Stack-based access control and secure information flow

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Abstract
Access control mechanisms are often used with the intent of enforcing confidentiality and integrity policies, but few rigorous connections have been made between information flow and runtime access control. The Java virtual machine and the .NET runtime system provide a dynamic access control mechanism in which permissions are granted to program units and a runtime mechanism checks permissions of code in the calling chain. We investigate a design pattern by which this mechanism can be used to achieve confidentiality and integrity goals: a single interface serves callers of more than one security level and dynamic access control prevents release of high information to low callers. Programs fitting this pattern would be rejected by previous flow analyses. We give a static analysis that admits them, using permission-dependent security types. The analysis is given for a class-based object-oriented language with features including inheritance, dynamic binding, dynamically allocated mutable objects, type casts and recursive types. The analysis is shown to ensure a noninterference property formalizing confidentiality and integrity.

Capsule Review
Tracking information flow is an appealing way to enforce strong security, but practical application of this approach encounters various difficulties. This article tackles the important practical problems of dealing with both object-oriented programming and access control. It defines a security-typed model of the Java programming language, including its access control mechanism of stack inspection. A security type system is given that controls information flow in this language, provably enforcing noninterference. While some prior work has explored type systems for information flow in the presence of objects and access control, this work is particularly useful because it obtains a noninterference result for a rich programming language with a realistic access control mechanism. This result requires novel proof techniques because of the possible presence of inheritance and recursive classes and methods. The type system that connects access control and information flow permits relatively precise

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A characterization of information, which is possible because it allows the information flow labels of results to depend on permissions held by the program. Notably, this dependency relates information flow to negative permissions, which is needed for reasoning in the presence of stack inspection.

1 Introduction

Consider the following program, to be used by clerical staff to prepare a billing statement for a medical patient. It returns the catenation of the patient’s name and address, italicizing the string if the patient is HIV positive.

```java
String getPatientAddress(int patientID) {
    PatientRecord r := database[patientID];
    result := r.name + r.address;
    if r.hiv then result.font := “italic”
}
```

This would violate typical policies about privacy of sensitive medical information in patient records. Although the value r.hiv is not output directly, it is revealed to an observer who knows that not all outputs are italicized. The violation in this particular example is likely to be immediately apparent upon inspection, but that is only because the example is tiny. This paper is concerned with specification and formal justification of tools for automated static checking for information flow policies. The main novelty is rules to account for calls that may return high security information, but which use access checks to ensure that only low security information is returned unless the caller has been given access.

Besides being a goal in itself, confidentiality is often an ingredient in more complicated policies and for the mechanisms that enforce them. A lattice of confidentiality levels is given – for expository purposes it suffices to consider two levels with \( L \leq H \). Input and output channels are labeled with these levels. The policy so expressed is that information visible on \( L \) output channels is not influenced by information on \( H \) input channels (Bell & LaPadula, 1973). This property is a form of dependency (Abadi et al., 1999) and the absence of dependency of \( L \) on \( H \) can also be read as a form of integrity: Licensed data is not influenced by Hacked data. For simplicity we focus on confidentiality in the exposition but sometimes use the neutral term flow policy.

In this paper, the input/output channels are procedure arguments/results and state changes for heap objects. As we consider object-oriented programs in the sequel, we use the term method for procedure. Here is a labeling of the example.

```java
string_L getPatientAddress(int_L patientID)
```

An attractive way to specify and validate tools for checking that flow policy is enforced is to use decorated types within the program. A rule can easily be formulated to preclude, e.g. the command

```java
result := r.name + r.address + r.hiv
```
if the hiv field is labeled $H$. The rule requires that the level of an assigned variable must be at least the level of the expression; and the level of an expression is the least upper bound of the levels of its constituents (Denning & Denning, 1977).

Labeling variables and imposing such a rule is sometimes called “access control” in the literature (Rushby, 1992). It is akin to, but more restrictive than, static visibility controls like private fields, for which the term “access modifier” is used. We refrain from using this terminology, as it invites confusion with runtime access control mechanisms.

The flow of information in the first example above is not by a direct assignment, but the control state can be treated as an implicit variable, the level of which is also tracked. This makes it feasible to give syntax-directed rules that prevent such flows as well (Denning & Denning, 1977).

To formalize the policy that no information flows from $H$ to $L$, Goguen and Meseguer (1982) proposed a property called noninterference described in terms of a certain kind of simulation relation. Two program states are “equivalent for $L$”, or $L$-indistinguishable, if they agree for $L$ variables and fields. The noninterference property is this: for any pair of initial states that are $L$-indistinguishable, the two corresponding runs of the program yield final states that are $L$-indistinguishable.

Volpano et al. (1996; 1997) formalized rules for static analysis of information flow using the techniques of type theory; their security types formalize the labeling discussed above. They proved that programs accepted by the typing rules have the noninterference property.

There has been considerable research exploring these ideas, but they have not seen much use in practice. There are several difficulties to be overcome for practical use. This paper makes progress in addressing two of the difficulties: the complexity of conventional languages and the essential use of runtime access control. A security typing system is given for an expressive, class-based language including runtime access control and the system is shown to ensure noninterference.

We proceed to discuss these and other difficulties and to outline our contribution in more detail. Sabelfeld & Myers (2003) give a comprehensive review of the literature and open challenges; closely related work is also discussed in section 9.

**Excessive restriction.** Noninterference, as commonly formulated, is too strong a property for some situations. For example, the message “password not valid” from a login program reveals some information about a password, but not much. For such situations, and for encryption, a quantitative measure seems appropriate. A potential shortcoming is that an associated static analysis could be hard to explain to programmers or to implement efficiently. Another practical issue is the need for selective declassification or downgrading. Work on these difficult problems is reviewed by Sabelfeld & Myers (2003). We address neither problem, but note that the strong noninterference property is appropriate for many situations. For example, encrypting a message reveals some information about the message to observers of the ciphertext (and it reveals the entire message to possessors of the deciphering key). It should reveal nothing about the passphrase for the user’s key management.
application, nor should it reveal information about the message through channels other than the ciphertext output.

**Covert channels.** While a straightforward data dependency analysis can detect flows of data from $H$ to $L$, the noninterference property can be violated by more subtle flows. The first example above illustrates information propagation by control flow. In reactive and concurrent programs, intermediate states are visible and synchronization can be used, deliberately or accidentally, to leak information.

Memory allocation can also be an observable channel of information flow, if it is possible to detect that memory has been exhausted or to perform arithmetic operations on addresses. Even more subtly, timing and the consumption of power can reveal information – but such covert channels are tricky to exploit and in any event they do not occur at the level of abstraction of source or object code.

Termination is another covert channel, albeit one that can leak only one bit per program run. Termination-sensitive noninterference requires that, from two $L$-indistinguishable initial states, the corresponding runs of the program both terminate or both diverge. **Termination-insensitive** noninterference requires only that if both runs terminate then the resulting states are $L$-indistinguishable.

The standard rule to preclude leaks via termination requires all loop guards to be $L$. We are not aware of any work that deals with static analysis for termination-sensitive noninterference in the presence of general recursive procedures. One could approach the problem by determining which guards of conditionals can influence termination of such a procedure; but for sufficient flexibility in practice it could be better to augment typing rules with verification conditions for termination. This merits study in a simple language before it is combined with the features of a full object-oriented language.

A tool which checks source code with respect to a specified information flow policy can be useful for debugging and for guarding against deployment of faulty or malicious code, even if it does not handle all covert channels. We confine attention to checking termination-insensitive noninterference for source code in a sequential object-oriented language with unbounded memory, without pointer arithmetic, and with no restriction on recursion.

**Trustworthiness of the checker.** Covert channels such as power consumption subvert the assumptions on which high level abstractions are based. Such assumptions are also subverted by bugs in the implementation of compilers, runtime support, and the underlying operating systems and hardware. For a static checking tool used to enforce a confidentiality policy, trustworthiness depends on soundness of the rules and correctness of their implementation. Languages in widespread use are considerably more complicated than the simple ones for which information flow analysis has been studied – even ordinary type soundness for such languages has been problematic in practice and in theory.

The first of our contributions is to extend the security typing approach to a relatively rich class-based, imperative, object-oriented language. We give a self-contained proof of termination-insensitive noninterference for programs that follow
our security typing rules. A compositional semantics is used and the main lemma is proved by induction on program structure.

Real programs use access control. Information flow checking has seen little use in practice, but various runtime access control mechanisms are widely used. These include operating system mechanisms at the level of processes, files, and devices, as well as application-specific mechanisms such as in database systems. Code-based access control has come into wide use, to cope with late-bound components and various forms of mobile code such as applets (Gong, 1999; LaMacchia et al., 2003). Using object-oriented design patterns, these can involve fine-grained interactions, within a single address space, among programs having differing levels of trust.

Access control mechanisms directly enforce access policies, that is, they control actions including those which release information, but cannot fully control propagation of information. Technically, information flow is not a property of computations but of sets of computations (McLean, 1994; Volpano, 1999). Access mechanisms enforce safety: properties of computations that are finitely refutable (Erlingsson & Schneider, 1999). Nonetheless, many uses of access control are intended to enforce flow policy.

Our second major contribution is to refine the formulation of information flow policy by making it dependent on access permissions. For example, a method that prints information about a medical patient can be allowed to return $H$ information for callers with specified permissions, while returning $L$ information to others. Permissions may be absent due to misconfiguration, programming error, or because a single interface is intended to provide useful functionality to callers with differing access credentials.

We investigate permission-dependent information flow in the setting of the access control mechanism of Java (Gong, 1999) and the .NET Common Language Runtime (Gough, 2001), which aims to protect trusted system code, e.g. a browser, from untrusted mobile code. The principals that are granted permissions in an access policy are programs rather than, say, processes or users as in operating system security. The mechanism is sometimes called “stack inspection” in reference to one implementation. More fundamentally it is stack based in that access decisions depend on permissions of code in the calling chain. Put differently, the credentials on which access decisions are based, i.e. the security context, is passed as an implicit parameter in a method call (but is not updated as an effect of the method call).

A considerable amount of commercial software is being developed using stack-based access control, because it is part of the widely-deployed Java and .NET virtual machines. But it is open to question whether this is the best mechanism for its purposes; it is not well understood what security properties are achievable and what are good design patterns for using the mechanism (Wallach et al., 2000; Fournet & Gordon, 2002; Abadi & Fournet, 2003). Our aim is neither to propose a new mechanism nor to argue in favor of this one. Rather, we make sense of a common pattern of usage and demonstrate that it can achieve a strong security goal under statically checkable conditions.
We formulate a type-based static analysis using security types that are dependent on permissions. The analysis tracks permissions and thereby distinguishes certain information flows that are guarded by permissions. We believe the technique can be adapted to other access mechanisms that are amenable to static analysis of access decisions. But this is left to future work.

Security typing does not include level polymorphism, in which the level of results depends on the level of inputs; this is orthogonal to flows that depend on permission so for simplicity it is omitted.

The static analysis is defined with respect to given access policy and given flow policy. The main result of the paper is that safe programs, i.e. those allowed by our security typing rules, are noninterfering in the sense of the given flow policy. Limited experience with examples suggests that permission-dependent typing may be a suitable basis for the design of practical interface specifications and tools.

Outline of the paper. In section 2 we give a streamlined description of the relevant features of the access control mechanism. We also review the use of labeled types to specify confidentiality in imperative (Volpano et al., 1996) and object-oriented (Myers, 1999; Banerjee & Naumann, 2002c) programs.

Section 3 gives an example to illustrate the main idea of the paper: giving several information-flow types to a method, dependent on the permissions that may be enabled by callers.

Section 4 formalizes the programming language, giving typing rules and a compositional semantics which facilitates proof by structural induction on program syntax. At the cost of notation more complex than the minimum necessary to illustrate our main idea, we consider a sequential object-oriented language with pointers and mutable state, public fields, dynamic binding and inheritance, recursive classes, casts and type tests, and recursive methods. This shows that the ideas on which we build scale to a realistic language and lays a broader foundation for future work, e.g. permissions and protection domains as first-class objects as in Java and C#.

Section 5 formalizes the static analysis using syntax-directed rules which admit the examples of section 3. Further examples are given in section 6. Section 7 proves basic results about the analysis, which are used in section 8 to prove the main result: the static analysis ensures noninterference. Section 9 discusses related and future work.

2 Background: access control and information flow

Access control by stack inspection. In the access control mechanism of Java (Gong, 1999) and the .NET Common Language Runtime (Gough, 2001), each class C has a set Auth C of permissions statically associated with it; this comprises a local access control policy. A typical policy grants few permissions to code from remote sites and many to code residing on the local disk. The most interesting policies concern trusted remote sites: Code which has been cryptographically authenticated as originating at a trusted site may be granted particular permissions.
As an example of the use of permissions for integrity, a user program might have the permission \( p \) for changing passwords but not the permission \( w \) for directly writing the password file. There is an operation for checking whether a permission is authorized for the classes of all code with frames (activation records) on the current call stack. If this fails to be the case, a catchable exception is thrown. This mechanism has no intrinsic connection with particular data objects or events; it is up to the programmer to ensure that writes to the password file are guarded by checks of permission \( w \).

To model the mechanism in a simplified language, we follow previous work (Fournet & Gordon, 2002) and refrain from modeling exceptions. Instead, we consider a construct, \( \text{test } p \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \), which checks for permission \( p \), executing \( S_1 \) if the check succeeds and \( S_2 \) if it fails. A simple check can be written \( \text{test } p \text{ then skip else abort} \). To model the case where an exception is thrown and caught, the \( \text{else} \) branch can return some value that indicates to the caller that a check has failed. An alternative formulation is to treat \( \text{test} \) as a primitive boolean function, but our static analysis would still single out conditionals using \( \text{test} \) for special treatment.

The description above is over-simplified, in that tests do not simply depend on static permissions for all code on the stack. In keeping with the principle of least privilege, permissions must be explicitly enabled. In Java this is provided as an operation, \( \text{doPrivileged} \), which uses a callback object with the effect of lexical scoping. We model it by a construct, \( \text{enable } p \text{ in } S \).

To describe these constructs more precisely, it is convenient to use the “eager” formulation (Gong, 1999; Wallach et al., 2000) in which the current security context is maintained as an implicit parameter, \( Q \), as opposed to lazily constructing the context from the stack when checks are performed. Like explicit parameters, \( Q \) can be updated in a method body. The effect of the command \( \text{enable } p \text{ in } S \) is to add \( p \) to \( Q \) only if \( p \) is statically authorized for the class in which the command occurs; otherwise it has no effect. (It might be less misleading to use the term “try-to-enable” or “assert” but these have shortcomings too.) The \( \text{test } p \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \) simply branches on whether \( p \in Q \). Finally, a method call \( e.m(...) \) passes to \( m \) the set \( Q \cap \text{Auth } C \) where \( C \) is the class of the code for \( m \). The method call has no effect on the caller’s \( Q \). Note that it is not the class, say \( D \), of the target object \( e \) that determines permissions, nor the static type of \( e \), but rather the class \( C \) of the dynamically dispatched code for \( m \). By inheritance, \( D \) may be a proper subclass of \( C \) and have different static permissions.

Here are two example classes in our syntax. Assume that the local access policy, \( \text{Auth} \), designates \( \text{Auth User} = \{p\} \) and \( \text{Auth Sys} = \{p, w\} \). The objective is to disallow direct writing of the password file by code in class User. We assume that \( \text{diskWrite} \) is a low-level operation protected by some other mechanism, e.g. it is a private method or privileged operating system call.

```java
class Sys {
    unit writepass(String x) {
        test w then diskWrite(x, “passfile”) else abort
    }
}
```
unit passwd(String x) {
    test p then enable w in writepass(x) else abort }
}

class User {
    Sys s . . . /* field initialization omitted */
    unit use() { enable p in s.passwd("mypass") }
    unit try() { enable w in s.writepass("mypass") }
}

In a main program with no permissions enabled, invoking method use gives it permission set $\emptyset$. Then use enables $p$ and its permission set becomes $\{p\}$. This is implicitly passed to passwd, in which test $p$ succeeds and permission $w$ gets enabled. That is, the permission set in passwd is changed to $\{p, w\}$, and this set is passed to writepass. It checks $w$ successfully and calls diskWrite.

Invocation of method try results in failure. Consider, for example, the case where try is invoked from a main program that has successfully enabled $\{p, w\}$. Because only $p$ is statically enabled for class User, the initial permission set for try is $\{p\}$. For the same reason, enable $w$ has no effect in try and so the permission set passed to writepass is $\{p\}$. Thus the test in writepass fails and the integrity of the password file is maintained.

The enable construct allows a method to, in effect, temporarily grant a permission to methods in the call chain to it and thus perform sensitive operations on behalf of untrusted callers. It cannot, however, grant permissions to code that it invokes. Trusted code like a browser can invoke untrusted plug-ins without risk of giving them unintended permissions. In itself, the access mechanism does not prevent harm from misuse of results from calls to untrusted code, as emphasized by Abadi and Fournet (2003). In Section 6 we show how information flow analysis can help address this problem.

Checking information flow using security types. The idea developed by Volpano et al. (1996), based on earlier work (Denning, 1976; Denning & Denning, 1977; Ørbæk & Palsberg, 1997), is to label not only inputs and outputs but also variables and parameters by security types, for example replacing a variable declaration $x : T$ by $x : (T, \kappa)$ where $\kappa$ is the security level. Syntax-directed typing rules specify conditions that ensure secure flow. Overt flows, like an assignment of an $H$-variable to an $L$-variable, are disallowed by the typing rules for assignment, argument passing, etc. To preclude covert flow via control flow, commands are given types $com_1 \kappa$ with the meaning that all assigned variables have at least level $\kappa$. For a conditional, $if \ e \ then \ S_1 \ else \ S_2$, with $e$ high, both $S_1$ and $S_2$ are required to have type $com \ H$.

In an object-oriented language, covert flow also happens via dynamically dispatched method call. Moreover, one must worry about the possibility of observing differing behavior of the allocator if objects allocated conditionally are accessible. In the sequel we use command types of the form $(com \ k_1, k_2)$ where $k_1$ is a lower bound on level of assigned variables and $k_2$ is a lower bound on the heap effect, i.e. assignments to object fields.

Annotated arrow types can be used for modular checking in the case of procedures or functions (Volpano & Smith, 1997; Abadi et al., 1999). For example, Banerjee &
Naumann (2002c) use a notation like \((T, \kappa_1) -\langle \kappa_2 \rangle \rightarrow (U, \kappa_3)\) for a method with one parameter of type \(T\) and result of type \(U\). This annotated type is intended to express that if the argument is at most \(\kappa_1\) then the heap effect is at least \(\kappa_2\) and result level at most \(\kappa_3\). A method body is checked with respect to its security type, which is used as an assumption for checking method calls.

The type of the target object, \texttt{self}, deserves special attention but we defer discussion until later, as the issue does not obtrude in section 3. In fact, even the heap effect can be dropped for the example discussed in section 3.

Type annotations are a perspicuous way to specify and reason about policy and static analysis. They may be useful in practice for specifying public interfaces, but it is important to keep in mind that policy is decided at deployment sites. An application programming interface might suggest suitable flow and access policies, but the policies imposed at deployment sites may differ. For this reason, among others, the automated inference of security types is useful (see section 9).

An access control mechanism may itself be a channel for covert flows. For the mechanism in this paper, the set of currently enabled permissions can be seen as an implicit variable which can be tested. But values of this implicit variable are manipulated in a very restricted way that reflects only control flow information. Our noninterference result confirms that straightforward security typing rules suffice to control the flows introduced by \texttt{test} and \texttt{enable}. What is more interesting is the use of \texttt{test} to achieve information flow goals.

3 Using access control for confidentiality

Sometimes a permission guards an action that is essential to a program’s purpose and a failed permission check is seen as a catastrophic error in programming or security configuration. But many programs are intended to operate in more than one context. Gong (1999) gives the example of a Java program used both in a downloaded applet and in a locally installed application; it needs to create an output stream to store temporary results. To do so it attempts to open a local file, but if that results in a security exception the program attempts to open a network connection to its originating site. Because access policy is configured at deployment sites, the need for graceful error recovery is another reason it can be useful to specify the behavior of a program both when expected permissions are granted and when they are not.

For expository purposes we consider a toy system composed of components, some of which are from sources not fully trusted. Class \texttt{Kern} is a trusted system class and \texttt{Comp1} is from a less trusted source. To flesh out the example, one could imagine that the system is used in a medical clinic. Class \texttt{Comp1} could provide financial applications. Another class, say \texttt{Comp2}, could provide support for distributing a newsletter to patients. Personal financial information may be made available to \texttt{Comp1} but not to \texttt{Comp2}; personal medical information should flow to neither of them. For this scenario, a realistic flow policy would involve at least a four-element lattice with incomparable levels \texttt{finance} and \texttt{newsletter} in addition to the maximum
$H$ and minimum $L$. The code would also be far more complicated. But to sketch our ideas it suffices to consider $L$ and $H$ and a very simple program structure.

If the confidentiality goal is that information confidential to $\text{Kern}$ is not leaked to $\text{Comp1}$, the security lattice might correspond to code sources and thus be correlated with permissions. But we do not want to presuppose a connection between information flow policy and the access control mechanism. Not all information manipulated by $\text{Kern}$ is confidential.

For these examples we consider the set $\text{Permissions} = \{\text{sys, stat, other}\}$. The intention is that $\text{sys}$ guards a method $\text{getHinfo}$ of $\text{Kern}$ that returns $H$ information, and $\text{stat}$ guards a method $\text{getStatus}$ that can be used by trusted callers manipulating $H$ information and also by untrusted ones manipulating $L$.

Suppose the access policy, $\text{Auth}$, is the following mapping from classnames to permission sets:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{class} & \text{permissions} \\
\hline
\text{Comp1} & \text{other} \\
\text{Comp2} & \text{stat, other} \\
\text{Kern} & \text{stat, sys}
\end{array}
\]

Class $\text{Kern}$ is as follows, where the intended flow policy is indicated in comments:

\[
\text{class Kern extends Object} \{
\text{String Hinfo; // H} \\
\text{String Linfo; // L} \\
\text{String getHinfo() \{ // type () \rightarrow H} \\
\text{\quad \textbf{test} \text{ sys then}\text{ result := self.Hinfo else abort}\}} \\
\text{String getStatus() \{ // type () \rightarrow ?? (see below for discussion)} \\
\text{\quad \textbf{test} \text{ stat} \\
\text{\quad \textbf{then enable} \text{ sys in result := self.getHinfo()}} \\
\text{\quad \textbf{else result := self.Linfo}} \}
\}
\]

Class $\text{Comp1}$ has access to an instance of $\text{Kern}$. It has a method $\text{status}$ returning the catenation of application-specific data $v$ with the status from the kernel. This exemplifies the use of $\text{getStatus}$ by untrusted callers.

\[
\text{class Comp1 extends Object} \{
\text{Kern k; // L} \\
\text{String v; // L} \\
\text{String status() \{ // type () \rightarrow L} \\
\text{\quad result := self.v \leftrightarrow k.getStatus()} \}
\}
\]

Execution of method $\text{status}$ proceeds as follows: To evaluate the catenation, invoke $k.\text{getStatus()}$ which tests $\text{stat}$. The test fails, as $\text{stat}$ has not been enabled, so $\text{getStatus}$ returns $k.\text{Linfo}$. This is compatible with the policy that $\text{status}$ has $L$ output.

To flesh out the example, the reader is invited to contemplate a method of $\text{Kern}$ for retrieving the record for a particular medical patient. Access control could
be used to decide whether to include payment information (for a partly trusted medical application), name and address (for a partly trusted newsletter application), or nothing at all. The point is that Kern should not have to provide separate, redundant interfaces for the two components just to fit a type-based specification of flow policy.

For an information flow analysis to allow Comp1.status, it is necessary to take into account the test in getStatus and also the access policy for Comp1. Otherwise, a sound analysis of getStatus would say that it can return $H$, which violates the flow policy for Comp1.status.

Comp1 could try to gain access to Hinfo as follows:

```java
String status2() { // type () → L
    enable stat in result := self.v ++ k.getStatus() }
```

But because stat is not authorized for Comp1, the enable has no effect and the policy is not violated.

Code in classes Comp1 and Comp2 cannot successfully invoke getHinfo directly, because in Auth neither class is granted permission sys, without which method getHinfo aborts. An attempted enable sys does not help.

Our example access policy does, however, grant permission stat to Comp2. The flow policy also indicates a degree of trust in that method statusH is allowed to return $H$.

```java
class Comp2 {
    Kern k;
    String statusH() { // type () → H
        enable stat in result := k.getStatus() }
}
```

Method statusH succeeds in obtaining Hinfo: in k.getStatus(), permission stat is enabled and is authorized for Kern and for Comp2. This is consistent with the policy allowing $H$ result from statusH; it would not be consistent with $L$ result.

As indicated by “??” in class Kern, the question is how to type method getStatus so we can formulate a modular check that admits the valid examples while rejecting code (or access policy) that violates the information flow policy. In particular, all of the example code above should be allowed.

Volpano & Smith (1997), among others (Pottier & Simonet, 2003), consider procedure typings that are polymorphic in levels, to handle cases where level-$\alpha$ inputs yields level-$\alpha$ outputs. For example, the catenation operator ++ for strings could have type $\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha \sqcup \beta$. This does not handle our examples, because the result level for getStatus depends not on the level of inputs but on the enabled permissions. More to the point: although permissions can be seen as an implicit parameter, the dependence is not on information level but rather the value of that implicit parameter.

The justification of the examples hinges on reasoning about the behavior of the test in getStatus. This behavior depends on what permissions are enabled by the caller. This leads to our proposal: Methods are given types that depend on permissions authorized for the caller. More precisely, types designate permissions...
that must not have been enabled by the caller. For the moment we leave aside heap effects and a level for \texttt{self}. The meaning of a type \((\cdot)\rightarrow(P)\rightarrow\kappa\) is as follows: if invoked by a caller which cannot enable any of the permissions in \(P\), the method returns a result of at most level \(\kappa\). We annotate each method with one or more such typing, and check that the method body respects all of them.

Method \texttt{getStatus} is given types \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow H\) and \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\). The call from \texttt{Comp1.status} can be typechecked with respect to \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\), because \texttt{stat} is not in \texttt{Auth(Comp1)}. The typechecking rule does not allow the call from \texttt{Comp2.statusH} to be checked using \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\), because \texttt{stat} is authorized for \texttt{Comp2}. It can be checked using \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow H\).

Consider this additional method for \texttt{Comp2}:

\begin{verbatim}
String statusH2() { result := k.getStatus() }
\end{verbatim}

It can be given type \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow H\) just like \texttt{statusH}. Although \texttt{stat} is not enabled by \texttt{statusH2}, it could be enabled by a caller of \texttt{statusH2}. So it is not sound to check the body of \texttt{statusH2} using the type \texttt{getStatus}: \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\) unless we disallow such callers by typing \texttt{statusH2} as \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\). That is, \texttt{statusH2} does not have type \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow L\).

We have discussed method types of particular interest, but others are also sound. For example, \texttt{getStatus} satisfies the types \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat,sys}\}\rightarrow L\) and \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow H\) and \texttt{getHinfo} satisfies \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{sys}\}\rightarrow L\). In the sequel we define a suitable notion of subtyping and show that these examples follow by considerations of subsumption. In fact security types form a complete lattice; for example, the greatest lower bound of \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow H\) and \((\cdot)\rightarrow\{\text{stat}\}\rightarrow L\) is \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow L\).

Note that the type \((\cdot)\rightarrow(\emptyset)\rightarrow L\) is not satisfied by \texttt{getStatus} and thus there is not a single type that expresses the desired properties of \texttt{getStatus}. The implication is that the most concise interface specifications are those that specify the security of a method using a set of types that are minimal with respect to subtyping. But for our purposes in this paper we can consider an arbitrary collection of types.

To deal with dynamic binding in a modular way, we require that an overriding declaration must be checked with the same set of typings as the method it overrides. The permissions involved need not be authorized for the class in which the declaration occurs. A subclass that overrides a method may have different permissions than its superclass. This is discussed further in section 5, where the security typing rules are defined using judgements \(\Delta;P \vdash S\) that characterize the behavior of \(S\) under the assumption that permissions \(P\) are not initially enabled.

It is possible, and perhaps more natural at first glance, to formulate a static analysis using a typing arrow annotated with an upper bound on the caller’s permissions, so for example \texttt{getStatus} would have a type \((\cdot)\rightarrow(P)\rightarrow L\) with \(\texttt{stat} \notin P\), where the caller’s permissions must be contained in \(P\). But this is not modular; the caller may well have permissions, like \texttt{other}, not relevant to the callee.

On the other hand, one can envision a kind of dual to the design pattern we consider: A method may release \(H\) information just if a certain permission is absent. Our analysis does not handle this pattern and we are unaware of motivating examples; permission checks usually guard sensitive actions such as the release of
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\[ T ::= \text{bool} \mid \text{unit} \mid C \] data type, where \( C \) ranges over class names

\[ CL ::= \text{class } C \text{ extends } C \{ \vec{T} \; \vec{f}; \vec{M} \} \] class with public fields \( \vec{f} \), public methods \( \vec{M} \)

\[ M ::= T \; m(\vec{T} \; \vec{x}) \{ S \} \] method with result type \( T \), parameters \( \vec{T} \)

\[ S ::= x := e \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } S \text{ else } S \mid S; S \] assign to variable; conditional; sequence

\[ T \; x := e \text{ in } S \mid x := e.m(e) \] local variable block; method call

\[ e.f := e \mid x := \text{new } C \] assign to field; construct object

\[ \text{enable } P \text{ in } S \] enable permissions

\[ \text{test } P \text{ then } S \text{ else } S \] branch on permissions

\[ e ::= x \mid \text{null} \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \] variable, constant

\[ e.f \mid e = e \mid e \text{ is } C \mid (C) \; e \] field access; equality test; type test; cast

Fig. 1. Grammar.

A tempting idea is to downgrade or declassify information in the presence of certain permissions. But declassification violates noninterference and it is an open problem what is a good information flow property in the presence of declassification; for a recent attempt see Myers et al. (2004).

4 Language

This section formalizes the sequential class-based language for which our results are given. We assume given a finite set of Permissions. Finiteness is not essential, but it saves us from imposing explicit finiteness restrictions at various points in the syntax and semantics (or explaining why finiteness is not needed). The semantics is given with respect to a given function \( \text{Auth} : \text{ClassNames} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Permissions}) \) that specifies access policy. The aim of this section is to give an operationally transparent and mathematically convenient model of a conventional language. Information flow plays no role in the semantic definitions.

4.1 Syntax

The grammar is given by Figure 1. It is based on given sets of class names (with typical element \( C \)), field names \( (f) \), method names \( (m) \), and variable/parameter names \( x \) (including distinguished names “self” and “result” for the target object and return value). Identifiers like \( \vec{T} \) with bars on top indicate finite lists, e.g. \( \vec{T} \vec{f} \) stands for a list \( \vec{f} \) of field names with corresponding types \( \vec{T} \). We let \( P \) range over sets of permissions, without formalizing syntax for sets. We also assume there is a class Object with no fields or methods.

We omit loops but include unrestricted recursion. We omit super calls and constructor methods. It is straightforward to extend our work to super calls and to constructors that do not make method calls, using the semantics and proof technique of Banerjee & Naumann (2002a). We have not investigated constructors in the full generality found in conventional languages; there are difficulties even for type soundness, due to method invocations that leak partially initialized objects.

A complete program is given as a class table, \( CT \), that associates each declared class name with its declaration. The typing rules make use of auxiliary notions that
are defined in terms of $CT$, so the typing relation $\vdash$ depends on $CT$ but this is elided in the notation. Because typing of each class is done in the context of the full table, methods can be recursive (mutually) and so can field types.

The subtyping relation $\preceq$ on types is defined as follows. For base types, $\text{bool} \preceq \text{bool}$ and $\text{unit} \preceq \text{unit}$. For classes $C$ and $D$, we define $C \preceq D$ iff either $C = D$ or the class declaration for $C$ is $\text{class } C \text{ extends } B \{\ldots\}$ for some $B \subseteq D$. The typing rules are syntax-directed: subsumption is built into the rules rather than appearing as a separate rule.

To define some auxiliary notations, which are implicitly dependent on $CT$, let

$$CT(C) = \text{class } C \text{ extends } D \{T_1 \bar{f}; \bar{M}\}$$

and let $M$ be in the list $\bar{M}$ of method declarations, with $M = T \; m(T_2 \bar{x})\{S\}$. We record the type by defining $\text{mtype}(m, C) = T_2 \rightarrow T$ and let $\text{pars}(m, C) = \bar{x}$. Let $\text{super } C = D$. For fields, we define $\text{fields } C = \bar{f} : T_1 \cup \text{fields } D$ and assume $\bar{f}$ is disjoint from the names in $\text{fields } D$. The built-in class $\text{Object}$ has no methods or fields. If $m$ is inherited in $C$ from $B$ then $\text{mtype}(m, C)$ is defined to be $\text{mtype}(m, B)$, so that $\text{mtype}(m, C)$ is defined iff $m$ is declared or inherited in $C$.

A class table is well formed if each of its method declarations is well formed according to the following rule.

$$\bar{x} : \bar{T}, \text{self} : C, \text{result} : T \vdash S \quad \text{mtype}(m, \text{super } C) \text{ is undefined or equals } \bar{T} \rightarrow T \quad \text{pars}(m, \text{super } C) \text{ is undefined or equals } \bar{x}$$

$$C \vdash T \; m(\bar{T} \; \bar{x})\{S\}$$

Figure 2 gives the other typing rules. A typing environment $\Gamma$ is a finite function from variable names to types, written with the usual notation $x : T$. A judgement of the form $\Gamma \vdash e : T$ says that $e$ has type $T$ in the context of a method of class $\Gamma \text{self}$, with parameters and local variables declared by $\Gamma$. A judgement $\Gamma \vdash S$ says that $S$ is a command in the same context. Note that access policy has no influence on typing, though of course it does influence semantics.

### 4.2 Semantics

The state of a method in execution is comprised of a heap $h$, which is a finite partial function from locations to object states, and a store $\eta$, which assigns locations and primitive values to local variables and parameters. Every store of interest includes the distinguished variable self which points to the target object. A command denotes a function from initial state to either a final state or the error value $\bot$. States are self-contained in the sense that all locations in fields and in variables are in the domain of the heap.

For locations, we assume that a countable set $\text{Loc}$ is given, along with a distinguished entity $\text{nil}$ not in $\text{Loc}$. We treat object states as mappings from field names to values. To track the object’s class, we assume given a function $\text{loctype} : \text{Loc} \rightarrow \text{ClassNames}$ such that there are infinitely many locations $\ell$ with $\text{loctype } \ell = C$, for each $C$. We assume that, like $\text{nil}$, the three primitive values $\text{it}$, $\text{true}$, and $\text{false}$ are not in $\text{Loc}$. The semantic definitions and results are given for an arbitrary allocator.
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Γ ⊢ \(x : \Gamma x\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(true : \text{bool}\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(null : B\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Γ ⊢ e_1 : T_1)</th>
<th>(Γ ⊢ e_2 : T_2)</th>
<th>(Γ ⊢ e_1 = e_2 : \text{bool})</th>
<th>(Γ ⊢ e : C)</th>
<th>((f : T) \in \text{fields\ } C)</th>
<th>(Γ ⊢ e.f : T)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Γ ⊢ e : D)</td>
<td>(B \leq D)</td>
<td>(Γ ⊢ (B)\ e : B)</td>
<td>(Γ ⊢ e : D)</td>
<td>(B \leq D)</td>
<td>(Γ ⊢ e \text{ is } B : \text{bool})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Γ ⊢ \(e : T\) \hspace{2cm} \(T \leq Γ x\) \hspace{2cm} \(x \neq \text{self}\)

Γ ⊢ \(e_1 : C\) \hspace{2cm} \((f : T) \in \text{fields\ } C\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(e_2 : U\) \hspace{2cm} \(U \leq T\)

Γ ⊢ \(e_1.f := e_2\)

Γ ⊢ \(e : D\) \hspace{2cm} \(\text{mtype}(m, D) = \bar{T} \rightarrow T\) \hspace{2cm} \(T \leq Γ x\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(\vec{e} : \bar{U}\) \hspace{2cm} \(\bar{U} \leq \bar{T}\) \hspace{2cm} \(x \neq \text{self}\)

Γ ⊢ \(x := e.m(\vec{e})\)

Γ ⊢ \(e : \text{bool}\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S_1\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S_2\)

\(B \leq Γ x\) \hspace{2cm} \(x \neq \text{self}\)

Γ ⊢ \(x := \text{new} \ B\)

Γ ⊢ \(e : S_1\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S_2\)

\(P \subseteq \text{Permissions}\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S\)

Γ ⊢ \(\text{enable} \ P\ \text{in} \ S\)

\(P \subseteq \text{Permissions}\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S_1\) \hspace{2cm} Γ ⊢ \(S_2\)

Γ ⊢ \(\text{test} \ P\ \text{then} \ S_1\ \text{else} \ S_2\)

Fig. 2. Typing rules for expressions and commands.

Definition 1

An allocator is a location-valued function fresh such that \(\text{loctype}(\text{fresh}(C, h)) = C\) and \(\text{fresh}(C, h) \notin \text{dom\ } h\), for all \(C, h\).

The semantics is isomorphic to one where addresses are untyped and each object has an immutable field tagging it with its type. One can take \(\text{Loc}\) to be the cartesian product \(\mathbb{N} \times \text{Classnames}\) and define, e.g. \(\text{fresh}(C, h) = (i, C)\) where \(i\) is the least natural not in \(\text{dom\ } h\).

Methods are associated with classes, in a method environment, rather than with instances. For this reason the semantic domains are relatively simple; there are no recursive domain equations to be solved. For any data type \(T\), the domain \([\![T]\!]\) is the set of values of type \(T\). For any typing environment \(Γ\), \([\![Γ]\!]\) is the set of stores assigning values of appropriate type to the variables in \(\text{dom\ } Γ\). There are several other domains for which there is no corresponding notation in the syntax; for uniform notation, Figure 3 defines a collection of categories \(θ\) that includes \(T\) and \(Γ\). Figure 4 defines the domain \([\![θ]\!]\) for each category: \([\![\text{Heap}]\!]\) is the set of heaps, \([\![\text{state\ }C]\!]\) is the set of states of objects of class \(C\), \([\![\text{perms\ } C]\!]\) is sets of permissions authorized for \(C\), \([\![\text{MEnv}]\!]\) is the set of method environments, \([\![C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \rightarrow T]\!]\) is the set of meanings for methods of class \(C\) with result \(T\) and parameters \(\bar{x} : \bar{T}\). In a language like Java with garbage collection and without pointer arithmetic, dangling locations (those not in the domain of the heap) never occur in program states or
\[ \theta ::= T \quad \text{values of type } T \]
\[ \Gamma \quad \text{stores (map each variable } x \in \text{dom } \Gamma \text{ to value of type } \Gamma \times) \]
\[ \text{state } C \quad \text{object states (map fields to values)} \]
\[ \text{Heap} \quad \text{maps locations to object states with no dangling locations} \]
\[ \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \quad \text{global states with no dangling locations} \]
\[ \text{Heap} \otimes T \quad \text{pairs } (h, d) \text{ where value } d \text{ is not a dangling location w.r.t. } h \]
\[ \theta \perp \quad \text{lifting} \]
\[ \text{perms } C \quad \text{permission sets statically authorized for } C \]
\[ (C, \tilde{x}, T \to T) \quad \text{method of } C \text{ with parameters } \tilde{x} : T \text{ and return type } T \]
\[ \text{MEnv} \quad \text{method environments} \]

Fig. 3. Semantic categories and informal description of their denotation.

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket &= \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \} \\
\llbracket \text{unit} \rrbracket &= \{ \text{it} \} \\
\llbracket C \rrbracket &= \{ \text{nil} \} \cup \{ \ell \mid \ell \in \text{Loc} \land \text{loctype } \ell \leq C \} \\
\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket &= \{ \eta \mid \text{dom } \eta = \text{dom } \Gamma \land \eta \neq \text{nil} \land \forall x \in \text{dom } \eta \cdot \eta x \in \llbracket \Gamma x \rrbracket \} \\
\llbracket \text{state } C \rrbracket &= \{ s \mid \text{dom } s = \text{dom } (\text{fields } C) \land \forall (f : T) \in \text{fields } C \cdot s f \in \llbracket T \rrbracket \} \\
\llbracket \text{Heap} \rrbracket &= \{ h \mid \text{dom } h \subseteq_{\text{fin}} \text{Loc} \land \text{closed } h \land \forall \ell \in \text{dom } h \cdot h \ell \in \llbracket \text{state } \text{loctype } \ell \rrbracket \} \\
&\text{where closed } h \text{ iff } \text{rng } s \cap \text{Loc} \subseteq \text{dom } h \text{ for all } s \in \text{rng } h \\
\llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket &= \{ (h, \eta) \mid h \in \llbracket \text{Heap} \rrbracket \land \eta \in \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \land \text{rng } \eta \cap \text{Loc} \subseteq \text{dom } h \} \\
\llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes T \rrbracket &= \{ (h, d) \mid h \in \llbracket \text{Heap} \rrbracket \land d \in \llbracket T \rrbracket \land (d \in \text{Loc} \Rightarrow d \in \text{dom } h) \} \\
\llbracket \theta \perp \rrbracket &= \llbracket \theta \rrbracket \cup \perp \quad \text{(where } \perp \text{ is some fresh value not in } \llbracket \theta \rrbracket \} \\
\llbracket \text{perms } C \rrbracket &= \{ P \mid P \subseteq \text{Auth } C \} \\
\llbracket C, \tilde{x}, T \to T \rrbracket &= \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes (\tilde{x} : T, \text{self } : C) \rrbracket \to \mathcal{P} (\text{Permissions}) \to \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes T \rrbracket \perp \\
\llbracket \text{MEnv} \rrbracket &= \{ \mu \mid \forall C, m \cdot \mu C m \text{ is defined iff } \text{mtype}(m, C) \text{ is defined,} \\
&\text{and } \mu C m \in \llbracket C, \text{pars}(m, C), \text{mtype}(m, C) \rrbracket \text{ iff } \mu C m \text{ defined} \} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 4. Semantic domains, for given policy Auth.

as expression values. Capturing this in the semantics is the purpose of the special cartesian products \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \text{ and } \text{Heap} \otimes T.

For expressions and commands, the semantics is defined only for derivable typing judgements. The meaning of an expression \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \) is a function \( \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \to \llbracket T \perp \rrbracket \) that takes a state \( (h, \eta) \in \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \) and returns either a value \( d \in \llbracket T \rrbracket \), such that \( (h, d) \in \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes T \rrbracket \), or the improper value \( \perp \) which represents errors. The errors are null dereferences and cast failure; the other expression constructs are strict in \( \perp \). We have no need to define an explicit semantic category to designate the domain \( \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \to \llbracket T \perp \rrbracket \).

The typing rules are syntax-directed, so it is easy to show that a given judgement has at most one derivation. Thus the semantics of a derivable expression typing can be defined by recursion on its derivation; see Mitchell (1996, section 4.5), for a textbook discussion. Figure 5 gives the definition.

The meaning of a command \( \Gamma \vdash S \) is a function

\[
\llbracket \text{MEnv} \rrbracket \to \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \to \llbracket \text{perms } (\Gamma \text{ self}) \rrbracket \to \llbracket (\text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma) \perp \rrbracket \quad (1)
\]
that takes a method environment \( \mu \) (see below), a state \((h, \eta)\), and the enabled permissions \( Q \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma \text{self}) \); it returns a state or \( \bot \) which indicates divergence or error. The definition, in Figure 6, is again by recursion on the typing derivation. Note that the semantic domain (1) depends on \(\text{perms}(\Gamma \text{self})\). As with expressions, we refrain from introducing an explicit name for this domain.

![Image](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0956796804005453)
To streamline the treatment of \( \perp \) in the semantic definitions, we use a metalanguage construct, let \( d = E_1 \in E_2 \), with the following meaning: If the value of \( E_1 \) is \( \perp \) then that is the value of the entire let expression; otherwise, its value is the value of \( E_2 \) with \( d \) bound to the value of \( E_1 \).

For functions of various kinds we write \textit{dom} or \textit{rng} for the domain or range. Function update or extension is written, e.g. \([\eta \mid x \mapsto d]\). In the semantics of local variables, we write \[ \] for domain restriction: if \( x \) is in the domain of function \( \eta \) then \( \eta \mid x \) is the function like \( \eta \) but without \( x \) in its domain.

A \textit{method environment} \( \mu \) maps each class name \( C \) and method name \( m \) (declared or inherited in \( C \)) to a meaning \( \mu C m \) which is an element of

\[
\llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \to \mathcal{P}(\text{Permissions}) \to \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes T \rrbracket
\]

where \( T \) is the return type and \( \Gamma = \text{self} : C, \bar{x} : \bar{T} \) is the parameter store, where \( \bar{x} = \text{pars}(m, C) \). The result from a method, if not \( \perp \), is a pair \((h, d)\) with \( d \) in \( \llbracket T \rrbracket \) such that, if \( d \) is a location then \( d \) is in the domain of the result heap \( h \).

A class table denotes a method environment obtained as the least upper bound of a chain of approximations. For this purpose each semantic domain is given a partial ordering. The sets \( \llbracket \text{Heap} \rrbracket \), \( \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket \), \( \llbracket C \rrbracket \), \( \llbracket \text{state} C \rrbracket \), \( \llbracket \text{perms} C \rrbracket \), and \( \mathcal{P}(\text{Permissions}) \) are ordered by equality, as is \( \llbracket \text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma \rrbracket \). The ordering on \( \llbracket (\text{Heap} \otimes \Gamma) \rrbracket \) is the \textit{flat order}: \( X \subseteq Y \) iff \( X = \perp \lor X = Y \). Thus elements of \( \llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket \) are curried functions from discrete domains to a flat one (all such functions are continuous). We order \( \llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket \) pointwise, and note that it has a least element (the constantly-\( \perp \) function) and least upper bounds of ascending chains.

To keep the proofs self-contained, we need an elementary characterization of least upper bounds for method environments. To this end, note first that for any \( d_1, d_2 \) in \( \llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket \) we have the following, writing \( \sqsubseteq \) for the pointwise order:

\[
d_1 \sqsubseteq d_2 \iff \forall h, \eta, Q . d_1(h, \eta)Q \neq \perp \Rightarrow d_1(h, \eta)Q = d_2(h, \eta)Q
\]  

(2)

The reason is that elements of \( \llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket \) are functions into flat cpo \( \llbracket (\text{Heap} \otimes T) \rrbracket \). Now consider an ascending chain \( d : \mathbb{N} \to \llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket \). For any \( h, \eta, Q \), there is some \( j \) such that \((\text{lub} \ d)(h, \eta)Q = d_j(h, \eta)Q\); this follows by the lub property from \( (2) \) with instantiation \( d_1 := d_j \) and \( d_2 := (\text{lub} \ d) \). Moreover, \((\text{lub} \ d)(h, \eta)Q = \bar{d}_k(h, \eta)Q\) for all \( k \geq j \).

To cope with mutually recursive definitions, the semantics is defined using a chain of method environments. The preceding ideas extend straightforwardly to yield the following.

\textbf{Lemma 4.1 (characterization of least upper bounds for method environments)}

Let \( \mu \) be an ascending chain, \( \mu : \mathbb{N} \to \llbracket \text{MEnv} \rrbracket \), of method environments for \( CT \). For any \( C, m, h, \eta, Q \), there is some \( j \) such that, for all \( k \geq j \),

\[
(\text{lub} \ \mu)C m(h, \eta)Q = \mu_k C m(h, \eta)Q
\]
Proof

Follows from the fact, analogous to (2), that for any $\mu_1, \mu_2$ we have $\mu_1 \sqsubseteq \mu_2$ iff

$$\forall C, m, h, \eta, Q \bullet \mu_1 C m(h, \eta)Q \neq \bot \Rightarrow \mu_1 C m(h, \eta)Q = \mu_2 C m(h, \eta)Q$$

\[ (3) \]

Definition 2 (semantics of complete program)

The semantics of a class table $CT$ is a method environment, written $\llbracket CT \rrbracket$, given as a least upper bound. Specifically, $\llbracket CT \rrbracket = lub \mu$ where the ascending chain $\mu \in \mathbb{N} \to \llbracket MEnv \rrbracket$ is defined as follows, using the semantics $\llbracket M \rrbracket$ defined later.\(^1\)

$$\mu_0 C m = \lambda(h, \eta) \bullet \lambda Q \bullet \bot$$
$$\mu_{j+1} C m = \llbracket M \rrbracket \mu_j \text{ if } m \text{ is declared as } M \text{ in } C$$
$$\mu_{j+1} C m = \mu_{j+1} B m \text{ if } m \text{ is inherited from } B \text{ in } C$$

To be very precise for an inherited method, if $\text{mtype}(m, C) = \bar{T} \to T$ then $\mu_{j+1} C m$ should apply to stores for $\bar{x} : \bar{T}, \text{self} : C$ whereas $\mu_{j+1} B m$ applies to stores for $\bar{x} : \bar{T}, \text{self} : B$. But the latter contains the former, as $C \sqsubseteq B$ implies $\llbracket C \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket B \rrbracket$. This does not obtrude in the sequel.

The interesting aspect of inheritance is that the permissions $\text{Auth} B$ are not required to have any relation to the permissions $\text{Auth} C$. Recall from section 2 that access control is defined in terms of the code on the stack, not the classes of objects for which the code is executing. Leaving aside dynamic binding, the semantics of method invocation could be defined by intersecting the current permissions with those authorized for the called method. To interpret dynamic binding, our semantics branches on the type of the target object, and the method environment provides a meaning for every method. In the case of an inherited method, the permissions “authorized for the called method” should be those of its defining class, not the class into which it is inherited. So we consider that a method meaning is defined for all permission sets. Intersection with the authorized permissions is done not in the semantics of method call but in the semantics of method declarations. This is why $\llbracket C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \to T \rrbracket$ is defined using $\mathcal{P}(\text{Permissions})$ rather than $\llbracket \text{perms} C \rrbracket$.

Definition 3 (semantics of method declaration)

For a declaration $M = T m(\bar{T}, \bar{x}) \{ S \}$ in class $C$, define $\llbracket M \rrbracket$ by

$$\llbracket M \rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)Q = \begin{cases} 
\text{let } Q_1 = Q \cap \text{Auth } C \text{ in } \\
\text{let } \eta_1 = [\eta \mid \text{result} \to \text{default}] \text{ in } \\
\text{let } (h_0, \eta_0) = [\bar{x} : \bar{T}, \text{self} : C, \text{result} : T \vdash S] \llbracket M \rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)Q_1 \text{ in } \\
(h_0, \eta_0 \text{ result})
\end{cases}$$

On fixpoints. We have chosen to formulate the semantic definition as a least upper bound, as this facilitates straightforward proofs of the main results. It is in fact a least fixpoint, of a function that we have not made explicit; it is the function used in Definition 2 to obtain $\mu_{j+1}$ from $\mu_j$. The interested reader can check that this

\(^1\) Warning: Elsewhere in the paper we use, e.g., $\kappa, \kappa_1, \kappa_2$ as unrelated identifiers, some of which happen to be decorated with subscripts.
function is continuous and thus its least fixpoint is the least upper bound of our approximation chain.

If the semantics is described as a least fixed point then proofs can use fixpoint induction. Fixpoint induction requires not only continuity of the relevant function but also admissibility of the predicate, say \( P \), to be proved: \( \forall i \bullet P(\mu_i) \) implies \( P(\text{lub } \mu) \). In the proofs we prove the implication but use it directly, without need to mention fixpoints. This presentation has been chosen mainly because the standard characterizations of admissibility do not happen to apply to our predicates and there is a simple direct proof of admissibility using Lemma 4.1.

5 Safety

The syntactic property given by static analysis is called safety. The analysis is specified by a typing system which is convenient for proving our results. For practical purposes, type inference is needed and concrete syntax is needed to designate policy separately from the code (see section 9). The short word “safe”, used in preference to “security-typable”, has a semantic connotation but this is justified by our main results.

In this section we annotate the syntax of section 4 with security labels. Where types \( T \) occur in declarations of fields and local variables, we use pairs \((T, \kappa)\) where \( \kappa \) is a security level, \( L \) or \( H \). Such a pair, written \( \tau \), is called a security type. The grammar is revised as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\kappa & ::= L \mid H \\
\tau & ::= (T, \kappa) \\
CL & ::= \text{class } C \text{ extends } C \{ \bar{\tau}; \bar{M} \} \\
S & ::= \ldots \mid \tau x := e \text{ in } S \mid \ldots
\end{align*}
\]

Note that there is no change for cast and test.

We refrain from giving concrete syntax for the security types of method parameters, results, and effects. By analogy with the auxiliary function \( \text{mtype} \) which gives the declared type of a method (see section 4.1), we assume that a function \( \text{smtypes} \) is given. It may assign multiple security types for a method, each of the form \( \kappa, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow (P; \kappa_1) \rightarrow \kappa_2 \). The intended meaning is as follows: if the method is called with arguments compatible with \( \bar{\kappa} \), target object compatible with \( \kappa \), and enabled permissions disjoint from \( P \), then the heap effect is \( \kappa_1 \) and the result level \( \kappa_2 \).

This is made precise in Definition 10.

There is an ordering on method typings \( \kappa, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow (P; \kappa_1) \rightarrow \kappa_2 \). It is contravariant on inputs \( \kappa, \bar{\kappa} \) and \( P \) and on assignables \( \kappa_1 \), covariant on the result value \( \kappa_2 \).

\[\text{Definition 4 (subtyping)}\]

\[\kappa, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow (P; \kappa_1) \rightarrow \kappa_2 \leq \kappa', \bar{\kappa}' \rightarrow (P'; \kappa_1') \rightarrow \kappa_2' \text{ iff } \kappa' \leq \kappa, \bar{\kappa}' \leq \bar{\kappa}, P \subseteq P', \kappa_1' \leq \kappa_1, \text{ and } \kappa_2 \leq \kappa_2'. \]

Note that \( P \) is interpreted negatively, so the condition \( P \subseteq P' \) is effectively contravariant.

We refrain from defining the induced orderings on \((T, \kappa)\) and \((\text{com } \kappa, \kappa)\); it is simpler to build them into the subsumption rules.

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Definition 5 (annotated class table)
An annotated class table is a class table with annotations according to the grammar above, together with a partial function \( \text{smtypes} \) satisfying the following conditions. First, \( \text{smtypes}(m, C) \) is defined iff \( \text{mtype}(m, C) \) is defined. Second, if \( \text{smtypes}(m, C) \) is defined then it is a non-empty set of annotations of the form \( \kappa, \bar{\kappa} \leftarrow \langle \bar{P}; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \). Third, if \( C \preceq D \) and \( \text{mtype}(m, D) \) is defined then \( \text{smtypes}(m, C) = \text{smtypes}(m, D) \).

Note that we do not require \( P \subseteq \text{Auth} C \). A method may be declared in one class and inherited or overridden in a subclass with different permissions. The third condition allows us to reason about method calls in terms of the static type of a called method, because any implementation that can be invoked by dynamic dispatch is checked with respect to the same security types.

We use the symbol \( \dagger \) to erase annotations: \((T, \kappa)\dagger = T\), and this extends to erasure for typing environments, commands, and method declarations in an obvious way.

A method can have more than one type so for flexibility in checking method declarations the rule must allow local variable declarations to be annotated differently for different types. The rule in the sequel uses the following notion: \( S' \) is a local variant of \( S \) iff \( S'\dagger \) is syntactically identical to \( (S')\dagger \). Note that \( S \) and \( S' \) have the same semantics.

Definition 6 (safe class table and method declaration)
An annotated class table \( CT \) is safe provided that each class satisfies the rule
\[
\text{class } C \text{ extends } D \vdash M \quad \text{for each } M \in \bar{M}
\]

The hypothesis of this rule requires each method declaration to be checked with respect to its security types according to the following rule:
\[
\text{mtype}(m, C) = \bar{T} \rightarrow T \quad \text{pars}(m, C) = \bar{x}
\]

For each \((\kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \leftarrow \langle \bar{P}; \kappa_3 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_4) \) in \( \text{smtypes}(m, C) \) there is a local variant \( S' \) of \( S \) such that \( \text{self} : (C, \kappa_0), \bar{x} : (T, \bar{\kappa}), \text{result} : (T, \kappa_4); (P \cap \text{Auth} C) \vdash S' : (\text{com } \bar{T}, \kappa_3) \)

This rule depends on rules for expressions and commands, which are given in Figures 7 and 8. \( \square \)
\[
x \neq \text{self} \quad \nabla \Delta, x : (T, \kappa) \vdash e : (U, \kappa) \quad U \subseteq T
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash e_1 : (C, \kappa_1) \quad f : (T, \kappa) \in \text{sfields } C \quad \Delta \vdash e_2 : (U, \kappa) \quad U \subseteq T \quad \kappa_1 \leq \kappa
\]

\[
x \neq \text{self} \quad B \leq D
\]

\[
\Delta, x : (T, \kappa) \vdash e : (D, \kappa_0) \quad \text{mtype}(m, D) = \bar{T} \rightarrow T' \quad \Delta, x : (T, \kappa) \vdash e : (\bar{U}, \bar{\kappa})
\]

\[
\bar{U} \subseteq \bar{T} \quad x \neq \text{self} \quad T' \leq T \quad \kappa_0, \bar{\kappa}' \rightarrow \langle \bar{P}', \bar{\kappa}' \rangle \rightarrow \kappa' \in \text{smtypes}(m, D)
\]

\[
\kappa_0 \cap \kappa' \leq \kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \cap \langle \bar{P}', \bar{\kappa}' \rangle \rightarrow \kappa \leq \bar{\kappa}' \cap \bar{\kappa}'
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash S_1 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash \text{if } e \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash e : (\text{bool}, \kappa) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_1 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad \kappa \leq \kappa_1 \cap \kappa_2
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash e : (U, \kappa) \quad U \subseteq T \quad \Delta, x : (T, \kappa) \vdash e \in S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash \text{enable } P' \text{ in } S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
P' \cap P = \emptyset \wedge P' \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^s \text{self}) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_1 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash \text{test } P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
P' \cap P = \emptyset \wedge P' \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^s \text{self}) \quad \Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash \text{test } P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad \kappa_3 \leq \kappa_4 \quad \kappa_4 \leq \kappa_2
\]

\[
\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_3, \kappa_4)
\]

Fig. 8. Security typing rules for commands, for given Auth.

In the rules for expressions and commands, we write \(\Delta\) for typing environments that assign security types. The rules use a version of the fields auxiliary function that takes security levels into account. Let \(\text{CT}(C) = \text{class } C \text{ extends } D \{ \bar{f} \bar{C} \bar{f}; \bar{M} \}\), to define \(\text{sfields } C = \bar{f} \bar{C} \bar{f} \cup \text{fields } D\).

A judgement \(\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)\) says that \(S\) is safe and assigns only to variables (locals and parameters) of level \(\geq \kappa_1\) and to object fields of level \(\geq \kappa_2\) (see Lemma 7.2) provided that no permissions in set \(P\) are enabled initially. For commands, we allow only judgements where \(P \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^s \text{self})\); only such \(P\) is relevant to the behavior of a command declared in class \(\Delta^s \text{self}\). This is reflected in the rule for method declaration in Definition 6.

Assignments to variables within a method have no effect on the caller’s state; this is why it is useful to have two separate levels in command types. The rule for
method declaration does not restrict assignments to local variables, i.e. it allows effect $L$ in the hypothesis.

The last rule in both Figures 7 and 8 is a subsumption rule. These rules help simplify the syntax-directed rules, e.g. the rule for assignment requires the level of the target variable $x$ to be the same as the assigned expression $e$.

A form of subsumption is built in to the rule for method call, which requires there to be some declared type for the method that matches its invocation. Note constraints in the rule prevent use of a type $\kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa$ unless $\kappa_0 \leq \kappa_1$. So a type not satisfying this condition is useless, but we have refrained from cluttering definitions by imposing this condition on $sntypes$.

Subsumptions could be used to simplify the conditional rule, but at the cost of imprecision in the case that the guard condition is $L$ but the commands are $H$.

The rule for $\text{enable}$ accurately tracks the effect on permissions. In it we write “$-$” for set subtraction. The second rule for $\text{test}$ is the one that removes from consideration a branch that, in the given context, cannot be taken: The test of $P'$ fails if $P'$ contains permissions assumed to be excluded or permissions that are not authorized for the class in which this command occurs. The first rule for $\text{test}$ handles the case where it cannot be statically determined, from the information tracked in the judgements, whether the test of $P'$ succeeds.

On first reading it is advisable to skip to section 6 which shows the rules in action. We conclude the present section with minor technicalities.

Properties of security typing. For any judgement $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com} \; \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ derivable using the rules in Figures 7 and 8, the erased judgement $\Delta^\dagger \vdash S^\dagger$ is derivable using the rules of Figure 2. Conversely, any program typable using the rules of Figure 2 can be annotated everywhere by $L$ and typed by the rules in Figures 7 and 8, taking $sntypes(m, C) = \{L, \bar{L} \rightarrow \langle \emptyset ; L \rangle \rightarrow \emptyset\}$ for all $m, C$.

For brevity we write $Q \# P$ for $Q \cap P = \emptyset$.

For reasoning about method calls we repeatedly use the following.

Lemma 5.1
Suppose $\Delta, x : (T, \kappa); P \vdash x := e.m(\bar{e}) : (\text{com} \; \kappa, \kappa_1)$ is derived using the method call rule instantiated with $\kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow \langle P' ; \kappa' \rangle \rightarrow \kappa \in sntypes(m, D)$, and $(\kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow \langle P' ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa') \leq (\kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow \langle P' ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa)$. If $Q \# P$ and $Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self})$ then $Q \# P'$.

Proof
By the typing rule we have $P' \cap \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self}) \subseteq P$ hence, from $Q \# P$, we have $P' \cap \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self}) \cap Q = \emptyset$. Then $Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self})$ implies $Q \cap P' = \emptyset$. □

6 Examples

In this section, we first show how the rules work with the examples in section 3, and extend the examples to consider subclassing and inheritance. Next, we show several examples of leaks that may occur in object-oriented programs due to control flow and aliasing. The security type system in Figure 8 can be deployed to reject such programs. Finally, we show an example concerning integrity.

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Examples from section 3. For the information flow policy, the fields of class Kern are annotated as

\[(\text{string,} H) \text{ Hinfo}; \quad (\text{string,} L) \text{ Linfo};\]

and fields of class Comp1 are annotated as

\[(\text{Kern,} L) k; \quad (\text{string,} L) \nu;\]

The most interesting method typings are given as

\[
\text{smtypes(getHinfo, Kern)} = \{H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow H\} \\
\text{smtypes(getStatus, Kern)} = \{H, () \rightarrow \{\{\text{stat}\}; H\} \rightarrow L, H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow H\} \\
\text{smtypes(status, Comp1)} = \{H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow L\}
\]

For example, the intended meaning of type \(H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow L\) is that if method getStatus is called with self of level \(H\), empty argument list, and enabled permissions disjoint from \(\text{stat}\), then the heap effect is \(\geq H\) and the result level is \(\leq L\).

The body of Comp1.status is checked in the context of result:\(:(\text{string,} L)\) and excluded permission set \(\emptyset \cap \text{Auth(Comp1)}\), i.e. \(\emptyset\). The call to getStatus can be checked using the type \(H, () \rightarrow \{\text{stat}\}; H \rightarrow L\), because \(\{\text{stat}\} \cap \text{Auth(Comp1)} = \{\text{stat}\} \cap \{\text{other}\} \subseteq \emptyset\).

Method Comp1.status2 can also be checked using the same types, as the rule for enable takes into account that the attempt to enable \(\text{stat}\) fails because \(\text{stat} \notin \text{Auth(Comp1)}\).

Consider the policy \(\text{smtypes(statusH, Comp2)} = \{H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow H\}\). This requires checking the body of Comp2.statusH in the context of result:\(:(\text{string,} H)\) and \(\emptyset\). To check the command

\[
\text{enable stat in result := k.getStatus()}
\]

we check result := k.getStatus() in the context of \(\emptyset\), which is \(\emptyset \rightarrow \{\text{stat}\}\). This check succeeds, using the type \(H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow H\) for getStatus.

Finally, consider checking getStatus. To check it with respect to \(H, () \rightarrow \{\emptyset; H\} \rightarrow H\) requires checking both branches of

\[
\text{test stat then enable sys in result := getHinfo() else ...}
\]

in the context with result:\(:(\text{string,} H)\). This succeeds. To check with respect to \(H, () \rightarrow \{\text{stat}\}; H \rightarrow L\), note that the assignment to result in the then branch of the test is not compatible with the context result:\(:(\text{string,} L)\). But, on the assumption that the caller has excluded \(\{\text{stat}\}\), the second of the rules for test is applicable and the then branch is not checked.

Leaks via the access mechanism. The security context is in effect an implicit mutable variable, so there is a potential for the access mechanism to be used for information flow. For example, suppose permission \(p\) is statically authorized for some class and consider the following fragment assuming that \(eH\) is a high expression.

\[
\text{if eH then (enable p in S1) else S2}
\]
If $p$ is not enabled initially then the security state for $S1$ and $S2$ differs in a way that depends on $eH$. One could try to exploit this in an assignment to a low variable $vL$:

```latex
test p \text{ then } vL := 0 \text{ else } vL := 1
```

But note that this assignment is not allowed in the branches of the conditional guarded by $eH$, as it assigns a low variable. That is, the standard rule for conditionals handles in particular flows via security context. Moreover, because enable is a construct, with an effect limited to a lexically scoped constituent command, $p$ is no longer enabled after the branches join (as highlighted by parentheses above). This is why sound static analysis rules for test and enable are straightforward.

Consider this alternative: a primitive command “enable’ $p$” that enables $p$ and leaves it enabled until, say, the current method body terminates. This could be used to leak information because its effect would be retained following the join of the branches:

```latex
(if eH then enable’ $p$; S1 else S2); test p \text{ then } vL := 0 \text{ else } vL := 1
```

To handle enable’, a static analysis could track the security level of the security context in the manner of a typestate. This is much like the formulation where the “program counter” security level is tracked, which is convenient for handling exceptional control flows. But we pursue the idea no further.

### Subclassing

Here is an untrusted subclass, KernSub of Kern that overrides method Kern.getStatus and inherits Kern.getHinfo. Suppose $Auth(KernSub) = \{other\}$.

```latex
class KernSub extends Kern {
    string getStatus() {
        /* smtypes(getStatus, KernSub) = \{H,()\mapsto H, H,()\mapsto \} */
        enable sys in result := self.getHinfo() }
    ...
}
```

For simplicity, in section 5 we let $smtypes(getHinfo,Kern) = \{H,()\mapsto H\}$. However, to take into account callers who do not have permission sys, we have, more precisely, $smtypes(getHinfo,Kern) = \{H,()\mapsto H\}$. Here the body of getStatus is checked in the context \{stat\} $\cap$ $Auth(KernSub)$, (not in context \{stat\} $\cap$ $Auth(Kern)$) i.e., \{stat\} $\cap$ \{other\}, which is $\emptyset$. The permission sys is not enabled as it is not in $Auth(KernSub)$. Now type checking of getHinfo occurs using type $H,()\mapsto \{sys\}\mapsto L$ and this succeeds.

### Level of self.

In the examples so far, method types have the form $H,\kappa_1\mapsto \{P;\kappa\}\mapsto \kappa_2$. The $H$ in the method type is the type of self. We could have as well typed self as $L$, because by contravariance in subtyping, $H,\kappa_1\mapsto \{P;\kappa\}\mapsto \kappa_2 \leq L,\kappa_1\mapsto \{P;\kappa\}\mapsto \kappa_2$. But what if a method is non-anonymous (Vitek & Bokowski, 2001), i.e. the method returns self as result or passes self as argument? For example, suppose method leakSelf was added to class Kern, defined as follows:

```latex
Kern leakSelf() { result := self }
```
If \( k \) is \( L \) then the invocation \( k.leakSelf() \) returns \( L \) but if \( k \) is \( H \) then it returns \( H \). This poses a difficulty in Banerjee & Naumann (2002c) and Strecker (2003) because methods are checked with respect to a level for \( \text{self} \) given by the level of the class and a method can be inherited into another class. In the present paper, classes have no level and we simply need

\[
\text{smtypes}(\text{leakSelf}, \text{Kern}) = \{ L, () \rightarrow \emptyset ; H \rightarrow L, \ H, () \rightarrow \emptyset ; H \rightarrow H \}
\]

In other words, \( \text{self} \) is treated like any other parameter.

This example also illustrates the benefit of level polymorphism.

Leaks. We consider a class \( \text{Doctor} \) with a field \( \text{pat} \) that is a reference to a patient record and a field \( \text{hivRef} \) that is a reference to an \( \text{HIVSpecialist} \). We consider the scenario where a doctor refers a patient to a specialist. The class \( \text{HIVSpecialist} \) has a field \( \text{hivPat} \) that is used as an \( H \) alias to field \( \text{pat} \) whose level is \( L \).

Class \( \text{PatientRecord} \), below, has fields that are references to public and confidential information about a patient. For example, field \( \text{name} \) of a patient has level \( L \), whereas field \( \text{hiv} \) contains confidential information about a patient’s hiv status and field \( \text{drug} \) contains confidential information about medications taken by the patient. Hence both of these fields have level \( H \).

```java
class Doctor extends Object {
    pat: (PatientRecord, L);
    hivRef: (HIVSpecialist, L);
    ...
}

class HIVSpecialist extends Doctor {
    hivPat: (PatientRecord, H); // will be used as high alias to field pat
    ...
}

class PatientRecord extends Object {
    name: (string, L); hiv: (bool, H); drug: (string, H);
    ...
}
```

The above classes may be used as follows.

```java
class Main extends Object {
    (PatientRecord, L) r := new PatientRecord;
    (Doctor, L) dr := new Doctor;
    (HIVSpecialist, L) hivSp := new HIVSpecialist;
    dr.pat := r;
    dr.hivRef := hivSp;
    dr.hivRef.hivPat := dr.pat; //referral set up
    (PatientRecord, H) hpatient := dr.pat;
    (PatientRecord, L) lpatient := dr.pat;
    ...
}
```

The code in \( \text{Main} \) sets up a referral where \( \text{dr} \) refers a patient to \( \text{hivSp} \). The field accesses \( \text{dr.pat}, \text{dr.hivRef} \) and \( \text{dr.hivRef.hivPat} \) then have the following types:
dr.pat: (PatientRecord, L), dr.hivRef: (HIVSpecialist, L), and dr.hivRef.hivPat: (PatientRecord, H). Note that hpatient and lpatient are aliases, although their types vary.

**Leaks via control flow: conditionals.** We first consider the example of a conditional with a high guard.

```java
if lpatient.hiv then lpatient.drug := “azt” else lpatient.drug := “generic”;
```

Note that lpatient.hiv : (bool, H), hence the guard of the conditional has level \(H\). Were the type of field drug \(L\), the hiv status could be revealed, as lpatient.drug would have level \(L\). The rule for conditionals with high guard requires that both branches have \((com\ H, H)\), as is true here with drug typed \(H\) (in this case there are no assignments to variables).

**Leaks via control flow: Dynamic dispatch.** Next we consider leaks via dynamic dispatch in method calls. To the class PatientRecord, we add the methods setDrug and set. We also add a method leak that branches on self.hiv and returns an object of class YES or NO.

```java
class PatientRecord extends Object {
    name: (string, L); hiv: (bool, H); drug: (string, H);
    (unit, L) setDrug((string, L) d) {
        /* smtypes(setDrug, PatientRecord) = \{H, L−∅; H→L\} */
        self.drug := d
    }
    (unit, L) set() {
        /* smtypes(set, PatientRecord) = \{H, ()−∅; H→L\} */
        self.setDrug(“azt”); }

    (PatientRecord, H) leak() {
        /* smtypes(leak, PatientRecord) = \{H, ()−∅; H→H\} */
        if self.hiv then result:= new YES else result:= new NO }
}
```

Classes YES and NO are subclasses of PatientRecord where the set method is overridden as depicted below:

```java
class YES extends PatientRecord {
    (unit, L) set() {
        self.setDrug(“azt”); }
}
class NO extends PatientRecord {
    (unit, L) set() { self.setDrug(“generic”); }
}
```

Note that method PatientRecord.leak returns a result of type (PatientRecord, H). This makes sense because the body of the method is a conditional with a high guard, self.hiv. Were the type of field drug \(L\), the hiv status could be revealed as follows.

```java
```
The call to `hpatient.leak` assigns an object of class YES or class NO to `p` depending on the patient’s HIV status. This can be checked directly, using a type test `p` is YES. But the point of the example is that the subsequent call `p.set()` is a dynamic dispatch to the overriding `set` method in class YES or NO that sets the `drug` field; if `drug` and `p` had level `L` then the expression `p.drug` would violate confidentiality. Hence, in a method call (e.g. `p.set()`), if the target object reference (here `p`) has level `H`, then only `H` fields may be updated during the call. Note that `smTypes(set, PatientRecord)` has annotation `H` on the arrow.

**Leaks via aliasing in field update.** Leaks can occur due to aliasing of high and low object references and a subsequent update of a low field of the object. The following example, due to Sun Qi, shows how. We will add the field `bloodGroup` of type `(string, L)` to `PatientRecord`.

```java
class PatientRecord extends Object {
    (string, L) bloodGroup; ...
}
```

Now we consider a test method in class `Main`:

```java
(string, L) test((bool, H) g) {
    (PatientRecord, L) lp1 := new PatientRecord;
    (PatientRecord, L) lp2 := new PatientRecord;
    (PatientRecord,H) hp;
    (String, L) bg := lp1.bloodGroup; // initial value in lp1's bloodGroup
    if g then hp := lp1 else hp := lp2; // hp aliases lp1 or lp2 depending on g
    hp.bloodGroup := "Z"; // update of L field of H object reference
    if bg = lp1.bloodGroup then result := "no" else result := "yes"; // g is leaked
}
```

After the field update `hp.bloodGroup := "Z"`, either `lp1.bloodGroup` is “Z” or `lp2.bloodGroup` is “Z” depending on which of `lp1`, `lp2` aliases `hp`. This aliasing, in turn, depends on the `H` input `g`. The conditional, if `g` then `hp := lp1` else `hp := lp2`, is legitimate since only the `H` variable `hp` is assigned under the `H` guard. However, the subsequent field update of `bloodGroup` allows one to infer the value of `g` by checking the value of `lp1.bloodGroup`: if its value is identical to its initial value, then `g` must have been false. Therefore, we disallow updates to `L` fields of `H` object references. The rule for field update in the security type system requires the level of `hp` to be at most the level of `bloodGroup`. As this is not the case, the test method is rejected by the type system.

Examples like this might lead one to suggest disallowing any aliasing between `L` and `H` variables or fields. But this is hard to enforce while still allowing `L`-to-`H` information flows. A natural design pattern is exemplified by the pair `lpatient`, `hpatient` where `lpatient` is the `L` alias, as in one of the examples above. In that context, a field update `lpatient.name := "Sue"` would be allowed, but not `hpatient.name := "Sue"`. Note that this means that the object is effectively `L` from the point of view of the analysis.

**Integrity.** As remarked in the introduction, confidentiality can be seen as the absence of dependency of `L` on `H`, and this can also be read as a form of integrity: Licensed
data is not influenced by Hacked data. The following example, an adaptation of one from Abadi & Fournet (2003), shows how our type system can be deployed to check integrity.

Our main example on the use of stack inspection based access control for confidentiality (section 3) considers untrusted or partially trusted code calling trusted code (method `getStatus`). Now we consider the dual scenario of trusted code calling untrusted code.

```java
class NaiveProgram extends Object {
    unit Main() {
        (string, H) s := BadPlugIn.TempFile();
        enable FileIO in File.Delete(s); }
}
```

Suppose that `NaiveProgram` is a trusted class with all permissions. Next, we consider the partially trusted class `BadPlugIn` whose static permissions do not include `FileIO`.

```java
class BadPlugIn extends Object {
    (string, H) TempFile() { result := "...password file..." }
}
```

The trusted class `File` has all permissions and contains the method `Delete`, where the file deletion operation is protected by a test of permission `FileIO`.

```java
class File extends Object {
    unit Delete((string, H) s) {
        test FileIO then Win32.Delete(s) else abort; }
}
```

As Abadi and Fournet note, stack inspection will not be able to prevent the deletion of the password file in the call `NaiveProgram.Main()`. They propose a history-based access control mechanism for such situations. Our static analysis can be used to reject the program.

We decorate `BadPlugIn.TempFile()` with the (integrity) flow policy

\[
\text{smtypes}(\text{TempFile}, \text{BadPlugIn}) = \{ L, (\varnothing ; H) \mapsto H \} 
\]

The code for `File.Delete()` can be checked against flow policy

\[
\text{smtypes}(\text{Delete}, \text{File}) = \{ L, H \mapsto \{ \text{FileIO} \}; H \mapsto () , L, L \rightarrow \varnothing ; H \mapsto () \} 
\]

The first flow policy concerns hacked inputs, and is used in a context where `FileIO` is absent. For example, `BadPlugIn` is welcome to call `Delete` directly and no harm would occur. The second policy says that callers with permission to delete files should not pass tainted data to `Delete` – this of course is the point of the example. Indeed, for this policy, the type system checks the body of `Delete` in the permission context \( \{ \text{FileIO} \} \cap \text{Auth(File)} \), i.e., the context \( \{ \text{FileIO} \} \), and `Delete` is accepted.

Observe that if we check `NaiveProgram.Main` for the policy \( L, (\varnothing ; H) \mapsto () \), the call to `Delete` is rejected by our type system as it violates the flow policy for `Delete`.

### 7 Indistinguishability and confinement

In this section we show that if an expression is safe, i.e., accepted by the security typing rules of section 5, and has level \( L \), then it is read confined: its value does
not depend on \(H\)-fields or \(H\)-variables. Moreover, if a command is safe and it has level \(com\ H, H\) then it is write confined: it does not assign to \(L\)-fields or \(L\)-variables. These two properties are the semantic counterparts of the rules “no read up” and “no write down” that underly information flow control; the terms “simple security” and “*-property” are also used (Bell & LaPadula, 1973).

The formalization uses the indistinguishability relation \(\sim\) which is also used to formulate noninterference in section 8. States \((h, \eta)\) and \((h', \eta')\) may be indistinguishable to an \(L\) observer while having different allocation of objects visible only to \(H\). For this reason, indistinguishability is formalized using a bijective correspondence between those locations in \(dom h\) and \(dom h'\) that, informally, are or have been visible to \(L\).

Definition 7

A typed bijection is a bijective finite partial function, \(\sigma\), from \(Loc\) to \(Loc\), such that \(loctype(\sigma \ell) = loctype \ell\) for all \(\ell\) in \(dom \sigma\).

In the sequel, \(\sigma\) and its decorated variants range over typed bijections. We treat partial functions as sets of ordered pairs, so \(\sigma' \supseteq \sigma\) expresses that \(\sigma'\) is an extension of \(\sigma\).

Definition 8 (indistinguishable by \(L\))

For any \(\sigma\), we define relations \(\sim_\sigma\) for data values, object states, heaps, and stores. To be pedantic we could write \(\sim_\sigma^0\), which would let us precisely specify the typing: \(\sim_\sigma^0 \subseteq \llbracket \theta \rrbracket \times \llbracket \theta \rrbracket\). But in the sequel the category should be clear from context so we just indicate it informally in the following.

\[
\begin{align*}
\ell \sim_\sigma \ell' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket C \rrbracket \iff \sigma \ell = \ell' \lor \ell = nil = \ell' \\
d \sim_\sigma d' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket T \rrbracket \iff d = d' \quad \text{for primitive types } T \\
s \sim_\sigma s' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket \text{state } C \rrbracket \iff \forall (f : (T, \kappa)) \in \text{sfields } C \bullet \kappa = L \Rightarrow sf \sim_\sigma s' f \\
\eta \sim_\sigma \eta' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \rrbracket \iff \forall (x : (T, \kappa)) \in \Delta \bullet \kappa = L \Rightarrow \eta x \sim_\sigma \eta' x \\
h \sim_\sigma h' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket \text{Heap} \rrbracket \iff \text{dom } \sigma \subseteq \text{dom } h \land \text{rng } \sigma \subseteq \text{dom } h' \land \\
& \quad \forall \ell, \ell' \bullet \ell \sim_\sigma \ell' \Rightarrow h \ell \sim_\sigma h' \ell' \\
d \sim_\sigma d' & \quad \text{in } \llbracket T_\bot \rrbracket \iff d = \bot = d' \lor (d \neq \bot \neq d' \land d \sim_\sigma d' \text{ in } \llbracket T \rrbracket)
\end{align*}
\]

Note that \(\eta \sim_\sigma \eta'\) depends on the levels given by the context \(\Delta\), though this is not explicit in the notation. We have occasion to consider stores for differing contexts, in which case we take care to mention which context is considered. The relations \(\sim_\sigma\) for object states, and hence for heaps, depend implicitly on class declarations, but a fixed class table is considered throughout.
To extend our definitions to a lattice of levels larger than $H, L$, the main change would be that a relation $\sim_{\sigma}$ is needed for each level $\gamma$, to express indistinguishability with respect to that level.

Indistinguishability is not symmetric or reflexive in general. But $h \sim h$ where $i$ is the identity on $dom h$. Limited transitivity and symmetry hold.

**Lemma 7.1**

For any heaps $h_1, h_2, h_3$, if $h_1 \sim_{\sigma} h_2$ and $h_2 \sim_{\tau} h_3$ then $h_1 \sim_{\tau \sigma} h_3$.

For any $\Delta$ and $\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3$ in $[[\Delta]]$, if $\eta_1 \sim_{\sigma} \eta_2$ and $\eta_2 \sim_{\tau} \eta_3$ then $\eta_1 \sim_{\tau \sigma} \eta_3$.

If $dom \sigma = \text{rng} \sigma$ then all the relations $\sim_{\sigma}$ are symmetric. \qed

The proof is straightforward. An important special case is where $\tau$ or $\sigma$ is a partial identity function. Note that for stores the relations $\sim_{\sigma}$, $\sim_{\tau}$, and $\sim_{\tau \sigma}$ are all with respect to the same $\Delta$.

One use of $\sim$ is to formulate, in Lemma 7.2 below, that if a command is typable as $(\text{com } H, \kappa)$ it does not assign to $L$-variables, and if it is typable as $(\text{com } \kappa, H)$ it does not assign to $L$-fields of objects. For this purpose we use $h \sim h_0$, for initial $h$ and final $h_0$, where $i$ is the identity on $dom h$. This expresses that no $L$ fields are changed.

Each of our results about the meaning of a class table $CT$ is proved by induction on the approximation chain by which $[[CT]]$ is defined. The induction step is treated as a separate lemma about commands, in which the induction hypothesis is an assumption about the method environment. That is the purpose of the following.

**Definition 9** (write confined method environment)

Method environment $\mu$ is write confined, written $\text{wconf } \mu$, if the following holds for all $C, m$ and all $\kappa, \kappa' \vdash (P; H) \Rightarrow \kappa_1$ in $\text{smtypes}(m, C)$. If $Q \# P$ and $\mu \text{Cm}(h, \eta) Q \neq \bot$ then $h \sim h_0$, where $(h_0, d) = \mu \text{Cm}(h, \eta) Q$ and $i$ is the identity on $dom h$. \qed

**Lemma 7.2** (write confinement of commands)

Suppose $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ and $\text{wconf } \mu$. For all $\eta, h, Q$ such that $Q \# P$, and

$$Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta \uparrow \text{ self})$$

if $(h_0, \eta_0) = [[\Delta \uparrow S \uparrow]] \mu(h, \eta) Q$ then

$$\kappa_1 = H \Rightarrow \eta \sim \eta_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \kappa_2 = H \Rightarrow h \sim h_0$$

where $i$ is the identity on $dom h$.

Note that no condition is imposed if $[[\Delta \uparrow S \uparrow]] \mu(h, \eta) Q = \bot$.

**Proof**

We proceed by induction on a derivation of $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ and thus by cases on the last rule used in the derivation. In every case except the subsumption rule, the antecedents involve proper constituents $S'$ of $S$ so in those cases we say “induction on $S$’’.

**Case** $\Delta, x : (T, \kappa); P \vdash x := e : (\text{com } \kappa, H)$: Recall the semantic definition

$$[[\Delta \uparrow x := e]] \mu(h, \eta) Q = \text{ let } d = [[\Delta \uparrow e : T]](h, \eta) \text{ in } (h, [\eta | x \mapsto d])$$

Thus $\eta_0, h_0$ in the statement of the Lemma have the values $\eta_0 = [\eta | x \mapsto d]$ and $h_0 = h$. For the store, we need to show that $\kappa = H \Rightarrow \eta \sim \eta_0$. This follows using definition $\sim$, for $\Delta, x : (T, H)$. For the heap, we have $h \sim h_0$ by reflexivity of $\sim$. 

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In subsequent proof cases we let $h_0, \eta_0$ be as in the statement of the Lemma, and other identifiers be as in the relevant semantic definition and security typing rule, with only occasional reminders of this convention. This saves ink at the cost of some page flipping for the reader.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash e_1.f := e_2 : (com \ H, \kappa)$: Let $\ell = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e_1 : C \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ and $d = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e_2 : T \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ as in the semantic definition. Thus $h_0 = [h \mid \ell \mapsto [h.\ell \mid f \mapsto d]]$ and $\eta_0 = \eta$. Field assignment has no effect on the store, so $\eta \sim \eta_0$ holds by definition $\sim$. For the heap we must show $\kappa = H \Rightarrow h \sim \eta_0$. The rule requires $f$ to have level $\kappa$, and if $\kappa$ is $H$ then $h \sim \eta_0$ holds by definition $\sim$.

Case $\Delta; x : (D, \kappa); P \vdash x := \text{new} B : (com \ \kappa, H)$: Let $\ell = \text{fresh}(B, h)$, so that $\eta_0 = [\eta \mid x \mapsto \ell]$ and $h_0 = [h \mid \ell \mapsto [\text{fields} B \mapsto \text{defaults}]]$ by semantics. For the store, if $\kappa = H$ then $\eta \sim \eta_0$ follows by definition of $\sim$. For the heap we have $h \sim \eta_0$ by definition of $\sim$, as $i$ is the identity on $\text{dom} h$ and thus does not involve $\ell$.

Case $\Delta, x : (T, \kappa); P \vdash \text{e.m}(\bar{x}) : (com \ \kappa, \kappa_1)$: Let $\ell = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e : D \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ and $\bar{d} = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash \bar{x} : \bar{U} \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ as in the semantics. As we only need to consider the non-$\bot$ case, there is $d_0$ with $(h_0, d_0) = \mu(\text{loctype} \ell)\mu(m, \eta_1)Q$, where $\eta_1 = [\bar{x} \mapsto \bar{d}, \text{self} \mapsto \ell]$, and we have $\eta_0 = [\eta \mid x \mapsto d_0]$.

For the store, if $\kappa = H$ then $\eta \sim [\eta \mid x \mapsto d_0]$ follows by definition of $\sim$, for $\Delta, x : (T, H)$. For the heap, suppose $\kappa_1 = H$. Then we must show $h \sim \eta_0$. By the security typing rule there is some $(\kappa_0, \kappa', \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle) \in \text{sntypes}(m, D)$, and so $(\kappa_0, \kappa', \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle) \in \text{sntypes}(m, \text{loctype} \ell)$ by ordinary typing ($\text{loctype} \ell \subseteq D$) and Definition 5 of annotated class table. Now, by the subtyping condition in the rule we have $\langle \kappa_0, \kappa' \rangle \leq \langle \kappa_0, \kappa \rangle$ which by definition implies $\kappa_1 \leq \kappa'_1$. Hence $\kappa'_1 = H$. Using hypotheses $Q \# P$ and $Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \text{self})$ we can apply Lemma 5.1 to get $Q \# P'$. So we can use assumption $\text{wconf} \mu$ of the present Lemma to get $h \sim \eta_0$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash S_1 : S_2 : (com \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: Let $(h_1, \eta_1) = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash S_1^+ \rrbracket\mu(h, \eta)Q$ and thus $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash S_2^+ \rrbracket\mu(h_1, \eta_1)Q$. For the store, assume $\kappa_1 = H$. Then by induction on (the derivation for) $S_1$ we get $\eta \sim \eta_1$. So by induction on $S_2$, we get $\eta_1 \sim \eta_0$. Now by Lemma 7.1, we get $\eta \sim \eta_0$. For the heap, assume $\kappa_2 = H$. Now $h \sim \eta_0$ follows by induction on $S_1$ followed by induction on $S_2$ and finally Lemma 7.1.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash e ; \text{if } e \text{ then } S_1 ; \text{else } S_2 : (com \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: Let $b = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e : \text{bool} \rrbracket(h, \eta)$. For the store, assume $\kappa_1 = H$. Then if $b = \text{true}$ (resp. $b = \text{false}$) the result $\eta \sim \eta_0$ follows by induction on the derivation for $S_1$ (resp. $S_2$). Similarly for the heap.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash x : (T, \kappa) \text{ e := e in } S : (com \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: Let $d = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e : T \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ and thus $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash x : T \rrbracket(h, \eta)[x \mapsto d)]Q$. (Note that the rule allows $x : (T, L)$ but if $S$ assigns to $x$ then $\kappa_1 = L$.) For the store, assume $\kappa_1 = H$. Then by induction on $S$ we get $\eta \sim \eta_0$ with respect to $\Delta, x : (T, \kappa)$, hence $\eta \sim (\eta_0 \mid x)$ with respect to $\Delta$. For the heap, if $\kappa_2 = H$ then by induction on $S$ we get $h \sim \eta_0$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash \text{enable } P' \text{ in } S : (com \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: By hypothesis of the rule we have $\Delta; (P - Q') \vdash S : (com \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$.
where $Q' = P' \cap \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self})$. By semantics, $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash S \rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)(Q \cup Q')$. So, to use induction on $S$ it suffices to show that $(Q \cup Q') \# (P - Q')$. This follows by set theory from hypothesis $Q \# P$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash \text{test} \ P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: We argue by cases on whether $P' \subseteq Q$. If $P' \subseteq Q$ then $P' \# P$ by hypothesis $Q \# P$ and $P' \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self})$ by hypothesis $Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \text{self})$. Thus the first of the rules for test in Figure 8 must have been used. Since $P' \subseteq Q$, the test condition is true and the semantics is given by semantics of $S_1$. We have $\Delta; P \vdash S_1 : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ by hypothesis of the rule, so to obtain both results $\eta \sim_1, \eta_0$ and $h \sim_1, h_0$ we can use induction on $S_1$.

In the other subcase, $P' \notin Q$, the test condition is false so the semantics is given by semantics of $S_2$. Both of the rules for test $P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2$ have hypothesis $\Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ so we get both $\eta \sim_1, \eta_0$ and $h \sim_1, h_0$ by induction on $S_2$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com} \ \kappa_3, \kappa_4)$ by subsumption rule: Let $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash S \rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)Q$. For the store, suppose $\kappa_3 = H$. By the rule, $\kappa_3 \leq \kappa_1$, so we have $\kappa_1 = H$. Then the result $\eta \sim_1, \eta_0$ follows by induction on the smaller derivation tree for $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$. For the heap, if $\kappa_4 = H$ then by the typing rule we have $\kappa_4 \leq \kappa_2$, so $\kappa_2 = H$ and the result $h \sim_1, h_0$ follows by induction on the derivation of the rule’s hypothesis $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$. \qed

Lemma 7.3 (safe programs are write confined)

If annotated class table $CT$ is safe then $wconf \llbracket CT^\dagger \rrbracket$ and also $wconf \mu_i$ for each $\mu_i$ in the approximation chain for semantics of $CT$ (see Definition 2).

Proof

First, we show the following, by induction on $i$:

$$wconf \mu_i \text{ for all } i \in \mathbb{N} \tag{4}$$

For the base case, $wconf \mu_0$ holds because the antecedent $\mu_0Cm(h, \eta)Q \neq \perp$ in the definition of $wconf$ is falsified by $\mu_0$. For the induction step, suppose that $wconf \mu_i$. To show $wconf \mu_{i+1}$, consider any $C$, $m$, and $\kappa, \bar{\kappa} - \{P; H\} \rightarrow \kappa_1$ in smtypes$(m, C)$. For any $Q, h, \eta$ with $Q \# P$, suppose $(h_0, d) = \mu_{i+1}Cm(h, \eta)Q$. We must show $h \sim_1, h_0$ where $i$ is the identity on dom $h$. The argument is by cases on whether $m$ is inherited in $C$.

If $m$ is inherited in $C$ from $B$ then, by definition of $\mu$, we have $\mu_{i+1}Cm(h, \eta)Q = \mu_{i+1}Bm(h, \eta)Q$. So we can obtain the result for $C$ directly from the result for $B$, using a secondary induction on inheritance chains.

For the case that $m$ has declaration $M$ in $C$, we have $\mu_{i+1}Cm(h, \eta)Q = \llbracket M \rrbracket \mu_i(h, \eta)Q$. Suppose mtype$(m, C) = \overline{T} \rightarrow T$ and pars$(m, C) = \bar{x}$. By Definition 3 we have

$$\llbracket M \rrbracket \mu_i(h, \eta)Q = \text{let } Q_1 = Q \cap \text{Auth } C \text{ in}$$
$$\text{let } \eta_1 = [\eta \mid \text{result} \rightarrow \text{default}] \text{ in}$$
$$\text{let } (h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \bar{x} : \overline{T}, \text{self : } C, \text{result : } T \vdash S \rrbracket \mu_i(h, \eta)Q_1 \text{ in}$$
$$(h_0, \eta_0 \text{ result})$$
By the security typing rule for method declaration with respect to \( \kappa, \bar{k} \rightarrow (P ; H) \rightarrow \kappa_1 \), there is some local variant \( S' \) of \( S \) such that

\[
\text{self} : (C, \kappa), \bar{x} : (\bar{\bar{T}}, \bar{\bar{k}}), \text{result} : (T, \kappa_1); \ (P \cap Auth \ C) \vdash S' : (com \ L, H)
\]

As \( Q_1 \subseteq Auth \ C \), we can apply Lemma 7.2, for \( \mu_i \) and \( S' \), noting that \( S'^\dagger = S^\dagger \), to obtain \( h \sim_i h_0 \). This concludes the proof of (4).

Finally, we prove that (4) implies \( wconf \ (lub \ \mu) \). Suppose \( \mu \) is an ascending chain and we have \( \forall i \bullet wconf \ \mu_i \). To show \( wconf \ (lub \ \mu) \), consider any \( C, m \), and \( \kappa, \bar{k} \rightarrow (P ; H) \rightarrow \kappa_1 \) in smtypes\((m, C)\). Consider any \( h, \eta \) and \( Q \) such that \( Q \neq P \) and \( (lub \ \mu)Cm(h, \eta)Q \neq \bot \). Let \( (h_0, d) = (lub \ \mu)Cm(h, \eta)Q \). We must show \( h \sim_1 h_0 \) where \( i \) is the identity on \( dom \ h \). By Lemma 4.1 there is \( \bar{j} \) with \( (lub \mu)Cm(h, \eta)Q = \mu_jCm(h, \eta)Q \) and by hypothesis \( wconf \ \mu_j \) we obtain \( h \sim_1 h_0 \).

The last result in this section can be seen as a simple form of noninterference. It says that if an expression can be typed \( \Delta \vdash e : (T, L) \) then its meaning is the same in two \( L \)-indistinguishable states.

Lemma 7.4 (safe expressions are read confined)

Suppose \( \Delta \vdash e : (T, L) \) and \( h \sim_\sigma h' \) and \( \eta \sim_\eta \eta' \). If \( d = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e : T \rrbracket(h, \eta) \) and \( d' = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e : T \rrbracket(h', \eta') \) then \( d \sim_\sigma d' \).

Proof

The proof is by induction on a derivation of \( \Delta \vdash e : (T, L) \) with cases on the last rule used.

In this proof and subsequent ones, we extend the convention described earlier in which we refer to identifiers in the semantic definitions without explicit mention in the proof. When comparing semantics for a pair of states \((h, \eta)\) and \((h', \eta')\), we use corresponding primes on identifiers in the semantic definitions.

Case \( \Delta \vdash x : \Delta x \): Then \( \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash x : T \rrbracket(h, \eta) = \eta x \) and \( \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash x : T \rrbracket(h', \eta') = \eta' x \). We must show \( \eta x \sim_\sigma \eta' x \). This follows by assumptions \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \) and \( \Delta \sim (T, L) \).

Case \( \Delta \vdash e_1 = e_2 : (bool, L) \): Let \( d_1 = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e_1 : T_1 \rrbracket(h, \eta) \) and let \( d_2 = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e_2 : T_2 \rrbracket(h, \eta) \). We must show \( (d_1 = d_2) \sim_{\text{bool}} (d_1' = d_2') \), that is, \( d_1 = d_2 \) iff \( d_1' = d_2' \). By the typing rule, we have \( \Delta \vdash e_1 : (T_1, L) \) and \( \Delta \vdash e_2 : (T_2, L) \). By induction on (the derivation of) \( e_1 \) we obtain \( d_1 \sim_\sigma d_1' \) and induction on \( e_2 \) yields \( d_2 \sim_\sigma d_2' \). The result follows because \( \sigma \) is bijective.

Case \( \Delta \vdash e.f : (T, L) \): By the typing rule, \( \kappa \sqcup \kappa_1 = L\), so \( \kappa = L = \kappa_1 \). Hence we can use induction on \( e \); this yields locations \( \ell, \ell' \) where \( \ell = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e : C \rrbracket(h, \eta) \) and \( \ell' = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash e : C \rrbracket(h', \eta') \) and \( \ell \sim_\sigma \ell' \). (Or else both are \( \bot \) or both are \( \text{nil} \) which leads to result \( \bot \), and \( \bot \sim_\sigma \bot \) by definition.) From \( h \sim_\sigma h' \), by definition of \( \sim_\sigma \) on heaps we have \( h\ell \sim_\sigma h'\ell' \). Thus \( h\ell f \sim_\sigma h'\ell' f \) by definition of \( \sim_\sigma \) on object states and we are done.

This implication is exactly the admissibility of \( wconf \); by admissibility, one obtains \( wconf \ (lub \ \mu) \) by fixpoint induction. We refrain from formulating \( (lub \ \mu) \) as a fixpoint.

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We can use induction on the smaller derivation tree for \( \Delta \vdash e \) and (\( \Delta \text{ and } \bar{\mu}Cm \)). Case (\( \bar{\mu}Cm \text{ meaning} \)). Note that if it is safe with respect to a given flow policy then its semantics for the given access policy does satisfy the flow policy.

8 Safety implies noninterference

This section proves the main result: if a class table is accepted by the security typing rules then the method environment that it denotes satisfies noninterference. That is, if it is safe with respect to a given flow policy then its semantics for the given access policy does satisfy the flow policy.

8.1 Satisfaction and noninterference

Noninterference for a class table is defined in terms of noninterference of method meanings with respect to their security types.

**Definition 10 (satisfaction)**

Suppose \( d \in \llbracket C, \bar{x} : T \rightarrow T \rrbracket \) and the length of \( \bar{x} \) is the same as \( \bar{x} \). Then \( d \) satisfies a typing \( \kappa_0, \bar{x} \vdash \langle P ; k_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) iff for all \( \sigma, h, h', \eta, \eta', Q \), if \( h \sim_{\sigma} h', \eta \sim_{\sigma} \eta', Q \# P \), \( (h_0, d_0) = d(h, \eta)Q \), and \( (h'_0, d'_0) = d(h', \eta')Q \), then there is \( \tau \equiv \sigma \) such that \( h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \) and \( k_2 = L \Rightarrow d_0 \sim_{\tau} d'_0 \).

Our main result is that the method environment denoted by a secure class table is noninterfering. The proof uses lemmas which express noninterference for the expression and command constructs, respectively. First, we explore properties of security subtyping, which in passing justifies the use of a set of types for methods.

**Proposition 8.1 (satisfaction is monotonic)**

Suppose that \( \kappa_0, \bar{x} \vdash \langle P ; k_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \leq \kappa'_0, \bar{x} \vdash \langle P' ; k'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa'_2 \). If \( d \in \llbracket C, \bar{x} : T \rightarrow T \rrbracket \) satisfies \( \kappa_0, \bar{x} \vdash \langle P ; k_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) then it also satisfies \( \kappa'_0, \bar{x} \vdash \langle P' ; k'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa'_2 \).
Proof
Suppose \( d \) is in \([C, \bar{x}, \bar{T} \rightarrow \bar{T}]\). To show that \( d \) satisfies \( \kappa'_0, \bar{k'} \vdash \langle P' ; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa'_2 \), suppose that \( h \sim_\sigma h' \) and \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \), and \( Q \# P' \). Suppose \((h_0, d_0) = d(h, \eta)Q\) and \((h'_0, d'_0) = d(h', \eta')Q\). Note that here \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \) is with respect to \( \Delta' = [self : (C, \kappa'_0), \bar{x} : (\bar{T}, \bar{k'})]\).

From \( \kappa_0, \bar{k} \vdash \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \leq \kappa'_0 \) we have \( \kappa'_0 \leq \kappa_0 \) and \( \bar{k'} \leq \bar{k} \). Thus by definition of \( \sim_\sigma \) we get \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \) with respect to \( \Delta = [self : (C, \kappa_0), \bar{x} : (\bar{T}, \bar{k})] \). By \( P \subseteq P' \) we have \( Q \neq P \). Now we can use that \( d \) satisfies \( \kappa_0, \bar{k} \vdash \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) to obtain \( \tau \geq \sigma \) such that \( h_0 \sim_\tau h'_0 \) and \( \kappa_2 = L \Rightarrow d_0 \sim_\tau d'_0 \). It remains to show that \( \kappa'_2 = L \) implies \( d_0 \sim_\tau d'_0 \); this follows using \( \kappa_2 \leq \kappa'_2 \). \( \square \)

Because there are finitely many security levels and permissions, the ordered set of method typings is finite. In fact it is a lattice, because permission sets and security levels form lattices. We can express the greatest lower bound of \( \kappa_0, \bar{k} \vdash \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) and \( \kappa'_0, \bar{k'} \vdash \langle P' ; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa'_2 \) pointwise, using \( \cap \) on levels in contravariant positions:

\[(\kappa_0 \cup \kappa'_0), (\bar{k} \cup \bar{k'}) \vdash \langle (P \cap P') ; (\kappa_1 \cup \kappa'_1) \rangle \rightarrow (\kappa_2 \cap \kappa'_2)\]

As remarked in section 3, satisfaction does not distribute over \( \cap \).

Example 1
The denotation of method \( \text{getStatus} \) satisfies both \( H, () \vdash \langle \{ \text{stat} \} ; H \rangle \rightarrow L \) and \( H, () \vdash \langle \emptyset ; H \rangle \rightarrow H \). But \( (H, ()) \vdash \langle \{ \text{stat} \} ; H \rangle \rightarrow L \) \( \cap \) \( (H, ()) \vdash \langle \emptyset ; H \rangle \rightarrow L \), and \( \text{getStatus} \) does not satisfy \( H, () \vdash \langle \emptyset ; H \rangle \rightarrow L \).

The proof of the main theorem goes by proving safety of the approximation chain. The final step, to safety of \( \llbracket CT \rrbracket \), we give as a separate result.

**Lemma 8.2 (noninterference is admissible)**

Suppose \( \mu \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \llbracket MEnv \rrbracket \) is an ascending chain and nonint \( \mu_i \) for all \( i \). Then nonint \( (\operatorname{lub} \mu) \).

**Proof**
To show nonint \( (\operatorname{lub} \mu) \), consider any \( C, m \) and \( \kappa, \bar{k} \vdash \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) in smtypes \((m, C)\). We must show that \((\operatorname{lub} \mu) \operatorname{Cm} \) satisfies \( \kappa, \bar{k} \vdash \langle P ; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa_2 \).

Consider any \( \sigma, h, h', \eta, \eta' \), \( Q \) such that \( h \sim_\sigma h' \), \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \), and \( Q \neq P \). Suppose \((h_0, \eta_0) = (\operatorname{lub} \mu) \operatorname{Cm}(h, \eta)Q\) and \((h'_0, \eta'_0) = (\operatorname{lub} \mu) \operatorname{Cm}(h', \eta')Q\). By Lemma 4.1 there are \( j, j' \) such that \((h_0, \eta_0) = \mu_k \operatorname{Cm}(h, \eta)Q\) for all \( k \geq j \) and \((h'_0, \eta'_0) = \mu_{k'} \operatorname{Cm}(h', \eta')Q\) for all \( k' \geq j' \). Choosing \( i \) to be the maximum of \( j \) and \( j' \) yields \((h_0, \eta_0) = \mu_i \operatorname{Cm}(h, \eta)Q\) and \((h'_0, \eta'_0) = \mu_i \operatorname{Cm}(h', \eta')Q\). Then to conclude the argument for satisfaction by \((\operatorname{lub} \mu) \) it suffices to use satisfaction by \( \mu_i \). \( \square \)

### 8.2 Main result

**Lemma 8.3 (safe commands are noninterfering)**

Suppose \( \Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com} \ \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \), wconf \( \mu \), and nonint \( \mu \). Suppose also \( Q \neq P \), \( Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^\dagger \ self) \), \( \eta \sim_\sigma \eta' \), \( h \sim_\sigma h' \), \((h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash S^\dagger \rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)Q\) and \((h'_0, \eta'_0) = \llbracket \Delta^\dagger \vdash S^\dagger \rrbracket \mu(h', \eta')Q\). Then there is \( \tau \geq \sigma \) such that \( \eta_0 \sim_\tau \eta'_0 \) and \( h_0 \sim_\tau h'_0 \).
Proof

We proceed by induction on a derivation of $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ with cases on the last rule used in the derivation. In each case we define $\tau$ and show $\eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0$ and $h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0$. Only new and method calls allocate new objects; in all other cases for primitive commands, namely, assignment and field update, we take $\tau = \sigma$. 

Recall the convention described earlier: we refer to identifiers in the semantic definitions and security typing rules.

Case $\Delta, x : (T, \kappa); P \vdash x := e : (\text{com } \kappa, H)$: Recall the semantic definition

$$[[\Delta \vdash x := e]](\eta) = \text{let } d = [[\Delta \vdash e : T]](\eta) \text{ in } (h, [\eta \mid x \mapsto d])$$

Thus $\eta_0, h_0$ in the statement of Lemma have the values $\eta_0 = [\eta \mid x \mapsto d]$ and $h_0 = h$. We must show $[\eta \mid x \mapsto d] \sim_{\sigma} [\eta' \mid x \mapsto d']$. By hypothesis, $\eta \sim_{\sigma} \eta'$, so it only remains to show that $\kappa = L$ implies $d \sim_{\sigma} d'$. This follows from Lemma 7.4 on $e$. As assignment has no effect on the heap, we have $h_0 \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$ by assumption $h \sim_{\sigma} h'$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash e_1.f := e_2 : (\text{com } H, \kappa)$: Let $\ell = [[\Delta \vdash e_1 : C]](\eta)$ and let $d = [[\Delta \vdash e_2 : T]](\eta)$ as in the semantic definition. Recall that we are proving termination-insensitive noninterference and thus considering non-$\bot$ outcomes, so $\ell \neq \text{nil}$ and $d \neq \bot$. Thus $h_0 = [h \mid \ell \rightsquigarrow [h' \mid f \mapsto d]]$ and $\eta_0 = \eta$. Field assignment has no effect on the store, so $\eta_0 \sim_{\sigma} \eta_0'$ holds by assumption. We show $h_0 \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$ by cases $\kappa$. If $\kappa = H$, then by Lemma 7.2 and wconf $\mu$ we have $h \sim_{\sigma} h_0$ and $h' \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$ where $\ell$ (resp. $\ell'$) is the identity on dom $h$ (resp. dom $h'$). But by hypothesis, $h \sim_{\sigma} h'$.

Hence by Lemma 7.1, we get $h_0 \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$.

For the case $\kappa = L$, note that the heap is only modified at $\ell, \ell'$. Unfolding the definition of $h_0 \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$, we must show

$$\ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell'' \Rightarrow h_0 \ell'' \sim_{\sigma} h'_0 \ell''' \quad \text{for all } \ell''$$

and, symmetrically, $\ell'' \sim_{\sigma} \ell' \Rightarrow h_0 \ell'' \sim_{\sigma} h'_0 \ell'$ for all $\ell''$. The rule requires $\kappa_1 \leq \kappa$, so $\kappa_1 = L$ and by Lemma 7.4 for $e_1$ we have $\ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell'$. Because $\sigma$ is bijective on locations, $\ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell''$ implies $\ell'' = \ell'$ so this is the only instance of (5) to consider. The rule requires the level of $e_2$ to be $\kappa$, i.e., $L$; so by Lemma 7.4 for $e_2$ we have $d \sim_{\sigma} d'$ and hence $h_0 \ell \sim_{\sigma} h'_0 \ell'$. \footnote{The penultimate example in section 6 depicts how leaks via aliasing in field update can occur thus showing necessity of the condition $\kappa_1 \leq \kappa$. The example leads to a situation where $\ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell''$ for $\ell'' \neq \ell'$, where $\ell$ is the value of $\text{hp}$, but $\ell''$ is the value of its low alias, $\text{lp1}$ or $\text{lp2}$.

Case $\Delta, x : (D, \kappa); P \vdash x := \text{new } B : (\text{com } \kappa, H)$: Let $\ell = \text{fresh}(B, h)$ so that $\eta_0 = [\eta \mid x \mapsto \ell]$ and $h_0 = [h \mid \ell \rightsquigarrow [\text{fields } B \mapsto \text{defaults}]]$ by semantics. Note that $h_0 \sim_{\sigma} h'_0$ by freshness of $\ell, \ell'$ and the requirement (in the definition of $h \sim_{\sigma} h'$) that the domain (resp. range) of $\sigma$ is contained in dom $h$ (resp. dom $h'$).

In the case $\kappa = H$ we can take $\tau = \sigma$ as we have $\eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0$ from $\eta \sim_{\sigma} \eta'$ and $x : (D, H)$.

For the case $\kappa = L$ we define $\tau = \sigma \cup \{(\ell, \ell')\}$ which yields $\eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0$ because $\ell \sim_{\tau} \ell'$. Moreover, $h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0$ as the default values (nil, false) are related to themselves.
that \( \tau \) is a bijection between subsets of \( \text{dom} \, h_0 \) and \( \text{dom} \, h'_0 \) by freshness, and it respects types because \( \text{loctype} \, \ell = B = \text{loctype} \, \ell' \).

**Case** \( \Delta, x : (T, \kappa); P \vdash x : e.m(\vec{e}) : (\text{com} \, \kappa, \kappa_1) \): Let \( \ell = [\Delta^+ \vdash e : D](h, \eta) \) and \( \vec{d} = [\Delta^+ \vdash \vec{e} : \vec{U}](h, \eta) \) as in the semantics. As we only need to consider the non-\( \perp \) case, there is \( d_0 \) with \( (h_0, d_0) = \mu(\text{loctype} \, \ell) \, m(h, \eta_1)Q \), where \( \eta_1 = [x \mapsto \vec{d}, \text{self} \mapsto \ell] \), and we have \( \eta_0 = [\eta | x \mapsto d_0] \).

We go by cases on the level, \( \kappa_0 \), of \( e \). If \( \kappa_0 = H \) then it is possible that \( \neg(\ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell') \) and thus the two calls can have different behavior. By the security typing rule there is some \( (\kappa'_0, \vec{k}' - \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa') \in \text{smtypes}(m, D) \) and hence \( (\kappa'_0, \vec{k}' - \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa') \in \text{smtypes}(m, (\text{loctype} \, \ell)) \) by ordinary typing (\( \text{loctype} \, \ell \leq D \)) and Definition 5 of annotated class table. Now, by the subtyping condition in the rule we have

\[
(\kappa'_0, \vec{k}' - \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa') \leq (\kappa_0, \vec{k} - \langle P'; \kappa_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa)
\]

which by definition implies \( \kappa_1 \leq \kappa'_1 \). By the typing rule we have, \( \kappa_0 \leq \kappa \cap \kappa_1 \). Thus \( \kappa = \kappa_1 = \kappa'_1 = H \). Using hypotheses \( Q \not\equiv P \) and \( Q \equiv \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \, \text{self}) \) we can apply Lemma 5.1 to get \( Q \not\equiv P' \). So we can use assumption \( \text{wconf} \, \mu \) of the present lemma to get \( h \sim_{\tau} h_0 \) (resp. \( h' \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \)) where \( \tau \) is the identity on \( \text{dom} \, h \) (resp. \( \tau' \) is the identity on \( \text{dom} \, h' \)). Hence using \( h \sim_{\sigma} h' \) and Lemma 7.1 we can define \( \tau \equiv \sigma \) and obtain \( h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \). And, note that \( \eta_0 \sim_{\sigma} \eta'_0 \) follows from assumption \( \eta \sim_{\sigma} \eta' \) because the level of \( x \) is \( H \).

It remains to consider the case \( \kappa_0 = L \). In this case, we have \( \ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell' \) by Lemma 7.4 applied to \( e \). Because \( Q \not\equiv P \), and \( Q \equiv \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \, \text{self}) \) we have \( Q \not\equiv P' \) by Lemma 5.1. We claim that \( \eta_1 \sim_{\sigma} \eta'_1 \). Then we can use assumption \( \text{nonint} \, \mu \) of the present lemma. This means, by Definition 11, that \( \mu(\text{loctype} \, \ell) \, m \) satisfies \( (\kappa'_0, \vec{k}' - \langle P'; \kappa'_1 \rangle \rightarrow \kappa') \in \text{smtypes}(m, (\text{loctype} \, \ell)) \). Now we can apply the definition of satisfaction (Definition 10) to conclude that there exists \( \tau \equiv \sigma \) with \( \kappa' = L \Rightarrow d_0 \sim_{\tau} d'_0 \); whence \( \eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0 \) and \( h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \). It remains to prove the claim. We give the argument for the case that \( \vec{x} \) is a single identifier, as the generalization is obvious but awkward to put into words. As \( \ell \sim_{\sigma} \ell' \), it suffices to deal with \( \vec{d}, \vec{d}' \). Assume \( \vec{k} = L \) to show \( \vec{d} \sim_{\sigma} \vec{d}' \). Then \( \vec{d} \sim_{\sigma} \vec{d}' \) follows by Lemma 7.4 on \( \vec{e} \).

**Case** \( \Delta; P \vdash S_1; S_2 : (\text{com} \, \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \): Let \( (h_1, \eta_1) = [\Delta^+ \vdash S_1^+](h, \eta)Q \) and thus \( (h_0, \eta_0) = [\Delta^+ \vdash S_2^+](h_1, \eta_1)Q \). By induction on \( S_1 \) we get \( h_1 \sim_{\tau_1} h'_1 \) and \( \eta_1 \sim_{\tau_1} \eta'_1 \) for some \( \tau_1 \equiv \sigma \). Now by induction on \( S_2 \) we get \( h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \) and \( \eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0 \) for some \( \tau \equiv \tau_1 \). Hence the result holds for \( \tau \equiv \sigma \).

**Case** \( \Delta; P \vdash \text{if} \, e \, \text{then} \, S_1 \, \text{else} \, S_2 : (\text{com} \, \kappa_1, \kappa_2) \): Let \( b = [\Delta^+ \vdash e : \text{bool}](h, \eta) \). We proceed by cases on level \( \kappa \) of the guard \( e \). Suppose \( \kappa = L \). Then by Lemma 7.4 for \( e \), we have \( b \sim_{\text{bool}} b' \), i.e. \( b = b' \). If \( b = \text{true} \), the result follows by induction on \( S_1 \) and if \( b = \text{false} \), the result follows by induction on \( S_2 \).

Consider the other case, \( \kappa = H \). By the typing rule, \( \kappa \leq \kappa_1 \cap \kappa_2 \), hence \( \kappa_1 = H = \kappa_2 \). By Lemma 7.2 we have \( \eta \sim_{\tau} \eta_0, \eta' \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0 \), \( h \sim_{\tau} h_0 \) and \( h' \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \), where \( \tau \) (resp. \( \tau' \)) is the identity on \( \text{dom} \, h \) (resp. \( \text{dom} \, h' \)). Using assumptions \( \eta \sim_{\sigma} \eta' \) and \( h \sim_{\sigma} h' \) we can choose \( \tau = \sigma \) and get \( \eta_0 \sim_{\tau} \eta'_0 \) and \( h_0 \sim_{\tau} h'_0 \) using Lemma 7.1.
Case $\Delta; P \vdash (T, \kappa) x := e \text{ in } S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: Let $d = \llbracket \Delta^+ \vdash e : T \rrbracket(h, \eta)$ and thus $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket(\Delta^+, x : T) \vdash S^+\rrbracket \mu(h, \eta \mid x \mapsto d)Q$. First, we have $[\eta \mid x \mapsto d] \sim_{\sigma} [\eta' \mid x \mapsto d']$, because if $\kappa = L$ then by Lemma 7.4 on $e, d \sim_{\sigma} d'$. So we can use induction on $S$ to get $\eta_0 \sim_\tau \eta'_0$ and $h_0 \sim_\tau h'_0$, for some $\tau \supseteq \sigma$. Hence $\eta_0 \sim_\tau (\eta'_0 \mid x)$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash \text{enable } P' \text{ in } S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: By hypothesis of the rule we have

$$\Delta; (P - Q') \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$$

where $Q' = P' \cap \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \text{self})$. By semantics, $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket(\Delta^+ \vdash S)\rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)(Q \cup Q')$. So, to use induction on $S$ it suffices to show that $(Q \cup Q') \# (P - Q')$. This follows by set theory from hypothesis $Q \# P$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash \text{test } P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$: We argue by cases on whether $P' \subseteq Q$. If $P' \subseteq Q$ then $P' \# P$ by hypothesis $Q \# P$ and $P' \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \text{self})$ by hypothesis $Q \subseteq \text{Auth}(\Delta^+ \text{self})$. Thus the first of the rules in Figure 8 must have been used for $\text{test } P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2$. Since $P' \subseteq Q$, the test condition is true and the semantics is given by semantics of $S_1$. We have $\Delta; P \vdash S_1 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ by hypothesis of the rule, so we can use induction on $S_1$ to obtain $\eta_0 \sim_\tau \eta'_0$ and $h_0 \sim_\tau h'_0$ for some $\tau \supseteq \sigma$.

In the other subcase, $P' \not\subseteq Q$, the test condition is false so the semantics is given by semantics of $S_2$. Both of the rules for $\text{test } P' \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2$ have hypothesis $\Delta; P \vdash S_2 : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$ so we can use induction on $S_2$ to get $\eta'' \sim_\tau \eta''_0$ and $h' \sim_\tau h''_0$ for some $\tau \supseteq \sigma$.

Case $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_3, \kappa_4)$ by the subsumption rule. Here the result follows directly by induction on the smaller derivation tree for $\Delta; P \vdash S : (\text{com } \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$, as the induction hypothesis does not involve the command levels. \hfill \Box

Theorem 8.4 (safety implies noninterference)

If annotated class table $CT$ is safe then its meaning $\llbracket CT^+ \rrbracket$ is noninterfering.

Proof

Because $\llbracket CT^+ \rrbracket$ is defined as the least upper bound of an approximation chain $\mu$, we first show nonint $\mu_i$ for all $i$, by induction on $i$. Then nonint $\llbracket CT^+ \rrbracket$ follows by Lemma 8.2.

We have nonint $\mu_0$ because $\mu_0 \text{Com}(h, \eta)Q$ is $\perp$.

Suppose nonint $\mu_i$, so nonint $\mu_{i+1}$. We must show, for each $C, m$ and each $\kappa_0, \kappa_3 \to \kappa_4 \in \text{smtypes}(m, C)$, that $\mu_{i+1} \text{Com}$ satisfies $\kappa_0, \kappa_3 \to \kappa_4$. There are two cases, depending on whether $m$ is declared or inherited.

Suppose $m$ has declaration

$$M = T \text{ m}(\bar{T}, \bar{\bar{x}})\{S\}$$

in $C$. Let $\Delta = \bar{x} : (\bar{T}, \bar{\bar{x}}), \text{self} : (C, \kappa_0), \text{result} : (T, \kappa_4)$ and let $S'$ be a local variant of $S$ satisfying the conditions of the method declaration rule with respect to $\kappa_0, \kappa \to \kappa_4$. ($S'$ exists because $CT$ is safe.) By Lemma 7.3 we have $\text{wconf } \mu_i$. Suppose that $h \sim_\sigma h', \eta \sim_\sigma \eta'$, $Q \# P$ and $\mu_{i+1} \text{Com}(h, \eta)Q \neq \perp \neq \mu_{i+1} \text{Com}(h', \eta')Q$. Let $Q_1 = Q \cap \text{Auth } C$ and $(h_0, \eta_0) = \llbracket(\bar{x} : \bar{T}, \text{self} : C, \text{result} : T)\vdash S^+\rrbracket \mu(h, \eta)Q_1$. Now $Q_1 \# P$, so by Lemma 8.3, noting that $S^+ = S''$, there is $\tau \supseteq \sigma$ with $h_0 \sim_\tau h'_0$ and

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\( \eta_0 \sim \eta'_0 \). It remains to show that if the result level \( \kappa_4 \) for \( m \) is \( L \) we have \( d \sim d' \), where \( d \) (respectively \( d' \)) is \( \eta_0 \text{ result} \) (resp. \( \eta'_0 \text{ result} \)). This follows from \( \eta_0 \sim \eta'_0 \) by definition of \( \sim \) and \( \Delta \text{ result} = (T, \kappa_4) = (T, L) \). This concludes the proof of satisfaction by \( \mu_{i+1} Cm \) for \( m \) declared in \( C \).

Suppose \( m \) is inherited in \( C \) from superclass \( B \). Towards proving that \( \mu_{j+1} Cm \) satisfies \( \kappa_0, \bar{\kappa} \rightarrow (\bar{P}; \kappa_3) \rightarrow \kappa_4 \), let

\[
\Delta_C = \bar{x} : (\bar{T}, \bar{\kappa}), \text{self} : (C, \kappa_0) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_B = \bar{x} : (\bar{T}, \bar{\kappa}), \text{self} : (B, \kappa_0).
\]

Suppose also that \( h \sim \sigma h' \) and \( \eta \sim \sigma \eta' \). Note that the \( \sim_\sigma \) relation for \( \Delta_B \) is equivalent to \( \sim_\sigma \) for \( \Delta_C \). Suppose \( Q \neq P \). Then, because \( \text{smtypes} C = \text{smtypes} B \) (by Definition 5 annotated class table), satisfaction by \( \mu_{j+1} Cm \) follows from the same for \( \mu_{j+1} Bm \).

Note that the last step goes through because satisfaction (Definition 11) quantifies over all \( Q \) disjoint from \( P \), without regard to the permissions of \( C \) and \( B \).

Note also that we are using a secondary induction on inheritance chains, so we may use satisfaction by \( \mu_{j+1} Bm \) to prove it for \( \mu_{j+1} Cm \). \( \Box \)

9 Discussion

We have given a static analysis for secure information flow that accounts for correct use of runtime access control to ensure that confidential information is returned only if the caller has been given access. This improves on previous information flow analyses where a system call is given a fixed security level (in some cases polymorphic) and only static access control is considered. Our analysis is justified by a noninterference result. This is given for a language significantly more complex than previous object-oriented languages for which information flow has been proved.

Integration with access control shows that even strong noninterference conditions which disallow declassification may be useful and admit practical static checking, once access control is taken into account. We only take a step in this direction, demonstrating the idea in the context of a non-trivial language but using a language-centric access control mechanism devised primarily for protecting trusted programs from untrusted mobile code. The key idea is to make flow policy dependent on access permissions; we expect that our treatment can be extended easily to other permission-based access mechanisms. Like Pottier & Conchon (2000) and unlike Heintze et al. (1998), we refrain from conflating access permissions with confidentiality levels.

Our analysis is modular in the sense that, for a given type, a method declaration is checked using only security types of methods that it calls and fields it accesses. As a type depends on a set of permissions, it is possible to specify a number of types for a method that is exponential in the number of existing permissions, if there are enough security levels. In a naive implementation of the rule, a method declaration is checked once for each type. We conjecture that in practical applications the specification for given method will use only a few types (fewer if level polymorphism is used). Moreover, if the types are minimal, as suggested in section 3, then for a method call at most one type will be applicable, so checking of a method body
remains linear in the size of the code. The rule for checking a method declaration requires finding levels to annotate local variables. This can be done by an intraprocedural inference algorithm such as that used in Jif (Myers, 1999) which is fast in practice.

For practical deployment of programs using stack inspection for access control, interface specifications need to express expected or recommended policies. Our method typings suggest a way to do so, not just for access but for information flow. If an information flow policy is specified for public and protected fields and methods, a checker based on our analysis could be used by developers to find bugs and trojan horses. Vendor-supplied defaults for access policy could help ensure that deployments are consistent with what is checked by developers. But many engineering challenges remain. Techniques for certifying compilation could be used for checks of untrusted code at the deployment site (Necula, 1997; Morrisett et al., 1999). This is a subject of current research (Barthe et al., 2004).

9.1 Related work

Our previous work. This work grew out of a study of data abstraction. We found that a straightforward compositional semantics is adequate for a sequential Java-like language, even with recursive types and dynamically bound method calls (which are typically viewed as being akin to higher order procedures). The language-oriented formulation of noninterference using simulations is related to relational parametricity, as is more explicit in Heintze & Riecke (1998), Abadi et al. (1999) and Sabelfeld & Sands (2001). Due to pointer aliasing, conventional object-oriented languages are not relationally parametric per se. But suitable confinement of pointers suffices to yield a strong representation-independence result for user-defined abstractions (Banerjee & Naumann, 2002a; Banerjee & Naumann, 2002b). The term “confinement” originated in the literature on operating system security, but its use is natural in object-oriented programming where pointer confinement has been proposed for encapsulation at the level of modules, classes, or instances (Hogg, 1991; Clarke et al., 2001; Leino & Nelson, 2002; Boyland et al., 2001; Vitek & Bokowski, 2001).

In earlier stages of the information flow work (Banerjee & Naumann (2002c; 2003)), we imposed a strong pointer-confinement condition called L-confinement: each object is labeled with a level, given by its class, and fields/variables of level L never point to H objects. To achieve this strong invariant, it is assumed that the allocator is parametric in the sense that H allocations do not influence the behavior of L allocations. The L-confinement discipline is not motivated by practical examples, and restrictions are needed on inheritance between classes at different levels to prevent leaks of self. In the present paper we use the standard technique of maintaining a bijection on locations, here just those locations visible to L, thereby proving noninterference without requiring the labeling of classes or parametricity of the allocator.

The conference papers (Banerjee & Naumann (2002c; 2003)) use purely syntax-directed rules, close to a checking algorithm. Here we simplify the rules for program
constructs (and the proofs) by using a separate subsumption rule. We also study the structure of security types for methods and clarify that the most succinct method specifications are those giving a set of minimal types.

Information flow. Beyond the early work mentioned in section 1, several researchers have given similar analyses for possibilistic and probabilistic noninterference for multi-threaded programs (Smith & Volpano, 1998; Volpano & Smith, 1999; Sabelfeld & Sands, 2000; Smith, 2001). Mantel and Sabelfeld (Mantel & Sabelfeld, 2001) study connections between program-centric formulations and the formulation of noninterference in terms of abstract event systems (Goguen & Meseguer, 1982). Barthe and Serpette prove noninterference for a purely functional instance-based object calculus (Barthe & Serpette, 1999). For sequential programs, Abadi et al. (Abadi et al., 1999), Sabelfeld & Sands (Sabelfeld & Sands, 2001) and Heintze & Riecke (Heintze & Riecke, 1998) consider higher order procedures. They also make explicit the connections between the relational formulation of noninterference and other dependency analyses such as slicing and binding time analysis (Abadi et al., 1999; Barthe & Serpette, 1999), building noninterference properties into the semantics in the manner of Reynolds’ relationally parametric models (Reynolds, 1984). However, it is difficult to extend such models in a tractable way to encompass language features such as recursive types and shared mutable objects which are extensively used in languages such as Java (Arnold & Gosling, 1998). What makes it possible for us to give straightforward proofs of strong results is that we can use a simple, operationally transparent denotational semantics, because Java-like languages are first-order in the sense that method dictionaries are not first-class values.

Myers (Myers, 1999) gave a security typing system for a fragment of Java even richer than ours, but left open the problem of justifying the rules with a noninterference result. This is hardly surprising, as the rules are quite complicated. Some of the complications are inherent in the complexity of the language; others are introduced with the aim of accommodating dynamic access control and sophisticated security policies including declassification (Ferrari et al., 1997; Myers & Liskov, 1998; Myers, 1999). One strength of this project is that experience is being gained in ongoing development of the Jif prototype.

Another substantial prototype for information flow has recently appeared. Flow-Caml is based on the work of (Pottier & Conchon, 2000; Pottier & Simonet, 2003). The language is a substantial fragment of Objective Caml, though omitting object-oriented features. This is perhaps the most advanced work on inference for flow types and level polymorphism and it is supported by noninterference results. They have an attractive approach to proving noninterference by translation to ordinary unannotated types and by then appealing to a type soundness theorem.

Strecker (2003) recently gave a machine-checked proof of noninterference for a language similar to that of Banerjee & Naumann (2002c), using similar rules as well.

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5 On the web at http://cristal.inria.fr/~simonet/soft/flowcaml/.
Like the latter, it uses equality for low-indistinguishability, assumes parametricity of the allocator, and imposes a form of $L$-confinement.

Sabelfeld & Myers (2003) give a comprehensive review of the literature on information flow.

Access control. Previous research on static analysis of information flow in programs has connections with data access. But the connections are made using constraints that allow entirely static checking of access and the access mechanisms considered are akin to ordinary scoping mechanisms like private fields and opaque types. Similar connections have been made in more abstract models (Rushby, 1992; Hennessy & Riely, 2002). We are not aware of previous work connecting runtime access control with noninterference.

Stoughton (1981) compares access control and information flow in a simple imperative language with semaphores. No formal results are proven, nor is there a static analysis for information flow. Rushby (1992) proves (and mechanically checks) results on noninterference for an access control mechanism that amounts to assigning levels to variables. The SLam calculus is a framework where access control and information flow coexist, but the noninterference result is restricted to information flow (Heintze & Riecke, 1998). Access control in SLam consists of labels which are checked for compatibility by typing rules; there is no runtime significance. Similar remarks apply to Pottier and Conchon’s work (Pottier & Conchon, 2000) and that of Hennessy & Riely (2002). The Jif system includes dynamic labels and other features that can encode some form of runtime access control but an analysis of what is achieved has not appeared.

Concerning the “stack inspection” mechanism, Skalka et al. (2000; 2001) give a static analysis for access checks that never fail, which could serve as basis for program optimizations. Such optimizations are thoroughly studied by Fournet & Gordon (2002), who also explore an access-based security property. Wallach et al. (2000) use a logic of authentication to account for access policies achieved by the mechanism. Abadi & Fournet (2003) criticize the lack of clear security goals achieved by the mechanism and point out that it only protects from untrusted code in the current calling chain, whereas common object-oriented design patterns involve calls from trusted to untrusted code. They propose a history-based mechanism but do not give formal results or a connection with information flow.

9.2 Future work

Naumann (2004) has encoded the language and semantics herein by a deep embedding in the PVS theorem prover (Owre et al., 1992), with the omission of access control which is being added in ongoing work. The static analysis has been defined and the proof of noninterference machine checked. This development closely follows that in the present paper, but allowing an arbitrary lattice of security levels.

Conventional languages like Java have quite a few features beyond the language treated here. To extend our language to the remaining features of JavaCard (Chen, 2000), the semantics can be extended using standard techniques. To treat expressions
with side effects, both the environment and the heap would be threaded through the semantics of expressions. We have avoided this in the current paper because it is unilluminating. Exceptional control flow would add further semantic complications of a similar kind. Static fields and static methods should also be straightforward. Constructors, in full generality, pose a challenge even for ordinary type soundness because partially initialized objects can be leaked. The other missing features have to do with scope and visibility: protected fields, private and protected classes, interfaces, and packages.

Features of Java beyond those of JavaCard pose a bigger challenge: threads, class loading, reflection, and serialization. Specifying noninterference for such constructs would probably go hand-in-hand with specification of pointer confinement and data abstraction properties. This raises a question. Program constructs such as local variables, private fields, opaque types, as well as disciplines for alias control, are intended to provide information hiding. Yet work on information flow has used typing systems that are orthogonal to these constructs. In early versions of this paper we used private fields but public fields can as well be treated by the same flow typing rules. For practical use of flow checking, it could be helpful to exploit existing features. How can this be done? Ideally, it should be based on the established theories of parametricity.

An important implementation question is which security annotations can be left implicit, to be inferred by a type reconstruction algorithm. In this paper we have not addressed type reconstruction, but we expect that techniques from Pottier et al. can be adapted (Pottier & Conchon, 2000; Pottier & Simonet, 2002). For the language of Banerjee & Naumann (2002c) without access control, our student Sun Qi has developed and implemented an inference algorithm and work is currently underway to incorporate level polymorphism, access control, and modular inference for libraries (Sun et al., 2004).

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