

The security protocol verifier ProVerif and its major recent improvements

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Cryptographic protocols

Cryptographic protocols

- small programs designed to **secure** communication (various security goals)
- use **cryptographic primitives** (e.g. encryption, hash function, ...)



Models of protocols

Active attacker:

- The attacker can **intercept all messages sent on the network**
- He can **compute messages**
- He can **send messages on the network**

The symbolic model

The **symbolic model** or “Dolev-Yao model” is due to Needham and Schroeder (1978) and Dolev and Yao (1983).

- Cryptographic primitives are **blackboxes**.
- Messages are **terms** on these primitives.
- The attacker is restricted to compute only using these primitives.
⇒ **perfect cryptography assumption**
 - So the definitions of primitives specify what the attacker **can** do.
One can add equations between primitives.
Hypothesis: the only equalities are those given by these equations.

senc

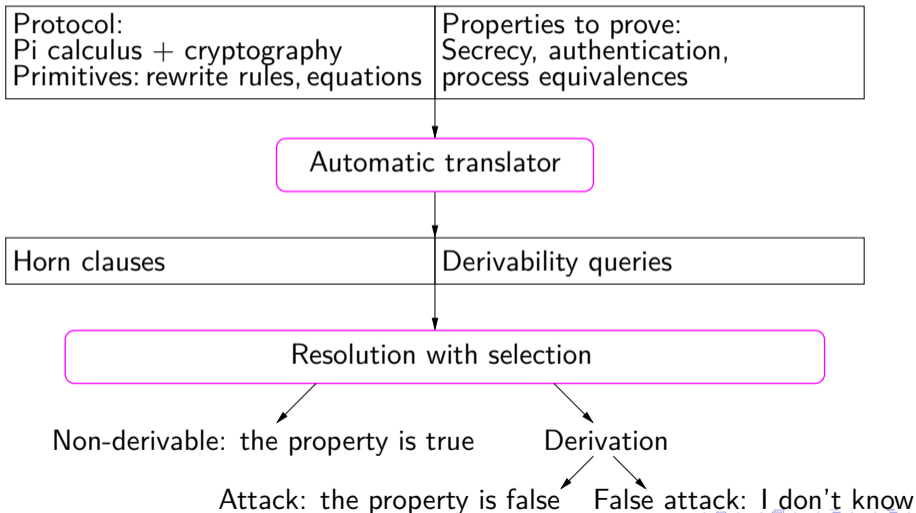
$\text{senc}(\text{Hello}, k)$

This model makes automatic proofs relatively easy.

Features of ProVerif

- Fully automatic.
- Works for **unbounded** number of sessions and message space.
 - \Rightarrow undecidable problem
- Handles a **wide range** of cryptographic primitives, defined by rewrite rules or equations.
- Handles various **security properties**: secrecy, authentication, some equivalences.
- Does **not always terminate** and is **not complete**. In practice:
 - **Efficient**: small examples verified in less than 0.1 s; complex ones in a few minutes.
 - **Very precise**: no false attack in our tests on examples of the literature for secrecy and authentication.

ProVerif, <https://proverif.inria.fr/>



Syntax of the process calculus

Pi calculus + cryptographic primitives

$M, N ::=$

x, y, z, \dots

a, b, c, s, \dots

$f(M_1, \dots, M_n)$

$P, Q ::=$

out(M, N); P

in($M, x : T$); P

0

$P \mid Q$

! P

new $a : T$; P

let $x = g(M_1, \dots, M_n)$ **in** P **else** Q

if $M = N$ **then** P **else** Q

terms

variable

name

constructor application

processes

output

input

nil process

parallel composition

replication

restriction

destructor application

conditional

Constructors and destructors

Two kinds of operations:

- **Constructors** f are used to build terms: $f(M_1, \dots, M_n)$

Example: Shared-key encryption $\text{senc}(M, N)$

```
fun senc(bitstring, key) : bitstring.
```

- **Destructors** g manipulate terms: **let** $x = g(M_1, \dots, M_n)$ **in** P **else** Q
Destructors are defined by rewrite rules $g(M_1, \dots, M_n) \rightarrow M$.

Example: Decryption $\text{sdec}(\text{senc}(m, k), k) \rightarrow m$

```
fun sdec(bitstring, key) : bitstring
```

```
reduc forall  $m$  : bitstring,  $k$  : key;  $\text{sdec}(\text{senc}(m, k), k) = m$ .
```

We represent in the same way **public-key encryption**, **signatures**, **hash functions**, ...

Example: The Denning-Sacco protocol (simplified)

Message 1. $A \rightarrow B : \{\{k\}_{sk_A}\}_{pk_B} \quad k \text{ fresh}$
 Message 2. $B \rightarrow A : \{s\}_k$

```
new  $sk_A : \text{sskey}; \text{new } sk_B : \text{eskey}; \text{let } pk_A = \text{spk}(sk_A) \text{ in}  

let } pk_B = \text{pk}(sk_B) \text{ in out}(c, pk_A); \text{out}(c, pk_B);$ 
```

```
(A)   | ! in}(c, x_{-}pk_B : \text{epkey}); \text{new } k : \text{key};  

      |   out}(c, \text{penc}(\text{sign}(k, sk_A), x_{-}pk_B));  

      |   in}(c, x : \text{bitstring}); \text{let } s = \text{sdec}(x, k) \text{ in } 0
```

```
(B)   | ! in}(c, y : \text{bitstring}); \text{let } y' = \text{pdec}(y, sk_B) \text{ in}  

      |   let } k = \text{checksign}(y', pk_A) \text{ in out}(c, \text{senc}(s, k))
```

The Horn clause representation

The first encoding of protocols in Horn clauses was given by Weidenbach (1999).

The main predicate used by the Horn clause representation of protocols is `att`:

`att(M)` means “the attacker may have M ”.

We can model actions of the attacker and of the protocol participants thanks to this predicate.

Processes are **automatically translated** into Horn clauses (joint work with Martín Abadi).

Coding of primitives

- **Constructors** $f(M_1, \dots, M_n)$
 $\text{att}(x_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \text{att}(x_n) \rightarrow \text{att}(f(x_1, \dots, x_n))$

Example: Shared-key encryption $\text{senc}(m, k)$

$\text{att}(m) \wedge \text{att}(k) \rightarrow \text{att}(\text{senc}(m, k))$

- **Destructors** $g(M_1, \dots, M_n) \rightarrow M$
 $\text{att}(M_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \text{att}(M_n) \rightarrow \text{att}(M)$

Example: Shared-key decryption $\text{sdec}(\text{senc}(m, k), k) \rightarrow m$

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(m, k)) \wedge \text{att}(k) \rightarrow \text{att}(m)$

Coding of a protocol

If a principal A has received the messages M_1, \dots, M_n and sends the message M ,

$$\text{att}(M_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \text{att}(M_n) \rightarrow \text{att}(M).$$

Example

Upon receipt of a message of the form $\text{penc}(\text{sign}(y, sk_A), pk_B)$,
 B replies with $\text{senc}(s, y)$:

$$\text{att}(\text{penc}(\text{sign}(y, sk_A), pk_B)) \rightarrow \text{att}(\text{senc}(s, y))$$

The attacker sends $\text{penc}(\text{sign}(y, sk_A), pk_B)$ to B , and intercepts his reply $\text{senc}(s, y)$.

Proof of secrecy

Theorem (Secrecy)

If $\text{att}(M)$ *cannot* be derived from the clauses, then M is secret.

The term M cannot be built by an attacker.

The resolution algorithm will determine whether a given fact can be derived from the clauses.

Example

query attacker(s).

Resolution with free selection

$$\frac{R = H \rightarrow F \quad R' = F'_1 \wedge H' \rightarrow F'}{H\sigma \wedge H'\sigma \rightarrow F'\sigma}$$

where σ is the most general unifier of F and F'_1 ,
 F and F'_1 are selected.

The selection function selects:

- a hypothesis not of the form $\text{att}(x)$ if possible,
- the conclusion otherwise.

Key idea: **avoid resolving on facts $\text{att}(x)$** .

Resolve until a fixpoint is reached.

Keep clauses whose conclusion is selected.

Theorem

*The obtained clauses derive the **same facts** as the initial clauses.*

Other security properties (1)

Correspondence assertions (authentication):

If an event has been executed, then some other events must have been executed.

```
new  $sk_A$  : skey; new  $sk_B$  : eskey; let  $pk_A = \text{spk}(sk_A)$  in
let  $pk_B = \text{pk}(sk_B)$  in out( $c, pk_A$ ); out( $c, pk_B$ );
```

```
(A)    ! in( $c, x_{-}pk_B$  : epkey); new  $k$  : key; event  $eA(pk_A, x_{-}pk_B, k)$ ;
```

```
    out( $c, \text{penc}(\text{sign}(k, sk_A), x_{-}pk_B))$ ;
```

```
    in( $c, x$  : bitstring); let  $s = \text{sdec}(x, k)$  in 0
```

```
(B)    | ! in( $c, y$  : bitstring); let  $y' = \text{pdec}(y, sk_B)$  in
```

```
    let  $k = \text{checksign}(y', pk_A)$  in event  $eB(pk_A, pk_B, k)$ ;
```

```
    out( $c, \text{senc}(s, k)$ )
```

```
query  $x$  : spkey,  $y$  : epkey,  $z$  : key; event( $eB(x, y, z)$ )  $\implies$  event( $eA(x, y, z)$ )
```

Other security properties (2)

Process equivalences:

- **Strong secrecy**: the attacker cannot distinguish when the value of the secret changes.
- **diff-equivalence**: Equivalence between processes that **differ only by terms they contain** (joint work with Martín Abadi and Cédric Fournet)

In particular, proof of protocols relying on weak secrets.

Extensions

- 1 Natural numbers
- 2 Temporal correspondence queries
- 3 Precise actions
- 4 Axioms, Restrictions, Lemmas
- 5 Proofs by induction

Natural numbers

- Type: `nat`
- Allowed operations:
 - addition, subtraction between variable and natural number
 - less, less or equal, greater, greater or equal
 - predicate testing if a term is a natural number: `is_nat`

```

free k:key [private]. free cell:channel [private].
(* outputs natural numbers from min to max encrypted with k *)
let Q(max:nat) =
  in(cell ,i:nat); out(c ,senc(i ,k));
  if i < max then out(cell ,i+1).

process in(c , (min:nat , max:nat));
  (out(cell ,min) | !Q(max))
  
```

Implemented by constraints `is_nat(M)`, `¬is_nat(M)`, and $M \geq N + n$ in clauses, where n is a constant natural number, simplified using the Bellman-Ford algorithm. □

Temporal correspondence queries

- Type `time` for temporal variables.
- Facts can be associated with a temporal variable: $F@i$.
- **event**(ev)@ n holds when event ev is executed at the n -th step of the trace.
- Can compare temporal variables:

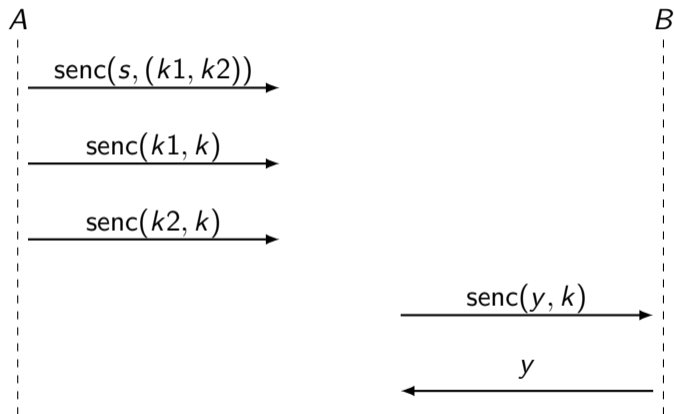
```
query i, j: time, x: bitstring;
  event(A(x))@i && event(B(x))@j ==> i < j.
```

- Integrated with nested and injective queries:

```
query i, j: time, x, y: bitstring;
  event(A(x)) && inj-event(B(x))@j ==>
  (inj-event(A(y)) ==> inj-event(B(y))@i && i <> j).
```

- Encoded as special natural number constraints $i < j$ and $i \leq j$.

Precise actions: toy example



B acts as an oracle for decryption with the key k **but only one time!**

Precise actions: process and clauses

Process

```

free s, k1, k2, k: bitstring [ private ].

let A =
  out(c, senc(s, (k1, k2)));
  out(c, senc(k1, k));
  out(c, senc(k2, k)).

let B =
  in(c, x: bitstring);
  out(c, sdec(x, k)).

process A | B
  
```

Clauses

– for the process

– A:

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(s, (k_1, k_2)))$

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(k_1, k))$

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(k_2, k))$

– B:

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(y, k)) \rightarrow \text{att}(y)$

– for the attacker

$\text{att}(x) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}(\text{senc}(x, y))$

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(x, y)) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}(x)$

$\text{att}(x) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}((x, y))$

Secrecy of s is proved when $\text{att}(s)$ is not derivable from the clauses.

Precise actions: why does it fail?

Process

```

free s, k1, k2, k: bitstring [private]

let A =
  out(c, senc(s, (k1, k2)));
  out(c, senc(k1, k));
  out(c, senc(k2, k)).

let B =
  in(c, x: bitstring);
  out(c, sdec(x, k)).

process A | B
  
```

Clauses

Horn clauses can be applied an arbitrary number of times for arbitrary instantiations

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(y, k))$

– B:

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(y, k)) \rightarrow \text{att}(y)$

– for the attacker

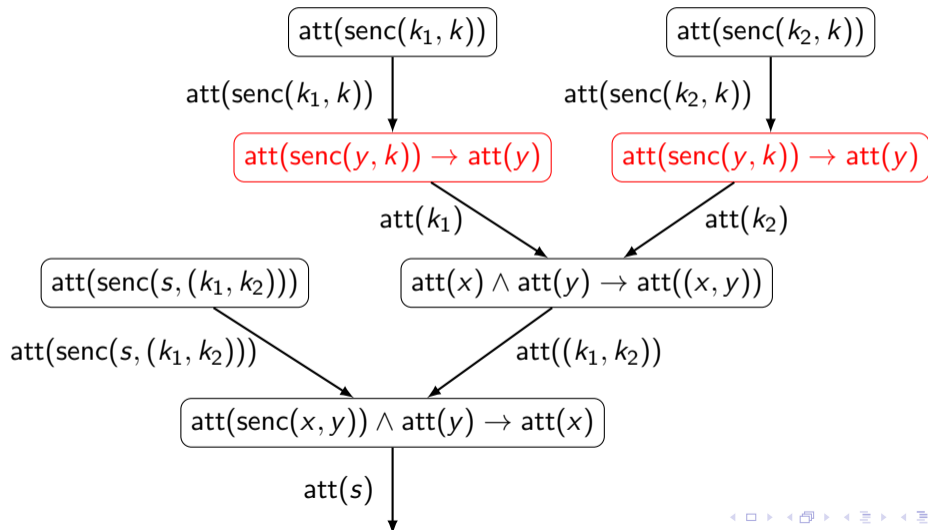
$\text{att}(x) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}(\text{senc}(x, y))$

$\text{att}(\text{senc}(x, y)) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}(x)$

$\text{att}(x) \wedge \text{att}(y) \rightarrow \text{att}((x, y))$

Secrecy of s is proved when $\text{att}(s)$ is not derivable from the clauses.

Precise actions: why does it fail?



Precise actions: what to do?

- Add a `[precise]` option to the problematic input.

```
free s, k1, k2, k: bitstring [private].

let A =
  out(c, senc(s, (k1, k2)));
  out(c, senc(k1, k));
  out(c, senc(k2, k)).

let B =
  in(c, x: bitstring) [precise];
  out(c, sdec(x, k)).

process A | B
```

- Global setting: `set preciseActions = true`.
- Adding `[precise]` options may increase the verification time or lead to non-termination.

Precise actions: how to know where to put [precise]?

In the derivation,
find two different
messages received
by the same input,
where this should not
happen in the process.

Derivation:

1. The message `senc(k2[],k[])` may be sent to the attacker at output 3.
`attacker(senc(k2[],k[]))`.
2. **The message `senc(k2[],k[])` that the attacker may have by 1 may be received at input 4.**
So the message `k2[]` may be sent to the attacker at output 5.
`attacker(k2[])`.
3. The message `senc(k1[],k[])` may be sent to the attacker at output 2.
`attacker(senc(k1[],k[]))`.
4. **The message `senc(k1[],k[])` that the attacker may have by 3 may be received at input 4.**
So the message `k1[]` may be sent to the attacker at output 5.
`attacker(k1[])`.
5. By 4, the attacker may know `k1[]`.
By 2, the attacker may know `k2[]`.
Using the function 2-tuple the attacker may obtain `(k1[],k2[])`.
`attacker((k1[],k2[]))`.
6. The message `senc(s[],(k1[],k2[]))` may be sent to the attacker at output 1.
`attacker(senc(s[],(k1[],k2[])))`.
7. By 6, the attacker may know `senc(s[],(k1[],k2[]))`.
By 5, the attacker may know `(k1[],k2[])`.
Using the function `sdec` the attacker may obtain `s[]`.
`attacker(s[])`.
8. By 7, `attacker(s[])`.
The goal is reached, represented in the following fact:

Restrictions, axioms, lemmas

```

restriction  $R_1$ .
...
restriction  $R_n$ .

axiom  $A_1$ .
...
axiom  $A_m$ .

lemma  $L_1$ .
...
lemma  $L_k$ .

query attacker( $s$ ).
```

Restrictions “restrict” the traces considered in axioms, lemmas, and queries.

query attacker(s) holds if no trace satisfying R_1, \dots, R_n reveals s .

- ① ProVerif assumes that the axioms A_1, \dots, A_m hold.
- ② ProVerif tries to prove the lemmas L_1, \dots, L_k in order, using all axioms and previously proved lemmas.
- ③ ProVerif tries to prove the query **query attacker**(s) using all axioms and all lemmas.

Implementing precise actions

Option [precise] is encoded as an axiom internally.

```
let B =
  in(c, x: bitstring) [precise];
  out(c, sdec(x, k)).
```

encoded as

```
event Precise(occurrence, bitstring).

axiom occ: occurrence, x1, x2: bitstring;
  event(Precise(occ, x1)) && event(Precise(occ, x2)) ==> x1 = x2.

let B = in(c, x: bitstring);
  new occ[]: occurrence;
  event Precise(occ, x);
  out(c, sdec(x, k)).
```

Using restrictions, axioms, and lemmas (simplified)

Consider a lemma (or restriction or axiom) $\bigwedge_i F_i \implies \bigvee_j \phi_j$.

$$\frac{H \rightarrow C \quad \text{for all } i, F_i\sigma \in H \text{ or } F_i\sigma = C}{H \wedge \phi_j\sigma \rightarrow C}$$

If for all i , $F_i\sigma \in H$ or $F_i\sigma = C$, then the hypothesis of the lemma holds, so the conclusion of the lemma holds. We add it to the hypothesis of the clause, generating clauses $H \wedge \phi_j\sigma \rightarrow C$ for all j .

Example

Axiom **event**(*Precise*(*occ*, x_1)) \wedge **event**(*Precise*(*occ*, x_2)) $\implies x_1 = x_2$.

event(*Precise*(*occ*, *senc*(k_1 , k))) \wedge **event**(*Precise*(*occ*, *senc*(k_2 , k))) \rightarrow *att*(s)

transformed into

event(*Precise*(*occ*, *senc*(k_1 , k))) \wedge **event**(*Precise*(*occ*, *senc*(k_2 , k))) \wedge
senc(k_1 , k) = *senc*(k_2 , k) \rightarrow *att*(s)

Removed.

Proofs by induction

- In order to prove a query, use that query itself as lemma on a strict prefix of the trace, by **induction on the length of the trace**.
- In a clause $H \rightarrow C$, H happens strictly before C .
- Consider the inductive lemma $\bigwedge_i F_i \implies \bigvee_j \phi_j$.
 $\bigvee_j \phi_j$ holds before or at the same time as the latest F_i .

$$\frac{H \rightarrow C \quad \text{for all } i, F_i\sigma \in H}{H \wedge \phi_j\sigma \rightarrow C}$$

If for all $i, F_i\sigma \in H$, then the hypothesis of the lemma holds strictly before C , so the conclusion of the lemma holds strictly before C . We add it to the hypothesis of the clause, generating clauses $H \wedge \phi_j\sigma \rightarrow C$ for all j .

- Also works for a group of queries: **proofs by mutual induction**.

Proofs by induction: example

```
free cell:channel [private].  
query x:nat;  
mess( cell ,x)==>is_nat(x).  
let Q =  
  in( cell , i : nat );  
  out( c , senc( i , k ));  
  out( cell , i + 1).  
process out( cell , 0) | !Q
```

Clauses:

$\text{mess}(\text{cell}, 0)$

$\text{mess}(\text{cell}, i) \rightarrow \text{mess}(\text{cell}, i + 1)$

ProVerif stops resolving on $\text{mess}(\text{cell}, i)$
because it would lead to an infinite loop.

The attacker is untyped: a priori, i may
not be a natural number.

The proof fails.

Proofs by induction: example solved

```

free cell:channel [private].

set nouniflgnoreAFewTimes = auto.

query x:nat;
mess( cell , x) ==> is_nat(x) [induction].

let Q =
  in( cell , i:nat );
  out( c , senc(i , k));
  out( cell , i+1).

process out( cell , 0) | !Q
  
```

Clauses:

$\text{mess}(cell, 0)$

$\text{mess}(cell, i) \rightarrow \text{mess}(cell, i + 1)$

Lemma $\text{mess}(cell, x) \implies \text{is_nat}(x)$

transforms

$\text{mess}(cell, i) \rightarrow \text{mess}(cell, i + 1)$

into

$\text{mess}(cell, i) \wedge \text{is_nat}(i) \rightarrow \text{mess}(cell, i+1)$

nouniflgnoreAFewTimes allows resolution on $\text{mess}(cell, i)$ once during verification.

The proof now succeeds.

Expressivity results

P Precise actions

I `set nounifIgnoreAFewTimes = auto.`

R `set removeEventsForLemma = true.`

Remove events used only for lemmas, when they become useless.

\mathbb{N} Natural numbers

A Axioms, Lemmas

Expressivity results

Published protocols

Protocol	Q	O	#	N	P	I	R	N	A
PCV Otway-Rees	eq	✗	1	✓	◆				
PCV Needham-Schreder	inj	✗	6	✓	◆	◆			
			3	⚡					
PCV Denning-Sacco	inj	✗	1	⚡					
JFK	cor	✗	2	⚡		◆			
	inj		2	✓					
Arinc823	cor	✗	6	⚡				◆	
Helios-norevote	eq	✗	4	✓	◆				
Signal	cor	✗	2	⚡					
TLS12-TLS13-draft18	cor	✗	1	⚡					

Unpublished protocols

Protocol	Q	O	#	N	P	I	R	N	A
QBC_4qbits	cor	✗	1	✓	◆				
			1	⚡					
Voting-draft	eq	✗	1	✓	◆				
LAK-simplified	cor	⌚	1	✓		◆			
PACE_v3-sequence	cor	✗	1	✓					
			3	⚡	◆			◆	◆
DP-3T-simpl-draft	cor	⌚	1	✓	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
			2	⚡					
student1	cor	⌚	2	✓	◆		◆		
	inj		1	⚡					
student2	inj	✗	1	✓					
student3	cor	⌚	1	⚡	◆		◆		
student4	cor	✗	2	⚡	◆		◆		
student5	cor	⌚	1	⚡					

Improved efficiency

- A Subsumption
- B Translation of processes into clauses
- C Resolution
- D Global redundancy
- E Pre-treatment of processes

A Subsumption

$H \rightarrow C$ subsumes $H' \rightarrow C'$ when $C\sigma = C'$ and $H\sigma \subseteq H'$.

Every time a clause is generated by resolution,

- check if it is not subsumed by an existing clause
- remove all existing clauses that are subsumed by this new clause

More than 80% of total execution time!

Idea [Schulz13]: Feature vertex indexing

A feature is a function f on clauses such that

$H \rightarrow C$ subsumes $H' \rightarrow C'$ implies $f(H \rightarrow C) \leq f(H' \rightarrow C')$

Clauses are organized in a trie indexed by feature values.

C Resolution

Resolution: One clause against many!

The selection function guarantees that always the same fact of a clause will be used.

Clauses are organized in a trie indexed by the symbol functions of their selected fact (depth first exploration)
[Substitution tree indexing techniques]

Advantage:

- Fewer unifications
- We know quickly with which clauses we can perform resolution

D Global redundancy

A clause is **redundant** when it is obtained by resolving existing clauses whose conclusion is selected.

- 1 Avoid testing redundancy when it is useless.
- 2 Simplified the test (e.g. subsumption is useless).

B Translation of processes into clauses

We evaluate an argument of a function only when it is still needed in order to determine the result.

Example

$M \wedge N$: if M evaluates to false, we do not evaluate N .

E Pre-treatment of processes

ProVerif sometimes groups sequences of lets

$$\mathbf{let } x_1 = M_1 \mathbf{ in } \dots \mathbf{let } x_n = M_n \mathbf{ in } P$$

to evaluate all of M_1, \dots, M_n and then evaluate P when none of them fails.

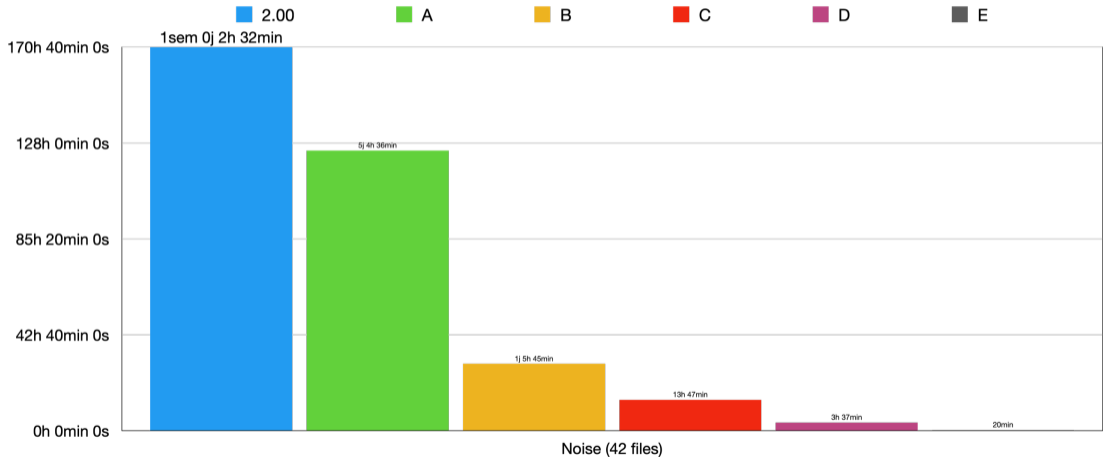
Improves precision for equivalence proofs: avoids distinguishing which M_j fails.

We ensure that M_i is not evaluated when a previous M_j fails, while keeping the improved precision.

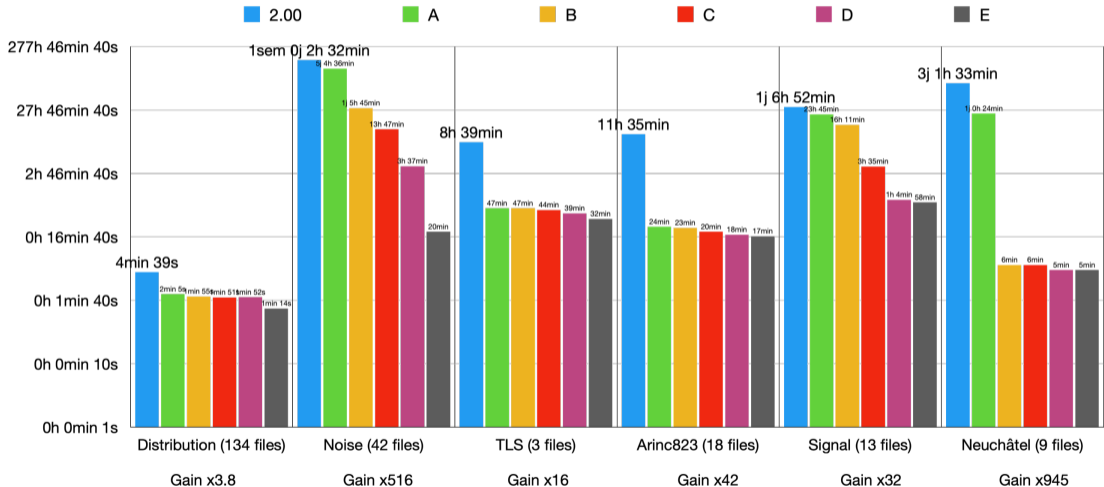
Improved efficiency

- ProVerif 2.00
- A Subsumption
- B Translation of processes into clauses
- C Resolution
- D Global redundancy
- E Pre-treatment of processes

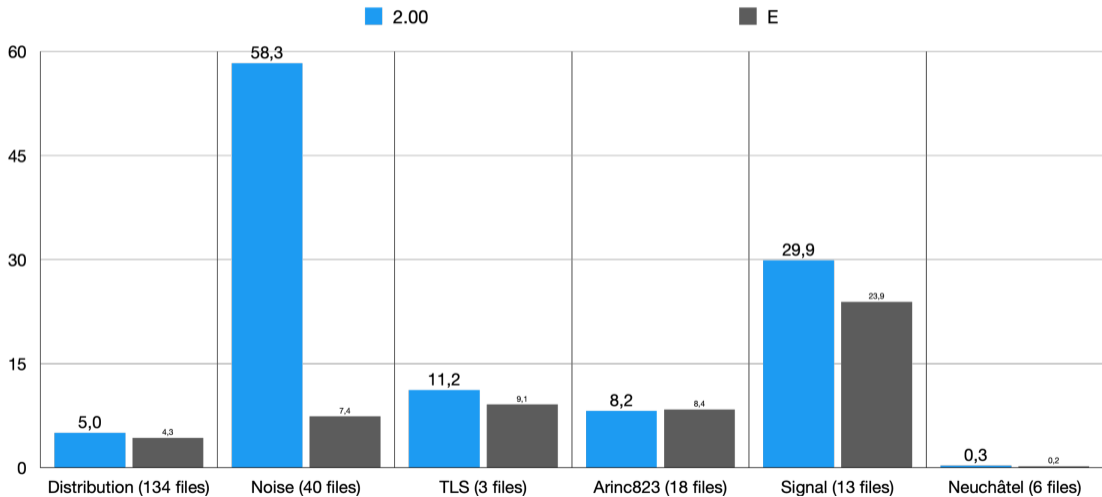
Time gain (linear scale)



Time gain (log scale)



Memory gain (linear scale, Gb)



What's next?

- 1 Integration of GSVerif
 - Precise actions of GSVerif much stronger than the one of ProVerif
 - New transformations?
- 2 Modulo AC / XOR / groups
 - The algorithm should remain mostly the same
 - Main issues : Efficiency and non-termination
- 3 Going beyond diff-equivalence
 - Trace equivalence
- 4 Whatever users need!

Paper to appear at IEEE Security and Privacy 2022

<https://bblanche.gitlabpages.inria.fr/publications/BlanchetEtAlSP22.html>