

Secure Agents

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Abstract

With the rapid proliferation of software agents, there comes an increased need for agents to ensure that they do not provide data and/or services to unauthorized users. We first develop an abstract definition of what it means for an agent to preserve data/action security. Most often, this requires an agent to have knowledge that is impossible to acquire — hence, we then develop approximate security checks that take into account, the fact that an agent usually has incomplete/approximate beliefs about other agents. We develop two types of security checks — static ones that can be checked prior to deploying the agent, and dynamic ones that are executed at run time. We prove that a number of these problems are undecidable, but under certain conditions, they are decidable and (our definition of) security can be guaranteed. Finally, we propose a language within which the developer of an agent can specify her security needs, and present provably correct algorithms for static/dynamic security verification.

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1 Introduction

Over the last few years, there has been intense work in the area of intelligent agents [27, 61]. Applications of such agent technology have ranged from intelligent news and mail filtering programs [38], to agents that monitor the state of the stock market and detect trends in stock prices, to intelligent web search agents [18], to the digital battlefield where agent technology closely monitors and merges information gathered from multiple heterogeneous information sources [1, 32, 33, 50, 59]. More recently, we have seen an increase in the number of agents that automatically interact with one another. Such agents can negotiate with each other, participate in auctions, make group consensus decisions, and the like [31, 58, 44, 29].

In previous work [2, 17, 16], Eiter et. al. have developed a framework for building agents on top of specialized data structures and/or legacy code bases. Each such agent has a “state” and provides a set of services to other agents. Such services include data retrieval services (answering database queries, retrievals from geographic information systems, etc.) as well as computational services (e.g. creating a plan, recognizing features in imagery, finding a route, etc.). However, an agent \mathbf{a} may store a vast quantity of data only some of which it is willing to disclose to another agent \mathbf{b} — for example, a `tank` agent may disclose its location only to certain other agents, not all. Likewise, a military route planning agent may create routes only for authorized clients, not for others. In commercial applications, agents may provide data and services only to customers who have paid an appropriate fee. Thus, agent designers need to have a framework within which they can describe what data and what services should be provided by their agent to other agents/clients.

Most existing work on agent security has focused on two aspects — protecting host computers from mobile agents (or applets) [22], and the converse problem of protecting agents from the hosts [45]. Our work complements these two approaches, because (i) we do not restrict interest to mobile agents only but consider the broader class of agents, mobile and otherwise, in multiagent AI environments [40], and (ii) we develop techniques by which an agent can provide services and release data to other agents while maintaining security.

The main contributions and organization of this paper may be summarized as follows.

- In Section 2, we provide a small motivating multiagent example for our security framework.
- In Section 3, we describe a framework called *IMPACT* (Interactive Maryland Platform for Agents Collaborating Together) in which a (very general) concept of agent is introduced [17, 16].
- In Section 4, we provide an abstract concept of an agent that is not dependent upon *IMPACT*, but is applicable to other agent systems as well.
- In Section 5, we introduce two concepts used for defining aspects of agent security — *histories* of what the agent did in the past, and *consequence relations* used by an agent to draw inferences. Intuitively, to prevent agent \mathbf{b} from inferring a secret, agent \mathbf{a} must somehow ensure that agent \mathbf{b} ’s “true” state of knowledge of the world (which is shaped by agent \mathbf{b} ’s “true” history and agent \mathbf{b} ’s “true” consequence relation) does not entail the secret. Similar definitions are needed to ensure that agent \mathbf{b} does not utilize services it is not cleared to use. We also formally define what it means for an agent \mathbf{a} to maintain “true” security” in terms of the above concepts. Specifically,

we show that a naive definition of security called “surface security” is not enough for maintain true security and our notion of data security alleviates this problem. We do likewise for “true” action security.

- It is usually impossible in practice for agent \mathbf{a} to have correct and complete information about agent \mathbf{b} 's state, consequence relation and history. Hence, maintaining “true” security is infeasible in practice. To alleviate this problem, we define, in Section 6, what it means for agent \mathbf{a} to approximate \mathbf{b} 's state, consequence relation and history. Based on these concepts, we define an approximation of true data security and true action security and show that under certain conditions, approximate security implies true security, i.e. the approximation is “good enough” to maintain true security.
- In Section 7, we show that the general problem of maintaining data and action security for agents is undecidable. It does not matter whether these agents are built in *IMPACT* or in Aglets [52] or in Java[42]. However, this undecidability is also true for approximate data and action security of general agents.
- As a consequence, in Section 8, we provide a (family of) languages through which agent designers can express the security needs of their agents. Using this language, designers of an agent \mathbf{a} can express how agent \mathbf{a} approximates the history, state, consequence relation, etc., of another arbitrary agent \mathbf{b} . We show that this language is decidable, and thus provides a polynomially implementable fragment of the general agent security theory proposed in this paper.
- In Section 10, we describe related work on agent security, and assess the strengths and weaknesses of our approach.

2 Motivating Example

Consider a small multiagent application involving two tanks `tank1` and `tank2`, a command center `com.c`, and a tracking agent.

The two tanks are both engaged in some operational mission, and are continuously aware of their geo-location, bearing, and speed. They are tasked to perform actions by the command center. The command center is authorized to know all information about the tanks.

In contrast, the tracking agent may ask the tanks for information on their supply state (e.g. how many rounds of fire/fuel they have, whether any parts need repair, etc.). The tracking agent is not authorized to know the precise location of the tank — it is important to note that this does not mean that the tank cannot reveal its bearing/speed to the tracking agent. In fact, it may even be able to reveal on old position without compromising security. The tracking agent may task the tanks to take appropriate repair actions, but has no authority to change their route, etc.

We will use these agents as a running example throughout this paper.

3 Preliminaries: *IMPACT* Agents

In *IMPACT*, each agent \mathbf{a} is built on top of a body of software code (built in any programming language) that supports a well defined application programmer interface (either

part of the code itself, or developed to augment the code). In general, we will assume that the piece of software \mathcal{S}^a associated with an agent $a \in A$ is represented by a triple $\mathcal{S}^a =_{def} (\mathcal{T}_S^a, \mathcal{F}_S^a, \mathcal{C}_S^a)$:

Definition 3.1 (Software Code) *We may characterize the code on top of which an agent is built as a triple $\mathcal{S} =_{def} (\mathcal{T}_S, \mathcal{F}_S, \mathcal{C}_S)$ where:*

1. \mathcal{T}_S is the set of all data types managed by \mathcal{S} ,
2. \mathcal{F}_S is a set of predefined functions which makes access to the data objects managed by the agent available to external processes, and
3. \mathcal{C}_S is a set of type composition operations. A type composition operator is a partial n -ary function c which takes as input types τ_1, \dots, τ_n and yields as a result a type $c(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$. As c is a partial function, c may only be defined for certain arguments τ_1, \dots, τ_n , i.e., c is not necessarily applicable on arbitrary types.

When we are referring to the code associated with a fixed agent a , we will often drop the superscript a above. Intuitively, \mathcal{T}_S is the set of all data types that are managed by the agent. \mathcal{F}_S intuitively represents the set of all function calls supported by the package \mathcal{S} 's application programmer interface (API). \mathcal{C}_S the set of ways of creating new data types from existing data types. This characterization of a piece of software code is a well accepted and widely used specification. For example, the *Object Data Management Group's ODMG* standard [12] and the *CORBA* framework [47] are existing industry standards consistent with this specification.

Each agent also has a message box having a well defined set of associated code calls that can be invoked by external programs.

Example 3.1 *Let us assume that the two tank agents each have function calls called:*

- *speed()* which returns as output, the current speed (non-negative integer) of the tank;
- *bearing()* which returns as output, the current bearing (integer between 0 and 360) describing the angular bearing of the tank;
- *location(T)* which returns as output, the pair (x, y) defining the location of the tank at time T relative to some fixed map;
- *region(T)* which returns as output, a quadruple (ℓ, r, b, t) describing the region $\{(x', y') | \ell \leq x' \leq r \ \& \ b \leq y' \leq t\}$ such that $\text{location}(T) \in \text{region}(T)$.

Likewise, the command center agent may support the following function calls:

- *find – friendly* (ℓ, r, b, t) which returns as output, the set of all triples containing a friendly tank and its location in the specified region.
- *find – enemy* (ℓ, r, b, t) which returns as output, the set of all triples containing an enemy tank and its location in the specified region.
- *distance* (x, y, x', y') returns as output, the distance between two points.

The state of an agent, at any given point t in time, consists of the set of all instantiated data objects of types contained in \mathcal{T}_S^a :

Definition 3.2 (State of an Agent) *At any given point t in time, the state of an agent will refer to a set $\mathcal{O}_S(t)$ of objects from the types \mathcal{T}_S , managed by its internal software code. An agent may change its state by taking an action—either triggered internally, or by processing a message received from another agent. Throughout this paper we will assume that except for appending messages to an agent \mathbf{a} 's mailbox, another agent \mathbf{b} cannot directly change \mathbf{a} 's state. However, it might do so indirectly by shipping the other agent a message issuing a change request.*

Queries and/or conditions may be evaluated against an agent state using the notion of a code call atom and a code call condition defined below.

Definition 3.3 (Code Call/Code Call Atom) *If \mathcal{S} is the name of a software package, f is a function defined in this package, and (d_1, \dots, d_n) is a tuple of arguments of the right input types of f , then $\mathcal{S}:f(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ is called a code call.*

If cc is a code call, and X is either a variable symbol, or an object of the output type of cc , then $\mathbf{in}(X, cc)$ is called a code call atom.

Definition 3.4 (Code Call Condition) *A code call condition χ is defined as follows:*

1. *Every code call atom is a code call condition.*
2. *If s, t are either variables or objects, then $s = t$ is a code call condition.*
3. *If s, t are either integers/real valued objects, or are variables over the integers/reals, then $s < t, s > t, s \geq t, s \leq t$ are code call conditions.*
4. *If χ_1, χ_2 are code call conditions, then $\chi_1 \& \chi_2$ is a code call condition.*

A code call condition satisfying any of the first three criteria above is an atomic code call condition.

Example 3.2 *Let us return to the case of example 3.1. Here are some example code call conditions.*

1. $\mathbf{in}(X, \text{tank1}:\text{speed}()) \& X \geq 20$.
This code call condition succeeds iff the speed of tank1 exceeds 20 units.
2. $\mathbf{in}(X, \text{tank1}:\text{speed}()) \& \mathbf{in}(Y, \text{tank2}:\text{speed}()) \& X > Y$.
This code call condition succeeds iff the speed of tank1 exceeds that of tank2.
3. $\mathbf{in}(V, \text{com} - c:\text{find} - \text{friendly}(10, 20, 10, 20)) \& \mathbf{in}(V', \text{com} - c:\text{find} - \text{enemy}(10, 20, 10, 20)) \& \mathbf{in}(D, \text{com} - c:\text{distance}(V.x, V.y, V'.x, V'.y)) \& D < 5$.
This code call condition finds all pairs of friendly-enemy tanks which are within 5 units of distance of each other.

Each agent has an action-base consisting of a description of the various actions that the agent is capable of executing. Actions change the state of the agent and perhaps the state of other agents' `msgboxes`. Such actions comprise the services that other agents might request.

An agent also has an associated *notion of concurrency* which takes a set of actions and the agent state as input, and merges the actions into a single “unified” action that is executed in lieu of the set of individual actions. [17] provide several alternative implementations of such notions of concurrency – the agent developer selects or defines one that is appropriate for his agent.

Each agent has an associated set of integrity constraints—only states that satisfy these constraints are considered to be *valid* or *legal* states. Each agent has an associated set of action constraints that define the circumstances under which certain actions may be concurrently executed. As at any given point t in time, many sets of actions may be concurrently executable, each agent has an *Agent Program* that determines what actions the agent can take, what actions the agent cannot take, and what actions the agent must take. The agent program is defined as follows.

Definition 3.5 (Status Atom/Status Set) *If $\alpha(\vec{t})$ is an action, and $Op \in \{\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Do}, \mathbf{O}\}$, then $Op\alpha(\vec{t})$ is called a status atom. A status set is a finite set of status atoms.*

Definition 3.6 (Agent Program) *An agent program \mathcal{P} is a finite set of rules of the form*

$$A \leftarrow \chi \& \pm A_1 \& \dots \& \pm A_n$$

where χ is a code call condition and A_1, \dots, A_n are status atoms.

The semantics of agent programs are well described in [17, 16]. Due to space reasons, we do not explicitly recapitulate them here. Table 1 lists the notation used in this paper, and the section in which each is first defined.

4 Abstract Agents

As described in the Introduction, each agent has a “true” history (describing its past interactions with other agents), and a “true” consequence relation. In addition, a logical notion of state built on top of the previous definition will be useful. These three concepts jointly define what an agent knows at a given instant of time. Intuitively, to preserve security, we need to ensure that no secret is known to the agent.

4.1 Abstract Behavior: Histories

There are two types of events that may determine an agent \mathbf{a} 's behavior. An *action event* $\langle \alpha(\vec{t}), \mathbf{b} \rangle$ describes an action that \mathbf{a} has taken in response to a request by an agent \mathbf{b} . If $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a}$, then $\alpha(\vec{t})$ is a “spontaneous” action, executed to achieve some of \mathbf{a} 's own goals. A *message event* is represented as a triple of the form $\langle \text{sender}, \text{receiver}, \text{body} \rangle$, where *sender* and *receiver* are agents, *sender* \neq *receiver*, and *body* is either a service request ρ or an *answer*, that is, a set of ground code call atoms.

Notation	Location	Description
\mathcal{S}	Def. 3.1	Software code
$\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{S}}(t)$	Def. 3.2	Agent state
$\mathcal{S}:f(d_1, \dots, d_n)$	Def. 3.3	Code call
$\mathbf{in}(X, \mathcal{S}:f(d_1, \dots, d_n))$	Def. 3.3	Code call atom
χ	Def. 3.4	Code call condition
$\alpha(\vec{t})$	Section 3	Action
\mathcal{L}_a	Section 4.2 beginning	fact language of agent \mathbf{a}
h	Def. 4.1	History
$\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$	Def. 4.2	Possible histories of \mathbf{a}
Cn_a	Def. 4.4	Consequence relation of \mathbf{a}
\vdash_a	Section 4.3 after Def. 4.4	provability relation
Sec_a	Def. 5.1	Agent secrets function
$ASec_a$	Def. 5.2	Agent action security function
$h_1 \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_2$	Def. 5.4	Compatible histories
$\mathcal{O}_b(h_b)$	4.3	\mathbf{b} 's state at h_b
$\text{Violated}_b^a(h_b)$	Def. 5.5	Violated secrets
$\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a$	Def. 6.1	Possible histories approximation
\sim_h	Def. 6.2	History correspondence relation
$AppH_b(h)$	Def. 6.3	Approximate current history
$App\mathcal{L}_b$	Def. 6.4	Approximate fact language
\sim_f	Def. 6.5	Fact correspondence relation
\sim_c	Def. 6.7	Condition correspondence relation
$App\mathcal{O}_b$	Def. 6.8	Approximate state function
$AppSec(b)$	Def. 6.10	Approximate secrets
$AppCn_b$	Def. 6.12	Approximate consequence relation
$O\text{Viol}_b$	Def. 6.17	Overestimate of violated secrets
$U\text{Viol}_b$	Def. 6.18	Underestimate of violated secrets
$G_0 \xrightarrow{\theta}_R G_m$	Def. 8.7	Pseudo-derivation

Table 1: Summary of notation

Definition 4.1 (Histories) A history is a possibly infinite sequence of events, such as $\langle e_1, e_2, \dots \rangle$. We say that a history h is a history for \mathbf{a} if each action in h can be executed by \mathbf{a} , and for all messages $\langle s, r, m \rangle$ in h , either $s = \mathbf{a}$ or $r = \mathbf{a}$.

The concatenation of two histories h_1 and h_2 will be denoted by $h_1 \cdot h_2$. With a slight abuse of notation, we shall sometimes write $h \cdot e$, where e is an event, as an abbreviation for the concatenation $h \cdot \langle e \rangle$.

A history for \mathbf{a} keeps track of a set of messages that \mathbf{a} has exchanged with other agents, and a set of actions that \mathbf{a} has performed.

The notion of history for \mathbf{a} captures histories that are *syntactically* correct. However, not every history for \mathbf{a} describes a possible behavior of \mathbf{a} . For instance, some histories are impossible because \mathbf{a} 's code will never lead to that sequence of events. Some others are impossible because they contain messages coming from agents that will never want to talk to \mathbf{a} . This leads to the notion of “possible histories” below.

Definition 4.2 (Possible Histories) Every agent \mathbf{a} has an associated set of histories, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}$, called the possible histories of agent \mathbf{a} .

For example, a history where agent \mathbf{a} sends mail to agent \mathbf{b} without a prior request may not constitute a possible history for agent \mathbf{b} .

Example 4.1 A possible history for `tank1` agent may have the form $\langle \dots e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4 \dots \rangle$, where:

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \langle \text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, \text{set: speed}(\text{new_speed}) \rangle, \\ e_2 &= \langle \text{set_speed}(55\text{kmh}), \text{com} - \text{c} \rangle, \\ e_3 &= \langle \text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, \text{location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}}) \rangle, \\ e_4 &= \langle \text{tank1}, \text{com} - \text{c}, \{\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1: location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}}))\} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Here e_1 , e_3 are request messages, e_2 is an action event, and e_4 is an answer message. Intuitively, the command center asks `tank1` to change its speed, then asks for the new position. Events e_2 and e_4 model `tank1`'s reactions to those requests.

4.2 Logical Agent States

The state of an agent may be *represented* as the set of all ground code call atoms $\text{in}(\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{S}:f(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n))$ which are true in the state, where \mathcal{S} is the name of a data structure manipulated by the agent, and f is one of the functions defined on this data structure. Each of these ground code call atoms may be thought of as a logical atom. For any given agent \mathbf{a} , the set of ground code call atoms that can be used by \mathbf{a} will be denoted by $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{a}}$, and will be called the *fact language* of \mathbf{a} .

Example 4.2 Returning to example 3.2, the state of the `tank1` agent may consist of the ground code call atoms:

$$\text{in}((5, 5), \text{tank1: location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})).$$

`in(25, tank1 : speed()).`

`in(120, tank1 : bearing()).`

Clearly, the state of \mathbf{a} at a given point in time is determined by the history of \mathbf{a} up to that point. Therefore, it is natural to model \mathbf{a} 's state changes as a function from histories to states. This is done in the next definition.

Definition 4.3 (Agent State at h : $\mathcal{O}_\alpha(h)$) For all agents \mathbf{a} and all histories h for \mathbf{a} , we denote by $\mathcal{O}_\alpha(h)$, the state of \mathbf{a} immediately after the sequence of events h . The initial state of \mathbf{a} (i.e. the state of \mathbf{a} when it was initially deployed) is denoted by $\mathcal{O}_\alpha(\langle \rangle)$.

4.3 Agent Consequence Relation

In principle, “intelligent” agents can derive new facts from the information explicitly stored in their state. Different agents have different reasoning capabilities. Some agents may perform no reasoning on the data they store, some may derive new information using numeric calculations, while others may have sophisticated inference procedures.

Definition 4.4 (Agent Consequence Relation) We assume that each agent \mathbf{a} has an associated consequence relation Cn_α , that takes as input, a set of ground code call atoms, and returns as output, a set of ground code call atoms. $Cn_\alpha(F)$ returns as output, all ground code call atoms implied by the input set F , according to the notion of consequence adopted by \mathbf{a} . Cn_α is required to satisfy the following general axioms:

1. $Cn_\alpha(X) \supseteq X$;
2. $Cn_\alpha(Cn_\alpha(X)) = Cn_\alpha(X)$.

Our definition of agent consequence builds upon the classical notion of an abstract consequence relation, originally proposed by [54]. Almost all standard provability relations, \vdash , for different proof systems ranging from classical logic to modal logics to multivalued logics, induce a function Cn^\vdash as follows:

$$Cn^\vdash(X) =_{def} \{ \psi \mid X \vdash \psi \}.$$

Conversely, each abstract consequence relation Cn_α induces a provability relation

$$S \vdash_\alpha \psi \text{ if, by definition, } \forall X : S \subseteq X \subseteq \mathcal{L}_\alpha, \psi \in Cn_\alpha(X).$$

Note a subtle difference between \vdash_α and Cn_α : in $S \vdash_\alpha \phi$, S is treated as a *partial* description of a state X , while the argument X of Cn_α is taken as a *complete* description of \mathbf{a} 's state.

It is also important to note that agent consequence relations are not required to be *sound* with respect to classical logic. This is because some agents may make decisions on the basis of conditions that *normally* or *plausibly* hold; the consequence relation of such agents is in general not a subset of classical inferences. Moreover, drawing conclusions requires

resources; some agents may want to infer all valid conclusions from their state, while others may only draw inferences obtainable through a bounded number of inferences. This explains why agent consequence relations are not required to be *complete* w.r.t. classical inference (i.e. agent consequence relations may not include all classical inferences).

Example 4.3 *Returning to example 4.2 where `tank1`'s state can be viewed as a set of first-order formulas (the code call conditions which are true in the state). Then, `tank1` may be able to infer from these first-order formulas (some) logical consequences, using the standard inferences of first-order logic.*

5 Security of Abstract Agents

In this section, we show how we may build a notion of security on top of the abstract definition of agents given earlier.

- First, in Section 5.1 we will describe, for each agent \mathbf{a} , what data and actions it wishes to protect from another agent \mathbf{b} . When handling a service request, agent \mathbf{a} must ensure that such data is not disclosed to agent \mathbf{b} , and such actions are not executed on behalf of agent \mathbf{b} .
- In Section 5.2, we will define what it means for an agent to preserve security, with respect to the security specifications introduced in Section 5.1.
- Finally, in Section 5.3, *maximally cooperative histories* will be introduced. The underlying idea is that in many cases, we want security-preserving agent services to be as close as possible to the unrestricted (non-security-preserving) services, i.e. \mathbf{a} 's behavior should be distorted as little as possible when attempting to maintain security.

5.1 Security Specifications

In this section, we define what kinds of *data* an agent would like to protect from another agent, and also what kinds of *actions* an agent would like to avoid executing for other agents.

Definition 5.1 (Agent Secrets Function $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}$) *Suppose \mathbf{a} is an agent. $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}$ is a function which associates with any other agent $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{a}$, a set of ground code call atoms which \mathbf{a} would like to keep secret from \mathbf{b} .*

Intuitively, \mathbf{a} would like to prevent \mathbf{b} from *inferring* the ground code call atoms in $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$.

Example 5.1 *In the scenario of the tanks we assumed that the `track` agent is not allowed to know the tanks' locations. Thus, `tank1` agent should have an associated secrets function Sec_{tank1} such that all the facts $\text{in}(x, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(X_{\text{now}}))$ should be contained in $Sec_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track})$.*

The concept of an agent action security function describes what actions an agent may or may not perform for another agent.

Definition 5.2 (Agent Action Security Function $ASec_a$) An agent action security function associated with agent \mathbf{a} is a function $ASec_a$ that associates with any other agent $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{a}$, a set consisting of (i) outgoing request messages of the form $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}, \rho \rangle$ ($\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{b}$), and (ii) sequences of ground action names.

Roughly speaking, $ASec_a(\mathbf{b})$ contains a set of forbidden action sequences that \mathbf{a} does not want to execute upon \mathbf{b} 's requests. It also includes requests that \mathbf{a} is not willing to issue on behalf of \mathbf{b} .

Example 5.2 As mentioned in Section 2, the tracking agent may task the tanks to take appropriate repair actions, but has no authority to change their route, etc.

Thus, $ASec_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track})$ should contain (among other sequences) all the simple sequences $\langle \text{set_speed}(x) \rangle \dots \langle \text{move_to}(y) \rangle \dots$ etc.

In some cases, the set $ASec_a(\mathbf{b})$ may be closed under action equivalence. For example, suppose there exist two actions $\text{printf}(\mathbf{s})$ and $\text{fprintf}(\text{stdout}, \mathbf{s})$ that execute the C functions associated with these names. These two actions are equivalent, and hence if $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_9$ is a forbidden action sequence and $\alpha_2 = \text{printf}(\mathbf{s})$, then the action sequence $\alpha_1, \text{fprintf}(\text{stdout}, \mathbf{s}), \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_9$ should also be forbidden.

One may therefore wonder whether we should insist that if an action sequence is in $ASec_a(\mathbf{b})$, then every action sequence equivalent to it should also be in $ASec_a(\mathbf{b})$. Using the real world operation of computer systems as a guide, the answer seems to be “no.” To see why, consider simple email. A user may write on another user’s mailbox file only through certified e-mail programs. No sequence of individual `open`, `close`, `read` and `write` operations is admitted on another user’s mailbox, although some of these sequences update the mailbox exactly as the e-mail program would. Accordingly, $ASec_a(\mathbf{b})$ need not necessarily be closed under action equivalence.

5.2 Secure Histories

What does it mean for an agent to preserve security? A full answer to this question must deal both with the protection of agents’ *data*, and with restrictions on the *actions* that agents may execute in response to incoming requests.

Let us consider data protection first. Standard approaches require systems (be they agents, databases or other packages) to include no secrets in their answers. This is definitely a reasonable security requirement, that we call *surface security*.

Recall that $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ denotes the set of *all possible histories* for an agent \mathbf{a} (i.e. the possible behaviors of \mathbf{a}).

Definition 5.3 (Surface Security) A history $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ is surface secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} if for all messages $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$ in h_a ,

$$\text{Ans} \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b}) = \emptyset.$$

If all histories $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ are surface secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} then we say that agent \mathbf{a} is surface secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} .

Example 5.3 *In the scenario of the tanks, we assumed that the track agent is not allowed to know the tanks' locations. Thus, a history in which tank1 does not explicitly tell the track agent its location will be surface secure. However, the track agent may still deduce the location. For example, if it knows that tank1 has been moving at a constant speed d , along a given bearing b for the last 30 minutes, it can derive the current position of the tank from its location at time $t = \text{now} - 30$. Note, that in this example, the tank's position 30 minutes ago—although not a secret in itself—suffices to let the track agent infer a secret (the current position of the tank).*

In another example, the track agent may be able to deduce tank1's location from knowing that it is low in fuel.¹ In this example, the tank1's being low in fuel may lead to violating of a secret even though it is not a secret in itself.

Although this somewhat minimal form of security may be satisfactory against simple client agents, it doesn't guarantee data protection from smart agents because such agents can derive new information through their consequence relation; surface security does not verify that no secret be *derived* through the consequence relation.

A naive approach to this problem consists of stating that *an agent a is data secure if its client agents can never deduce any secret*. However, this definition does not take into account the fact that security breaches might be caused by some other agent $c \neq a$. The problem is that b might come to know some secret s because it was told this by c . Clearly, agent a has in no way caused security to be violated in this situation. Under the naive definition, a would not be data-secure simply because c disclosed s . This would happen even in the extreme case where a never answers incoming requests and maintains perfect silence !

This paradoxical situation can be avoided by adopting a more realistic notion of security. The underlying intuition is that agents are responsible only for their own answers. Roughly speaking, an agent can be said to be secure if its answers never *increase* the set of secrets known by other agents. With respect to the previous example, a should be regarded as data secure as long as b cannot derive new secrets using a 's answers. To state this formally, we need a couple of intermediate definitions.

Definition 5.4 (Compatible Histories $h_1 \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_2$) *Let a and b be agents. We say that two histories h_1 and h_2 are ab -compatible, denoted $h_1 \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_2$, if the subsequences of h_1 and h_2 obtained by removing all events but the messages of the form $\langle a, b, \dots \rangle$ and $\langle b, a, \dots \rangle$ coincide. Furthermore, if $h_1 \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_2$ and the last events of h_1 and h_2 coincide, then we write $h_1 \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_2$, and say that h_1, h_2 are strongly ab -compatible.*

Intuitively, histories h_1 and h_2 are ab -compatible iff the two histories are identical as far as messages between the agents a, b are concerned. Therefore, h_1 and h_2 might be a 's and b 's view (respectively) of the same global sequence of events. Note that h_1 and h_2 may differ on interactions involving agents other than a, b , but they are considered to be a, b compatible if they coincide on events involving a, b .

¹In real scenarios the track agent will need more information, e.g., the region where tank1 is located, to conclude tank1's location. However, we make this assumption to simplify the discussion.

Example 5.4 Consider the two histories h_1, h_2 given below.

$$\begin{aligned} h_1 &= \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}, \varrho_1 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}, \varrho_2 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{b}, \varrho_3 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{ans}_1 \rangle. \\ h_2 &= \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}, \varrho_1 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}, \varrho_4 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{b}, \varrho_3 \rangle, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{ans}_1 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that histories h_1, h_2 are **ab**-compatible and **bc**-compatible, but they are not **ac**-compatible. Furthermore, h_1 and h_2 are strongly **ab**-compatible and strongly **bc**-compatible, as the last events of these two histories are identical.

In addition to the notion of compatible histories, we need a concise notation for the set of secrets of **a** that can be violated (i.e. inferred) by **b** at some point in time, corresponding to history h_b . Recall that we use $\mathcal{O}_b(h_b)$ to denote **b**'s state at h_b , and that $Cn_b(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b))$ is the set of facts that can be derived by **b** from that state.

Definition 5.5 (Violated Secrets) $\text{Violated}_b^a(h_b) = Cn_b(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b)) \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$.

Example 5.5 In the scenario of the tanks we assumed that the track agent is not allowed to know the tanks' locations. A possible history h_{track} for the track agent may have the form $\langle \dots e_1, e_2, \dots \rangle$, where:

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \langle \text{track}, \text{tank1}, \text{fuel_level}() \rangle, \\ e_2 &= \langle \text{tank1}, \text{track}, \{\text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}}))\} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that after h_{track} , the track agent's state (with respect to tank1) only includes the fuel level of tank1, and suppose that the track agent cannot deduce anything new from this fact. Then, $\text{Violated}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(h_{\text{track}})$ is empty.

However, if from knowing that the fuel level of tank1 is low, the track agent can conclude that tank1 is in the support center, e.g., given that the location of the support center is (50, 20, 40) it may conclude that $\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(X_{\text{now}}))$ and if this is the actual location of tank1, then

$$\text{Violated}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(h_{\text{track}}) = \{\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(X_{\text{now}}))\}$$

We are now ready to formalize the important concept of data security, which says that for an agent to be data secure, it must guarantee that it will never increase the set of secrets violated by another agent.

Definition 5.6 (Data Security) A history $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ is data secure w.r.t. **b** if for all initial segments $h \cdot e$ of h_a such that e is an answer message $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$, and for all histories $h_b \cdot e \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$ such that $h_b \cdot e \xleftrightarrow{\mathbf{ab}} h \cdot e$,

$$\text{Violated}_b^a(h_b) \supseteq \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b \cdot e).$$

If all histories $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ are data secure w.r.t. **b** then we say that **a** is data secure w.r.t. **b**.

To understand this definition, recall that the conditions $h_b \cdot e \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$ and $h_b \cdot e \stackrel{ab}{\iff} h \cdot e$, state that $h_b \cdot e$ is a possible history for \mathbf{b} when \mathbf{a} 's answer reaches \mathbf{b} . The inclusion in Definition 5.6 says that the set of violated secrets (of \mathbf{b}) does not increase after receiving \mathbf{a} 's answer. By quantifying over all possible histories $h_b \cdot e$ with the aforementioned properties, we require data to be protected no matter what actions \mathbf{b} may take before getting the answer, possibly including sending requests to other agents and getting their answers.

Example 5.6 We return to the the scenario of Example 5.5 and consider the history $h_{\text{tank1}} = \langle \dots e_1, e_2, \dots \rangle$ where e_1 and e_2 are as in Example 5.5. Suppose further that all the histories in $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\text{track}}$ that includes e_1 and e_2 includes the additional event

$$e_0 = \langle \text{com} - c, \text{track}, \{\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}}))\} \rangle$$

which occurred before e_1 . Even though, as in the previous example, $\text{Violated}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(h_{\text{track}}) = \{\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}}))\}$, h_{tank1} is data secure. Intuitively, even though the track agent can conclude the location of tank1 from tank1's answer, since, this information has been originally revealed to the track agent by the $\text{com} - c$ agent and tank1's answer does not lead to the revelation of new secrets.

Interestingly enough, the above definition encompasses the case (corresponding to strict inclusion) in which \mathbf{a} convinces \mathbf{b} that some previously violated secret does not hold—although in practice this may be just as hard to do as it is desirable.

In general, the notions of surface security and data security are incomparable, in the sense that neither of them implies the other. For example, as we have already pointed out, surface security does not prevent client agents from inferring secrets, so surface security does not imply data security. Conversely, data security does not always entail surface security. For example, if \mathbf{a} sends \mathbf{b} secrets only when \mathbf{b} already knows them (a game well-known by double-crossers), then data security is enforced, while surface security is violated. However, as stated in the following theorem, in some cases, surface security entails data security.

Theorem 5.1 Suppose the consequence relation of \mathbf{b} , Cn_b , is the identity function, and suppose that for all histories $h_b \cdot e$ such that $e = \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$, the new state of \mathbf{b} is

$$\mathcal{O}_b(h_b \cdot e) =_{\text{def}} \mathcal{O}_b(h_b) \cup \text{Ans}.$$

Then, each surface secure history h_a for \mathbf{a} is data secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} .

Proof: Suppose not. Then for some prefix $h' \cdot e$ of some surface secure history h_a s.t. $e = \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$, for some history $h_b \cdot e \stackrel{ab}{\iff} h' \cdot e$ and for some secret $f \in \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$, we have

$$f \in \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b \cdot e) \setminus \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b).$$

Moreover, by definition of Violated_b^a and by the hypothesis on Cn_b ,

$$\text{ol}_b^a(h_b \cdot e) \setminus \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b) = (\mathcal{O}_b(h_b \cdot e) \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})) \setminus (\mathcal{O}_b^a(h_b) \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})).$$

From the other hypothesis, it follows that

$$(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b \cdot e) \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})) \setminus (\mathcal{O}_b^a(h_b) \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})) \subseteq \text{Ans} \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b}).$$

We conclude that $f \in \text{Ans} \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$. This implies that h_a is *not* surface secure; a contradiction. \blacksquare

Moreover, if we further assume that the client agent \mathbf{b} does not store any answer coming from agents other than \mathbf{a} , then surface security and data security coincide. The following is a formal statement of a particular instance of this fact, which will be needed in several proofs in the rest of the paper.

Proposition 5.2 (Data Security vs. Surface Security) *There exist multi-agent systems where surface security coincides with data security.*

Proof: Consider a simple multi-agent system consisting of two agents \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Let \mathbf{a} 's and \mathbf{b} 's possible histories have the form

$$h_n = \langle q_1, a_1, \dots, q_n, a_n \rangle,$$

where each q_i is a request message from \mathbf{b} to \mathbf{a} , and each a_i is \mathbf{a} 's answer to q_i , i.e. a message of the form $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans}_i \rangle$. Let $\mathcal{O}_b(\langle \rangle) =_{\text{def}} \emptyset$, and

$$\mathcal{O}_b(h_n) =_{\text{def}} \bigcup_{i=1}^n \text{Ans}_i.$$

Finally, let Cn_b be the identity function over \mathbf{b} 's states. Then $\text{Violated}_b^a(\langle \rangle) = \emptyset$, and

$$\begin{aligned} h_n \text{ is data secure} \\ \text{iff } \text{Violated}_b^a(\langle \rangle) \supseteq \text{Violated}_b^a(h_1) \supseteq \text{Violated}_b^a(h_2) \supseteq \dots \supseteq \text{Violated}_b^a(h_n) \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, $\text{Violated}_b^a(h_n) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \text{Ans}_i \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$, by definition of \mathcal{O}_b and Cn_b ; therefore

$$\mathbf{a} \text{ is data secure} \quad \text{iff} \quad \forall n > 0, \text{ Ans}_i \cap \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b}) = \emptyset.$$

But this is equivalent to saying that \mathbf{a} is data secure iff \mathbf{a} is surface secure. \blacksquare

The notion of data security above may be extended to the case of action security as shown below.

Definition 5.7 (Action Security) *Let $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ and let $\text{act}(h_a, \mathbf{b})$ be the subsequence of h_a consisting of all the actions $\langle \alpha, \mathbf{b} \rangle$ done for \mathbf{b} . We say that h_a is action secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} if $\text{act}(h_a, \mathbf{b})$ contains no sequence from $\text{ASec}_a(\mathbf{b})$.*

If all histories $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ are action secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} , then we say that \mathbf{a} is action secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} .

Example 5.7 *Suppose the track agent has no authority to change tank1's speed. In this case, the following possible history h_{tank1} for tank1 is not action secure w.r.t. track: $h_{\text{tank1}} \langle \dots e_1, e_2, \dots \rangle$, where:*

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \langle \text{track}, \text{tank1}, \text{set: speed}(\text{new_speed}) \rangle, \\ e_2 &= \langle \text{set_speed}(55\text{kmh}), \text{track} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

5.3 Degrees of Cooperation

There are many different ways in which an agent can make its services secure. One of these ways is to provide no information or to take no action at all, which is a very uncooperative mode of behavior. For example, when the `tank1` agent is asked its current speed by the `track` agent, it may choose to protect security by providing no answer at all, even though it is authorized to disclose this information to the `track` agent. Likewise, when the `com - c` agent is requested by the `tank1` agent to provide a safe route to a new location, the `com - c` agent may respond by merely sending one waypoint to the intended destination instead of a full route, even though it is authorized to disclose a full route. The right balance between security and cooperation depends on a number of application dependent factors.

Independently of exactly what these factors are, there is some notion of *nearness* or *degree of distortion* of an answer or a service. This will be modeled by a partial order on histories as defined below.

Definition 5.8 (More Cooperative History) *For any agent a , we use \leq_a^{coop} to denote a partial order on the set of all histories for a . Intuitively, $h \leq_a^{\text{coop}} h'$ means that h' is more cooperative than h .*

Example 5.8 *Consider the following two histories for our `tank1` agent. $h_{\text{tank1}} = \langle \dots e_1, e_2, \dots \rangle$, where:*

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \langle \text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, \text{status}() \rangle, \\ e_2 &= \langle \text{tank1}, \text{com} - \text{c}, \{ \text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})), \\ &\quad \text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})), \\ &\quad \text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})) \} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

and

$h'_{\text{tank1}} = \langle \dots e'_1, e'_2, \dots \rangle$, where:

$$\begin{aligned} e'_1 &= \langle \text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, \text{status}() \rangle \\ e'_2 &= \langle \text{tank1}, \text{com} - \text{c}, \{ \text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})) \} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

It seems that in the first history `tank1` is more cooperative by providing more information about its location. Thus, it may be desired to assert that: $h'_{\text{tank1}} \leq_{\text{tank1}}^{\text{coop}} h_{\text{tank1}}$.

6 Approximating Agent Security

In the preceding section, we have assumed that any agent b has an associated “true” history, “true” consequence relation, “true” state, etc. However, when an agent a wants to protect some of its data and/or services from agent b , it needs to know what agent b ’s “true” history, consequence relation and state are. In general, this is very difficult to accomplish. Hence, in this section, we introduce the notion of approximations that agent a may use about another agent b , and we define what it means for such an approximation to be correct w.r.t. the corresponding “true” notion. We show that under appropriate conditions, these

approximations guarantee that true data/action security will be preserved. Agent **a** does not need to model agent **b**'s history, consequence relation and state in order to maintain action security. Therefore, in this section we will discuss these approximations in the context of data security.

The organization of this section is as follows.

- First, we define what it means for agent **a** to approximate agent **b**'s history .
- Then, we describe how agent **a** approximates agent **b**'s language (after all, if agent **a** knows nothing about agent **b**'s language, then it cannot say much about agent **b**'s beliefs).
- Then, we show how these two notions allow us to define how agent **a** approximates agent **b**'s state, given its approximation of agent **b**'s history and language.
- We then introduce a notion of how agent **a** can approximate agent **b**'s inference mechanism/consequence relation so that it can infer an approximation of agent **b**'s beliefs.
- Based on these approximations, we show that to preserve security, agent **a** must *overestimate* what (it thinks) agent **b** will know after it responds to a given request, and it must *underestimate* what (it thinks) agent **b** knew before giving the answer.
- Though some of these approximations are space-consuming, we show that all approximations can be *compacted*, but such compactations diminish the level of cooperation agent **a** gives to agent **b**.

6.1 The Basic Idea

The intuition underlying approximate security checks is relatively simple: take the worst possible case and decide what to do on the basis of that worst-case scenario. In our definition of security, we wish to ensure that the set of violated secrets after agent **a** provides an answer is a subset of the set of violated secrets before **a** gives an answer. Thus, to be safe, we must *underestimate* the set of secrets violated by **b** prior to giving an answer, and *overestimate* the set of secrets violated by **b** after giving the answer. By underestimating the secrets violated by **b** prior to giving an answer, and overestimating the set of secrets violated by **b** after giving the answer, we are assuming (as we should in a worst case situation) that the answer causes a maximal set of secrets to be disclosed to the user. The following example illustrates this situation.

Example 6.1 Consider the scenario described in Example 5.5 in which the `com - c` agent may tell the `track` agent `tank1`'s location (event e_0), and then `tank1` may tell the `track` agent that it is low in fuel (event e_2), from which the `tack` can also infer `tank1`'s location.

Before event e_2 , underestimating the `track` agent's set of violated secrets will lead, for example, to not including `tank1`'s location in it. On the other hand, if `track` agent's set of violated secrets after e_2 is overestimated, it may include `tank1`'s location (inferred from the answer that `tank1` is low in fuel). These underestimation and overestimation will lead `tank1` to the conclusion that it cannot tell the `track` agent that it is low in fuel. This guarantees data security (but not maximal cooperativeness).

Summarizing, suppose \mathbf{a} wishes to protect its data from \mathbf{b} . Then, in order to perform approximate security checks, \mathbf{a} needs the following items:

- an estimate of \mathbf{b} ' possible states;
- an upper bound on the set of secrets that can be derived by \mathbf{b} using \mathbf{a} 's answer;
- a lower bound on the set of secrets that can be derived by \mathbf{b} (from the old state).

In turn, to approximate \mathbf{b} 's states, \mathbf{a} needs some approximation of \mathbf{b} 's fact language (i.e. of its data structures) and of its history (which influences the actual contents of \mathbf{b} 's state). All of these approximate notions are formalized in the succeeding sections.

6.2 Approximating Possible Histories

In this section, we specify what an approximate history is. In order to represent (approximately) \mathbf{b} 's history, \mathbf{a} (and its developers) need some language, modeled by the following set.

Definition 6.1 (Possible Histories Approximation) *The set of approximate history representations for \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} is a decidable set $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$.*

In this definition, the set $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ is deliberately generic; there can be many ways to represent \mathbf{b} 's histories, and the most appropriate approach will, in general, be application dependent. In particular, the members of $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ may be histories of some sort (as in the following example), or even constraints (as in Section 8) that constitute a partial description of \mathbf{b} 's histories. For instance, such constraints may state that \mathbf{b} 's history contains a message from \mathbf{c} at some point, and leave the rest of the history unspecified. The need for partial descriptions arises because \mathbf{a} will typically be unable to see all the messages exchanged between \mathbf{b} and other agents. Similarly, \mathbf{a} will be unable to observe all the actions executed by \mathbf{b} . An example of an approximate history is given below.

Example 6.2 *Agent tank1 may use its own history h_{tank1} as a partial description of the track agent's history h_{track} . In fact, the messages between tank1 and the track agent should be the same in h_{tank1} and h_{track} . Therefore, if $h_{\text{tank1}} = \langle \dots e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, \dots \rangle$, where*

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \langle \text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, \text{set: speed}(\text{new_speed}) \rangle, \\ e_2 &= \langle \text{set_speed}(55\text{kmh}), \text{com} - \text{c} \rangle, \\ e_3 &= \langle \text{track}, \text{tank1}, \text{fuel_level}() \rangle, \\ e_4 &= \langle \text{tank1}, \text{track}, \{\text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}}))\} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

then h_{track} can be any possible history of the form

$$h_1 \cdot \langle e_3, e_4, \rangle \cdot h_2, \tag{1}$$

where h_1 and h_2 contain no message from/to tank1 —that is, h_{track} can be any possible history which is tank1track-compatible with h_{tank1} (see Definition 5.4).

The correspondence between approximate and actual histories is application-dependent and, in general, non-trivial. This correspondence is formalized as follows.

Definition 6.2 (History Correspondence Relation \sim_h) For all agents \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , there is an associated correspondence relation $\sim_h \subseteq \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a \times \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$.

The subscript h will often be omitted to improve readability. Intuitively, if some history $h_b \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$ matches an approximate description $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a$, then we write $h \sim h_b$. In the above example, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a$ coincides with $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ (the set of all possible histories for \mathbf{a}), and \sim coincides with the compatibility relation \xleftrightarrow{ab} . Moreover, agent \mathbf{a} maintains an approximation of \mathbf{b} 's current history. This notion is formalized below.

Definition 6.3 (Approximate Current History $\text{AppH}_b(\cdot)$, correctness) Let $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ be the current history of \mathbf{a} . The approximation of \mathbf{b} 's current history at h , is an approximate history representation $\text{AppH}_b(h) \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a$.

We say that AppH_b is correct if for all $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$, and for all $h_b \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$ such that $h \xleftrightarrow{ab} h_b$ it is the case that $\text{AppH}_b(h) \sim h_b$.

Intuitively, an approximate current history is correct if it matches (at least) all possible histories for \mathbf{b} that are compatible with \mathbf{a} 's history. An example of a correct approximate history is given below.

Example 6.3 Suppose, as in Example 6.2, that `tank1` uses its own histories as a partial description of `track`'s possible histories. That is, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ includes the projection of the histories in $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\text{tank1}}$ on the interactions with agent `track`. In addition, \sim coincides with the compatibility relation $\xleftrightarrow{\text{tank1 track}}$, and for $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\text{tank1}}$, $\text{AppH}_{\text{track}}(h)$ is the projection of h to the interactions with `track`. Then, $\text{AppH}_{\text{track}}$ is correct.

6.3 Approximating Languages

The first difficulty in approximating \mathbf{b} 's state is that \mathbf{a} may have imprecise knowledge of \mathbf{b} 's fact language (i.e. of the data structures and function calls used by \mathbf{b}). \mathbf{a} is forced to use some ground code calls, and hope that these code calls mimic the operations that \mathbf{b} actually has in its repertoire.²

Definition 6.4 (Approximate Fact Language $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$) The approximate fact language of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} is a denumerable set $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$.

The relationship between the approximate fact language used by \mathbf{a} and the actual fact language used by \mathbf{b} is formalized by the following *fact correspondence relation*, that relates approximate facts to the actual data structures of \mathbf{b} that match the approximate description.

Definition 6.5 (Fact Correspondence Relation \sim_f) For all agents \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , there is an associated fact correspondence relation $\sim_f \subseteq \text{App}\mathcal{L}_b \times \mathcal{L}_b$.

²In the following definitions, when the approximating agent, \mathbf{a} , is clear from the context, we will omit it from the notation. For example, we will write $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$ instead of $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b^a$.

We drop the subscript \mathbf{f} whenever the context allows us to distinguish $\rightsquigarrow_{\mathbf{h}}$ from $\rightsquigarrow_{\mathbf{f}}$

Intuitively, we write $f \rightsquigarrow f_{\mathbf{b}}$ if $f_{\mathbf{b}}$ is one of the possible instantiated data structures for \mathbf{b} that match the approximate description f used by \mathbf{a} .

Some approximate facts f may have no counterpart in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ (e.g. \mathbf{a} may think that \mathbf{b} can use a code call $\mathbf{p}:g()$ when in fact this is not the case). In such cases, we write:

$$f \not\rightsquigarrow \text{ if, by definition, } \nexists f'. f \rightsquigarrow f'.$$

Analogously, some facts of $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ may have no approximate counterpart (e.g. when \mathbf{a} does not know that \mathbf{b} may use some code call $\mathbf{p}:h()$). In this case we write:

$$\not\rightsquigarrow f \text{ if, by definition, } \nexists f'. f' \rightsquigarrow f.$$

Ground code call conditions are approximated by sets of approximate facts. Approximate conditions are matched against sets of facts from $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ by means of a correspondence relation derived from the correspondence relation for individual facts, $\rightsquigarrow_{\mathbf{f}}$.

Definition 6.6 (Approximate Conditions) *An approximate condition is a set $C \subseteq \text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$.*

Definition 6.7 (Condition Correspondence Relation) *We say that an approximate condition $C \subseteq \text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ corresponds to a set of facts $C_{\mathbf{b}} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$, denoted $C \rightsquigarrow_{\mathbf{c}} C_{\mathbf{b}}$, if both the following conditions hold:*

1. if $f \in C$ then either $f \not\rightsquigarrow$ or $\exists f_{\mathbf{b}} \in C_{\mathbf{b}}. f \rightsquigarrow f_{\mathbf{b}}$.
2. if $f_{\mathbf{b}} \in C_{\mathbf{b}}$ then either $\not\rightsquigarrow f_{\mathbf{b}}$ or $\exists f \in C. f \rightsquigarrow f_{\mathbf{b}}$.

The first requirement above says that all elements, f , of the approximate condition must correspond to some fact $f_{\mathbf{b}}$ in the actual state unless f has no counterpart in the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ (in which case, f is ignored). Similarly, the second requirement says that each member of $C_{\mathbf{b}}$ must have a counterpart in C , with the exception of those facts $f_{\mathbf{b}}$ that are not expressible in the approximate language $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$. The following example describes how states are approximated in the Tank example.

Example 6.4 *Suppose the code calls in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{track}}$ include:*

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}()), & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{F}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}()), \\ & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{D}, \text{track} : \text{distance}(\mathbf{A1}, \mathbf{A2})), \\ & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{Y}, \text{track} : \text{repair_needed}(\mathbf{A})). \end{aligned}$$

Agent tank1 may think that the functions `location` and `fuel_level` used by `track` have one argument, e.g., \mathbf{T} . It may not know that $\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{D}, \text{track} : \text{distance}(\mathbf{A1}, \mathbf{A2}))$ is used by the `track` agent and may think that it uses `status(A)` instead of `repair_needed(A)`. In addition, `track` may think that the `track` also uses $\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{R}, \text{track} : \text{region}(\mathbf{T}))$. Thus, $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ may include:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{T})), & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T})), \\ & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{Z}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\mathbf{T})), \\ & \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{Y}, \text{track} : \text{status}(\mathbf{A})). \end{aligned}$$

where, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{in}(Y, \text{track}: \text{status}(A)) &\sim_f \mathbf{in}(Y, \text{track}: \text{repair_needed}(A)), \\ \mathbf{in}(Z, \text{region}: T()) &\not\sim_f \\ &\not\sim_f \mathbf{in}(D, \text{track}: \text{distance}(A1, A2)). \end{aligned}$$

For example, if the condition $\{\mathbf{in}(\text{true}, \text{track}: \text{repair_needed}(\text{tank1})), \mathbf{in}(\text{north_east}, \text{tank1}: \text{region}(X_{\text{now}}))\}$ is in tank1 's approximation, it may correspond to $\{\mathbf{in}(\text{need_repair}, \text{track}: \text{status}(\text{tank1})), \mathbf{in}(5, \text{track}: \text{distance}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}))\}$.

6.4 Approximating States

The approximation of a state \mathcal{O}_b should tell us the following things:

- which facts are *surely true* in \mathcal{O}_b ; this is needed by \mathbf{a} to underestimate the inferences of \mathbf{b} (inferences can be part of a correct underestimation only if they follow from conditions that are guaranteed to be true in \mathcal{O}_b);
- which facts *may possibly be true* in \mathcal{O}_b ; this is needed by \mathbf{a} to overestimate the inferences of \mathbf{b} (inferences that depend on facts that *might* be in \mathcal{O}_b should be considered by the overestimation);
- which facts are *new*; this is needed to identify the inferences that really depend on the last answer; intuitively, a new secret is violated only when it is derived from some new fact.

Accordingly, approximate states are described using three sets of approximate conditions.

Definition 6.8 (Approximate States $App\mathcal{O}_b = \langle Nec, Poss, New \rangle$) An approximate state of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} is a triple $App\mathcal{O}_b = \langle Nec, Poss, New \rangle$, whose elements are sets of approximate conditions (i.e. $App\mathcal{O}_b \in \wp(App\mathcal{L}_b) \times \wp(App\mathcal{L}_b) \times \wp(App\mathcal{L}_b)$). The three elements of an approximate state $App\mathcal{O}_b$ will be denoted by $App\mathcal{O}_b.Nec$, $App\mathcal{O}_b.Poss$, and $App\mathcal{O}_b.New$, respectively. $App\mathcal{O}_b$ is required to satisfy the following inclusions:

1. $App\mathcal{O}_b.Nec \subseteq App\mathcal{O}_b.Poss$;
2. $App\mathcal{O}_b.New \subseteq App\mathcal{O}_b.Poss$.

The first inclusion says that a condition C cannot be necessarily true if it is not possibly true. The second inclusion says that all new facts must be possible.

Agent \mathbf{a} maintains an approximation of \mathbf{b} 's current state. This is formalized via the following definition.

Definition 6.9 (Approximate State Function $App\mathcal{O}_b$, correctness) The approximate state function $App\mathcal{O}_b$ is a mapping which maps approximate histories from $pos\mathcal{H}_b^a$ onto approximate states of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} . We say that $App\mathcal{O}_b$ is correct if for all approximate histories $h \in pos\mathcal{H}_b^a$, the following conditions hold:

1. if $C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h).\text{Nec}$, then for all $h_{\mathbf{b}}$ such that $h \rightsquigarrow h_{\mathbf{b}}$ there exists $C_{\mathbf{b}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}})$ such that $C \rightsquigarrow C_{\mathbf{b}}$;
2. for all $C_{\mathbf{b}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}})$ such that $h \rightsquigarrow h_{\mathbf{b}}$, if $C \rightsquigarrow C_{\mathbf{b}}$ then $C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h).\text{Poss}$;
3. for all possible non-empty histories $h_{\mathbf{b}} \cdot e \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}$ such that $h \rightsquigarrow h_{\mathbf{b}} \cdot e$, and for all $C_{\mathbf{b}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}} \cdot e)$ such that $C_{\mathbf{b}} \not\subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}})$, if $C \rightsquigarrow C_{\mathbf{b}}$ then $C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h).\text{New}$.

Intuitively, the above correctness conditions state that: (i) each condition C in *Nec* should correspond to some condition $C_{\mathbf{b}}$ which is actually true in the current state of \mathbf{b} , *whatever it may be* (note the universal quantification over $h_{\mathbf{b}}$); thus, in case of doubt, in order to achieve correctness it is better to underestimate *Nec*; (ii) the approximations C of each set of facts $C_{\mathbf{b}}$ that might be part of \mathbf{b} 's current state should be included in *Poss* (in case of doubt, it is better to overestimate *Poss* to achieve correctness); (iii) if a set of facts is new in \mathbf{b} 's current state (because $C_{\mathbf{b}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}} \cdot e)$ and $C_{\mathbf{b}} \not\subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{b}})$), then its counterparts C should be included in *New* (that should be overestimated in case of doubt). An example of an approximate state function that is correct is shown below.

Example 6.5 Consider the scenario depicted in Example 6.4. Suppose the approximate language $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\text{track}}$ contains only the code calls $\text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))$, $\text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))$ and $\text{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())$ where P is tank1 's current position at time T and S is the list of tank1 's soldiers. Suppose h_{tank1} is a history of tank1 in which it didn't send any answers to the track agent. Consider the scenario in which the track agent didn't receive any answers from other agents (including tank1) and tank1 also believes it. That is, in $\text{App}\mathcal{H}_{\text{track}}(h_{\text{tank1}}) = h$ there is no answers sent to the track agent from tank1 , In this case one should set:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h).\text{Nec} &= \emptyset, \\
\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h).\text{Poss} &= \{ \{ \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})) \}, \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()) \}, \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T})) \}' \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})), \text{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()) \} \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T})), \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})) \}, \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T})), \text{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()) \} \\
&\quad \{ \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})), \text{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), \\
&\quad \quad \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T})) \}, \\
&\quad \}.
\end{aligned}$$

In other words, nothing is necessary, everything is possible. If tank1 sent the track agent an answer message $e = \langle \text{tank1}, \text{track}, \{ \text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{X}_{\text{now}})) \} \rangle$, then one might

set:

$$\begin{aligned}
App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e).Nec &= \{\{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}}))\}\}, \\
App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e).Poss &= App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h).Poss \\
App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e).New &= \{\{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}, \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \mathbf{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))\}, \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}, \\
&\quad \mathbf{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))\}\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Note that in this example $\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}}))$ becomes necessarily true (in some other cases, track might disbelieve tank1, and $App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e).Nec$ would remain empty). The set of possible new conditions that become true due to e is set to all the sets of facts that contain the answer $\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}}))$. Only secrets that are revealed from new facts are due to security violation of tank1.

Consider a third variation of this scenario where the $\text{com} - \text{c}$ agent has told the track agent the list of soldiers of tank1 and suppose that tank1 believes that this happened (as approximated by h') and that the track agent does not forget such lists. Assume further, that $e' = \langle \text{tank1}, \text{track}, \mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()) \rangle$. In this case

$$\begin{aligned}
App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h').Nec &= \{\{\mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}\}, \\
App\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h' \cdot e').New &= \{\{\mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}, \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}, \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), \mathbf{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))\} \\
&\quad \{\mathbf{in}(\text{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), \mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(X_{\text{now}})), \\
&\quad \quad \mathbf{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))\} \\
&\quad \}.
\end{aligned}$$

6.5 Approximate Secrets

In the framework of exact security checks, when agent \mathbf{a} describes the set of secrets $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$ it wishes to prevent \mathbf{b} from inferring, the members of $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$ are drawn from $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$. As this language itself may only be partially known to agent \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{a} must use some approximation of its secrets function.

Definition 6.10 (Approximate Secrets $AppSec(\mathbf{b})$) *The set of approximate secrets of agent \mathbf{a} w.r.t. agent \mathbf{b} , denoted by $AppSec(\mathbf{b})$, is some subset of $App\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$.*

Clearly, the fact correspondence relation \sim_f applies to approximate secrets. If $f \in AppSec(\mathbf{b})$ approximates $f' \in Sec_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$, then we write $f \sim f'$. What it means for a set of approximate secrets to be correct is defined below.

Definition 6.11 (Approximate Secrets, Correctness) *The set $AppSec(\mathbf{b})$ is correct w.r.t. $Sec_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$ if it satisfies the following conditions:*

1. for all $f_b \in \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$ there exists $f \in \text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b})$ such that $f \rightsquigarrow f_b$;
2. if $f \rightsquigarrow f_b$ and $f_b \in \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$, then $f \in \text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b})$.

Condition 1 says that each secret should be expressible in the approximate language $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$ (otherwise, some violation might go unnoticed). Condition (2) above states the conservative principle that if a fact f may correspond to a secret, then it should be treated like a secret. We now revisit the Tank Example and illustrate the definition of a correct set of approximate secrets.

6.6 Approximate Consequences

In this section, we define what it means for an agent \mathbf{a} to correctly approximate agent \mathbf{b} 's consequence relation.

Definition 6.12 (Approximate Consequence Relation) *An approximate consequence relation of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} is a mapping $\text{AppCn}_b : \wp(\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b) \rightarrow \wp(\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b)$.*

Recall that when providing an answer to agent \mathbf{b} , agent \mathbf{a} should underestimate what is known to \mathbf{b} prior to providing the answer, and should overestimate what is known to \mathbf{b} after providing the answer. This may be done by using approximate consequence functions that underestimate and overestimate \mathbf{b} 's actual consequence function.

Definition 6.13 (Correct Underestimate) *An approximate consequence relation UCn_b is a correct underestimate of Cn_b if, for all abstract conditions C and abstract facts f , if $f \in \text{UCn}_b(C)$ then for all C_b and f_b such that $C \rightsquigarrow C_b$ and $f \rightsquigarrow f_b$, it holds that $C_b \vdash_b f_b$.*

In other words, UCn_b is a correct underestimate of Cn_b if what can be inferred using UCn_b is also derivable using \vdash_b (and hence Cn_b). Here we use \vdash_b instead of Cn_b because C_b is only a *partial* description of the contents of \mathbf{b} 's state (cf. the discussion in Section 4.3).

The following example provides a correct underestimate in the case of the Tank example.

Example 6.6 *Consider the tank example. The identity function is a correct underestimate of the track agent's consequence relation. That is, $\forall C \subseteq \text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\text{track}}, \text{UCn}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(C) = C$*

Before proceeding to the definition of correct overestimates, we need a definition that intuitively captures the *causal dependencies* between a set C_b of facts and the facts f_b that can be derived from C_b . This is needed to focus on the secrets that are violated *because of* \mathbf{a} 's answer as demonstrated in the following example.

Example 6.7 *Consider the scenario of Example 6.5 and suppose that tank1 would like to protect its soldiers' list from the track agent. It is clear that giving the answer on its fuel level, as in event e , has nothing to do with the soldiers list. However, the set*

$$\{\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}})), \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}$$

that is in $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e)$. New does entail $\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())$, i.e., the secret. Including the answer $\mathbf{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{now}}))$ in every set of New does not help. For this, we will need the notion of "causality."

The mapping Cn_b is not completely adequate for defining and overestimating the consequence relation because in general, when $f_b \in Cn_b(C_b)$, C_b may contain facts that are not relevant to the proof of f_b . Rather, we should say that f_b is caused by the presence of C_b when $f_b \in Cn_b(C_b)$ and C_b is *minimal*, i.e. if we dropped even one fact from C_b , then f_b would not be derivable anymore.

Definition 6.14 (Causal Dependencies) *We say that C_b causes f_b , denoted $\text{Causes}(C_b, f_b)$, if $C_b \vdash_b f_b$ and for all $C \subset C_b$, $C \not\vdash_b f_b$.*

We are now ready to give a formal definition of correct overestimates. From the standpoint of security, it is not necessary that a correct overestimate of b 's consequence relation contain all inferences that b can draw. Rather, we only require that the overestimate include all possible secrets that b may infer. This is captured by the following definition.

Definition 6.15 (Correct Overestimate) *An approximate consequence relation OCn_b is a correct overestimate of Cn_b if for all C_b and f_b such that C_b causes f_b and $f_b \in \text{Sec}_a(b)$, there exist C, f such that $C \rightsquigarrow C_b$ and $f \rightsquigarrow f_b$ such that $f \in OCn_b(C)$.*

The following example shows a simple correct overestimate in the context of the Tank Example.

Example 6.8 *We return to Example 6.5 and assume that the `track` agent can infer `tank1`'s location from its being low in fuel, and otherwise has the identity consequence relation.*

If the only consequences that `tank1` includes in its overestimation of `track`'s consequence relation are the following, then it is a correct overestimation.

$$\begin{aligned} OCn_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(\{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}) &= \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}, \\ OCn_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(\{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{T}))\}) &= \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{T}))\}, \\ OCn_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(\{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T}))\}) &= \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{T})), \\ &\quad \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T}))\}. \end{aligned}$$

However, for example,

$$\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()) \notin OCn_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(\{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}()), \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T}))\}).$$

6.7 Approximate Data Security Check

In this section, we have defined what it means for an approximate history to be correct, an approximate consequence relation to be a correct under/over estimate of another agent's consequence relation, etc. In short, agent a approximates b 's behavior via the functions $AppH_b$, $AppO_b$, OCn_b and UCn_b . The secrets in $\text{Sec}_a(b)$ are approximated by $AppSec(b)$. Together, these functions constitute a 's approximate view of b .

Definition 6.16 (Agent Approximation, correctness) *The approximation of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} (based on the approximate languages $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$, and on the correspondence functions $\sim_{\mathbf{h}}$ and $\sim_{\mathbf{f}}$) is a quintuple*

$$\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b}) = \langle \text{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}, \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}, \text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b}), \text{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}, \text{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}} \rangle,$$

whose members are, respectively, a current history approximation, a current state approximation, a set of approximate secrets and two approximate consequence relations.

We say that $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ is correct if $\text{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}$, $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}$ and $\text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b})$ are correct, $\text{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}$ is a correct overestimate of $\text{Cn}_{\mathbf{b}}$, and $\text{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}}$ is a correct underestimate of $\text{Cn}_{\mathbf{b}}$.

This definition builds upon definitions of what it means for the individual components of $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ to be correct—something we have defined in preceding sections of this paper.

Using these concepts, we wish to specify what it means for a history to be approximately data secure. If we can compute an overestimate of the set of secrets violated by agent \mathbf{b} *after* agent \mathbf{a} provides an answer to its request, and we compute an underestimate of the set of secrets violated by agent \mathbf{b} *before* agent \mathbf{a} provides an answer, and if we can show that the latter is a superset of the former, then we would be able to safely guarantee data security. We first define these over/under estimates below, and then use those definitions to define what it means for a history to be approximately data secure.

Definition 6.17 (Overestimate of Violated Secrets) *For all approximate histories $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ let*

$$\text{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(h) =_{\text{def}} \bigcup \{ \text{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}(C) \mid C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h).\text{New} \} \cap \text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b}).$$

Informally, $\text{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(h)$ is the overestimated set of secrets that can be derived because of some new facts (the reason why only the consequences of new facts are considered is illustrated earlier via Example 6.7.)

Definition 6.18 (Underestimate of Violated Secrets) *For all approximate histories $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$, let*

$$\text{UViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(h) =_{\text{def}} \bigcup \{ \text{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}}(C) \mid C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{b}}(h).\text{Nec} \} \cap \text{AppSec}(\mathbf{b}).$$

In other words, $\text{UViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(h)$ is the underestimated set of secrets that can be derived from facts which are estimated to be necessarily true. The following example illustrates the notions of over/underestimates of violated secrets.

Example 6.9 *We return to Example 6.5 and assume that $\text{UCn}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ is the identity function and $\text{OCn}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ is as defined in Example 6.8 and that tank1 would like to protect its current location and its soldiers list.*

Consider the second scenario of Example 6.5 where there is no interaction between the track agent and the other agents in h . As $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h).\text{Nec}$ is empty, $\text{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h)$ is also empty. However, $\text{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e) = \{\mathbf{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{now}}))\}$ because one of the sets in New causes it and it is a secret.

In the third scenario of Example 6.5, $\text{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h') = \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}$ and in addition, $\text{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h' \cdot e') = \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}$.

We may now define the approximate counterpart of data security .

Definition 6.19 (Approximate Data Security) *A history $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ if for all initial segments $h' \cdot e$ of h_a such that e is an answer message $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$,*

$$\text{UViol}_b(\text{App}H_b(h')) \supseteq \text{OViol}_b(\text{App}H_b(h' \cdot e)).$$

If all histories $h_a \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_a$ are approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$, then we say that \mathbf{a} is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$.

We reiterate that we are comparing an overestimate of the secrets violated by \mathbf{b} due to \mathbf{a} 's answer e (right-hand side of the above inclusion), with an underestimate of the secrets violated by \mathbf{b} before the answer (left-hand side of the inclusion). The following example shows an approximately data secure history.

Example 6.10 *In the second scenario specified in Examples 6.5 and 6.9, it is clear that $h_{\text{tank1}} \cdot e$ is not approximately data secure w.r.t the approximations we described in the previous examples as $\text{App}H_{\text{track}}(h_{\text{tank1}}) = h$, $\text{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h)$ is empty and when e is the event in which `tank1` tells the `track` agent that it is low in fuel,*

$$\text{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e) = \{\text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(X_{\text{now}}))\}.$$

Thus, $\text{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h) \not\supseteq \text{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h \cdot e)$.

However, when $\text{App}H_{\text{track}}(h_{\text{tank1}}) = h'$ in which the `track` agent received the soldiers list from `com - c`, and e' is the event in which `tank1` gives the `track` agent its soldiers list, then $h_{\text{tank1}} \cdot e'$ is approximately data secure, while $h_{\text{tank1}} \cdot e$ is not.

The approximate data security check works well if the approximation $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ is *correct*. The theorem below shows that, under this assumption, the approximate security check correctly enforces the “true” notion of data security. As a consequence, if the designer of agent \mathbf{a} can ensure that the approximation of agent \mathbf{b} is correct, then “true” data security is guaranteed by the approximation, even though the agent \mathbf{a} doesn't precisely know the history, state, consequence relation, etc. used by agent \mathbf{b} .

Theorem 6.1 (Correct Approximate Data Security Implies Data Security) *If h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ and $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ is correct, then h_a is data secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} .*

Proof: We prove the contrapositive, which is equivalent. Suppose h_a is *not* data secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} . Then, for some prefix $h' \cdot e$ of h_a , where $e = \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$, and for some history $h_b \cdot e \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b$, it holds that $h_b \cdot e \xleftrightarrow{\text{ab}} h' \cdot e$ and

$$\text{Violated}_b^a(h_b) \not\supseteq \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b \cdot e).$$

Consequently, there exists $f_0 \in \text{Sec}_a(\mathbf{b})$ such that

$$(a) \quad f_0 \in \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b \cdot e) \text{ and}$$

(b) $f_0 \notin \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b)$.

Claim 1: there exists f_1 such that $f_1 \rightsquigarrow f_0$ and $f_1 \in \text{OViol}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h' \cdot e))$.

This claim can be proved via the following steps:

- (c) $f_0 \in \text{Cn}_b(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b \cdot e))$ (by (a) and the def. of OViol_b);
- (d) $\exists C_0$ such that $C_0 \subseteq \mathcal{O}_b(h_b \cdot e)$ and $\text{Causes}(C_0, f_0)$;
- (e) $\exists f_1, C_1$ such that $f_1 \rightsquigarrow f_0$, $C_1 \rightsquigarrow C_0$ and $f_1 \in \text{OCn}_b(C_1)$ (by (d) and correctness of OCn_b);
- (f) $C_0 \not\subseteq \mathcal{O}_b(h_b)$ (otherwise $f_0 \in \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b)$, contradicting (b));
- (g) $C_1 \in \text{AppO}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h' \cdot e)).\text{New}$ (by (d), (e), (f) and the correctness of AppO_b and AppH_b);
- (h) $f_1 \in \text{AppSec}(b)$ ($f_1 \rightsquigarrow f_0$ + correctness of $\text{AppSec}(b)$);
- (i) $f_1 \in \text{OViol}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h' \cdot e))$.

Claim 1 immediately follows.

Claim 2: $f_1 \notin \text{UViol}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h'))$.

Suppose $f_1 \in \text{UViol}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h'))$. We derive the following steps:

- (j) $\exists C_2 \in \text{AppO}_b(\text{AppH}_b(h')).\text{Nec}$ such that $f_1 \in \text{UCn}_b(C_2)$ (by def. of UViol_b);
- (k) $\forall f_b$ such that $f_1 \rightsquigarrow f_b$, $f_b \in \text{Cn}_b(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b))$ (by (j) and correctness of UCn_b and AppO_b);
- (l) $f_0 \in \text{Cn}_b(\mathcal{O}_b(h_b))$ (from (k), since $f_1 \rightsquigarrow f_0$);
- (m) $f_0 \in \text{Violated}_b^a(h_b)$ (from (l), since f_0 is a secret).

But (m) contradicts (b), so Claim 2 holds. From the above claims it follows immediately that h_a is not approximately data secure. This completes the proof. ■

6.8 Compact Approximations

In many applications (especially those where security checks are performed at runtime), the overhead caused by maintaining two approximate states for each client agent and computing two approximations of its consequence relation is unacceptable. Hence, we introduce a *compact* version of the approximate security check, where only the state after the answer and the overestimate of b 's consequences need to be computed.

This has two advantages: first, the space needed to store the underestimate of b 's consequences is saved, and second, the time needed to compute the underestimate of b 's consequences as well as the time required to check if the secrets in the overestimate of b 's consequences after the answer is a subset of the underestimate before the answer is saved. However, there is a price to pay, namely a decrease in the cooperativeness of the answer provided by agent a .

Definition 6.20 (Compact Approximation) An approximation $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b}) = \langle \mathit{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{App}O_{\mathbf{b}},$

$\mathit{App}Sec(\mathbf{b}), \mathit{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}} \rangle$ based on the languages $\mathit{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\mathit{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$ is compact if the following two conditions hold:

1. for all approximate histories $h \in \mathit{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}, \mathit{App}O_{\mathbf{b}}(h).Nec = \emptyset$;
2. for all $C \subseteq \mathit{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}}(C) = \emptyset$.

The following example shows a compact approximation of an agent \mathbf{b} .

Example 6.11 We return to Example 6.5. Suppose $\mathit{tank1}$ believes that it is possible that the track agent didn't know anything that can be expressed by $\mathit{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathit{track}}^{\mathit{tank1}}$ when it was deployed and that the track agent does not believe anything it is told. Furthermore, it cannot infer anything from facts in $\mathit{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathit{track}}^{\mathit{tank1}}$. In such a case, to underestimate the states and the consequence relations of the track agent, it uses the following: (1) for all $h \in \mathit{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathit{track}}^{\mathit{tank1}}, \mathit{App}O_{\mathit{track}}(h).Nec = \emptyset$; (2) for all $C \subseteq \mathit{App}\mathcal{L}_{\mathit{track}}^{\mathit{tank1}}, \mathit{UCn}_{\mathit{track}}^{\mathit{tank1}}(C) = \emptyset$.

Note that $\mathit{tank1}$'s belief may be wrong and $\mathit{tank1}$ may know that there is a possibility that track knows more. As this possibility exists, for $\mathit{tank1}$'s approximation to be correct, it must be as described above.

Note that in compact approximations, the underestimate of violated secrets prior to providing an answer is taken to be the empty set, and hence, the inclusion of Def. 6.19 is equivalent to:

$$\mathit{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathit{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}(h' \cdot e)) = \emptyset.$$

As expected, this security condition depends only on one approximation of \mathbf{b} 's inferences, and only on the approximation of \mathbf{b} 's state *after* \mathbf{a} 's answer e .

The above equation immediately implies that compact approximations strengthen the notion of data security by requiring that no secret be derivable using \mathbf{a} 's answer. At first glance, this approach may appear similar to the naive security definition that requires \mathbf{b} to derive no secret, no matter where it comes from (see Section 5.2). However, the paradoxical situation in which \mathbf{a} 's behavior is labeled non-secure because some other agent \mathbf{c} has disclosed a secret is avoided by compact approximations. In fact, as $\mathit{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}$ only approximates only the inferences that are *caused* by \mathbf{a} 's answer, the secrets revealed by another agent, e.g. \mathbf{c} , would not be included in $\mathit{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}$. The definition of correct overestimate (based on *Causes*) and the use of the field *New* in the definition of $\mathit{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}$ play a fundamental role in preserving this important property.

A nice property of compact approximations is that *every* correct approximation can be turned into a compact approximation which is correct ! This is done via the following “compaction” operation.

Definition 6.21 (Compact Version) The compact version of $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b}) = \langle \mathit{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{App}O_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{App}Sec(\mathbf{b}), \mathit{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}, \mathit{UCn}_{\mathbf{b}} \rangle$ is the compact approximation

$$\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})) = \langle \mathit{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}, \widehat{\mathit{App}O_{\mathbf{b}}}, \mathit{App}Sec(\mathbf{b}), \mathit{OCn}_{\mathbf{b}}, (\lambda X.\emptyset) \rangle$$

where $\lambda X.\emptyset$ is the constant function that always returns \emptyset , and for all $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_b^a$,

$$\widehat{\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b}(h) =_{\text{def}} \langle \emptyset, \text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(h).\text{Poss}, \text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(h).\text{New} \rangle.$$

The following result verifies that the compaction operator **Compact** preserves correctness.

Theorem 6.2 (Correctness Preservation) *If $\mathbf{App}(b)$ is correct, then $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(b))$ is correct.*

Proof: By definition, $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}_a(b))$ is correct if each of its components are correct. The correctness of $\text{App}H_b$, $\text{App}Sec(b)$ and OCn_b follows directly from the assumption that $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$ is correct, since these components are shared by $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}_a(b))$ and $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$. The function $\lambda X.\emptyset$ satisfies trivially the correctness condition for underestimated consequence relations. Finally, the correctness of $\widehat{\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b}$ depends on conditions 1-3 of Definition 6.9. Clearly, condition 1 is satisfied because $\widehat{\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b}(h).\text{Nec} = \emptyset$ (by definition of **Compact**). Conditions 2 and 3 are satisfied because $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$ is correct. This completes the proof. \blacksquare

Replacing $\mathbf{App}(b)$ by $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(b))$ may significantly improve performance. The price to be paid for this is a potential loss of cooperation. The following theorem says that whenever an agent a is approximately data secure w.r.t. a compact approximation of an agent b , then it is also approximately data secure w.r.t. the (perhaps uncompact) approximation of b .

Theorem 6.3 (Compact Approx. Security Implies Approx. Security) *If h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(b))$, then h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(b)$.*

Proof: Suppose h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}_a(b))$ and let $h' \cdot e$ be an arbitrary prefix of h_a such that $e = \langle a, b, \text{Ans} \rangle$. Then, from the definition of data secure histories and compact histories it follows that:

$$\text{OViol}_b(\text{App}H_b(h' \cdot e)) = \emptyset,$$

where OViol_b is defined w.r.t. $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}_a(b))$. Note also that $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$ yields the same overestimation OViol_b as $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}_a(b))$, because the components on which OViol_b is based are the same in the two approximations. It follows that also under $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$

$$\text{UViol}_b(\text{App}H_b(h')) \supseteq \text{OViol}_b(\text{App}H_b(h' \cdot e)) = \emptyset.$$

The above inclusion holds for arbitrary prefixes of h_a ; this implies that h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}_a(b)$. \blacksquare

As a consequence of this theorem, we know that to check whether a history h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(b)$, it is sufficient to check whether h_a is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(b))$.

Corollary 6.4 *For each history h_a which is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(b))$, there exists a history h'_a which is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}(b)$ and $h \leq_a^{\text{coop}} h'$.*

The converse of Theorem 6.3 (and Corollary 6.4) does not hold, in general, and therefore choosing to use $\mathbf{Compact}(\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b}))$ in place of $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ may lead to a decrease in cooperation. This is demonstrated via the following example.

Example 6.12 Consider the scenarios and approximations specified in examples 6.10, 6.9, 6.7 and 6.5. As discussed in Example 6.10 in the scenario in which the `track` agent received the soldier list from `com - c`, and e' is the event in which `tank1` gives the `track` agent its soldier list, $h_{\text{tank1}} \cdot e'$ is approximately data secure as

$$\mathbf{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h') = \mathbf{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h' \cdot e') = \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}.$$

However, suppose we consider the compact version of the approximation described in Example 6.10. That is, the approximation described in Example 6.11 where: (1) for all $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$, $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_{\text{track}}(h).\text{Nec} = \emptyset$; (2) for all $C \subseteq \text{App}\mathcal{L}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$, $\text{UCn}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(C) = \emptyset$.

Using this compact approximation,

$$\mathbf{UViol}_{\text{track}}(h') = \emptyset$$

and

$$\mathbf{OViol}_{\text{track}}(h' \cdot e') = \{\mathbf{in}(\mathbf{S}, \text{tank1} : \text{soldiers}())\}.$$

Thus, $h' \cdot e'$ is not approximately data secure using the compact approximation. To make $h' \cdot e'$ approximately secure in this case, `tank1` should be less cooperative and not give the `track` agent its soldier list.

6.9 Static Approximations

A *static* security check is one that checks upfront that an agent \mathbf{a} is secure irrespective of what sequences of events may ensue (as long as those events are in accordance with the behavior of agent \mathbf{a} 's specification via its agent program, etc.). Unfortunately, the set of possible histories for \mathbf{a} —in general—is undecidable, as \mathbf{a} can be as powerful as an arbitrary Turing machine (this is proved in the next section). Thus, static security checks can only be based on *approximate estimates* of \mathbf{a} 's possible future behaviors.

For this reason, the designer of agent \mathbf{a} must *overestimate* the set of possible histories that agent \mathbf{a} may indulge in so as to cover *at least* all the possible interactions between \mathbf{a} and an arbitrary agent \mathbf{b} . If each such history in the overestimated set of possible histories is guaranteed to be secure at the time the agent is deployed, then security of \mathbf{a} is guaranteed upfront. The following definition says that a static agent approximation is one that takes into account such an overestimate of agent \mathbf{a} 's possible space of histories.

Definition 6.22 (Static Agent Approximation, restriction, correctness) A *static approximation*

$\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ is an approximation of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} such that the domain of $\text{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}$ is extended to a set, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$, of histories for \mathbf{a} such that $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+ \supseteq \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}$. The set $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ will be referred to as the approximation of \mathbf{a} 's possible histories.

The dynamic restriction of $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ is the agent approximation $\mathbf{App}(\mathbf{b})$ obtained from $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ by restricting the domain of $\text{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}$ to $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}$.

We say that $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ is correct if all its components are correct. The correctness of $\mathbf{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}$ is obtained by extending the correctness condition of Def. 6.3 to all $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$. The definition of correctness for the other components is unchanged.

In the above definition, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is the “expanded” set of histories being considered in order to ensure (upfront) that agent \mathbf{a} is secure. The formal definition of static data security is given below.

Definition 6.23 (Static Data Security) We say that the approximation $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ of \mathbf{a} 's possible behaviors is statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ if for all $h \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$, h is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$.

Informally speaking, the following theorem guarantees that any agent known to be statically data secure is also data secure.

Theorem 6.5 (Static Security Preservation) Let $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ be a correct static approximation of \mathbf{b} used by \mathbf{a} . If $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$, then \mathbf{a} is data secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} .

Proof: First note that since $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ is correct, then its dynamic restriction $\mathbf{App}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$ is also correct (straightforward from the definition). Now we prove the contrapositive of the theorem, which is equivalent. Suppose \mathbf{a} is *not* data secure w.r.t. \mathbf{b} . Then, by Theorem 6.1, it is not approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$. Consequently, some history $h_{\mathbf{a}} \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}$ is not data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{App}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$, and hence, for some of its prefixes $h' \cdot e$ such that $e = \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \text{Ans} \rangle$,

$$\text{UViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}(h')) \not\subseteq \text{OViol}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{App}H_{\mathbf{b}}(h' \cdot e)). \quad (*)$$

By definition of static approximation, $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+ \supseteq \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}$, so $h_{\mathbf{a}} \in \text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$. It follows (by $(*)$) that $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is not statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$. \blacksquare

The following theorem says that static security implies data security w.r.t. \mathbf{a} 's dynamic restriction. It also proves that static checks are stricter, i.e., some agents are approximately data secure but not statically data secure.

Theorem 6.6 (Static vs. Dynamic Verification)

1. Under the hypotheses of the above theorem, if $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is statically data secure, then \mathbf{a} is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$'s dynamic restriction.
2. There exists an agent \mathbf{a} and a correct static approximation $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ based on \mathbf{a} 's history approximation $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$, such that \mathbf{a} is approximately data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$'s dynamic restriction, but $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is not statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$.

Proof: The proof of part 1 is contained in the proof of Theorem 6.5 (there we proved that if some $h_{\mathbf{a}}$ is not approximately data secure w.r.t. the dynamic approximation $\mathbf{App}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$, then $\text{pos}\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^+$ is not statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$).

To prove part 2, suppose \mathbf{b} is the agent defined in the proof of Theorem 5.2, and let $\mathbf{App}_a(\mathbf{b})$ be any correct approximation of \mathbf{b} with $AppSec(\mathbf{b}) \neq \emptyset$ (we can choose $AppSec(\mathbf{b})$ arbitrarily). Let $pos\mathcal{H}_a$ be the set of histories h_n illustrated in the proof of Theorem 5.2, with the further requirement that $Ans_i = \emptyset$ for all $i > 0$, so that \mathbf{a} is trivially data secure. Now let f be any secret in $Sec_a(\mathbf{b})$. Define $pos\mathcal{H}_a^+ = pos\mathcal{H}_a \cup \{\langle\langle\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \{f\}\rangle\rangle\}$. Note that $\mathbf{App}_a(\mathbf{b})$ is the dynamic restriction of $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$. Clearly, $pos\mathcal{H}_a^+$ is not statically data secure w.r.t. $\mathbf{StaticApp}(\mathbf{b})$ (\mathbf{b} believes the secret f and stores it in its state). This completes the proof. \blacksquare

7 Undecidability Results

As stated above, the developer of an agent may be interested in two types of security verification methods.

Static security verification: In this mode of security verification, the agent developer would like to be sure, when deploying an agent, that the agent will always be secure. Such security verification can be performed once and for all at the time the agent is deployed, and leads to no run-time security verification. Thus, once an agent is known to be statically secure, no run-time security checks are needed.

Dynamic security verification: In this mode of security verification, no security checks are made at the time the agent is deployed. Rather, every time the agent receives a request, a run-time security check is made.

As mentioned in the preceding section, we will show that it is impossible to decide statically whether an agent is approximately data secure. The first result below states that even the relatively simple notion of surface security is undecidable.

Theorem 7.1 (Undecidability of Surface Security) *The problem of deciding statically whether an arbitrary IMPACT agent is surface secure is undecidable.*

Proof: We prove this theorem by uniformly reducing the halting problem for arbitrary deterministic Turing machines M to a surface security verification problem. For this purpose, we simulate M with a suitable agent \mathbf{a} that outputs a secret f when a final state of M is reached.

Recall that M 's *configuration* consists of the tape contents plus the current state of M 's *finite control*, which in turn is a set of 5-tuples of the form

$$\langle s, v, v', s', m \rangle$$

where s is the current state, v is the symbol under M 's head, v' is the symbol to be overwritten on v , s' is the next state and $m \in \{\text{left}, \text{right}\}$ specifies the head's movement. We assume M 's configuration is encoded by means of a suitable package **TMC** (which stands for Turing Machine Configuration), which provides code calls for updating M 's configuration

and two code calls $\mathbf{TMC} : \text{current_symbol}()$ and $\mathbf{TMC} : \text{current_state}()$ to read the symbol pointed to by the machine's head and the machine's current state, respectively.³

We also assume the agent has an action $\text{move}(v', s', m)$ (implemented with \mathbf{TMC} 's code calls for updating M 's configuration), that simulates one move, i.e. it sets the current tape symbol to v' , it sets the current state to s' and moves the head as specified by m . The finite control of M will be modeled through a suitable agent program the specifies under what conditions the move action has to be executed.

For each 5-tuple $\langle s, v, v', s', m \rangle$ in the finite control there is a corresponding agent program rule \mathbf{R} like the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{O} \text{ move}(v', s', m) \leftarrow \\ \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{TMC} : \text{current_state}()) \ \& \\ \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{TMC} : \text{current_symbol}()). \end{aligned}$$

Intuitively, this rule causes replacement of the current configuration of M with the new one specified by v', s' and m .

Finally, for each final state s of M , \mathbf{a} 's agent program contains a rule

$$\mathbf{O} \text{ send}(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow \mathbf{in}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{TMC} : \text{current_state}()).$$

where f is a secret and $\text{send}(b, f)$ is an action that sends the answer $\{f\}$ to \mathbf{b} .

Clearly, by construction, \mathbf{a} outputs a secret f (thereby violating surface security) if and only if M terminates. This completes the proof. \blacksquare

Remark 7.1 *All that is needed to simulate a Turing machine is a package with a dynamic data structure (i.e. a data structure whose size is not known at compile time). In [51], we encode the Turing machine configuration with a standard IMPACT package originally designed to encode meta-knowledge about other agents. Turing machine configurations could also be encoded using a DBMS package.*

An immediate consequence of the above result is that checking data security is undecidable.

Corollary 7.2 *The problems of deciding statically whether an arbitrary IMPACT agent is data secure or approximately data secure, are undecidable.*

Proof: Immediate from theorems 5.2 and 7.1. \blacksquare

The previous undecidability results also may be easily extended to show that action security is undecidable.

Theorem 7.3 (Undecidability of Action Security) *The problem of deciding statically whether an arbitrary IMPACT agent is action secure is not decidable.*

³Note that such a package can be easily implemented in any modern programming language, by maintaining two variables that encode the current tape symbol and the current state, and two linked lists of symbols that encode the used portions of the tape on the left and on the right of M 's head, respectively. Clearly, IMPACT agents are expected to use packages of this sort, as well as much more complicated packages.

Proof: Similar to the proof of Theorem 7.1. An arbitrary Turing machine M can be encoded into an *IMPACT* agent as shown in the proof of Theorem 7.1. However, the rules that output a secret when a final state of M is reached are replaced by rules that do a forbidden action. Then the halting problem is reduced to action security verification. ■

The above results show that given an arbitrary agent and its security needs as input, statically ensuring that the agent is secure is undecidable. As we will show later in Section 8, all is not lost. Two important facts are not ruled out by the above (seemingly depressing) undecidability results.

1. First, it will be possible to find *sufficient* conditions that can be checked statically on an agent and its security needs. If these conditions are satisfied, then the agent is approximately data secure. Note that the converse is not true — there may be agents that are approximately data secure and do not satisfy these (sufficient) conditions.
2. Second, it will turn out that dynamic security verification is in fact decidable, though the run-time cost of checking dynamic security can adversely affect system performance. Actually, the main reason for the undecidability results is that it is impossible to predict \mathbf{a} 's behavior; run-time checks, on the contrary, need no prediction — they only have to inspect the outgoing messages, as they are generated by \mathbf{a} .

In the rest of this paper, we will describe mechanisms through which the designer of an agent may articulate how his agent approximates other agents, and then we will show how these articulations may be checked for static/dynamic security.

8 Security Specification Languages

In this section, we will provide a “tight” language within which the developer of an agent \mathbf{a} can express the approximations that \mathbf{a} must use. This language consists of three components:

History component $\text{Hist}_{\mathbf{a}}$. This component is used to record and maintain \mathbf{a} 's history, $h_{\mathbf{a}}$.

Agent approximation program $\text{AAP}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$. This is a set of rules that encode \mathbf{a} 's approximation of \mathbf{b} , denoted by $\text{App}(\mathbf{b})$ in the abstract approximation framework (cf. Definition 6.16).

Once these languages are defined, in Section 9, we will define a package called $\text{SecP}_{\mathbf{a}}$ that may be used to maintain, compile and execute the programs that perform static, dynamic and combined security checks. We now discuss each of these components below.

8.1 The History Component $\text{Hist}_{\mathbf{a}}$

The developer of an agent \mathbf{a} needs to answer the following questions pertaining to the history maintained by her agent:

- *Which events should be stored in the historical archive?* In general, an agent a may choose to store only certain types of events. This may increase the efficiency of history manipulation, but may decrease the quality of the *approximations* of other agents' histories, which are based on a 's own history (see the examples in Section 6.2).
- *Which attributes of these events should be stored?* Possible attributes of an answer message which an agent developer might wish to store are the requested service, the receiver, the answer, the time at which the answer was sent.

The history component may be viewed as a software package (cf. Section 3) which stores a totally ordered list of time-stamped events, that can be queried and updated by means of the following functions.

- `retrieve_reqs(Sender, Receiver, Request, When)`: Retrieve all stored request messages sent by `Sender` to `Receiver` at time `When`, and which match `Request`. Parameter `When` has the form `Op <time>`, where `Op` is one of `<`, `≤`, `=`, `≠`, `≥`, `>`. The above parameters may be left unspecified, in part or entirely, using the wildcard `'_'`. For example, the invocation `retrieve_reqs(b, _, _, > 20:jan:95:1900)` retrieves all stored request messages sent by `b` after the specified time.
- `retrieve_answ(Sender, Receiver, Fact, When)`: Retrieve all stored answer messages sent by `Sender` to `Receiver` at time `When`, and such that the answer contains a fact f which matches `Fact`. The variables of `Fact` are instantiated with f . `When` can be specified as explained above; wildcards may be used.
- `retrieve_actn(Act, When)`: Retrieve all stored actions that match `Act`, and executed at the time specified by `When`. The action name and/or its arguments may be left unspecified using the wildcard `'_'`.

The history package is completed by the *history update actions* described below.

- `insert_reqs(Sender, Receiver, Req, When)`, `insert_answ(Sender, Receiver, Ans, When)`, `insert_actn(Act, When)`: These actions append a new event to a 's history.
- `delete(Event)`: Deletes `Event` from the history.

Note that the history component of an IMPACT agent may be viewed as just another data structure together with the above set of associated functions. Hence, the concepts of code call and code call conditions apply directly to the history component.

Definition 8.1 (History Conditions) *Suppose RF is one of the above three retrieval functions, and $args$ is a list of arguments for RF of the appropriate type. We may inductively define history conditions as follows.*

- $\text{in}(X, \text{Hist}_a : RF(args))$ is a history condition.
- If Op is any of `<`, `≤`, `=`, `≠`, `≥`, `>`, and T_1, T_2 are variables or objects, then $T_1 Op T_2$ is a history condition.
- If χ_1, χ_2 are history conditions then $(\chi_1 \ \& \ \chi_2)$ is a history condition.

The syntactic restrictions obeyed by history conditions will be needed in Section 8.2. In general, Hist_a 's functions may occur side by side with arbitrary conditions. The following example presents some history conditions that an agent in the Tank Example might use.

Example 8.1 *The following are history conditions which can be used by tank1.*

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{in}(\text{Event1}, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_reqs}(\text{track}, \text{tank1}, _ , _ , > 20 : \text{june} : 1995)()) \& \\ & \text{in}(\text{Event2}, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_reqs}(\text{com} - \text{c}, \text{tank1}, _ , _ , > 20 : \text{june} : 1995)()) \& \\ & \text{Event1.req} = \text{Event2.req} \end{aligned}$$

The above history condition retrieves all the requests that were sent both by the track agents and the com – c agent after June, 20th 1995.

8.2 Agent Approximation Languages

We are now ready to explain how the designer of agent **a** approximates other agents. To do so, the designer of **a** writes one set of rules for each component of **a**'s approximation of **b**. Specifically,

1. He first writes a set of rules called *history approximation rules* through which he specifies how his agent approximates the history of another agent;
2. Then, he writes a set of *state approximation rules* which specifies how his agent approximates the state of another agent;
3. Then, he writes a set of *consequence approximation rules* through which he specifies how his agent captures the approximate consequence relation of another agent;
4. Finally, he writes a set of *secrets approximation rules* specifying the set of approximate secrets.

8.2.1 History Approximation

We now discuss how history approximations may be expressed by an agent developer in *IMPACT*. This is done through a construct called a history constraint that is defined via two simpler construct defined below.

Definition 8.2 (Pure History Constraint) *requested(Sender, Receiver, Request, Time), told(Sender, Receiver, Answer, Time), and done(Agent, ActionName, Time) are called pure history constraints.*

Pure history constraints correspond to the three possible event types — request messages, answer messages and action events. The argument **Time** is a number which denotes the time at which the event happened. The other kind of history constraint is a comparison constraint.

Definition 8.3 (Comparison Constraint) *If T_1, T_2 are either objects or variables, and Op is one of the comparison operators $<, \leq, =, \neq, \geq, >$, then $T_1 Op T_2$ is called a comparison constraint.*

We are now ready to define history constraints.

Definition 8.4 (History Constraint) *A history constraint is either a comparison constraint or a pure history constraint.*

The reader is cautioned that history constraints and history conditions (defined earlier) are two different concepts ! We are now ready to provide examples of history constraints associated with the Tank Example.

Example 8.2 *The following expressions are pure history constraints:*

```
requested(com - c, tank1, set : speed(new_speed), 20 : june : 1999),
      requested(track, tank1, fuel_level(), Xnow - 60),
      told(tank1, track, in(low, tank1 : fuel_level(Xnow)), Xnow),
      done(tank1, set_speed(55kmh), 15 : 00 : 20 : june : 1999).
```

The following expressions are comparison constraints: $T_1 < X_{now} - 5$, $T_1 = T_2$, and $T_3 \neq 15 : 00 : 20 : june : 1999$.

Definition 8.5 (History Approximation Program) *A history approximation program (used by agent a for agent b) is a set. R_{his} , of rules of the form*

$$PHC \leftarrow \chi_{hist},$$

where PHC is a pure history constraint and χ_{hist} is a history condition (not a history constraint!).

When the developer of agent a wishes to approximate the history of agent b, he explicitly specifies a history approximation program, R_{his} , which implicitly specifies a set of histories that “satisfy” the rules in R_{his} , and this set of histories reflects agent a’s approximation of the histories of agent b.

Definition 8.6 (History Satisfaction) *Let $h_b = \langle e_1, e_2, \dots, e_i, \dots \rangle$ be a history for b. h_b satisfies a conjunction of history constraints, HC, if there is a ground instance $HC\theta$ of HC such that:*

- *each comparison constraint in $HC\theta$ is true;*
- *each pure history constraint $c \in HC\theta$ matches some event e in h_b of the corresponding type, in the sense that the fields *Sender*, *Receiver*, *Request* and *Answer* of c coincide with the corresponding elements of e ;*
- *the parameters **Time** correctly reflect the ordering of the events; formally, for all pure history constraints c' and c'' in $HC\theta$, whose last parameters are **Time'** and **Time''**, respectively, and such that c' and c'' correspond to events e_j and e_k of h_b , (respectively), it holds that $\mathbf{Time}' \leq \mathbf{Time}'' \Leftrightarrow j \leq k$.*

The following example shows some histories in the Tank example and some history constraints that are satisfied.

Example 8.3 *A history h_{track} for track of the form*

$\langle \dots \langle \text{track}, \text{tank1}, \text{location}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{now}}) \rangle \dots \langle \text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{now}})) \rangle \dots \rangle$

(containing a service request and the corresponding answer) satisfies the history constraints:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{requested}(\text{track}, \text{tank1}, \text{location}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{now}}), \text{T1}), \\ & \text{told}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}((50, 20, 40), \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T2}))), \text{T1} \leq \text{T2}. \end{aligned}$$

Given a history approximation program, R_{his} , used by agent \mathbf{a} to approximate the history of agent \mathbf{b} , the abstract approximation of agent \mathbf{b} 's history may now be stated intuitively as follows:

1. Find all pairs (HC, χ_{hist}) where HC is a conjunction of history constraints such that repeatedly unfolding (i.e. replacing the pure history constraints in HC by the bodies of rules whose heads unify with the pure history constraint) HC against the rules in R_{his} yields the history condition χ_{hist} .
2. For each such pair (HC, χ_{hist}) , let θ be the composition of all the unifying substitutions involved in the previous step.
3. For each substitution σ such that $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$ is true in the current state of the history component, $HC\theta\sigma$ is possibly satisfied by a history of agent \mathbf{b} .
4. Any history that satisfies $HC\theta\sigma$ is considered to be a possible history of \mathbf{b} by \mathbf{a} .

The following formal definitions formalize this point.

Definition 8.7 (Resolvent, Derivation) *Let G be a conjunction of atoms $A_1 \& \dots \& A_n$, and let $r = (H \leftarrow B)$ be a rule whose head can be unified with some A_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$), with a substitution θ . The resolvent of G and r w.r.t. θ (with selected literal A_i) is $(A_1 \& \dots \& A_{i-1} \& B \& A_{i+1} \& \dots \& A_n)\theta$.*

A standardized apart member of a set of rules R is a variant of a rule $r \in R$, obtained by uniformly renaming R 's variables with fresh variables, never used before.

A derivation from a set of rules R with substitutions $\theta_1 \dots \theta_m$ is a sequence G_0, \dots, G_m such that for all $i = 1 \dots m$, G_i is a resolvent of G_{i-1} and some standardized apart member r_i of R , w.r.t. θ_i . If G_0, \dots, G_m is a derivation from R with substitutions $\theta_1 \dots \theta_m$, and θ is the composition of $\theta_1 \dots \theta_m$, then we write

$$G_0 \xrightarrow{\theta}_R G_m.$$

If the θ_i s are all most general unifiers, then we write $G_0 \xrightarrow{\text{mg}}_{\theta} G_m$.

The reader is warned that \longrightarrow does *not* denote logical implication, but rather goal-rewriting. In fact, $G_0 \xrightarrow{\theta}_R G_m$ means that by repeatedly applying the rules of R to the initial goal G_0 in a top-down (or backward-chaining) fashion, G_m can be obtained at some point. The relation between \longrightarrow and logical implication is the following: if $G_0 \xrightarrow{\theta}_R G_m$ holds, then G_m and R *imply* $G_0\theta$ (in symbols: $G_0\theta \leftarrow G_m \wedge \bigwedge R$).

Thus, in particular, $G_0 \xrightarrow{\theta}_R G_m$ might hold, but $G_0 \& G'_0 \xrightarrow{\theta'}_R G_m$ might not because the fact that we can eliminate all pure history constraints in G_0 to obtain G_m does not mean that we can eliminate all pure history constraints in $G_0 \& G'_0$ and still obtain G_m ! Using this concept, we may now precisely specify the approximate histories of **b** used by agent **a** as follows.

$$AppH_{\mathbf{b}}(h_{\mathbf{a}}) =_{def} \{HC\theta\sigma \mid HC \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}} \text{ and } \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})\}. \quad (2)$$

The following example uses the Tank Example to illustrate how an agent **a** might approximate the history of agent **b**.

Example 8.4 *Let us consider the approximation of the history of the track agent by tank1 in the Tank Example. tank1 does not have a lot of information on the interactions of the track agent with other agents and its actions. Even the set of agents contacted by the track agent is not known. Some of them might know tank1's region or its fuel level at different times and disclose it to the track agent. This may be expressed via the following history approximation rules. They say that for all $X \neq \text{tank1}$ and $T \leq T1$, track's history may contain messages from X to track, specifying tank1's region or fuel level, or both.*

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{r1}) \quad & \text{told}(X, \text{track}, \text{in}(R, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(T)), T1) \leftarrow X \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T1. \\ (\mathbf{r2}) \quad & \text{told}(X, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), T2) \leftarrow X \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T2. \end{aligned}$$

The only assumption we make here is that the agents involved in this scenario do not talk about the future. Only old or current region information and fuel levels are communicated. This is expressed by $T \leq T1$ and $T \leq T2$.

We assume that in some cases, tank1 itself may disclose its old fuel levels to the track agent. We also assume that tank1 keeps all its answers in $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$ for only one hour, then deletes them. Then, a recent answer can be in track's history only if a corresponding message is stored in $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$, while older messages may be in the track agent's history regardless of $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$'s contents. This can be expressed via the following rules.

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{r3}) \quad & \text{told}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), T3) \leftarrow \\ & \text{in}(\text{Ev}, \text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), -)) \ \& \\ & T3 \geq \text{Ev.time}. \\ (\mathbf{r4}) \quad & \text{told}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), T4) \leftarrow \\ & T \leq T4 \ \& \\ & T4 \leq \text{now} - 60. \end{aligned}$$

Rule (r3) states that an answer message from tank1 may be in track's history if there is a corresponding message Ev in tank1's history (second line). Message delivery might not be instantaneous; there may be a delay before the answer is received by track (third line).

Rule **(r4)** is needed because events older than 60 minutes are deleted from $Hist_{\text{tank1}}$. Therefore, if $T4 \leq \text{now} - 60$, then an answer message from **tank1** may be in **track**'s history while the corresponding event has been deleted from $Hist_{\text{tank1}}$. Condition $T \leq T4$ says that L refers to a time point earlier than the answer delivery time. This condition is useless in **(r3)**, because **tank1** cannot return a future fuel level, and hence, $T \leq \text{Ev.time} \leq T3$.

If R_{his} consists of the rules **(r1)**-**(r4)** above, and

$$\begin{aligned} HC &= \text{told}(X, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), T') \ \& \\ &\quad \text{told}(Y, \text{track}, \text{in}(R, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(T)), T'') \end{aligned}$$

then there exist three derivations $HC \xrightarrow{R_{\text{his}}^{\theta_i}} \chi_{\text{hist}}^i$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$).

The first one applies **(r1)** and **(r2)**, and yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{\text{hist}}^1 &= X \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T' \ \& \ Y \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T'', \\ HC\theta_1 &= HC. \end{aligned}$$

This means that (it is estimated that) the **track** agent's history may contain two events matching HC , provided that χ_{hist}^1 holds.

The other derivations use **(r1)** and one of **(r3)** and **(r4)**, yielding:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{\text{hist}}^2 &= \text{in}(\text{Ev}_1, Hist_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), -)) \ \& \\ &\quad T' \geq \text{Ev}_1.\text{time} \ \& \\ &\quad Y \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T < T'', \\ HC\theta_2 &= \text{told}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(L, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(T)), T') \ \& \\ &\quad \text{told}(Y, \text{track}, \text{in}(R, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(T)), T''); \\ \chi_{\text{hist}}^3 &= T \leq T' \ \& \ T' \leq \text{now} - 60 \ \& \ Y \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T < T'', \\ HC\theta_3 &= HC\theta_2. \end{aligned}$$

Again, this means that the **track** agent's history may contain two events that match $HC\theta_i$ if the corresponding condition χ_{hist}^i is satisfied. For $i = 2$, checking such condition involves inspecting **tank1**'s history $Hist_{\text{tank1}}$. This can be done either dynamically (at run time) or statically, by estimating how the history condition will be evaluated in the future as discussed below.

8.2.2 State Approximation Language

We are now ready to define how an agent **a** approximates the state of another agent **b**. Such an approximation has three fields, *Nec*, *Poss* and *New*, that capture (respectively) the conditions which are deemed to be necessarily true, possibly true, possibly true and caused by the last event in **b**'s history. We will only consider compact approximations where *Nec* is empty. In order to express the set *Poss*, the agent developer writes a set of rules called the *state approximation program*.

Definition 8.8 (State approximation program) *The state approximation program used by \mathbf{a} to approximate the state of agent \mathbf{b} is a finite set of rules of the form*

$$\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow HC,$$

where f is a fact from the approximate fact language $App\mathcal{L}_b$ and HC is a set of history constraints.

Intuitively, the above rule says that if \mathbf{b} 's history satisfies HC , then f *might* be in \mathbf{b} 's state.

By analogy with the implementation of history approximations, the relation between the abstract notion of state approximation and the corresponding program rules is given by the following two equations.

$$App\mathcal{O}_b(H).Poss =_{def} \{B\theta\sigma \mid B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{sta}} HC \text{ and } HC\sigma \in H\}. \quad (3)$$

This is perfectly analogous to equation (2). The definition of the “.New” field is slightly more complex:

$$\begin{aligned} App\mathcal{O}_b(AppH_b(h_a)).New =_{def} \\ \{B\theta\sigma \mid B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{sta} \cup R_{his}} \chi_{hist}, \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{hist}), \text{ some} \\ \mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots)) \text{ belongs to } \chi_{hist}\sigma \\ \text{ and } E \text{ is the last event of } \text{Hist}_a\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

(Recall that the “.Nec” field is not needed for compact approximations.)

The difference between the above two definitions can be explained as follows: possibly “.New” facts are identified by extending the derivations down to code call conditions χ_{hist} , using R_{his} ; if such code call conditions refer to the last event E stored in Hist_a , then the given fact B might have been caused by such E , and for this reason, B might be a new fact. Conversely, if B does never need event E to be derived, then clearly B cannot be caused by E (according to our approximate knowledge) and hence it cannot be new.

Given a state approximation program R_{sta} , the approximate state of agent \mathbf{b} specified by agent \mathbf{a} is given by the following proposition.

Proposition 8.1 $App\mathcal{O}_b(AppH_b(h_a)).Poss = \{B\theta\sigma \mid B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{sta} \cup R_{his}} \chi_{hist} \text{ and } \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{hist})\}$, where χ_{hist} ranges over history code call conditions.

Proof: First we prove the left-to-right inclusion. Assume that $B_0 \in App\mathcal{O}_b(AppH_b(h_a)).Poss$. By (3), this means that B_0 has the form $B\theta\sigma$ and for some history constraints HC , there is a derivation $B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{sta}} HC$ where $HC\sigma \in AppH_b(h_a)$.

This membership, by (2), implies that $HC\sigma$ has the form $HC'\theta'\sigma'$ and there is a derivation $HC' \xrightarrow{\theta'}_{R_{his}} \chi_{hist}$ for some set of history constraints χ_{hist} with $\sigma' \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{hist})$.

By combining the ground instances of the two derivations we obtain a derivation $B_0 \xrightarrow{\theta_1}_{R_{sta}} HC\sigma \xrightarrow{\theta_2}_{R_{his}} \chi_{hist}\sigma'$, and hence, by setting $\theta'' = \theta_1 \circ \theta_2$, $\chi''_{hist} = \chi_{hist}\sigma'$ and $\sigma'' = \epsilon$, where ϵ denotes the empty substitution, we obtain:

$$B_0 \xrightarrow{\theta''}_{R_{sta} \cup R_{his}} \chi''_{hist},$$

where $\sigma'' \in \text{Sol}(\chi''_{\text{hist}})$. As a consequence,

$$B_0 \in \{B\theta\sigma \mid B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}} \text{ and } \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})\}.$$

Since B_0 is an arbitrary member of $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(\text{App}H_b(h_a)).\text{poss}$, this proves that

$$\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(\text{App}H_b(h_a)).\text{Poss} \subseteq \{B\theta\sigma \mid B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}} \text{ and } \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})\}.$$

We need to show the reverse inclusion. For this purpose, suppose B_0 belongs to the right-hand-side of the above inclusion, that is, B_0 has the form $B\theta\sigma$, $B \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}}$ and $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$.

This derivation can be reordered by postponing the application of R_{his} 's rules, and can be split into two segments, for some HC , θ_1 and θ_2 , as follows:

$$B \xrightarrow{\theta_1}_{R_{\text{sta}}} HC \xrightarrow{\theta_2}_{R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}},$$

where $\theta = \theta_1 \circ \theta_2$. This reordering is possible for two reasons:

1. By a well-known result in logic programming theory, called *independence from the selection rule*, we can invert the application of two rules in a derivation, provided that none of the two rules rewrites an atom introduced by the other rule.
2. The atoms in the body of R_{his} 's rules, by definition, never match the head of any rule in R_{sta} . So R_{his} 's rules can be delayed until all the necessary rules of R_{sta} have been applied.

Now the reader can easily verify (with (2) and (3)) that $HC\theta_2\sigma$ belongs to $\text{App}H_b(h_a)$, and hence $B\theta\sigma$ (that equals B_0) belongs to $\text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(\text{App}H_b(h_a)).\text{Poss}$. This completes the proof. ■

The following example uses the Tank Example to illustrate how states may be approximated.

Example 8.5 *As very little is known about track, the following possibilities must be taken into account:*

- *The track agent may store in its state any data obtained from other agents (this doesn't mean that track actually stores all such data);*
- *The track agent may keep data in its state for unbounded amounts of time (i.e., it cannot be said a priori whether a particular piece of data will be removed or replaced at some point).*

This means that the track agent's state may possibly contain any fact received from other agents. This can be expressed via the following rule:

$$(r5) \quad \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(b, F) \leftarrow \text{told}(X, \text{track}, F, T).$$

Clearly, if more information about track is available, the body of the above rule might be enriched with further constraints. For example, by adding $T \geq \text{now} - 30$ one could say that

`track` does not keep facts for more than 30 minutes. By adding $X \neq c$ one could say that `c`'s messages are not stored by `track`.

If R_{his} consists of rules (r1)-(r4), and R_{sta} contains only (r5), then the condition

$$B = \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))) \ \& \ \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T})))$$

has three derivations $B \xrightarrow{R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}} \theta_i} \chi_{\text{hist}}^i$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$), where χ_{hist}^i and θ_i are as in Example 8.4 (the first two steps of these derivations apply (r5) twice, and transform B into the constraints HC of Example 8.4; the rest of the derivations coincide with those of Example 8.4).

The intuitive meaning of these derivations is: two facts approximated by $\text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))$ and $\text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T}))$ may be simultaneously stored in the `track` agent's current state when any of the conditions χ_{hist}^i is satisfied. For instance, χ_{hist}^1 is satisfied whenever there exist X, Y, T', T'' , such that

$$X \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T' \ \& \ Y \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T \leq T''.$$

This is always possible, whenever there exists an agent different from `tank1` and `track`; under this assumption, our rules say that the facts (corresponding to) $\text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))$ and $\text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T}))$ may be part of the `track` agent's current state.

8.2.3 Consequence Approximation Language

In this section, we show how the agent developer may specify how agent `a` overestimates agent `b`'s consequence relation. He does so by writing an *consequence approximation program* defined below.

Definition 8.9 (Consequence Approximation Program) A *consequence approximation program* used by agent `a` to overestimate agent `b`'s consequence relation is a finite set of rules of the form

$$\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow B_1 \ \& \ \dots \ \& \ B_n,$$

where each B_i is either a "belief atom" of the form $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, \dots)$ or a comparison constraint $T_1 \text{ Op } T_2$.

When the developer of agent `a` writes a consequence approximation program R_{con} , then he implicitly specifies a consequence relation as shown below:

$$OCn_b(C) =_{\text{def}} \{\text{facts}(B\theta\sigma) \mid B \xrightarrow{R_{\text{con}} \theta} C', \ \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\text{comc}(C')) \text{ and } \text{facts}(C')\sigma \subseteq C\}. \quad (5)$$

where $\text{comc}(C')$ is the set of comparison constraints in C' and $\text{facts}(C')$ is the set of facts occurring within the belief atoms of C' .

The following example uses the Tank example to illustrate the concept of a consequence approximation program.

Example 8.6 *Let us make an additional assumption about the track agent. Suppose we cannot excluded the possibility that the track agent may derive the current location, P_{now} , of tank1, from recent information about tank1's low fuel levels and from the region in which tank1 is located. This is based on the assumption that if tank1 is low in fuel, it must be at the support system located in its region and will stay there for a very short time period (e.g., less than 10 minutes). Hence if $t < \text{now} - 10$, then we can safely assume that track cannot derive P_{now} from the region and from tank1's being low in fuel. Then. R_{con} consists of the following rule:*

$$\begin{aligned}
(\mathbf{r6}) \quad & \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now}))) \leftarrow \\
& \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))) \ \& \\
& \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T}))) \ \& \\
& \text{T} \geq \text{now} - 10 \ \& \ \text{L} = \text{low}.
\end{aligned}$$

Let $C' = \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))) \ \& \ \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T}))) \ \& \ \text{T} \geq \text{now} - 10 \ \& \ \text{L} = \text{low}$ and $R_{\text{con}} = \{\mathbf{r6}\}$. Intuitively, C' means that tank1 believes that the region it is in and its being low in fuel at time $\text{T} \geq \text{now} - 10$ may be stored in track's state at some point. Under this assumption, it is estimated that the track agent may derive $\text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now}))$, (i.e. tank1's current location), due to the following points:

- $\mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now}))) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{R_{\text{con}}}} C'$, where ϵ is the empty substitution (the derivation consists of one application of $(\mathbf{r6})$);
- $\text{comc}(C') = \{\text{T} \geq \text{now} - 10, \text{L} = \text{low}\}$;
- let t_0 be any number such that $t_0 \geq \text{now} - 10$; let $\sigma =_{\text{def}} [t_0/\text{T}, \text{low}/\text{L}]$; note that $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\text{comc}(C'))$;
- $\text{facts}(\mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now})))) = \text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now}))$, and
- $\text{facts}(C') = \{\text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})), \text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(\text{T}))\}$

and hence:

$$\text{in}(P_{\text{now}}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now})) \in \text{OCn}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}(\{\text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(t_0)), \text{in}(\text{R}, \text{tank1} : \text{region}(t_0))\}).$$

8.2.4 Approximate Secrets Language

As in the previous cases, for the developer of agent \mathbf{a} to approximate the secrets to be kept from agent \mathbf{b} , he writes a set of rules as described in the following definition.

Definition 8.10 (Approximate Secrets Program) *An approximate secrets program used by agent \mathbf{a} to specify secrets to be kept from \mathbf{b} is a finite set of rules of the form*

$$\text{secret}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}},$$

where f is an approximate fact from $\text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$, and χ_{cmp} is a set of comparison constraints $T_1 \text{ Op } T_2$.

Intuitively, the above rule means that f should be kept secret from b if χ_{cmp} is true. Every approximate secrets program, R_{sec} , implicitly specifies an abstract secrets function $\text{AppSec}(b)$ as follows:

$$\text{AppSec}(b) =_{\text{def}} \{f\sigma \mid (\text{secret}_a(b, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}}) \in R_{\text{sec}} \text{ and } \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{cmp}})\}. \quad (6)$$

The Tank example may be used to illustrate the concept of an approximate secrets program.

Example 8.7 *In the Tank example, there is one secret, declared by the following rule:*

$$(r7) \quad \text{secret}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{T}))) \leftarrow \text{T} = \text{now}.$$

8.2.5 Agent Approximation Program

Thus, the approximation of b used by agent a consists of a set of approximation programs as defined above that we collectively call the agent approximation program of b used by a .

Definition 8.11 (Agent Approximation Program, AAP_b^a) *The agent approximation program AAP_b^a is a set of rules with the following possible forms:*

history approximation rules $\text{PHC} \leftarrow \chi_{\text{hist}}$;

state approximation rules $\mathcal{B}_a(b, f) \leftarrow \text{HC}$;

consequence approximation rules $\mathcal{B}_a(b, f) \leftarrow B_1 \& \dots \& B_n$;

secrets approximation rules $\text{secret}_a(b, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}}$;

where $f \in \text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$, PHC is a pure history constraint, χ_{hist} is a history code call condition, HC is a set of history constraints, each B_i is either a belief atom of the form $\mathcal{B}_a(b, \dots)$ or a comparison constraint $T_1 \text{ Op } T_2$, and χ_{cmp} is a set of comparison constraints.

9 Algorithms for Security Maintenance

In this section, we will define algorithms to compile agent approximation programs, and we will also provide algorithms to perform *static* security checks, as well as *dynamic* security checks. We will focus on algorithms for maintaining data security. Techniques for maintaining action security in *IMPACT* can be found in [8] and [51, Section 10.5.4].

Before proceeding any further, however, we present a result below that shows that if the current history of agent a (which a surely knows!) is h_a , then the set of secrets violated by agent b given that history h_a has occurred can be precisely characterized in terms of the derivations from AAP_b^a .

Theorem 9.1 (Violated Secrets As Computations From \mathbf{AAP}_b^a) *Let χ_{hist} range over history conditions. Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{OViol}_b(h_a) = & \{f\theta\sigma \mid (\text{secret}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}}) \in \mathbf{AAP}_b^a, \\ & \mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \& \chi_{\text{cmp}} \xrightarrow{\theta}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi_{\text{hist}}, \sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}}), \\ & \text{some } \mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots)) \text{ belongs to } \chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma \text{ and} \\ & E \text{ is the last event of } \text{Hist}_a\}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof: Let $f_0 \in \text{App}\mathcal{L}_b$ be an arbitrary approximate fact. By definition, $f_0 \in \text{OViol}_b(h_a)$ iff $f_0 \in \bigcup \{OCn_b(C) \mid C \in \text{App}\mathcal{O}_b(\text{App}H_b(h_a)).\text{New}\}$ and $f_0 \in \text{AppSec}(b)$.

By analogy with the proof of Proposition 8.1, the reader may easily verify (using equations (5) and (4)) that f_0 belongs to some of the above sets $OCn_b(C)$ iff f_0 has the form $f\theta\sigma$ and

1. $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{con}} \cup R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}} \chi_{\text{hist}}$ with $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$;
2. there exists a code call condition $\mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots))$ in $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$ such that E is the last event of Hist_a .

Moreover, by (6), f_0 belongs to $\text{AppSec}(b)$ iff f_0 has the form $f'\sigma'$ and R_{sec} contains a rule

$$\text{secret}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}}$$

such that $\sigma' \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{cmp}})$. As a consequence of 1) and 2), we obtain the two points below:

- a) Assume $f_0 \in \text{OViol}_b$. Then, since $\mathbf{AAP}_b^a \supseteq R_{\text{con}} \cup R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}$, the derivation in 1) is also a derivation $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \xrightarrow{\theta}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$. Consider a ground instance $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f_0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$ of the above derivation. It can be immediately extended to $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f_0) \& \chi_{\text{cmp}}\sigma' \xrightarrow{\epsilon}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma \& \chi_{\text{cmp}}\sigma'$, by appending $\& \chi_{\text{cmp}}\sigma'$ to each goal. Now, note that the empty substitution ϵ is in $\text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma \& \chi_{\text{cmp}}\sigma')$, and that $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma \& \chi_{\text{cmp}}\sigma'$ contains a code call condition $\mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots))$ such that E is the last event of Hist_a .

By a standard logic programming result ([35, Lifting Lemma]), this derivation can be “lifted” to a derivation $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \& \chi_{\text{cmp}} \xrightarrow{\theta'}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi'_{\text{hist}}$. Clearly, χ'_{hist} has a solution σ'' such that $\chi'_{\text{hist}}\sigma''$ contains a code call condition $\mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots))$ where E is the last event of Hist_a . This proves that f_0 belongs to the right-hand-side of the equation in this theorem’s statement.

- b) Conversely, suppose that f_0 belongs to the right-hand-side of the equation in the theorem’s statement. Then we have $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \& \chi_{\text{cmp}} \xrightarrow{\theta}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi_{\text{hist}}$, $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$, and for some call $\mathbf{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots))$ in $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$, E is the last event of Hist_a . From this derivation, by dropping the part corresponding to χ_{cmp} from each goal, we obtain a derivation $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \xrightarrow{\theta}_{\mathbf{AAP}_b^a} \chi'_{\text{hist}}$, where $\chi'_{\text{hist}}\sigma$ still contains the above code call condition (the part removed from χ_{hist} consists only of pure comparison constraints). The above derivation cannot use rules from R_{sec} (which match neither the initial goal nor the bodies of $\mathbf{AAP}_b^a - R_{\text{sec}}$); therefore, it is also a derivation $\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{con}} \cup R_{\text{sta}} \cup R_{\text{his}}} \chi'_{\text{hist}}$.

It follows by 1) and 2) that $f_0 \in \bigcup\{OCn_b(C) \mid C \in AppO_b(AppH_b(h_a)).New\}$. Moreover, note that χ_{hist} contains $\chi_{\text{cmp}}\theta$ and σ is a solution of χ_{hist} , so $\theta\sigma$ is a solution to χ_{cmp} . It follows, by (6), that $f\theta\sigma$ – that is, f_0 – is in $AppSec(\mathbf{b})$.

We may conclude that $f_0 \in OViol_b(h_a)$.

From a) and b) we immediately derive that f_0 belongs to the left-hand-side of the equation in the theorem’s statement iff it belongs to the right-hand-side. This completes the proof. \blacksquare

The following example shows how this theorem may be used to determine which secrets are violated by a given agent \mathbf{b} w.r.t. a given history.

Example 9.1 *In our example, $\mathbf{AAP}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ consists of rules (r1)-(r7). The unique secret is specified by (r7), thus the security check is only concerned with derivations starting from the corresponding condition $G_0 = \mathcal{B}_{\text{tank1}}(\text{track}, \text{in}(\mathbf{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\mathbf{T}))) \ \& \ \mathbf{T} = \text{now}$. Only one such derivation reaches a history condition χ_{hist} that mentions $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$. This derivation uses rules (r6),(r5),(r5),(r3),(r1), and yields a condition of the form*

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{\text{hist}} = & \text{in}(\text{Ev}_4, \text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(\text{L1}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T1})), _)) \ \& \\ & \text{L1} = \text{low} \ \& \\ & \text{T3}_4 \geq \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \ \& \\ & \text{Y}_5 \neq \text{track} \ \& \ \text{T}_1 < \text{T2}_5 \ \& \\ & \text{T}_1 \geq \text{now} - 10 \ \& \\ & \mathbf{T} = \text{now}. \end{aligned}$$

After evaluating the above code call to $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$, one can always set $\text{T3}_4 := \text{Ev}_4.\text{time}$, $\text{L1} = \text{low}$, $\text{Y}_5 := \mathbf{c}$, $\text{T2}_5 := \text{T}_1 + 1$, and $\mathbf{T} := \text{now}$. Subsequently, the only constraint that might not be satisfied is $\text{T}_1 \geq \text{now} - 10$. Therefore, χ_{hist} has a solution if and only if the code call retrieve_ans finds an answer message from tank1 to track containing a fact $\text{in}(\text{low}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T}))$ where $\text{T}_1 \geq \text{now} - 10$.

Data security, however, is violated only if the answer message found by retrieve_answ is the last message of $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$.

Intuitively, all this means is that if tank1 tries to send the track agent information about its being low on fuel during the last 10 minutes, then a security violation is detected. A closer examination of the rules used in the derivation reveals that $\mathbf{AAP}_{\text{track}}^{\text{tank1}}$ “discovers” that track might combine the fact that tank1 is low in fuel with its region coming from another agent $\text{Y}_5 \neq \text{tank1}$, and derive tank1 ’s current position.

The following function compiles $\mathbf{AAP}_{\mathbf{b}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ into a set of tuples of the form

$$\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$$

where \mathbf{b} is an agent name, f is an approximate fact from $App\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{b}}$, and χ_{hist} is a history condition. The intended meaning of the above tuple is that for all $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$, $f\sigma$ belongs to $OViol_b(h_a)$. We use the notation \mathbf{OVT} to denote this set of tuples and call the table, the *overestimated violation table*. The following definition provides a method to compile the above table.

Definition 9.1 (Compilation) Function $\text{SecP}_a : \text{CompileAAP}(\mathbf{AAP}_b^a)$ sets \mathbf{OVT} to the set of all tuples $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$ such that:

1. $(\text{secret}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}}) \in \mathbf{AAP}_b^a$;
2. $(\mathcal{B}_a(\mathbf{b}, f) \& \chi_{\text{cmp}}) \xrightarrow{\text{mg } \theta} \mathbf{AAP}_b^a \chi_{\text{hist}}$ and χ_{hist} is a history condition;
3. the set of comparison constraints in χ_{hist} is satisfiable.

The following example uses the Tank example to illustrate the compilation procedure.

Example 9.2 In the Tanks example $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{now}}$ would contain the tuple

$$\langle \text{track}, \text{in}(\text{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now})), \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$$

, where χ_{hist} is the history condition described in Example 9.1. The set of comparison constraints in χ_{hist} can be satisfied by setting: $\text{T3}_4 := \text{Ev}_4.\text{time}$, $\text{L1} = \text{low}$, $\text{Y}_5 := \text{c}$, $\text{T2}_5 := \text{T}_1 + 1$, $\text{T} := \text{now}$, and $\text{T}_1 := \text{now} - 9$.

Before continuing to the next section, we note that Step (2) of **CompileAAP** may be performed in polynomial time data complexity by using standard table based resolution methods such as those implemented in the well known Stonybrook XSB system.

9.1 Dynamic Security Verification Algorithm

Once the table \mathbf{OVT} is constructed, security may be verified dynamically via a function $\text{SecP}_a : \text{DynOViol}(\mathbf{b}, \text{Ans})$, that computes $\text{OViol}_b(h_a \cdot e)$ where e is an event corresponding to \mathbf{a} 's current answer Ans to \mathbf{b} . The dynamic security check algorithm is given below.

It is important to note that the dynamic security check algorithm does *not* modify Hist_a — it merely checks whether some secret would be violated if Ans were returned to \mathbf{b} . The following theorem states that the above algorithm is correct.

Theorem 9.2 (Correctness of Dynamic Security Check) Let \mathbf{OVT} be the table constructed by

$\text{SecP}_a : \text{CompileAAP}(\mathbf{AAP}_b^a)$, and let e be an answer message from \mathbf{a} to \mathbf{b} with answer Ans . Then

$$\text{OViol}_b(h_a \cdot e) = \text{SecP}_a : \text{DynOViol}(\mathbf{b}, \text{Ans}).$$

Proof: By Theorem 9.1 and Definition 9.1, an approximate fact f_0 is in $\text{OViol}_b(h_a)$ iff there exist a triple $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$ in \mathbf{OVT} and a substitution $\sigma \in \text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$ such that

1. $f\sigma = f_0$;
2. $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$ contains some code call condition $\text{in}(E, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots))$ where E is the last event of Hist_a .

Algorithm 9.1 (Dynamic Security Check) $\text{SecP}_a : \text{DynOViol}(\mathbf{b} : \text{AgentName}, \text{Ans} : \text{Answer})$

```

(★ output: an overestimation  $\text{OVT}_{\text{now}}$  of the set of secrets ★)
(★ that would be violated if  $\text{Ans}$  were returned to  $\mathbf{b}$  ★)

 $\text{OVT}_{\text{now}} := \emptyset;$ 
(★  $\text{Hist}_a$  is temporarily extended with answer message  $e$  ★)
 $e := \text{new}(\text{AnswerMessage});$ 
 $e.\text{sender} := \mathbf{a};$ 
 $e.\text{receiver} := \mathbf{b};$ 
 $e.\text{answer} := \text{Ans};$ 
 $e.\text{SendTime} := \text{now};$ 
execute  $\text{insert\_answ}(e);$ 
(★  $\text{OVT}$ 's tuples are evaluated against the extended history ★)
for all tuples  $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$  in  $\text{OVT}$  do
    for all  $\sigma$  in  $\text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$  do
        for all  $\text{in}(V, \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve\_answ}(\dots))$  in  $\chi_{\text{hist}}\sigma$  do
            if  $V = e$  then  $\text{OVT}_{\text{now}} := \text{OVT}_{\text{now}} \cup \{f\sigma\};$ 
(★  $\text{Hist}_a$  is restored ★)
execute  $\text{delete}(e);$ 
return( $\text{OVT}_{\text{now}}$ );
end.

```

Now, Algorithm 9.1 clearly returns all and only the $f\sigma$ satisfying the above properties. The theorem follows immediately. ■

We say that OVT is *bounded* iff there is an integer k such that for every triple $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$ in OVT , χ_{hist} contains at most k variables in it. When OVT is bounded, it is now easy to see that the dynamic security check algorithm above is polynomial in the size of the history and the size of OVT . Boundedness is a condition satisfied in most practical applications — after all we rarely need to execute code call conditions with more than (say) 100 variables in it.

9.2 Static/Combined Security Verification Algorithm

The dynamic security verification algorithm defined in the preceding section performs a polynomial run time test that agent \mathbf{a} must execute whenever another agent \mathbf{b} makes a request. In contrast, static security verification tries to ensure *prior* to deploying an agent, that the agent's way of answering queries is secure independently of the histories that actually arise over time. In order to implement static security, the developer of an agent \mathbf{a} must specify an overestimate posH_a^+ of histories that \mathbf{a} may participate in in the future. This can be done via a set of rules that the agent developer must write.

Definition 9.2 (Self approximation Program) *Agent \mathbf{a} 's self approximation program is a finite set R_{sif} of rules having the form*

$$\text{in}(e, \text{Hist}_a : \text{fun}(\text{args})) \leftarrow \chi_{\text{cmp}},$$

where fun is one of the functions of package Hist_a , args is a suitable list of arguments, and χ_{cmp} is a comparison constraint.

Intuitively, the rules of R_{sif} are used jointly with the rules in the agent approximation program \mathbf{AAP}_b^a to derive a set of comparison constraints χ_{cmp} by iteratively performing derivations. If any such χ_{cmp} is satisfiable, then a security violation may occur. Before proceeding to define the static security verification algorithm, we first present an intermediate definition.

Definition 9.3 ($\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$) Suppose χ_{hist} is a set of history conditions, and

$$\chi_0 = \mathbf{in}(e', \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{args})).$$

Then we use $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$ to denote the set of history conditions obtained from χ_{hist} by adding the constraints:

- $e.\text{time} \leq \text{now}$ for each code call of the form $\mathbf{in}(e, \text{Hist}_a : \text{fun}(\dots, w))$ in χ_{hist} ,
- if w has the form Opt , then $e.\text{time Opt}$ is added to χ_{hist} where $\mathbf{in}(e, \text{Hist}_a : \text{fun}(\dots, w))$ is in χ_{hist} , $e.\text{time} = \text{now}$ to χ_{hist} ,
- $e.\text{time} = \text{now}$ is added to χ_{hist} for a selected code call condition of the form $\mathbf{in}(e', \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{args}))$ in χ_{hist} .

Note that the last condition above will be true iff e' is the last event in Hist_a . It is important to note that depending upon which $\chi_0 = \mathbf{in}(e', \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{args}))$ is selected from χ_{hist} , the definition of $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$ changes — hence, we use the notation $\text{EXT}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$ to denote the set of all $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$ for χ_0 in χ_{hist} having the form $\mathbf{in}(e', \text{Hist}_a : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{args}))$. The following example shows the construction of $\text{EXT}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$.

Example 9.3 Consider the χ_{hist} of the only tuple in the $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{now}}$ computed in Example 9.2. It contains one call to $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$, namely,

$$\chi_0 =_{\text{def}} \mathbf{in}(\text{Ev}_4, \text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \mathbf{in}(\text{L1}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T1})), -))$$

Thus, the extended condition in this example is:

$$\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0) = \chi_{\text{hist}} \ \& \ \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \leq \text{now} \ \& \ \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} = \text{now}.$$

If the last parameter of retrieve_answ were—say—“ $> T_9$ ”, then $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$ would contain also a constraint $\text{Ev}_4.\text{time} > T_9$.

We are now ready to specify the algorithm for static security checks. As mentioned earlier, this function extends the derivations from \mathbf{AAP}_b^a with derivations from R_{sif} , until a set of comparison constraints χ_{cmp} is obtained. If χ_{cmp} is satisfiable, then a security violation may occur. In practice, the algorithm uses the precomputed derivations stored in \mathbf{OVT} , and computes only the derivations from R_{sif} . It returns a modified violation table $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$ corresponding to possible security violations.

Algorithm 9.2 (Static Security Check) $\text{SecP}_a : \text{StaticOViol}(\mathbf{b} : \text{AgentName})$

(\star output: a modified table $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$ \star)

$\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}} := \emptyset;$

(\star \mathbf{OVT} 's tuples are evaluated using R_{sif} \star)

for all tuples $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$ **in** \mathbf{OVT} **do**

for all $\chi'_{\text{hist}} \in \text{EXT}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}})$ **do**

for all deriv. $\chi'_{\text{hist}} \xrightarrow{R_{\text{sif}}^{\text{mg } \theta}} \chi_{\text{cmp}}$ *such that χ_{cmp} is a comparison constraint*
 do if $\text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{cmp}}) \neq \emptyset$ **then** $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}} := \mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}} \cup \{\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle\};$

return($\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$);

end.

The intuition is that if a tuple of the form $\langle \mathbf{b}, f, \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle$ is in $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$, then χ_{hist} might become true at some future point in time (according to R_{sif}), and in that case, \mathbf{b} might violate f . In other words, the static security check coincides with ensuring that

$$\text{SecP}_a : \text{StaticOViol}(\mathbf{b}) = \emptyset.$$

The following example revisits the Tank Example and illustrates the use of the static security algorithm.

Example 9.4 Consider two possible cases. In the first case, the `tank1` agent does not provide information on its fuel level in the last 10 minutes to the `track` agent. In this case we will show that `tank1` is statically secure. In the second scenario `tank1` may tell the `track` agent its fuel level in the last 7 minutes. We will show that in this case `tank1` may indirectly disclose a secret.

Case 1 In this implementation, all answers of the form $\text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T}))$ satisfy $\text{T} \leq \text{now} - 11$. This can be expressed by the following self-approximation rule:

$$(r8) \quad \text{in}(\text{E}, \text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(\text{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\text{T})), \text{W})) \leftarrow \text{T} \leq \text{now} - 11.$$

Returning to the χ_{hist} of the only tuple in $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{now}}$ of `tank1`. The extended condition $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$ (see Example 9.3) can be evaluated using (r8), which yields the set of constraints

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{\text{cmp}} = & \text{T}_1 \leq \text{now} - 11 \ \& \\ & \text{T3}_4 \geq \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \ \& \\ & \text{Y}_5 \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ \text{T}_1 < \text{T2}_5 \ \& \\ & \text{T}_1 \geq \text{now} - 10 \ \& \\ & \text{L1} = \text{low} \ \& \\ & \text{T} = \text{now} \ \& \\ & \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \leq \text{now} \ \& \\ & \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} = \text{now}. \end{aligned}$$

The first row comes from (r8), while the others were already in $\text{ext}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}, \chi_0)$. This set of constraints is not satisfiable because it contains the mutually incompatible constraints $T_1 \leq \text{now} - 11$ and $T_1 \geq \text{now} - 10$. Thus, our static security check proves that providing the fuel level service is secure as far as track is concerned. We recall the main assumptions (encoded in the approximation rules) that support this result:

- agent track may get all sorts of information from agents different from tank1;
- The track's state may contain any subset (possibly all) of the data obtained from other agents;
- The track may derive tank1's current position from its region and its being low in fuel in the last 10 minutes.

The security check certifies that under the above conditions, the track agent will never violate tank1's current position due to tank1's answers. That is, the derivation involving $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$ leads (with (r8)) to an unsatisfiable conjunction of comparison constraints χ_{cmp} . In this case, $\text{Sol}(\chi_{\text{cmp}}) = \emptyset$ and hence no tuple is added to OVT_{opt} (see the above algorithm). The other derivations never mention $\text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}}$; this implies that $\text{EXT}_{\text{now}}(\chi_{\text{hist}}) = \emptyset$; therefore, no tuples of OVT_{opt} are obtained from such derivations. It follows that

$$\text{SecP}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{StaticOViol}(\text{track}) = \emptyset,$$

and hence, tank1 is statically secure.

Case 2 Suppose R_{sif} is extended with a corresponding rule

$$(r8') \quad \text{in}(\mathbf{E}, \text{Hist}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{retrieve_answ}(\text{tank1}, \text{track}, \text{in}(\mathbf{L}, \text{tank1} : \text{fuel_level}(\mathbf{T})), \mathbf{W})) \leftarrow \mathbf{T} \leq \text{now} - 7.$$

Now there would be another derivation $\chi_{\text{hist}} \xrightarrow{\theta}_{R_{\text{sif}}} \chi'_{\text{cmp}}$ (where χ_{hist} is defined as in the previous case), such that

$$\begin{aligned} \chi'_{\text{cmp}} = & T_1 \leq \text{now} - 7 \ \& \\ & T3_4 \geq \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \ \& \\ & L = \text{low} \ \& \\ & Y_5 \neq \text{tank1} \ \& \ T_1 < T2_5 \ \& \\ & T_1 \geq \text{now} - 10 \ \& \\ & T = \text{now} \ \& \\ & \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} \leq \text{now} \ \& \\ & \text{Ev}_4.\text{time} = \text{now}. \end{aligned}$$

These comparison constraints are satisfiable with any T_1 such that $\text{now} - 10 \leq T_1 \leq \text{now} - 7$, and hence

$$\text{SecP}_{\text{tank1}} : \text{StaticOViol}(\text{track}) = \{ \langle \text{track}, \text{in}(\mathbf{P}, \text{tank1} : \text{location}(\text{now})), \chi_{\text{hist}} \rangle \}.$$

This means that tank1 may indirectly disclose the secret if condition χ_{hist} becomes true at some point.

In fact, we can combine static and dynamic security verification by: (i) removing all entries from \mathbf{OVT} whose history conditions will never be satisfied (according to the self-approximation rules R_{sf}). Now, if R_{sf} is correct, then we may replace the table \mathbf{OVT} by $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$ in the Dynamic Security check algorithm given earlier in the paper. Doing so has the following obvious advantages:

- dynamic security verification becomes more efficient, because less entries have to be considered;
- the resulting histories are in general more cooperative than statically secure histories, because those services which are not guaranteed to be secure at compile time (given the necessarily imprecise predictions about \mathbf{a} 's future histories) are given another choice at run-time, instead of being restricted a priori.

The following example revisits the Tank Example and illustrates the working of combined security verification.

Example 9.5 *In the scenario of the first case of Example 9.4, the combined check would return an empty table $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$; this would automatically turn off run-time verification. The second case of Example 9.4 is less fortunate: there, $\mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}}$ coincides with \mathbf{OVT} , and no advantage is obtained at run-time. It is possible to find intermediate cases where $\emptyset \subset \mathbf{OVT}_{\text{opt}} \subset \mathbf{OVT}$.*

10 Related Work

Most research on agent security deals with issues related to the usage of agents on the Web. Attempts have been made to answer questions such as, “Is it safe to click on a given hyperlink”? or “If I send this program out into the Web to find some bargain CD’s, will it get cheated?” (e.g., [13, 14]). Others try to develop methods for finding intruders who are executing programs not normally executed by “honest” users or agents [15]. In contrast, in this paper, we focus on data security and action security in multi-agent environments.

A significant body of work has also gone into ensuring that agents neither crash their host nor abuse its resources. Most mobile-agent systems protect the hosts by [22]: (1) cryptographically verifying the identity of the agent’s owner, (2) assigning access restrictions to the agent based on the owner’s identity, and (3) allowing the agent to execute in a secure execution environment that can enforce these restrictions [57]. Java agent security relies mainly on the idea of that an applet’s actions are restricted to its “sandbox,” an area of the web browser dedicated to that applet [21]. Java developers claim that their Java 2 platform provides both system security and information security [26].

An interesting approach for safe execution of untrusted code is the Proof-Carrying Code (PCC) technique [41]. In a typical instance of PCC, a code receiver establishes a set of safety rules that guarantee safe behavior of programs, and the code producer creates a formal safety proof that proves, for the untrusted code, adherence to the safety rules. Then, the receiver is able to use a simple and fast proof validator to check, with certainty, that the proof is valid and hence the untrusted code is safe to execute. An important advantage of this technique is that although there might be a large amount of effort in establishing

and formally proving the safety of the untrusted code, almost the entire burden of doing this is on the code producer. The code consumer, on the other hand, has only to perform a fast, simple, and easy-to-trust proof-checking process.

Campbell and Qian [10] address security issues in a mobile computing environment using a mobile agent based security architecture. This security architecture is capable of supporting dynamic application specific security customization and adaptation. In essence the idea is to embed security functions in mobile agents to enable runtime composition of mobile security systems. The implementation is based on OMG's *CORBA* distributed object orientation technology and Java-based distributed programming environment. Gray Campbell and Qian [10] address security issues in a mobile computing environment using a mobile agent based security architecture. This security architecture is capable of supporting dynamic application specific security customization and adaptation. In essence the idea is to embed security functions in mobile agents to enable runtime composition of mobile security systems. The implementation is based on OMG's *CORBA* distributed object orientation technology and Java-based distributed programming environment. Gray et al. consider a problem of protecting a group of machines which do not belong to the same administrative control. They propose a market-based approach in which agents pay for their resources.

Less attention has been devoted to the opposite problem, that is, protecting mobile agents from their hosts [45]. An example of how to protect Java mobile agents is given in [42]. Hohl [25] proposed to protecting mobile agents from attackers by not giving the attacker enough time to manipulate the data and code of the agent. He proposed that this can be achieved by a combination of a *code mess up* and *limited lifetime of code and data* which he describes. Farmer et al. [19] use a *state appraisal* mechanism which checks if some invariants of the agent's state hold (e.g., relationships among variables) when an agent reaches a new execution environment. Vigna [56] presents a mechanism to detect possible illegal modification of a mobile agent which is based on post-mortem analysis of data—called *traces*—that are collected during agent execution. The traces are used for checking the agent program against a supposed history of execution.

At the same level of abstraction, it is necessary to deal with issues of identity verification and message exchange protection [55]. For example, Thirunavukkarasu et al. proposed an architecture for KQML which is based on cryptographic techniques. It allows agents to verify the identity of other agents, detect message integrity violations, protect the privacy of messages and ensure non-repudiation of message origin. The techniques and methodologies which we presented in this paper rely on the assumption that the above problems and other network security problems [46] are dealt with correctly by the underlying implementation.

Zapf et al. [63] consider security threats to both hosts and agents in electronic markets. They describe the preliminary security facilities implemented in their agent system AMETAS. They do not provide a formal model or an experimental results to evaluate their system.

Agent data security has many analogies with security in databases. This field has been studied intensively, e.g. [5, 6, 9, 11, 28, 39, 60]. While this work is significant, none of it has focused on agents. We attempt to build on top of existing approaches. However, data security in autonomous agents environments raises new problems. In particular, no central authority can maintain security, but rather participants in the environment should be responsible for maintaining it.

Problems of authentication and authorization arise when databases operate in an open environment [7]. Bina et al. propose a framework for solving these problems using WWW information servers and a modified version of the NCSA Mosaic. Berkovits et al. [4] consider this problem in mobile agent systems by modeling the trust relation between the principals of the mobile agents. We do not consider the authentication problem in our work, but rather assume that methods such as developed in [7] are available. Usually these methods used cryptography and electronic signatures techniques. A tutorial text on such techniques can be found in [49].

Formal models for verifying security of protocols for authentication, key distribution, or information sharing may have some similarities with our formal model. Heintze and Tygar [24] present a simple model which includes the notions of traces (similar to our histories), agent states and beliefs. Our notions are more general than theirs. For example, the internal state of each agent in their model consists of three components: (1) the set of messages and keys known to the agent; (2) the set of messages and keys believed by the agent to be secret (and with whom the secrets are shared); and (3) the set of nonces recently generated by the agent. We do not make any restrictions on the agents' states and we assume that an agent can infer new information from its beliefs.

We also define the notion of approximating agent security and provide a language within which the developer of an agent can express the approximations that its agent must use. Their system is used to verify the security of cryptographic protocols. They present an interesting result concerning a composition of two secure protocols. They state sufficient conditions on two secure protocols A and B such that they may be combined to form a new secure protocol C.

In some systems agents are used to maintain security. For example, in the architecture presented in [3] of Java-based agents for information retrieval, there are two security agents: Message Security Agent (MSA) and Controller Security Agents (CSA). The MSA deals with services relating to the exchange of messages. The CSA provides services to check adequate use of resources by detecting anomalies. We do not consider the basic security problems provided by the security agents of [3]. We propose that the higher-level security issues considered in this paper will be dealt with by the *IMPACT* agents themselves, and not delegated to separate servers.

Security agents are also used in Distributed Object Kernel (DOK) project [53] for enforcing security policies in distributed and heterogeneous environments. There are three levels of agents. Top level agents are aware of all the activities that are happening in the system (or have already happened) . Based on this information the agents of the top layer delegate functions to the appropriate agents. In the environments which we consider, agents cannot have information on all the activities that are happening and each agent should maintains its data and action security.

He et al. [23] proposed to implement the authorities of authentication verification service systems as autonomous software agents, called security agents, instead of building a static monolithic hierarchy as in the traditional Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) implementations. One of the open questions they present is: "How to define a suitable language for users to describe their security policy and security protocols so that the agent delegates of a user can safely transact electronic business on his behalf?" We believe that the language and framework presented in this paper can be used for such purpose, in addition to the original purpose of programming individual agents to maintain their data and action security.

Foner [20] discusses security problems in a multi-agent matchmaker system named Yenta. *IMPACT* agents do not have access to other agents' data as Yenta's agents have. Each agent is responsible for its own data security. We believe that this approach will lead to more secure multi-agents systems.

Soueina et al. [48] present a language for programming agents acting in multi-agent environments. It is possible to give an agent commands such as "lie(action())" indicating that lying may be needed when the action is performed, "zone(action*)" that can be used to classify some agents as being hostile etc. Their work is based on first order logic and on concepts from game theory, but no formal semantics is given.

Other distributed object oriented systems provide some security services. *CORBA* [43], an object request broker framework, provides security services, such as identification and authentication of human users and objects, and security of communication between objects. These services are not currently provided by *IMPACT*, and their implementation is left for future work. *CORBA* provides some simple authorization and access control. Our model allows the application of more sophisticated security policies using the ideas of approximations of agents beliefs, state and consequence relations.

Zeng and Wang [64] proposed an Internet conceptual security model using Telos. They try to detect attacks based on monitoring and analyzing of audit information. In their framework a designer can construct ontology of Internet security and then develops a set of rules for security maintenance. Their examples consider identifying security problems by analyzing network transactions. It is not clear from the papers how their rules will be used to preserve security and they do not consider data security problems.

Concordia is a framework for development and management of network-efficient mobile agent applications for accessing information anytime, anywhere and on any device supporting Java. Agent protection in *Concordia* [30] refers to the process of protecting agent's contents during transmission over the net. Prior to transmission an agent's byte-codes, member data and state information are encrypted through a combination of symmetric and public cryptography. In order to provide reliability, *Concordia* employs a persistent store to periodically checkpoint an agent. But, this on-disk representation may impose security risks, hence *Concordia* also encrypts this on-disk representation of an agent.

Concordia agents are mobile, they can execute anywhere on the network where they are authorized. These host servers need to be protected. Server resource protection involves two concepts: agent identification and resource permission. An agent's user identity uniquely identifies the user who launched the agent. User identity consists of either an individual user name, or a group name, plus the password which is always stored in a secure format. An agent roaming the network carries its identity. Resource permissions, which are built on top of standard Java security classes, are used to allow or deny access to machine resources.

IBM *Aglets* [52] provide a framework for development and management of mobile agents. An aglet is a Java object having mobility and persistence and its own thread of execution. Security services in *Aglets* [34] includes authentication of the user, the host, the code and the agent, ensuring the integrity of the agent, protecting the confidential information an agent may carry, auditing and non-repudiation, i.e., an agent or server cannot deny a communication exchange if it already took place. *Aglets* provide an auditing service which records all security related activities of an agent. An aglet has credentials to indicate the implementer and also the person who launched it. A server can control and limit the

behavior of aglets it receives through these credentials. The security model of *Aglets* [34] supports the definition of security policies and describes how these policies are enforced. The model includes principles which are entities whose identity can be authenticated. The principles include the aglet, the aglet owner (the person who launched the aglet), the aglet manufacturer (the person who implemented the aglet), the context, the domain, and domain authority. Contexts and servers are in charge of keeping the host operating system safe. A server defines a security policy to protect local machine resources. Contexts host visiting aglets and provide access to local resources. Domains identify a group of servers. Finally, a network domain authority keeps its network secure so that visiting aglets execute their tasks safely.

The security model of *Aglets*, [34] also includes permissions, which define the capabilities of executing aglets by setting access restrictions on resource usage. [34] define permissions as a resource, such as a file, together with appropriate actions such as reading and writing. Permissions include file permissions (to control access the local file system), network permissions (to control access to the network), window system (to open a window), context permissions (to use services of the context), and aglet permissions (to control the methods provided by an aglet).

Sloman, Lupu and their colleagues [36, 37, 62] developed a role-based security model for distributed object systems in a large-scale, multi-organizational enterprise. In their model a role can be defined in terms of the authorization and obligation policies. Such policies specify what actions an agent or a person having this role is permitted or is obliged to do on a set of target objects. This permits an individuals to be assigned or removed from positions without respecifying policies for the role. In particular, the authorization policies are used for access control and the obligation policies define actions to be performed by administrators or security components when events such as security violations are detected, e.g., the security administrator must investigate all sequences of 5 login failures from the same source.

We also presented a language which enables a designer to specify the actions the agent obliged to take, actions that is forbidden to take, and actions which it is allowed to take. In addition, we presented a theory and mechanisms in which an agent's state, history and beliefs dynamically effect the data it can access and the services available to it. On the other hand, we do not support role assignments and therefore "policies" should be specified for each individual agent.

11 Conclusions

As more and more "agent" applications are being built and deployed on the Internet, and as many multiagent applications involve "teams" of cooperating agents that dynamically form coalitions, there is a growing realization that security could be a problem.

In this paper, we have taken a set of first steps towards addressing how an agent developer can encode security mechanisms into an agent that she is building. Specifically, we have made the following contributions:

1. We have presented a (very) abstract definition of an agent and shown that for such agents to maintain security, several types of mathematical structures (history, conse-

quence relation, etc.) need to be maintained.

2. As these structures often require an agent \mathbf{a} to have information about arbitrary agents \mathbf{b} , and as this information may be hard to obtain in most practical applications, we have developed the concept of an “approximation” of this information, which leads to a notion of “approximate” security. We show that approximate security leads to security (under appropriate conditions).
3. We then provide a number of undecidability results showing that the general problem of maintaining data/action security is undecidable.
4. Then we propose a rule based logical language within which an agent developer may express approximations that his agent will use to approximate other agents.
5. We present algorithms for static and dynamic security checking which may be used once the agent developer has specified the approximation he wishes to use. We show that these algorithms are sound and complete and that (under appropriate assumptions) they have polynomial data complexity.

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