# Symbolic Verification of Cryptographic Protocols Protocol Equivalences 

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## Static equivalence

The first equivalence does not involve process executions, but only sequences of messages.

When are two sequences of messages distinguishable?

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- $\langle u, v, v\rangle \sim\langle v, u, v\rangle$ ?


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- $\langle\operatorname{senc}(u, k)\rangle \sim\langle\operatorname{senc}(v, k)\rangle$ ? $\langle\operatorname{senc}(u, k)\rangle \sim\left\langle\operatorname{senc}\left(u, k^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$ ?
- $\langle\operatorname{aenc}(u, p k), u, p k\rangle \sim\langle\operatorname{aenc}(v, p k), u, p k\rangle$ ?


## Static equivalence

As before, consider frames in $\mathcal{N}^{*} \times\left(\mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}_{c}(\mathcal{N})\right)$ :
$1^{\text {st }}$ component $=$ bound $/$ private names, noted $\operatorname{bn}(\Phi)$;
$2^{\text {nd }}$ component $=$ intruder's knowledge, addressed via handles of dom $(\Phi)$.

## Definition

Two frames $\Phi_{1}$ and $\Phi_{2}$ are statically equivalent when

- they have the same domain: $\operatorname{dom}\left(\Phi_{1}\right)=\operatorname{dom}\left(\Phi_{2}\right)$;
- for all $M \in \mathcal{T}\left(\mathcal{W} \cup \mathcal{N} \backslash \operatorname{bn}\left(\Phi_{1}, \Phi_{2}\right)\right), M \Phi_{1} \Downarrow$ iff $M \Phi_{2} \Downarrow$;
- for all $M, N \in \mathcal{T}\left(\mathcal{W} \cup \mathcal{N} \backslash \operatorname{bn}\left(\Phi_{1}, \Phi_{2}\right)\right)$,

$$
M \Phi_{1} \Downarrow={ }_{\mathrm{E}} N \Phi_{1} \Downarrow \text { iff } M \Phi_{2} \Downarrow={ }_{\mathrm{E}} N \Phi_{2} \Downarrow .
$$

## Proposition

Static equivalence is an equivalence. It is stable by bijective renaming. It does not compose: $\Phi_{1} \sim \Phi_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\Phi_{2} \sim \Phi_{2}^{\prime} \nRightarrow \Phi_{1} \uplus \Phi_{2} \sim \Phi_{1}^{\prime} \uplus \Phi_{2}^{\prime}$.

## Static equivalence: examples

Suppose we have only constructors and the standard equations for pairs and (a)symmetric encryption.

## Examples (bis)

- $\left\{w_{1} \mapsto u, w_{2} \mapsto v, w_{3} \mapsto v\right\} \sim\left\{w_{1} \mapsto v, w_{2} \mapsto u, w_{3} \mapsto v\right\}$ ?
- $\{w \mapsto n\} \sim\left\{w \mapsto n^{\prime}\right\}$ ? $\{w \mapsto\langle n, m\rangle\} \sim\left\{w \mapsto\left\langle n^{\prime}, n^{\prime}\right\rangle\right\}$ ?
- $\{w \mapsto\langle u, v\rangle\} \sim\left\{w \mapsto n^{\prime}\right\}$ ? $\{w \mapsto \operatorname{senc}(u, k)\} \sim\left\{w \mapsto n^{\prime}\right\}$ ?
- $\{w \mapsto \operatorname{senc}(u, k)\} \sim\{w \mapsto \operatorname{senc}(v, k)\}$ ? $\{w \mapsto \operatorname{senc}(u, k)\} \sim\left\{w \mapsto \operatorname{senc}\left(u, k^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ ?
- $\left\{w \mapsto \operatorname{aenc}(u, p k), w^{\prime} \mapsto u, w^{\prime \prime} \mapsto p k\right\} \sim$ $\left\{w \mapsto \operatorname{aenc}(v, p k), w^{\prime} \mapsto u, w^{\prime \prime} \mapsto p k\right\}$ ?


## Application: guessing attacks

We usually assume that secrets cannot be guessed: no brute force attacks.
That is not reasonable for low/fixed entropy secrets, such as PIN, passwords, one-time verification code, etc.

## Offline guessing attacks

A protocol is resistant against offline guessing attacks on some name $d$ when any reachable frame $\Phi$ is such that

$$
\Phi \cup\{w \mapsto d\} \sim \Phi \cup\left\{w \mapsto d^{\prime}\right\} \text { for } w, d^{\prime} \text { fresh. }
$$

This notion is meaningful even with a passive adversary.

## Application: EKE

Assume public-key encryption but no PKI (public keys $\neq$ identities). $A$ and $B$ only share a weak password $p$, want to authenticate.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. } & A \rightarrow B: \\
\text { 2. } & B \rightarrow A: \\
\operatorname{senc}(\operatorname{pub}(k), p) \\
\text { 3. } & A \rightarrow B: \\
\operatorname{senc}(\operatorname{aenc}(r, \operatorname{pub}(k)), p) \\
\text { 4. } & B \rightarrow A: \\
\text { 5enc }\left(\left\langle n_{a}, r\right)\right. \\
\text { 5. } & A \rightarrow B: \\
\operatorname{sen}\rangle, r) \\
\operatorname{senc}\left(n_{b}, r\right)
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\operatorname{senc}\left(\left\langle n_{a}, n_{b}\right\rangle, r\right) \\
\operatorname{senc}\left(n_{b}, r\right)
\end{array}
$$

Let $\Phi=\left\{w_{1} \mapsto \operatorname{senc}(\operatorname{pub}(k), p), \ldots, w_{5} \mapsto \operatorname{senc}\left(n_{b}, r\right)\right\}$.
Can $p$ be guessed offline, that is

$$
\Phi \cup\{w \mapsto p\} \sim \Phi \cup\left\{w \mapsto p^{\prime}\right\} ?
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Only if $\operatorname{senc}(\operatorname{sdec}(x, y), y)=x \ldots$ and no getkey primitive for aenc.

## May testing

The reduction semantics (cf. previous lectures) provide a first natural definition of when two processes can be distinguished.

## Definition

A test is a process with no free name and in which a special channel $\mathbb{T}$ may occur. A process $P$ may pass a test $T$, written $P \models T$ if

$$
P \mid T \rightsquigarrow{ }^{*} \text { out }(\mathbb{T}, u) \mid Q \text { for some } u \text { and } Q .
$$

Let $T(P):=\{T \mid P \models T\}$.
Processes $P$ and $Q$ are in may-testing equivalence when $\mathrm{T}(P)=\mathrm{T}(Q)$.

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Quite natural, but may not model all desired aspects, e.g. probabilities, must testing, asynchronicity.
As such, may testing equivalence is hard to verify!

## Trace equivalence

## Weak labelled transitions

We write $A \stackrel{\text { tr }}{\Rightarrow} B$ when:

- tr only contains input and output actions (no $\tau$ );
- there exists $\operatorname{tr}^{\prime}$ obtained from $\operatorname{tr}$ by adding $\tau \mathrm{s}$ such that $A \xrightarrow{\operatorname{tr}^{\prime}} B$.


## Definition

Given a configuration $A=(P, \Phi)$, define

$$
\operatorname{Tr}(A):=\left\{\left(\operatorname{tr}, \Phi^{\prime}\right) \mid A \stackrel{\text { tr }}{\Rightarrow}\left(\_, \Phi^{\prime}\right)\right\} .
$$

We say that $A$ and $B$ are trace equivalent, noted $A \approx B$, iff

$$
\text { for all }\left(\operatorname{tr}, \Phi^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Tr}(A) \text { there exists }\left(\operatorname{tr}, \Psi^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Tr}(B) . \Phi^{\prime} \sim \Psi^{\prime}
$$

and conversely.

## Alternative definition

## Proposition

Close $\operatorname{Tr}(\cdot)$ under static equivalence:

$$
\operatorname{Tr}^{\prime}(P, \Phi):=\left\{\left(\operatorname{tr}, \Phi^{\prime}\right) \mid(P, \Phi) \stackrel{\operatorname{tr}}{\Rightarrow}\left(P^{\prime}, \Phi^{\prime \prime}\right), \Phi^{\prime \prime} \sim \Phi^{\prime}\right\}
$$

Then we have $A \approx B$ iff $\operatorname{Tr}^{\prime}(A)=\operatorname{Tr}^{\prime}(B)$.

## Remarks

- $A \approx B$ imposes $\Phi(A) \sim \Phi(B)$, but not $\Phi(A)=\Phi(B)$.
- The definition really makes sense only when $\mathrm{bn}(\Phi(A))=\mathrm{bn}(\Phi(B))$.
- In general we do not have that $\Phi \sim \Psi$ implies $(P, \Phi) \approx(P, \Psi)$.


## Examples

(1) in $(c, x)$.out $(c$, ok $) \approx^{?} \operatorname{in}(c, x) \mid$ out $(c$, ok $)$
(2) in $(c, x) \cdot$ out $(c$, ok $) \approx^{\text {? }} \operatorname{in}(c, x) \cdot$ out $(c, x)$
(3) new $n$, $m$. out $(c, n) \mid \operatorname{out}(c, m) \approx$ ? new $n, m$. out $(c, n)$.out $(c, m)$
(9) new $n, m$. out $(c, n) \mid \operatorname{out}(c, \operatorname{hash}(m)) \approx$ ? new $n$. out $(c, n)$.out $(c, \operatorname{hash}(n))$
(5) out $\left(c, u_{1}\right) \ldots$.out $\left(c, u_{n}\right)$.in $(c, x)$.if $x=v$ then out $(c, o k) \approx$ ? out $\left(c, u_{1}\right) \ldots$ out $\left(c, u_{n}\right) \cdot \operatorname{in}(c, x) .0$

## Trace equivalence $\subseteq$ may-testing ?

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## Proof idea.

Decompose $P \mid T \rightsquigarrow *$ out $\left(\mathbb{T}, \_\right) \mid \_$into internal reductions of $P$ and $T$, and communications between the two. This yields a trace of $P$, which $Q$ can simulate. Compose this with the reductions of $T$ to obtain $Q \mid T \rightsquigarrow *$ out $(\mathbb{T}, \quad$ ) $\mid$.

Devil is in the details! there is a counter-example when computation is non-deterministic because traces do not keep track of how recipes are evaluated.

## May testing $\subseteq$ trace equivalence ?

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If $P$ and $Q$ are may-testing equivalent then $P \approx Q, \ldots$

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If $P$ and $Q$ are may-testing equivalent then $P \approx Q$. provided the processes are image-finite:

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\text { for any } \operatorname{tr},\left\{\Phi \mid(\operatorname{tr}, \Phi) \in \operatorname{Tr}^{\prime}(P, \emptyset)\right\} \text { is finite up to } \sim
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and similarly for $Q$.

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## Example

$$
\begin{gathered}
P:=\text { new } c .(\text { out }(c, \text { ok })|!\operatorname{in}(c, x) \cdot \operatorname{out}(c, h(x))| \operatorname{in}(c, x) \cdot \operatorname{out}(a, x)) \\
Q:=P \mid \text { new } n . \operatorname{out}(a, n)
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We have $P \not \approx Q$ but $P$ and $Q$ are in may-testing equivalence.

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We have $P \not \approx Q$ but $P$ and $Q$ are in may-testing equivalence.
This is "only" pathological!

## Application: strong secrecy

## Definition

A protocol $P$ ensures the strong secrecy of some variables $\vec{x}$ if, for all (relevant) values $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, P[\vec{x}:=\vec{u}] \approx P[\vec{x}:=\vec{v}]$.

Weak secrecy: some value cannot be (fully) derived by the attacker. Strong secrecy: the attacker has no information at all about the value.

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Blanchet's key exchange protocol:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. } & A \rightarrow B: \quad \operatorname{aenc}\left(\operatorname{sign}\left(\left\langle p k_{A}, p k_{B}, k\right\rangle, s k_{A}\right), p k_{B}\right) \\
\text { 2. } & B \rightarrow A: \quad \operatorname{senc}(x, k) \\
\text { 3. } & A \rightarrow B: \\
\operatorname{senc}(y, k)
\end{array}
$$

Scenario: $A$ and $B$ honest. Is $x$ strongly secret? Are $x, y$ strongly secret?

## Application: private authentication

Agents $A$ and $B$ want to authenticate, without revealing their identities.

| $I\left(s k_{a}, p k_{b}\right)$ | $R\left(s k_{b}, p k_{a}\right)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| new $n_{a} \cdot$ | new $n_{b}$. |
| let $p k_{a}=\operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{a}\right)$ in | let $p k_{b}=\operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{b}\right)$ in |
| $\operatorname{out}\left(c, \operatorname{aenc}\left(\left\langle n_{a}, p k_{a}\right\rangle, p k_{b}\right)\right)$. | in $(c, x)$. let $y=\operatorname{adec}\left(x, s k_{b}\right)$ in <br> $\ldots$ |
| if $\operatorname{proj} j_{2}(y)=p k_{a}$ then |  |
| out $\left(c, \operatorname{aenc}\left(\left\langle\operatorname{proj}_{1}(y), n_{b}, p k_{b}\right\rangle, p k_{a}\right)\right)$ |  |

## Anonymity

new $s k_{a}, s k_{b}, s k_{c}$. out $\left(c,\left\langle\operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{a}\right), \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{b}\right), \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{c}\right)\right\rangle\right) \cdot R\left(s k_{b}, \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{a}\right)\right)$ $\approx$ ?
new $s k_{a}, s k_{b}, s k_{c}$. out $\left(c,\left\langle\operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{a}\right), \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{b}\right), \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{c}\right)\right\rangle\right) \cdot R\left(s k_{b}, \operatorname{pub}\left(s k_{c}\right)\right)$

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| $\cdots$ | $\operatorname{out}(c, \operatorname{aenc}(\langle\operatorname{proj} 1$ <br> else $\left.\left.\left.(y), n_{b}, p k_{b}\right\rangle, p k_{a}\right)\right)$ |

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## Application: unlinkability

The BAC e-passport protocol is used between a tag $T$ and a reader $R$. After $k_{E}$ and $k_{M}$ are derived from optical scan (shared secrets), a key is established as follows:

1. $\quad T \rightarrow R: n_{T}$
2. $R \rightarrow T: \operatorname{senc}\left(\left\langle n_{R}, n_{T}, k_{R}\right\rangle, k_{E}\right), \operatorname{mac}\left(\operatorname{senc}\left(\left\langle n_{R}, n_{T}, k_{R}\right\rangle, k_{E}\right), k_{M}\right)$
3. $T \rightarrow R: \operatorname{senc}\left(\left\langle n_{T}, n_{R}, k_{T}\right\rangle, k_{E}\right), \operatorname{mac}\left(\operatorname{senc}\left(\left\langle n_{T}, n_{R}, k_{T}\right\rangle, k_{E}\right), k_{M}\right)$

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French implementation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
T\left(k_{E}, k_{M}\right):= & \text { new } n_{T}, k_{T} . \operatorname{out}\left(c, n_{T}\right) \operatorname{in}(c, x) . \\
& \text { if } \operatorname{mac}\left(\operatorname{proj}_{1}(x), k_{M}\right)=\operatorname{proj}_{2}(x) \text { then } \\
& \text { if } n_{T}=\operatorname{proj}_{1}\left(\operatorname{sdec}\left(\operatorname{proj}_{1}(x), k_{E}\right)\right) \text { then } \ldots \text { else } \\
& \quad \text { out }(c, \text { ERR_nonce }) \\
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$$

Linkability issue :
new $k_{E}, k_{M}, k_{E}^{\prime}, k_{M}^{\prime} . T\left(k_{E}, k_{M}\right)\left|R\left(k_{E}, k_{M}\right) \not \approx T\left(k_{E}, k_{M}\right)\right| R\left(k_{E}^{\prime}, k_{M}^{\prime}\right)$

## Some general definitions

Let $I(\vec{k}, \vec{n})$ and $R(\vec{k}, \vec{n})$ be two roles of a protocol, where $\vec{k}$ represents identity parameters and $\vec{n}$ represent session parameters.

## Definition

The protocol ensures strong unlinkability when:

$$
\text { ! new } \vec{k} \text {.! new } \vec{n} \text {. } I(\vec{k}, \vec{n}) \mid R(\vec{k}, \vec{n}) \approx \text { ! new } \vec{k} \text {. new } \vec{n} \text {. } I(\vec{k}, \vec{n}) \mid R(\vec{k}, \vec{n})
$$

## Definition

The protocol ensures anonymity when:

$$
\mathcal{M} \approx \mathcal{M} \mid!\text { new } \vec{n} . I\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{k}_{0}}, \vec{n}\right) \mid R\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{k}_{0}}, \vec{n}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{M}$ is the left process on the previous equivalence.

## Observational equivalence

We write $P \Downarrow c$ when $P$ can output on $c$ after internal reductions, i.e. $P \rightsquigarrow *$ out $(c, u) . P^{\prime} \mid P^{\prime \prime}$.

## Definition

The binary relation $\mathcal{R}$ over closed processes is a observational bisimulation if it is symmetric and $P \mathcal{R} Q$ implies:

- for all $c, P \Downarrow c$ implies $Q \Downarrow c$;
- for all $P^{\prime}, P \rightsquigarrow^{*} P^{\prime}$ implies $Q \rightsquigarrow^{*} \mathcal{R} P^{\prime}$;
- for all $R,(P \mid R) \mathcal{R}(Q \mid R)$.

Observational equivalence is the largest observational bisimulation.

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Observational equivalence is the largest observational bisimulation.

The quantification over all contexts makes it hard to prove obs. equiv, both by hand and mechanically.

## Labelled bisimulation

## Definition

The binary relation $\mathcal{R}$ over configurations is a bisimulation if it is symmetric and $A \mathcal{R} B$ implies:

- $\Phi(A) \sim \Phi(B)$;
- $A \xrightarrow{\tau} A^{\prime}$ implies $B \xrightarrow{\tau}{ }^{*} \mathcal{R} A^{\prime}$;
- $A \xrightarrow{\alpha} A^{\prime}$ implies $B \stackrel{\alpha}{\Rightarrow} \mathcal{R} A^{\prime}$.

Bisimilarity is the largest bisimulation.

## Theorem (Abadí, Blanchet \& Fournet 2001/2017)

$P$ and $Q$ are observationally equivalent iff they are bisimilar.

## Comparison with trace equivalence

## Proposition <br> If $A$ and $B$ are bisimilar, then $A \approx B$.

## Comparison with trace equivalence

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If $A$ and $B$ are bisimilar, then $A \approx B$.
Trace equivalence is a linear-time property, bisimularity is branching-time: trace equivalence does not "see" choice points.

## Example

Assume a choice operator $P_{1}+P_{2} \xrightarrow{\tau} P_{i}$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$.
out $(a$, ok $) \cdot($ out $(b$, ok $)+\operatorname{out}(c$, ok $)) \approx$ out (a, ok).out (b, ok) + out(a, ok).out( $c$, ok) but they are not bisimilar.

## Comparison with trace equivalence

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## Example without choice (Pous \& Madiot)

Without choice, take two observably distinct actions $\alpha$ and $\beta$.
Consider $P:=\alpha$. $(\alpha .(\alpha . \beta . \alpha \mid \beta . \beta) \mid \beta . \alpha)$ and $Q:=\alpha . \beta . \alpha \mid \alpha .(\alpha . \beta .(\alpha \mid \beta) \mid \beta)$.
We have $P \approx Q$ but $P \xrightarrow{\alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha} \alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha|\beta \cdot \beta| \alpha$ which cannot be matched by $Q$.

## Comparison with trace equivalence

## Proposition

If $A$ and $B$ are determinate, and $A \approx B$, then $A$ and $B$ are bisimilar.

## Definition (A possible definition of determinacy)

$A$ is determinate if, for all $A \stackrel{\text { tr }}{\Rightarrow} A^{\prime}: A^{\prime}$ does not have two inputs (resp. outputs) on the same $c$ at toplevel.

## Bisimilarity in practice

The gap between bisim and trace equivalence (determinacy) may or may not matter depending on applications.

Bisimilarity is generally easier to prove than trace equivalence:

- by hand: bisimulation proof technique;
- mechanically: incrementally find matching processes.

In verification, even more constraining forms of equivalences are considered, e.g. diff-equivalence where the two processes must have the same structure and differ only in the terms that they use.

## Tools

- diff-equivalence: proverif, tamarin (unbounded sessions)
- bisimilarity: SPEC (bounded sessions)
- trace equivalence: Apte/DeepSec, Akiss (bounded sessions)


## Equivalence examples

## Diff-equivalence successes

- Strong secrecy: $P[x:=u]$ vs $P[x:=0]$ ?
- Anonymity: $P[x:=A]$ vs $P[x:=B]$ ?


## Unlinkability: gray zone

- Not bisimilar in general, trace equiv. needed:
! new $k$ ! new $n, m . I(k, n) \mid R(k, m)$

$$
\text { ! new } k \text { new } n, m . l(k, n) \mid R(k, m)
$$

- Often diff-equivalent when no shared identity:

> ! new $k$ ! new $k^{\prime}$ new $n, m . l(k, n) \mid R(m)$
> ! new $k$ ! new $k^{\prime}$ new $n, m . l\left(k^{\prime}, n\right) \mid R(m)$

## Summary

## Static equivalence

- Indistinguishable sequences of messages
- Depends on equational theory, destructors vs. constructors

May testing \& trace equivalence

- May testing: there exists an adversary (in the same model)
- Trace equivalence: the same traces can be observed
- Trace equivalence is a good approximation of may testing, often used in practice for verification.

Obs. equiv., bisimulation and diff-equiv.

- Obs. equiv $=$ bisimulation $=$ strongest "reasonable" equivalence
- Good properties: compositional, congruence, easier to check
- Common approximation for verification: diff-equivalence

