

Research Report

Vertical Protocol Composition (Extended Version)

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Vertical Protocol Composition (Extended Version)

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Abstract—The security of key exchange and secure channel protocols, such as TLS, has been studied intensively. However, only few works have considered what happens when the established keys are actually *used*—to run some protocol securely over the established “channel”. We call this a vertical protocol composition, and it is truly commonplace in today’s communication with the diversity of VPNs and secure browser sessions. In fact, it is normal that we have several layers of secure channels: For instance, on top of a VPN-connection, a browser may establish another secure channel (possibly with a different end point). Even using the same protocol several times in such a stack of channels is not unusual: An application may very well establish another TLS channel over an established one. We call this self-composition. In fact, there is nothing that tells us that all these compositions are sound, i.e., that the combination cannot introduce attacks that the individual protocols in isolation do not have.

In this work, we prove a composability result in the symbolic model that allows for arbitrary vertical composition (including self-composition). It holds for protocols from any suite of channel and application protocols that fulfills a number of sufficient preconditions. These preconditions are satisfied for many practically relevant protocols such as TLS.

I. INTRODUCTION

Security protocols, such as key establishment, secure channels and VPNs, are a cornerstone of security on the Internet. Establishing the security of a protocol is challenging, not only because of its intrinsic complexity, but also because of its interactions with arbitrary, sometimes adversarial, environments. Even though composition of security protocols to higher-level protocols is common for most environments, its rigorous security analysis is still a major research problem.

Formal methods and automated deduction helped security protocol analysis. Both automated detection of flaws [1], [2] and proofs of security [3] were achieved. Automated analysis of security protocols is a hard problem in terms of undecidability of general insecurity [4] and NP-completeness of secrecy and authentication property checking for a bounded number of sessions [5]. Because of the computational complexity of the problems, researchers were often restricted to studying small problems. Still, several tools have been developed for security analysis [6], [2], [7] and successfully applied to the analysis of a plethora of security protocols.

However, in most cases the formal analyses only consider the protocol in isolation, while the actual deployment is within an environment of other protocols that might interfere with it. Directly analyzing such a system that is composed of many protocols is hardly feasible for several reasons. First, the verification methods often do not scale to the complexity of such a composed system. Second, there may be a large or even infinite number of ways to compose them, and this variety cannot directly be checked by automated verification. Third, if just one protocol of the composition is slightly changed, it is not sufficient to verify only this changed protocol again, but one has to verify the entire composition from scratch. For these reasons, it is desirable to have a modular *compositional result* (also called *composability*) of the following form: given a suite of protocols that satisfy a certain sufficient condition and that are secure in isolation, then any way to compose them is a secure system, as well. Given that the sufficient conditions on the protocols are easy to check (statically), it is sufficient to verify protocols individually with formal methods.

Several works have considered the *parallel composition* of security protocols, i.e., when different protocols are deployed over the same communication medium (and possibly using the same key-infrastructures) [8], [9]. The potential problem here is that, although the protocols may be secure in isolation, their use in parallel may allow for attacks. This may happen in particular when they have similar message formats, so that an intruder can re-use a message (or message part) from one protocol in another protocol. To achieve compositionality along these ideas, protocols must have disjoint message format, even on (non-atomic) subterms. This condition can be checked statically.

In *sequential composition*, an output of one protocol is used as input for another, such as the session key output of a key exchange protocol being used as input for a secure channel protocol. Datta et. al. [8] have analyzed the sequential and parallel composition of protocols by composing processes, yet without considering keys. Ciobâcă and Cortier [10] analyze such compositions under consideration of shared data and employ disjointness principles introduced by Guttman and Thayer [11] to obtain a generic theorem for parallel and sequential composition.

Our focus here is *vertical composition*, which is a common phenomenon on the layered Internet. In this case, a client executes a protocol on top of another protocol, e.g., an application protocol over a secure channel established by TLS [12]. As in previous cases, such a composition can lead to attacks in general, even if the individual protocols are all secure in isolation. Mödersheim and Viganò [13] give a first vertical composition result; however, it is limited to one transmitted message of the application protocol over the established channel and the sufficient condition is semantical (i.e., cannot be checked statically). Moreover, it does not allow for several compositions, e.g., establishing a secure channel on top of another channel.

The stacking of several protocols on top of each other is for instance introduced by the vast deployment of VPNs and secure channels established by browsers. It is common in such protocol stacks that several layers are established by same protocols, e.g., a TLS channel on top of another TLS channel. In fact, the interest of the authors in vertical (self-)composition was raised by a practical attack on a deployment of two TLS channels on top of another [14], [15]. An intruder establishes an unauthenticated channel with the server and forwards an honest client's channel establishment through his channel. When the client engages in a TLS Key Renegotiation to establish client authentication, the client's credentials are attributed to the intruder's channel. Therefore, the attack turned out to be a mis-association of the commands transmitted over the channels during the TLS Key Renegotiation (and would thus work with other channel protocols analogously). Even though the attack was not a fault of TLS itself or its stacking in this case, it raised the question whether vertical composition is secure, in general.

In fact, vertical composition is a composition class widely used in practice, for which we do not have sufficient compositionality results. To put it another way: we have a large system that is composed of many small parts, each of which has been analyzed extremely well with greatest possible rigor, but so far nothing allows us to conclude that a major way to put these parts together is actually secure. Our work supplies such a compositionality result for a large class of protocols.

A. The Ideas of the Paper

It is easy to craft an example of a secure channel protocol P that is secure in isolation, but will break when it is self-composed, i.e., when we run P on top of P itself. Along those lines, we will demonstrate in §II that vertical protocol composition can introduce attacks into a secure system.

This paper establishes reasonable compositionality preconditions on protocols (that P does not fulfill but,

Channel protocol dh :

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow B &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_A}, [dh, B, \text{exp}(g, X)]) \\ B \rightarrow A &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_B}, [dh, A, \text{exp}(g, Y)]) \\ A \rightarrow B &: \text{sCrypt}(h(\text{exp}(\text{exp}(g, X), Y), 0), \text{keyack}) \\ KA &:= h([\text{exp}(\text{exp}(g, X), Y), 0]) \\ KB &:= h([\text{exp}(\text{exp}(g, X), Y), 1]) \end{aligned}$$

Concrete application ca :

$$A \rightarrow B : \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])$$

Embed composition $ca(dh)_E$:

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow B &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_A}, [dh, B, \text{exp}(g, X)]) \\ B \rightarrow A &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_B}, [dh, A, \text{exp}(g, Y)]) \\ KA &:= \dots, KB := \dots \\ A \rightarrow B &: \text{sCrypt}(KA, \text{keyack}) \\ A \rightarrow B &: \text{sCrypt}(KA, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])) \end{aligned}$$

Abstract application aa :

$$A \bullet \rightarrow \bullet B : [aa, M]$$

Realize composition $aa[dh]_R$:

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow B &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_A}, [dh, B, \text{exp}(g, X)]) \\ B \rightarrow A &: \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_B}, [dh, A, \text{exp}(g, Y)]) \\ KA &:= \dots, KB := \dots \\ A \rightarrow B &: \text{sCrypt}(KA, \text{keyack}) \\ A \rightarrow B &: \text{sCrypt}(KA, [aa, M]) \end{aligned}$$

Figure 1. A collection of example protocols for composition.

for instance, TLS does); under these preconditions it is indeed possible to safely compose arbitrary stacks of channels from compliant protocols. In contrast to previous compositionality results, we allow that several layers in such a stack may be established by the same protocol (e.g., several layers of TLS-channels) as well as an arbitrary depth of the stacking. Previous compositionality approaches usable for vertical composition, such as [10], [13], require disjointness between the protocols of the different layers and, thus, cannot allow the same channel protocol to be used more than once in a vertical protocol stack. Therefore, in these previous results, also the size of the stack is bounded by the number of available channel protocols.

It may seem surprising at first that our result builds upon existing compositionality results that require disjointness. We start from a set of *atomic* protocols \mathcal{P} (containing for instance TLS) and will assume that the protocols in \mathcal{P} are indeed pairwise disjoint, so they can be safely deployed in parallel. The ideas to achieve compositionality results for the vertical composition, i.e., running possibly non-disjoint protocols on top of another, are laid out subsequently. First,

we distinguish three kinds of atomic protocols: the *channel protocols*, the *concrete application protocols*, and the *abstract application protocols*. In this report, we distinguish three kinds of atomic protocols: the *channel protocols*, the *concrete application protocols*, and the *abstract application protocols*.

A channel protocol is a key exchange protocol between two parties A and B that establishes two symmetric keys, one for protecting messages from A to B and one for messages from B to A .

Example 1. An example is protocol dh in Fig. I. Here, crypt represents asymmetric encryption or signing (when the key used to prepare it is a private key, denoted by inv). scrypt denotes a symmetric encryption primitive that should provide not only confidentiality, but also integrity (e.g., by MAC-ing). Further, h is a cryptographic hash function and exp the modular exponentiation, for which we assume the algebraic property $\text{exp}(\text{exp}(g, X), Y) \approx \text{exp}(\text{exp}(g, Y), X)$. The variables X and Y are nonces freshly created by A and B , respectively. (We describe the details of the message model in §III) Both agents derive two symmetric keys: KA for messages from A to B and KB for the opposite direction.

In general, we require that the channel protocol is designed such that both parties contribute some fresh nonce to each of the keys and these nonces are not used anywhere else. This is a common method in robust key exchange design.

An application protocol is basically any protocol that may be run over a channel—including the channel protocols themselves. We distinguish two kinds of application protocols: *abstract* and *concrete* ones. The abstract ones focus on some high-level task and rely on the assumption that their messages are exchanged over a secure channel, but leave it abstract how that channel is implemented; SMTP is an example. This gives rise to the so-called *realize-composition* where the assumed channel of the abstract application is implemented by a concrete protocol. In contrast, a concrete application protocol already incorporates all the needed security mechanisms—i.e., we require that these protocols alone are already secure. For instance the protocol ca in Fig. I only insures confidentiality of message M but not integrity/authentication. The *embed composition* means running a concrete application protocol over a secure channel. This is what any form of VPN or secure layer protocol does: embedding the application protocols into a secure shell that the application is not aware of. In our concrete application ca this could be either to additionally ensure integrity of messages, or simply as a redundant layer of security that—hopefully—does not hurt the application.

We consider two kinds of application protocols. One kind, the *abstract application protocols* focus on some high-level task and rely on the assumption

that their messages are exchanged over a secure channel, but leave it abstract how that channel is implemented; SMTP is an example. The second kind, *concrete application protocols* already have the secure channel implemented (or do not need it); SMTP over TLS is an example. This gives rise to two vertical composition types: (a) *realize-composition*: implementing the assumed channel of an abstract application protocol by one of the channel protocols (turning it into a concrete application protocol) and (b) *embed-composition*: running a concrete application protocol over some channel. The latter composition is not necessary to provide the security of the concrete application protocol, but may be the result of stacking several security layers—it is to show that the additional layer does not hurt.

We summarize embed and realize composition under the term *vertical composition*.

We focus in the main part of this report on this latter kind of embed composition and concrete application protocols, and treat abstract application protocols and corresponding realize composition in the appendices.

Given the set \mathcal{P} of pairwise disjoint atomic protocols, \mathcal{C} denotes the set of all their syntactically possible vertical and parallel compositions, including the parallel composition of applications over an arbitrary deep stack of channel protocols. The main result is that *every* composition in \mathcal{C} is secure. The key is a requirement on the protocols of \mathcal{P} , introduced in Def. 6 in §VI-B similar to existing notions of *disjointness*. It is so central to our paper that we describe it precisely at this point already. For every protocol P we consider the set of message patterns that describe the sending and receiving of messages by honest agents, $MP(P)$. We then consider the set $EST(P)$ that contains for every message M also $\text{scrypt}(K, M)$ for a new variable K (and everything modulo α -renaming); this represents the set of all message patterns with symmetric encryptions, when messages of P can be sent over an arbitrary deep stack of channels (i.e., one symmetric encryption layer per channel layer). Our disjointness notion of Def. 6 now requires (a) that every protocol $P \in \mathcal{P}$ is “disjoint from its own encryptions”, i.e., messages of different encryption/channel layers cannot be confused, and (b) the message patterns with encryption $EST(P_1)$ and $EST(P_2)$ of two distinct protocols $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{P}$ are also disjoint. Roughly, this means for a given message M that can be sent or received by an honest agent in any composition $C \in \mathcal{C}$, we can tell a unique application protocol $P \in \mathcal{P}$ to which the message belongs, and derive the depth of the stack of channels, over which it was transmitted. By the fact that channel keys are composed in a certain way that is disjoint for distinct channel protocols (again by Def. 6), we can uniquely determine the channel protocols used.

Thanks to this construction, we can then show the soundness of arbitrary stacks of protocols, including self-compositions like “TLS over TLS”.

B. Contributions

The main result of this paper is a generic vertical composition theorem: for every pairwise disjoint protocol suite \mathcal{P} of protocols that satisfies a number of conditions, if arbitrarily deep encryption produces no collisions, *every* vertical and parallel composition that can be formed with protocols of \mathcal{P} is secure. This result includes arbitrary deep stacking of channels, even with the same protocol. Moreover, all these vertical compositions can be deployed in parallel. This provides both new theoretical insights and has many practical applications. On the theoretical side, we show that we can use existing results on parallel composition as a basis for the vertical compositionality result. While we exploit existing results that are based on disjointness of protocols, we can still allow for vertical self-composition, such as TLS over TLS. The reason that this is possible lies in the requirements on protocols suite \mathcal{P} —notably the disjointness of a protocol from its encryption and pairwise disjointness of \mathcal{P} as well as a classification into channel, concrete and abstract application protocols—that allow us to attribute each message and message part to a unique context (i.e., atomic protocol and encryption layers).

On the practical side, the result can immediately be applied to the widely used protocols for establishing secure channels and VPNs such as TLS and IKE/IPSec, as well as the common (non-cryptographic) application protocols like SMTP. Indeed, it is common practice to run applications over several layers of channels (and in fact the point of a virtual network is that such layering is indeed possible). We provide a soundness result given that the set of protocols considered satisfies a number of preconditions. These preconditions are realistic and good practice: Indeed, this work was carried out with the main examples TLS and IPSec/IKE in mind and we have entirely avoided any precondition that would not be satisfied by these protocols.¹

Our composition theorem is also generic in the sense that it allows for arbitrary state-based safety properties over auxiliary predicates and positive intruder knowledge. The theorem therefore covers a large class of trace properties, where authentication is only one example.

C. Outline

§II gives an example of failing self-composition and motivates the restrictions and conditions we make in the following sections. §III introduces our protocol

¹Kerberos is the only major example that does not satisfy the preconditions (because each new session key is generated by the respective server alone without user interaction).

and intruder model, based on the Intermediate Format IF. §IV defines the classes of protocols that we work with in this paper. §V introduces the different kinds of compositions that we consider and the notion of protocol types. §VI contains key concepts for typing and disjointness; the preconditions in this section allow us to derive an important intermediate result, namely that in our compositions all messages can be attributed to a unique protocol type. §VII contains the main result that all compositions of the protocol suites we consider are secure, and how this can be derived from several theorems that are proved in the appendices. Appendix A sketches some typing and disjointness results that can be used to fulfill the preconditions of our result. Appendix B presents the main result a calculus compositions, proving the soundness of each composition rule.

II. EXAMPLE PROTOCOL FAILING UNDER SELF-COMPOSITION

Before we proceed with the formal details of protocol model and composition, we illustrate in this section why vertical composition, and in particular self-composition, is tricky. To that end, we introduce an artificial toy protocol that is secure in isolation, but breaks under self-composition. This protocol violates several guidelines of good protocol design, and we can use it to motivate several of the preconditions of our compositionality result that rule out such bad protocols.

The protocol U (for “uncomposable”) is a channel protocol that performs a two step handshake between parties A and B . It relies on pre-existing shared keys $\text{sk}_{(A,B)}$ and $\text{sk}_{(B,A)}$ (for the two directions) and in fact it does not establish new keys, but just acknowledges that these keys will be used and introduces a fresh nonce that is used as a session/channel identifier:

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow B &: \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [A, B, \text{sk}_{(A,B)}]) \\ B \rightarrow A &: \text{sCrypt}(\text{sk}_{(B,A)}, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_A, [B, A, N])) \end{aligned}$$

After this handshake, every transmission of a message M from A to B has the form

$$A \rightarrow B : [N, \text{sCrypt}(\text{sk}_{(A,B)}, M)]$$

where the fresh nonce N is used to identify the session/channel before decryption (transmissions from B to A are analogous). As goals, we assume the secrecy of the shared keys $\text{sk}_{(A,B)}$ and $\text{sk}_{(B,A)}$.

The handshake alone is a secure protocol, and even transmitting several “harmless” payloads in place of message M such as freshly generated nonces is fine. However, if we allow to run U itself as payload messages over the established channel, i.e., self-

composition, then the following attack can happen:

$a \rightarrow b : \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_b, [a, b, \text{sk}_{(a,b)}])$
 Step 1 of plain U

$b \rightarrow a : \text{srypt}(\text{sk}_{(b,a)}, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_a, [b, a, n]))$
 Step 2 of plain U , n some fresh new constant

$a \rightarrow b(i) : [n, \text{srypt}(\text{sk}_{(a,b)}, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_b, [a, b, \text{sk}_{(a,b)}]))]$
 Step 1 of U over the established channel; intercepted by intruder, session dies.

$b \rightarrow a(i) : \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_a, b, a, \text{sk}_{(b,a)})$
 Step 1 of plain U , initiated by b ; intercepted by intruder

$a(i) \rightarrow b : \text{srypt}(\text{sk}_{(a,b)}, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_b, [a, b, \text{sk}_{(a,b)}]))$
 replay of intercepted message from a , received by b as Step 2 of plain U , mistaking $\text{sk}_{(a,b)}$ as session ID

$b \rightarrow a(i) : [\text{sk}_{(a,b)}, \text{srypt}(\text{sk}_{(a,b)}, \dots)]$
 b sends some payload, intruder learns the shared key.

Note that one can think of many other application protocols (besides U itself) that can break the security of U —basically any payload message that uses triples could be harmful here. In fact, this example shows that it is not trivial to give conditions that prevent interferences with an arbitrary payload protocol.

Here are some conditions that we require for channel protocols and that are violated by U . First, we require that a channel protocol must freshly generate keys, and both parties must contribute to these keys. The freshly established keys must only be used for a single channel and not be transmitted as payload part of a message (but only be used to encrypt messages).

Second, messages that have different meaning *must* have different format, so they cannot be confused. This is actually satisfied for the handshake alone. When we consider however the transmission over the channel, we see that transmitting the first message of U over the channel produces a message that can be unified with the second message of U . This motivates our extension of the standard disjointness conditions: message formats should be additionally disjoint from their symmetric encryptions (consider Def. 6 for the details). In the given example, this could be achieved by inserting a tag into the body of the symmetric encryption of Step 2, which rules out the above attack already:

$A \rightarrow B : \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [A, B, \text{sk}_{(A,B)}])$
 $B \rightarrow A : \text{srypt}(\text{sk}_{(B,A)}, [\text{tag}, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_A, [B, A, N])])$

We conclude this discussion with the remark that we cannot show that any of the requirements we make are necessary, but they are sufficient and, in our opinion, part of good protocol design.

III. THE PROTOCOL MODEL

We introduce our model of protocols, messages, and the intruder behavior; this is the basis for a precise definition (a) of the classes of protocols that we reason about and (b) of the particular forms of protocol composition that we consider. We formalize protocols and their goals in the AVISPA Intermediate Format IF which we introduce along the way; for a detailed definition see [16].

A. Message Terms

As usual in the black-box cryptography models of security protocols, protocol *messages* (or *terms*) are represented in a term algebra over a signature Σ and variables \mathcal{V} . Both Σ and \mathcal{V} are alphanumeric identifiers in IF, where symbols of Σ must begin with a lower-case letter, and those of \mathcal{V} with an upper-case letter (so Σ and \mathcal{V} are disjoint, and both are countable). We will set all IF identifiers in **sans-serif**, in particular to distinguish IF-variables from meta-variables of our argumentation (such as m or M). Σ consists of a denumerable set of constant symbols representing agent names (where i is the intruder), numbers, atomic keys etc.

Σ contains only a fixed set of function symbols representing operations on messages. In this paper, we work with the following symbols:

- $\text{srypt}(k, m)$ denotes the symmetric encryption of message m with symmetric key k . As it is standard in abstract term models, $\text{srypt}(\cdot, \cdot)$ does not denote a pure symmetric cipher (that only ensures confidentiality) but also includes mechanisms for ensuring integrity (such as a message authentication code). It is also possible to include other aspects of message transmission as part of this primitive, such as timestamps or sequence numbers (that our model abstracts from).
- $\text{crypt}(pk, m)$ denotes the asymmetric encryption of message m with public key pk . $\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk}, m)$ denotes the signature of message m with secret key inv_{pk} .
- a cryptographic hash function h ,
- $\text{exp}(B, E)$ as the modular exponentiation (omitting the modulus) for Diffie-Hellman, and
- the concatenation $[m_1, \dots, m_n]$ of messages m_i .²

Σ also contains a fixed set of function symbols that do not represent operations on messages, but denote mappings of the model. For instance $\text{pk}(a)$ may denote the public key of agent a , and inv_{pk_a} the corresponding private key. These mappings of the

²We use concatenation thus with different arity without further notice. Observe that with this notion of concatenation, we exclude a number of low-level type-flaw attacks where messages of different length are confused due to poor structuring of concatenated messages.

model are indicated by writing their arguments as indices and we call terms built using these function symbols *dependent terms*. We consider all constants, variables, and dependent terms as *atomic terms*.

We assume a congruence relation \approx over terms to model algebraic properties defined by a set of equations, such as $\text{exp}(\text{exp}(B, X), Y) \approx \text{exp}(\text{exp}(B, Y), X)$ for Diffie-Hellman. We interpret terms in the *quotient algebra* $\mathcal{T}_\Sigma / \approx$ (i.e., two terms are interpreted as being different iff this is a consequence of the algebraic properties). We use the standard notions of terms such as ground, substitution, unifier etc. (see [17]).

B. Message types

We will use a particular way of typing terms; note that the original IF allows also for untyped specifications. We discuss the exclusion of type-flaw attacks below. All constants in IF have a type from the set of *basic types*:

{agent, nonce, symkey, pubkey, privkey, tag}

We write $t : \tau$ to denote that term t has type τ . Functions induce *composed types*, namely if $(t_1 : \tau_1), \dots, (t_n : \tau_n)$, then $f(t_1, \dots, t_n) : f(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$. For instance, a Diffie-Hellman key has the type $\text{exp}(\text{exp}(\text{nonce}, \text{nonce}), \text{nonce})$. We also require that all algebraic properties that we have are *type-correct*, i.e., left-hand side and right-hand side of every algebraic equation must have the same type. For instance we can have $\text{exp}(\text{exp}(B, X), Y) = \text{exp}(\text{exp}(B, Y), X)$ but not $\text{exp}(B, 1) = B$.

Variables can for now be either untyped, or have a basic or composed type. Variables of basic type can only be instantiated with constants or with dependent terms of the respective type. When variables have a type, then in any matching and unification, we only allow instantiations of variables with terms of the correct type as expected.

While thus all operations are injective functions on the type system, we consider the modeling functions as mapping into constants (e.g., $\text{pk} : \text{agent} \rightarrow \text{pubkey}$ and $\text{inv} : \text{pubkey} \rightarrow \text{privkey}$) so that ground dependent terms can be treated as constants (of a suitable type) and non-ground dependent terms can be treated as variables (of a suitable type).

C. Facts, States and Rules

We use a fixed number of *fact symbols* (disjoint from Σ and \mathcal{V}) that each have an arity. A *fact* has the form $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ where f is a fact symbol of arity n and the t_i are (message) terms. The most important facts that we will use are $\text{ik}(m)$ to express that the intruder knows message m , $\text{state}_{A:RID,PC}^{PID,TID}[M_1, \dots, M_n]$ to represent the local state of an honest agent, and $\text{net}_{(A,B)}(M)$ to denote that a message M has been sent on the insecure network; A is here the name of the (claimed) sender and B the intended recipient. Here PID represents

the protocol name, RID the role of that protocol, PC is the “program counter”, TID a thread identifier (to distinguish several parallel sessions that an agent takes place in), A is the name of the agent, and M_1, \dots, M_n are messages to represent the knowledge of the agent in that thread; note that the order of the messages does matter as this should be thought of being the fields of a record that is filled and modified during protocol execution. A further fact symbol is the nullary symbol *attack* that represents that we have an attack. We introduce further fact symbols below when we need them.

A state is a set of ground facts. An IF specification consists of an initial state and a finite set of *transition rules*, defining a transition relation on states. Transition rules have the form

$$PF.NF.C \stackrel{=[V]}{\Rightarrow} RF$$

where

- PF and RF are sets of facts, NF is a set of *negated facts* of the form $\text{not}(f)$ where f is a fact,
- C is a set of conditions, that is, inequalities on terms,
- V is a set of variables.

It must hold that $\text{vars}(RF) \subseteq \text{vars}(PF) \cup V$. For such a transition rule, we distinguish the left-hand side (LHS) defining the preceding state and the right-hand side (RHS) defining the result state. For the LHS, PF and NF define the preceding state with positive and negative facts that are matched against. The conditions C restrict the matching with inequalities over terms. The variables V are existentially quantified in the rule. For the RHS, RF defines the resulting facts, where the variables of RF must be a subset of the variables of the positive facts of the LHS PF (excluding the variables only occurring in negative facts and conditions) and the existentially quantified variables V .

The transition relation \rightarrow_R induced by the transition rules R is defined as follows: $S \rightarrow_R S'$ holds iff there is a rule $(PF.NF.C \stackrel{=[V]}{\Rightarrow} RF) \in R$ and a grounding substitution σ with domain $\text{vars}(PF) \cup V$, such that

- $PF\sigma \subseteq S$.
- For all substitutions χ that substitute the remaining variables of the rule it holds that
 - for every $\text{not}(f) \in NF$, $f\sigma\chi \notin S$.
 - for every $s \neq t \in C$, $s\sigma\chi \neq t\sigma\chi$.
- For each $v \in V$, $v\sigma$ is a fresh constant (that does not occur in S).
- $S' = (S \setminus PF\sigma) \cup RF\sigma$.

Example 2. As an example, let us consider the first transition rule of role bob (played by some agent B) in the example *dh* of Fig. 1, p. 2; the full IF

specification of the protocol is found in Fig. 2.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.1}^{dh.TID}[A].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_A}, [dh, B, GX])) \\ \Rightarrow [Y] & \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.2}^{dh.TID}[h(\text{exp}(GX, Y), 0), h(\text{exp}(GX, Y), 1), A] \\ & \text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_B}, [dh, A, \text{exp}(g, Y)])). \end{aligned}$$

This rule is read as follows. It can be applied to any state where an agent B playing bob is in the initial state of its protocol execution (expecting a message from agent A) and we have a message of the appropriate form on the network, apparently from A . This is done by pattern matching, i.e., all occurrences of the left-hand side variables must agree. In particular, the message must be signed with A 's private key inv_{pk_A} . Observe that B cannot check that the last component of that message indeed has the format $\text{exp}(g, X)$ for some X . Thus, we have here a variable GX that can be matched with any message. On the transition, B will create a fresh value Y (as indicated by the Y on the arrow) and send out an appropriate answer message. B will also store the newly derived keys KA and KB in his state, i.e., $h(\text{exp}(GX, Y), 0)$ and $h(\text{exp}(GX, Y), 1)$. We will later add some additional facts to the right-hand side, which will help us formulate *attack states* in a convenient way.

The following aspect is crucial: on the transition, the state-fact that had been matched on the LHS is being removed from the current state and the new state fact is introduced. In contrast, we define the net fact as being *persistent*, i.e., it remains on the state during all further transitions (so that messages can be received any number of times).

D. Intruder Deduction

We describe the intruder deduction by a protocol-independent set of rules that we assume to be present in all protocol descriptions (and will not list anymore later). These rules deal with *intruder knowledge* of messages, formalized by the persistent predicate ik . First, as it is standard, we model that the intruder controls the entire network:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ik}(A).\text{ik}(B).\text{ik}(M) & \Rightarrow \text{net}_{(A,B)}(M) \\ \text{net}_{(A,B)}(M) & \Rightarrow \text{ik}(A).\text{ik}(B).\text{ik}(M) \end{aligned}$$

The intruder deduction on messages is expressed by the following rules:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ik}(K).\text{ik}(M) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(\text{sCrypt}(K, M)) \\ \text{ik}(\text{sCrypt}(K, M)).\text{ik}(K) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(M) \\ \text{ik}(K).\text{ik}(M) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(\text{crypt}(K, M)) \\ \text{ik}(B).\text{ik}(X) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(\text{exp}(B, X)) \\ \text{ik}(\text{crypt}(K, M)).\text{ik}(\text{inv}_K) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(M) \\ \text{ik}(M_1).\dots.\text{ik}(M_n) & \rightarrow \text{ik}([M_1, \dots, M_n]) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \text{ik}([M_1, \dots, M_n]) & \rightarrow \text{ik}(M_1).\dots.\text{ik}(M_n) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \Rightarrow [N] & \Rightarrow \text{ik}(N) \end{aligned}$$

which formalize that the intruder can encrypt and decrypt messages whenever he has the appropriate keys; he can build exponents for Diffie-Hellman; he can construct and deconstruct tuples and he can freshly create nonces. Note that we have here an infinite set of rules, but this can be restricted to those n -tuples that are used in the concrete protocol.

We forbid that ik facts can occur negatively in a rule; this ensures that attacks grow monotonically with the intruder knowledge (if the intruder learns something, this cannot decrease the number of attacks). For simplicity, we assume in this work that all agents besides the intruder are honest (but IF can express of course other intruder models). Further, we assume that the initial state will contain the persistent fact $\text{agent}(a)$ and $\text{ik}(a)$ for every constant a of type agent .

E. Attacks and Security

State-based safety properties can be formalized by transition rules that by their left-hand side describe states that qualify as an attack and the right-hand side being simply attack.

For example, secrecy properties will be specified by using a new fact $\text{secret}(m, a)$ that expresses m is supposed to be a secret with agent a ; this fact will be appropriately generated on the right-hand side of a transition rule of an honest agent. We then specify—independent of the details of the protocol—the rule

$$\text{secret}(M, A).\text{ik}(M).(A \neq i) \Rightarrow \text{attack} \quad (1)$$

to express that it is considered as an attack if the intruder finds out a secret that is not meant for him.

An *attack state* is any state that contains the attack symbol. We say that an IF protocol is *secure* iff no attack state is reachable from the initial state using the transition relation.

IV. PROTOCOL CLASSES

Based on the protocol model of the preceding section, we define now three classes of protocols, namely channel protocols, concrete and abstract application protocols. We focus on concrete application protocols in the main part of this report and treat abstract application protocols in the appendices.

We write $\text{app}(A)$ if A belongs to the class of concrete application protocols and $\text{channel}(C)$ if C belongs to the class of channel protocols. Our composition results are based on these classes, i.e., we allow $A\langle C \rangle_E$ —running A over C —only for protocols with $\text{app}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$.

A. Concrete Application Protocols

IF allows for the specification of a huge class of protocols, and for many of them, our results may not hold. We thus define appropriate subclasses of protocols that have properties suitable for composition. The first class are concrete application protocols

that may either be running directly over the insecure network or over the secure channels that we establish. These protocols shall already be protected sufficiently against the insecure network. The point is just that running them over a secure channel anyway should not hurt. An example would be a TLS-secured web-application that we may run directly over the network or over some VPN (that adds for this application a redundant layer of protection). Intuitively, we make the following restrictions on concrete application protocols:

- The initialization depends only on a number of agents that play the various other roles.
- Each thread of an honest agent is described by exactly one state fact and has an incoming and outgoing message in the intruder knowledge on each transition. This excludes multi-threaded applications and synchronous communication between agents.
- Except for the concrete message format sent or received, we ensure that the protocol description, including the formulation of its goals, is oblivious to whether it is running directly on an insecure channel or rather routed over some secure channel. In particular, we must prevent that goals are formulated using state facts, because they will be slightly changed in composed protocols.
- As said before, we have restricted ourselves to two party protocols and we want to assume that the names of the roles are alice and bob (i.e., the role IDs in transitions) and that A and B are the variables that hold the respective agent names in the transition rules of honest agents.³

An *initialization rule* has the form

$$\text{agent}(A_1).\text{agent}(A_2) \Rightarrow [TID] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A_1:\text{rid},pc}^{\text{pid},TID}[A_2]$$

where either

- $A_1 = A$, $\text{rid} = \text{alice}$, $A_2 = B$, or
- $A_1 = B$, $\text{rid} = \text{bob}$, $A_2 = A$.

Recall that identifiers in *italics* are meta-variables and identifiers in **sans-serif** are IF variables. This rule creates a new thread for agent A_1 playing in role *rid* of protocol *pid* (beginning at step *pc*), who would like to communicate with agent A_2 (to play role bob). This creates a fresh thread identifier TID and thereby induces an unbounded number of sessions between all combinations of agents. In particular, the intruder can be a normal participant of every role.

A *concrete application protocol transition rule* has the form

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{state}_{A:RID,PC}^{PID,TID}[Msgs].\text{net}_{(B,A)}(\text{inMsg}) \\ & \Rightarrow [V] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:RID,PC'}^{PID,TID}[Msgs'] \\ & \text{net}_{(A,B')}(\text{outMsg}).gfacts \end{aligned}$$

³This does *not* a priori exclude that there can be confusions between agents about their communication partners.

where we have either

- $A = A$, $B = B$, $RID = \text{alice}$ or
- $A = B$, $B = A$, $RID = \text{bob}$.

Moreover, B must be a variable of both lists $Msgs$ and $Msgs'$. Finally, we have the *goal facts* $gfacts$ such as the above introduced secret. For the LHS, $setco$ is a list of positive and negative conditions. They have the form $m \in set$ or $m \notin set$ where m is a message term and set is a constant. This constant set , in turn, denotes a database (set) of messages (e.g., one that some agent maintains). For the RHS, $setco'$ is similarly a list of conditions, but only positive ones, i.e., $m \in set$.

An *concrete application protocol* is now defined by a set of initialization rules, a set of protocol transition rules and a set of attack rules, for which we forbid the inclusion of state facts.

Example 3. As an example, the concrete application protocol ca from Fig. I, p. 2, looks as follows in IF.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [TID] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:\text{alice},1}^{ca,TID}[B] \\ \hline \text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [TID] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob},1}^{ca,TID}[A] \\ \hline \text{state}_{A:\text{alice},1}^{ca,TID}[B] \Rightarrow [M] \Rightarrow \\ \text{state}_{A:\text{alice},2}^{ca,TID}[B, M].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])).\text{secret}(B, M) \\ \hline \text{state}_{B:\text{bob},1}^{ca,TID}[A].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])) \\ \Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob},2}^{ca,TID}[A, M].\text{secret}(A, M) \end{array}$$

Here, we declare the transmitted nonce M as a secret, using the Rule (1) in §III-E.

B. Abstract Application Protocols

A generalization of concrete application protocols are *abstract application protocols* which may not yet be secured against an insecure network and require to be run over a secure channel to satisfy their goals. They are like concrete application protocols instead that for incoming and outgoing messages we allow for a special fact that represents an abstract secure channel. Examples can be any unprotected web-application. We model the secure channels using the *persistent* fact secCh suggested by Mödersheim and Viganò [13]:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{state}_{A:RID,PC}^{PID,TID}[Msgs].\text{secCh}_{(B,A)}(\text{inMsg}).setco \\ & \Rightarrow [V] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:RID,PC'}^{PID,TID}[Msgs'] \\ & \text{secCh}_{(A,B)}(\text{outMsg}).setco'.gfacts \end{aligned}$$

Where we have either

- $A = A$, $B = B$, $RID = \text{alice}$ or
- $A = B$, $B = A$, $RID = \text{bob}$.

Moreover, B must be an element of both list $Msgs$ and $Msgs'$.

Thus, A is the name of the agent performing this transition (i.e., receiver of the LHS message and sender of the RHS message) and B is the communication partner.

We characterize the abstract secure channels by the two intruder rules:

$$\begin{aligned} ik(B).ik(M) &\Rightarrow \text{secCh}_{(i,B)}(M) \\ \text{secCh}_{(A,i)}(M) &\Rightarrow ik(M) \end{aligned}$$

i.e., the intruder can securely send messages under his real name to any agent (but not fake other names; i.e., the channel is authenticated) and he can read messages addressed to him (but not read messages addressed to other people; i.e., the channel is confidential).⁴

We remark that every concrete application protocol also belongs to the class of abstract application protocols. This is because we allow the concrete application protocol rule to use abstract channels modeled by the `secCh` fact.

Example 4. The abstract application protocol `aa` from Fig. I, p. 2, looks as follows in IF (again with a secrecy goal on `M`):

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [\text{TID}] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.1}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[B] \\ \hline \text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [\text{TID}] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.1}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[A] \\ \hline \text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.1}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[B] \\ \Rightarrow [M] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.2}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[B, M].\text{secCh}_{(A,B)}([aa, M]).\text{secret}(B, M) \\ \hline \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.1}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[A].\text{secCh}_{(A,B)}([aa, M]) \\ \Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.2}^{\text{aa},\text{TID}}[A, M].\text{secret}(B, M) \end{array}$$

C. Channel Protocols

We now define a third class that is a special case of concrete application protocols, namely channel protocols (or also called key-exchange protocols). The task of such a protocol is to establish two secure shared keys between two parties alice and bob, one for encrypting messages from alice to bob and the other for messages from bob to alice. Given that the keys are indeed authenticated, confidential, and fresh, this establishes a secure channel between the two parties over which other concrete application protocols can be run, namely encrypting messages with the appropriate symmetric key. Examples of such protocols are TLS or the various versions of IPSec/IKE. Informally, the restrictions we make are as follows:

- The protocols establish a pair of shared keys between two parties (one key for each communication direction). Honest parties must contribute something fresh to each of them (the intruder does of course whatever he likes, when playing any of the roles).
- This key is secure (i.e., authenticated and confidential).
- The key-exchange is isolated from other protocols, i.e., it does not depend on shared knowledge with other sessions (except for long-term

⁴As we work in the symbolic model we naturally exclude that an intruder may learn the length of messages.

keys, modeled as dependent terms) and cannot “leak” information to them (i.e., freshly created nonces here are not used elsewhere).

Formally, a concrete application protocol is a *key-exchange protocol*, iff the following additional conditions are met:

- The *PC* for each rule is increasing in each transition rule, so there is a largest PC, or final state of the key-exchange.
- In the final state of *Alice*, we require the following conditions:
 - (1) The first two terms in the message list of the final local state of alice represent the established symmetric keys; let us call these terms *KA* and *KB*.
 - (2) In some transition rule, Alice creates a fresh value *V* (and keeps it in one message field of her local state); *V* occurs in both *KA* and *KB*. We require that *V* cannot be deduced from *KA* or *KB*.
 - (3) In the rule where Alice creates *V*, we have the secrecy fact `secret(V, B)` (for *B* being the name of the agent playing role bob) and thereby require that *V* cannot be known by the intruder unless *B = i*.
 - (4) In the first transition of alice where the value of the keys *KA* and *KB* is determined, she issues the event `candidate(A, B, KA, KB)`
 - (5) In the transition to the final state of alice, she issues the event `agreed(A, B, KA, KB)`
 All these requirements similarly must hold for role bob, *mutatis mutandis*.
- The security goals are fixed to be the following secrecy and authentication goals of the exchanged keys defined using the `agreed` and `candidate` facts: (1) The authentication of the keys is violated when there is an `agreed` event without a matching `candidate` event.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{agreed}(A, B, KA, KB). \\ &\text{not}(\text{candidate}(B, A, KB, KA)).A \neq i.B \neq i \\ &\Rightarrow \text{attack} \end{aligned}$$

We do not require anything about freshness here, because this is implicit in the construction by the requirement that both agent must contribute fresh random numbers to the key. (2) The secrecy of a key is violated if an honest *A* thinks to share a key with an honest *B* (or vice versa) and the intruder finds out the key:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{agreed}(A, B, KA, KB).ik(KA).A \neq i.B \neq i \\ &\Rightarrow \text{attack} \end{aligned}$$

Honest users issue the events as follows: Whenever a principal has determined the session keys in his view, it issues a `candidate` event with the keys’ context (own agent name, partner agent name, own

session key, partner session key). Once, a principal acknowledges session keys as validated in his respective view, it issues an agreed event with the same context. A (candidate, agreed)-pair with matching context constitutes a successful key agreement in the principal's view. This mechanism allows us to check for matching conversations in the analysis trace and is similar to the matching conversations paradigm by Bellare and Rogaway [18], [19] as well as the non-injective agreement by Lowe [20].

Example 5. In Figure 2, we outline the IF formalization of the Diffie-Hellman-based key exchange from Fig. I, p. 2. The first two rules are the initialization

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [\text{TID}] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.1}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{B}] \\
\hline
\text{agent}(A).\text{agent}(B) \Rightarrow [\text{TID}] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.1}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{A}] \\
\hline
\text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.1}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{B}] \\
\Rightarrow [X] \Rightarrow \text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.2}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{B}, X]. \\
\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_A}, [\text{dh}, \text{B}, \text{exp}(g, X)])) \\
\hline
\text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.1}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{A}].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_A}, [\text{dh}, \text{B}, \text{GX}])) \\
\Rightarrow [Y] \Rightarrow \text{KA} := h(\text{exp}(\text{GX}, Y), 0), \text{KB} := h(\text{exp}(\text{GX}, Y), 1) \\
\text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.2}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{KB}, \text{KA}, \text{A}]. \\
\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_B}, [\text{dh}, \text{A}, \text{exp}(g, Y)])). \\
\hline
\text{candidate}(\text{B}, \text{A}, \text{KB}, \text{KA}).\text{secret}(\text{A}, \text{KB}).\text{secret}(\text{A}, \text{KA}) \\
\hline
\text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.2}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{B}, X].\text{net}_{(B,A)}(\text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{pk_B}, [\text{dh}, \text{A}, \text{GY}])). \\
\Rightarrow \text{KA} := h(\text{exp}(\text{GY}, X), 0), \text{KB} := h(\text{exp}(\text{GY}, X), 1) \\
\text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.3}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{KA}, \text{KB}, \text{B}].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{sCrypt}(\text{KA}, \text{keyack})). \\
\text{candidate}(\text{A}, \text{B}, \text{KA}, \text{KB}).\text{agreed}(\text{A}, \text{B}, \text{KA}, \text{KB}). \\
\text{secret}(\text{B}, \text{KA}).\text{secret}(\text{B}, \text{KB}) \\
\hline
\text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.2}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{KA}, \text{KB}, \text{A}].\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{sCrypt}(\text{KA}, \text{keyack})) \\
\Rightarrow \text{state}_{B:\text{bob}.3}^{\text{dh}, \text{TID}}[\text{KA}, \text{KB}, \text{A}].\text{agreed}(\text{B}, \text{A}, \text{KB}, \text{KA})
\end{array}$$

Figure 2. IF formalization of the DH key exchange from Figure I.

rules. Rule 3 models alice' view on sending the first message, in which alice instantiates a fresh nonce X , computes $\text{exp}(g, X)$ and sends a signed message with that payload to B . Rule 4 models bob's view on receiving the first message and replying with the second message. First note that bob cannot check the structure of the received value (i.e., that it is of the form $\text{exp}(g, X)$ for some X). We thus have here a variable GX that can match every term. bob generates the fresh Y and can now derive the key terms KA and KB , where the Diffie-Hellman part is $\text{exp}(GX, Y)$. In fact, the $KA := \dots$ and $KB := \dots$ here is an abbreviating notation for readability: all further occurrences of these two variables in the rest of this rule shall be replaced accordingly. In addition, bob generates the goal facts `candidate()` and `secret()` for the derived keys as required to formulate the authentication and secrecy goals of the key exchange.

In Rule 5, alice similarly receives bob's half-key as GY and derives the keys analogously, issuing the `candidate()` and `secret()` facts for the goals. Since this is alice's last transition of the handshake, she also issues the `agreed()` fact that indicates that she now accepts the keys as agreed and can start sending and receiving messages encrypted with those keys. Finally in the last rule, bob receives the acknowledgment from alice and issues a corresponding `agreed()` fact as well.

V. PROTOCOL COMPOSITION

Based on the classes of protocols introduced in Section IV, we now introduce the protocol composition operations that can be applied to these classes. Recall that we denote with $\text{app}(A)$ that A belongs to the class of (concrete) application protocols, $\text{channel}(C)$ that C belong to the class of channel protocols, and $\text{sapp}(A)$ that A belongs to the class of abstract application protocols (which we discuss in the appendices).

We use the following notation for the different kinds of composition:

- A. $P_1 \parallel P_2$ for the *parallel composition* of P_1 and P_2 , i.e., the two protocols are run independently over an insecure network. (This is also called horizontal composition as opposed to vertical composition.) The classes of abstract application protocols and of concrete application protocols are both closed under parallel composition.
- B. $A\langle C \rangle_E$, for $\text{app}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$. We call this vertical composition *embed composition*. It means that we first establish shared keys using C and then run the concrete application protocol A , but where now every message is additionally encrypted with the symmetric key for the respective direction. The result is again a concrete application protocol, i.e., $\text{app}(A\langle C \rangle_E)$.
- C. $A[C]_R$, for $\text{sapp}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$. We call this vertical composition *realize composition*; we treat it in the appendices. Here, one first runs the protocol C to establish a pair of symmetric keys for secure communication. Afterwards, one runs A , but replaces the abstract secure channels by symmetric encryption with the respective keys for the communication direction. The result of this composition is a concrete application protocol, i.e., $\text{app}(A[C]_R)$.

The closure properties of the composition types (i.e., that the results are concrete application protocols, or abstract application protocols, respectively) are important for our construction: together with the composability results for each type of composition, we can build arbitrary complex compositions of the protocols we start with (if they satisfy the conditions of our composition theorems); so for instance we may run an appropriate concrete application over any

number of TLS layers. In general, we cannot run an abstract application protocol directly over a channel, i.e., $A\langle C \rangle_E$ for $\text{sapp}(A)$, because A may contain abstract secure channels that cannot be “routed” over a real channel; we always have to first implement the abstract channel by some channel protocol, i.e., $A[C]_R$, which can then be routed over other channels.

Precondition 1. *From now on, we expect that we are given a finite set \mathcal{P} , consisting of channel, concrete application, and abstract application protocols. We shall call protocols of \mathcal{P} atomic protocols, and we will consider only protocols of \mathcal{P} and their compositions for the rest of this of this paper. Also we assume that every protocol $P \in \mathcal{P}$ is secure in isolation.*

Example 6. Our running example is $\mathcal{P} = \{dh, aa, ca\}$.

Definition 1. *Let \mathcal{C} be the set of all “syntactically correct” compositions of \mathcal{P} , i.e., the least set that contains \mathcal{P} and that is closed under the following rules:*

- *If $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ then also $P_1 \parallel P_2 \in \mathcal{C}$.*
- *If $A, C \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\text{app}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$ then also $A\langle C \rangle_E \in \mathcal{C}$.*
- *If $A, C \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\text{sapp}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$ then also $A[C]_R \in \mathcal{C}$.*

We prove that if all protocols of \mathcal{P} are secure in isolation and satisfy several disjointness conditions introduced in the following sections, then all their compositions in \mathcal{C} are also secure. This will be the main result of this paper. For our running example, we have for instance that $(aa[dh]_R \parallel ca)\langle dh \rangle_E$ is a syntactically correct composition, but $ca[dh]_R$ is not.

Since we focus on vertical and not on (pure) parallel composition, we assume here that the parallel composition of the atomic protocol is already secure.⁵

Precondition 2. *We expect that all protocols of \mathcal{P} are secure under parallel composition, i.e., $\parallel_{P \in \mathcal{P}} P$ is secure.*

Works like [9], [10] can be used to prove such a parallel compositionality result. The basic idea is that non-atomic parts of the deployed protocols should be sufficiently different so that messages cannot be confused. This will ensure that the intruder cannot reuse messages or message parts from one protocol in another protocol. We must, however, also ensure that the intruder cannot learn long-term constants from one protocol that are secrets in the other (e.g., private keys of honest agents). Moreover, we must ensure that neither the goals nor the databases of the agents can produce conflicts; a reasonable assumption here would be to assume they are also disjoint for the different protocols (i.e., the different atomic protocols

do not communicate with each other over a database). However we note that our vertical composition works for every set \mathcal{P} for which our preconditions hold (no matter how to achieve the parallel composition result).

A. Protocol Types

The preconditions that we introduce below will allow us to associate every message that honest agents can send or receive to a unique protocol $C \in \mathcal{C}$ where C does not contain parallel composition. This justifies to speak of a message being of “type τ ” where τ identifies a protocol composition.

Recall that state facts have a field for a protocol name. In the definition of the protocol classes, we did not require that this field must hold the same constant in all rules of a protocol, i.e., we allow for “heterogeneous” protocols. We call a protocol *homogeneous* iff all state facts in its rule carry the same protocol identifier. We take for granted that each protocol of \mathcal{P} is homogeneous, thus every $P \in \mathcal{P}$ has a unique protocol identifier and we call this identifier its type.

Definition 2. *Let T_C be the set of channel types, i.e., the protocol identifiers of those $P \in \mathcal{P}$ for which $\text{channel}(P)$ holds. T_A^0 is the set of atomic concrete application types, i.e., the protocol identifiers of those $P \in \mathcal{P}$ for which $\text{app}(P)$ but not $\text{channel}(P)$. Finally let T_S be the set of atomic abstract application types, i.e., the protocol identifiers of those $P \in \mathcal{P}$ for which $\text{sapp}(P)$ but not $\text{app}(P)$. T_A is the least set that contains T_A^0 and that is closed under the following two rules:*

- *If $\tau_A \in T_A$ and $\tau_C \in T_C$, then also $\tau_A\langle \tau_C \rangle_E \in T_A$.*
- *If $\tau_S \in T_S$ and $\tau_C \in T_C$, then also $\tau_S[\tau_C]_R \in T_A$.*

We define the set $T = T_C \cup T_S \cup T_A$ of all protocol types. Moreover $T_0 = T_S \cup T_C \cup T_A^0$ is the set of all atomic protocol types.

Let $MP(P)$ denote the message patterns of a protocol P , that consist of all messages M that appear as $\text{net}_{(A,B)}(M)$ or $\text{secCh}_{(A,B)}(M)$ in a rule of P ; we apply an α -renaming such that different elements of $MP(P)$ have disjoint variables; also, for vertically composed protocols $P = A\langle C \rangle_E$ and $P = A[C]_R$, we exclude those messages from $MP(P)$ that appear only in the rules of C . With $ST(P)$ we denote all non-atomic subterms of $MP(P)$, again α -renamed so that elements have disjoint variables.

Let $P \in \mathcal{C}$ be any composed protocol that has a type $\tau \in T$. We say that a message m has protocol type τ , and write $m : \tau$, iff there is a unifier between m and an element of $ST(P)$. (Theorem 2 shows that this protocol type is unique under the preconditions on \mathcal{P} .)

Example 7. For our running example from Fig. 1, p. 2, we have $T_C = \{dh\}$, $T_A^0 =$

⁵Note that parallel self-composition is trivial: $P \parallel P = P$.

$\{ca\}$, $T_S = \{aa\}$ and $T_A = \{ca, ca\langle dh \rangle_E, aa[dh]_R, ca\langle dh \rangle_E\langle dh \rangle_E, aa[dh]_R\langle dh \rangle_E, \dots\}$

In this definition we have introduced composed protocol types using the “composition operators” $\cdot\langle \cdot \rangle_E$ and $\cdot[\cdot]_R$. We do not have composed types for parallel composition: this will always give heterogeneous protocols. This reflects that in a parallel composition, every action (sending or receiving) of an agent can be attributed to either protocol that had been composed in parallel, while in all vertical compositions (i.e., running over a channel) both the concrete application and the channel protocol are part of the message and are thus represented in the type expression of the message. Consider the example composition $(P_1 \parallel P_2)\langle C \rangle_E$ for $P_1, P_2, C \in \mathcal{P}$ of types τ_1, τ_2, τ_C ; this composition is heterogeneous, consisting of the two protocol types $P_1\langle C \rangle_E$ and $P_2\langle C \rangle_E$.

We take for granted that our construction of composed protocol types can be mapped in a collision-free way to IF protocol identifiers, so that we can use the composed types in state facts of the composition as protocol identifiers.

B. Parallel Composition

Definition 3. Given two protocols P_1 and P_2 described by IF rules. Then their parallel composition $P_1 \parallel P_2$, is simply the union of the two sets of rules.

It is immediate that if $app(P_1)$ and $app(P_2)$, then also $app(P_1 \parallel P_2)$; similarly, if $sapp(P_1)$ and $sapp(P_2)$ then also $sapp(P_1 \parallel P_2)$.

C. Embed: $A\langle C \rangle_E$ Composition

Definition 4. Given protocols $A, C \in \mathcal{P}$ where $app(A)$ and $channel(C)$, we define the composed protocol $A\langle C \rangle_E$ as the following set of rules:

- 1) All initialization and transition rules of C without modification.
- 2) A modification (made precise below) of the transition rules of A that additionally contains two shared keys in the local states of roles alice and bob, and that are used to encrypt all messages from alice to bob and vice-versa.
- 3) A modification of the initialization rules of A that links the initial states of A with final states of C .
- 4) All attack rules of A and C .

Ad 2. By our assumptions, both A and C have two protocol roles alice and bob played by agents identified by variables A and B in their state facts. In all transition rules of A , we replace all facts of the form $state_{A:alice.PC}^{\tau_A.TID}[M_1, \dots, M_n]$ by $state_{A:alice.PC}^{\tau_A\langle \tau_C \rangle_E.TID}[KA, KB, M_1, \dots, M_n]$ where τ_A and τ_C are the respective protocol types/names, and KA and KB are two new variables that do not occur in the specifications; analogously for bob.

Every transmission of the form $net_{(A,B)}(M)$ is replaced by $net_{(A,B)}(scrypt(KA, M))$ and $net_{(B,A)}(M)$ by $net_{(A,B)}(scrypt(KB, M))$.⁶

Ad 3. By assumption, the channel protocols are linear, and there is a highest PC for each role. We now consider for the highest PC PC_{alice} of alice, and every transition rule of C that has on the RHS a local state fact of the form

$$state_{A:alice.PC_{alice}}^{\tau_C.TID}[KA, KB, M_1, \dots, M_n]$$

where KA and KB will be composed terms. We consider further all initialization rules of the protocol A for role alice, i.e., of the form

$$agent(A).agent(B). \models [TID] \Rightarrow state_{A:alice.pc}^{\tau_A.TID}[B]$$

We combine any such final state of C with any such initial state of A by a rule, basically replacing the initialization of the variables A and B by their instances in the state fact of τ_C (where also B must occur within the messages by our assumptions):

$$\begin{aligned} &state_{A:alice.PC_{alice}}^{\tau_C.TID}[KA, KB, M_1, \dots, M_n]. \\ \Rightarrow &state_{A:alice.pc}^{\tau_A\langle \tau_C \rangle_E.TID}[KA, KB, B] \end{aligned}$$

Here we have replaced the term KA of C by a variable KA (i.e., the new protocol is oblivious to the precise structure of the key terms); also note that all temporary information of the channel protocol (the M_i except B) is purged in this transition.

Example 8. For our running example, the $ca\langle dh \rangle_E$ composition would give the following rules for role alice (we leave out role bob for brevity and the rules for dh which are identical):

$$\begin{aligned} &state_{A:alice.3}^{dh.TID}[KA, KB, B] \Rightarrow state_{A:alice.1}^{ca\langle dh \rangle_E.TID}[KA, KB, B] \\ &state_{A:alice.1}^{ca\langle dh \rangle_E.TID}[KA, KB, B] \models [M] \Rightarrow \\ &state_{A:alice.2}^{ca\langle dh \rangle_E.TID}[KA, KB, B, M]. \\ &net_{(A,B)}(scrypt(KA, crypt(pk_B, [ca, M]))) \cdot secret(B, M) \end{aligned}$$

D. Realize: $A[C]_R$ Composition

Definition 5. Given protocols $A, C \in \mathcal{P}$ where $sapp(A)$ and $channel(C)$, we define the composed protocol $A[C]_R$ as the following set of rules:

- All initialization and transition rules of C without modification.
- A modification (made precise below) of the transition rules of A that additionally contains two shared keys in the local states of roles alice and bob, and that replaces the $secCh$ transmissions with the encryption of said keys.
- A modification (made precise below) of the initialization rules of A that links the initial states of A with final states of C . This is the same transformation as in point 3. of Def. 4 except

⁶By construction, such net facts can only occur in the transition rules of alice and bob, so that the variables are always bound by their occurrence in state facts.

for the protocol names (τ_S instead of τ_A and $\tau_S[\tau_C]_R$ instead of $\tau_A\langle\tau_C\rangle_E$.)

- All attack rules of A and C .

Ad 2. In all transition rules of A , we thus replace all facts of the form $\text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.PC}^{\tau_S.TID}[M_1, \dots, M_n]$ by $\text{state}_{A:\text{alice}.PC}^{\tau_S[\tau_C]_R.TID}[\text{KA}, \text{KB}, M_1, \dots, M_n]$ where τ_S and τ_C are the respective protocol types/names, and KA and KB are two new variables that do not occur in the specifications; analogously for bob. Every transmission $\text{secCh}_{(A,B)}(M)$ is replaced by $\text{net}_{(A,B)}(\text{script}(\text{KA}, M))$ and $\text{secCh}_{(B,A)}(M)$ by $\text{net}_{(B,A)}(\text{script}(\text{KB}, M))$ ⁷

VI. TYPING AND DISJOINTNESS

In general, the kinds of composition of protocols we have introduced is not *sound*: if we compose secure protocols (that do not have an attack), we cannot be sure that their compositions are secure. The reason is that two protocols can have similar message formats (so that messages of one protocol can be confused for the other) with a different meaning. This is illustrated by the example in §II. There has been a lot of work on finding sufficient conditions for horizontal protocol composition, in particular the work on disjoint encryption, such as [11]. We point out that a different line of work is also very helpful here, namely on preventing type-flaw attacks, such as [21]. The idea here is that we could understand type-flaw attacks as something similar to the attacks against composition, because also they are basically a confusion of similar messages with a different meaning—only here it is within the same protocol rather than in different protocols. We sketch how to justify a typed model (and elaborate further on these ideas in Appendix A). We then consider in detail how to extend existing notions of disjointness so that they are sufficient for vertical composition.

A. Well-typed Messages

The basic idea of [21] is to require that all parts of a protocol are tagged with type information so that wherever the intruder cannot manipulate the value (e.g., inside an encryption) he cannot manipulate the type-interpretation either. As a consequence, whenever an attack exists, also a *well-typed attack* exists and thus it is sufficient to analyze protocols in a typed model. Still, we need to extend the result of [21] to include protocols that do not follow its tagging approach, but in which all non-atomic message parts are sufficiently disjoint. Basically, we require only that every two non-atomic parts of the message formats of a protocol will be different unless they have the same (intended) type. This extension is limited to free algebra. We state its treatment at this point

⁷By construction, in all rules the variables A and B occur in the state facts, so they are bound here.

and include a proof sketch and formal treatment in Appendix A.

Theorem 1 (Proof sketch in Appendix A). *If a format-type-safe protocol has an attack in the free algebra with the described intruder deduction rules, then it also has a well-typed attack, i.e., one where all sent and received messages have the intended types.*

Theorem 1 applies to a large class of protocols, namely all IF protocols (including composed ones) where the all variables can be consistently labeled with intended types. Still, because of its limitation to the free algebra, it does not apply to protocols based on algebraic properties, for instance Diffie-Hellman. From here on, we simply use a typed model as interface independent from its justification:

Precondition 3. *We expect that in transition rules of honest agents, all variables of incoming and outgoing messages are typed (basic or composed).*

In vertically composed protocols, the key terms of the channel encryption will have composed types. For instance, if a channel protocol establishes two keys $\text{KA} = h(\text{NA}, \text{NB})$ and $\text{KB} = h(\text{NB}, \text{NA})$, then the keys in transmissions have type $h(\text{nonce}, \text{nonce})$ (while so far in our composition definition, these variables were simply untyped).

Note that variables of composed type can be replaced by terms with basic variables, e.g., $V : [\text{agent}, \text{nonce}]$ can be replaced by $[V_A, V_N]$ where V_A and V_N are new variables of types *agent* and *nonce*, respectively. Thus we have now a model where honest agents accept only type-correct messages, even when they actually cannot check all parts.

B. Disjointness

Similar to our requirement that the different message formats within a single protocol are sufficiently disjoint, we now also require that for every pair of atomic protocols \mathcal{P} the message formats must be disjoint. Note that this does *not* exclude the self-composition, such as $\text{App}\langle\text{TLS}\rangle_E\langle\text{TLS}\rangle_E$, but only prevent that the different atomic protocols (App and TLS in this example) have interferences with each other. Here we follow [9] and require disjoint message formats between the different messages of the protocols, quite similar to our previous property of format-type-safe in that we look at message formats of non-atomic subterms of message patterns. Recall that $\text{MP}(P)$ is specified in Def. 2 above to hold all the message patterns of protocol P , appropriately α -renamed. We now look at non-atomic sub-terms, in particular we will not require that dependent terms like pk_a (that we consider as atomic) must be disjoint between protocols. Additionally, because we later want to also look at vertical composition and not just at horizontal (parallel and sequential)

composition like [9], we also introduce the notion that a protocol is *disjoint for its encryptions* meaning that adding several layers of symmetric encryption around a message pattern cannot lead to confusion with another message pattern. For instance, if $[A, N] : [\text{agent}, \text{nonce}] \in MP(P)$, then $\text{sCrypt}(k, [A', N']) : \text{sCrypt}(\tau, [\text{agent}, \text{nonce}])$ cannot be allowed in $MP(P)$ as well (for any key term k of type τ), because that could lead to confusion with encryptions introduced by running the protocol over one of the secure channels; however simply an additional tag or just a change of format, e.g., $\text{sCrypt}(k, [N', A']) : \text{sCrypt}(\tau, [\text{nonce}, \text{agent}])$ (for some $\tau : k$ that does not conflict with the rest), would be sufficient for our purposes.

Definition 6. Let P be a protocol and K_1, K_2, \dots be variable symbols that do not occur in $MP(P)$. Then the message patterns with encryption of P is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} EMP(P) &= \alpha\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} EMP_n(P)\right) \\ EMP_0(P) &= MP(P) \\ EMP_{n+1}(P) &= \alpha(\{\text{sCrypt}(K_{n+1}, m) \mid m \in EMP_n(P)\}) \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha(M)$ indicates that the elements of M shall be α -renamed (without conflicts with the K_i) so that they have pairwise disjoint sets of variables.

P is called disjoint from its encryptions iff there is no unifier between a members of $EMP_i(P)$ and $EMP_j(P)$ for $i \neq j$. Let $EST(P)$ be the non-atomic subterms of $EMP(P)$ again with α -renaming of variables as above. We require that all incoming and outgoing messages are non-atomic (because otherwise we cannot associate in general a unique protocol type to every message). We say that a set P_0 of IF protocols is pairwise disjoint, if every protocol $P \in P_0$ is disjoint from its encryptions and for every pair $P, P' \in P_0$ with $P \neq P'$, there is no unifier between any $t \in EST(P)$ and $t' \in EST(P')$.

Example 9. For the ca example from Fig. I, p. 2, for instance, we have (omitting the α renaming):

$$\begin{aligned} MP(ca) &= \{\text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])\} \\ EMP_1(ca) &= \{\text{sCrypt}(K_1, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M]))\} \\ EMP_2(ca) &= \{\text{sCrypt}(K_2, \text{sCrypt}(K_1, \text{crypt}(\text{pk}_B, [ca, M])))\} \\ EST(ca) &= EMP(ca) \cup \{[ca, M]\} \end{aligned}$$

ca is disjoint from its own encryptions, because there is no unifier between members of different $EMP_i(P)$ and $EMP_j(P)$. The derivation for dh is

more complex (again we avoid the α renaming):

$$\begin{aligned} MP(dh) &= \{ \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_A}, [dh, B, \text{exp}(g, X)]), \\ &\quad \text{crypt}(\text{inv}_{\text{pk}_A}, [dh, B, GX]), \dots, \\ &\quad \text{sCrypt}(h(\text{exp}(GY, X), 0), \text{keyack}), \\ &\quad \text{sCrypt}(h(\text{exp}(GX, Y), 0), \text{keyack}) \} \\ EMP_1(dh) &= \{\text{sCrypt}(K_1, \text{sCrypt}(h(\dots), \text{keyack})), \dots\} \\ EST(dh) &= EMP(dh) \cup \\ &\quad \{[dh, B, \text{exp}(g, X)], \text{exp}(g, Y), [dh, B, GX], \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

In addition, dh is disjoint from its own encryptions: here it is actually the tag keyack and the fact that no other message of dh has symmetric encryption that prevent unification of messages of different EMP -levels. Also $EST(dh)$ and $EST(ca)$ do not have a unifier (even after proper α renaming) due to tagging and the fact that exp occurs in only one protocol.

Note that we do not exclude concatenation from the disjointness requirement as many other disjointness notions do. The reason for this is subtle. Consider a protocol in which the entire first message is a clear-text transmission, say $[A, B, N]$. Of course, the intruder can manipulate this message, and, consequently, the message can be left out of the disjointness notions for parallel composition: adding tags would be pointless since the intruder can change the tags anyway. In the vertical composition, however, where said protocol may be run over a channel, this message could suddenly be encrypted, and then it is important whether this term is disjoint from the formats of other protocols.

The inclusion of concatenation into the disjointness condition bears some subtleties, as well. For instance, consider two protocols where one contains the pair $[A, N]$ (as a subterm) and the other the pair $[B, M]$ (for variables A, B, N and M). These two protocols are then not disjoint. However, this is less restrictive than it seems: we consider concatenation of n -tuples as a family of operators ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) so that already concatenations of different length are considered as disjoint (e.g., $[A, N]$ is disjoint from $[B, C, M]$) and tags can be used—it is indeed a good idea in general if on each encryption layer there is a unique identifier of the protocol as part of which this message is meant.

Our disjointness definition is crucial for proving our compositionality results. Consider the following example: two protocols transmit each just one message from A to B , $h(N_1)$ and $h(N_2)$. These two are trivially not disjoint. However the variant $h([c_1, NA])$ and $h([c_2, NB])$ are for two constants $c_1 \not\approx c_2$.

Precondition 4. From here on, we expect that the set of atomic protocols \mathcal{P} is pairwise disjoint.

This precondition is a key point of our paper: it allows us to prove a very helpful property, namely that every message that can be sent or received by an honest agent in any composition of \mathcal{P} -protocols has a

unique protocol type as defined in §V-A. In fact, we named this concept “protocol types” because of its parallel with “message types”, i.e., partitioning the space of messages.

Theorem 2 (Proved in Appendix A-B). *For composition $P \in \mathcal{C}$, every message pattern $m \in ST(P)$ has a unique protocol type $\tau \in T$. This implies that also all messages that an honest agent can send or receive as well as their non-atomic subterms all have a unique protocol type.*

The proof idea is that, if there were a message of two different types, then we could derive a violation of the disjointness condition. To carry over this result also to concrete messages (in an actual trace), we need Precondition 1 (all variables are well-typed), because otherwise agent variables can be replaced by arbitrary values (of any type).

VII. THE MAIN RESULT

We are now able to put all the pieces together and give the main result of this paper:

Theorem 3. *Given a set \mathcal{P} of atomic protocols that satisfies the four denoted preconditions, and all their syntactically correct compositions \mathcal{C} . Then every composed protocol in \mathcal{C} is secure.*

The proof of this theorem is conducted in several steps in Appendix B. We summarize here the main steps of this proof. We first split the task into smaller theorems, basically one for each composition type. Part of the idea is the precise form of these theorems that does a great deal of the proof work, in particular by organizing a context where attack reductions can be given more easily.

To deal with this complicated form of the theorems more easily, we have organized them as a calculus. Each rule in the calculus has the form “if composition X is secure, then also composition Y is secure”. The soundness of each rule is proved individually by one theorem (or by a simpler lemma). We then show that all compositions of \mathcal{C} can be derived with the calculus to conclude the main result.

The most interesting rule of the calculus is perhaps the rule for embed composition:

$$\frac{A \parallel C \parallel \phi}{A\langle C \rangle_E \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi} \text{channel}(C), \text{app}(A), A\langle C \rangle_E \not\sqsubseteq \phi$$

This rule assumes that we have already proved the security of $A \parallel C \parallel \phi$ where A is a concrete application and C a channel protocol. ϕ can be any element of \mathcal{C} , however ϕ must not already contain the type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ that we want to compose now. If all this is true, then, the theorem tells us, adding $A\langle C \rangle_E$ in parallel to what we already have is also secure.

Before we give a sketch why this reasoning is sound, let us first consider why this particular form

to state the compositional reasoning result is helpful. First, suppose we had this theorem without the context $A \parallel C \parallel \phi$ as part of the conclusion; then, we would need extra rules that the composed protocol $A\langle C \rangle_E$ can be used in parallel with A , C and other protocols (which is not implied by the security of $A\langle C \rangle_E$). Thus, having this context as part of the conclusion is making this composition rule as general as possible. Second, on the premise side of the rule, the same context is also helpful (rather than requiring that A and C alone are secure): this allows to apply the theorem successively also to applications A that are themselves the result of a composition.

The idea of the proof of this composition theorem is indirect: if there is an attack against $A\langle C \rangle_E \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi$, then there is one against $A \parallel C \parallel \phi$ alone. Again, here the context is very helpful in conducting the proof, because all the components of the composition are “available” and we can have them work similarly as in the composition. An essential point in the proof is that every message of the given attack can be uniquely attributed to a particular protocol type, thanks to Theorem 2. That theorem in turn is based on the fact that the atomic protocol of \mathcal{P} are mutually disjoint and disjoint to their own encryptions. In particular, for a message of the form $\text{crypt}(K, M)$, either the entire message belongs to an atomic protocol or K is a key established by a unique channel protocol, and M ’s type can recursively determined again in a unique way. We can thus recognize all messages that belong to $A\langle C \rangle_E$, either they belong to the key-exchange of the channel C or they are of the form $\text{crypt}(K, M)$ where M belongs to A and K was established with C . We show that the same attack works when replacing all such $\text{crypt}(K, M)$ messages with M itself—reducing it to an attack where only protocols A and C (and ϕ for other messages) are involved.

To conclude the exposition of our main result, observe that a great deal of the work lies in the setup and preparation we have made in the preceding sections, in particular allowing us to attribute every message to a unique application running over a uniquely identified stack of channels.

VIII. RELATED WORK

Key exchange, secure channels and composition are both fundamental problems in formal methods as well as cryptography (KE [18], [19], [22], RSIM [23] and UC [24], UC KE and channels [25], [26]). And, there have been efforts to link both worlds with a relation to the protocol composition.

This work uses a symbolic representation of cryptographic primitives and, thus, focuses on formal methods literature on security analysis of key exchange and composition. Notably, Paulson established the security of the TLS key exchange by inductive analysis [3]. Composition problems have been researched

in the symbolic model [11], [8], [27], [28], [9], [13], [10], [29], mostly analyzing parallel composition with limited or unlimited number of sessions.

We highlight the results of Cortier and Delaune [9], who show sufficient criteria for parallel composition. Their work relates to the result of Guttman and Thayer [11] that disjoint encryption can achieve protocol independence. Our work builds on both their insights: We use disjoint encryption to achieve secure protocol composition as well as adapt Cortier and Delaune’s result on parallel composition to our setting. In addition, we benefit from the typing methods established by Heather et al. [21], which form a third ingredient to establish our composition results.

For sequential composition, Datta et al. [8] have considered the construction of protocols from smaller sub-protocols and analyzed parallel and sequential composition of protocols, yet without considering keys. Escobar et al. [29] extend the Maude-NPA tool by sequential composition primitives, thus allow for an automated composition analysis by Maude-NPA’s unification and backwards search method. Ciobăcă and Cortier [10] show that parallel and sequential composition of symbolic representations of protocols is secure if they use primitives with disjoint signatures and if the individual protocols are secure, even if they share data. Similarly to our method, Ciobăcă and Cortier obtain a composition theorem by reduction of attack traces against the composition to attack traces against the composed protocols. This work is in fact the closest to ours as they can consider handshake protocols establishing a key and using this key in another protocol. Note however that the use of this key (and thus the channel) needs to be part of that application protocol (i.e., there is no vertical composition of an abstract application with a channel). The disjointness assumptions here exclude vertical self-composition: the composed protocols must be distinguishable and thus Ciobăcă’s and Cortier’s result cannot support several layers of the same protocol (like TLS) without some modification (like disjoint tags).

For vertical composition, we see that Gao et al. [30] considered the vertical stacking of protocols, yet did not establish a composition theorem. Mödersheim and Viganò [13] provide criteria for vertical protocol composition as part of their research on secure pseudonymous channels. Even though they provide sufficient criteria and proof for general vertical composition, their theorems do not extend to self-composition as analyzed in this paper.

Guttman [31] considers a general concept of protocol transformations and argues that many kinds of protocol composition can be seen as instances of this transformation concept. As far as we can see, vertical protocol composition can indeed be seen as protocol transformation, as well. Due to the generality

of Guttman’s concept, however, the soundness requirements are (hard-to-check) semantical conditions. Guttman suggests that one may find easy-to-check conditions based on disjoint encryption. This would mean similar limitations as in the case of [10], i.e., self-composition of exactly the same protocol is excluded, but some distinction like different tags would be necessary.

Beyond these results, there have been research efforts to link the formal and the cryptographic world, where one reconciliatory impulse came from Abadi and Rogaway [32]. Cortier and Delaune [33] research formal methods for proving observational equivalence and conclude that observational equivalence implies computational indistinguishability in face of an active adversary. Cortier and Warinschi [34] pursue computationally sound automated proofs. Backes, Pfitzmann and Waidner [35] established a set of composable symbolic primitives that are computationally sound in the RSIM framework [36], for which Sprenger et al. [37] modelled a theorem proving theory in Isabelle/HOL.

IX. CONCLUSION

We showed for any suite of protocols satisfying our sufficient criteria that every vertical composition of its protocols is secure. This holds for vertical compositions of arbitrary depth as well as for self-compositions. The sufficient criteria that we employ are well-founded on earlier works in this field: We require disjointness of message formats as discussed by [11], [9], parallel composition of atomic protocols as established by [9], and a strong type model as introduced by [21]. From these foundations, we derive a composition theorem that holds for arbitrary goals on auxiliary predicates and positive intruder knowledge. Our preconditions can be statically checked and are liberal enough to cover a large class of protocols, such as the TLS and IPsec.

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APPENDIX A.

TYPING AND DISJOINTNESS

A. Well-typed Messages

The basic idea of [21] is to require that all parts of a protocol are tagged with type information so that wherever the intruder cannot manipulate the value (e.g., inside an encryption) he cannot manipulate the type-interpretation either. As a consequence, whenever an attack exists, also a *well-typed attack* exists (one where no type-confusion occurs) and thus it is without restriction to analyze protocols in a typed model. This is not only a helpful argument for model-checking of protocols, but we could also make use of such a result in our composability proofs. In these proofs below, roughly, we show that if an attack against the composition of protocols exists, then also one exists against at least one component. With a typing-result we can assume the given attack against the composition is well-typed which makes the proofs much easier.

Another way to look at this is the fact that preventing type-confusions (even if they do not necessarily always allow for an attack) is a good engineering practice (“every message should say what it means”) [38] that agrees well with the principles of disjoint encryption that we need anyway.

There is one drawback though: the original work of [21] does require a complete tagging of the protocol that is not done for the existing protocols like TLS. We sketch now an idea to extend the result of [21] to include protocols that do not follow this tagging but where all non-atomic messages parts are sufficiently disjoint. As type-flaw questions are not our focus in this paper, this is only a rough idea to illustrate that one can indeed justify typed models for the protocols we want to consider. This idea is limited to the free algebra (when no algebraic properties are included in the model) and thus does not apply to Diffie-Hellman based protocols for instance.

Basically, we require only that every two non-atomic parts of the message formats of a protocol will be different unless they have the same (intended) type. More formally, let $MP(P)$ be the *message patterns* of a protocol P , all (in general non-ground) message terms that represent the sent and received message in any transition rule of P where each message is α -renamed so that different elements of $MP(P)$ have disjoint variables. Consider that every (untyped) message is annotated with a composed type that represents the intended type of that value in the protocol. For instance in a protocol like Kerberos we may have a ticket of type $\text{crypt}(\text{symkey}, [\text{agent}, \text{nonce}, \text{timestamp}])$, but an agent who does not have the respective symmetric key cannot check that it has received any term that satisfies the given type. We say that a protocol P is *format-type-safe* if $MP(P) \cap \mathcal{V} = \emptyset$ (i.e., every message must contain a function or constant symbol) and for all m_1, m_2 that are *non-variable* subterms of elements of $MP(P)$ of different types, then there is no unifier between m_1 and m_2 . (We call a term t *non-variable* iff $t \notin \mathcal{V}$.) For instance a protocol with

$$MP(P) = \{\text{crypt}(h(N), A) : \text{crypt}(h(\text{nonce}), \text{agent}), \\ h(A') : h(\text{agent})\}$$

is not format-type-safe (because $h(N)$ and $h(A')$ are non-variable subterms with different intended types), while a protocol with

$$MP(P) = \{\text{crypt}(h(N), A) : \text{crypt}(h(\text{nonce}), \text{agent}), \\ h([t, A']) : h([tag, \text{agent}])\}$$

is format-type-safe.

Theorem (Theorem 1, p. 13). *If a format-type-safe protocol has an attack in the free algebra with the described intruder deduction rules, then it also has a*

well-typed attack, i.e., one where all sent and received messages have the intended types.

Sketch: The usual way to prove such a theorem is quite technical and involved because one has to argue why the intruder has no advantage from sending ill-typed messages to other agents by showing that all subsequent steps could be simulated with a well-typed message as well. We make an unconventional use of the “conceptual machinery” of a verification technique from security protocol analysis: the constraint-based approach to representing the intruder, see for instance [5], [39], [40], [41]. We show that for a format-type-safe protocol the constraint-based technique will only find well-typed attacks; since the technique was shown to be correct and terminating, this proves the theorem.

The constraint-based approach uses the notion of abstract traces where we first ignore the intruder and choose a sequence of honest agent transition rules where we leave the variables in sent and received messages uninstantiated, just as if the intruder was able to create just any message. This gives a sequence $in_1, out_1, \dots, in_n, out_n$ of incoming and outgoing messages with variables—that are all well-typed. It gives rise to a constraint-satisfaction problem: is there a substitution of all these variables under which the intruder can generate in_i from his knowledge at step i , i.e., his initial knowledge plus out_1, \dots, out_{i-1} .

Now given a format-type-safe protocol with an attack, then there is an well-typed abstract trace that of which the attack trace is an instance. Since the constraint-based technique is correct and terminating, it will find in finitely many steps a solution to the associated constraint satisfaction problem. We show that all such solutions will be well-typed.

The method successively simplifies the constraints. All messages that occur in the constraint system during its simplification are subterms of the initial terms or instantiations thereof. Without our restriction to format-type-safe protocols, these instantiations may be ill-typed. We show that for format-type-safe protocols only well-typed instantiations can occur. The reason is that instantiations can only result from unification between two *non-variable* terms in the constraint system—by the construction of the reduction procedure. For format-type-safe protocols however, we know that all non-variable subterms of different intended type have no unifier (and this of course then also holds for any type-correct instantiation of message patterns). Every unification that can occur thus only instantiates variables with type-correct messages. ■

B. Disjointness

Theorem (Theorem 2, p. 15). *For composition $P \in \mathcal{C}$, every message pattern $m \in ST(P)$ has a unique protocol type $\tau \in T$. This implies that also all*

messages that an honest agent can send or receive as well as their non-atomic subterms all have a unique protocol type.

Proof: Suppose the statement were wrong, i.e., we have some $m \in ST(P)$ such that $m : \tau_1$ and $m : \tau_2$ holds for some $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in T$ with $\tau_1 \neq \tau_2$. We show that this would imply a violation of disjointness (Precondition 4). We distinguish several cases of the τ_i :

- $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in T_0$, i.e., the τ_i are atomic protocol types of two protocols in $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{P}$. Then m is an instance of some message pattern $p_1 \in ST(P_1)$ and of some in $p_2 \in ST(P_2)$. Thus there is a unifier between p_1 and p_2 (recall that by α -renaming we have disjoint sets of variables in m, p_1 , and p_2) and thus disjointness is violated.
- $\tau_1 \in T_0, \tau_2 = \tau_A \langle \tau_C \rangle_E$ for some $\tau_A \in T_A$ and $\tau_C \in T_C$. Following the structure of τ_A , there must be an atomic protocol P_0 at the top of the protocol stack, i.e., $m = \text{script}(K_n, \dots, \text{script}(K_1, m_0))$ for some key terms K_i and some message $m_0 \in MP(P_0)$ (i.e., $m_0 : \tau_0 \in T_0$; also $m_0 \notin \mathcal{V}$ by the assumption that we do not have variables as message patterns of a protocol). If $\tau_1 = \tau_0$ then the corresponding atomic protocol is not disjoint from its encryptions; otherwise, we have with m and m_0 two non-atomic messages that instantiate non-atomic subterms of two atomic protocols (and thus their $EST(\cdot)$ cannot be disjoint).
- $\tau_1 \in T_0, \tau_2 = \tau_S[\tau_C]_R$ for some $\tau_S \in T_S$ and some $\tau_C \in T_C$: either $\tau_s = \tau_1$ then the according protocol is not disjoint from its own encryptions, or otherwise we can reduce this to a case of a non-atomic subterm of m that is of both τ_1 and τ_S .
- $\tau_1 = \tau_{A_1} \langle \tau_{C_1} \rangle_E$ and $\tau_2 = \tau_{A_2} \langle \tau_{C_2} \rangle_E$ where $\tau_{A_1} \neq \tau_{A_2}$ or $\tau_{C_1} \neq \tau_{C_2}$. Then $m = \text{script}(k, m_0)$ for non-atomic subterms k and m_0 . m_0 is non-atomic, because it is a toplevel message (which cannot be a variable by assumption). The key k is non-atomic due to our construction that channel-protocols produce keys to which both parties contribute and that are hence composed; therefore, by precondition 3, also the variable representing the key k in a messages has a composed type. Thus, we can reduce this case to the simpler case of a type-conflict on the non-atomic k or m_0 .
- All other cases (where τ_1 and τ_2 are either of the form $\tau_A \langle \tau_C \rangle_E$ or $\tau_S[\tau_C]_R$) are similar to the previous one: it is either a disjointness problem in the use channel protocols or the concrete application protocols.

Using precondition 3—that all variables in $ST(P)$ are typed and thus can be instantiated only by con-

crete terms that are correctly composed—we can now conclude that also every concrete message and its subterms all have unique types. ■

APPENDIX B.

PROVING THE MAIN RESULT: A COMPOSITION CALCULUS

We split the proof of our main result—that every composition \mathcal{C} or the atomic protocols in \mathcal{P} is secure—into a number of smaller theorems, one for each composition operation: one for parallel composition, one for $A\langle C \rangle_E$ -composition, and one for $A[C]_R$ -composition. The structure of the theorems is however a bit more complicated and therefore we now like to introduce the statements that are proved in a logical calculus notation.

The properties that a protocol is *disjoint from its encryptions* and a set of protocols is pair-wise disjoint (Def. 6, §VI-B) are key ingredients for these soundness proofs, because they allow us to attribute sent and received messages of honest agents in syntactically correct compositions to *unique protocol types*.

The composition calculus consists of rules of the form

$$\frac{P_1 \dots P_n}{P} \psi$$

to express the statement that P is a secure protocol, provided that some side-condition ψ holds and P_1, \dots, P_n are (individually) secure protocols. Our calculus has the following rules:

Rule 1 (Parallel, Precondition 2).

$$\overline{\parallel_{P \in \mathcal{P}} P}$$

Rule 2 (Realize, Theorem 5).

$$\frac{A \parallel C \parallel \phi}{A[C]_R \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi} \text{channel}(C), \text{sapp}(A), \phi \in \mathcal{C}, A[C]_R \not\sqsubseteq \phi$$

Note that we here require that the protocols to be vertically composed are already secure when used in parallel, and that the resulting vertical composition $A[C]_R$ can be in run in parallel with A and C . This “environment” allows for a monotonically growing number of composition where everything that is not needed in the end can be “projected-out” later by the project-rule below; we however restrict it to not yet contain $A[C]_R$ as a subterm.

The side condition $A[C]_R \not\sqsubseteq \phi$ means that no protocol type of a message of $A[C]_R$ is a subterm of a protocol type of a message of ϕ . This condition makes the proofs below much easier (as we do not have to deal with the possibility that undecipherable $A[C]_R$ messages may play a role in ϕ). It does not introduce a restriction as Theorem 6 shows.

Rule 3 (Embed, Theorem 4).

$$\frac{A \parallel C \parallel \phi}{A\langle C \rangle_E \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi} \text{channel}(C), \text{app}(A), \phi \in \mathcal{C}, A\langle C \rangle_E \not\sqsubseteq \phi$$

This $A\langle C \rangle_E$ -composition has a similar form as the $A[C]_R$ composition. As in for $A[C]_R$ theorem, we have a similar side condition that $A\langle C \rangle_E$ may not be a “subtype” of ϕ .

Rule 4 (ACI). $P \parallel P' \equiv P' \parallel P$ and $P \parallel (P' \parallel P'') \equiv (P \parallel P') \parallel P''$ and $P \parallel P \equiv P$. Associativity, commutativity and idempotence immediately follow from the representation of protocols by sets of rules: reordering rules and omitting duplicate rules does not change the transition relation.

Rule 5 (Project).

$$\frac{\text{Context}\{P \parallel P'\}}{\text{Context}\{P\}}$$

where $\text{Context}\{X\}$ stands for any element of \mathcal{C} that has X as a subterm. This rule can be proved by the fact that the rules of $\text{Context}\{P\}$ can be obtained from those of $\text{Context}\{P \parallel P'\}$, by dropping all rules that represent the P' part—and that dropping transition rules cannot lead to new attacks.

Rule 6 (App). *The following closure properties follow easily from the definitions of composition:*

- $\text{app}(A_1)$ and $\text{app}(A_2)$ implies $\text{app}(A_1 \parallel A_2)$.
- $\text{sapp}(A_1)$ and $\text{sapp}(A_2)$ implies $\text{sapp}(A_1 \parallel A_2)$.
- $\text{app}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$ implies $\text{app}(A\langle C \rangle_E)$.
- $\text{sapp}(A)$ and $\text{channel}(C)$ implies $\text{app}(A[C]_R)$.

A. Soundness of The Composition Rules

Theorem 4 (The Composition Rule *Embed*).

$$\frac{A \parallel C \parallel \phi}{A\langle C \rangle_E \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi} \text{channel}(C), \text{app}(A), \phi \in \mathcal{C}, A\langle C \rangle_E \not\sqsubseteq \phi$$

Proof: Let us abbreviate by η the term $A \parallel C \parallel \phi$. The main structure of the proof is as follows: from an attack against $A\langle C \rangle_E \parallel \eta$, we show how to construct an attack against η .

Roughly, this involves only the following transformation on the attack trace. Whenever an honest agent sends or receives a message of the form $\text{script}(K, M)$ of protocol type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ (i.e., K established with C and M of type A),⁸ then we replace this message $\text{script}(K, M)$ by M , so we replace all payload transmissions of $A\langle C \rangle_E$ with plain A messages and leave the messages of the handshake C as they are. What we have to show about the resulting trace is that

- it is also a valid trace of η and
- it still violates some goal of the atomic protocols.

We show the first point by induction, where the induction hypothesis is concerned with the first n steps $t(n)$ of the original trace and the first n steps $t'(n)$ of the translated trace:

⁸The protocol $A\langle C \rangle_E$ may actually have several types (if A contains parallel compositions). However, this would make the proof quite hard to read and therefore we simply talk as of one type.

- $t'(n)$ is a valid trace of η and
- After the execution of $t(n)$ and of $t'(n)$, all honest agents are in the same state of the protocol execution of all atomic protocols.
- The intruder knowledge in $t'(n)$ is the same as in $t(n)$ modulo replacing all occurrences of messages of the form $\text{script}(k, m)$ that are of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ by m , and the additional knowledge he can derive from m .

Since some messages of the form $\text{script}(k, m)$ in $t(n)$ are replaced by m in $t'(n)$, for the first point we must show that the intruder never needs to know $\text{script}(k, m)$ in $t'(n)$. (Intuitively, this is the case because $\text{script}(k, m)$ is no longer used for channels, and the intruder cannot use it for anything else due to typing.)

Obviously our induction hypothesis holds for $n = 0$. Suppose it holds for some number n , and the length of both traces is at least $n + 1$, then we now show it holds for $n + 1$. We distinguish the following cases according to the kind of step $n + 1$. For simplicity we formulate the proof over separate transitions for honest agents sending and receiving (i.e., we prove the induction hypothesis also for some “intermediate” states that are not present in our transition system).

- The intruder sends a message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ to an honest agent R in step $t(n+1)$ and the translation in $t'(n+1)$ is thus sending M . This step is possible because the intruder knows $\text{script}(K, M)$ in $t(n)$ and thus (by induction hypothesis) M in $t'(n)$, so he can send this message; moreover the agent R is able to receive M in $t(n)$ according to the induction hypothesis; the new state of R after the transition is analogous again in $t(n+1)$ and $t'(n+1)$ and the intruder knowledge has not changed.
- The intruder sending any message M that is not of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$. We need to show that M is known to the intruder in $t'(n)$ so he can perform exactly the same step in t' . First, M cannot have a subterm of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$, because otherwise this type would have had to occur in ϕ . Since M is part of the intruder knowledge in $t(n)$ and has no subterms of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$, it must be present in $t'(n)$ by induction hypothesis. Like in the previous case, the receipt does change the local state of R in an analogous way and does not change the intruder knowledge.
- The case for an intruder sending on a secure channel is similar to the previous case: again the message sent on the channel cannot have a subterm of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ for ϕ does not contain $A\langle C \rangle_E$. Thus the intruder knows the same message also in $t'(n)$ and the result of sending is again analogous.
- An honest agent sends $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ in $t(n+1)$; in the translation in $t'(n+1)$

the agent simply sends M . The local states in $t'(n+1)$ are the same as in $t(n+1)$ and the only change to the intruder knowledge is that he does not know $\text{script}(K, M)$ but M (plus possible further derivations from M) as required by the induction hypothesis.

- An honest agent sends any message that is not of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$, then it cannot contain any submessage of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ either (again because ϕ does not contain $A\langle C \rangle_E$ by the theorem’s restriction). Thus it will not be transformed and the intruder knowledge and change of the agent’s state in t' is the analogous to t .
- An honest agent sending on a secure channel: like in the previous case, this message cannot contain subterms of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ and thus everything is identical in t' .

By induction the entire translated trace is still a valid trace of η and the resulting local states of agents are the same as in the original trace. Recall that attack states of a protocol are formulated in terms of auxiliary events and intruder knowledge, where all variables are items in the local state of an honest agent. In particular, $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A\langle C \rangle_E$ cannot be part of a local state of a basic protocol, and thus not be in the concrete instantiation of the attack state that is matched. So the facts and intruder knowledge that match the attack state in the original trace are present in the translated trace. ■

Theorem 5 (The Composition Rule *Realize*).

$$\frac{A \parallel C \parallel \phi}{A[C]_R \parallel A \parallel C \parallel \phi} \quad \text{channel}(C), \text{sapp}(A), \phi \in \mathcal{C}, \quad A[C]_R \not\sqsubseteq \phi$$

Proof: Let us abbreviate by η the term $A[C]_R \parallel C \parallel \phi$. The proof is similar to the one of Theorem 4; in particular, we show how to transform an attack trace against $A[C]_R \parallel \eta$ into one against η . The idea is to replace $\text{net}_{(S,R)}(\text{script}(K, M))$ facts of type $A[C]_R$ by $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$ facts of type A . More precisely, if an honest agent S sends a message of the form $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$, then S believes to share the key with some agent R , and so in this case we replace the send message fact with $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$. Vice-versa, when an honest agent R receives a message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ -transmission, then he believes K to be his receiver key for communication with some agent S , and we thus replace the fact $\text{net}_{(S,R)}(\text{script}(K, M))$ with $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$. To show is that the transformed trace is still a valid trace of η and that it is still an attack.

Again, we have an induction hypothesis over the relationship of the original trace t and the translated trace t' , namely:

- same/analogous local states of honest agents
- the intruder knowledge in t' is obtained from the one in t by removing all $\text{script}(K, M)$ message

that are of type $A[C]_R$ and to which the intruder does not know K in t .

- For every message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ sent by honest S to R in t , have $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$ in t' instead.
- For every message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ received by honest R apparently from S in t , have $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$ previously in t' .

Obviously our induction hypothesis holds for $n = 0$. Suppose it holds for some number n , and the length of both traces is at least $n + 1$, then we now show it holds for $n + 1$. We distinguish the following cases of the kind of step $n + 1$; for simplicity we formulate the proof over separate transitions for honest agents sending and receiving (i.e., we prove the induction hypothesis also for some “intermediate” states that are not present in our transition system).

- The intruder sends a message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ to an honest agent R in step $t(n+1)$ that he encrypted himself (i.e., he knows K and M in $t(n)$). Then by our requirements on the channel protocols K must be the result of a key-exchange of the intruder (under his real name) with R (otherwise we already have an attack against C at this point). Thus $\text{secCh}_{(i,R)}(M)$ is indeed the corresponding way that R will receive this message in the translated trace.
- The intruder sends a message $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ to an honest agent R in step $t(n+1)$ that he did *not* encrypted himself, but that was previously sent by some agent S . Thus S has established the key K with agent R previously; if S meant to talk to a different agent R' , then we already have an attack against C . Otherwise, the translation of that step already is $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$ present in $t'(n)$, so the receive step is now possible, not changing the intruder knowledge and changing agent R 's as required.
- The intruder sending any message M that is not of type $A[C]_R$. Again since $A[C]_R$ does not occur in ϕ , M cannot contain subterms of type $A[C]_R$ either. So M is also present in the intruder knowledge at $t'(M)$ and he can thus perform the same step with the same effects in the translation.
- The case for an intruder sending on a secure channel (of $\phi!$) is similar to the previous case: again the message sent on the channel cannot have a subterm of type $A[C]_R$ for ϕ does not contain $A[C]_R$. Thus the intruder knows the same message also in $t'(n)$ and the result of sending is again analogous.
- An honest agent S sends $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ in $t(n+1)$ and the intruder is the intended recipient (after S has exchanged K with the intruder under his real name). Then the intruder may know K (it is not necessarily guaranteed) and obtain M . In the translation this is indeed ensured, because we have $\text{secCh}_{(S,i)}(M)$ here

which allows the intruder to derive M .

- An honest agent S sends $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ in $t(n+1)$ and the intruder is not the intended recipient but some honest agent R . If the intruder knows K anyway, then we already have an attack against C . Otherwise, the intruder does not learn anything, and thus $\text{secCh}_{(S,R)}(M)$ is a valid translation that satisfies the induction hypothesis.
- An honest agent sends any message that is not of type $A[C]_R$, then it cannot contain any submessage of type $A[C]_R$ either (again because ϕ does not contain $A[C]_R$ by the theorem's restriction). Thus, it will not be transformed and the intruder knowledge and change of the agent's state in t' is the analogous to t .
- An honest agent sending on a secure channel: like in the previous case, this message cannot contain subterms of type $A[C]_E$ and thus everything is identical in t' .

By induction the entire translated trace is still a valid trace of η and the resulting local states of agents are the same as in the original trace. Recall that attack states of a protocol are formulated in terms of auxiliary events and intruder knowledge, where all variables are items in the local state of an honest agent. In particular, $\text{script}(K, M)$ of type $A[C]_R$ cannot be part of a local state of a basic protocol, and thus not be in the concrete instantiation of the attack state that is matched. So the facts and intruder knowledge that match the attack state in the original trace are present in the translated trace. ■

B. Completeness of the Calculus

The main result, Theorem 3—all compositions in \mathcal{C} are sound now follows from the completeness of the calculus:

Theorem 6. *The set of derivable protocols of our calculus is exactly \mathcal{C} .*

Proof: Let \mathcal{D} denote the set of protocols that are derivable from the calculus. It is immediate that $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ (all rules perform syntactically correct compositions). Vice-versa, consider any $P \in \mathcal{C}$. Let P_0 be the parallel composition of all atomic concrete application protocols that occur in P and that are not abstract application protocols. Let S_0 be the parallel composition of all abstract application protocols. We start with the rule Parallel that gives us the parallel composition of all rules in \mathcal{P} . We can parallel-compose to that all compositions of the form $S_0[C]_R$ and $P_0 \parallel S_0\langle C \rangle_E$ for any channel protocol C that occurs in P (by successively applying the Embed and Realize rules). This subsumes all vertical compositions of depth 1 that occur in P . In the same way we can construct deeper compositions until we have a term that subsumes P . Then we can drop any parts we do not need, using the *Project* rule. ■