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Lecture 19 – Information Flow II

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With selected materials adapted from: *Computer Security: Art and Science*, by M. Bishop (2nd Edition)

A more precise definition of information flow

- From the last lecture, we know how to determine whether a system is secure
- So how do we develop mechanisms to detect and stop flows of information that violate a security policy?
- First, let's precisely define information flow, then we can discuss mechanisms to detect and stop flows of information that violate a security policy

A more precise definition of information flow

- Information flow can be precisely defined by utilizing the concept of *entropy*
 - The notion of *entropy* falls under the field of *information theory*
 - This mathematical field was established by the works of Harry Nyquist and Ralph Hartley in the 1920s, and Claude Shannon in the 1940s

Discrete random variables and expectation

- Before we discuss the definition of entropy, let's talk about some basic probability theory concepts
- Let X be a discrete random variable, with X having some probability of taking one of the values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n
- Note that $\sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) = 1$
- Then the *expected* value of X (a.k.a. the *expectation* of X) is given by
- $E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) \cdot x_i$

Discrete random variables and expectation

- Let's look at an example...
- Let X denote the outcome of a fair coin toss
- There are two possible outcomes for X :
 - $x_1 = \text{'Heads'} = 1$, with $P(X = x_1) = 0.5$
 - $x_2 = \text{'Tails'} = 0$, with $P(X = x_2) = 0.5$
- Then $E(X) = P(X = x_1) \cdot x_1 + P(X = x_2) \cdot x_2 = (0.5) \cdot 1 + (0.5) \cdot 0 = 0.5$
 - Intuitively, we can view the expectation of X as the average value of X after conducting many trials (in this case, many coin tosses)

Information of a particular outcome of a discrete random variable

- The *information* (or *information content*) of a particular outcome x_i of a discrete random variable X is denoted $I_X(x_i)$, or $I(X = x_i)$
- It measures the amount of information received/learned in bits, when the outcome of X is x_i , as shown by the following equation:

$$I(X = x_i) = \log_2 \frac{1}{P(X=x_i)}$$

- The amount of information received, by learning that that outcome of X is x_i , is inversely proportional to the probability of x_i occurring
 - Recall that you learned this in 50.002 (Computation Structures)

Information of a particular outcome of a discrete random variable – example

- Let's go back to our example for X – outcome of a fair coin toss...
- Two possible outcomes for X :
 - $x_1 = \text{'Heads'} = 1$, with $P(X = x_1) = 0.5$
 - $x_2 = \text{'Tails'} = 0$, with $P(X = x_2) = 0.5$
- Then $I(X = x_1) = \log_2 \frac{1}{P(X=x_1)} = \log_2 \frac{1}{0.5} = 1$
- Likewise, $I(X = x_2) = 1$
- We gain 1 bit of information by learning that the outcome of X is 'Heads' (or 'Tails')

Entropy of a discrete random variable

- The *entropy* of a discrete random variable X is the uncertainty of X , measured in bits
- The entropy of X is denoted as $H(X)$, and we can think of $H(X)$ as the *expectation* of the *information* of X :

$$H(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) \cdot I(X = x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{P(X=x_i)}$$

- Thus, we have the following formal definition for the entropy of X :

$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x_i)$$

Entropy of a discrete random variable – example

- Again, let's go back to our example for X – the outcome of a fair coin toss...
- Two possible outcomes for X :
 - $x_1 = \text{'Heads'} = 1$, with $P(X = x_1) = 0.5$
 - $x_2 = \text{'Tails'} = 0$, with $P(X = x_2) = 0.5$
- Then $H(X) = -P(X = x_1) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x_1) - P(X = x_2) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x_2) = -(0.5) \cdot \log_2 0.5 - (0.5) \cdot \log_2 0.5 = 1$

Entropy of a discrete random variable

- The entropy of a variable is inversely proportional to its predictability
 - In other words, the lower the entropy of some variable, the more predictable that variable is
 - If $H(X) = 0$, then X is completely predictable (it is always a particular value)
 - If $H(X) = \infty$, then X is completely unpredictable
- If the entropy of some variable X' is lower than the entropy of some variable X , then we can say that X' is more predictable than X
 - We can also say that we know more about X' than X
- Let's illustrate this with an example

Entropy of a discrete random variable – another example

- Let X' denote the outcome of a biased coin toss
- There are two possible outcomes for X' :
 - $x_1' = \text{'Heads'} = 1$, with $P(X' = x_1') = 0.75 \rightarrow$ this event is more likely to occur
 - $x_2' = \text{'Tails'} = 0$, with $P(X' = x_2') = 0.25$
- $E(X') = P(X' = x_1') \cdot x_1' + P(X' = x_2') \cdot x_2' = (0.75) \cdot 1 + (0.25) \cdot 0 = 0.75$
- $I(X' = x_1') = \log_2 \frac{1}{P(X'=x_1')} = \log_2 \frac{1}{0.75} = 0.415$
- $I(X' = x_2') = \log_2 \frac{1}{P(X'=x_2')} = \log_2 \frac{1}{0.25} = 2$

Entropy of a discrete random variable – another example

- $H(X') = -P(X' = x_1') \cdot \log_2 P(X' = x_1') - P(X' = x_2') \cdot \log_2 P(X' = x_2') = -(0.75) \cdot \log_2 0.75 - (0.25) \cdot \log_2 0.25 = 0.811$
- Compare this with $H(X) = 1$
- We can see that $H(X') < H(X)$
- This makes sense, because X' is more predictable than X , as X' is more likely to be 'Heads' than 'Tails', whereas X has an equal likelihood of being 'Heads' or 'Tails'
- So X' has a lower entropy than X

Conditional entropy

- Let X and Y be a discrete random variables, with X having some probability of taking one of the values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n and Y having some probability of taking one of the values y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m
- $\sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) = 1$
- $\sum_{j=1}^m P(Y = y_j) = 1$
- Then the *conditional* entropy of X given that $Y = y_j$ is:
$$H(X | Y = y_j) = - \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x_i | Y = y_j)$$

Conditional entropy

- Also, the *conditional* entropy of X given Y is:

$$H(X | Y) = - \sum_{j=1}^m P(Y = y_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x_i | Y = y_j)$$

- We will use these definitions to develop the notion of information flow in a system, by using X and Y to model objects in a system
- The basic idea is that information flows from an object X to an object Y , if the execution of a sequence of commands c^* causes information initially in X to affect the information in Y

Entropy and information flow

- Let c^* be a sequence of commands that take a system (an FSM) from state a to state b
- Let X and Y be objects in the system, and X_a and Y_a be the values assigned to X and Y respectively at state a
 - Think of X_a and Y_a as outcomes (which can take on particular values) at state a , so treat X_a and Y_a as discrete random variables
 - Same for X_b and Y_b – discrete random variables assigned to X and Y respectively at state b
 - Think of X and Y as more like “containers”

Entropy and information flow

- c^* is a sequence of commands that take a system (an FSM) from state a to state b
- X and Y are objects in the system, and X_a and Y_a are the values assigned to X and Y respectively at state a (same for state b : X_b and Y_b)

$$Y_a = f(X_a) \quad Y_b = f(X_b) \leftarrow \text{more predictable}$$

- Then the command sequence c^* causes a flow of information from X to Y , if: $H(X_a | Y_b) \leq H(X_a | Y_a)$
more predictable
- If Y_a is non-existent in state a , then there is a flow of information from X to Y , if: $H(X_a | Y_b) \leq H(X_a)$
more predictable

Entropy and information flow – example

- Suppose the command sequence c^* is defined by the following code:

```
if  $x == 1$  then  $y := 0$   
    else  $y := 1$ ;
```

with x equally likely to have been assigned either 0 or 1

- This implies that y is equally likely to be assigned either 1 or 0
- a is the state before c^* is executed, while b is the state after c^* is executed
- Note that Y_a does not exist in state $a \rightarrow y$ don't exist before code executes.
- We have $H(X_a) = 1$ (using our earlier example of a fair coin toss)

Entropy and information flow – example

- Now, $H(X_a | Y_b) = - \sum_{j=1}^2 P(Y_b = y_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^2 P(X_a = x_i | Y_b = y_j) \cdot \log_2 P(X_a = x_i | Y_b = y_j)$

$$= -P(Y_b = 0)[P(X_a = 0 | Y_b = 0) \cdot \log_2 P(X_a = 0 | Y_b = 0) + P(X_a = 1 | Y_b = 0) \cdot \log_2 P(X_a = 1 | Y_b = 0)] +$$

$$-P(Y_b = 1)[P(X_a = 0 | Y_b = 1) \cdot \log_2 P(X_a = 0 | Y_b = 1) + P(X_a = 1 | Y_b = 1) \cdot \log_2 P(X_a = 1 | Y_b = 1)]$$

$$= -0.5[0 \cdot \log_2 0 + 1 \cdot \log_2 1] - 0.5[1 \cdot \log_2 1 + 0 \cdot \log_2 0]$$

Entropy and information flow – example

- In information theory, we define $0 \cdot \log_2 0 = 0$,

$$\text{so } H(X_a | Y_b) = -0.5[0 + 0] - 0.5[0 + 0] = 0$$

- Intuitively, we can see that $H(X_a | Y_b) = 0$, because if Y_b is 1, then X_a must be 0, and if Y_b is 0, then X_a must be 1; and thus X_a is completely predictable given Y_b ; and the conditional entropy of X_a given Y_b is 0

Entropy and information flow – example

- $H(X_a) = 1$
- $H(X_a | Y_b) = 0$
- So we have $H(X_a | Y_b) < H(X_a)$
- Therefore, information has flowed from X to Y
 - Intuitively, this makes sense because the value that was originally assigned to \mathbf{x} directly affects the value that would be assigned to \mathbf{y}

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- Suppose the command sequence c^* is defined by the following code:

$\mathbf{x} := \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z};$

with \mathbf{y} equally likely to have been assigned the integer values 0 or 1, (i.e. just like the outcome of a fair coin toss)

and \mathbf{z} having been assigned:

- integer value 1 – probability of $1/2$
- integer value 2 – probability of $1/4$
- integer value 3 – probability of $1/4$

$$\begin{aligned} P(z=1) &= \frac{1}{2} \\ P(z=2) &= \frac{1}{4} \\ P(z=3) &= \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

- a is the state before c^* is executed, while b is the state after c^* is executed

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- X_a does not exist in state a , so $H(Y_a | X_a) = H(Y_a)$
- We have: $H(Y_a) = H(Y_b) = -2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$

$$H(Y_a) = -\sum_{i=1}^2 P(Y=y_i) \cdot \log_2$$

$$= - (0.5 \log_2(0.5) + 0.5 \log_2(0.5))$$

$$= -\log_2 0.5 = 1$$

- Now, based on the information in this example, X_b can take on one of **four** different values:

- integer value 1 – probability of $1/4$
- integer value 2 – probability of $3/8$
- integer value 3 – probability of $1/4$
- integer value 4 – probability of $1/8$

$$\Rightarrow 0.5 \times 0.5 = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$0+2, 1+1, \quad 0.5 \times \frac{1}{4} + 0.5 \times 0.5 = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{2}{8} = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$0+3, 1+2, \quad 0.5 \times \frac{1}{4} + 0.5 \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$1+3, \quad 0.5 \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8}$$

- Now we need to determine: $H(Y_a | X_b) =$

$$-\sum_{j=1}^4 P(X_b = x_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j)$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- $H(Y_a | X_b) =$
 $-\sum_{j=1}^4 P(X_b = x_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j)$
- Evaluating the above expression is going to get ugly, we'll go through it bit by bit – hang in there...

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- $H(Y_a | X_b) = -\sum_{j=1}^4 P(X_b = x_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = y_i | X_b = x_j)$

$$= -P(X_b = 1)[P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 1) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 1) + P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 1) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 1)]$$

$$-P(X_b = 2)[P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 2) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 2) + P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 2) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 2)]$$

$$-P(X_b = 3)[P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 3) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 3) + P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 3) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 3)]$$

$$-P(X_b = 4)[P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 4) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 0 | X_b = 4) + P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 4) \cdot \log_2 P(Y_a = 1 | X_b = 4)]$$

- Now let's evaluate each conditional probability term before getting back to this...

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- In the expression, notice that we need to evaluate several *conditional* probability terms: $P(Y_a = y_i \mid X_b = x_j)$ for some i and j
 - One major problem: these terms require us to find the probability of Y , given that X is already some particular outcome/value
 - But the value of X is dependent on the value of Y !
 - It can be done, but that requires us to reason deductively (not that easy)
- Fortunately, there is a more straightforward way
- We can use Baye's theorem to compute $P(Y \mid X)$ in terms of $P(X \mid Y)$:

$$P(Y \mid X) = \frac{P(X \mid Y) \cdot P(Y)}{P(X)}$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- So using Baye's theorem, let's compute the various values of $P(Y_a = y_i \mid X_b = x_j)$:

- $$P(Y_a = 0 \mid X_b = 1) = \frac{P(X_b=1 \mid Y_a=0) \cdot P(Y_a=0)}{P(X_b=1)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)} = 1$$

- $$P(Y_a = 1 \mid X_b = 1) = \frac{P(X_b=1 \mid Y_a=1) \cdot P(Y_a=1)}{P(X_b=1)} = \frac{(0) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)} = 0$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 0 \mid X_b = 2) = \frac{P(X_b=2 \mid Y_a=0) \cdot P(Y_a=0)}{P(X_b=2)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 1 \mid X_b = 2) = \frac{P(X_b=2 \mid Y_a=1) \cdot P(Y_a=1)}{P(X_b=2)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 0 \mid X_b = 3) = \frac{P(X_b=3 \mid Y_a=0) \cdot P(Y_a=0)}{P(X_b=3)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 1 \mid X_b = 3) = \frac{P(X_b=3 \mid Y_a=1) \cdot P(Y_a=1)}{P(X_b=3)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 0 \mid X_b = 4) = \frac{P(X_b=4 \mid Y_a=0) \cdot P(Y_a=0)}{P(X_b=4)} = \frac{(0) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)} = 0$$

$$\bullet P(Y_a = 1 \mid X_b = 4) = \frac{P(X_b=4 \mid Y_a=1) \cdot P(Y_a=1)}{P(X_b=4)} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)} = 1$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- So we have $H(Y_a | X_b) =$

$$-\frac{1}{4} \cdot [1 \cdot \log_2 1 + 0 \cdot \log_2 0]$$

$$-\frac{3}{8} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{3} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \right]$$

$$-\frac{1}{4} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

$$-\frac{1}{8} \cdot [0 \cdot \log_2 0 + 1 \cdot \log_2 1]$$

$$= -\frac{3}{8} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{3} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \left(1 + \log_2 \frac{1}{3} \right) \right] - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left[\log_2 \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

Entropy and information flow – example 2

$$\begin{aligned} &= -\frac{3}{8} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \\ &= -\frac{3}{8} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we have $H(Y_a | X_b) = -\frac{3}{8} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{3} = 0.594$

- Now, $H(Y_a) = 1$

- $H(Y_a | X_b) < H(Y_a)$

- So information has flowed from Y to X

*if we know about X,
Y more predictable, Y affects X*

Entropy and information flow – example 2

- As an extra practice on your own, try calculating $H(Z_a)$ and $H(Z_a | X_b)$
- Then determine whether information has flowed from Z to X

Implicit flows of information

- Implicit flows are flows of information from X to Y without an *explicit* assignment of the form $y := f(x)$
 - $f(x)$ is some arithmetic expression involving the variable x

- Example of an implicit flow of information:

```
if x == 1 then y := 0
    else y := 1;
```

$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

- We'll need to look for both explicit and implicit flows of information when analyzing a program, and then use mechanisms to detect and stop flows of information that violate a security policy

Notation for security classes

- Before we discuss possible mechanisms to detect and stop flows of information that would violate a security policy, we need to define some notation for security policies:
- \underline{X} refers to the security class of X , as defined by the security policy (in a Bell-LaPadula based system)
- $\underline{X} \leq \underline{Y}$ means that information is allowed to flow from an element in the security class of X to an element in the security class of Y
 - Alternatively, it means that information with a label placing it in class X is allowed to flow into class Y

Compiler-based mechanisms

- A compiler-based mechanism that detects and blocks unauthorized flows of information in a program during compilation, with respect to a given security policy
- The analysis conducted by the mechanism is not precise, but it is secure
 - Not precise: A path of information flow that should have been marked as authorized may instead be marked as unauthorized (i.e. it is a false positive)
 - Secure: **No** unauthorized path of information flow will remain **undetected**
- The following definition is important:

Certified: A set of statements is *certified* with respect to an information flow security policy if the information flow within that set of statements does not violate the security policy

Compiler-based mechanisms – example

- Suppose we have the following statement:

```
if x == 1 then y := m  
    else y := n;
```
- From our understanding of the two examples we discussed earlier (calculation of entropy values), we have information flow from X and M to Y , or information flow from X and N to Y
- Then the above statement is certified only if the security policy states that $\underline{X} \leq \underline{Y}$ and $\underline{M} \leq \underline{Y}$ and $\underline{N} \leq \underline{Y}$
 - Note that the information flow of **both** branches must be accounted for in the security policy, unless the compiler is able to determine that one branch will **never** be taken

Compiler-based mechanisms – security class for array

- Suppose we have the following partial statement (information flowing **out**):

`... := m[i] ;`

- Here, the values of both I and $M[I]$ affect the variable being assigned to, so the security class for the array is $\max(I, \underline{M[I]})$

Compiler-based mechanisms – security class for array

- Now suppose we have the following partial statement (information flowing **in**):

`m[i] := ...`

- Here, only the variable $M[I]$ is affected, so the security class for the array is $M[I]$

Compiler-based mechanisms – assignment statements

- Suppose we have the following statement:

$\mathbf{x} := \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z};$

- There is information flow from Y and Z to X , so the above statement is certified only if the security policy states that $\max(\underline{Y}, \underline{Z}) \leq \underline{X}$

- In general, for the statement

$\mathbf{y} := \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n);$

to be certified by the compiler-based mechanism, the security policy must state that $\max(\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n) \leq \underline{Y}$

Compiler-based mechanisms – compound statements

- Suppose we have the following code:

$\mathbf{x} := \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}; \quad \mathbf{m} := \mathbf{n} * \mathbf{o} - \mathbf{x};$

- The first statement is certified only if the security policy states that $\max(\underline{Y}, \underline{Z}) \leq \underline{X}$
- The second statement is certified only if the security policy states that $\max(\underline{N}, \underline{O}, \underline{X}) \leq \underline{M}$
- For the entire code (both statements) to be certified, the security policy needs to state that $\max(\underline{Y}, \underline{Z}) \leq \underline{X}$ and $\max(\underline{N}, \underline{O}, \underline{X}) \leq \underline{M}$
- In general, for a series of statements
 $\langle \mathbf{S}_1 \rangle; \dots \langle \mathbf{S}_n \rangle;$
to be certified, the compiler-based mechanism must certify each and every statement with the security policy

Compiler-based mechanisms – conditional statements

- Suppose we have the following statement:

```
if x + y < z then m := n
                else p := n * o - x;
```

- For the above statement to be certified, the security policy must have: $\underline{N} \leq \underline{M}$ and $\max(\underline{N}, \underline{O}, \underline{X}) \leq \underline{P}$
- Now, the parts of the statement that are conditionally executed will reveal information about X , Y and Z (because X , Y and Z are part of the condition), so the security policy must also have:

$$\max(\underline{X}, \underline{Y}, \underline{Z}) \leq \min(\underline{M}, \underline{P})$$

Compiler-based mechanisms – conditional statements

- In general, for a statement of the following form

if $f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ **then** $\langle S_1 \rangle$
else $\langle S_2 \rangle$

to be certified, the compiler-based mechanism must certify $\langle S_1 \rangle$ and $\langle S_2 \rangle$

- **And** the security policy must also have:

$\max(\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n) \leq \min(\underline{Y} \mid Y \text{ is target of assignment in } \langle S_1 \rangle, \langle S_2 \rangle)$

Compiler-based mechanisms – iterative statements

- Suppose we have the following code:

```
while i < n do
    begin p[i] := q[i];
          i := i + 1;
    end
```

- For the above code to be certified, the compiler-based mechanism just needs to follow the same certification procedure as that used for a conditional statement, but the compiler-based mechanism must also check that the loop terminates eventually

Compiler-based mechanisms – iterative statements

- In general, for code of the following form

```
while f( $\mathbf{x}_1$ , ...,  $\mathbf{x}_n$ ) do
    <S_1>
end
```

- to be certified, the compiler-based mechanism must:
 - check that the loop terminates eventually, and
 - certify the statement <S_1>,
- **And** the security policy must also have
$$\max(\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n) \leq \min(\underline{Y} \mid Y \text{ is target of assignment in } \text{<S_1>})$$

Compiler-based mechanisms – infinite loops

- Now suppose we have the following code:

```
y := 0;  
while x == 0 do  
    begin (* nothing *)  
end  
  
y := 1;
```

- The above code can cause problems for a compiler-based mechanism

Compiler-based mechanisms – infinite loops

- If X is 0 initially, then we get an infinite loop
- If X is some other value initially, then the code terminates with Y set to 1
- There is no explicit flow of information, but there is an implicit flow of information from X to Y
- It is hard for the compiler-based mechanism to detect whether the loop will terminate at *compile time*

Execution-based mechanisms

- An execution-based mechanism may be able to deal with an infinite loop (the mechanism is *dynamic* in nature)
- An execution-based mechanism checks the flow of information at *run time*, not compile time
- It stops any flow of information that violates the security policy
- Before the statement

$y := f(x_1, \dots, x_n) ;$

is executed, the execution-based mechanism first verifies that

$$\max(\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n) \leq \underline{Y}$$

- The execution-based mechanism will block the execution of the statement if the verification fails

Execution-based mechanisms

- An execution-based mechanism can check for *explicit* flows of information easily
- However, *implicit* flows of information complicate the checking procedure
- Suppose we have the following statement:
`if x == 1 then y := m;`
- There is an explicit flow of information from M to Y , which can be handled by the execution-based mechanism

Execution-based mechanisms

- However, there is an implicit flow of information from X to M
 - Suppose $X \neq 1$, and $\underline{X} = \mathbf{high}$ security classification, $\underline{Y} = \mathbf{low}$ security classification and $\underline{M} = \mathbf{low}$ security classification
 - There will be an *implicit* flow of information from X to Y , because when $X \neq 1$, the assignment $\underline{y} := \underline{m}$ is **not** executed
 - The execution-based mechanism is **unable** block this process
 - An observer who is authorized to access only Y and M can infer that $X \neq 1$ by checking the values of Y and M , even though he is not authorized to know the value of X