4.2 should be counted as being part of the proof of Theorem 7.5.1. Note also that Theorem 7.6.21 involves a more complex system than Theorem 7.5.1 (process pools rather than individual processes).

The obvious advice that follows from this is: if possible, prove security requirements with the help of a compositionality theorem. In particular, for complex systems, this is preferable to proving security requirements directly (with or without unwinding). \( \Diamond \)

7.7 History of this Case Study

Sabelfeld and Sands investigated language-based security in the context of a simple imperative programming language, the MWL language [SS00]. This language incorporates features for multi-threaded programming but does not provide the commands for inter-process communication that are essential for distributed programming (cf. the beginning of Section 7.2). The version of the strong security condition that Sabelfeld and Sands proposed for MWL can be obtained from Definition 7.2.9 by dropping all requirements for channel status functions (in particular, in Definition 7.2.7). Channel status functions are not needed in a non-distributed setting. For checking the strong security condition for MWL programs, Sabelfeld and Sands's proposed a security type system. Their type system can be obtained from the one in Figure 7.5 by dropping the rules for communication commands. Sabelfeld and Sands proved formally that their type system is sound in the sense that if the type check succeeds then a strongly secure program results from the transformation. Moreover, they showed that strong security is a scheduler-independent security condition (deriving it from a scheduler-dependent security condition by universally quantifying over all schedulers from a large class). That is, programs that are strongly secure can be securely executed on systems with arbitrary schedulers. In particular, this covers the case where the adversary chooses the scheduler. However, strong security has not been formally compared to more established security properties. The main motivation for a first version of this case study (presented in [MS01]) was to establish such a connection in a rigorous way and, thereby to increase the confidence in the strong security condition. This first version covered the scheduler-independent language-based techniques for MWL as described in [SS00].

The first version of our case study inspired an extension of the language-based techniques to a distributed programming language with commands for inter-process communication. In [MS03a], the extended language DMWL is described and a suitable modification of strong security is defined. A type system for checking the modified strong security condition is presented in [SM02]. This extension of Sabelfeld and Sands's approach to language-based security constituted the starting point of our case study in this chapter.

In a second version of our case study (also presented in [MS03a]), we have lifted the results of the first version to DMWL. We defined an information flow property \( SecProp \), proved that every strongly secure process satisfies \( SecProp \), and then verified with the help of a compositionality result that collections of strongly secure processes (i.e. distributed programs) also satisfy \( SecProp \). This second version of our case study has the same scope as the one
presented in this chapter but, nevertheless, there are a few noteworthy differences.

One difference is how the information flow properties have been verified. While we have verified them without using any verification technique in [MS03a], we have applied the unwinding technique here in order to simplify the proof. For lifting this result to distributed programs, a compositionality theorem has been derived from scratch in [MS03a]. In contrast to this, we here have employed the approach proposed in Chapter 6 for deriving a suitable compositionality theorem. In particular, we have exploited our compositionality results for BSPs in this process. This considerably simplified the proof of the compositionality result (both in length and complexity).

The presentation in [MS03a] (or [MS01]) has a peculiarity that we have omitted in this chapter. This is that the system specification is constructed in two steps. Firstly, a generic specification of processes is defined that is independent from the particular programming language. Secondly, this generic specification is specialized for DMWL (or MWL). The information flow property is defined using terms only from the generic specification. The objective of this approach was to make possible an extension to other programming languages besides DMWL (MWL). Having the option to use different languages for different processes in a distributed program but, nevertheless, having a uniform notion of security for all processes is an appealing perspective. However, this possibility is an option for the future that has not been exploited so far.

For completeness, Appendix E.5 lists the remaining differences between the second version of our case study and the version in this chapter.

7.8 Summary

In this chapter, we have demonstrated how our framework MAKS (Chapter 3) and the results about information flow properties that we derived with the help of MAKS (in Chapters 4–6) can be successfully applied in the context of a concrete case study. The case study that we have investigated stems from the area of language-based security.

We have presented preliminaries on language-based security to the extent necessary for understanding the case study (cf. Section 7.2). In particular, we have defined syntax and semantics of the DMWL language, a simple imperative language offering features for distributed and multi-threaded programming. We have also presented the definition of strong security, a language-based security condition, and a sound security type system for checking strong security mechanically. The particular variant of language-based security that we investigated is an extension of the approach by Sabelfeld and Sands [SS00] to a distributed setting. This extension is a joint work by Sabelfeld and myself [MS03a, SM02], which, interestingly, was motivated by a previous version of our case study [MS01].

We have specified DMWL processes in an event-based specification formalism (cf. Section 7.3). This specification captures the operational semantics of DMWL in an adequate way (cf. Theorems E.3.5–E.3.8). The specification of DMWL processes constitutes the system component of our security model (cf. Figure 3.1), which is a prerequisite for applying information flow properties in a concrete setting.\textsuperscript{13}

The demonstration of how our results can be applied in the context of the case study

\textsuperscript{13}Recall that, in Chapters 3–6, we have left the system specification parametric (except for in examples) and only committed ourselves to a particular system model, namely event systems. This means, our results in these chapters can be applied for all systems specified by event systems.
started in Section 7.4. In that section, we have specified the security requirements for a single DMWL process by an information flow property. This information flow property was defined using the concepts of MAKS (introduced in Chapter 3), i.e. we defined a view (HIT) and assembled a security predicate \( SP \) from two BSPs \( BSD \) and \( BSIA \). The resulting property specification \( IFP \) constitutes the security component of our security model (cf. Figure 3.1). The information flow property \( IFP \) differs from previously proposed ones, i.e., while performing the case study we have discovered a new information flow property. By this example, we have illustrated how easily information flow properties can be constructed in a goal-directed and application-driven way with the help of MAKS. By incorporating the newly discovered information flow property into our taxonomy (from Chapter 4), we have clarified the relations between this property and the known ones (cf. Remark 7.4.5).

The main result of our case study (Theorem 7.6.10) establishes a rigorous relation between strong security and the defined information flow property. More precisely, it states that if every program in a given collection is strongly secure then the resulting system satisfies \( IFP \) (the straightforward extension of \( IFP \) to sets of processes). In the proof of this result, we have exploited the techniques proposed in Chapters 5 and 6. Rather than verifying \( IFP \) for distributed programs directly (i.e. by investigating the set of possible traces), we have applied a compositionality theorem in this process. Since no suitable compositionality theorem existed \( IFP \) is novel, we had to derive a new one. Following the approach from Chapter 6 greatly simplified this derivation (in comparison to the proof of Theorem 10 in [MS03a] that does not make use of these generic techniques). However, for deriving a suitable compositionality theorem, we had to strengthen \( IFP \) resulting in \( CIFP \) (another novel information flow property). Without this modification, the derivation of the theorem would not have been possible. Apparently, strengthening an information flow property for deriving a compositionality result bears similarities, in spirit, with inductive theorem proving where it is often necessary to strengthen an induction formula for proving the step case. A prerequisite for applying a compositionality result is that all system components are known to satisfy the information flow property under consideration. Therefore, we verified that \( IFP \) holds for each strongly secure process with identifier \( p \) (cf. Theorem 7.5.1). Applying the unwinding techniques (from Chapter 5) simplified the proof of this result considerably (in comparison to the proof of Theorem 4 in [MS03a] which does not make use of unwinding). Note that we could easily apply unwinding although \( IFP \) is a new information flow property (and, hence, obviously no specialized unwinding results were known for it prior to our case study). By this example, we have illustrated the strengths of the approach that we proposed in Chapter 5: By representing \( IFP \) in MAKS, we have obtained an unwinding result “for free”. After showing that \( IFP \) implies \( CIFP \) for DMWL processes (cf. Theorem 7.6.16), we obtained from the fact that every strongly secure process satisfies \( IFP \) and our compositionality result that \( CIFP \) holds for DMWL process pools that execute strongly secure programs. This was the result for which we were aiming with our case study because it increases the confidence in the strong security condition by relating it to a more established class of security properties. At this point, the reader is invited to go back to Definitions 7.2.5–7.2.9 in order to compare the definition of strong security with the information flow property \( IFP \) (cf. Definition 7.6.6). In our opinion, the information flow property is more intuitive and also reveals aspects that cannot be easily obtained from the definition of strong security. In particular, it is more amenable to comparisons with other security properties (cf. Remark 7.4.5). This is the benefit gained by our case study.

From a different perspective, our results establish a basis for mechanically verifying \( IFP \)
by applying the security type system (cf. Figure 7.5) to each program. If all programs are type correct then the overall system satisfies $IFP^P$ (cf. Theorem 7.6.22).

The version of our case study in this chapter is complemented by two slightly different versions (due to Sabelfeld and myself) [MS01, MS03a]. Each of these versions emphasizes a different aspect. For example, the first version [MS01] established a rigorous connection between two independent approaches to security that were not "made to fit", i.e. MAKS and the original strong security condition for MWL [SS00] (cf. Section 7.7).

Although our case study is quite recent, the insights gained from it had already an impact on the area of language-based security. Namely, an earlier version of the case study inspired the extension of Sabelfeld and Sands's approach to a distributed setting [MS03a]. Moreover, a comparison of various combinations of communication primitives with different types of communication channels has clarified the advantages and disadvantages of these combinations wrt. security of the resulting programs. This has culminated in quite concrete advice for system architects (where to protect communication, e.g., by encryption or firewalls) and programmers (which primitives to use for secure communication on a given channel) [SM02].

Summarizing, the case study that we have presented in this chapter demonstrates the applicability and usefulness of our results. This includes the construction of a suitable information flow property driven by the demands of a particular application (using MAKS as described in Chapter 3). It also includes the elaboration of a basic understanding of the constructed information flow property by relating it to more established ones (using the taxonomy in Chapter 4). Moreover, the verification of the information flow property for simple systems (individual processes) by unwinding illustrates the application of our unwinding techniques (from Chapter 5). Finally, the verification of the information flow property for more complex, distributed systems (collections of processes) illustrates the value of a compositionality result (derived using the approach proposed in Chapter 6). In short, we have shown that MAKS eases the application of information flow properties in concrete applications. In particular, MAKS provides a suitable basis for defining new information flow properties when they are needed and for easily building up the infrastructure (unwinding theorems and compositionality theorems), which is crucial for applying these properties in formal developments.

In this chapter, we have applied our results in the domain of language-based security. Many other application areas are possible like, e.g., access control mechanisms, security protocols, database security, operating system security, and multi-agent system security. We refer to the literature for other successful applications of noninterference-like information flow properties. For example, in [Rus92], noninterference has been used for the analysis of Bell/La Padula-like access control, including the precise identification of the so called reference monitor assumption. Another example is the use of information flow properties to express the requirements of security protocols [FGG97, FGM99, FGM00, DFG00]. Moreover, in [SRS+00] noninterference is used to specify the main security requirements of an operating system in a formal security model and the unwinding technique is used to verify that these requirements are satisfied. The application of the results presented in this thesis in the context of secure multi-agent systems is underway [HMS03, Sch03].

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14 Besides the communication primitives considered in this chapter, there is also a primitive for synchronous send in [SM02]. Moreover, besides low channels or high channels, which can be viewed as channels that are, respectively, openly accessible or not accessible at all (e.g. protected by a firewall), channels for encrypted communication are investigated in that article. The extension of the case study in this respect is a task for future work.
Chapter 8

Conclusion and Outlook

8.1 Conclusions

This thesis has been motivated by the observation that specifying and verifying security requirements is a highly nontrivial task in practice. Our experience from real-world projects and various case studies is that the main difficulty lies in getting the specification right. The systems involved are often quite complex and one has to take into account that secure systems have to operate correctly even if the environment is hostile. This setting leads to a high complexity of the specification task and, due to this complexity, ad hoc approaches to specify security requirements are too error prone. Hence, the elaboration and improvement of more general approaches is crucial. This thesis is a contribution in this direction.

The approach that we have pursued is that of information flow security. Information flow properties provide a very elegant basis for the specification of security requirements concerning confidentiality and integrity. In the past, numerous information flow properties had been proposed that are based on the same intuitive idea (namely that of noninterference) but, nevertheless, differ in quite subtle ways. The desire to understand the various information flow properties, their similarities, their differences, and the consequences of these differences more deeply has been a driving force in our studies. Another driving force has been the aim to ease the application of information flow properties in practice. In this respect, it was of crucial importance to construct a framework that supports a specifier in defining appropriate information flow properties when they are needed.

By splitting the well known information flow properties into more primitive pieces and then generalizing these pieces, we have obtained a collection of building blocks for information flow properties (i.e. the BSPs). This collection constitutes the core of our framework MAKS. In MAKS, information flow properties are represented by a pair consisting of a set of views (specifying the application-specific restrictions on the flow of information) and a security predicate (giving a meaning to these restrictions) where the security predicate is assembled from BSPs by logical conjunction. This modular representation provides the basis for a divide-and-conquer approach to the investigation of information flow properties: complex information flow properties are investigated by, firstly, investigating all BSPs from which they are assembled and, secondly, lifting the results for the BSPs over the assembling operation.

This divide-and-conquer approach has been applied for various purposes: Based on a taxonomy for BSPs, we have derived a taxonomy of information flow properties that clarifies the relationship between different properties. Moreover, based on unwinding results for BSPs,
we have derived unwinding theorems for more complex information flow properties. These theorems can be applied to simplify the verification of information flow properties (i.e. global requirements on sets of traces) by reducing the overall verification task to the verification of unwinding conditions (i.e. local requirements on individual transitions). Finally, based on compositionality results for BSPs, we have derived several compositionality theorems for information flow properties. These compositionality theorems can be applied to reduce the verification of the overall system to the verification of each system component, thereby making the verification of large and complex systems feasible. In each of these cases, the divide-and-conquer approach has simplified the derivation of our results considerably.

Another important advantage of our divide-and-conquer approach is that our results for known properties can be easily extended to novel properties: After representing a novel information flow property in MAKs, the integration of this property into our taxonomy becomes straightforward, an unwinding theorem for this property can be obtained easily, and compositionality theorems for this property can be derived by exploiting the corresponding results for BSPs. We have illustrated these advantages by several examples (e.g. for the novel properties WFC, GNI*, and FC*). In practice, this means that one may use the information flow property that is most suitable for the given application in the construction of a formal security model (rather than being restricted to properties for which an infrastructure consisting of unwinding theorems and compositionality theorems already exists). In particular, the use of novel information flow properties for this purpose has become feasible because, based on our contributions, the necessary infrastructure can be obtained with almost no effort.

The basic concepts of MAKs (views and BSPs) are, on the one hand, sufficiently specific for deriving useful results about them and, on the other hand, sufficiently general for representing the well known information flow properties. This combination distinguishes our framework from those previously proposed. The concepts underlying the frameworks of Focardi/Gorrieri [FG95] and Zakynthinos/Lee [Zak96, ZL97] are not specific enough to derive interesting results about them. As a consequence, unwinding theorems and compositionality theorems have to be derived from scratch and for each information flow property independently, which can become quite tedious. In contrast to this, the concepts underlying the framework by McLean [McL94a, McL96] are specific enough to derive compositionality results, but they are not expressive enough to represent all properties of interest (cf. Appendix B). For example, forward correctability, the perfect security property, and the information flow property that we used in the case study cannot be represented in this framework. Table 8.1 highlights how the various frameworks compare in these respects and Table 8.2 compares the results about information flow properties that have been obtained in these frameworks.

In a case study, we have applied our framework MAKs for deriving an information flow property that is adequate for modeling the security requirements of distributed, multi-threaded, imperative programs. We have elaborated a basic understanding of the derived property by relating it to the well-established information flow properties with the help of our taxonomy. Moreover, we have employed our unwinding techniques to simplify the proof that every process (executing a program that is strongly secure in the sense of Sabelfeld and Sands) satisfies the information flow property. Finally, we have presented a compositionality theorem that allowed us to conclude the security of distributed systems consisting of multiple processes from the security of each individual process. In summary, we have successfully applied results from all areas to which we have contributed in this thesis. Based on our experiences, we are confident that this case study can serve as a guideline for future applications of our results, also in other application domains than that of language-based security (also
cf. the paragraph on applications in the next section).

8.2 Further Work and Outlook

During our studies, we have noticed several open issues in the area of information flow security. Naturally, we have not tackled all of them, for reasons of time. Moreover, we have not described all of our contributions in the main chapters of this thesis. However, many of these results have been documented elsewhere in detail [Man00c, Man01a, Man01b, SM02, MS03b, HMS03]. In the remainder of this conclusion, we briefly sketch these contributions and also point out areas for future work that we think are important.

Refinement. Refining a specification means moving from an abstract specification to a more concrete one, e.g., by making design decisions or by adding technical details. Unfortunately, information flow properties are not preserved under trace refinement, in general. This fact, also known as the refinement paradox [Ros95], is a consequence of the fact that information flow properties are properties of sets of traces rather than properties of traces [McL94a]. Hence, after refining a given specification that has been verified to satisfy some information flow property, one has to make sure that this property still holds after the refinement. However, re-verifying information flow properties after each refinement step would lead to a tremendous overhead thereby rendering the use of refinement during stepwise development impractical. Therefore, it is desirable to have restricted forms of refinement under which information flow properties are preserved.

Building on previous work by Jacob [Jac88, Jac89], McLean [McL92, McL94a], and Roscoe et al. [RWW94, Ros95], we have proposed operators that can be used to refine specifications while preserving the information flow properties of interest [Man00c, Man01b]. These refinement operators take an abstract specification, the desired trace refinement (cf. Definition C.1.1), and information about the proof of the information flow property at the abstract level as parameters and return a refined specification. Our refinement operators are sound in the sense that they ensure that the given information flow property is indeed preserved. The basic idea is to exploit the proof at the abstract level in order to construct the refinement in a way that preserves the given property. For example, if the perfect security property has been verified for the abstract system specification by unwinding then the unwinding relation can be used to ensure that the perfect security property is preserved under refinement [Man01b]. Obviously, the refined specification cannot be equal to the desired refinement in all cases (due to the refinement paradox), which means that the refinement operators have to construct an approximation of the desired trace refinement. These approximations are quite close to the desired refinements and we have been able, in some cases, to show that the constructed refinements are optimal approximations. The integration of refinement operators into MAKS is underway but has not yet been entirely completed. Another valuable direction for the future is to extend refinement operators to other notions of refinement than trace refinement like, e.g., action refinement or data refinement (building on work in [GCS91]).

Intransitive Information Flow Policies. Rather than interpreting a noninterference statement $F \not\to P$ by “information must not flow from $F$ to $P$” (as we have done in this thesis), one sometimes might want to interpret it more liberally by “information must not flow from $F$ to $P$ directly”. The difference between the two interpretations becomes apparent
if there is a security domain \( L \) with \( F \sim_{\nu} L \) and \( L \sim_{\nu} P \). Under the more liberal interpretation, information may flow from \( F \) to \( P \) via \( L \) while this is forbidden under the rigorous interpretation. The liberal interpretation is useful to model some form of downgrading or sanitizing of information (as we have illustrated in Example 3.3.5). Information flow properties that assume this interpretation are known as intransitive noninterference.\(^1\)

Historically, the development of intransitive noninterference occurred independently from the extension of noninterference to nondeterministic systems. As a result of this, the proposed notions of intransitive noninterference either were applicable only to deterministic systems \([HY87, Rus92, Pin95]\) or permitted only very limited nondeterminism \([RG99]\). In \([Man01b]\), we have proposed an approach to deal with intransitive information flow that overcomes this limitation in the sense that it can be applied to arbitrary nondeterministic systems. A corresponding extension of MAKS has already been developed and it has been shown that unwinding theorems for the resulting (intransitive) information flow properties can be obtained from unwinding results for BSPs like in the transitive case (cf. Chapter 5). We think that a similar extension of our approach to derive compositionality results (Chapter 6) to the intransitive case will be possible — but this remains to be elaborated.

**Other Variants of Information Flow Security.** So far, we have assumed a possibilistic, trace-based system model. However, information flow properties have also been investigated in other system models, possibilistic ones as well as probabilistic ones.

Probabilistic information flow properties like the flow model in \([McL90]\) or probabilistic noninterference as in \([Gra91]\) aim at the detection of covert channels that, otherwise, could be exploited using concepts from information theory \([WJ90, Sha48]\). Sabelfeld and Sands have demonstrated how a probabilistic security property can be approximated by a possibilistic property \([SS90]\) that constitutes a sound abstraction of the probabilistic property. How to abstract from the peculiarities of cryptographic primitives in a cryptographically-sound way has been elaborated by Pfitzmann, Schunter, Waidner, Steiner, and Backes \([PSW00, Sch00b, PW01, Ste02, Bac02]\). Heisel, Pfitzmann, and Santen have introduced the notion of confidentiality-preserving refinement \([HPS01, SHP02]\) and have used it to abstract away from the probabilities in a model of encrypted communication (where the probability distributions come from the choice of the cryptographic keys). Abstracting from probabilities and the peculiarities of cryptographic primitives is quite attractive because the resulting possibilistic properties and systems are conceptually much simpler than the real ones. What the possibilities and limits of such abstractions are is a question that deserves further investigation. Another interesting question is to what extent these abstractions can be combined with the possibilistic information flow properties investigated in this thesis.

The notion of equality underlying Sabelfeld and Sands’s system model is strong bisimulation. Other possibilistic semantics that have been used are ready sets semantics (by Ryan in \([Rya91]\)), failure divergence semantics (by Roscoe et al. in \([RWW94, Ros95]\)), and weak bisimulation (by Focardi/Gorrieri in \([FG95]\)). We think that the concepts of MAKS could be adapted to these other semantics as well — but this remains to be shown. Another interesting direction is to identify mappings to move from one semantics to another. A first step has been

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\(^1\)Unfortunately, the term “intransitive noninterference” is misleading. Firstly, it is the interference relation \( \sim_{\nu} \) that is not transitive rather than the noninterference relation \( \not\sim \). Secondly, the important issue is how the noninterference relation is interpreted (liberally or rigorously) rather than whether the interference relation is transitive or not. However, for historic reasons, we stick to these established terms.
made in [MS01] where we have shown how a security property based on strong bisimulation can be expressed by an equivalent information flow property in a trace-based system model.

**Tool Support.** For applying formal methods in real world developments, the availability of mature tool support is essential. For example, editors that support the preferred specification languages are needed for constructing specifications, and theorem provers with a high degree of automation are needed for making formal verification feasible.

Rather than developing specialized tool support for information flow properties from scratch, our approach is to tailor general-purpose tools for formal methods to this setting. The tool on which we build is the Verification Support Environment (abbreviated by VSE) that has been developed at DFKI [HLS+96, HMR+98, AHL+00]. The integrated tool support provided by VSE includes editors, a graphical front end to navigate in structured specifications, an automatic static type checker for specifications, a generator that automatically determines the proof obligations for a given specification, theorem provers, and a management of change that ensures that formal developments always remain in a consistent state. In particular, VSE provides tool support for large-scale formal developments and it has been demonstrated in various case studies as well as real-world projects that VSE, indeed, is very suitable for this purpose. For simplifying the use of information flow properties in VSE, a front end to VSE is being built that simplifies the specification of event systems. Moreover, VSE-specifications for many building blocks and their unwinding conditions are provided in a library-like fashion such that the specifier can simply use the fundamental notions of MAK$S$ without having to type in their VSE specifications [MS03b]. A prototypical implementation of this tool support has been successfully applied in a case study already [MSK+01]. To build a similar front end for the MAYA-system [AHMS00, AH03], a tool for the application of formal methods that is also developed at DFKI and that (in combination with the INKA system [AHMS99]) has a similar scope like VSE but is of a more experimental nature, would be a valuable goal for the future. To increase the degree of automation during the verification of information flow properties is the main objective of an ongoing cooperation with members of the $\Omega$mega group at Saarland University. In this cooperation, it is investigated to what extent SAT-solvers and theorem provers, developed in the context of the Calculus network, are suitable for the automatic verification of unwinding conditions with promising results in first experiments [Ben03].

**Further Application Domains.** Information flow properties have been successfully applied for several purposes, e.g., as a foundation for Bell/La Padula-like access control [Rus92], as a foundation for the verification of security protocols [FGG97, FGM99, FGM00, DFG00], and in formal security models for operating systems [SRS+00]. Our case study on language-based security has opened up another area of application for information flow properties, namely as a foundation for language-based security techniques. This application has already inspired extensions of the language-based techniques, for example, to distributed systems [MS03a, SM02]. This direction deserves further investigation. Another case study based on MAK$S$ has been concerned with the protection of location information in cellular phones [MSK+01]. The application of MAK$S$ in other application domains, including operating systems security and secure multi-agent systems is being investigated [HMS03, Sch03]. There are many exciting possibilities to apply our results and their exploitation has only just begun.
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Table 8.1: Comparison of expressiveness and uniformity

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Table 8.2: Comparison of derived results about information flow properties. This table summarizes Tables 4.7, 5.3, and 6.2. The entries are explained in Sections 4.4, 5.7, and 6.8.
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Appendix A

Details on the Representation of Known Information Flow Properties

A.1 Representation Lemma for $IBGNI$

**Lemma A.1.1.** We have the following implications:

\[ IBGNI(ES) \Rightarrow D_{IH}(Tr) \]  \hspace{1cm} (A.1)

\[ IBGNI(ES) \Rightarrow I_{IH}(Tr) \]  \hspace{1cm} (A.2)

\[ (R_{IH}(Tr) \land I_{IH}(Tr)) \Rightarrow IBGNI(ES) \]  \hspace{1cm} (A.3)

\[ \diamond \]

**Proof.** For proving $D_{IH}(Tr)$ in (A.1), let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $hi \in H \cap I$ be arbitrary such that $\beta_i, hi, \alpha_i \in Tr$ and $\alpha_i|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$. Applying Definition 4.2.4 with $\tau = \beta_i, hi, \alpha_i$, $t_{hi} = \beta_i|_{H \cap I}$, and $t = (\beta, \alpha)|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$ yields that there is a trace $\tau' \in Tr$ with $\tau'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = (\beta, \alpha)|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$. The trace $\tau'$ can be split into two subsequences $\alpha', \beta' \in E^*$ such that $\beta', \alpha' = \tau'$, $\alpha'|_L = \alpha|_L$, $\alpha'|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$, and $\beta'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = \beta|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$. Consequently, $D_{IH}(Tr)$ holds.

For proving $I_{IH}(Tr)$ (A.2), let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $hi \in H \cap I$ be arbitrary such that $\beta, \alpha \in Tr$ and $\alpha_i|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$. Applying Definition 4.2.4 with $\tau = \beta, \alpha_i$, $t_{hi} = (\beta, hi, \alpha_i)|_{H \cap I}$, and $t = (\beta, hi, \alpha)|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$ yields that there is a trace $\tau' \in Tr$ with $\tau'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = (\beta, hi, \alpha)|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$. The trace $\tau'$ can be split into subsequences $\alpha', \beta' \in E^*$ such that $\beta', \alpha' = \tau'$, $\alpha'|_L = \alpha|_L$, $\alpha'|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$, and $\beta'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = \beta|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$. Consequently, $I_{IH}(Tr)$ holds.

For proving (A.3), assume $R_{IH}(Tr)$ and $I_{IH}(Tr)$. We prove $IBGNI(ES)$ by induction on the length of $t_{hi}$. In the base case, we have $t_{hi} = \emptyset$. The implication in the definition of $IBGNI$ holds because of $R_{IH}(Tr)$ ($t = \tau|_L$ is the only choice possible). In the step case, we assume that the implication (in Definition 4.2.4) holds for all $t_{hi}$ with length smaller than $n$ and show that it also holds for $t_{hi}$ with length $n$. Let $t_{hi} = \gamma, hi$ where $\gamma \in (H \cap I)^*$ and $hi \in H \cap I$ are arbitrary. Let $\tau_i \in Tr$ and $t \in E^*$ be arbitrary with $t \in \text{interleaving}(t_{hi}, \tau|_L)$. Choose $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ such that $t = t_1, hi, t_2$ and $t_2|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$. According to our induction assumption, there are traces $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ such that $\beta, \alpha \in Tr$, $\alpha|_L = t_2|_L$, $\alpha|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$, and $\beta|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t_1|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$ (use Definition 4.2.4 with $\tau_i$ as is, $t_{hi} = \gamma$, and the appropriate interleaving). Since $I_{IH}(Tr)$ holds, there are $\alpha', \beta' \in E^*$ such that $\beta', \alpha' \in Tr$, $\alpha'|_L = \alpha|_L$, $\alpha'|_{H \cap I} = \emptyset$, and $\beta'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = \beta|_{L \cup (H \cap I)}$. With the choice $\tau' = \beta', hi, \alpha'$ the proposition holds ($\tau'|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = (\beta', hi, \alpha')|_{L \cup (H \cap I)} = t_1, hi, t_2$). Consequently, $IBGNI(ES)$ holds. \[ \Box \]
A.2 Representation Lemma for FC

**Lemma A.2.1.** For $\Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I)$, we have the following implications:

\[
\begin{align*}
FC(ES) & \Rightarrow BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \quad (A.4) \\
FC(ES) & \Rightarrow BSI_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \quad (A.5) \\
FC(ES) & \Rightarrow FCD_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr) \quad (A.6) \\
FC(ES) & \Rightarrow FCI_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr) \quad (A.7)
\end{align*}
\]

\(\left( BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \wedge BSI_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \right) \wedge FCD_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr) \wedge FCI_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr) \Rightarrow FC(ES) \quad (A.8) \)

**Proof.** Implications (A.4) and (A.5) follow, respectively, from the second and first conjunct in Definition 4.2.10 if \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\) (\(t_1 = \beta, t_2 = \alpha, \alpha' = t_3\)).

Implications (A.6) and (A.7) follow, respectively, from the second and first conjunct in Definition 4.2.10 if \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\) (\(t_1 = \beta, t_2 = \alpha, \alpha' = t_3\)).

For proving \(FC(ES)\) in (A.8), assume \(t_1, t_2 \in E^*, h_i \in HI, \) and \(li \in L \cap L\). The first conjunct in the definition of \(FC\) follows from \(BSI_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)\) (for \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\)) and \(FCI_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr)\) (for \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\)). The second conjunct follows from \(BSD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)\) (for \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\)) and \(FCD_{\mathcal{H}}^{FC}(Tr)\) (for \(\langle \{i\} \rangle = \emptyset\)).

\(\square\)

A.3 Representation Lemma for NDO

**Lemma A.3.1.** For a set \(UI \subseteq I\) of user inputs and the function \(\rho_{UI}\) defined by \(\rho_{UI}(V, N, C) = C \cup (V \cap UI)\), we have the following implications:

\[
\begin{align*}
NDO(ES) & \Rightarrow SD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) \quad (A.9) \\
NDO(ES) & \Rightarrow SIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{UI}(Tr) \quad (A.10) \\
R_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr) & \wedge IA_{\mathcal{H}}^{UI}(Tr) \Rightarrow NDO(ES) \quad (A.11)
\end{align*}
\]

**Proof.** For proving \(SD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)\) in (A.9), let \(\alpha, \beta \in E^*\) and \(h \in H\) be arbitrary such that \(\beta, \langle h \rangle, \alpha \in Tr\) and \(\alpha|_H = \emptyset\) (cf. Definition 3.4.26). From \(\beta \in Tr\) and \(total(ES, I)\), we obtain that \(\beta|L_{UI} \in Tr\). By applying the definition of \(NDO\) for \(\tau_1 = \beta|L_{UI}\), we obtain that \(\beta, \langle h \rangle \in Tr\) holds because \(\tau_1 \in Tr\). Hence, \(SD_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)\) holds.

For proving \(SIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{UI}(Tr)\) in (A.10), let \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in E^*\) and \(h \in H\) be arbitrary such that \(\beta, \langle h \rangle \in Tr, \alpha|_H = \emptyset, \gamma|_H = \emptyset\). From \(\gamma, \langle h \rangle \in Tr\) and \(total(ES, I)\), we obtain that \(\gamma, \langle h \rangle, \alpha|_L \in UI\) (cf. Definition 3.4.26). From \(\gamma, \langle h \rangle \in Tr, \alpha|_L \in UI\), we obtain that \(\beta, \langle h \rangle, \alpha \in Tr\) because \(\tau_1 \in Tr\). Consequently, \(SIA_{\mathcal{H}}^{UI}(Tr)\) holds.

We prove \(NDO(ES)\) in (A.11) by induction on the length of \(t|_H\). In the base case, \(t|_H = \emptyset\) holds. Let \(\tau_1, \tau_{lu} \in Tr\) be arbitrary with \(t|_L = \tau_1|_L\) and \(t|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)} = \tau_{lu}|_{H \cup (L \cap UI)}\). From \(t|_H = \emptyset\), we obtain that \(t = \tau_1|_L\) holds and \(t \in Tr\) follows from \(R_{\mathcal{H}}(Tr)\). In the step case, \(t|_H\) has length \(n > 0\). The induction assumption is that the implication in Definition 4.2.14 holds for all \(t^* \in E^*\) for which the length of \(t^*|_H\) is smaller than \(n\). We have to show
that the implication also holds for $t$. Let $\tau, \tau_{\text{hsai}} \in \text{Tr}$ be arbitrary with $\tau|_L = t|_L$ and $\tau_{\text{hsai}}|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})} = t|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})}$. Let $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ be the subsequences of $t$, respectively, before and after the last occurrences of a high-level event $h$ and let $\gamma, \delta \in E^*$ be the corresponding subsequences of $\tau_{\text{hsai}}$ i.e. $t = t_1.(h).t_2$, $t_2.H = \emptyset$, $\tau_{\text{hsai}} = \gamma.(h).\delta$, and $\delta.H = \emptyset$. We apply the induction hypothesis with $\tau^* = \tau, \tau_{\text{hsai}}^* = \gamma.(\delta|_{\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U}}), t^* = t_1.t_2$ and obtain $t_1.t_2 \in \text{Tr}$ because $\tau^* \in \text{Tr}, \tau_{\text{hsai}}^* \in \text{Tr}$ (follows from $\gamma \in \text{Tr}$ and $\text{total}(ES, I)$), $t^*|_L = \tau|_L$, and $t^*|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})} = \tau_{\text{hsai}}^*|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})}$. Since $t_1.t_2 \in \text{Tr}, t_2.H = \emptyset$, $\gamma.(h) \in \text{Tr}, \gamma.H = t_1.H = t_{\text{hsai.Fore}}(\mathcal{H} \cup (\mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{U}))$ (follows from $\gamma.(h).\delta|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})} = \tau_{\text{hsai}}|_{\mathcal{H}\cup(\mathcal{L}\cap \mathcal{U})}$), and $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{H}}(\text{Tr})$, we obtain $t_1.(h).t_2 \in \text{Tr}$ (view $\mathcal{H}$ permits no corrections), which means $t \in \text{Tr}$ ($t = t_1.(h).t_2$). Consequently, NDO(ES) holds. □

A.4 Representation Lemma for NF

**Lemma A.4.1.** We have the following implications:

\[ \text{NF}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{SR}_H(\text{Tr}) \]
\[ \text{R}_H(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow \text{NF}(ES) \]

**Proof.** The implications follow immediately from the definitions of $\text{SR}$, $R$, and $\text{NF}$ (Definitions 3.4.26, 3.4.1, and 4.2.19). □

A.5 Representation Lemma for GNF

**Lemma A.5.1.** We have the following implications:

\[ \text{GNF}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{R}_H(\text{Tr}) \]
\[ \text{R}_H(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow \text{GNF}(ES) \]

**Proof.** The implications follow immediately from Definitions 3.4.1 and 4.2.21. □

A.6 Representation Lemma for SEP

**Lemma A.6.1.** For the function $\rho_C$ defined by $\rho_C(V, N, C) = C$, we have the following implications:

\[ \text{SEP}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{SD}_H(\text{Tr}) \quad \text{(A.12)} \]
\[ \text{SEP}(ES) \Rightarrow \text{SIA}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_C}(\text{Tr}) \quad \text{(A.13)} \]
\[ \text{R}_H(\text{Tr}) \land \text{IA}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_C}(\text{Tr}) \Rightarrow \text{SEP}(ES) \quad \text{(A.14)} \]

**Proof.** For proving $\text{SD}_H(\text{Tr})$ in (A.12), let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $h \in H$ be arbitrary such that $\beta.(h).\alpha \in \text{Tr}$ and $\alpha.H = \emptyset$. $\beta.\alpha$ is an interleaving of $\beta.H$ and $(\beta.(h).\alpha)|_L$. Applying the definition of $\text{SEP}$ for $\tau = \beta.(h).\alpha$ and $\tau_h = \beta$ yields $\beta.\alpha \in \text{Tr}$. Consequently, $\text{SD}_H(\text{Tr})$ holds.

For proving $\text{SIA}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_C}(\text{Tr})$ in (A.13), let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in E^*$ and $h \in H$ be arbitrary such that $\beta.\alpha \in \text{Tr}$, $\alpha.H = \emptyset$, $\gamma.(h) \in \text{Tr}$, and $\gamma.H = \beta.H$. $\beta.(h).\alpha$ is an interleaving of $(\gamma.(h)).H$ and $(\beta.\alpha)|_L$. Applying the definition of $\text{SEP}$ (for $\tau = \beta.\alpha$ and $\tau_h = \gamma.(h)$) yields $\beta.(h).\alpha \in \text{Tr}$. Consequently, $\text{SIA}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\rho_C}(\text{Tr})$ holds.

We prove $\text{SEP}(ES)$ in (A.14) by induction on the length of $\tau_h.H$. In the base case, $\tau_h.H = \emptyset$ holds. Let $\eta \in \text{Tr}$ and $t \in \text{interleaving}(\tau_h.H, \tau.H)$ be arbitrary. From $\tau_h.H = \emptyset$, we obtain that $t = \tau.H$ holds. $t \in \text{Tr}$ follows from $\text{R}_H(\text{Tr})$. Thus, $t \in \{ \tau \in \text{Tr} \mid \tau.H = \tau.H \}$.
holds. In the step case, \( \tau_h|_H \) has length \( n > 0 \) and we assume that the subset relation (in Definition 4.2.23) holds for all \( \tau^*_h \) for which the length of \( \tau^*_h|_H \) is smaller than \( n \). We show that the relation also holds for \( \tau_h \). Let \( \tau_l \in Tr \) and \( t \in \text{interleaving}(\tau_h|_H, \tau_l|_L) \) be arbitrary. Let \( t_1, t_2 \in E^* \) be the subsequences of \( t \), respectively, before and after the last occurrences of a high-level event \( h \) and let \( \gamma, \delta \in E^* \) be the corresponding subsequences of \( \tau_h \), i.e. \( t = t_1, \langle h \rangle, t_2, t_2|_H = \langle \rangle \), \( \tau_h = \gamma \langle h \rangle \delta \), and \( \delta|_H = \langle \rangle \). We apply the induction hypothesis with \( \tau^*_l = \tau_l \), \( \tau^*_h = \gamma \), \( t^* = t_1, t_2 \) and obtain \( t_1, t_2 \in Tr \) because \( \tau^*_l \in Tr \), \( \tau^*_h \in Tr \), and \( t_1, t_2 \in \text{interleaving}(\tau^*_H|_H, \tau^*_L|_L) \) hold. Since \( t_1, t_2 \in Tr \), \( t_2|_H = \langle \rangle \), \( \gamma \langle h \rangle \in Tr \), \( \gamma|_H = t_1|_H \), and \( IA^E_H \text{(} Tr \text{)} \), we obtain \( t_1, \langle h \rangle, t_2 \in Tr \) (view \( H \) permits no corrections), which means \( t \in Tr \) \( (t = t_1, \langle h \rangle, t_2) \). Consequently, \( SEP(ES) \) holds.

\[
\text{A.7 Representation Lemma for PSP}
\]

**Lemma A.7.1.** For the function \( \rho_E \) defined by \( \rho_E(V, N, C) = E \), we have the following implications:

\[
PSP(ES) \Rightarrow SD_H(Tr) \quad (A.15)
PSP(ES) \Rightarrow SIA^E_H(Tr) \quad (A.16)
R_H(Tr) \land IA^E_H(Tr) \Rightarrow PSP(ES) \quad (A.17)
\]

**Proof.** For proving \( SD_H(Tr) \) in (A.15), we define an auxiliary predicate \( S\text{-deletable} \). Let \( \tau \in Tr \) be a possible trace and \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) be a natural number. \( S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, n) \) holds if deleting all occurrences of events in \( H \) from \( \tau \) at once, with the exception of the \( n \) leftmost occurrences (if they exist), yields, again, a possible trace in \( Tr \). According to this construction, \( SD_H(Tr) \) holds if and only if \( \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, |(\tau|_H| - 1)) \). Assume now that \( PSP(ES) \) holds. We prove that \( \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, n) \) holds by induction on \( n \). In the base case holds \( n = 0 \). That \( \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, 0) \) holds follows immediately from the first conjunct in Definition 4.2.25. In the step case, let \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) be arbitrary with \( n > 0 \) and we assume that \( \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, n^*) \) holds for all \( n^* \in \mathbb{N} \) with \( n^* < n \). We prove that \( \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, n) \) holds. Let \( \tau \in Tr \) be arbitrary. If the length of \( \tau|_H \) is smaller than \( n \), then the proposition follows immediately from the induction assumption. Thus, we assume that the length of \( \tau|_H \) is at least \( n \). We split \( \tau \) into subsequences before and after the \( n \)th high-level event. Choose \( \delta, \gamma \in E^* \) and \( h \in H \) such that the length of \( \delta|_H \) is \( n - 1 \) and \( \delta \langle h \rangle \gamma = \tau \langle \gamma \rangle|_H = \langle \rangle \) need not hold. According to the induction assumption, \( \delta \langle \gamma \rangle|_L \in Tr \) holds. That \( \delta \langle h \rangle \langle \gamma \rangle|_L \in Tr \) holds immediately from the second conjunct in Definition 4.2.25 (choose \( \alpha = \gamma|_L \) and \( \beta = \delta \)). This concludes the proof of the step case, i.e. we have successfully shown that \( \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \tau \in Tr, S\text{-deletable}_H(Tr, \tau, n) \) holds. This implies that \( SD_H(Tr) \) holds.

Implication (A.16) follows immediately from the second conjunct in Definition 4.2.25.

For proving \( PSP(ES) \) in (A.17), assume that \( R_H(Tr) \) and \( IA^E_H(Tr) \) hold. The first and second conjunct in the definition of \( PSP \) (Definition 4.2.25) follow, respectively, from \( R_H(Tr) \) and \( IA^E_H(Tr) \). Thus, \( PSP(ES) \) holds. \( \square \)
Appendix B

The Relationship between \textit{MAKS} and the Framework of Selective Interleaving Functions

Among the previously proposed frameworks for information flow properties, McLean's framework of selective interleaving functions [McL94a, McL96] is closest to MAKS in the sense that it also allows for the investigation of classes of properties. In this appendix, we elaborate a rigorous relationship between the representation of information flow properties in McLean's framework and the representation in our framework.

We will proceed as follows: In Section B.1, we will show how the concepts used for representing information flow properties in McLean's framework can be defined in an event-based setting.\footnote{Originally, this framework has been introduced in a state-based setting. Recasting the basic definitions of the framework in an event-based setting is necessary for formally relating it to our framework.} In Section B.2, we will show how the condition that a set of traces is closed under a set of selective interleaving functions of a particular type (i.e. the main condition for representing properties in McLean’s framework) can be formulated in MAKS. The main outcome of our investigation will be that every property represented in the framework of selective interleaving functions can also be represented in MAKS and that there are information flow properties that can be represented in MAKS but not in the framework of selective interleaving functions (in its current form). In Section B.3, we point out the extensions of the framework of selective interleaving functions that are necessary for representing these information flow properties. The proofs of all theorems that we present are contained in Section B.4.

B.1 McLean’s Framework of Selective Interleaving Functions

Selective interleaving functions are introduced in [McL94a, McL96] for a state-based system model. In an event-based system model, they can be defined as follows.

\textbf{Definition B.1.1 (Selective interleaving function).} Let $E$ be a set of events, $\kappa : E \to \{0, 1, 2\}$ be a function, and $E_0, E_1, E_2$ be subsets of $E$ defined by $E_0 = \{e \in E \mid \kappa(e) = 0\}$, $E_1 = \{e \in E \mid \kappa(e) = 1\}$, and $E_2 = \{e \in E \mid \kappa(e) = 2\}$.

A function $f : (E^* \times E^*) \to E^*$ is a \textit{selective interleaving function} (abbreviated by \textit{sif}) of type $F_\kappa$ if and only if for all $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ holds

\[ f(t_1, t_2) = t \Rightarrow (t|_{E_1} = t_1|_{E_1} \land t|_{E_2} = t_2|_{E_2}) \]

\[ \diamond \]
Hence, a *sif* $f$ of type $F_\kappa$ takes two traces as arguments and returns a trace that equals the first trace in its occurrences of events in $E_1$ and the second trace in its occurrences of events in $E_2$. If $E_2$ contains all events whose occurrences are visible to an observer and $E_1$ contains all events whose occurrences and nonoccurrences are confidential for him then closure under $f$ means that every possible observation $(t|E_2)$ can occur in combination with every possible confidential behavior $(t|E_1)$. Intuitively, this requirement means: an observer cannot deduce from a given observation that some confidential behavior cannot have occurred. This requirement is closely related to Sutherland’s nondeducibility [Sut86] and, hence, requiring closure under a *single* interleaving function does not result in very satisfactory security properties because this requirement shares the deficiencies of nondeducibility (cf. Section 4.2.1). In order to avoid the shortcomings of nondeducibility, McLean requires that the set of possible traces of a given system is closed under a *set of sifs* (rather than under a single *sif*).

**Definition B.1.2 (Closure under set of sifs).** Let $E$ be a set of events, $\kappa : E \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ be a function, and $\mathcal{F}$ be a set of sifs of type $F_\kappa$. $ES$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ if and only if

$$\forall f \in \mathcal{F}, \forall t_1, t_2 \in Tr. f(t_1, t_2) \in Tr.$$ 

In a state-based setting, the requirement that a set of possible traces is closed under a set of sifs of a particular type results in sensible security properties. However, in an event-based setting, this requirement alone is not satisfactory for expressing sensible security properties because it does not prevent that the interleavings of visible and confidential events can be narrowed down by an observer, a pitfall pointed out in [GN88]. In order to avoid this pitfall, we introduce an additional concept.

**Definition B.1.3 (Covering).** Let $E$ be a set of events, $\kappa : E \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ be a function, and $\mathcal{F}$ be a set of sifs of type $F_\kappa$. Let $E_j = \{e \in E \mid \kappa(e) = j\}$ for $j \in \{0, 1, 2\}$. $\mathcal{F}$ covers type $F_\kappa$ if and only if

$$\forall t_1, t_2 \in E^*. \forall t \in \text{interleaving}(t_1|E_1, t_2|E_2). \exists f \in \mathcal{F}. f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = t.$$ 

To cover a type $F_\kappa$ means for a set of sifs that for every interleaving of a possible $E_1$-sequence with a possible $E_2$-sequence there is a *sif* in the set that constructs this interleaving. Hence, if a set of possible traces is closed under a set of sifs that covers a type $F_\kappa$ then an observer cannot narrow down the interleavings of $E_1$-sequences and $E_2$-sequences because every interleaving of these sequences is possible. Also note that if $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_\kappa$ then $\mathcal{F}$ must be nonempty because $E^*$ is nonempty ($\emptyset \in E^*$ holds) and, for $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$, \text{interleaving}(t_1|E_1, t_2|E_2) is also nonempty ($((t_1|E_1), (t_2|E_2)) \in \text{interleaving}(t_1|E_1, t_2|E_2)$ holds). Moreover, for every type $F_\kappa$ there is a covering set of sifs (e.g., the set of all sifs of type $F_\kappa$ covers $F_\kappa$).

We are now ready to express the key notion for representing information flow properties in the framework of selective interleaving functions in an event-based setting, namely:

A set of traces is closed under a covering set of sifs of some type $F_\kappa$.  \hfill (B.1)

Let us now illustrate how condition (B.1) can be used to express information flow properties.

**Theorem B.1.4 (SEP).** Let $ES = (E, I, O, Tr)$ be an event system. Define $\kappa_{SEP}$ by:

$$
\kappa_{SEP}(e) = 1 \text{ if } e \text{ is a high-level event} \\
\kappa_{SEP}(e) = 2 \text{ if } e \text{ is a low-level event}
$$

---

2If $E_1$ contains all high-level inputs and $E_2$ contains all low-level events (for a given 2-level security policy) then the two requirements are equivalent.

3For brevity, we also say that $\mathcal{F}$ is a covering set of sifs of type $F_\kappa$ if $\mathcal{F}$ is a set of sifs that covers $F_\kappa$. 
SEP(ES) holds if and only if there is a covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_{\kappa_{\text{SEP}}} \) such that \( Tr \) is closed under \( \mathcal{F} \).

\[ \text{\textbf{Theorem B.1.5 (IBGNI*)}}. \text{ Let } ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \text{ be an event system. Define } \kappa_{\text{IBGNI*}} \text{ by:} \]
\[ \kappa_{\text{IBGNI*}}(e) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } e \text{ is a high-level internal or output event} \\ 1 & \text{if } e \text{ is a high-level input event} \\ 2 & \text{if } e \text{ is a low-level event} \end{cases} \]

IBGNI*(ES) holds if and only if there is a covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_{\kappa_{\text{IBGNI*}}} \) such that \( Tr \) is closed under \( \mathcal{F} \).

The proofs of Theorems B.1.4 and B.1.5 will be presented in Section B.4.

For the representation of NF and GNF, condition (B.1) does not suffice. For representing these properties, it is necessary to introduce an additional notion, which can be used to constrain the values that sifs may return. An example for such a range restriction is that no events from \( E_0 \) must occur in the trace returned by a sif. This condition can be used for representing NF.

\[ \text{\textbf{Theorem B.1.6 (NF). Let } ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \text{ be an event system. Define } \kappa_{\text{NF}} \text{ by:} } \]
\[ \kappa_{\text{NF}}(e) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } e \text{ is a high-level event} \\ 2 & \text{if } e \text{ is a low-level event} \end{cases} \]

NF(ES) holds if and only if there is a covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_{\kappa_{\text{NF}}} \) such that \( Tr \) is closed under \( \mathcal{F} \) and \( f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0} = \emptyset \) holds for all \( f \in \mathcal{F} \) and all \( \tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^* \).

Another example for a range restriction is that no events from \( E_0 \cap I \) must occur in the trace returned by a sif. This condition can be used for representing GNF.

\[ \text{\textbf{Theorem B.1.7 (GNF). Let } ES = (E, I, O, Tr) \text{ be an event system. Define } \kappa_{\text{GNF}} \text{ by:} } \]
\[ \kappa_{\text{GNF}}(e) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } e \text{ is a high-level event} \\ 2 & \text{if } e \text{ is a low-level event} \end{cases} \]

GNF(ES) holds if and only if there is a covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_{\kappa_{\text{GNF}}} \) such that \( Tr \) is closed under \( \mathcal{F} \) and \( f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0 \cap I} = \emptyset \) holds for all \( f \in \mathcal{F} \) and all \( \tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^* \).

Theorem B.1.4–B.1.7 show how to represent separability, (interleaving-based) generalized noninterference, noninference, and generalized noninference in our reformulation of McLean’s framework of selective interleaving functions for the event-based setting. These properties also have been investigated in [McL94a, McL96]. To the best of our knowledge, so far, no other information flow properties have been represented in the framework of selective interleaving functions. Interestingly, all of these properties can also be represented in MAKs (cf. Definition 4.2.8 and Theorems 4.2.20, 4.2.22, and 4.2.24).

\[ \text{\textbf{Remark B.1.8. In } [McL96], two alternative notions are suggested that both suffice to represent NF and GNF. The approach described by footnote 7 in that article corresponds to the approach that we have pursued, namely to restrict the range of sifs. The other approach (described in the body of that article) constrains the domains of sifs rather than their range. The effects are the same in both approaches [McL96].} \]
Remark B.1.9. Another reformulation of McLean’s framework of selective interleaving functions has been proposed by Zakinthinos [Zak96]. We found that this reformulation has serious shortcomings. For example, Zakinthinos requires that a set of possible traces is closed under a single sif of a particular type (rather than under a covering set of sifs). This means that deductions about the interleaving of occurrences of confidential events and occurrences of visible events are not ruled out. However, preventing such deductions is a critical issue in an event-based setting, as pointed out by Guttmann and Nadel [GN88]. An even more serious problem results from the way in which sifs are defined in [Zak96]. E.g., rather than demanding that \( f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1} = t_1|_{E_1} \) holds, Zakinthinos require that \( f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cap I} = t_1|_{E_1 \cap I} \) and \( f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cap O} = t_1|_{E_1 \cap O} \) hold. Unfortunately, these two conditions do not ensure that input and output events in \( E_1 \) occur in the right order in \( f(t_1, t_2) \). In particular, \( f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1} = t_1|_{E_1} \) need not hold (even if there are no internal events). As a result of this, for example, the representation of separability in Zakinthinos’s reformulation of the framework of selective interleaving functions (cf. Section 6.2 in [Zak96]) is not equivalent to the original definition of separability.

Motivated by these shortcomings, we have developed the reformulation of the framework of selective interleaving functions for an event-based setting presented in this section. ◇

B.2 Expressing Closure under Set of Sifs in MAKS

The following theorem shows that a set of possible traces \( Tr \) is closed under some covering set of sifs of a particular type \( F_k \) if and only if \( R_V(Tr) \) and \( IA^{pe}_V(Tr) \) hold for some choice of \( V \). The choices of \( F_k \) and \( V \) closely depend on each other. If one of \( F_k \) or \( V \) is given then the other one can be calculated.

Theorem B.2.1. Let \( E \) be a set of events, \( V = (V, N, C) \) be a view in \( E \), and \( \rho_C \) be a function from views in \( E \) to subsets of \( E \) with \( \rho_C(V) = C \). Moreover, let \( \kappa : E \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\} \) be a function. If \( \forall v \in V, \kappa(v) = 2, \forall n \in N, \kappa(n) = 0, \text{ and } \forall c \in C, \kappa(c) = 1 \) then the following two propositions are equivalent:

1. \( R_V(Tr) \) and \( IA^{pe}_V(Tr) \) hold.

2. \( Tr \) is closed under some covering set of sifs of type \( F_k \). ◇

Theorem B.2.1 implies that every information flow property representable in the framework of selective interleaving functions (by the requirement that the set of traces is closed under a covering set of sifs) can also be represented in MAKS. The somewhat involved proof of this theorem will be presented in Section B.4.

B.3 Lessons Learned

Theorem B.2.1 is the main technical result of this appendix. It shows that the requirement for a set of traces to be closed under a covering set is equivalent to an instance of the (schematic) statement \( R_V(Tr) \wedge IA^{pe}_V(Tr) \) where the particular instance (i.e. the choice of \( V \)) depends on the type of the selective interleaving functions.

As simple consequences of this theorem (and our results in Section 4.2), we obtain that SEP and IBGNI* can be represented in the framework of selective interleaving functions
(thereby proving Theorems B.1.4 and B.1.5). This is because $SEP$ can be represented in $MAKS$ by $R_H(Tr) \land IA_{H}^{pc}(Tr)$ and $IBGNI^*$ by $R_{H1}(Tr) \land IA_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$. That is, both properties can be represented by instances of the pattern $R_{V}(Tr) \land IA_{V}^{pc}(Tr)$ (cf. the proofs of Theorems B.1.4 and B.1.5 in Section B.4 for the detailed argument).

Another consequence of Theorem B.2.1 is that $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $GNI^*$, $FC$, $FC^*$, $NDO$, $NDO^*$, $NF$, $GNF$, and $PSP$ cannot be easily represented in the framework of selective interleaving functions. This is because their representations in $MAKS$ do not comply with the pattern $R_{V}(Tr) \land IA_{V}^{pc}(Tr)$. However, by introducing the notion of range restrictions it becomes possible to represent (at least) $NF$ and $GNF$ in this framework.\(^4\)

Unfortunately, adding the notion of a range restriction does not suffice for representing $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $GNI^*$, $FC$, $FC^*$, $NDO$, $NDO^*$, or $PSP$. In order to represent any of these properties, it appears necessary to enrich the framework of selective interleaving functions with further concepts. Based on the representation of these properties in $MAKS$ (from Section 4.2), we will now elaborate more closely what kind of concepts are missing. For each of $GNI$, $IBGNI$, $GNI^*$, $FC$, $FC^*$, $NDO$, $NDO^*$, and $PSP$, Table B.1 gives a representation of this property in $MAKS$ and lists the concepts used in this representation that have no corresponding counterparts in the framework of selective interleaving functions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>property</th>
<th>modular representation</th>
<th>needed additional concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$IBGNI(ES)$</td>
<td>$R_{H1}(Tr)$, $I_{H1}(Tr)$</td>
<td>lack of admissibility assumption (I instead of IA)(^x)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$GNI(ES)$</td>
<td>$BSD_{H1}(Tr)$, $BSI_{H1}(Tr)$</td>
<td>lack of admissibility assumption (^x), backwards strictness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$GNI^*(ES)$</td>
<td>$BSD_{H1}(Tr)$, $BSIA_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$</td>
<td>backwards strictness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$FC(ES)$</td>
<td>$BSD_{H1}(Tr)$, $BSI_{H1}(Tr)$, $FCI_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$</td>
<td>lack of admissibility assumption (^x), backwards strictness, forward correctability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$FC^*(ES)$</td>
<td>$BSD_{H1}(Tr)$, $BSIA_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$, $FCI_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$</td>
<td>backwards strictness, forward correctability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$NDO(ES)$, $NDO^*(ES)$</td>
<td>$R_{H}(Tr)$, $IA_{H}^{pc}(Tr)$</td>
<td>different choice of $\rho$ ($\rho_{UI}$ instead of $\rho_{C}$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$PSP(ES)$</td>
<td>$R_{H}(Tr)$, $IA_{H}^{pc}(Tr)$</td>
<td>different choice of $\rho$ ($\rho_{E}$ instead of $\rho_{C}$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^x\) presence or lack of the admissibility assumption is irrelevant for systems total in high-level inputs $\Gamma_{FC} = (I, \emptyset, I)$

Table B.1: Additional concepts that would be necessary in the framework of selective interleaving functions to represent certain information flow properties

For example, $I_{H1}(Tr)$ occurs in the representation of $IBGNI$ but this requirement cannot be expressed in the framework of selective interleaving functions. The closest requirement that can be expressed is $IA_{H1}^{pc}(Tr)$. Hence, in order to represent $I_{H1}(Tr)$ one needs to introduce a notion that corresponds to dropping the assumption of $\rho_{C}$-admissibility in the definition

\(4\) Separability: (interleaving-based) generalized noninterference, noninterference, and generalized noninterference can be represented in the framework of selective interleaving functions. This has been demonstrated in [McL94a, McL96]. The novel aspect of our result is that it is concerned with our reformulation of this framework for an event-based system model.
of $IA^\rho_{HC}(Tr)$. The gain of such an extension would be that $IBGNI$ could be represented (also cf. first row in Table B.1). Moreover, the representation of $GNI^*$ involves backwards-strict BSPs, i.e. BSD and $BSIA^\rho_{HC}$, but the concepts provided by the framework of selective interleaving functions can only express the non-strict BSPs $R$ and $IA^\rho_{HC}$. Hence, in order to express this property one would have to find a way to limit corrections to causal ones in this framework. Furthermore, $IA^\rho_{PE}$ occurs in the representation of PSP but only $IA^\rho_{PC}$ can be expressed in the framework of selective interleaving functions. In order to represent PSP in this framework one would have to find a way to replace the $\rho_C$-admissibility assumption made by $IA^\rho_{PC}$ with a $\rho_E$-admissibility assumption (made by $IA^\rho_{PE}$).

For each of $IBGNI$, $GNI$, $GNI^*$, $FC$, $FC^*$, $NDO$, $NDO^*$ and PSP, Table B.1 points out what kinds of concepts are missing in the framework of selective interleaving functions in order to represent this information flow property. The entries of the table can also be regarded as hints of how the framework of selective interleaving functions should be extended. However, to elaborate such extensions in detail goes beyond the objectives of this appendix (i.e. to rigorously relate the framework of selective interleaving functions with MAKS). This remains an open task for future work.

### B.4 Proofs of all Theorems in this Appendix

**Proof (of Theorem B.1.4).** $SEP(ES)$ is equivalent to $R_H(Tr) \land IA^\rho_{HC}(Tr)$ (cf. Lemma A.6.1 and Theorems 3.5.3 and 3.5.12). According to Theorem B.2.1, this statement is equivalent to the requirement that $Tr$ is closed under some covering set of $\text{sifs}$ of type $F_{K\text{SEP}}$. □

**Proof (of Theorem B.1.5).** $IBGNI^*(ES)$ holds if $D_H(Tr) \land IA^\rho_{HC}(Tr)$ (cf. Definition 4.2.8). This statement is logically equivalent to the statement $R_H(Tr) \land IA^\rho_{HC}(Tr)$. According to Theorem B.2.1, the latter statement is logically equivalent to the requirement that $Tr$ is closed under some covering set of $\text{sifs}$ of type $F_{KIBGNI^*}$. □

**Proof (of Theorem B.1.6).** Firstly, assume that there is a covering set $\mathcal{F}$ of $\text{sifs}$ of type $F_{K\text{NF}}$ such that $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ and $f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0} = \emptyset$ holds for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^*$. From this, we will show that $NF(ES)$ holds.

Let $\tau \in Tr$ (if $Tr = \emptyset$ then the statement holds trivially) and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ($\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty because it covers $F_{K\text{NF}}$) be arbitrary. Since $f$ is a $\text{sif}$ and $E_2 = L$, we have $f(\emptyset, \tau)|_L = \tau|_L$. Since $E_0 = H$, we have $f(\emptyset, \tau)|_H = \emptyset$ according to our assumptions about $\mathcal{F}$. From $f(\emptyset, \tau)|_L = \tau|_L$, $f(\emptyset, \tau)|_H = \emptyset$, and $E_1 = \emptyset$, we obtain $f(\emptyset, \tau) = \tau|_L$. Since $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$, $\tau|_L$ holds. Since $\tau$ was chosen arbitrarily, $NF(ES)$ holds.

Secondly, assume that $NF(ES)$ holds. From this, we will show that there is a covering set $\mathcal{F}$ of $\text{sifs}$ of type $F_{K\text{NF}}$ such that $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ and $f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0} = \emptyset$ holds for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^*$. We define $\mathcal{F} = \{ f \text{ is a sif of type } F_{K\text{NF}} \mid \forall \tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^* f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0} = \emptyset \}$. We have to show that $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$. Let $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in Tr$ be arbitrary. Since $f(\tau_1, \tau_2) = \tau_2|_L$ (follows from $E_1 = \emptyset$ and our definition of $\mathcal{F}$) and $\tau_2|_L \in Tr$ (follows from $NF(ES)$), we have $f(\tau_1, \tau_2) \in Tr$. Since $f$, $\tau_1$, and $\tau_2$ are arbitrary, $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$.

It remains to show that $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_{K\text{NF}}$. Let $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ and $t \in \text{interleaving}(t_1|_{E_1}, t_2|_{E_2})$ be arbitrary. Since $E_1 = \emptyset$, we have $t = t_2|_{E_2}$. Define $f$ by: $\forall t_1', t_2' \in E^* . f(t_1', t_2') = t_2'|_{E_2}$. Obviously, $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $f(t_1, t_2) = t_2|_{E_2} = t$ hold. Hence, $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_{K\text{NF}}$. □

**Proof (of Theorem B.1.7).** Firstly, assume that there is a covering set $\mathcal{F}$ of $\text{sifs}$ of type $F_{K\text{GNP}}$
such that $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ and $f((\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0 \cap I} = \langle \rangle$ holds for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^*$. From this, we will show that $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds.

Let $\tau \in Tr$ and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary. Since $f$ is a sif and $E_2 = L$, we have $f(\langle \rangle, \tau)|_{L} = \tau|_{L}$. Since $E_0 = H$, $f(\langle \rangle, \tau)|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$ follows from our assumptions about $\mathcal{F}$. Since $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$, $f(\langle \rangle, \tau) \in Tr$ holds. For $\tau' = f(\langle \rangle, \tau)$, we have $\tau'|_{L} = \tau|_{L}$, and $\tau'|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle$. Hence, $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds.

Secondly, assume that $\text{GNF}(ES)$ holds. From this, we will show that there is a covering set $\mathcal{F}$ of sifs of type $F_{k,\text{GNF}}$ such that $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ and $f(\tau_1, \tau_2)|_{E_0 \cap I} = \langle \rangle$ holds for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in E^*$. We define $\mathcal{F} = \{ f \}$ where $f$ is defined by

$$f(t_1, t_2) = \begin{cases} 
    t_2|_{E_2} & \text{if } t_2 \notin Tr \\
    t'_2 & \text{if } t_2 \in Tr , \text{ where } t'_2 \in E^* \text{ is some trace with } t'_2 \in Tr, \\
    t'_2|_{L} = t_2|_{L}, \text{ and } t'_2|_{H \cap I} = \langle \rangle \\
    (t'_2 \text{ with these properties exists because } \text{GNF}(ES) \text{ holds})
\end{cases}$$

That $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ follows immediately from the definition of $f$. It remains to show that $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_{k,\text{GNF}}$. Let $t_1, t_2 \in E^*$ and $t \in \text{interleaving}(t_1|_{E_1}, t_2|_{E_2})$ be arbitrary. Since $E_1 = \emptyset$, we have $t = t_2|_{E_2}$. Since $f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = t_2|_{E_2} = t$ and $t_1, t_2, t$ were chosen arbitrarily, we conclude that $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_{k,\text{GNF}}$. □

The following lemma states that if $R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$ and $IA_{\mathcal{V}}^{\text{TC}}(Tr)$ hold then there is a set $\mathcal{F}^n$ of functions that has three properties:

1. Each function in $\mathcal{F}^n$ interleaves a trace that has at most length $n$ with another trace that may have arbitrary (finite) length. Intuitively, this can be understood as: Every function in $\mathcal{F}^n$ approximates a sif (for the restricted domain $(\bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}) \times E^*$).

2. The set of possible traces is closed under all functions in $\mathcal{F}^n$.

3. For each possibility to construct interleavings of $E_1$-sequences (of at most length $n$) with $E_2$-sequences (of arbitrary length) there is a function $f$ in $\mathcal{F}^n$ that performs this construction. More precisely, for every function $\iota$ that takes a trace $t'_1$ (of at most length $n$) and a trace $t'_2$ (of arbitrary length) and that returns an interleaving of the $E_1$-sequence in $t'_1$ with the $E_2$-sequence in $t'_2$ there is a function $f$ in $\mathcal{F}^n$ such that $f(t'_1, t'_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = \iota(t'_1, t'_2)$ holds. This requirement can be understood as: The set $\mathcal{F}^n$ approximates the coverage requirement (for the restricted domain $(\bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}) \times E^*$).

This lemma will be helpful in the proof of Theorem B.2.1.

**Lemma B.4.1.** Let $E$ be a set of events, $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be a view in $E$, and $\rho_C$ be a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$ with $\rho_C(\mathcal{V}) = C$. Moreover, let $\kappa : E \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ be defined by $\forall v \in V. \kappa(v) = 2$, $\forall n \in N. \kappa(n) = 0$, and $\forall c \in C. \kappa(c) = 1$. For $j \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ the set $E_j$ shall be defined by $E_j = \{ e \in E \mid \kappa(e) = j \}$.

If $R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr)$ and $IA_{\mathcal{V}}^{\text{TC}}(Tr)$ holds then, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a set $\mathcal{F}^n \subseteq ((\bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}) \times E^*) \rightarrow E^*$ of functions for which the following three propositions hold:

1. Every $f \in \mathcal{F}^n$ approximates a sif, i.e.

$$\forall f \in \mathcal{F}^n. \forall t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}. \forall t_2 \in E^*. 
\left[(f(t_1, t_2))|_{E_1} = t_1|_{E_1} \land (f(t_1, t_2))|_{E_2} = t_2|_{E_2}\right]$$

(B.2)
2. Tr is closed under every \( f \in \mathcal{F}^n \), i.e.
\[
\forall f \in \mathcal{F}^n, \forall t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}. \forall t_2 \in E^*. \quad [(t_1 \in Tr \land t_2 \in Tr) \Rightarrow f(t_1, t_2) \in Tr]
\]  
(B.3)

3. \( \mathcal{F}^n \) approximates the coverage requirement, i.e.
\[
\forall t \in ((\bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}) \times E^*) \rightarrow (E_1 \cup E_2)^*.
\]  
[B.4]
\[
[(\forall t'_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}. \forall t'_2 \in E^*. \lambda(t'_1, t'_2) \in \text{interleaving}(t'_1|_{E_1}, t'_2|_{E_2})] \\
\Rightarrow \exists f \in \mathcal{F}^n, \forall t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}. \forall t_2 \in E^*. f(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = \lambda(t_1, t_2)]
\]

Proof. The proof proceeds by induction on \( n \).

Base case: \( n = 0 \) holds. Since \( n = 0 \), we have \( \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'} = \{ () \} \). We construct \( \mathcal{F}^0 \) by \( \mathcal{F}^0 = \{ f^0 \} \) where \( f^0 \) is defined as follows for \( t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'} \) and \( t_2 \in E^* \):
\[
f^0(t_1, t_2) = f^0((), t_2) = \begin{cases} 
  t_2|_{E_2} & \text{if } t_2 \notin Tr \\
  t'_2 & \text{if } t_2 \in Tr, \text{ where } t'_2 \in E^* \text{ is some trace} \\
  \text{with } t'_2 \in Tr, t'_2|_{E_2} = t_2|_{E_2}, \text{ and} \\
  t'_2|_{E_1} = () (t'_2 \text{ with these properties exists} \\
  \text{because } R_P(Tr) \text{ holds})
\end{cases}
\]

For \( n = 0 \), (B.2) and (B.3) hold according to the construction of \( f^0 \).

The only function \( \lambda^0 \in ((\bigcup_{n' \leq 0} E^{n'}) \times E^*) \rightarrow (E_1 \cup E_2)^* \) with \( \forall t \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}. \forall t' \in E^*. \lambda^0(t, t') \in \text{interleaving}(t|_{E_1}, t'|_{E_2}) \) can be defined by \( \lambda^0(t'_1, t'_2) = t_2|_{E_2} \). According to our construction of \( f^0 \),
\[
f^0(t_1, t_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = f^0((), t_2)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = t_2|_{E_2} = \lambda^0(t_1, t_2)
\]
holds for all \( t_1 \in E^0 \) and \( t_2 \in E^* \). Hence, (B.4) holds for \( n = 0 \).

Step case: \( n > 0 \) holds. We construct \( \mathcal{F}^n \) as follows:
\[
\mathcal{F}^n = \left\{ f^n : ((\bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'}) \times E^*) \rightarrow E^* \right\}
\]
where \( \text{Def}_{f^n} \) defines \( f^n \) as follows for \( t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' \leq n} E^{n'} \) and \( t_2 \in E^* \):
\[
\text{Def}_{f^n} \equiv f^n(t_1, t_2) = \begin{cases} 
  \lambda(t_1, t_2) & \text{if } t_1 \notin Tr \text{ or } t_2 \notin Tr \\
  t_{t_1, t_2} & \text{if } t_1, t_2 \in Tr, \text{ where } t_{t_1, t_2} \in E^* \text{ is some trace} \\
  \text{with } t_{t_1, t_2} \in Tr \text{ and } t_{t_1, t_2}|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = \lambda(t_1, t_2)
\end{cases}
\]

The validity of (B.2), (B.3), and (B.4) follows immediately from this construction. It only remains to prove that \( f^n(t_1, t_2) \) is well defined, i.e. that there always is a trace \( t_{t_1, t_2} \in E^* \)
such that \( t_{1,2} \in Tr \) and \( t_{1,2}\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota(t_{1,2}) \) hold. For proving the existence of \( t_{1,2} \), we make a case distinction on \( t_1 \): either (1) \( t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) or (2) \( t_1 \in E^n \) holds.

**Case 1:** \( t_1 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) holds. There is a function \( \iota' : (\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^* \to (E_1 \cup E_2)^* \) that equals \( \iota \) on the restricted domain \((\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^* \), i.e. \( \iota'(t_3, t_4) = \iota(t_3, t_4) \) holds for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \). According to the induction assumption, there is a function \( f \in \mathcal{F}^{-1} \) such that \( f_{\iota'}^{-1}(t_3, t_4)\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota'(t_3, t_4) \) holds for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \) and such that if \( t_3, t_4 \in Tr \) then \( f_{\iota'}^{-1}(t_3, t_4) \in Tr \) holds. We choose \( t_{1,2} = f_{\iota'}^{-1}(t_{1,2}) \). Consequently, \( t_{1,2} \in Tr \) holds. Moreover, \( t_{1,2}\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota(t_{1,2}) \) holds because \( \iota(t_{1,2}) \) equals \( \iota \) for the restricted domain \((\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^* \).

**Case 2:** \( t_1 \in E^n \) holds. Let \( t_{1,2}' \in E^n \) and \( e \in E \) be defined by \( t_1 = t_{1,2}'(e) \). We make another case distinction on \( e \): (2a) \( e \notin E_1 \) and (2b) \( e \in E_1 \).

**Case 2a:** \( e \notin E_1 \) holds. There is a function \( \iota' : (\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^* \to (E_1 \cup E_2)^* \) such that \( \iota'(t_{1,2}', t_2) = \iota(t_{1,2}) \) holds and \( \iota'(t_3, t_4) \in \text{interleaving}(t_3\mid_{E_1}, t_4\mid_{E_2}) \) for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \). According to the induction assumption, there is a function \( f_{\iota}^{-1} \in \mathcal{F}^{-1} \) such that \( f_{\iota}^{-1}(t_3, t_4)\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota'(t_3, t_4) \) holds for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \) and such that if \( t_3, t_4 \in Tr \) then \( f_{\iota}^{-1}(t_3, t_4) \in Tr \) holds. We choose \( t_{1,2} = f_{\iota'}^{-1}(t_{1,2}) \) and obtain \( t_{1,2,2}E_1\cup E_2 = \iota'(t_{1,2}', t_2) = \iota(t_{1,2}) \).

**Case 2b:** \( e \in E_1 \) holds. Let \( \alpha, \beta \in E^* \) be defined by \( \alpha(t_{1,2}', e, t_2) = \beta(\cdot, e)\alpha(e) \) and \( \alpha|_{E_1} = \cdot \). There is a function \( \iota' : (\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^* \to (E_1 \cup E_2)^* \) such that \( \iota'(t_{1,2}', t_2) = \beta(\cdot, e)\alpha(e) \) holds and \( \iota(t_3, t_4) \in \text{interleaving}(t_3\mid_{E_1}, t_4\mid_{E_2}) \) for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \). According to the induction assumption, there is a function \( f_{\iota}^{-1} \in \mathcal{F}^{-1} \) such that \( f_{\iota}^{-1}(t_3, t_4)\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota'(t_3, t_4) \) holds for all \( t_3 \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'} \) and all \( t_4 \in E^* \) and such that if \( t_3, t_4 \in Tr \) then \( f_{\iota}^{-1}(t_3, t_4) \in Tr \) holds. Since \( f_{\iota}^{-1}(t_{1,2}', t_2)\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota'(t_{1,2}', t_2) = \beta(\cdot, e)\alpha(e) \) there are traces \( \alpha', \beta' \in E^* \) with \( \beta'|E_1 = \beta|E_1 \) and \( t_{1,2}'\mid_{E_2} = \cdot \). We obtain that \( \text{Adm}_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr, \beta', e) \) holds. From \( \text{IA}_{\mathcal{V}}^{OC}(Tr) \) we conclude that there are \( \alpha'', \beta'' \in E^* \) with \( \beta''|E_1 = \beta|E_1 \) and \( t_{1,2}'\mid_{E_2} = \cdot \). We choose \( t_{1,2} = \beta''(\cdot, e)\alpha'' \) and obtain \( t_{1,2} \in Tr \) and \( t_{1,2}\mid_{E_1\cup E_2} = (\beta''(\cdot, e)\alpha'')|_{E_1\cup E_2} = (\beta(\cdot, e)\alpha)|_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota(t_{1,2}) \).

Note in the proof of Lemma B.4.1 that \( R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) is applied only in the base case (for defining \( f' \)) and that \( \text{IA}_{\mathcal{V}}^{OC}(Tr) \) is applied only in Case 2b of the step case (for proving the existence of a particular trace \( t_{1,2} \) if \( t_1 \in E^n, t_1 = t_{1,2}'(e) \), and \( e \in E_1 \)).

We are now ready to prove the main theorem of this appendix.

**Proof (of Theorem B.2.1).** Firstly, assume that \( R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) and \( \text{IA}_{\mathcal{V}}^{OC}(Tr) \) hold. We have to show that \( Tr \) is closed under some covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_k \).

We choose \( \mathcal{F} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{F}_n \) where \( \mathcal{F}_n \) is defined like in the proof of Lemma B.4.1. Hence, \( Tr \) is closed under \( \mathcal{F} \). It remains to prove that \( \mathcal{F} \) covers \( F_k \). Let \( t_{1,2} \in E^* \) and \( t \in \text{interleaving}(t_{1,2}\mid_{E_1}, t_{2}\mid_{E_2}) \) be arbitrary. There is a number \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) with \( t_1 \in E^n \) (\( n \) is the length of \( t_1 \)). Choose a function \( \iota \in ((\bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}) \times E^*) \to (E_1 \cup E_2)^* \) with \( \forall t'_{1,2} \in \bigcup_{n' < n} E_{n'}, \forall t''_{1,2} \in E^*, \iota(t_{1,2}', t_{2}) \in \text{interleaving}(t_{1,2}'\mid_{E_1}, t_{2}\mid_{E_2}) \) and \( \iota(t_{1,2}') = t \). According to Lemma B.4.1 there is a function \( f \in \mathcal{F} \) with \( f(t_{1,2})|_{E_1\cup E_2} = \iota(t_{1,2}) = t \). Since \( t_1, t_2, t \) were chosen arbitrarily and \( f \in \mathcal{F} \) (\( \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F} \) holds), we conclude that \( \mathcal{F} \) covers \( F_k \).

Secondly, assume that \( Tr \) is closed under some covering set \( \mathcal{F} \) of sifs of type \( F_k \). We have to show that \( R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) and \( \text{IA}_{\mathcal{V}}^{OC}(Tr) \) hold.

For proving that \( R_{\mathcal{V}}(Tr) \) holds, let \( \tau \in Tr \) be arbitrary (if \( Tr = \emptyset \) then the proposition holds trivially). We choose \( \tau' = f(\cdot, \tau) \) where \( f \in \mathcal{F} \) is arbitrary. \( \tau' \in Tr \) holds because
Tr is closed under $\mathcal{F}$ and $\langle \rangle$, $\tau \in Tr$ holds ($\langle \rangle \in Tr$ because $Tr$ is closed under prefixes). $\tau'|_C = \tau'|_{E_1} = f(\langle \rangle, \tau)|_{E_1} = \langle \rangle$ and $\tau'|_{V} = \tau'|_{E_2} = f(\langle \rangle, \tau)|_{E_2} = \tau|$ because $f$ is a sif of type $F_k$. Thus, $R_\mathcal{F}(Tr)$ holds.

For proving that $IA_{\mathcal{F}}^C(Tr)$ holds, let $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary. Assume $\beta \alpha \in Tr$, $\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle$, and $Adm^C_{\mathcal{F}}(Tr, \beta, c)$. Hence $\alpha|_{E_1} = \langle \rangle$ and $c \in E_1$. Since $Adm^C_{\mathcal{F}}(Tr, \beta, c)$ there is a trace $\gamma \in E^*$ such that $\gamma.\langle c \rangle \in Tr$ and $\gamma|_{E_1} = \beta|_{E_1}$ hold. Consequently, $(\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha)|_{E_1 \cup E_2} \in$ interleaving($(\gamma.\langle c \rangle)|_{E_1}, (\beta.\alpha)|_{E_2}$) holds. Since $\mathcal{F}$ covers $F_k$, there is a sif $f \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $(f(\gamma.\langle c \rangle, \beta.\alpha))|_{E_1 \cup E_2} = (\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha)|_{E_1 \cup E_2}$. Let $\beta', \alpha' \in E^*$ be the subsequences of $f(\gamma.\langle c \rangle, \beta.\alpha)$, respectively, before and after the last occurrence of $c$, i.e. $f(\gamma.\langle c \rangle, \beta.\alpha) = \beta'.\langle c \rangle.\alpha'$ and $\alpha'|_{E_1} = \langle \rangle$. Since $Tr$ is closed under $\mathcal{F}$, we obtain $\beta'.\langle c \rangle.\alpha' \in Tr$. From $\beta'.\langle c \rangle.\alpha' \in Tr$, $\alpha'|_C = \langle \rangle$, and $(\beta'.\langle c \rangle.\alpha')|_{V \cup C} = (\beta.\langle c \rangle.\alpha)|_{V \cup C}$ we conclude that $IA_{\mathcal{F}}^C(Tr)$ holds. □
Appendix C

Verifying Information Flow Properties by Simulation

Simulation techniques are similar in spirit to unwinding in the sense that they reduce the verification of a global property to the verification of local conditions. However, an essential difference between these two techniques is that they have been developed for different properties. While the unwinding technique has been developed to simplify the verification of information flow properties, simulation techniques have been developed to simplify the verification that some system refines another.

However, we discovered a possibility to apply simulation techniques also for verifying information flow properties. The key observation is that BSPs can be expressed by refinement statements. After reformulating BSPs by refinement statements, simulation techniques become immediately applicable for their verification. Thereby, we obtain verification techniques for information flow properties that provide alternatives to the unwinding technique. The resulting verification techniques are sound. Moreover, some of them, namely forward-backward simulation and backward-forward simulation, are also complete.

Overview. In Section C.1, we recall four well known simulation techniques from the literature. In Section C.2, we show how backwards-strict BSPs and forward-correctable BSPs can be expressed in terms of refinement statements. In Section C.3, we illustrate by a concrete example how the simulation techniques can be employed during the verification of information flow properties. We conclude in Section C.4 with a brief summary of our main results.

Conventions. $ES^c = (E, I, O, Tr^c)$ and $ES^a = (E, I, O, Tr^a)$ denote event systems. $SES^a = (S^a, s_0^a, E, I, O, T^a)$, $SES^c = (S^c, s_0^c, E, I, O, T^c)$, and $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$ denote state-event systems. Let $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ denote a view in $E$, let $\rho$ denote a function from views in $E$ to subsets of $E$, and let $\Gamma$ denote a triple $(\nabla, \Delta, \Upsilon)$ of subsets of $E$. Moreover, let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ denote finite traces, i.e. $\alpha, \beta \in E^*$, and let $c$ denote a confidential event, i.e. $c \in C$.

C.1 Preliminaries on Simulation Techniques

Various simulation techniques have been proposed for proving that one system specification is a trace refinement of another one [LV95]. We refer to the particular notion of trace refinement considered in this setting by observational trace refinement.
Definition C.1.1 (Trace refinement). The event system $ES^c$ is a trace refinement of $ES^a$ (denoted by $ES^c \preceq_T ES^a$) iff $Tr^c \subseteq Tr^a$ holds.

Definition C.1.2 (Observational trace refinement). The event system $ES^c$ is an observational trace refinement of $ES^a$ (denoted by $ES^c \preceq_{OT} ES^a$) iff $Tr^c|_{I_UO} \subseteq Tr^a|_{I_UO}$ holds where $Tr^c|_{I_UO} = \{ \tau|_{I_UO} \mid \tau \in Tr^c \}$ and $Tr^a|_{I_UO} = \{ \tau|_{I_UO} \mid \tau \in Tr^a \}$ are the observable traces of, respectively, $ES^c$ and $ES^a$.

The state-event system $SES^c$ is an observational trace refinement of $SES^a$ (denoted by $SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^a$) iff $ESSES^c \preceq_{OT} ESSES^a$ holds.

If $ES^c \preceq_{OT} ES^a$ holds then all observations that are possible at the interface of $ES^c$ must also be possible at the interface of $ES^a$.

Various simulation techniques have been developed to prove that one system is an observational trace refinement of another system. These simulation techniques have in common that they reduce the verification of (global) refinement statements that involve the sets of all possible traces of both systems to more local conditions. However, they differ in which local verification conditions are used.

Below, we briefly recall four well known simulation techniques from the literature as well as corresponding soundness and completeness results. Our presentation is based on the overview article [LV95] with only a few minor changes in technical details.

**Forward Simulation.** The following definition is derived from Section 3.2 in [LV95].

Definition C.1.3 (Forward simulation). A relation $\preceq_F \subseteq S^c \times S^a$ is a forward simulation from $SES^c$ to $SES^a$ (denoted by $SES^c \preceq_F SES^a$) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

1. $s_0^c \preceq_F s_0^a$
2. $\forall s_1^c \in S^c. \forall s_1^a, s_2^a \in S^a. \forall e \in E.$
   
   \[
   (s_1^c \xrightarrow{e} s_2^c \wedge s_1^a \preceq_F s_1^a) \Rightarrow \exists s_2^a, \exists e \in E^*. (\delta|_{I_UO} = \langle e \rangle|_{I_UO} \wedge s_1^a \xrightarrow{\delta} s_2^a \wedge s_1^2 \preceq_F s_2^a)
   \]

The conditions in Definition C.1.3 are also viewed by the two diagrams in Figure C.1 where we use the same conventions like in Chapter 5.

![Figure C.1: Verification conditions for forward simulation](image)

**Theorem C.1.4 (Soundness of forward simulation).** If $\preceq_F \subseteq S^c \times S^a$ is a forward simulation from $SES^c$ to $SES^a$ then $SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^a$ holds.

**Proof.** Follows from Theorem 3.10 in [LV95].

Forward simulation is a sound proof technique but it is, in general, not complete. For a conditional completeness result, we refer to Theorem 3.11 in [LV95].
Backward Simulation. The following definition of backward simulation is derived from Section 3.3 in [LV95]. Because of our assumption on state-event systems, i.e. that there is only one initial state and that $T$ is functional in its first two arguments, the soundness result that we present is a specialization of the one in that article.

Definition C.1.5 (Backward simulation). A relation $\preceq_B \subseteq S_c^c \times S^a$ is a backward simulation from $SES^c$ to $SES^a$ (denoted by $SES^c \preceq_B SES^a$) if it is total\(^1\) and if

1. $\forall s' \in S^a. (s_0^c \preceq_B s' \Rightarrow s' = s_0^a)$

2. $\forall s_2 \in S^a. \forall s_1', s_2' \in S^c. \forall e \in E. (s_1' \overset{e}{\rightarrow} T_c s_2' \land s_2' \preceq_B s_2) \Rightarrow \exists s_1 \in S^a. \exists \delta \in E^*. (\delta|_{I\cup O} = \langle e \rangle|_{I\cup O} \land s_1 \Rightarrow s_2 \land s_1' \preceq_B s_1)$

![Diagram](https://example.com/backward_simulation_diagram.png)

where $e \in E$, $\delta \in E^*$, and $\delta|_V = \langle e \rangle|_V$

Figure C.2: Verification conditions for backward simulation

Unlike forward simulation, backward simulation requires that the simulation relation is total in $S^c$. The two conditions of Definition C.1.5 are also shown in Figure C.2. Note that the diagram on the right hand side has the same shape like the one in Figure C.1.3. However, it differs in which parts are fat or thin, e.g., the quantification of $s_1$ and $s_2$ differs.

Theorem C.1.6 (Soundness of backward simulation). If $\preceq_B \subseteq S_c^c \times S^a$ is a backward simulation from $SES^c$ to $SES^a$ then $SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^a$ holds. 

Proof. Follows from Theorem 3.17 in [LV95].

Backward simulation is, in general, not complete. For a conditional completeness result, we refer to Theorem 3.18 in [LV95].

Remark C.1.7. Although forward simulation and backward simulation are, in general, not complete it is possible to obtain a complete verification technique by combining them. Theorem 3.22 in [LV95] states that if there are specifications $A$ and $B$ such that $A \preceq_{OT} B$ then there is a specification $C$, a forward simulation $\preceq_F$, and a backward simulation $\preceq_B$ such that $A \preceq_F C$ and $C \preceq_B B$. Similar results can be found in [HHS87, He89, Jon89, Jon91, Jon88, KS93].

Hybrid Simulations. Simulation techniques that are sound as well as complete, without having to construct an intermediate system specification (cf. Remark C.1.7), have been constructed by merging forward simulation with backward simulation. The following definitions are derived from Section 4 in [LV95].

\(^1\)A relation $R \subseteq X \times Y$ is total over $X$ if $\text{domain}(R) = X$ where $\text{domain}(R) = \{x \in X \mid \exists y \in Y. (x, y) \in R\}$.
One technical difference of these hybrid simulation techniques to forward simulation or backward simulation is that the simulation relation relates a state of the concrete system with a set of states of the abstract system (rather than with a single state of the abstract system).

**Definition C.1.8 (Forward-backward simulation).** A relation \( \preceq_{FB} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{N}(S^o)^2 \) is a forward-backward simulation from \( SES^c \) to \( SES^o \) (denoted by \( SES^c \preceq_{FB} SES^o \)) if it satisfies the following two conditions.

1. \( s_0^c \preceq_{FB} \{ s_0^o \} \)
2. \( \forall s_1 \in \mathcal{N}(S^o). \forall s_1^c, s_2^c \in S^c. \forall e \in E. \left( (s_1^c \xrightarrow{e} \gamma_{T^c} s_2^c \wedge s_1^c \preceq_{FB} S_1) \Rightarrow \exists s_2 \in \mathcal{N}(S^o). \forall s_2 \in S_2. \exists \gamma \in E^*. \exists s_1 \in S_1. \right. \)
   \[ (s_2 \preceq_{FB} S_2 \wedge \gamma |_{I \cup O} = \langle e |_{I \cup O} \wedge s_1 \xrightarrow{\gamma} s_2 \} \) \diamond 

**Definition C.1.9 (Backward-forward simulation).** A relation \( \preceq_{BF} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{P}(S^o)^3 \) is a backward-forward simulation from \( SES^c \) to \( SES^o \) (denoted by \( SES^c \preceq_{BF} SES^o \)) if it is total in \( S^c \) and if it satisfies the following two conditions.

1. \( \forall s \in \mathcal{P}(S^o). (s_0^c \preceq_{BF} S \Rightarrow s_0^o \in S) \)
2. \( \forall s_2 \in \mathcal{P}(S^o). \forall s_1^c, s_2^c \in S^c. \forall e \in E. \left( (s_1^c \xrightarrow{e} \gamma_{T^c} s_2^c \wedge s_1^c \preceq_{BF} S_2) \Rightarrow \exists S_1 \in \mathcal{P}(S^o). \forall s_1 \in S_1. \exists \gamma \in E^*. \exists s_2 \in S_2. \right. \)
   \[ (s_1^c \preceq_{BF} S_1 \wedge \gamma |_{I \cup O} = \langle e |_{I \cup O} \wedge s_1 \xrightarrow{\gamma} s_2 \} \) \diamond 

**Theorem C.1.10 (Soundness of hybrid simulations).** Let \( \preceq_{FB} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{N}(S^o) \) and \( \preceq_{BF} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{P}(S^o) \) be two relations.

- If \( SES^c \preceq_{FB} SES^o \) then \( SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^o \) holds.
- If \( SES^c \preceq_{BF} SES^o \) then \( SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^o \) holds. \diamond 

**Proof.** Follows from Theorems 4.5 and 4.13 in [LV95].

Unlike forward simulation or backward simulation, which are only complete under certain assumptions, forward-backward simulation and backward-forward simulation are both, in general, complete verification techniques for observational trace refinement.

**Theorem C.1.11 (Completeness of hybrid simulations).**

- If \( SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^o \) then \( SES^c \preceq_{FB} SES^o \) holds for some relation \( \preceq_{FB} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{N}(S^o) \).
- If \( SES^c \preceq_{OT} SES^o \) then \( SES^c \preceq_{BF} SES^o \) holds for some relation \( \preceq_{BF} \subseteq S^c \times \mathcal{P}(S^o) \). \diamond 

**Proof.** Follows from Theorems 4.5 and 4.13 in [LV95].

---

\(^2\)Given a set \( X \), \( \mathcal{N}(X) \) denotes the powerset of \( X \) without \( \emptyset \), i.e. \( \mathcal{N}(X) = \{ X' \mid X' \subseteq X \land X' \neq \emptyset \} \).

\(^3\)Given a set \( X \), \( \mathcal{P}(X) \) denotes the powerset of \( X \), i.e. \( \mathcal{P}(X) = \{ X' \mid X' \subseteq X \} \).
C.2 Correspondence to Trace Refinement

We now elaborate the correspondence between BSPs and observational trace refinement.

The following theorem shows how our backwards-strict BSPs can be reformulated by refinement statements. This theorem provides the basis for employing simulation techniques in the verification of BSPs.

**Theorem C.2.1.** Let $ES_{SES} = (E, I, O, Tr_{SES})$ be the event system for $SES$. The following equivalences are valid where $T' = \{(s, e, s') \in T \mid e \notin C\}$:

\[
BSD_{T}(Tr_{SES}) \iff \forall \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C. \forall s, s' \in S.
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
(s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s \land s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s') \\
\Rightarrow (S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T')
\end{cases}
\]  
\[
BSI_{T}(Tr_{SES}) \iff \forall \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C. \forall s \in S.
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
(s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s) \\
\Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. (s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s') \land (S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T')
\end{cases}
\]

\[
BSIA_{T}^{c}(Tr_{SES}) \iff \forall \beta \in E^*. \forall c \in C. \forall s \in S.
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
(s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s \land En_{T}^{c}(T, s, c)) \\
\Rightarrow \exists s' \in S. (s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s') \land (S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T')
\end{cases}
\]

**Proof.** We only prove (C.1) in detail.

$\Rightarrow$: Assume that $BSD_{T}(Tr_{SES})$ holds. Let $\beta \in E^*, c \in C,$ and $s, s' \in S$ be arbitrary such that $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s$ and $s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s'$ hold. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that there is a state $s''$ with $s' = \alpha \cdot T$, $s''$, i.e., $\alpha$ is a possible trace of $(S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T')$. Consequently, $\beta \cdot \langle c \cdot \rangle \cdot \alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ holds. From $BSD_{T}(Tr_{SES})$ we obtain that there is a trace $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ with $\beta \cdot \alpha' \in Tr_{SES}$ and $\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V$. Hence, there must be a state $s'' \in S$ for which $s \xrightarrow{\alpha' \cdot T} s''$ holds, i.e., $\alpha'$ is a possible trace of $(S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T')$ that yields the same observation like $\alpha$.

$\Leftarrow$: Assume that, for all $\beta \in E^*, c \in C,$ $s, s' \in S$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s$ and $s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s'$, $(S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T')$ holds. Let $\beta \in E^*$ and $c \in C$ be arbitrary such that $\beta \cdot \langle c \cdot \rangle \cdot \alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ holds. Hence, there are states $s, s' \in S$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta \cdot T} s$ and $s \xrightarrow{c \cdot T} s'$. According to our assumption $(S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T')$ holds. Let $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ be arbitrary such that $\beta \cdot \langle c \cdot \rangle \cdot \alpha \in Tr_{SES}$ holds. Hence, there is a state $s'' \in S$ with $s' = \alpha \cdot T$, $s''$. Consequently, $\alpha$ is a possible trace of $(S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T')$. From the refinement statement, we obtain that there is a possible trace $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ of $(S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T')$ that yields the same observation like $\alpha$, i.e., there is a state $s'' \in S$ with $s \xrightarrow{\alpha' \cdot T} s''$ (implies $\beta \cdot \alpha' \in Tr_{SES}$) and $\alpha'|_V = \alpha|_V$. Consequently, $BSD_{T}(Tr_{SES})$ holds.

The proofs of (C.2) and (C.3) are along the same lines. In the proof of (C.3), Theorem 5.4.7 needs to be applied in order to move between $\rho$-enabledness and $\rho$-admissibility. 

Note that the two state-event systems in each refinement statement of Theorem C.2.1 differ only in their initial state (either $s$ or $s'$). In the refinement statements, the classification of
events as external or internal events and the choice of $T'$ are crucial. For example, in the equivalence for $\text{BSD}_p(\text{TrSES})$, events in $N \cup C$ become internal events and events in $V$ become external events according to $(S, s, E, \emptyset, V, T') \leq_{OT} (S, s', E, \emptyset, V, T')$. This reflects that $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$ in Definition 3.4.24 must be equal in events from $V$ but may differ in events from $N \cup C$. However, in order to prevent that they differ in events from $C$, it is crucial that events from $C$ are disabled in $T'$. This also ensures $\alpha \in (E \setminus C)^*$ and $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$.

The following theorem shows how our forward-correctable BSPs can be reformulated based on observational trace refinement.

**Theorem C.2.2.** Let $\text{ES}_{SE} = (E, I, O, \text{TrSES})$ be the event system for $\text{SES}$. The following implications are valid where $T' = \{(s, e, s') \in T \mid e \notin C\}$:

$$FCD_{\text{TrSES}} \subseteq (s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \land s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T' \land s' \land (N \cup \Delta)^*) \setminus \exists s'' \in S. \exists s'' \in (N \cup \Delta)^*.$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.4)

$$FCI_{\text{TrSES}} \subseteq (s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \land s \xrightarrow{v} T' \land s'' \land (s, s'' = E, \emptyset, V, T')) \setminus \exists s'' \in S. \exists s'' \in (N \cup \Delta)^*.$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.5)

$$FCIA_{\text{TrSES}} \subseteq (s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T \land s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T' \land s'' \land (s, s'' = E, \emptyset, V, T')) \setminus \exists s'' \in S. \exists s'' \in (N \cup \Delta)^*.$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.6)

**Proof.** We only prove (C.4) in detail.

Assume that for all $\beta \in E^*$, $c \in C \cup \Delta$, $v \in V \cup \Delta$, $s, s', s'' \in S$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T$, $s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T$, and $s' \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T'$, there are a state $s'' \in S$ and a sequence $\delta \in (N \cup \Delta)^*$ such that $s \xrightarrow{\delta} T$, $s'' \leq_{OT} (S, s'', E, \emptyset, V, T')$ and $s' \xrightarrow{\delta} T$. Let $s \in E^*$, $c \in C \cup \Delta$, and $v \in V \cup \Delta$ be arbitrary such that $\beta.(c,v) \in \text{TrSES}$ holds. Hence, there are states $s, s' \in S$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} s$ and $s \xrightarrow{(c,v)} T'$. According to our assumption there are a state $s'' \in S$ and a sequence $\delta \in (N \cup \Delta)^*$ such that $s \xrightarrow{\delta} T$, $s'' \leq_{OT} (S, s'', E, \emptyset, V, T')$ and $s' \xrightarrow{\delta} T$. From the refinement statement, we obtain that there is a possible trace $\alpha' \in (E \setminus C)^*$ of the state-event system $(S, s'', E, \emptyset, V, T')$ that yields the same observation like $\alpha$, i.e., there is a state $s''' \in S$ with $s''' \xrightarrow{\alpha' \circ T} s'''$ (implies $\beta.(c,v) \alpha' \in \text{TrSES}$) and $\alpha' \mid V = \alpha \mid V$.

The proofs of (C.5) and (C.6) are along the same lines. In the proof of (C.6), Theorem 5.4.7 needs to be applied in order to move between $\rho$-admissibility and $\rho$-enabledness.}

---

\footnote{However, it does not matter whether events in $V$ are viewed as input events or as output events. We view these events as output events (cf. Theorem C.2.1).}
Remark C.2.3. According to Theorem C.2.1, the backwards-strict BSPs are equivalent to their respective reformulations by refinement statements. In contrast to this, our reformulations of forward-correctable BSPs are not equivalent to the respective BSPs (cf. Theorem C.2.2), i.e. these BSPs are implied by the respective reformulation but they do not imply this formulation. This is due to the quantifier structure, i.e. $\forall \alpha \ldots \exists \delta \ldots$ in the definitions of $FCD$, $FCI$, or $FCIA$ and the quantifier structure $\ldots \exists \delta \ldots \forall \alpha \ldots$ in the reformulations (universal quantification of $\alpha$ is implicit in the refinement statement). 

C.3 Verifying BSPs by Simulation

In Theorems C.2.1 and C.2.2, we have shown how backwards-strict BSPs and forward-correctable BSPs can be expressed by refinement statements. The benefit of having these reformulations is that simulation techniques are applicable to them. This means, we can employ any of the simulation techniques in Section C.1 for proving these reformulations. According to the soundness theorems (Theorems C.1.4, C.1.6, and C.1.10), the application of forward simulation, backward simulation, forward-backward simulation, and backward-forward simulation during the verification of information flow properties is, indeed, sound. Interestingly, after having shown Theorems C.2.1 and C.2.2, we obtain these soundness results "for free" from [LV95]. Moreover, simulation techniques that are complete proof techniques for refinement statements are also complete proof techniques for our backwards-strict BSPs (because these BSPs are equivalent to their respective reformulations).

Let us now illustrate by a concrete example how simulation techniques can be applied during the verification of BSPs. We start with forward simulation and then present an example for backward simulation. For both examples, we employ the same system that we have also used to illustrate the application of our unwinding results in Section 5.6.1.

Example C.3.1. Let $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$ and $\mathcal{V} = (V, N, C)$ be defined like in Example 5.6.1. The transition relation $T$ is also viewed in Figure C.3. Let us now verify that $BSD_\mathcal{V}(Tr_{SES})$ holds with the help of forward simulation.

![Figure C.3: Transition relation from Example C.3.1](image)

According to Theorem C.2.1, we have to prove two refinement statements, namely

$$(S, s_4, E, \emptyset, V, T') \preceq_{OT} (S, s_0, E, \emptyset, V, T')$$

$$(S, s_8, E, \emptyset, V, T') \preceq_{OT} (S, s_4, E, \emptyset, V, T')$$

where $T'$ is defined by $T' = \{(s, e, s') \in T \mid e \neq hi\}$. We now construct a forward simulation $\preceq_{F1} \subseteq S \times S$ for the first of these statements by starting with the empty relation and iteratively...
adding elements to this relation in order to satisfy the requirements of a forward simulation. The first condition in the definition of forward simulations (cf. Definition C.1.3) requires \( s_4 \preceq_{F_1} s_0 \). Since \( (s_4, lo_1, s_5) \in T' \) and \( s_4 \preceq_{F_1} s_0 \), the second condition in Definition C.1.3 requires \( s_5 \preceq_{F_1} s_1 \). By repeatedly applying this second condition, we obtain that \( s_6 \preceq_{F_2} s_2 \) and \( s_7 \preceq_{F_1} s_3 \) have to hold as well. It is easy to check that \( \preceq_F = \{(s_4, s_0), (s_5, s_1), (s_6, s_2), (s_7, s_3)\} \), indeed, is a forward simulation for the first of the two refinement statements above. A forward simulation \( \preceq_{F_2} \subseteq S \times S \) for the second refinement statement can be constructed along the same lines. The forward simulations \( \preceq_{F_1} \) and \( \preceq_{F_2} \) are depicted in Figure C.4.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\begin{tikzpicture}
\node (s0) at (0,0) {$s_0$};
\node (s1) at (0,-2) {$s_1$};
\node (s2) at (2,-2) {$s_2$};
\node (s3) at (2,0) {$s_3$};
\node (s4) at (4,0) {$s_4$};
\node (s5) at (4,-2) {$s_5$};
\node (s6) at (6,-2) {$s_6$};
\node (s7) at (6,0) {$s_7$};
\node (s8) at (8,0) {$s_8$};
\node (s9) at (8,-2) {$s_9$};
\node (s10) at (10,-2) {$s_{10}$};
\node (s11) at (10,0) {$s_{11}$};
\draw[->] (s0) -- node[above]{$\preceq_{F_1}$} (s1);
\draw[->] (s0) -- node[above]{$\preceq_{F_1}$} (s4);
\draw[->] (s1) -- node[below]{$lo_1$} (s3);
\draw[->] (s2) -- node[below]{$lo_1$} (s5);
\draw[->] (s3) -- node[below]{$lo_2$} (s4);
\draw[->] (s4) -- node[above]{$\preceq_{F_1}$} (s7);
\draw[->] (s5) -- node[below]{$lo_1$} (s7);
\draw[->] (s6) -- node[below]{$lo_1$} (s9);
\draw[->] (s7) -- node[above]{$\preceq_{F_1}$} (s3);
\draw[->] (s8) -- node[above]{$\preceq_{F_2}$} (s10);
\draw[->] (s9) -- node[below]{$lo_1$} (s11);
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{array}
\]

Figure C.4: Construction of a forward simulation in Example C.3.1

The difference between the above example and our example for the unwinding technique (Example 5.6.1) is that there are two simulation relations \( \preceq_{F_1} \) and \( \preceq_{F_2} \) but only a single unwinding relation \( \preceq \). Interestingly, the forward simulations selected in the example are not the only ones that are suitable. For example, the verification of the conditions for forward simulations would have also succeeded for the choices \( \preceq_{F_1} = \preceq \) and \( \preceq_{F_2} = \preceq \) (where \( \preceq \) is like in Example 5.6.1).

While the construction of a forward simulation is similar to the construction of an unwinding relation, the construction of a backward simulation is quite different. The main reason for this difference is the requirement that a backward simulation must be total in the states of the concrete system, i.e. that every state of the concrete system must be related to some state of the abstract system.

**Example C.3.2.** Let \( SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T) \) and \( V = (V, N, C) \) be defined like in Example 5.6.1. Let us now verify that \( BSD_V(T_{SES}) \) holds with the help of backward simulation.

Like in Example C.3.1, we have to prove the following two refinement statements:

\[
\begin{align*}
(S, s_4, E, \emptyset, V, T') &\preceq_{OT} (S, s_0, E, \emptyset, V, T') \\
(S, s_8, E, \emptyset, V, T') &\preceq_{OT} (S, s_4, E, \emptyset, V, T')
\end{align*}
\]

where \( T' \) is defined by \( T' = \{(s, e, s') \in T \mid e \neq hi\} \). We now construct a backward simulation \( \preceq_B \subseteq S \times S \) for the first of these refinement statements by starting with the empty relation and iteratively adding elements to this relation in order to satisfy the requirements of a backward simulation. Since \( \preceq_B \) must be total in \( S \), \( s_4 \) (the initial state of the concrete system) must be related to some state. According to the first condition in the definition of backward simulation (cf. Definition C.1.5), \( s_0 \) is the only possibility, i.e. \( s_4 \preceq_B s_0 \) must hold. Since \( s_4 \preceq_B s_0 \), \( (s_4, lo_1, s_5) \in T' \), and \( (s_0, lo_1, s_1) \in T' \), the second condition in the definition of backward simulation is satisfied if we demand that \( s_5 \preceq_B s_1 \) must hold. By
repeatedly, extending the relation, we obtain that \( s_6 \preceq_B s_2 \) and \( s_7 \preceq_B s_3 \) hold also. So far, the constructed relation is identical to the forward simulation \( \preceq_F \). However, the requirements of a backward simulation are not yet satisfied because the relation constructed so far is not total in \( S \), i.e. the states \( s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_8, s_9, s_{10}, s_{11} \) are not related to any other states. We relate \( s_8, s_{10}, s_{11} \) like in \( \preceq_F \) (cf. Example C.3.1), i.e. \( s_8 \preceq_B s_4, s_{10} \preceq_B s_6, s_{11} \preceq_B s_7 \) and relate \( s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_9 \) to themselves, i.e. \( s_0 \preceq_B s_0, s_1 \preceq_B s_1, s_2 \preceq_B s_2, s_3 \preceq_B s_3, s_9 \preceq_B s_9 \). It is easy to check that the resulting relation (depicted in Figure C.5) is a backward simulation for the first refinement statement. Moreover, it is also a backward simulation for the second refinement statement.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\circlearrowleft_{s_0} \\
\preceq_B & \downarrow \ \\
\circlearrowleft_{s_1} & \circlearrowright_{s_2} & \circlearrowleft_{s_3} & \circlearrowleft_{s_4} \\
\preceq_B & \downarrow \ \\
\circlearrowright_{s_5} & \circlearrowleft_{s_6} & \circlearrowleft_{s_7} & \circlearrowright_{s_8} \\
\preceq_B & \downarrow \ \\
\circlearrowright_{s_9} & \circlearrowleft_{s_{10}} & \circlearrowleft_{s_{11}} & \circlearrowright_{s_9} \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure C.5: Construction of a backward simulation in Example C.3.2

C.4 Summary

As an alternative to unwinding for the verification of information flow properties, we have adopted simulation techniques. Simulation techniques can be applied for this purpose despite they have been originally developed for a different purpose, i.e. for proving that one system refines another system. The adoption of simulation techniques like, e.g., forward simulation or backward simulation has become possible after we identified a close relationship between our BSPs and a particular variant of trace refinement (referred to by observational trace refinement). The discovery of this correspondence and the adoption of simulation techniques for verifying information flow properties are original contributions of our work.

Using simulation techniques, the verification of information flow properties proceeds as follows: First, the verification of information flow properties is reduced to the verification of BSPs (based on the modular representation in MAKs). Then, the BSPs are reformulated by refinement statements and, finally, they can be verified with the help of the simulation techniques explained in this chapter.

The simulation techniques considered here are already established for verifying trace refinement and our definitions of these techniques are simple re-formulations (in our formalism) of definitions from the literature [LV95]. The benefit of our adaptation of these simulation techniques is that we obtained alternatives to the unwinding technique for verifying BSPs. Since simulation techniques have been thoroughly investigated in the context of trace refinement, we could obtain soundness and completeness results for these verification techniques “for free”. Concerning completeness, there seems to be a trade-off with the complexity of the local verification conditions. On the one hand, forward simulation and backward simulation
are based on relatively simple local conditions that are easy to handle during verification but these techniques are not complete, in general. On the other hand, forward-backward simulation and backward-forward simulation are complete verification techniques but the corresponding local verification conditions are quite complex (e.g. they involve relations between sets of states) and, hence, they are more difficult to handle during verification than the verification conditions for forward simulation or backward simulation.
Appendix D

Proofs of Compositionality Results

D.1 Detailed Proof of the Generalized Zipping Lemma

This section contains the detailed proof of the generalized zipping lemma (Lemma 6.4.4) that has been sketched in Section 6.4.2 already.

Proof (of Lemma 6.4.4). According to our assumptions, the composition of $E_S1$ and $E_S2$ is well behaved wrt. $V_1$ and $V_2$. We make a case distinction on conditions 1–4 in Definition 6.3.6 and prove each of the resulting cases. However, first, note the following facts:

- $N_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap V_1 = \emptyset$ hold because $N_1 \cap V_2 = (N_1 \cap E_1) \cap (V \cap E_2) = (N_1 \cap V_1) \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap V_1 = (N_2 \cap E_2) \cap (V \cap E_1) = (N_2 \cap V_2) \cap E_1 = \emptyset$.

- If $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ then $t_1|E_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$ holds because $t_1|E_2 = t_1|E_1 \cap E_2 = t_1|(V_1 \cup N_1 \cup C_1) \cap E_2 = t_1|V_1 \cap E_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$ ($t_1|C_1 = \emptyset$ holds).

- If $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ then $t_2|E_1 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$ holds because $t_2|E_1 = t_2|E_1 \cap E_2 = t_2|(E_1 \cap (V_2 \cup N_2 \cup C_2)) = t_2|E_1 \cap V_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$ ($t_2|C_2 = \emptyset$ holds).

Let us, firstly, assume that condition 1 in Definition 6.3.6 holds, i.e. that $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ hold. According to the above facts, $t_1|E_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2 = t_2|E_1$ holds. From $t_1|C_1 = \emptyset$, $t_2|C_2 = \emptyset$, $C \cap E_1 \subseteq C_1$, and $C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2$, we obtain that $t_1|C = \emptyset$ and $t_2|C = \emptyset$ hold. Since $t_1|E_2 = t_2|E_1$, $t_1|V = \lambda|E_1$, $t_2|V = \lambda|E_2$, $t_1|C = \emptyset$, and $t_2|C = \emptyset$ there is a trace $t \in E^*$ such that $t|E_1 = t_1$, $t|E_2 = t_2$, $t|V = \lambda$, and $t|C = \emptyset$. This means, $t$ results from $\lambda$ by inserting the sequences $t_1|N_1$ and $t_2|N_2$. According to the definition of the composition operator, $\tau.t \in T_r$ holds because $t|E_1 = t_1$, $t|E_2 = t_2$, $\tau|E_1.t_1 \in T_1$, and $\tau|E_2.t_2 \in T_2$ hold.

Let us, secondly, assume that condition 2 in Definition 6.3.6 holds, i.e. that $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, $BSIA_{V_1}(T_1)$, and total($ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2$) hold. From $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, we obtain $t_1|E_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$. The projections $t_1|E_2$ and $t_2|E_1$ differ only in events from $N_2 \cap E_1$ because $t_1|E_2 = \lambda|E_1 \cap E_2$, $t_2 \in (V_2 \cup N_2 \cup C_2)^*$, $t_2|C_2 = \emptyset$, and $t_2|V_2 = \lambda|E_2$. Since $N_2 \cap N_1 = \emptyset$, $N_2 \cap V_1 = \emptyset$, and $E_1 = V_1 \cup N_1 \cup C_1$, we have $N_2 \cap E_1 = N_2 \cap C_1$. By an inductive argument on the length of $t_2|N_2 \cap C_1$, we obtain from $BSIA_{V_1}(T_1)$, total($ES_1, C_1 \cap N_2$) and $N_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ that there is a trace $t'_1 \in E_1^*$ with $\tau|E_1.t'_1 \in T_1$, $t'_1|V_1 = t_1|V_1$, $t'_1|C_1 \subseteq (C_1 \cap N_2)^*$, and $t'_1|E_2 = t_2|E_1$ (events in $t_2|N_2 \cap C_1$ are inserted from left to right into $t_1$). From $t'_1|C_1 \subseteq (C_1 \cap N_2)^*$, $t_2|C_2 = \emptyset$, $\tau|E_1 \cap C_1$, and $C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2$, we obtain that $t'_1|C = \emptyset$ and $t_2|C = \emptyset$ hold. Since $t'_1|E_2 = t_2|E_1$, $t'_1|V = \lambda|E_1$ (follows from $t'_1|V_1 = t_1|V_1$ and $t_1|V = \lambda|E_1$), $t_2|V = \lambda|E_2$, $t'_1|C = \emptyset$, and $t_2|C = \emptyset$ there is a
trace \( t \in E^* \) with \( t|_{E_1} = t'_1, t|_{E_2} = t_2, t|_V = \lambda, \) and \( t|_C = \emptyset \). According to the definition of the composition operator, \( \tau \cdot t \in Tr \) holds (\( \tau|_{E_1}, t_1 \in Tr_1, \tau|_{E_2}, t_2 \in Tr_2, t|_{E_1} = t'_1, \) and \( t|_{E_2} = t_2 \)).

Let us, thirdly, assume that condition 3 in Definition 6.3.6 holds, i.e. that \( \mathcal{N}_2 \cap \mathcal{E}_1 = \emptyset,\) \( \text{BSIA}^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(Tr_1) \), and \( \text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1) \) hold. These assumptions are symmetric to the one in the second case (where we assumed that condition 2 holds). Hence, this case can be handled like the second case (where indices 1 and 2 have to be exchanged).

Let us, fourthly, assume that condition 4 in Definition 6.3.6 holds, i.e. that there are a function \( \rho_1 \) from views in \( E_1 \) to subsets of \( E_1 \), a function \( \rho_2 \) from views in \( E_2 \) to subsets of \( E_2 \), and triples \( \Gamma_1 = (\nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1) \) and \( \Gamma_2 = (\nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2) \) (where \( \nabla_1, \Delta_1, \Upsilon_1 \subseteq E_1 \) and \( \nabla_2, \Delta_2, \Upsilon_2 \subseteq E_2 \)) such that \( \text{BSIA}^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(Tr_1), \text{BSIA}^{\rho_2}_{\nu_2}(Tr_2), \text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap \mathcal{N}_2), \text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1), \text{FCIA}^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(Tr_1), \text{FCIA}^{\rho_2}_{\nu_2}(Tr_2), \mathcal{V}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2, \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \mathcal{N}_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1, \mathcal{C}_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2, \mathcal{N}_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap \mathcal{E}_2 = \emptyset, \) and \( \mathcal{N}_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap \mathcal{E}_1 = \emptyset \) hold.

We prove the lemma by induction on the length of \( \lambda \). This induction resembles the process of closing a zipper in a stepwise manner if the events in \( \lambda \) are viewed as the teeth of the zipper.

In the base case (\( \lambda = \langle \rangle \)), \( \tau \cdot t \in Tr, t|_V = \lambda, \) and \( t|_C = \emptyset \) hold for \( t = \langle \rangle \).

In the step case (\( \lambda = \langle v \rangle, \lambda' \) for some \( v \in V, \lambda' \in V^* \)), we make a case distinction on \( v \).

1. \( v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_1 \)
2. \( v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_2 \)
3. \( v \in V_1 \setminus E_2 \)
4. \( v \in V_2 \setminus E_1 \)

This is a complete case distinction because \( v \in V, V = V_1 \cup V_2 = (V_1 \cap V_2) \cup (V_1 \setminus V_2) \cup (V_2 \setminus V_1) \), \( V_1 \setminus V_2 = V_1 \setminus E_2 \) (follows from \( V \cap E_1 = V_1 \) and \( V \cap E_2 = V_2 \)), \( V_2 \setminus V_1 = V_2 \setminus E_1 \) (follows from \( V \cap E_1 = V_1 \) and \( V \cap E_2 = V_2 \)), and \( V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq \nabla_1 \cup \nabla_2 \).

Case 1: \( v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_1 \)

- We split \( t_1 \) into subexpressions before and after \( v \) (recall that \( t_1|_V = \lambda|_{E_1} \)). Choose \( r_1, s_1 \in E_{\lambda}^* \) such that \( t_1 = r_1 \cdot \langle v \rangle \cdot s_1 \) and \( t_1|_{V_1} = \langle \rangle \) hold.

- \( t_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle \) holds because \( t_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle \). Hence, \( r_1 \in \mathcal{N}_1^* \) holds (follows from \( r_1 \in E_{\lambda}^* \) and \( t_1|_{V_1} = \langle \rangle \)). \( t_1|_{E_2} \in (\mathcal{N}_1 \cap \mathcal{C}_2)^* \) holds because \( \mathcal{N}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2 = \emptyset \) and \( \mathcal{N}_1 \cap \mathcal{N}_2 = \emptyset \). From \( \mathcal{C}_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2 \) we obtain that \( r_1|_{E_2} \in (\mathcal{N}_1 \cap \mathcal{C}_2 \cap \Upsilon_2)^* \) holds.

- We insert \( r_1|_{E_2} \) into \( \tau|_{E_2}, t_2 \in Tr_2 \) after \( \tau|_{E_2} \). By an inductive argument, we obtain from \( \text{BSIA}^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(Tr_2) \) and \( \text{total}(ES_2, C_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1) \) that \( t'_2 \in E_{\lambda'}^* \) exists with \( (\tau \cdot r_1)|_{E_2}, t'_2 \in Tr_2, t'_2|_{V_2} = t_2|_{V_2}, \) and \( t'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle \) (events in \( r_1|_{E_2} \) are inserted from left to right into \( \tau|_{E_2}, t_2 \)).

- We split \( t'_2 \) into subexpressions before and after \( v \) (recall that \( \lambda|_{E_2} = t_2|_V = t'_2|_V \)). Choose \( r'_2, s'_2 \in E_{\lambda'}^* \) such that \( t'_2 = r'_2 \cdot \langle v \rangle \cdot s'_2 \) and \( t'_2|_{V_2} = \langle \rangle \) hold. \( r'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle \) and \( s'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle \) hold because \( t'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle \).

- Since \( r'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle \) we have \( r'_2 \in \mathcal{N}_2^* \) (recall that \( r'_2 \in E_{\lambda'}^* \) and \( r'_2|_{V_2} = \langle \rangle \)). \( r'_2|_{E_1} \in (\mathcal{N}_2 \cap \mathcal{C}_1)^* \) holds because \( \mathcal{N}_2 \cap \mathcal{V}_1 = \emptyset \) and \( \mathcal{N}_2 \cap \mathcal{N}_1 = \emptyset \). Since \( \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \mathcal{N}_2 \subseteq \Upsilon_1 \), we have \( r'_2|_{E_1} \in (\mathcal{N}_2 \cap \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \Upsilon_1)^* \).

- We insert \( r'_2|_{E_1} \) into \( \tau|_{E_1}, r_1 \cdot \langle v \rangle, s_1 \in Tr_1 \) after \( \tau|_{E_1}, r_1 \). By an inductive argument on the length of \( r'_2|_{E_1} \), we obtain from \( \text{FCIA}^{\rho_1}_{\nu_1}(Tr_1) \) and \( \text{total}(ES_1, C_1 \cap \mathcal{N}_2) \) that there are \( s'_1 \in E_{\lambda'}^* \) and \( q'_1 \in ((\mathcal{C}_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cup (\mathcal{N}_1 \cap \Delta_1))^* \) with \( \tau|_{E_1}, r_1 \cdot \langle v \rangle \cdot s'_1 \in Tr_1, q'_1|_{\mathcal{C}_1 \cap \Upsilon_1} = r'_2|_{E_1}, s'_1|_{V_1} = s_1|_{V_1}, \) and \( s'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle \) (events in \( r'_2|_{E_1} \) are inserted from left to right). Note that \( q'_1 \) need not be identical to \( r'_2|_{E_1} \); however, it may differ only in events from \( \mathcal{N}_1 \cap \Delta_1 \).
• From $r'_2 \in N^*_2$ and $C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2$, we obtain $r'_2|_C = \langle \rangle$. $q'_1|_C = \langle \rangle$ follows from $q'_1 \in ((C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cup (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)) \ast$, $q'_1|_{C \cap \Upsilon_1} = r'_2|_{E_1}$, $r'_2 \in N^*_2$, and $C \cap E_2 \subseteq C_2$.

• $q'_1|_{E_2} = r'_2|_{E_1}$ holds because $q'_1|_{E_2} = q'_1|_{((C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cup (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)) \ast} = q'_1|_{(C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cap E_2} = r'_2|_{E_1}$ (follows from $q'_1 \in ((C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cup (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)) \ast$, $N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, $r'_2 \in E_2^\ast$). Since $q'_1|_{E_2} = r'_2|_{E_1}$, $q'_1|_V = \langle \rangle$ (follows from $V \cap E_1 = V_1$ and $q'_1 \in ((C_1 \cap \Upsilon_1) \cup (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)) \ast$), $r'_2|_V = \langle \rangle$ (follows from $V \cap E_2 = V_2$ and $r'_2|_{V_2} = \langle \rangle$), $q'_1|_C = \langle \rangle$, and $r'_2|_C = \langle \rangle$ there is a trace $q' \in E^\ast$ with $q'|_{E_1} = q'_1$, $q'|_{E_2} = r'_2$, $q'|_V = \langle \rangle$, and $q'|_C = \langle \rangle$.

The preconditions of the induction hypothesis are satisfied for $\tau.r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle$, $\lambda'$, $s'_1$, $s'_2$:

- $(\tau.r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle)|_{E_1}.s'_1 \in T_r_1$ and $(\tau.r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle)|_{E_2}.s'_2 \in T_r_2$ hold because $r_1 \in E_1^\ast$, $q'|_{E_1} = q'_1$, $\tau|_{E_1}.r_1.q'|_{\langle v \rangle}.s'_1 \in T_r_1$, $q'|_{E_2} = r'_2$, $(\tau.r_1)|_{E_2}.r'_2.\langle v \rangle).s'_2 \in T_r_2$, and $v \in E_1 \cap E_2$.

- $\lambda'|_{E_1} = s'_1|_V$ and $\lambda'|_{E_2} = s'_2|_V$ hold because $\langle v \rangle.\lambda'|_{E_1} = t_1|_V = (r_1.\langle v \rangle.s_1)|_V$, $t_1|_V = \langle \rangle$, $s'_1|_V = s_1|_V$, $(\langle v \rangle.\lambda'|_{E_2} = t_2|_V = t'_2|_V = (r'_2.\langle v \rangle.s'_2)|_V$, and $r'_2|_V = \langle \rangle$.

- $s'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$ and $s'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle$ hold.

From the induction hypothesis, we obtain that there is a trace $t' \in E^\ast$ for which $\tau.r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle.t' \in T_r$, $t'|_V = \lambda'$, and $t'|_C = \langle \rangle$.

We now show that the conclusion of the lemma holds for $t = r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle.t'$:

- $\tau.t \in T_r$ holds because $\tau.r_1.q'.\langle v \rangle.t' \in T_r$.

- $t|_V = \lambda'$ because $r_1|_V = \langle \rangle$, $q'|_V = \langle \rangle$, $t'|_V = \lambda'$, and $\lambda = \langle v \rangle.\lambda'$.

- $t|_C = \langle \rangle$ because $r_1|_C = \langle \rangle$, $q'|_C = \langle \rangle$, $\langle v \rangle|_C = \langle \rangle$, and $t'|_C = \langle \rangle$.

Case 2: $v \in V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \nabla_2$ can be shown like case 1 (with indices 1 and 2 exchanged).

Case 3: $v \in V_1 \setminus E_2$

- We split $t_1$ into subsequences before and after $v$ (recall that $t_1|_V = \lambda|_{E_1}$). Choose $r_1, s_1 \in E_1^\ast$ such that $t_1 = r_1.\langle v \rangle.s_1$ and $r_1|_{V_1} = \langle \rangle$ hold.

- $r_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$ and $s_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$ hold because $t_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$. Hence, $r_1 \in N^*_1$ holds (follows from $r_1 \in E_1^\ast$ and $r_1|_{V_1} = \langle \rangle$), $r_1|_{E_2} \in (N_1 \cap C_2)^\ast$ holds because $N_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ and $N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset$. Since $C_2 \cap N_1 \subseteq \Upsilon_2$, we have $r_1|_{E_2} \in (N_1 \cap C_2 \cap \Upsilon_2)^\ast$.

- We insert $r_1|_{E_2}$ into $\tau|_{E_2}.t_2 \in T_{r_2}$ after $\tau|_{E_2}$. By an inductive argument on the length of $r_1|_{E_2}$, we obtain from $BSIA|^r_{E_2}(\tau|_{E_2})$ and total($E_2, C_2 \cap N_1$) that $t'_2 \in E_2^\ast$ exists with $(\tau.r_1)|_{E_2}.t'_2 \in T_r$, $t'_2|_{V_2} = t_2|_{V_2}$, and $t'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle$ (events in $r_1|_{E_2}$ are inserted from left to right into $\tau|_{E_2}.t_2$).

- The preconditions of the induction hypothesis are satisfied for $\tau.r_1.\langle v \rangle$, $\lambda'$, $s_1$, $t'_2$:

  - $(\tau.r_1.\langle v \rangle)|_{E_1}.s_1 \in T_r$ and $(\tau.r_1.\langle v \rangle)|_{E_2}.t'_2 \in T_r$ hold (recall $\langle v \rangle|_{E_2} = \langle \rangle$).

  - $\lambda'|_{E_1} = s_1|_V$ and $\lambda'|_{E_2} = t'_2|_V$ because $\langle v \rangle.\lambda'|_{E_1} = t_1|_V = (r_1.\langle v \rangle.s_1)|_V$, $r_1|_V = \langle \rangle$, $\langle v \rangle.\lambda'|_{E_2} = t_2|_V = t'_2|_V$, and $v \notin E_2$.

  - $s_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle$ and $t'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle$ hold.
• From the induction hypothesis, we obtain that there is a trace \(t' \in E^*\) for which \(\tau . r_1.\langle v \rangle . t' \in T_r, t'|_V = \lambda',\) and \(t'|_C = \langle \rangle\) hold.

• We now show that the conclusion of the lemma holds for \(t = r_1.\langle v \rangle . t'\):
  
  - \(t \in T_r\) holds because \(\tau . r_1.\langle v \rangle . t' \in T_r\).
  
  - \(t|_V = \lambda\) because \(r_1|_V = \langle \rangle\), \(t'|_V = \lambda',\) and \(\lambda = \langle v \rangle . \lambda'.\)
  
  - \(t|_C = \langle \rangle\) because \(r_1|_C = \langle \rangle\), \(\langle v \rangle|_C = \langle \rangle\), and \(t'|_C = \langle \rangle\).

Case 4 \((v \in V_2 \setminus E_1)\) can be shown like case 3 (with indices 1 and 2 exchanged). \(\square\)

D.2 Detailed Proof of Compositionality Theorems for BSPs

This section contains the detailed proofs of Theorems 6.4.1 and 6.4.2 (i.e. the compositionality results for BSPs) that have been sketched in Section 6.4.3 already.

**Proof (of Theorem 6.4.1).** We prove each of the propositions with the help of Lemma 6.4.4.

**Proposition 1.** Let \(\alpha, \beta, \in E^*\) and \(c \in C\) be arbitrary with \(\beta . \langle c \rangle . \alpha \in T_r\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). We have \((\beta . \langle c \rangle . \alpha)|_{E_1} \in T_r\) and \((\beta . \langle c \rangle . \alpha)|_{E_2} \in T_r\). By an inductive argument on the length of \((\langle c \rangle . \alpha)|_{C_1}\), we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there is a trace \(\alpha'_1 \in E^*_1\) with \((\beta)|_{E_1} \cdot \alpha'_1 \in T_r\), \(\alpha'_1|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1},\) and \(\alpha'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle\). By an inductive argument on the length of \((\langle c \rangle . \alpha)|_{C_2}\), we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there is a trace \(\alpha'_2 \in E^*_2\) with \((\beta)|_{E_2} \cdot \alpha'_2 \in T_r\), \(\alpha'_2|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2},\) and \(\alpha'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle\). Lemma 6.4.4 yields for \(\tau = \beta, \lambda = \alpha|_V,\) \(t_1 = \alpha'_1,\) and \(t_2 = \alpha'_2\) that there is a trace \(t \in E^*\) with \(\beta . t \in T_r, t|_V = \alpha|_V,\) and \(t|_C = \langle \rangle\). Thus, \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) holds.

**Proposition 2.** Let \(\alpha, \beta, \in E^*\) and \(c \in C\) be arbitrary with \(\beta . \alpha \in T_r\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). We have \((\beta . \alpha)|_{E_1} \in T_r\) and \((\beta . \alpha)|_{E_2} \in T_r\). By an inductive argument on the length of \(\alpha|_{C_1}\), we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there is a trace \(\alpha'_1 \in E^*_1\) with \(\beta|_{E_1} \cdot \alpha'_1 \in T_r\), \(\alpha'_1|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1},\) and \(\alpha'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle\). By an inductive argument on the length of \(\alpha|_{C_2}\), we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there is a trace \(\alpha'_2 \in E^*_2\) with \(\beta|_{E_2} \cdot \alpha'_2 \in T_r\), \(\alpha'_2|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2},\) and \(\alpha'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle\). Lemma 6.4.4 yields for \(\tau = \beta . \langle c \rangle, \lambda = \alpha|_V,\) \(t_1 = \alpha'_1,\) and \(t_2 = \alpha'_2\) that there is a trace \(t \in E^*\) with \(\beta . \langle c \rangle . t \in T_r, t|_V = \alpha|_V,\) and \(t|_C = \langle \rangle\). Thus, \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) holds.

**Proposition 3.** Let \(\alpha, \beta, \in E^*\) and \(c \in C\) be arbitrary with \(\beta . \alpha \in T_r\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). Like in the proof of Proposition 2, we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) and \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there are traces \(\alpha'_1 \in E^*_1,\) \(\alpha'_2 \in E^*_2\) with \(\beta|_{E_1} \cdot \alpha'_1 \in T_r,\) \(\alpha'_1|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1},\) \(\alpha'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle,\) \(\beta|_{E_2} \cdot \alpha'_2 \in T_r,\) \(\alpha'_2|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2},\) and \(\alpha'_2|_{C_2} = \langle \rangle\). \(Adm_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r, \beta, \alpha)\) implies that there is a trace \(\gamma \in E^*\) with \(\gamma|_{\rho(V)} = \beta|_{\rho(V)}\) and \(\gamma|_{C} \in T_r\). We have \((\gamma|_{E_1})|_{\rho(V)} = (\beta|_{E_1})|_{\rho(V)}\) and \((\gamma|_{E_2})|_{\rho(V)} = (\beta|_{E_2})|_{\rho(V)}\). Since \(\rho(V_1) \subseteq \rho(V) \cap E_1\) and \(\rho(V_2) \subseteq \rho(V) \cap E_2\), also \((\gamma|_{E_1})|_{\rho(V_1)} = (\beta|_{E_1})|_{\rho(V_1)}\) and \((\gamma|_{E_2})|_{\rho(V_2)} = (\beta|_{E_2})|_{\rho(V_2)}\) hold. Consequently, if \(c \in E_1\) (or \(c \in E_2\)) then, \(Adm_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r, \beta|_{E_1}, \alpha)\) (or \(Adm_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r, \beta|_{E_2}, c)\), respectively) holds. The remainder of this proof is along the same lines like the proof of Proposition 2.

**Proposition 4.** Let \(\alpha, \beta, \in E^*, c \in C \cap \Upsilon,\) and \(v \in V \cap \Upsilon\) be arbitrary with \(\beta . \langle c . v \rangle . \alpha \in T_r\) and \(\alpha|_C = \langle \rangle\). We have \((\beta . \langle c . v \rangle . \alpha)|_{E_1} \in T_r\) and \((\beta . \langle c . v \rangle . \alpha)|_{E_2} \in T_r\). Like in the proof of Proposition 2, we obtain from \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) and \(BSD_{\langle c \rangle}(T_r)\) that there are traces \(\alpha'_1 \in E^*_1,\) \(\alpha'_2 \in E^*_2\) such that \((\beta . \langle c . v \rangle)|_{E_1} \cdot \alpha'_1 \in T_r,\) \(\alpha'_1|_{V_1} = \alpha|_{V_1},\) \(\alpha'_1|_{C_1} = \langle \rangle,\) \((\beta . \langle c . v \rangle)|_{E_2} \cdot \alpha'_2 \in T_r,\) \(\alpha'_2|_{V_2} = \alpha|_{V_2},\) and
\[ \alpha'_{j|C_2} = \emptyset \] hold. Note that \( c \in E_1 \) (or \( c \in E_2 \)) implies \( c \in C_1 \cap Y_1 \) (or \( c \in C_2 \cap Y_2 \), respectively) because \( c \in C \cap Y \), \( C \cap E_j \subset C_j \), and \( Y \cap E_j \subset Y_j \) hold. Similarly, \( v \in E_1 \) (or \( v \in E_2 \)) implies \( v \in V_1 \cap V_1 \) (or \( v \in V_2 \cap V_2 \), respectively) because \( v \in V \cap V \), \( V \cap E_j = V_j \), and \( \nabla \cap E_j \subset \nabla_j \) hold (for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \)).

In order to show that, for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \), there are traces \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \in E_j^* \) and \( \delta''_{j|E_j} \in (N_j \cap \Delta_j)^* \) such that \( \beta|_{E_j}, \delta''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold, we make a case distinction on \( c \in E_j \) and \( v \in E_j \); Firstly, assume that \( c \not\in E_j \) holds. In this case, \( \beta|_{E_j}, \delta''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold for \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \). Secondly, assume that \( c \in E_j \) and \( v \notin E_j \) hold. Since \( c \in E_j \), we have \( c \in C \cap Y \). An application of \( BSD_{v_j} \) \( (T_j) \) yields that there is a trace \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \beta|_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \), \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \). Hence, \( \beta|_{E_j}, \delta''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j \) holds for \( \delta''_{j|E_j} = \emptyset \). Thirdly, assume that \( c \in E_j \) and \( v \in E_j \) hold. Since \( c \in E_j \), we have \( c \in C \cap Y \). An application of \( FC_{V_j} \) \( (T_j) \) yields that there are traces \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \beta|_{E_j}, \delta''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold.

Since \( \delta''_{j|E_1} \in (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)^* \), \( N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \), \( \delta''_2 \in (N_2 \cap \Delta_2)^* \), and \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \), we have \( \delta''_{j|E_1} = \emptyset \). Consequently, we have \( \beta|_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|E_1} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_1, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_1} = \emptyset \) hold. Note that \( c \in E_1 \) (or \( c \in E_2 \)) implies \( c \in C_1 \cap Y_1 \) (or \( c \in C_2 \cap Y_2 \), respectively) because \( c \in C \cap Y \), \( C \cap E_j \subset C_j \), and \( Y \cap E_j \subset Y_j \) hold. Similarly, \( v \in E_1 \) (or \( v \in E_2 \)) implies \( v \in V_1 \cap V_1 \) (or \( v \in V_2 \cap V_2 \), respectively) because \( v \in V \cap V \), \( V \cap E_j = V_j \), and \( \nabla \cap E_j \subset \nabla_j \) hold (for \( j \in \{1, 2\} \)).

Without loss of generality, we assume \( N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \) and \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \). The case \( N_2 \cap \Delta_2 \cap E_1 = \emptyset \) and \( N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 \subset \emptyset \) can be handled similarly because it is symmetric.

In order to show that there are \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \in E_j^* \) \( \beta|_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold, we make a case distinction on \( c \in E_j \) and \( v \in E_j \); Firstly, assume that \( c \notin E_j \) holds. In this case, \( \beta|_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold for \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \). Secondly, assume that \( c \in E_j \) and \( v \notin E_j \) hold. Since \( c \in E_j \), we have \( c \in C \cap Y \). An application of \( BSIA_{V_j} \) \( (T_j) \) (recall that \( ES_2 \) is total in \( C_2 \cap T_2 \)) yields that there are traces \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \beta|_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold. Hence, \( \beta|_{E_2}, \delta''_{j|E_2} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_2}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_2, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_2} = \emptyset \) hold.

Note that \( \langle c \rangle_{E_1} \in (C \cap Y_1)^* \) holds because \( c \in E_1 \) implies \( c \in C \cap Y_1 \). Moreover, \( \delta''_{j|E_1} \in (C \cap Y_1)^* \) holds because \( \delta''_{j|E_1} \in (N_1 \cap \Delta_1)^* \), \( N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset \), and \( N_2 \cap \nabla \cap E_1 = \emptyset \). In order to show that there are traces \( \alpha''_{j|E_j} \in E_j^* \) \( \beta|_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|E_j} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_j}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_j, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_j} = \emptyset \) hold, we make a case distinction on \( v \in E_1 \); Firstly, assume that \( v \notin E_1 \) holds. By an inductive argument on the length of \( \langle c \rangle_{E_1} \), we obtain from \( BSIA_{V_1} \) \( (T_1) \) (insert \( \langle c \rangle_{E_1} \) \( \beta|_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|E_1} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_1, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_1} = \emptyset \) hold). Hence, \( \beta|_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|E_1} \) \( \langle v \rangle_{E_1}, \alpha''_{j|v} \in \mathcal{T}_1, \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} = \alpha''_{j|v} |_{v} \), and \( \alpha''_{j|C_1} = \emptyset \) hold.
\[ \delta''_1 \in ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2))^*, \delta''_2 |_{E_2} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1}, \text{ hold for } \delta''_1 = \delta''_1 |_{E_1}. \text{ Secondly, assume that } v \in E_1 \text{ holds. Since } v \in E_1, \text{ we have } v \in V_1 \cap \Delta_1. \text{ By an inductive argument on the length of } \langle c, \delta''_1 \rangle |_{E_1}, \text{ we obtain from } FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr_1) \text{ (insert } \langle c, \delta''_1 \rangle |_{E_1} \text{ into } \beta_{|E_1}, v |_{E_1}, \alpha'_1 \text{ after } \beta_{|E_1} \text{ and before } v \text{ from left to right) that there are traces } \alpha''_1 \in E'_1, \delta''_1 |_{E_2} \in ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2))^*, \text{ such that } \beta_{|E_1}, c |_{E_1}, \delta''_1 |_{v} |_{E_1}, \alpha''_1 |_{v} = \alpha' |_{v}, \alpha''_1 |_{C_1} = \lambda, \text{ and } \delta''_1 |_{C_1 \cap Y_1} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1}, \text{ hold. } \delta''_2 |_{E_2} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1} \text{ follows from } \delta''_1 |_{C_1 \cap Y_1} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1}, \delta''_2 \in ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2))^*, \text{ and } N_1 \cap \Delta_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset. \]

Summarizing, there are \( \alpha''_1 \in E'_1, \alpha''_2 \in E'_2, \delta''_1 \in ((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2))^*, \delta''_2 \in (N_2 \cap \Delta_2)^* \) such that \( \beta_{|E_1}, c |_{E_1}, \delta''_1 |_{v} |_{E_1}, \alpha''_1 |_{v} = \alpha' |_{v}, \alpha''_1 |_{C_1} = \lambda, \) and \( \delta''_2 |_{E_2} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1} \) hold. Since \( \delta''_1 |_{E_2} = \delta''_2 |_{E_1} \) and \((N_1 \cap \Delta_1) \cup (N_2 \cap \Delta_2) \subseteq (N \cap \Delta), \) there is a trace \( \delta' \in (N \cap \Delta)^* \) such that \( \delta' |_{E_1} = \delta''_1 \text{ and } \delta' |_{E_2} = \delta''_2. \) \( c, \delta'. v \) \( \in Tr \) follows from \( \beta_{|E_1}, c |_{E_1}, \delta''_1 |_{v} |_{E_1}, \alpha''_1 |_{v} = \lambda, \beta_{|E_2}, c |_{E_2}, \delta''_2 |_{v} |_{E_2}, \alpha''_2 |_{v} = \lambda, \) and the definition of \( Tr \) (constructed by composition). From Lemma 6.4.4, we obtain for \( \tau = \beta_{|E_1}, \delta'. v, \lambda = \alpha' |_{V}, t_1 = \alpha''_1, \) and \( t_2 = \alpha''_2 \) that there is a trace \( t \in E^* \) such that \( \beta_{|E_1}, \delta'. v, t \in Tr, t |_{V} = \alpha |_{V}, \) and \( t |_{C} = \lambda \) hold. Thus, \( FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr) \) holds.

Proposition 6: Let \( \alpha, \beta \in E^*, c \in C \cap Y, \) and \( v \in V \cap \nabla \) be arbitrary with \( \beta_{|v}. \alpha \in Tr, \alpha |_{C} = \lambda, \) and \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr, \beta, c). \) We have \( \langle \beta_{|v}. \alpha \rangle |_{E_1} \subseteq Tr_1 \text{ and } \langle \beta_{|v}. \alpha \rangle |_{E_2} \subseteq Tr_2. \) Like in the proof of proposition 2, we obtain from \( BSD_{V_1}(Tr_1) \) and \( BSD_{V_2}(Tr_2) \) that there are traces \( \alpha'_1 \in E'_1, \alpha'_2 \in E'_2 \) such that \( \beta_{|v} |_{E_1}, \alpha'_1 |_{v} = \alpha |_{v}, \alpha'_1 |_{C_1} = \lambda, \beta_{|v} |_{E_2}, \alpha'_2 |_{v} = \lambda, \alpha'_2 |_{C_2} = \lambda \) hold. That \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr, \beta, c) \) implies \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_1, \beta_{|E_1}, c) \) and \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_2, \beta_{|E_2}, c) \) in the same way like in the proof of proposition 3.

The remainder of this proof is along the same lines like the proof of proposition 5. The only differences are that \( BSIA^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_2) \) is applicable (for inserting \( c \) into \( \langle \beta_{|v}. \alpha \rangle |_{E_2}, \alpha'_2 \) because \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_2, \beta_{|E_2}, c) \) holds rather than because \( total(ES_2, C_2 \cap Y_2) \), that \( FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr_2) \) is applicable to insert \( c \) into \( \langle \beta_{|v}. \alpha \rangle |_{E_2}, \alpha'_2 \) (applicable because \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_2, \beta_{|E_2}, c) \) holds) rather than \( FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr_2), \) that \( BSIA^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_1) \) is applicable (for inserting \( \langle c, \delta''_1 \rangle |_{E_1} \) into \( \beta_{|E_1}, \alpha'_1 \) because \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_1, \beta_{|E_1}, c) \) and \( total(ES_1, C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2) \) rather than \( BSIA^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_1) \), and that \( FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr_1) \) is applicable to insert \( \langle c, \delta''_1 \rangle |_{E_1} \) into \( \beta_{|E_1}, \alpha'_1 \) (applicable because \( Adm^{\alpha}_{\beta}(Tr_1, \beta_{|E_1}, c) \) and \( total(ES_1, C_1 \cap Y_1 \cap N_2 \cap \Delta_2) \) hold) rather than \( FCI^{\lambda}_{V_1}(Tr_1). \)

Proof (of Theorem 6.4.2). Let \( \tau' \in Tr \) be arbitrary. We have \( \tau' |_{E_1} \subseteq Tr_1 \text{ and } \tau' |_{E_2} \subseteq Tr_2. \) From \( R_{V_1}(Tr_1) \) and \( R_{V_2}(Tr_2), \) we obtain that there are traces \( \tau'_1 \in Tr_1 \text{ and } \tau'_2 \in Tr_2 \) with \( \tau'_1 |_{v} = \tau' |_{E_1 \cap \nabla}, \tau'_1 |_{C_1} = \lambda, \tau'_2 |_{v} = \tau' |_{E_2 \cap \nabla}, \tau'_2 |_{C_2} = \lambda. \) Lemma 6.4.4 yields for \( \tau = \lambda, \lambda = \tau' |_{V}, t_1 = \tau'_1, \) and \( t_2 = \tau'_2 \) that there is a trace \( t \in E^* \) with \( t |_{V} = \tau' |_{V}, \) and \( t |_{C} = \lambda. \) Thus, \( R_{V}(Tr) \) holds.
Appendix E

Further Details of the Case Study

E.1 PP-Statements

Pre/postcondition-statements (abbreviated by PP-statements) can be used to specify the transition relation of a state-event system. PP-statements assume a specific notion of state, i.e. that a state is a mapping from state variables to values. Given a set $E$ of events and a set $VAR = \{var_1, \ldots, var_n\}$ of $n$ distinct variables, a PP-statement $Stat$ restricts the possible transitions for some event $e_i \in E$ based on the notation

\[
\begin{align*}
    e_i & \text{ affects } var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k} \\
    \text{Pre} & : P(var_1, \ldots, var_n) \\
    \text{Post} & : Q(var_1, \ldots, var_n, var'_{j_1}, \ldots, var'_{j_k})
\end{align*}
\]  

(E.1)

where $1 \leq j_l \leq n$ $(1 \leq l \leq k)$. The affects slot specifies that an occurrence of $e_i$ may only affect the value of state variables in $var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}$. The values of all other state variables remain unchanged when $e_i$ occurs. The precondition slot of the PP-statement specifies that $e_i$ is only enabled in states for which the condition $P$ is satisfied. $P$ must be a first-order logic formula that contains no primed state variables and the postcondition $Q$ must be a first-order logic formula that may contain primed as well as unprimed state variables. Using primed variables other than $var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}$ in $Q$ is not ruled out but should be avoided for reasons to be explained later.

The semantics of PP-statements is given by a translation into higher-order formulas. The above PP-statement $Stat$ translates into the following formula where the free variables $s$, $e$, $s'$ are implicitly universally quantified:

\[
(s, e, s') \in T_{Stat} \iff (e \neq e_i \Rightarrow (\forall var \notin \{var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}\} \cdot s(var) = s'(var) \\
    \land P(s(var_1), \ldots, s(var_n)) \\
    \land Q(s(var_1), \ldots, s(var_n), s'(var_1), \ldots, s'(var_n)))
\]

Hence, each PP-statement $Stat$ in a specification specifies a transition relation $T_{Stat} \subseteq S \times E \times S$. According to the above formula, a transition $(s, e_i, s')$ complies with $T_{Stat}$ if and only if all frame axioms hold for $s, s'$ (values of variables not in $var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}$ remain unchanged), the precondition $P$ holds for $s$, and the postcondition $Q$ holds for $s, s'$. For all events besides $e_i$, $T_{Stat}$ permits arbitrary transitions, i.e. $\forall e \in E. \forall s, s' \in S. (e \neq e_i \Rightarrow (s, e, s') \in T_{Stat})$. Note that using primed state variables other than $var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}$ in the postcondition $Q$ may
lead to a contradiction with the frame axioms. This is the reason why all primed variables that occur in \( Q \) should be listed in the affects slot.

The pre/postcondition specification (abbreviated by PP-specification in the following) of a transition relation consists of a set \( \text{Spec} \) of PP-statements. In practice, a PP-specification usually contains exactly one PP-statement for every event in \( E \). \(^1\) The semantics of a PP-specification \( \text{Spec} \) is given by the following translation into a higher-order formula:

\[
(s, e, s') \in T_{\text{Spec}} \Leftrightarrow \bigwedge_{(s, e, s') \in T_{\text{Stat}}} (s, e, s') \in T_{\text{Stat}}
\]

This means, a transition \((s, e, s')\) complies with the transition relation \( T_{\text{Spec}} \) specified by a PP-specification \( \text{Spec} \) if and only if it complies with each transition relation \( T_{\text{Stat}} \) specified by some PP-statement \( \text{Stat} \) in \( \text{Spec} \).

**Remark E.1.1.** For notational convenience, we permit the use of place holders in PP-statements. A parametric PP-statement for a list \( x_1, \ldots, x_m \) of (typed) place holders has the following form:

\[
e_i(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \text{ affects } var_{j_1}, \ldots, var_{j_k}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Pre} & : P_{x_1, \ldots, x_m}(var_1, \ldots, var_n) \\
\text{Post} & : Q_{x_1, \ldots, x_m}(var_1, \ldots, var_n, var'_1, \ldots, var'_k)
\end{align*}
\]

As usual, parametric PP-statements denote the set of all grounded PP-statements that are (type correct) instantiations of these parametric statements. \( \diamond \)

**Example E.1.2.** In Fig. E.1, it is illustrated how to specify a transition relation with parametric PP-statements. The state-event system denoted by this specification models a random generator that can output any sequence of natural numbers (events \( \text{out}(n) \)) before it terminates (event \( \text{term} \)). Possible traces of this system have the form \( \langle \text{out}(n_1) \ldots \text{out}(n_m) \rangle. \langle \text{term} \rangle \)

\[
\begin{array}{|c|}
\hline
S & = \{(\text{state}) \mapsto (s) \mid s \in \{r, t\}\} \text{, running/terminated} \\
\hline
s_0(r) & = (\text{state}) \mapsto (r) \\
\hline
E & = \{\text{out}(n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{\text{term}\} \\
\hline
I & = \emptyset \\
\hline
O & = \{\text{out}(n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \\
\hline
T & \subseteq S \times E \times S \\
\text{term affects state} & \\
\text{Pre} & : \text{state} = r \\
\text{Post} & : \text{state} = t \\
\text{out}(n) \text{ affects } — & \\
\text{Pre} & : \text{state} = r \\
\text{Post} & : tt \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Figure E.1: Specification of the random generator by preconditions and postconditions

\(^1\)If there are multiple PP-statement for some event \( e \in E \) then these PP-statements can be merged by (1) conjoining the preconditions by conjunction, (2) conjoining the postconditions by conjunction, and (3) intersecting the lists in the affects-slots. In order to avoid chaotic behavior, a PP-specification should contain at least one PP-statement for each event \( e \in E \) because, otherwise, this event would be always enabled and could lead to arbitrary successor states.
or \( \langle \text{out}(n_1) \ldots \text{out}(n_m) \rangle \) (respectively models that the sequence \( n_1 \ldots n_m \) has been output and that the system has or has not terminated). The dash in the affects slot of the PP statement for out indicates the empty list of state variables, i.e. occurrences of out do not affect any state variables.

\[ \diamond \]

E.2 Examples for the Strong Security Condition

The following four examples illustrate the strong security condition (cf. Definition 7.2.9)

**Example E.2.1 (Implicit flow).** The program if \( h = 1 \) then \( l := 1 \) else \( l := 0 \) is not strongly secure. Choose \( \text{mem}_1 = (0,0) \) and \( \text{mem}_2 = (1,0) \). If the computation starts with \( \text{mem}_1 \) then, after two computation steps, one arrives at the memory \( (0,0) \) because \( \{ \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } l := 1 \text{ else } l := 0, (0,0), \sigma \} \rightarrow \{ l := 0, (0,0), \sigma \} \) and \( \{ l := 0, (0,0), \sigma \} \rightarrow \{ l := 1, (0,0), \sigma \} \) hold. If computation starts with \( \text{mem}_2 \) then, after two computation steps, one arrives at the memory \( (1,1) \) because \( \{ \text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } l := 1 \text{ else } l := 0, (1,0), \sigma \} \rightarrow \{ l := 1, (1,0), \sigma \} \) hold. This shows that executing the given program with two low-equal memories may lead to memories that are not low equal.

\[ \diamond \]

**Example E.2.2 (Termination leak).** The program \( l := 0; \text{while } h \neq 1 \text{ do skip}; l := 1 \) is not strongly secure. Choose \( \text{mem}_1 = (0,0) \) and \( \text{mem}_2 = (1,0) \). If the computation starts with \( \text{mem}_1 \) then, after three computation steps (assignment of 0 to \( l \), test of condition \( h \neq 1 \), and execution of skip), one arrives at the memory \( (0,0) \). If the computation starts with \( \text{mem}_2 \) then, after three computation steps (assignment of 0 to \( l \), test of condition \( h \neq 1 \), and assignment of 1 to \( l \)), one arrives at the memory \( (1,1) \), which is not low equal to \( (0,0) \).

\[ \diamond \]

**Example E.2.3 (Timing leak).** The program \( \text{fork}(l := 1) ((\text{if } h = 1 \text{ then } (\text{while } h < 10000 \text{ do } h := h + 1); l := 0)) \) is not strongly secure. Choose \( \text{mem}_1 = (0,0) \) and \( \text{mem}_2 = (1,0) \). Assume a scheduler that re-schedules immediately after executing a fork-command and that re-schedules after two computation steps if no fork-command has been executed. If the computation starts with \( \text{mem}_1 \) then, after three computation steps (execution of fork-command, test of condition \( h = 1 \), assignment of 0 to \( l \)), one arrives at the configuration \( \{ l := 1, (0,0), \sigma \} \). If the computation starts with \( \text{mem}_2 \) then, after three computation steps (execution of fork-command, test of condition \( h = 1 \), test of condition \( h < 10000 \)), one arrives at the configuration \( \{ (l := 1), h := h + 1; (\text{while } h < 10000 \text{ do } h := h + 1); l := 0 \}, (1,0), \sigma \} \). After another computation step (assignment of 1 to \( l \) in both cases), the memories in both computations are still low equal. However, the first computation has already terminated (with memory \( (0,1) \)) while the second has not terminated. After the second computation has terminated, the resulting memory is \( (1,0) \). This shows that executing the given program with two low-equal memories may lead to differences in the timing behavior and also to memories that are not low equal.

\[ \diamond \]

**Example E.2.4 (Communication leak).** The program if \( h = 1 \) then send(cid, val) else skip is not strongly secure (assuming level(cid) = low). If the computation starts with the memory \( (0,0) \) then the contents of the low channel \( \text{cid} \) does not change after two computation steps but if the computation starts with the memory \( (1,0) \) then a value is sent on \( \text{cid} \). This means, executing the program with two low-equal memories (and identical channel-status functions) may result in channel-status functions that are not low equal.

\[ \diamond \]
E.3 Adequateness of the System Specification

In this section, we verify that our specification of DMWL process pools (cf. Definition 7.3.8) provides an adequate model of DMWL programs and their behavior. In the following, we show that every behavior that is possible for the specified state-event system also complies with the operational semantics of DMWL and that every behavior that complies with these semantics is possible for the specified state-event system.

Notational Conventions. Let $DMWLProcPool((p_1, initthread_1), \ldots, (p_n, initthread_n))$ be a DMWL process pool that we abbreviate by $SES = (S, s_0, E, I, O, T)$. Let $P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\}$. For all $p \in P$, let $initthread^p \in THREAD$ and define $SES^p = (S^p, s_0^p, E^p, I^p, O^p, T^p)$ by $SES^p = DMWLProcess(p, initthread^p)$. Note that $SES = \bigwedge_{p \in P} SES^p$ holds. We use $outbuf(cid)$ to denote the function that returns $\langle \rangle$ in case $outbuf$ is empty or contains an entry with an identifier different from $cid$ and that returns the second element of $outbuf$ otherwise, i.e., $outbuf(cid) = \langle val \rangle$ if $outbuf = (cid, val)$. Recall also from Section 7.3.2 that no process can send to itself, i.e., $sender(cid) \neq receiver(cid)$ holds for all $cid \in CID$ and that we expect all processes in a process pool to comply with $sender$ and $receiver$.

E.3.1 Basic Notions

In order to relate the transition relation of DMWL processes to the semantics of DMWL programs, it is necessary to construct a translation from one syntax to the other. For this purpose, we define two functions $channel$ and $config$ that extract the channel status function and the configuration of a single process, respectively, from a state of the DMWL process pool.

Definition E.3.1. Let $p_1, p_r \in PID$ with $p_i = sender(cid)$ and $p_r = receiver(cid)$.

The function $channel : S \rightarrow (CID \rightarrow VAL^*)$ is defined by:

$$
channel(s) : cid \mapsto \left\{
\begin{array}{ll}
outbuf_s^{p_i}(cid).inbuf_s^{p_r}(cid).pending_s^{p_r}(cid) & , \text{if } p_i, p_r \in P \\
outbuf_s^{p_i}(cid) & , \text{if } p_i \in P, p_r \notin P \\
inbuf_s^{p_i}(cid).pending_s^{p_r}(cid) & , \text{if } p_i \notin P, p_r \in P \\
\langle \rangle & , \text{if } p_i \notin P, p_r \notin P \\
\end{array}
\right.
$$

That is, $channel(s)(cid)$ denotes the sequence of messages that are on channel $cid$ in state $s \in S$.

Definition E.3.2. $config : S \rightarrow PID \rightarrow [(CMD \times (VAR \rightarrow VAL)) \cup \{\bot\}]$ is defined by:

$$
config(s)(p) = \left\{
\begin{array}{ll}
\bot & , \text{if } p \notin P \\
(cseq(thread_s), mem_s) & , \text{if } p \in P \text{ and } s|_p = (mem_s, thread_s, \ldots)
\end{array}
\right.
$$

where $s|_p$ extracts the local state of process $p$ from the global state $s$.

That is, $config(s)(p)$ denotes the pair consisting of the command vector and the memory in the local configuration of process $p$. The auxiliary function $cseq$ translates a function $thread : TID \rightarrow (CMD \cup \{\bot, \top, \langle \rangle\})$ into a corresponding vector of DMWL commands.
Definition E.3.3. The function $cseq : (TID \to (CMD \cup \{\bot, T, \langle \rangle\})) \to CMD$ returns a vector of DMWL commands for each function thread : $TID \to (CMD \cup \{\bot, T, \langle \rangle\})$. It is defined by

$$cseq(thread) = cseq_{aux}(\langle \rangle, thread)$$

Definition E.3.4. $cseq_{aux} : TID \to (TID \to (CMD \cup \{\bot, T, \langle \rangle\})) \to CMD$ is defined by

$$cseq_{aux}(tid, thread) = \langle \rangle , \text{ if } thread(tid) \in \{\bot, \langle \rangle\}$$

$$cseq_{aux}(tid, thread) = \langle thread(tid) \rangle , \text{ if } thread(tid) \in CMD$$

$$cseq_{aux}(tid, thread) = cseq_{aux}(tid, \langle 0 \rangle, thread) \ldots cseq_{aux}(tid, \langle n \rangle, thread),$$

if $thread(tid) = T, n \in \mathbb{N}$ is chosen maximal such that $thread(tid, \langle n \rangle) \neq T$

For a thread with identifier $tid$ that has already terminated (or has never existed), $cseq_{aux}$ returns the empty command vector. However, if the thread is still running and has not spawned any child threads so far then $cseq_{aux}$ returns the command of that thread. Finally, if the thread has spawned child threads during its execution then the result of $cseq_{aux}$ is determined by a recursive application of $cseq_{aux}$ to the continuing parent thread (identifier $tid, \langle 0 \rangle$) and to all child threads (identifier $tid, \langle i \rangle$ with $i > 0$). In the latter case, it is exploited that thread identifiers are chosen incrementally by fork-events and that $thread(tid) = \langle \rangle$ holds after termination of a thread with identifier $tid$ (rather than $thread(tid) = \bot$). Summarizing, $cseq_{aux}(tid, thread)$ denotes the vector consisting of the command of the thread with identifier $tid$ and the commands of all threads spawned by this thread and its children. Finally, $cseq(thread)$ denotes the command vector for all threads that resulted from the initial thread.

E.3.2 Adequateness Theorems

We are now ready to argue for the adequateness of our specification by the following four theorems. The somewhat involved proofs of these theorems are contained in Section E.3.3.

Theorem E.3.5. Let $s, s'$ be reachable states for the composed SES, $p \in P$, and $e \in E_{local}^p$ such that $s \xrightarrow{e} T s'$. Assume that if $e = ite-rev_p^f(cid, var, val, C_1, C_2)$ then $channel(s)(cid) = \langle \rangle$.

1. If $e \neq fork_p(C, D_1 \ldots D_n)$ then

$$\{thread_p^s(atid_s^p), mem_s^p, channel(s)\} \rightarrow \{thread_p^{s'}(atid_s^{p'}), mem_s^{p'}, channel(s')\}.$$  

2. If $e = fork_p(C, D_1 \ldots D_n)$ then

$$\{thread_p^s(atid_s^p), mem_s^p, channel(s)\} \rightarrow \{thread_p^{s'}(atid_s^{p'}(\langle 0 \rangle) \ldots atid_s^{p'}(\langle n \rangle)), mem_s^{p'}, channel(s')\}.$$  

Theorem E.3.6. Let $s, s'$ be reachable states for the composed SES and $\gamma \in E^\ast$. If $s \xrightarrow{\gamma} s'$ and $\gamma$ contains no setvar-events or start-events and for all trans-events on a channel $cid$ both, receiver$(cid)$ as well as sender$(cid)$ are in $P$ then

$$<\text{config}(s, p_1), \ldots, \text{config}(s, p_n); channel(s)> \xrightarrow{\gamma} <\text{config}(s', p_1), \ldots, \text{config}(s', p_n); channel(s')>.$$  

Theorem E.3.5 shows that the occurrence of a local event in $E_{local}^p$ (modeling the execution of a DMWL command), indeed, corresponds to the behavior of the respective command in the sense that it results in a state with the same command vector/memory and the same channel.
status like the configuration reached by the command. Theorem E.3.6 extends this result to traces. It shows that, for every behavior that is possible for the state-event system, the semantics of DMWL allow for an equivalent behavior of the corresponding DMWL program. Note that this theorem holds for arbitrary reachable starting states (rather than only for $s_0$).

In the theorem, setvar-events and start-events are excluded because they do not correspond to any DMWL-commands. For DMWL programs, the setting of initial values is implicitly assumed to occur before program execution. In the event-based specification, this is made explicit by the occurrence of setvar- and start-events. Also excluded are trans-events on open channels, i.e. channels for which at most one of sender(cid) or receiver(cid) is in $P$. The reason for this restriction is that, firstly, if $\text{sender}(cid) \notin P$ then every event $\text{trans}(cid, val)$ would be always enabled (messages can be supplied by the environment at any point of time on such channels) and, secondly, if $\text{receiver}(cid) \notin P$ then an event $\text{trans}(cid, val)$ deletes a message from a channel without moving it into the input buffer of some process (messages from such channels have to be consumed by the environment). In contrast to this, the semantics of DMWL do not permit changes to the channel status function by the environment and message transmission on channels is instantaneously in the semantics. Consequently, adequateness can only be established for closed systems, i.e. systems without open channels, or for open systems where the open channels are not used.

**Theorem E.3.7.** Let $C, C' \in \text{CMD}$, $D_1 \ldots D_k \in \text{CMD}$, $\text{mem}, \text{mem}' : \text{VAR} \rightarrow \text{VAL}$, and $\sigma, \sigma' : \text{CID} \rightarrow \text{VAL}^*$. Let $p \in P$ and $s \in S$ be a reachable state for the composed SES with initialized $s^p = tt$, executed $s^p = ff$, atid $s^p \neq \perp$, thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p) = C$, $\text{mem}^p_s = \text{mem}$, and channel$(s) = \sigma$. If first(thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p)) \in \{\text{receive}_p(cid', \ldots), \text{if-receive}_p(cid', \ldots) \mid cid' \in \text{CID}\}$ and pending $s^p(cid') = \emptyset$ then channel$(s)(cid') = \emptyset$ shall hold.

1. If $\langle C, \text{mem}, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle C', \text{mem}', \sigma' \rangle$ then there are $e \in E^p_\text{local}$ and $s' \in S$ such that $s \xrightarrow{e} s'$, thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p) = C'$, $\text{mem}^p_s = \text{mem}'$, and channel$(s') = \sigma'$ hold.

2. If $\langle C, \text{mem}, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle C'D_1 \ldots D_k, \text{mem}', \sigma' \rangle$ (with $k \geq 1$) then there are $e \in E^p_\text{local}$ and $s' \in S$ such that $s \xrightarrow{e} s'$, $\text{mem}^p_s = \text{mem}'$, and channel$(s') = \sigma'$ hold. Moreover, thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p) = \top$, thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p : \{0\}) = C'$, and thread $s^p(\text{atid}^p : \{i\}) = D_i$ hold for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. $\diamond$

**Theorem E.3.8.** Let $\langle C_1, \text{mem}_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle C_n, \text{mem}_n \rangle$ and $\langle \bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n \rangle$ be sequences of pairs, each consisting of a command vector and a memory such that none of the commands involves sending on an open channel. Let $\sigma, \sigma'$ be channel status functions. Moreover, let $s \in S$ be a reachable state for the composed SES such that channel$(s) = \sigma$ and, for all $p_i \in P$, initialized $s^p_i = tt$, executed $s^p_i = ff$, atid $s^p_i = \perp$, and config$(s)(p_i) = (C_i, \text{mem}_i)$ hold.

If $\preceq(\langle \bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n \rangle; \sigma) \rightarrow^* \langle(\bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (\bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n); \sigma' \rangle$ then there is a reachable state $s' \in S$ and a sequence $\gamma \in E^s$ that contains no setvar-events, start-events, or trans-events on open channels such that $s \xrightarrow{\gamma} s'$, channel$(s') = \sigma'$ and, for all $p_i \in P$, config$(s', p_i) = (\bar{C}_i, \text{mem}_i)$ hold. $\diamond$

Theorem E.3.7 shows that executing a single DMWL command corresponds to the occurrence of a local event (modeling that command). That is, if a local configuration $\langle C', \text{mem}', \sigma' \rangle$ (or $\langle C'D_1 \ldots D_k, \text{mem}', \sigma' \rangle$) can be reached from a configuration $\langle C, \text{mem}, \sigma \rangle$ by a single $\rightarrow$-transition (execution of a single DMWL command) then for all states corresponding to the configuration $\langle C, \text{mem}, \sigma \rangle$ (i.e. $C$ is the active thread of process $p$ in $s$, $\text{mem}$ is the local memory of process $p$ in $s$, and $\sigma$ equals channel$(s)$) there is a local event $e$ (modeling
the respective command) and a state $s'$ (corresponding to the configuration $\{C', \text{mem}', \sigma'\}$ or $\{C'D_1 \ldots D_k, \text{mem}', \sigma'\}$) such that $e$ is enabled in $s$ and its occurrence results in the state $s'$.

Theorem E.3.8 extends this result to the execution of distributed programs (i.e. $\rightarrow^*$-transitions). It shows that if the configuration $\langle (\bar{C}'_1, \text{mem}'_1), \ldots, (\bar{C}'_n, \text{mem}'_n); \sigma' \rangle$ can be reached from $\langle (\bar{C}_1, \text{mem}_1), \ldots, (\bar{C}_n, \text{mem}_n); \sigma \rangle$ then for every state $s \in S$ that corresponds to the second configuration there is a state $s' \in S$ that corresponds to the first configuration and there is a trace $\gamma \in E^*$ (without setvar-events, start-events, and trans-events on open channels) such that $\gamma$ is enabled in state $s$ and results in state $s'$.

E.3.3 Proofs of the Adequateness Theorems

In this section, we present the proofs of Theorems E.3.5, E.3.6, E.3.7, and E.3.8.

Theorems E.3.5 and E.3.6 ensure that every trace of a DMWL process pool models a behavior that complies with the semantics of DMWL.

Proof (of Theorem E.3.5). In the proof, we are only concerned with values of state objects and events for the single process $p$. For better readability, we omit the index $p$ from state objects and events.

We make a case distinction on the event $e$.

**skip** The PP-statement for skip implies $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{skip}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, and $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. Rules [Skip] and [Seq1] of the semantics (cf. Figure 7.2) ensure that $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

**assign(var,val)** We have $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{var} := \text{Exp}$ for $\text{Exp} \downarrow^{\text{mem}_s} \text{val}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}]$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, and $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. [Assign] and [Seq1] ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

**ite^{tt}(B,C_1,C_2)** We have $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{if} B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2$, $B \downarrow^{\text{mem}_s} \text{tt}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = C_1; \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. From the rules [If] and [Seq1] we obtain that $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

**ite^{ff}(B,C_1,C_2)** We have $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{if} B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2$, $B \downarrow^{\text{mem}_s} \text{ff}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = C_2; \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. From the rules [If] and [Seq1] we obtain that $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

**while^{tt}(B,C_1)** We have $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1$, $B \downarrow^{\text{mem}_s} \text{tt}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = C_1; \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1; \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. The rules [While] and [Seq1] ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

**while^{ff}(B,C_1)** We have $\text{first}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{while } B \text{ do } C_1$, $B \downarrow^{\text{mem}_s} \text{ff}$, $\text{mem}_s' = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s' = \text{atid}_s$, $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s') = \text{rest}(\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. [While], [Seq1] ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$. 
fork($C, \bar{D}$) We have first($\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)) = \text{fork}(C_1 \ldots D_n)$, $\text{mem}_s = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s = \text{atid}_s$, thread$_s(\text{atid}_s) = C; \text{rest(thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, and $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. For all $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ holds $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s(i)) = D_i$. The rules $\text{fork}$ and $\text{Seq}_2$ ensure \[
\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \\
\rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s(0)) \ldots \text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s(n)), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}\.
\]

send(cid, val) We have first($\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$) = send(cid, Exp) for some expression Exp with $\text{Exp} \downarrow \text{mem}_s, \text{val}, \text{mem}_s = \text{mem}_s$, $\text{atid}_s = \text{atid}_s$, thread$_s(\text{atid}_s) = \text{rest(thread}_s(\text{atid}_s))$, and outf$$_s = \{\text{cid}, \text{val}\}$. Since the occurrence of $e$ only affects the values of $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$, executed$_s$, ainfo$_s$, outf$$_s$ we have $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s) [\text{cid} \mapsto \{\text{val}\}, \text{channel}(s)(\text{cid})]$. From the rules $\text{Send}$ and $\text{Seq}_1$ we obtain $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$ holds.

receive(cid, var, val) We have first($\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$) = receive(cid, var) for some expression $\text{val} \downarrow \text{vals}$. Since the occurrence of $e$ only affects the values of $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$, executed$_s$, ainfo$_s$, mem$$_s(\text{var})$, and pending$_s(\text{cid})$, we have $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)[\text{cid} \mapsto \text{bullet}(\text{channel}(s)(\text{cid}))]$. [Receive] and $\text{Seq}_1$ ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$.

ite-rcv$^t$(cid, var, val, $C_1, C_2$) first($\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$) = if-receive(cid, var, $C_1, C_2$), pending$_s(\text{cid}) = \text{vals}$. Since the occurrence of $e$ only affects the values of $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$, executed$_s$, ainfo$_s$, mem$$_s(\text{var})$, and pending$_s(\text{cid})$, we have $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)[\text{cid} \mapsto \text{bullet}(\text{channel}(s)(\text{cid}))]$. [Ite-rcv$^t$] and $\text{Seq}_1$ ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$.

ite-rcv$^f$(cid, var, val, $C_1, C_2$) first($\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$) = if-receive(cid, var, $C_1, C_2$), pending$_s(\text{cid}) = \emptyset$. Since the occurrence of $e$ only affects $\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s)$, executed$_s$, and ainfo$_s$, we have $\text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s)$. The rules $\text{Ite-rcv}^f$ and $\text{Seq}_1$ ensure $\{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s), \text{mem}_s, \text{channel}(s)\} \rightarrow \{\text{thread}_s(\text{atid}_s'), \text{mem}_s', \text{channel}(s')\}$.

Before proving Theorem E.3.6, we present a lemma that is helpful in this proof.

Lemma E.3.9. If $s$ is a reachable state for the composed SES and $p \in P$ then

- initialized$^s_p = \text{tt} \land \text{executed}_s^p = \text{ff} \land \text{atid}_s^p \neq \bot \land \text{thread}_s^p(\text{atid}_s^p) \notin \{\bot, \top, \emptyset\} \land \text{outbuf}_s^p = \emptyset$,
- initialized$^s_p = \text{tt} \land \text{executed}_s^p = \text{tt} \land \text{atid}_s^p \neq \bot \land \text{outbuf}_s^p = \emptyset$,
- initialized$^s_p = \text{tt} \land \text{executed}_s^p = \text{tt} \land \text{atid}_s^p \neq \bot \land \text{outbuf}_s^p = \emptyset$,
- initialized$^s_p = \text{tt} \land \text{executed}_s^p = \text{g} \land \text{atid}_s^p = \bot \land \text{outbuf}_s^p = \emptyset$,
- initialized$^s_p = \text{ff} \land \text{executed}_s^p = \text{ff} \land \text{atid}_s^p = \bot \land \text{outbuf}_s^p = \emptyset$ hold.

Proof. In the proof, we are only concerned with values of state objects and events for the single process $p$. For better readability, we omit the index $p$ from state objects and events.

Choose $\gamma \in E^s$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma} s$. The proof is by induction on $\gamma$.
Base case ($\gamma = \emptyset$): $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{executed}_s = \emptyset$, $\text{atid}_s = \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_s = \emptyset$ follow from Figure 7.11.

Step case ($\gamma = \delta(e)$): There is a state $s_i \in S$ with $s_0 \xrightarrow{\delta} s_i$ and $s_i \xrightarrow{e} s$. The induction hypothesis ensures that the proposition holds in $s_i$. If $e$ is a \textit{setvar}, \textit{outvar}, input \textit{trans-event}, or $e \notin E^p$ then the proposition follows directly because these events do not affect the values of $\text{initialized}$, $\text{executed}$, $\text{atid}$, \textit{thread}, and $\text{outbuf}$ in process $p$. In the rest of the proof, we assume $e \in E^p$ and that $e$ is no \textit{setvar}, \textit{outvar}, or input \textit{trans-event}. According to the induction hypothesis, we distinguish five cases.

- Assume $\text{initialized}_{s_i} = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_{s_i} = \emptyset$, $\text{atid}_{s_i} \neq \bot$, $\text{thread}_{s_i}(\text{atid}_{s_i}) \notin \{\bot, \top, \emptyset\}$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_i} = \emptyset$. This implies $e \in E^p_{\text{local}}$. The PP-statement for $e$ ensures $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, and $\text{atid}_s \neq \bot$.

- Assume $\text{initialized}_{s_i} = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_{s_i} = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{atid}_{s_i} \neq \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_i} = \emptyset$. This implies $e = \text{trans}(\text{cid}, \text{val})$ for some $\text{cid} \in \text{CID}$ and $\text{val} \in \text{VAL}$ with $\text{sender}(\text{cid}) = p$. The PP-statement ensures $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{atid}_s \neq \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_s = \emptyset$.

- Assume $\text{initialized}_{s_i} = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_{s_i} = \emptyset$, $\text{atid}_{s_i} \neq \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_i} = \emptyset$. This implies $e = \text{yield}(\text{info})$ for some $\text{info} \in \text{INFO}$. The PP-statement ensures $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_s = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{atid}_s = \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_s = \emptyset$.

- Assume $\text{initialized}_{s_i} = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_{s_i} = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{atid}_{s_i} = \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_i} = \emptyset$. This implies $e = \text{schedule}(\text{tid})$ for some $\text{tid} \in \text{TID}$. The PP-statement ensures $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_s = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{atid}_s \neq \bot$, $\text{thread}_{s}(\text{atid}_{s}) \notin \{\bot, \top, \emptyset\}$, and $\text{outbuf}_s = \emptyset$.

- Assume $\text{initialized}_{s_i} = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{executed}_{s_i} = \emptyset$, $\text{atid}_{s_i} = \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_i} = \emptyset$. This implies $e = \text{start}$. The PP-statement ensures $\text{initialized}_s = \mathbf{tt}$, $\text{executed}_s = \mathbf{ff}$, $\text{atid}_s = \bot$, and $\text{outbuf}_s = \emptyset$.

\[\square\]

According to Lemma E.3.9, it suffices to consider the five given cases when analyzing the possible behaviors of DMWL process pools.

We are now ready to prove Theorem E.3.6.

Proof (of Theorem E.3.6). First, we establish a few restrictions on $\gamma$. Observe that the following properties are satisfied for all $\text{cid} \in \text{CID}$, all $\text{val}, \text{val}' \in \text{VAL}$, all $p_r, p_i \in P$ with $p_r \neq p_i$, and all $\text{schedule}_{p_i}(\ldots), \text{ite-rcv}^{p_r}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \ldots)$-events:

- If $\gamma = \gamma_1.(\text{schedule}_{p_i}(\ldots)).\gamma_2.(\text{ite-rcv}^{p_r}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \ldots)).\gamma_3$ and $\gamma_2|_{E^p} \in \{\text{trans}(\text{cid}', \text{val}') \mid \text{cid}' \in \text{CID}, \text{receiver}(\text{cid}') = p_r, \text{sender}(\text{cid}') \neq p_r\}^*$
  then $s \xrightarrow{\gamma'} s'$ where $\gamma' = \gamma_1.(\text{schedule}_{p_i}(\ldots)).\text{ite-rcv}^{p_r}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \ldots)).\gamma_2.\gamma_3$.

- If $\gamma = \gamma_1.(\text{send}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \text{val})).\gamma_2.(\text{schedule}_{p_i}(\ldots)).\text{ite-rcv}^{p_r}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \ldots)).\gamma_3$ and $\gamma_2|_{E^p} \in \{\text{trans}(\text{cid}', \text{val}') \mid \text{cid} \in \text{CID}, \text{cid}' \neq \text{cid}\}^*$
  then $s \xrightarrow{\gamma'} s'$ where $\gamma' = \gamma_1.\gamma_2.(\text{schedule}_{p_i}(\ldots)).\text{ite-rcv}^{p_r}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \ldots).\text{send}_{p_i}(\text{cid}, \text{val})).\gamma_3$.

Both of these properties can be proven by a simple induction over $\gamma$. According to the above properties we may make the following assumptions about $\gamma$. These assumptions will be helpful for applying Theorem E.3.5.
1. If \( \gamma = \gamma_1.(\text{schedule}_{p_r}(\ldots))\gamma_2.(\text{ite-recv}^{\text{df}}_{p_r}(\text{cid},\ldots))\gamma_3 \) and \( \gamma_2 \notin E_{pr} \in \{\text{trans}(\text{cid}, \text{val}) \mid \text{cid} \in \text{CID}, \text{receiver}(\text{cid}) = p_r \land \text{sender}(\text{cid}) \neq p_r\}^* \) then \( \gamma_2 = \langle \rangle \).

2. If \( \gamma = \gamma_1.(\text{send}_{p_r}(\text{cid}, \text{val}))\gamma_2.(\text{schedule}_{p_r}(\ldots))\text{ite-recv}^{\text{df}}_{p_r}(\text{cid},\ldots)\gamma_3 \) then an event \( \text{trans}(\text{cid}, \text{val}) \) occurs in \( \gamma_2 \). Together with the precondition of \( \text{ite-recv}^{\text{df}} \), this implies that there must be a receive- or ite-recv^{\text{df}}-event in \( \gamma_2 \) that consumes the message \( \text{val} \) on \( \text{cid} \).

Moreover, we assume that \( \gamma \) contains no setvar-, start-, or outvar-events. That \( \gamma \) contains neither setvar- nor start-events is an assumption of the theorem. Since outvar-events have no effect on the state they can safely be removed.

The proof of the theorem proceeds by induction on the length of \( \gamma \).

Base case \( (\gamma = \langle \rangle) \): The proposition holds because \( s' = s \) and \( \rightarrow^* \) is reflexive.

Step case \( (\gamma = \langle \epsilon \rangle) \): There exists \( s_i \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{\epsilon} s_i \) and \( s_i \xrightarrow{\delta} s' \). We make a case distinction depending on if \( e \) is associated with one or more DMWL processes (at most two).

Firstly, assume that there are \( p_i, p_r \in P \) with \( p_i \neq p_r \) and \( e \in E_{p_i} \cap E_{p_r} \). Hence, \( e = \text{trans}(\text{cid}, \text{val}) \) holds. Without loss of generality, assume \( \text{sender}(\text{cid}) = p_i \) and \( \text{receiver}(\text{cid}) = p_r \). We have \( \text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s) \). The occurrence of \( e \) affects only inbuf and outbuf but no other state variables. The proposition follows from the induction hypothesis.

Secondly, assume that there is exactly one \( p \in P \) with \( e \in E_{p} \). For better readability, we omit the index \( p \) from state objects and events in the following. We make a case distinction according to Lemma E.3.9.

- Assume \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{tt}, \text{executed}_s = \text{ff}, \text{atids}_s \neq \bot, \text{thread}_s(\text{atids}_s) \notin \{\bot, \top, \langle \rangle\} \), and \( \text{outbuf}_s = \langle \rangle \). The proposition follows from \( e \in E_{\text{local}} \) Theorem E.3.5, the frame axioms for events in \( E_{\text{local}} \), Definition E.3.2, rule [Step], rule [Pick], and the induction hypothesis. Note that if \( e = \text{ite-recv}^{\text{df}}(\text{cid}, \ldots) \) then \( \text{channel}(s)(\text{cid}) = \langle \rangle \) holds because of our initial assumptions (1,2) on \( \gamma \). Hence, the requirements of Theorem E.3.5 are, indeed, satisfied.

- The case \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{tt}, \text{executed}_s = \text{tt}, \text{atids}_s \neq \bot, \text{and outbuf}_s \neq \langle \rangle \) leads to a contradiction. Since \( e = \text{trans}(\text{cid}, \text{val}), \text{sender}(\text{cid}), \text{receiver}(\text{cid}) \in P \), and a process cannot send to itself, this case contradicts our assumption that there is exactly one \( p \in P \) with \( e \in E_{p} \).

- Assume \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{tt}, \text{executed}_s = \text{tt}, \text{atids}_s \neq \bot, \text{and outbuf}_s = \langle \rangle \). Then \( e = \text{yield}() \) holds for \( \text{info} = (\text{ainfo}_s, \text{mem}_s(l), \text{blocked-set}_s) \). The PP-statement for \( \text{yield} \) implies \( \text{config}(s')(p) = \text{config}(s)(p) \) and \( \text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s) \). The proposition follows from the induction hypothesis.

- Assume \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{tt}, \text{executed}_s = \text{ff}, \text{atids}_s = \bot, \text{and outbuf}_s = \langle \rangle \). Then \( e = \text{schedule}(\text{tid}) \) holds for some \( \text{tid} \in \text{TID} \). The PP-statement for \( \text{schedule} \) implies that \( \text{config}(s', p) = \text{config}(s)(p) \) and \( \text{channel}(s') = \text{channel}(s) \) hold. The proposition follows from the induction hypothesis.

- Assume \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{ff}, \text{executed}_s = \text{ff}, \text{atids}_s = \bot, \text{and outbuf}_s = \langle \rangle \). Since \( s \) is a reachable state, \( \text{initialized}_s = \text{ff} \), and \( e \) is enabled in \( s \), \( e \) must be a outvar-, setvar-, start-, or trans-event. According to our assumptions, \( e \) is neither a outvar- nor a setvar-, nor a start-event. Since \( e \) belongs to a single process only, \( e \) cannot be a trans-event.
(cf. our previous argumentation on trans-events). Hence, this case is impossible under the assumptions made.

Theorems E.3.7 and E.3.8 ensure that for every behavior of a distributed DMWL program there is a trace of the corresponding DMWL process pool.

**Proof (of Theorem E.3.7).** Assume that \( D \) is a derivation of \( \{ C, \text{mem}, \sigma \} \rightarrow \{ C', \text{mem}', \sigma' \} \). There must be exactly one application of one of the rules [Skip], [Assign], [If\_true], [If\_false], [While\_true], [While\_false], [Send], [Receive], [If\_recv], or [If\_recv\_false] in \( D \).

We make a case distinction depending on which of these rules occurs in \( D \). In the proof, we are only concerned with values of state objects and events for the single process \( p \). For better readability, we omit the index \( p \) from state objects and events.

- **[Skip]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \text{skip} \), \( C' = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{skip} \) there is a state \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem} \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[Assign]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \text{var} := \text{Exp} \) with \( \text{Exp} \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{val} \) (for some \( \text{var} \in \text{VAR} \), \( \text{val} \in \text{VAL} \), \( \text{Exp} \in \text{EXP} \)), \( C' = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem}[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}] \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{assign}(\text{var}; \text{val}) \) there is \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem}[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}] \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[If\_true]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \) if \( B \) then \( C_1 \) else \( C_2 \) with \( B \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{tt} \) (for \( C_1, C_2 \in \text{CMD} \), \( B \in \text{BOOL} \)), \( C' = C_1; \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{ite}(B, C_1, C_2) \) there is a state \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = C_1; \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem} \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[If\_false]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \) if \( B \) then \( C_1 \) else \( C_2 \) with \( B \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{ff} \) (for \( C_1, C_2 \in \text{CMD} \), \( B \in \text{BOOL} \)), \( C' = C_2; \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{ite}(B, C_1, C_2) \) there is a state \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = C_2; \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem} \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[While\_true]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \) while \( B \) do \( C_1 \) with \( B \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{tt} \) (for \( C_1 \in \text{CMD} \), \( B \in \text{BOOL} \)), \( C' = C_1 \); while \( B \) do \( C_1 \); \( \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{while}(B, C_1) \) there is \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = C_1 \); while \( B \) do \( C_1 \); \( \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem} \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[While\_false]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \) while \( B \) do \( C_1 \) with \( B \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{ff} \) (for \( C_1 \in \text{CMD} \), \( B \in \text{BOOL} \)), \( C' = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), and \( \sigma' = \sigma \). For \( e = \text{while}(B, C_1) \) there is a state \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem} \), and \( \text{channel}(s') = \sigma \).

- **[Send]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \text{send}(\text{cid}, \text{Exp}) \) with \( \text{Exp} \xrightarrow{\text{mem}} \text{val}, C' = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem} \), \( \sigma'(\text{cid}) = \langle \text{val}, \sigma(\text{cid}) \rangle \), and \( \sigma'(\text{cid}') = \sigma(\text{cid}') \) for all \( \text{cid}' \neq \text{cid} \). For \( e = \text{send}(\text{cid}, \text{val}) \) there is \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem}[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}] \), \( \text{channel}(s')(\text{cid}) = \langle \text{val}, \sigma(\text{cid}) \rangle \), and \( \text{channel}(s')(\text{cid}') = \sigma(\text{cid}') \) for all \( \text{cid}' \neq \text{cid} \).

- **[Receive]** and [Seq\_1] ensure \( \text{first}(C) = \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \), \( \sigma(\text{cid}) = \text{vals}(\text{var}) \), \( C' = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem}[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}] \), \( \sigma'(\text{cid}) = \text{vals} \), and \( \sigma'(\text{cid}') = \sigma(\text{cid}) \) hold for all \( \text{cid}' \neq \text{cid} \). By assumption \( \text{pending}_{s}(\text{cid}) = \text{vals}(\text{var}) \) holds (where \( \text{vals} \) is a suffix of \( \text{vals} \)). For \( e = \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}, \text{val}) \) there is a state \( s' \in S \) with \( s \xrightarrow{e} s' \), \( \text{thread}_{s'}(\text{atid}_{s'}) = \text{rest}(C) \), \( \text{mem}_{s'} = \text{mem}[\text{var} \mapsto \text{val}] \), \( \text{channel}(s')(\text{cid}) = \text{vals} \), and \( \text{channel}(s')(\text{cid}') = \sigma(\text{cid}') \) for all \( \text{cid}' \neq \text{cid} \).
Theorem E.3.7 ensures that a small step in the operational semantics corresponds to the occurrence of some local event in $E^p_{local}$.

Proof (of Theorem E.3.8). Let $D$ be a derivation of $\langle C_1, mem_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle C_n, mem_n \rangle; \sigma \triangleright \ast \langle \tilde{C}_1, mem'_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem'_n \rangle; \sigma' \triangleright \ast$.

The proof proceeds by induction on $m$, the number of applications of the rule [Step] in $D$.

Base case: $D$ contains no rule applications. Hence, $\sigma' = \sigma$ and $\langle \tilde{C}_i, mem'_i \rangle = (\tilde{C}_i, mem_i)$ hold for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Consequently, the proposition holds for $\gamma = \emptyset$ and $s' = s$.

Step case ($m = m' + 1$): There is a global configuration $\langle \tilde{C}_1, mem'_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem'_n \rangle; \sigma'' \triangleright \ast$ such that $\langle \tilde{C}_1, mem'_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem'_n \rangle; \sigma' \triangleright \ast \langle \tilde{C}_1, mem''_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem''_n \rangle; \sigma'' \triangleright \ast$ and $\langle \tilde{C}_1, mem''_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem''_n \rangle; \sigma'' \triangleright \ast \langle \tilde{C}_1, mem'_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \tilde{C}_n, mem'_n \rangle; \sigma' \triangleright \ast$ hold. Let $D'$ be a derivation of the former judgment and $D''$ be a derivation of the latter judgment. Consequently, there are $m'$ application of rule [Step] in $D''$ and there is one application of this rule in $D'$. If there are a state $s'' \in S$ and a sequence $\gamma'' \in E^*$ that contains no setvar-events, start-events, or trans-events on open channels such that $s \xrightarrow{\gamma''} s''$, channel$(s'') = \sigma''$, initialized$^p_{s''} = tt$, executed$^p_{s''} = ff$, atid$^p_{s''} = \bot$, and config$(s'')(p_i) = (\tilde{C}_i, mem''_i)$ hold for all $p_i \in P$ then the proposition follows from the induction hypothesis.

We now show that $\gamma''$ and $s''$ with these properties indeed exist.

[Step] is applied once in $D''$. Let $p_i$ be the identifier of the process that is selected in this application. [Pick] is applied once in $D''$. Let $tid$ be the identifier of the thread that is selected in this application. Event $e_1 = schedule_{p_j}(tid)$ is enabled in $s$. For $s_1 \in S$ with $s \xrightarrow{e_1} s_1$, we
have $\text{initialized}^{P_j}_{s_i} = tt$, $\text{executed}^{P_j}_{s_i} = ff$, $\text{atid}^{P_j}_{s_i} \neq \bot$, $\text{thread}^{P_j}_{s_i} = \text{thread}^{P_j}_{s}$, $\text{mem}^{P_j}_{s_i} = \text{mem}^{P_j}_s$, and $\text{channel}(s_1) = \text{channel}(s)$. Moreover, $\text{config}(s_1)(p') = \text{config}(s)(p')$ holds for all $p' \in P$ with $p' \neq p_j$. From the definitions of the rules [Step], [Pick] and Theorem E.3.7, we obtain that there are an event $e_2 \in E_{\text{local}}$ and a state $s_2 \in S$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e_2} s_2$, $\text{initialized}^{P_j}_{s_2} = tt$, $\text{executed}^{P_j}_{s_2} = tt$, $\text{atid}^{P_j}_{s_2} \neq \bot$, $\text{mem}^{P_j}_{s_2} = \text{mem}^{P_j}_{s''}$, $\text{ceq}^i(\text{thread}^{P_j}_{s_2}) = \text{C}^{P_j}_{i}$, $\text{channel}(s_2) = \sigma''$, and $\text{config}(s_2)(p') = \text{config}(s_1)(p')$ holds for all $p' \in P$ with $p' \neq p_j$. The output buffer is non-empty if and only if $e_2$ is a send-event. If $\text{outbuf}^{P_j}_{s_2} = (\text{cid}, \text{val})$ then let $\delta = \langle \text{trans}^{i}(\text{cid}, \text{val}) \rangle$ (recall that cid cannot be an open channel according to our assumption that none of the commands involves sending on open channels). If $\text{outbuf}^{P_j}_{s_2} = \langle \rangle$ then let $\delta = \langle \rangle$. In both cases, there is a state $s_3$ with $s_2 \xrightarrow{\delta} s_3$, $\text{outbuf}^{P_j}_{s_3} = \langle \rangle$, $\text{initialized}^{P_j}_{s_3} = tt$, $\text{executed}^{P_j}_{s_3} = tt$, $\text{atid}^{P_j}_{s_3} \neq \bot$, $\text{mem}^{P_j}_{s_3} = \text{mem}^{P_j}_{s''}$, $\text{ceq}^i(\text{thread}^{P_j}_{s_3}) = \text{C}^{P_j}_{i}$, $\text{channel}(s_3) = \sigma''$, and $\text{config}(s_3)(p') = \text{config}(s_1)(p')$ holds for all $p' \in P$ with $p' \neq p_j$. Event $e_3 = \text{yield}^{P_j}_{p_j}(\text{ainfo}^{P_j}_s)$ is enabled in $s_3$. Hence, there is a state $s'' \in S$ with $s_2 \xrightarrow{e_3} s''$. Thus, for $\gamma'' = \langle e_1, e_2, \delta, e_3 \rangle$, we have $s \xrightarrow{\gamma''} s''$ and $\text{channel}(s'') = \sigma''$. Moreover, $\text{initialized}^{P_j}_{s''} = tt$, $\text{executed}^{P_j}_{s''} = ff$, $\text{atid}^{P_j}_{s''} = \bot$, and $\text{config}(s'', p_i) = \left(\text{C}^{P_j}_{i}, \text{mem}^{P_j}_{s''}\right)$ hold for all $p_i \in P$. □

## E.4 Lemmas used in the Proof by Unwinding

The following lemma is used in the proof of Theorem 7.5.1 in Section 7.5.2.

**Lemma E.4.1 (Satisfaction of unwinding conditions for single processes).** Let $C \in CMD$, and $p \in PID$. Moreover, let $\text{SES}^p = (\text{SEP}^p, \text{SEP}^0, E^p, I^p, O^p, T^p)$ be defined by $\text{SES}^p = \text{DMWLProcess}(p, C)$. Moreover, let $\otimes \subseteq S \times S$ be defined like in the proof of Theorem 7.5.1. If $C$ is strongly secure then $\text{lrbe}^p_{\text{HTV}}(T^p, \otimes)$ and $\text{osc}_{\text{HTV}}(T^p, \otimes)$ hold. □

**Proof.** We prove the two unwinding conditions:

\textbf{lrbe}^p_{\text{HTV}}(T^p, \otimes) Let $s \in \text{SEP}^p$ and $c \in \text{SEP}^p$. Assume $\text{reachable}(\text{SES}^p, s)$ and $\text{En}_{\text{HTV}}^p(T^p, s, c)$.

According to the definition of $\text{SEP}^p$, either $c = \text{setvar}(h, \text{val})$ or $c = \text{trans}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$ holds (where $\text{val} \in \text{VAL}, \text{cid}_h \in \text{CID}$ with $\text{receiver}(\text{cid}_h) = p$ and $\text{level}(\text{cid}_h) = \text{high}$). We make a case distinction on these two possibilities.

Firstly, assume $c = \text{setvar}(h, \text{val})$. Since $\text{setvar}$-events are only enabled if the initialization phase is finished, we conclude from $\text{En}_{\text{HTV}}^p(T^p, s, c)$ that $\text{initialized}_s = ff$ holds. According to Figure 7.12, there is a state $s' \in \text{SEP}^p$ such that $s \xrightarrow{c} s'$. Since $s'$ differs from $s$ only in the value of the high variable, we have $\text{mem}_{s'} = L \text{ mem}_s$. Conditions 1–9 are true for $s$ and $s'$ (Condition 8 is ensured by Lemma E.4.2). Consequently, $s \not\otimes s'$ holds.

Secondly, assume $c = \text{trans}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$. According to Figure 7.12, there is a state $s' \in \text{SEP}^p$ such that $s \xrightarrow{c} s'$. Since $s'$ differs from $s$ only in the value of $\text{inbuf}(\text{cid}_h)$. Since $\text{level}(\text{cid}_h) = \text{high}$, we have $\text{inbuf}_{s'} = L \text{ inbuf}_s$. Conditions 1–9 are true for $s$ and $s'$ (Condition 8 is ensured by Lemma E.4.2). Consequently, $s \not\otimes s'$ holds.

\textbf{osc}_{\text{HTV}}(T^p, \otimes) Let $s_1, s'_1, s''_1 \in S^p$ and $e \in V^p \cup N^p$ be arbitrary. Assume $\text{reachable}(\text{SES}^p, s_1)$, $\text{reachable}(\text{SES}^p, s_2)$, $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} s'_1$, and $s'_1 \not\otimes s''_1$. Based on Definition 7.4.2 we distinguish the following cases for $e$ (omitting the index $p$ from events and state objects for better readability):

(1) $e = \text{setvar}(h, \text{val})$.

(2) $e = \text{trans}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$.

(3) $e = \text{yield}(p)$.

(4) $e = \text{yield}(p, \text{val})$.

(5) $e = \text{yield}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$.

(6) $e = \text{send}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$.

(7) $e = \text{receive}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$.

(8) $e = \text{reset}(\text{cid}_h)$.

(9) $e = \text{reset}(h)$.
$e = \text{schedule}(t_{id})$ Since $e$ is enabled in $s_1'$, we have $atid_{s_1'} = \bot, \text{thread}_{s_1'}(t_{id}) \notin \{\bot, T, \emptyset\}$, $t_{id} \notin \text{blocked-sets}_{s_1'}$, and $\text{initialized}_{s_1'} = \bot$. Since $s_1 \not\preceq s_1'$, we also have $atid_{s_1} = \bot$ (from Condition 4), $\text{thread}_{s_1}(t_{id}) \notin \{\bot, T, \emptyset\}$ (from Condition 8), $t_{id} \notin \text{blocked-sets}_{s_1}$ (from Condition 9), and $\text{initialized}_{s_1} = TT$ (from Condition 1). Hence, $e$ is enabled in $s_1$, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. We choose $s_2 = s$ and $\delta = \langle e \rangle$. Obviously, $\delta_{CR} = \emptyset$, $\delta_{VR} = \langle e \rangle|_VR$, and $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. $s_2$ are all true for these choices. It remains to show $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$.

An occurrence of $e$ affects only the values of $\text{atid}$, $\text{inbuf}$, and $\text{pending}$. According to Figure 7.12, the value of $\text{atid}$ and $\text{inbuf}$ is identical in $s_2$ and $s_2'$. Moreover, $\text{pending}_{s_2} = \text{pending}_{s_2'}$ follows from $\text{inbuf}_{s_1} = \text{inbuf}_{s_1'}$, $\text{pending}_{s_1} = \text{pending}_{s_1'}$ (from Condition 5), and the way in which $\text{pending}$ is updated by $\text{schedule-events}$ (cf. Figure 7.12). We conclude from $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$ that $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.

$e = \text{yield}(\text{info})$ Since $e$ is enabled in $s_1'$, we have that $\text{executed}_{s_1'} = \text{TT}$, $\text{info} = (\text{ainfo}_{s_1'}, \text{mem}_{s_1'}(l), \text{block}_{s_1'})$, and $\text{outbuf}_{s_1'} = \emptyset$. Since $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$, we also have $\text{executed}_{s_1} = \text{TT}$ (from 2) and $\text{info} = (\text{ainfo}_{s_1}, \text{mem}_{s_1}(l), \text{block}_{s_1})$ (from 3, 7, and 9). Moreover, we have either $\text{outbuf}_{s_1} = \emptyset$ or $\text{outbuf}_{s_1} = (\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$ for some $\text{cid}_h \in \text{CID}$ with $\text{level}(\text{cid}_h) = \text{high}$ and $\text{sender}(\text{cid}_h) = p$ (from 6). We make a case distinction. If $\text{outbuf}_{s_1} = \emptyset$ then $e$ is enabled in $s_1$, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. We choose $s_2 = s$ and $\delta = \langle e \rangle$. With this choice, it only remains to show $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$. An occurrence of $e$ affects only the value $s$ of $\text{executed}$, $\text{atid}$, and $\text{ainfo}$. According to Figure 7.12, the value of these state variables is identical in $s_2'$ and $s_2$. Conditions 1–9 are all satisfied for $s_2'$ and $s_2$. Consequently, $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.

If $\text{outbuf}_{s_1} = (\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$ then $e$ is not enabled in $s_1$ but the event $e' = \text{trans}(\text{cid}_h, \text{val})$ is enabled, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e'} \text{trans}(s)$. An occurrence of $e'$ affects only the value of $\text{outbuf}$ ($\text{sender}(\text{cid}_h) = p$) and $\text{outbuf}_{s} = \emptyset$ holds. Hence, $e$ is enabled in $s$, i.e. there is a state $s'$ with $s \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s')$. We choose $s_2 = s'$ and $\delta = \langle e', e \rangle$. The rest of the argument is along the same lines as in the previous case.

$e = \text{outvar}(h, \text{val})$ We choose $s_2 = s_1$ and $\delta = \emptyset$. Since outvar-events have no effect on the state and $\langle e \rangle|_VR = \emptyset$ holds, we conclude from $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$ that $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.

$e = \text{outvar}(l, \text{val})$ Since $e$ is enabled in $s_1'$, we have $\text{mem}_{s_1'}(l) = \text{val}$. Since $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$, we have $\text{mem}_{s_1}(l) = \text{val}$ (from 7). Hence, $e$ is enabled in $s_1$, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. We choose $s_2 = s$ and $\delta = \langle e \rangle$. Since outvar-events have no effect on the state, we have $s_1 = s_2$ and $s_1' = s_2'$. We conclude from $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$ that $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.

$e = \text{setvar}(l, \text{val})$ Since $e$ is enabled in $s_1'$, we have $\text{initialized}_{s_1'} = \text{ff}$. Since $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$, we have $\text{initialized}_{s_1} = \text{ff}$ (from 1). Hence, $e$ is enabled in $s_1$, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. We choose $s_2 = s$ and $\delta = \langle e \rangle$. An occurrence of $e$ affects only the value of $\text{mem}(l)$. According to Figure 7.12, the value of $l$ is identical in $s_2'$ and $s_2$. We conclude from $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$ that $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.

$e = \text{start}$ Since $e$ is enabled in $s_1'$, we have $\text{initialized}_{s_1'} = \text{ff}$. Since $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$, we have $\text{initialized}_{s_1} = \text{ff}$ (from 1). Hence, $e$ is enabled in $s_1$, i.e. there is a state $s$ with $s_1 \xrightarrow{e} \text{trans}(s)$. We choose $s_2 = s$ and $\delta = \langle e \rangle$. An occurrence of $e$ affects only the value of initialized. According to Figure 7.12, the value of this state variable is identical in $s_2'$ and $s_2$. We conclude from $s_1' \not\preceq s_1$ that $s_2' \not\preceq s_2$ holds.
e = \texttt{trans}(\texttt{cid}_h, \texttt{val}) \ (\text{where } \texttt{sender}(\texttt{cid}_h) = p \text{ and } \texttt{level}(\texttt{cid}_h) = \text{high}) \text{ Since } e \text{ is enabled in } s'_1, \texttt{outbuf}_{s'_1} = (\texttt{cid}_h, \texttt{val}) \text{ holds. The occurrence of } e \text{ only affects } \texttt{outbuf} \text{ and } \texttt{outbuf}_{s'_2} = () \text{ holds. Since } s'_1 \models s_1, \text{ we have either } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_1} = () \text{ or } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_1} = (\texttt{cid}_h, \texttt{val}) \text{ for some } \texttt{cid}_h \in \texttt{CID} \text{ with } \texttt{level}(\texttt{cid}_h) = \text{high} \text{ and } \texttt{sender}(\texttt{cid}_h) = p \text{ (from } 6). \text{ We make a case distinction.} \\
\text{If } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_1} = () \text{ then choose } s_2 = s_1 \text{ and } \delta = (). \text{ With this choice, Conditions 1–9 are all satisfied for } s'_2 \text{ and } s_2 \text{ because } s'_1 \models s_1 \text{ holds. Consequently, } s'_2 \models s_2 \text{ holds.} \\
\text{If } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_1} = (\texttt{cid}_h, \texttt{val}) \text{ then the event } e' = \texttt{trans}(\texttt{cid}_h, \texttt{val}) \text{ is enabled in } s_1, \text{i.e., there is a state } s \text{ with } s_1 \xrightarrow{e'}_{TT} s. \text{ An occurrence of } e' \text{ affects only the value of } \texttt{outbuf}(\texttt{sender}(\texttt{cid}_h)) = p \text{ holds and } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_2} = () \text{ holds. Hence, we have } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_2} = () = \texttt{outbuf}_{s'_2} \text{ (implies } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_2} = \L \texttt{outbuf}_{s'_2}). \text{ We choose } s_2 = s \text{ and } \delta = (e'). \text{ With this choice, Conditions 1–9 are all satisfied for } s'_2 \text{ and } s_2 \text{ because } s'_1 \models s_1 \text{ holds. Consequently, } s'_2 \models s_2 \text{ holds.} \n
\vspace{1em}

\text{e} = \texttt{trans}(\texttt{cid}_d, \texttt{val}) \ (\text{where } \texttt{sender}(\texttt{cid}_d) = p \text{ and } \texttt{level}(\texttt{cid}_d) = \text{low}) \text{ Since } e \text{ is enabled in } s'_1, \texttt{outbuf}_{s'_1} = (\texttt{cid}_d, \texttt{val}) \text{ holds. Since } s'_1 \models s_1, \text{ we have } \texttt{outbuf}_{s_1} = (\texttt{cid}_d, \texttt{val}) \text{ (from } 6). \text{ Hence, } e \text{ is enabled in } s_1, \text{i.e., there is a state } s \text{ with } s_1 \xrightarrow{e}_{TT} s. \text{ A occurrence of } e \text{ affects only the value of } \texttt{inbuf}(\texttt{cid}_d). \text{ According to Figure } 7.12, \text{ the value of this state variable is identical in } s_2 \text{ and } s'_2 \text{ because } \texttt{inbuf}_{s_1}(\texttt{cid}_d) = \texttt{inbuf}_{s'_1}(\texttt{cid}_d) \text{ holds (follows from } \texttt{inbuf}_{s_1} = \L \texttt{inbuf}_{s'_1}). \text{ We conclude from } s'_1 \models s_1 \text{ that } s'_2 \models s_2 \text{ holds.} \n
\vspace{1em}

\text{e} \in \texttt{E}_{\text{local}}^p \text{ Since } s'_1 \xrightarrow{e}_{TT} s'_2, \text{ we have } \texttt{initialized}_{s'_1} = tt, \texttt{initialized}_{s'_2} = tt, \texttt{executed}_{s'_1} = tt, \text{ and } \texttt{atid}_{s'_2} = \texttt{atid}_{s'_1}. \text{ In order to make Theorems E.3.5 and E.3.7 applicable, we define some auxiliary states.} \text{ Let } t_1, t'_1, t'_2 \in S^p \text{ be states for which } \texttt{inbuf}_{t_1}(\texttt{cid}) = (), \texttt{inbuf}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = (), \text{ and } \texttt{inbuf}_{t'_2}(\texttt{cid}) = () \text{ hold for all } \texttt{cid} \in \texttt{CID}. \text{ Moreover, except for the value of } \texttt{inbuf}, \text{ the states } t_1, t'_1 \text{ and } t'_2 \text{ shall be identical to } s_1, s'_1 \text{ and } s'_2, \text{ respectively. In particular, we have } t'_1 \xrightarrow{e}_{TT} t'_2 \text{ (value of } \texttt{inbuf} \text{ neither affects the possibility of local events nor is it affected by their occurrence), } \texttt{initialized}_{t'_1} = tt, \texttt{executed}_{t'_1} = ff, \texttt{atid}_{t'_1} \neq \perp, \text{ and } t'_1 \models t_1. \text{ Note that if } \texttt{pending}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = () \text{ then } \texttt{channel}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = () \text{ (channel}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = ()}) \text{ holds. In particular, if } e = \texttt{ite}-\texttt{recv}(\texttt{cid}, \ldots) \text{ then } \texttt{channel}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = () \text{ holds (pending}_{t'_1}(\texttt{cid}) = () \text{ is implied by the precondition of } e). \text{ According to our construction, Theorem E.3.5 is applicable for } t'_1 \text{ and } t'_2. \text{ We obtain } \{\texttt{thread}_{t'_1}(\texttt{atid}_{t'_1}), \texttt{mem}_{t'_1}, \texttt{channel}_{t'_1}\} \rightarrow \{\texttt{ceqaux}(\texttt{atid}_{t'_1}, \texttt{thread}_{t'_1}), \texttt{mem}_{t'_2}, \texttt{channel}_{t'_2}\}. \text{ Since } t'_1 \models t_1, \text{ we have } \texttt{mem}_{t'_1} = \L \texttt{mem}_{t_1} \text{ from } 7, \texttt{channel}_{t'_1} = \L \texttt{channel}_{t_1} \text{ (from } 5 \text{ and } 6, \text{ and } \texttt{thread}_{t'_1}(\texttt{atid}_{t'_1}) \equiv \L \texttt{thread}_{t_1}(\texttt{atid}_{t_1}) \text{ (from } 8). \text{ Unwinding the definition of a low bisimulation (cf. Def-}}
inition 7.2.7) for \( \preceq_L \) (a strong low-bisimulation is also a low bisimulation) yields that there are \( \vec{D}' \), \( \text{mem}' \), and \( \sigma' \) such that \( \{ \text{thread}_1(\text{atid}_1), \text{mem}_1, \text{channel}(t_1) \} \rightarrow \{ \vec{D}', \text{mem}', \sigma' \}, \text{mem}'_2 = L \text{mem}', \text{channel}(t'_2) = L \sigma' \), and \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_2, \text{thread}_2) \simeq_L \vec{D}' \) hold. Thus, we can apply Theorem E.3.7. This yields that there are an event \( e' \in E^p_{\text{local}} \) and a state \( t \) with \( t_1 \xrightarrow{e} t \), \( \text{mem}_t = \text{mem}' \), \( \text{channel}(t) = \sigma' \), and \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_1, \text{thread}_1) = \vec{D}' \).

Let \( s_2 \in S^p \) be a state for which \( \text{inbuf}_{s_2}(\text{cid}) = \text{inbuf}_{s_1}(\text{cid}) \) holds for all \( \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \). Moreover, except for the value of \( \text{inbuf} \), the state \( s_2 \) shall be identical to \( t \). This means, we have \( s_1 \xrightarrow{e} s_2 \). \text{initialized}_s = t, \text{executed}_s = t, \text{atid}_s = \text{atid}_s, \text{mem}_s = \text{mem}' \), and \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_s, \text{thread}_s) = \vec{D}' \). For all \( \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \) with \( \text{receiver}(\text{cid}) = p \), we have \( \text{channel}(s_2)(\text{cid}) = \text{inbuf}_{s_1}(\text{cid}) \). \text{cid} \).

It remains to show that \( s'_2 \notsimeq s_2 \) holds. Let us investigate conditions 1–9.

1. We have already shown that \( \text{initialized}_{s'_2} = t \) and \( \text{initialized}_{s_2} = t \) hold.
2. We have already shown that \( \text{executed}_{s'_2} = t \) and \( \text{executed}_{s_2} = t \) hold.
3. Firstly, assume that \( e \) is no fork-event. We have \( \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) = \emptyset = \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) \) or \( \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) \simeq_L \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) \) (cf. proof of condition 8 below). Hence, \( \text{terminates} \left( \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) \right) = \text{terminates} \left( \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}) \right) \) holds.

Secondly, assume that \( e \) is a fork-event. If \( k \) child threads are spawned after computation starts in \( s'_1 \) then \( k \) threads are spawned after computation starts in \( s_1 \) because \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_{s'_2}, \text{thread}_{s'_2}) \simeq_L \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_{s_2}, \text{thread}_{s_2}) \) (cf. proof of condition 8 below).

Consequently, in both cases, \( \text{atid}_{s'_2} = \text{atid}_{s'_1} \) holds.

4. We have that \( \text{atid}_{s'_2} = \text{atid}_{s'_1} \) and \( \text{atid}_{s_2} = \text{atid}_{s_1} \) hold. Together with \( \text{atid}_{s'_1} = \text{atid}_{s_1} \) (from \( s'_1 \notsimeq s_1 \)), this implies \( \text{atid}_{s'_2} = \text{atid}_{s_2} \).

5. From \( \text{inbuf}_{s_2} = \text{inbuf}_{s_1} \) (local events do not affect the value of \( \text{inbuf} \)), \( \text{inbuf}_{s'_2} = L \text{inbuf}_{s_1} \) \( \text{inbuf}_{s'_1} \notsimeq s_1 \), and \( \text{inbuf}_{s_1} = \text{inbuf}_{s_2} \) we conclude \( \text{inbuf}_{s'_2} = L \text{inbuf}_{s_2} \).

6. We have that \( \text{outbuf}_{s_2} = \emptyset \) or \( \text{outbuf}_{s'_2} = (\text{cid}', \text{val}') \) holds for some \( \text{cid}' \in \text{CID} \) with \( \text{sender}(\text{cid}') = p \). Moreover, \( \text{outbuf}_{s_2} = \emptyset \) or \( \text{outbuf}_{s_2} = (\text{cid}', \text{val}') \) for some \( \text{cid}' \in \text{CID} \) with \( \text{sender}(\text{cid}') = p \). Finally, we have \( \text{outbuf}_{s_2}(\text{cid}) = \text{channel}(s_2)(\text{cid}), \text{channel}(s_2)(\text{cid}) = \text{channel}(t'_2)(\text{cid}), \text{channel}(t'_2)(\text{cid}) = L \sigma', \sigma' = \text{channel}(t), \text{channel}(t) = \text{channel}(s_2)(\text{cid}), \text{channel}(s_2)(\text{cid}) = \text{outbuf}_{s_2}(\text{cid}) \) for all \( \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \) with \( \text{sender}(\text{cid}) = p \). Hence, \( \text{outbuf}_{s'_2} = L \text{outbuf}_{s_2} \) holds.

7. We have that \( \text{mem}_{s'_2} = \text{mem}_{s'_1} \), \( \text{mem}_{s'_2} = L \text{mem}'_1 \), and \( \text{mem}' = \text{mem}_{s_2} \) hold. This implies that \( \text{mem}_{s'_2} = L \text{mem}_{s_2} \) also holds.

8. For all \( \text{tid} \in \text{TID} \), \( \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{s'_1}(\text{tid}), \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}), \text{thread}_{s_1}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{t_1}(\text{tid}), \text{and} \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{t_1}(\text{tid}) \) hold.

Firstly, assume that \( e \) is no fork-event. Then \( \text{thread}_{s'_1}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{s_1}(\text{tid}) \) and \( \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \text{thread}_{t_1}(\text{tid}) \) hold if \( \text{tid} \neq \text{atid}_{s'_1} \) (recall that \( \text{atid}_{t_1} = \text{atid}_{s'_1} \) and \( \text{atid}_{t_1} = \text{atid}_{s_1} \)). We obtain from \( s'_1 \notsimeq s_1 \) and the above that

\[
\text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \bot = \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid}) \vee \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = T = \text{thread}_{s'_1}(\text{tid}) \\
\vee \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \emptyset = \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid}) \vee \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) \simeq_L \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid})
\]

holds if \( \text{tid} \neq \text{atid}_{s'_1} \). For \( \text{tid} = \text{atid}_{s'_1} \), we have \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{tid}, \text{thread}_{s'_2}(\text{tid}) \simeq_L \vec{D}' \) and
\[ \tilde{\cal E} = \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{tid}, \text{thread}_{s_2}). \] Consequently,

\[ \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \{ \} = \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{tid}) \lor \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) \cong_L \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) \]

holds. Summarizing, Condition 8 is fulfilled for \( s_2 \) and \( s_2' \).

Secondly, assume that \( e \) is a \textit{fork}-event. In this case, one has to consider the child threads in addition to the active thread but, otherwise, this case can be handled along the same lines as the first one (\( \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{atid}_{s_2'}) = \top = \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{atid}_{s_2'}) \) holds for the active threads and the respective child threads are pairwise bisimilar because \( \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_{s_2'}, \text{thread}_{s_2'}) \cong_L \text{cseq}_{\text{aux}}(\text{atid}_{s_2}, \text{thread}_{s_2}) \).

9. In general, \( \text{first}(C') = \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \) and \( C' \cong_L C'' \) imply \( \text{dom} \alpha(\text{cid}) = \text{low} \) because a blocking receive on high channels is not strongly secure. The consumption of a value from a low channel and the blocking of a thread because of an empty incoming channel is both observable. Hence, the commands that are strongly bisimilar must behave identically in this respect. That is, if \( \text{first}(C') = \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \) and \( C' \cong_L C \) then \( \text{first}(C) = \text{receive}(\text{cid}, \text{var}) \) must hold. Hence, two commands that are strongly bisimilar either both start with a receive-command (on the same low channel) or both don't start with a receive-command.

Since \( \text{atid}_{s_2} \neq \bot \) (precondition of events in \( E_\text{local}^p \)), \( \text{atid}_{s_2} = \text{atid}_{s_2} \) (from 4 above), and

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) &= \bot = \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{tid}) \lor \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) = \top = \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{tid}) \\
\lor \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) &= \{ \} = \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{tid}) \lor \text{thread}_{s_2}(\text{tid}) \cong_L \text{thread}_{s_2'}(\text{tid})
\end{align*}
\]

(from 8 above) we have \( \text{blocked-set}_{s_2} = \text{blocked-set}_{s_2} \).

We conclude that \( s_2 \not\equiv s_2 \) holds. \( \Box \)

**Lemma E.4.2.** Let \( C \in \text{CMD} \) be a DMWL command, \( p \in \text{PID} \) be a process identifier, and \( Tr \) be the set of possible traces induced by the state-event system \( \text{DMWLP}_{\text{Process}}(p, C) \) (abbreviated by \( SE_{p} = (S_{p}, S_0^{\pi}, E^P, I^P, O^P, T^P) \)). Moreover, let \( s \in S^p \) be a state and \( \tau \in Tr \) be a trace for which \( s_0 \overset{\tau}{\rightarrow} s \) holds.

If \( C \) is strongly secure then

\[
\forall \text{tid} \in \text{TID} \ldotp (\text{thread}_{s}(\text{tid}) \notin \{ \bot, \top, \{ \} \}) \Rightarrow \text{thread}_{s}(\text{tid}) \cong_L \text{thread}_{s}(\text{tid})
\]

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on the length of \( \tau \).

In the base case \( (\tau = \{ \}) \), we have \( \text{thread}_{s}(\{ \}) = C \) and \( \text{thread}_{s}(\text{tid}) = \bot \) for all \( \text{tid} \in \text{TID} \) with \( \text{tid} \neq \{ \} \). Since \( C \) is strongly secure, we have \( \text{thread}_{s}(\{ \}) \cong_L \text{thread}_{s}(\{ \}) \). Hence, the proposition holds in the base case.

In the step case \( (\tau = \beta.\langle e \rangle) \), we have \( s_0 \overset{\beta}{\rightarrow} s' \overset{\langle e \rangle}{\rightarrow} s \) (for some state \( s' \in S^p \)). In order to apply Theorem E.3.5 and E.3.7, we define two auxiliary states.

Let \( t, t' \in S^p \) be states for which \( \text{inbuf}(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \) and \( \text{inbuf}(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \) hold for all \( \text{cid} \in \text{CID} \). Moreover, except for the value of \( \text{inbuf} \), the states \( t \) and \( t' \) shall be identical to \( s \) and \( s' \), respectively. In particular, we have \( t' \overset{\langle e \rangle}{\rightarrow} t \) (value of \( \text{inbuf} \) neither affects the possibility of local events nor is it affected by their occurrence), \( \text{initialized}(t) = \text{initialized}(t') = \top \), \( \text{atid}(t) \neq \bot \), \( \text{thread}(\text{atid}(t)) \notin \{ \bot, \top, \{ \} \} \), \( \text{initialized}(t) = \text{initialized}(t) = \top \), and \( \text{atid}(t) = \text{atid}(t') \). Note that if \( \text{pending}(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \) (or \( \text{pending}(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \)) then \( \text{channel}(t)(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \) (or \( \text{channel}(t')(\text{cid}) = \{ \} \),
respectively) holds. In particular, if \( e = \text{ite-revert}^P(cid, \ldots) \) then \( \text{channel}(t')(cid) = \langle \rangle \) holds 
\((\text{pending}_x(cid) = \langle \rangle) \) is implied by the preconclusion of \( e \).

From the induction assumption, we obtain that \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \) holds for all \( tid \in \text{TID} \) with \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \notin \{ -1, 0, 1 \} \). If \( e \notin E^P_{\text{local}} \) then the value of thread remains unchanged and the proposition follows directly. In the following, let us assume that \( e \in E^P_{\text{local}} \) holds. We distinguish two cases for \( e \):

e \neq \text{fork}(\ldots) \) Theorem E.3.5 and \( t' \xrightarrow{\sigma} t \) imply that \( \{ \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1), \text{mem}_{\sigma'}, \text{channel}(t') \} \rightarrow \{ \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1), \text{mem}_{\sigma'}, \text{channel}(t) \} \) holds. For all \( tid \in \text{TID} \) with \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \notin \{ -1, 0, 1 \} \), we have \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \) because \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \) (by induction assumption) and \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'} = \text{thread}_{\sigma'} \). Unwinding the definition of low bisimulation (cf. Definition 7.2.7) for \( \equiv_L \) (a strong low-bisimulation is also a low bisimulation) yields that there are \( C', \text{mem}', \) and \( \sigma' \) such that \( \{ \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1), \text{mem}_{\sigma'}, \text{channel}(t') \} \rightarrow \{ C', \text{mem}', \sigma' \} \) and \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \equiv_L C' \) hold. Since \( \rightarrow \) -transitions are deterministic, we also have \( C' = \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \). Consequently, \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \) holds. Together with \( \text{thread}_0 = \text{thread}_{\sigma'} \), this implies that \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) \) holds. For all \( tid \in \text{TID} \) with \( tid \neq \text{atid}_a \), we have \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) = \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \) and, hence, if \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \notin \{ -1, 0, 1 \} \) then \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \) holds (follows from \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \equiv_L \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(tid) \)). We also have \( \text{thread}_{\sigma'}(atid_1) = T \).

\[ E.5 \] Differences to Prior Versions of the Case Study

In Section 7.7, we have explained the main differences between the second version of our case study and the version in Chapter 7. The remaining differences are due to a slightly different focus in the two versions.

In [MS03a], the main goal was to find an information flow property that precisely corresponds to strong security (i.e., having a completeness result in addition to the soundness result). In Chapter 7, the main goal was to illustrate the identification of security requirements, their specification by an information flow property, and the verification of this property (soundness). Completeness was not so much an issue. This resulted in a minor difference of the security predicates used in the definitions of \( IFP^P \) (or \( IFP^P \)) and \( SecProp \). While \( BSIA^P \)
is used in the definition of $IFP^p$, $BSI$ is used in the definition of $SecProp$, instead. Thus, the property $SecProp$ is slightly stronger than $IFP^p$ (recall the ordering of these BSPs from Theorem 3.5,12). More precisely, $SecProp$ requires that $setvar$-events on high variables can be inserted at every point of a trace ($BSI$) rather than only at points before a $start$-event has occurred ($BSIA^p$). This difference in the security predicate was essential to arrive at a completeness result in [MS03a]. However, demanding that $setvar$-events can be inserted at every point of a trace does not comply with our specification of DMWL processes (or DMWL process pools) according to Definition 7.3.3 (or Definition 7.3.8, respectively). This is because, according to our system specification, $setvar$-events are only enabled before the initialization phase has been completed (modeled by the occurrence of a $start$-event), which models that the variables of a DMWL process can only be set by the environment before program execution begins. After program execution begins, the value of variables can only be changed by the program. The system specification in [MS03a] necessarily differs in this respect from the one in Chapter 7 because that specification satisfies $SecProp$ (and, hence, also $BSI$). That is, in [MS03a], there is no notion of an initialization phase (no $start$-events) and $setvar$-events are always enabled.

In general, changes to the system specification (even if they appear minor at first sight) can have severe consequences. In particular, this is true when the set of possible traces differ. Since the system specifications in [MS03a] and in Chapter 7 yield different sets of possible traces, it might appear somewhat strange that both specifications are adequate models of DMWL programs. Nevertheless, we have presented adequateness theorems for our specification in Chapter 7 (in Appendix E.3.2) and similar adequateness theorems have been proved for the specification of DMWL processes in [MS03a]. The reason why this is possible is that the initialization phase ($setvar$-events and $start$-events) is not considered in the adequateness theorems and this is the only aspect in which the two system specifications differ. What is an adequate model of the initialization for DMWL (or MWL) is hard to say because the initialization of variables is not part of the language definition. In Chapter 7, we have tried to stick more closely to the intuitive meaning of "initialization" in our specification by permitting changes to the value of variables by the environment only before program execution begins. In [MS03a], we have taken more freedom in our interpretation and have permitted changes to variables by the environment at any point of time. Both system specifications are sensible in our opinion. They constitute two ends of a spectrum of possible interpretations of the initialization of variables in DMWL (MWL). Moreover, the resulting versions of the case study are complementary in the sense that they illuminate different aspects of the strong security condition. The version in [MS03a] focuses on what the information flow property is that corresponds precisely to strong security (providing a basis for comparisons with other security definitions in MAKS). The version in Chapter 7, shows that strong security also results in a sensible degree of security if one assumes a rigorous interpretation of the initialization phase.