



UNIVERSITY OF TRENTO

DEPARTMENT OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

38050 Povo – Trento (Italy), Via Sommarive 14
<http://www.dit.unitn.it>

GENERALIZED XML SECURITY VIEWS

Gabriel Kuper, Fabio Massacci and Nataliya Rassadko

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Gabriel Kuper

kuper@acm.org

Fabio Massacci

Fabio.Massacci@unitn.it

Nataliya Rassadko

Nataliya.Rassadko@dit.unitn.it

Università di Trento

Via Sommarive 14, 38050 Povo, Trento, Italy

Abstract

We investigate a generalization of the notion of XML security view introduced by Stoica and Farkas [22] and later refined by Fan et al. [12]. The model consists of access control policies specified over DTDs with XPath expression for data-dependent access control policies. We provide the notion of *security views* for characterizing information accessible to authorized users. This is a transformed (sanitized) DTD schema that can be used by users for query formulation and optimization. Then we show an algorithm to materialize “authorized” version of the document from the view and an algorithm to construct the view from an access control specification. We show that our view construction combined with materialization produces the same result as the direct application of the DTD access specification on the document. To avoid the overhead of view materialization in query answering, user queries should undergo rewriting so that they are valid over the original DTD schema, and thus the query answer is computed from the original XML data. We provide an algorithm for query rewriting and show its performance compared with the naive approach, i.e. the approach when query is evaluated over materialized view. We also propose a number of generalizations of possible security policies.

1 Introduction

XML [5] has become the prime standard for data representation and exchange on the Web. In light of the sensitive nature of many business data applications, this also raises the important issue of security in XML and the selective exposure of information to different classes of users based on their access privileges.

To address this issue we need simple, powerful, fine grained authorization mechanisms that

1. can control access to both content and structure;
2. can be enforced without annotating the entire document;
3. still provide a “sanitized” schema information to users.

While specifications and enforcement of access control are well understood for traditional databases [10, 17, 20, 21], the study of security for XML is less established. Although a number of security models have been proposed for XML [4, 7, 9, 16, 18, 19], these models do not meet criterion 3 above and, to a lesser extent, criterion 2. More specifically, these proposed models enforce security constraints at the document level by fully annotating the entire XML document/database [7, 4, 9]; these require expensive view materialization, and complicate the consistency and integrity maintenance.

The most important limitation of the mainstream models is the lack of support for authorized users to query the data: they either do not provide in advance any schema information of the accessible data, or expose the entire original document DTD (or its “loosened” variant). If no schema is provided, or cannot be derived from the chosen access control model, the solution is hardly practical for large and complex documents. If we want to query an hospital databases just to know who is the nurse on duty in ward 13, there is little sense in sanitizing the entire databases (clinical records and all) which is largely irrelevant for us.

Furthermore, fixing the access control policies at the instance level without providing or computing a schema, makes it difficult for the security officer to understand how the authorized view of a document for a user or a class of users will actually look like.

On the other side, revelation of excessive schema information might lead to security breaches: an unauthorized user can deduct or infer confidential information via multiple queries (essentially if the authorization specifications are not closed under intersection) and analysis of the schema even if just accessible nodes are queried.

To overcome this limitations, the notion of XML security views was initially proposed by Stoica and Farkas [22] and later refined by Fan et al. [12]. The basic idea is to provide a schema that describes the data that can be seen by the user, as well as a (hidden) set of Xpath expressions that describe how to compute the data in the view from the original data.

1.1 Our Contribution.

We generalize the notion of XML security views to arbitrary DAG DTDs and to conditional constraints expressed in a very expressive XPath fragment. For each view, a security specification is a simple extension of the document DTD D with security annotations and security policies exploited to obtain full annotation from partial one. This specification has the advantage that can be easily implemented with little or no modification to state-of-the-art DTD parsers and offer security officers an intuitive feeling of the actual look of sanitized document.

From the specification, we derive a security view V consisting of a view DTD D_v and a function σ defined via XPath queries. The view DTD D_v shows only the data that is accessible according to the specification. The view is provided to the users so that they can formulate their queries over the view. The function σ is withheld from the users, and is used to extract accessible data from the actual XML documents to populate a structure conforming to D_v .

Query optimization can then be performed by users (using security view) and then by the system (by expanding and optimizing the selection function). Thus, it is no longer necessary to process an entire document and only relevant data is retrieved. Moreover, the users can only access data via D_v , and no information beyond the view can be inferred from (multiple) queries posed on D_v .

Thus the users can only access data via D_v , and no information beyond the view can be inferred from (multiple) queries targeted at D_v .

In the current paper, we also implement and test experimentally the performance of the security view model described above. To this end, we define a rewriting algorithm that takes a user query over the a security view, and rewrites the query into a query over the original database. We then compare the cost of evaluating this query with that of evaluating the original query over a materialized view of the data, and show that significant performance improvements.

More specifically, the main contributions of the paper include:

- A refined version of access policies over XML documents using conditional annotations at DTD level;
- A notion of security view that enforces the security constraints at the schema level and provides a view DTD characterizing them;
- An efficient algorithm for materializing security views, which ensures that views conform to view DTDs;

- An algorithm for deriving a security view from a specification of security annotations;
- An algorithm for deriving a security view from a specification of security policies as XPath expressions;
- A query rewriting algorithm and its evaluation.

1.2 Plan of the paper

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. First we present preliminary notions on XML and XPath in Sec. 2. In Sec. 3 we provide a motivating example. Next we introduce the notion of security specification (Sec. 4) and the notion of view (Sec. 5). We show how to materialize a view and that using views is equivalent to annotating directly the document (Sec. 6). In Sec. 7 we describe classification of security policies with respect to consistency and completeness properties. Some extensions of our model are outlined in Sec. 8. In Sec. 9 we show algorithm for rewriting queries. Implementation issues are discussed in Sec. 10. Evaluation of rewriting algorithm is provided in Sec. 11. Finally, we conclude the paper in Sec. 12.

2 A Primer On XML and XPath

We first review DTDs (Document Type Definitions [5]) and XPath [8] queries.

Definition 2.1: A DTD D is a triple (Ele, P, root) , where Ele is a finite set of *element types*; root is a distinguished type in Ele , and P is a function defining element types such that for each A in Ele , $P(A)$ is a regular expression over $Ele \cup \{\text{str}\}$, where str is a special type denoting PCDATA. We use ϵ to denote the empty word, and “+”, “,”, and “*” to denote disjunction, concatenation, and the Kleene star, respectively. We refer to $A \rightarrow P(A)$ as the *production* of A . For all element types B occurring in $P(A)$, we refer to B as a *subelement type* (or a *child type*) of A and to A as a *generator* (or a *parent type*) of B . \square

We assume that DTD is non-recursive, i.e., that the graph has no cycles. Sec. 8 discusses this limitation.

Definition 2.2: An XML tree T conforms to a DTD D iff

1. the root of T is the unique node labelled with root ;
2. each node in T is labelled either with an Ele type A , called an A *element*, or with str , called a *text node*;
3. each A element has a list of children of elements and text nodes such that their labels form a word in the regular language defined by $P(A)$;
4. each text node carries a str value and is a leaf of the tree.

We call T an *instance* of D if T conforms to D . \square

Example 2.1: Consider a DTD describing database of applications for PhD program. The DTD D is defined to be (Ele, P, db) , where

```
Ele = {applications, application, student-data, department, degree,
waiver, name, recomm-letter, evaluator, title, institution,
letter, rating, English, MS, PhD, free-text, PDF, TXT,
unreliable, reason, favorable, unfavorable};
```

and the function P is defined as follows (we omit the definition of elements whose type is str):

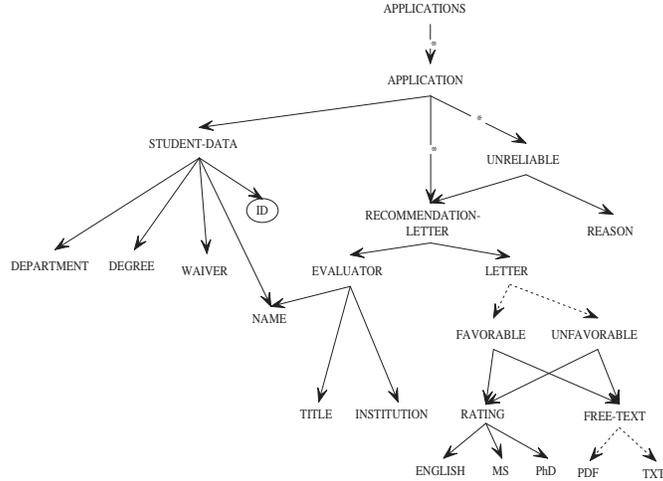


Figure 1: The graph representation of the document DTD D

$P(\text{applications})$	$= (\text{application}^*)$
$P(\text{application})$	$= (\text{student-data}, \text{recomm-letter}^*, \text{unreliable}^*)$
$P(\text{student-data})$	$= (\text{department}, \text{degree}, \text{waver}, \text{name})$
$P(\text{recomm-letter})$	$= (\text{evaluator}, \text{letter})$
$P(\text{evaluator})$	$= (\text{name}, \text{title}, \text{institution})$
$P(\text{letter})$	$= (\text{favorable} \text{unfavorable})$
$P(\text{favorable})$	$= (\text{rating}, \text{free-text})$
$P(\text{unfavorable})$	$= (\text{rating}, \text{free-text})$
$P(\text{rating})$	$= (\text{English}, \text{MS}, \text{PhD})$
$P(\text{free-text})$	$= (\text{PDF} \text{TXT})$
$P(\text{unreliable})$	$= (\text{recomm-letter}, \text{reason})$

An XML tree conforming to D consists of a list of *applications* for PhD/MS program. Each application is initiated by a student described via *student-data* with an attribute *id* uniquely identifying student and representing student’s login name. *Student-data* is composed of *name*, desired *degree* (PhD or MS) *department*, and *waiver*. The latter field may take values “true” or “false” and means that student does (does not) waive his/her right to inspect the content of recommendation letters. Application is supported by several letters of recommendation (*recomm-letter*), some of them can be classified as *unreliable* under some *reason*. Each letter has *letter* body and is provided by a separate *evaluator* having *name*, *title* and *institution* attributes. Evaluator places comments on applicant’s skills in *free-text* field, which is either *PDF* or *TXT* file, and rates applicant’s *English* proficiency, achievements during *MS* program and possible contribution in *PhD* program. Letters of recommendation are reviewed by admission committee and are assigned to a category *favorable* or *unfavorable* depending on the context.

The corresponding DTD is depicted on Fig. 1. □

Remark 2.1 Regular expressions in a DTD are 1-unambiguous as required by the XML Standard [5]. In contrast to [12], we consider DTDs defined with general (1-unambiguous) regular expressions.

We consider a class of XPath queries, which corresponds to the CoreXPath of Gottlob et al. [15] augmented with the union operator and atomic tests and which is denoted by Benedict et al. [12] as \mathcal{X} .

The XPath axes we consider as primitive are *child*, *parent*, *ancestor-or-self*, *descendant-or-self*, *self*. Gottlob, Koch and Pichler [15] show how the semantics of such axes can be computed in polynomial time. In

the sequel we denote by θ one of those primitive axes and by θ^{-1} its inverse. Notice that each primitive axis has its inverse within the same set of primitives. For instance `descendant-or-self-1` = `ancestor-or-self`.

Definition 2.3: An XPath expression in \mathcal{X} is defined by the following grammar:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle xpath \rangle & ::= \langle path \rangle \mid \langle '/' \rangle \langle path \rangle \\
\langle path \rangle & ::= \langle step \rangle (\langle '/' \rangle \langle step \rangle)^* \\
\langle step \rangle & ::= \theta \mid \theta [\langle ' \rangle \langle qual \rangle \langle ' \rangle] \mid \langle path \rangle \langle ' \cup ' \rangle \langle path \rangle \\
\langle qual \rangle & ::= A \mid \langle ' * ' \rangle \mid op \ c \mid \langle xpath \rangle \mid \\
& \quad \langle qual \rangle \text{ and } \langle qual \rangle \mid \langle qual \rangle \text{ or } \langle qual \rangle \mid \\
& \quad \text{not } \langle qual \rangle \mid \langle ' (\langle qual \rangle ' \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

where θ stands for an axis, c is a `str` constant, A is a label, op stands for one of `=`, `<`, `>`, `≤`, `≥`. The result of the *qual* production is called *qualifier* and is denoted by q . We denote by \mathcal{X}_{NoTest} the fragment build without the *op c* test. \square

For sake of readability, we ignore the difference between *xpath* and *path* we denote both with p . We also abbreviate `self` with ϵ , `child[A]/p` with A/p , `descendant-or-self[A]/p` with $//A/p$, $q[op \ c]$ with $q \ op \ c$ and $p = p_1/p_2$, where p_2 is $//p'_2$, is written p as $p_1//p'_2$. The ancestor axis is also abbreviated as $../$.

The semantics of XPath is obtained by adapting to our fragment the \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow , \mathcal{S}_\leftarrow , \mathcal{E} operators proposed by Gottlob et al. [15] and is identical to proposal of Benedickt et al. [3]. Intuitively $\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow[[p]](N)$ gives all nodes that are reachable from a node in N using the path p . The $\mathcal{S}_\leftarrow[[p]]$ functions gives all nodes from which a path p starts to arrive to queried node. The $\mathcal{E}[[q]]$ function evaluates qualifiers and returns all nodes that satisfy q .

For sake of readability we overload the θ -symbol to stand for both the semantics and the syntax of axes. So given a set of nodes N of a document T we have that $\theta(N) = \{m \mid n \theta m \text{ for } n \in N\}$. In other words, $\theta(N)$ returns the nodes that are reachable according the axis from a node in N . By $\mathcal{T}(A)$ we denote the set of nodes that have element type A . By $\mathcal{T}(\ast)$ we denote all nodes of a document.

The semantics of the other operators is shown in Fig. 2.

3 A Motivating Example

The need to provide users with a schema-level security view is illustrated by the access control requirements in Example 3.1.

Example 3.1: The applicant can access only his/her own data located under field `student-data`. Access to fields `favorable` and `unfavorable` is forbidden, while visibility of `rating` and `free-text` is established according to the accessibility to field `letter`. The latter is accessible if the `waliver` is `true` (data-dependent access). Moreover, the applicant should not be aware of reliability of the recommendation letters as the leakage of this information to recommenders might lead to diplomatic incidents. \square

How can such constraints be enforced? Cho et al. [7] and Bertino et al. [4] enforce these constraints directly on the XML document. Damiani et al. [9] express their security specifications as sets of XPath expressions. However they also transform their XPath specifications into an annotation of the entire document. So we have systems that do specify how to restrict access at the *data level*.

An important question remains unanswered: what schema information should be provided to the user? To formulate and process queries, the user needs a schema describing the accessible data. One solution, suggested by Damiani et al. [9], is to *loosen* the original DTD (make forbidden nodes optional). In some cases it is unacceptable to expose

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p]] (N) &= \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p]] (\{\text{root}\}) \\
\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[\theta[q]]] (N) &= \theta(N) \cap \mathcal{E} [[q]] \\
\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[\theta[q]/p]] (N) &= \theta(\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p]] (N)) \cap \mathcal{E} [[q]] \\
\\
\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[p_1 \cup p_2]] (N) &= \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p_1]] (N) \cup \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p_2]] (N) \\
\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[(p_1 \cup p_2)/p]] (N) &= \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p_1/p]] (N) \cup \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [[/p_2/p]] (N) \\
\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p]] &= \begin{cases} \{n \text{ occurs in } T\} & \text{if } \text{root} \in \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p]] \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[\theta[q]]] N &= \theta^{-1}(N \cap \mathcal{E} [[q]]) \\
\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[\theta[q]/p]] N &= \theta^{-1}(\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p]] \cap \mathcal{E} [[q]]) \\
\\
\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[p_1 \cup p_2]] &= \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p_1]] \cup \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p_2]] \\
\mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[(p_1 \cup p_2)/p]] &= \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p_1/p]] \cup \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p_2/p]] \\
\mathcal{E} [[A]] &= \mathcal{T}(A) \\
\mathcal{E} [[q_1 \text{ and } q_2]] &= \mathcal{E} [[q_1]] \cap \mathcal{E} [[q_2]] \\
\mathcal{E} [[q_1 \text{ or } q_2]] &= \mathcal{E} [[q_1]] \cup \mathcal{E} [[q_2]] \\
\mathcal{E} [[\text{not } q]] &= \{n \text{ occurs in } T\} \setminus \mathcal{E} [[q_2]] \\
\mathcal{E} [[/p]] &= \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} [[/p]]
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 2: The semantics of operators

even the loosened DTD to final user. To illustrate this, consider two permissible XPath queries about a letter of recommendation:

Q_1 /applications/application//evaluator

Q_2 /applications/application/recomm-letter/evaluator

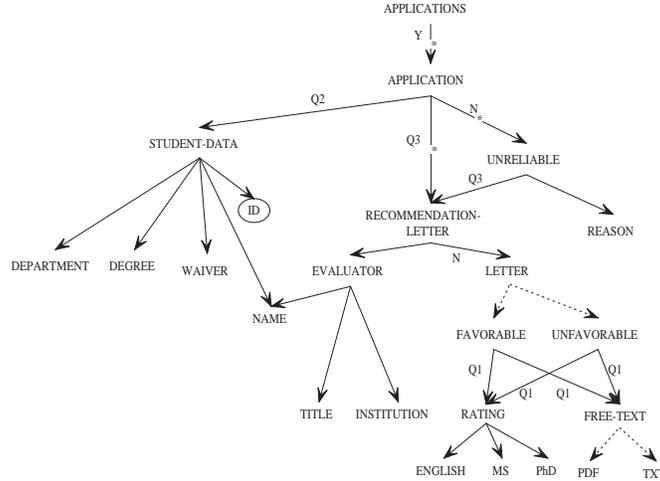
The query Q_1 finds all elements of type `evaluator` that are associated with recommendation letter (including those of unreliable category), while Q_2 returns only `evaluators` of reliable `recomm-letters`. Although most of the unreliable data is hidden, a look at the document DTD allows one to infer which letters are considered as unreliable: the `evaluators` in Q_1 that are not returned by Q_2 ; thus a security breach.

All `evaluators` are visible, but by different ways. The trick is to make requestor unable to distinguish those ways.

In traditional relational databases users access a *View* of the data and permissions are assigned to views [17, 20]. A user may be denied the knowledge of the existence of an attribute of a relational schema. What we need here is a view of the document (at the schema level) that the user can use for queries, but that hides not only data but also structural information.

We borrow from Stoica and Farkas [22] the notion of access control model for XML that specifies and enforces security constraints at the *schema* level. For the actual notation we refine and generalize the proposal from Fan et al. [12]: authorizations are defined on a document DTD by annotating element types with Y/N or XPath qualifiers, indicating their accessibility.

From such a specification we can then infer a *view DTD* D_v and a *selection function* σ defined via XPath queries. The view DTD D_v shows only the data that is accessible according to the specification. The view is provided to the users



(a) Security annotation defined at DTD level

$q_1 \doteq \text{ancestor}::\text{application}[\./\text{student-data}[\text{@id} = \$\text{login}]/\text{waiver}/\text{text}() = \text{"true"}];$
 $q_2 \doteq \./\text{student-data}[\./\text{@id} = \$\text{login}];$
 $q_3 \doteq \text{ancestor}::\text{application}[\./\text{student-data}[\text{@id} = \$\text{login}];$
 (b) Meaning of security annotation qualifiers

Figure 3: Security annotation for competing student

so that they can formulate their queries over the view. This means that the users can only access data via D_v , and no information beyond the view can be inferred from (multiple) queries targeted at D_v .

The function σ is withheld to the users, and is used to extract accessible data from the actual XML documents with XPath queries to populate a document structure conforming to D_v .

4 Security Specifications

In this section we present our access-control specification language. An *access specification* S is an extension of a document DTD D associating security annotations with productions of D .

Definition 4.1: A *authorization specification* S is a pair (D, ann) , where D is a (document) DTD, ann is a partial mapping such that, for each production $A \rightarrow P(A)$ and each child element type B in $P(A)$, $\text{ann}(A, B)$, if explicitly defined, is an annotation of the form:

$$\text{ann}(A, B) ::= Q[q] \mid Y \mid N$$

where $[q]$ is a qualifier in our fragment \mathcal{X} of XPath. A special case is the root of D , for which we define $\text{ann}(\text{root}) = Y$ by default. \square

Intuitively, annotating production rule $P(A)$ of the DTD with an unconditional annotation is a security constraint expressed at the schema level: Y or N indicates that the corresponding B children of A elements in an XML document conforming to the DTD will always be accessible (Y) or always inaccessible (N), no matter what the actual values of these elements in the document are. If $\text{ann}(A, B)$ is not explicitly defined, then B inherits the accessibility of A . On the other hand, if $\text{ann}(A, B)$ is explicitly defined it may *override* the accessibility of B obtained via propagation.

```

<!ELEMENT applications (application*)>
<!ELEMENT application (student-data, recommendation-letter*, unreliable*)>
<!ELEMENT unreliable (recommendation-letter, reason)>
<!ELEMENT student-data (department, degree, name, waiver)>
<!ELEMENT recommendation-letter (evaluator, letter)>
<!ELEMENT evaluator (title, institution, name)>
<!ELEMENT letter (favorable|unfavorable)>
<!ELEMENT favorable (rating, free-text)>
<!ELEMENT unfavorable (rating, free-text)>
<!ELEMENT rating (MS, PhD, English)>
<!ELEMENT free-text (TXT|PDF)>
<!ELEMENT reason (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT waiver (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT department (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT degree (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT name (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT title (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT institution (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT MS (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT PhD (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT English (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT TXT (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT PDF (#PCDATA)>

<!ATTLIST student-data id CDATA #IMPLIED>

<!ATTLIST applications
  hierarchy_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "topDown"
  local_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "closed"
  hierarchy_conflict_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "hierarchyFirst"
  value_conflict_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "denialFirst"
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">

<!ATTLIST application security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED "./student-data[@id=$login]">

<!ATTLIST rating security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "ancestor::*[self::application[./student-data[@id=$login]/waiver/text()='true']]">

<!ATTLIST free-text security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "ancestor::*[self::application[./student-data[@id=$login]/waiver/text()='true']]">

<!-- recommendation-letter tag should be visible under unreliable tag
if ancestor "application" is visible-->
<!ATTLIST recommendation-letter security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "ancestor::*[self::application[./student-data[@id=$login]]]">

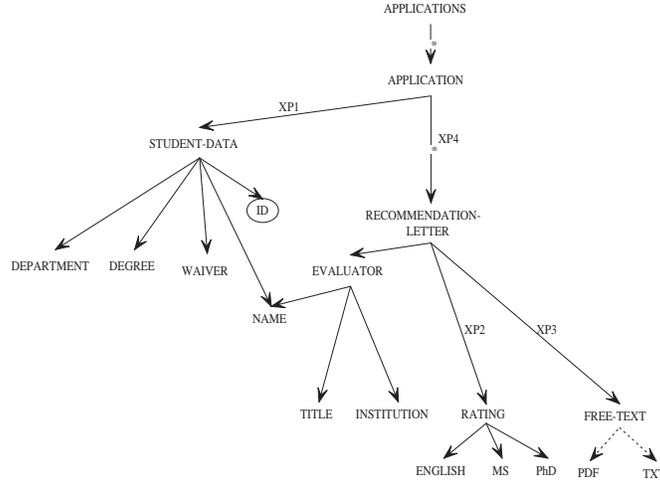
<!ATTLIST letter security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST unreliable security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">

```

Figure 4: Partially annotated DTD

At the data level, the intuition is the following: given an XML document T , the document is typed with respect to the DTD, and the annotations of the DTD are attached to the corresponding nodes of the document, resulting in a *partially annotated* XML document. Intuitively, given an XML tree T conforming to D , the specification S uniquely defines the accessibility of the elements of T . Since T is an instance of D and the regular expressions in D are 1-unambiguous, this implies that each B element v of T has a unique parent A element and a unique production that “parses” the A subtree. Then we convert the document T to a *fully annotated* one by labelling all of the unlabelled nodes with Y or N. This is done by evaluating the qualifiers and replacing them by Y or N annotations, and then by a suitable policy for completing the annotation of the yet labelled nodes of the tree. When everything is labelled we remove all N-labelled nodes from T .

We should emphasize that semantics of qualifiers presented in this paper is *different* from that of in [12]. According to [12] a false evaluation of the qualifier is considered as “no label” and requires the inheritance of an access label



(a) Security DTD view

$xp_1 = ./student-data[@id = \$login]$
 $xp_2 = ./letter/(favorable \cup unfavorable)/rating[q]$
 $xp_3 = ./letter/(favorable \cup unfavorable)/free-text[q]$
 $xp_4 = ./(\epsilon \cup unreliable)/recomm-letter$
 where $q = applications/application/student-data/waiver = "true"$
 (b) Meaning of XPath expressions

Figure 5: Security view for competing student

from the nearest labelled ancestors, while we assume that once evaluated on the document, a qualifier is mapped to either Y or N. In other words, our qualifiers are locally determined so that an administrator has a clear understanding of what will happen. In contrast with approach of Fan et al. it is not possible to predict what will happen unless the administrators has a clear view of the data in the “entire” document (if we allow for ancestors queries in XPath) which is unlikely to be the case for even moderately large documents.

Example 4.1: In Fig. 3(a) we show an example of security specification: paths to unconditionally allowed (forbidden) element types from their corresponding parents are marked with Y(N), and conditionally accessible element types are marked by qualifiers q_1 , q_2 and q_3 (Fig. 3(b)). $\$login$ is a dynamic variable that is assigned at run time and depends on the student’s login name. Fig. 4 shows an input DTD file that can be encoded according to the conditions of Example 3.1. Note that `application` and `recomm-letter` have accessibility condition q_1 and q_3 respectively, while accessibility of elements `rating`, `free-text` is described by qualifier q_2 . □

Example 4.2: The partial annotation generated by the policy in Figure 3(a) is extended to a full annotation by labelling the element types `favorable` and `unfavorable` under `letter` and `reason` under `unreliable` with N irrespectively of their position. On the other hand, `evaluator` under `recomm-letter` is labelled as Y. All the other element types labelling depends on the query evaluation. □

More sophisticated ways of annotation are presented in [14, 23]. In particular, [14] uses XQuery to define derivation access control rules from the existing ones that are organized as XACL privilege triples $\langle object, subject, access-right \rangle$ [19]. The proposal of [23] is based on the conception of Role Graph Model merged with the conception of RBAC for object-oriented databases.

The construction of a fully annotated document depends heavily on the overall security policy that is chosen to get

completeness [10]. The top-down procedure that we describe next is the result of *most-specific-takes-precedence* policy which simply says that an unlabelled node takes the security label of its first labelled ancestor. Damiani et al. [9] use a *closed* policy as default: if a node is not labeled then label it as N. We return to this issue in Sec. 7, where we extend our model to allow alternate propagation techniques.

Definition 4.2: Let (D, ann) be an authorization specification and T a XML document conforming to D . The *authorized version* T_A of T according to the authorization specification is obtained from T as follows:

1. Type T with respect to D and label nodes with ann values;
2. Evaluate qualifiers top down starting from the root and replace annotations by Y or N depending on the result;
3. For each unlabelled node, label it with the annotation of its nearest labelled ancestor;
4. Delete all nodes labelled with N from the result, making all children of a deleted node v into children of v 's parent.

The annotation of the document, before deleting nodes in the last step, is called the *full annotation* of T . □

Example 4.3: Fig. 5(a) shows the security view generated from the security specification in Fig. 3(a). It hides confidential information. Fig. 5(b) lists some of the XPath annotations that are used to populate the appropriate element types from the original document DTD. □

Since T is a tree (a node has only one ancestor) it is not possible to have a conflict on labelling. There are different policies to extend the labelling that may lead to conflicts. We discuss this later in Sec. 7.

The pruning algorithm is more severe than that used by Damiani et al. [9] who delete only subtrees that are entirely labelled N, and delete only the data from nodes labelled N with some descendant labelled Y. As a consequence, the authorized view T_A no longer conforms to the original DTD D , not even to its loosened variant.

Example 4.4: In example 3.1 since `unreliable` is forbidden, the user should not even know that it exists. So he receives documents without it. □

5 Security Views

We now turn to the enforcement of an access specification. To this end, we introduce the notion of *security view* which consists of two parts. The first part is a schema that is seen by the user, while the second part is a function that is hidden from the user, which describes how the data in the new schema should be derived from the original data. The intuition behind our approach is similar to that of security views for relational databases in multi-level security [17] and the notation is borrowed from [12].

We first present the syntactic definition of security views.

Definition 5.1: Let D be a DTD. A *security view* for D is a pair (D_v, σ) where D_v is a DTD and σ is a function from pairs of element types such that for each element type A in D_v and element type B occurring in $P(A)$, $\sigma(A, B)$ is an expression in \mathcal{X} . □

Definition 5.2: Let $S = (D_v, \sigma)$ be a security view. The semantics of S is a mapping from documents T conforming to D to documents T_S such that

1. T_S conforms to D_v
2. The nodes of T_S are a subset of the nodes of T , and their element type is unchanged.
3. For any node n of T which is in T_S , let A be the element type of n , and let B_1, \dots, B_m be the list of element types that occur in $P(A)$. Then the children of n in T_S are

$$\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq m} \mathcal{S} \rightarrow [|\sigma(A, B_i)|] (\{n\}) .$$

These nodes should be ordered according to the document order in the original document.

T_S is called the *materialized version* of T w.r.t. the view \mathcal{S} . □

Definition 5.3: A *valid* security view is one for which the semantics are always well-defined, i.e., if for every document T , its materialized version conforms to the security view DTD. □

Not all views are valid: wrong typing, violated cardinality constraints, and other problems could be all causes of of a view to be invalid. However, the views that we construct from an annotated DTD are valid.

Example 5.1: The view with the only production $\text{root} \rightarrow AA^*$ and $\sigma(\text{root} \rightarrow A, A) := (A = \text{“alice”})$, is not defined on the document having the string “alice” as the only A -child of root . □

Example 5.2: The view with the productions $\text{root} \rightarrow A$ and $A \rightarrow B$, where $\sigma(\text{root} \rightarrow A, A) := A$ and $\sigma(A \rightarrow B, B) = \text{parent/parent}$ is invalid on any documents because the resulted materialized document cannot be a tree. □

Security specification and views are related as follows.

Definition 5.4: Let (D, ann) be a authorization specification, and let $\mathcal{S} = (D_v, \sigma)$ be a security view for D . We say that \mathcal{S} is *data equivalent* to (D, ann) iff for every document T , conforming to D , the materialized version T_S coincides with the authorized version T_A . □

Two weaker characterizations are based on the notion of *data secrecy* and *data availability*¹.

Definition 5.5: Let (D, ann) be a authorization specification, and $\mathcal{S} = (D_v, \sigma)$ a security view for D .

1. \mathcal{S} guarantees *data secrecy* iff for every T conforming to D , and for every node n of T , if n occurs in T_S then n must also occur in the authorization version T_A .
2. \mathcal{S} guarantees *data availability* iff for every T conforming to D , and every node n of T , if n occurs in authorized tree T_A then n occurs in materialized version T_S .

□

Intuitively, a secrecy-preserving view assure us that no forbidden node is leaked whereas a availability-preserving view is a guarantee that no permitted node is held from legitimate principals. Obviously if a view is data equivalent, then it also guarantees secrecy and availability but the converse does not hold. Indeed a data equivalent view also “preserves the structure” of the original document. We leave such concept of structure preservation informal at this stage, though one may think to subsumption of XML schemas as a possible way to classify views.

¹Sometimes these notions are also termed consistency and completeness in the literature [10] but that terminology can be misleading in our context.

Algorithm: MATERIALIZE

Input: a document T conforming to DTD D , a DTD View (D_v, σ)

Output: a materialized view T_S of T or \perp (there is no such view)

```

1: for all nodes  $n$  of type  $A$  in  $T$  do
2:   let  $A \rightarrow P(A)$  the corresponding rule in  $D_v$ 
3:   for all  $B$  occurring in  $P(A)$  do
4:     precompute  $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [|\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B)|] (\{n\})$ 
5:     assign to  $T_S$  the root of  $T$  and mark it as unprocessed
6:   while there are unprocessed nodes in  $T_S$  do
7:     select an unprocessed node  $n$  of type  $A$  with rule  $A \rightarrow P(A)$  in  $D_v$ 
8:     make the nodes in
           
$$\bigcup_{B \text{ occurs in } P(A)} \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [|\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B)|] (\{n\})$$

           in  $T$  as unprocessed children of  $n$  in  $T_S$ 
9:   if a child of  $n$  already occurs as a processed node in  $T_S$  then
10:    return  $\perp$  (invalid view)
11:  make  $n$  as processed

```

Figure 6: Algorithm MATERIALIZE

Given a security view $\mathcal{S} = (D_v, \sigma)$ and document T conforming to a DTD D , we show how to construct T_S in Fig. 6.

The following is immediate:

Proposition 5.1: *If $\mathcal{S} = (D_v, \sigma)$ is a valid view for D , then the result of Algorithm MATERIALIZE is a document T_S that is the materialized version of T . \square*

A classical question for relational database research, namely whether a view produced by the MATERIALIZE algorithm is actually populated by some instances, has a trivial yes answer. Since the root of the document is always labelled Y , the materialized view has always one node. We can show that for the XPath fragment we can be as efficient as we can hope for. Indeed, Gottlob, Koch and Pichler [15] have shown that for CoreXPath (i.e. \mathcal{X} without union and test) it is $f(|\sigma|, |T|) = |\sigma| \times |T|$. We extend their result to \mathcal{X} without test without penalties in complexity and with a T factor to the full \mathcal{X} fragment.

We now study the complexity of the algorithm. Let $f(n, d)$ be the complexity of evaluating an XPath expression of size n on a document of size d . Gottlob et al. [15] have shown that for CoreXPath (i.e. \mathcal{X} without union and test) it is $f(|\sigma|, |T|) = |\sigma| \times |T|$. We extend their result to \mathcal{X} without test and with a factor of T to the full \mathcal{X} fragment. Let $|\sigma|$ be the size of the largest XPath expression in the range of σ . Then:

Theorem 5.2: *Algorithm MATERIALIZE computes a materialized view in time $O(f(|\sigma|, |T|) \times |T|)$. \square*

Lemma 5.3: *Every XPath query $p \in \mathcal{X}_{NoTest}$ over a document T can be evaluated in time $O(|p| \times |T|)$. \square*

Proof: The proof follows the line of Gottlob, Koch and Pichler [15] for the CoreXPath fragment (that is without union of paths): we use the functions $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}$, \mathcal{S}_{\leftarrow} , and \mathcal{E} to compute a query tree which is then evaluated bottom-up to yield the desired complexity result.

For the full fragment considered here, the naive implementation of union would lead to an exponential blow up because $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [p_1(p_2 \cup p_3)](N) = \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [p_1/p_2](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [p_1/p_3](N)$ the processing of p_1 is duplicated.

To avoid this blow-up we use a query DAG instead of a query tree. Each path of the form $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [p_1/(p_2 \cup p_3)](N)$ is mapped into a (single source) rooted DAG in which the root is labelled \cup with two children, one corresponding to the

root of $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_2]](X)$ and one corresponding to the root of $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_3]](X)$. The shared X leaf node is the root of the $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_1]](N)$ node.

Formally, this is equivalent to say that $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_1/(p_2 \cup p_3)]](N)$ is evaluated using the symbolic rightmost lazy evaluation of $(\lambda X. \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_2]](X) \cup \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_3]](X))\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}[[p_1]](N)$.

For the evaluation of the $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow}$ function we use a single target DAG for the construction of the query DAG.

With this construction each XPath expression can be transformed in time $O(|p|)$ into a query DAG of size $O(|p|)$ in which each operation is a set operation that can be computed in time $O(|T|)$ thus yielding the desired upper bound. \square

Lemma 5.4: *Every XPath query $p \in \mathcal{X}$ over a document T can be evaluated in time $O(|p| \times |T|^2)$.* \square

The addition of the test operation increases slightly the complexity because the computation of the $\mathcal{O}(c)$ operator requires the comparison of the `str` value c with the `str` value at every node of the tree. This yields a quadratic increase in data complexity. Once the $\mathcal{O}(c)$ has been computed at the appropriate leaves of the query DAG, all other operations can be done in time linear in the size of the document.

Corollary 5.5: *Every valid DTD view whose annotations are in \mathcal{X} , respectively in \mathcal{X}_{NoTest} , can be materialized in $O(|\sigma| \times |T|^3)$, resp. $O(|\sigma| \times |T|^2)$, by Algorithm MATERIALIZE.* \square

Proof: The first step of the algorithm takes up only $O(|\sigma| \times |T|^3)$, resp. $O(|\sigma| \times |T|^2)$, by using the construction in Lemma 5.3, resp. Lemma 5.4, for the evaluation of XPath queries. For the subsequent processing the number of iteration is bounded by the number of nodes in T and each step can be performed in $O(|\sigma| \times |T|)$ steps. \square

Remark 5.1 *We cannot obtain a linear bound in the size of T because of the ancestor and descendant axis in the XPath fragment under consideration. The materialization of each node of T_S require the evaluation of a query over T which may involve the entire original document.*

6 From Authorization Specifications to Views

Our main result is to show how to construct a security view, given a document DTD and an authorization specification on it. The idea behind our algorithm is to eliminate qualifiers by expanding each qualifier into a union of two element types: one is the original element type, which is annotated Y, and the other is a new type, essentially a copy of the original type, which is annotated N. Since the tag of an element uniquely determines the type, it follows that new type names cannot match any nodes in a document that conforms to the original DTD. This is not a serious problem, as all of these new type names are ultimately deleted in the final security view.

The next step expands the annotation to a “full annotation”. The notion of a full annotation was defined on annotated documents, and we showed that every document has a unique full annotation. At the schema level, however, this is not the case, as there may be several “paths” in the DTD that reach the same element type, each of which results in a different annotation. We use a similar technique to the way we handle qualifiers, i.e., we introduce new element types, and label the original one Y and the “copy” N. Finally, we delete all the element types that are labelled N, modifying the regular expressions and the σ functions correspondingly.

We show the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW in Fig. 7 and algorithm BUILD VIEW in Fig. 8.

Definition 6.1: Let $\mathcal{S} = (D, \text{ann})$ be an authorization specification. The DTD constructed by ANNOTATE VIEW algorithm is the *fully annotated DTD* corresponding to (D, ann) . \square

Theorem 6.1: *Let (D, ann) be a security specification where D is non-recursive. Algorithms ANNOTATE VIEW and*

Algorithm: ANNOTATE VIEW

Input: A authorization specification (D, ann)

Output: Fully annotated DTD D

```

1: Initialize  $D_v := D$  where  $\text{ann}$  is defined on  $D_v$  as on  $D$ ;
2: for all production rules  $A \rightarrow P(A)$  in  $D_v$  do
3:   for all element types  $B$  occurring in  $P(A)$  do
4:     initialize  $\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B) := B[\epsilon]$ 
5:   //Below we will eliminate qualifier annotation
6:   for all element types  $B$  with  $\text{ann}(B) = \text{Q}[q]$  do
7:     add to  $D_v$  a new element type  $B'$  and a production rule  $B' \rightarrow P(B')$ 
8:     set  $P(B') := P(B)$ 
9:     for all element types  $C$  occurring in  $P(B')$  do
10:       $\sigma(B' \rightarrow P(B'), C) := \sigma(B \rightarrow P(B), C)$ 
11:     set  $\text{ann}(B) = \text{Y}$  and  $\text{ann}(B') = \text{N}$ 
12:     for all production rules  $A \rightarrow P(A)$  do
13:       if  $B$  occurs in  $P(A)$  then
14:          $\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B) := B[q]$ ;
15:          $\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B') := B[\neg q]$ ;
16:         replace  $B$  by  $B + B'$  in  $P(A)$ 
17:   //Below we will get fully annotated DTD  $D$ 
18: while  $\text{ann}(B)$  of some element types  $B$  is undefined do
19:   if all generators  $A$  of  $B$  have defined  $\text{ann}(A)$  then
20:     if all  $\text{ann}(A) = \text{Y}$  then
21:       set  $\text{ann}(B) := \text{Y}$ ;
22:     else if all  $\text{ann}(A) = \text{N}$  then
23:       set  $\text{ann}(B) := \text{N}$ ;
24:     else
25:       add to  $D_v$  a new element type  $B'$  and a production rule  $B' \rightarrow P(B')$ 
26:       set  $P(B') := P(B)$ 
27:       for all element types  $C$  occurring in  $P(B')$  do
28:          $\sigma(B' \rightarrow P(B'), C) := \sigma(B \rightarrow P(B), C)$ 
29:       set  $\text{ann}(B) = \text{Y}$ ,  $\text{ann}(B') = \text{N}$ ,
30:       for all generators  $A$  of  $B$  do
31:         if  $\text{ann}(A) = \text{N}$  then
32:           replace  $B$  with  $B'$  in  $P(A)$ 

```

Figure 7: Algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW

Algorithm: BUILD VIEW

Input: Fully annotated DTD D

Output: A security view (D_v, σ)

```

1: for all element types  $B$  with  $\text{ann}(B) = \text{N}$  do
2:   for all production rules  $A \rightarrow P(A)$  do
3:     if  $B$  occurs in  $P(A)$  then
4:       for all  $C$  that occurs in  $P(B)$  do
5:         set  $\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), C) := \sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B) / \sigma(B \rightarrow P(B), C) \cup \sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), C)$ 
6:         replace  $B$  by  $P(B)$  in  $P(A)$  if  $B \rightarrow P(B)$  exists and by  $\epsilon$  otherwise
7:  $D_v$  consists of all the element types  $A$  for which  $\text{ann}(A) = \text{Y}$ , with the  $\sigma$  function restricted to these types.

```

Figure 8: Algorithm BUILD VIEW

```

<!ELEMENT applications (application* ,#application*)>
<!ELEMENT application (student-data,recommendation-letter* ,#recommendation-letter* ,unreliable*)>
<!ELEMENT #application (#student-data,recommendation-letter* ,#recommendation-letter* ,unreliable*)>
<!ELEMENT unreliable (recommendation-letter ,#recommendation-letter ,reason)>
<!ELEMENT student-data (department,degree,name,waiver)>
<!ELEMENT #student-data (#department ,#degree ,#name ,#waiver)>
<!ELEMENT recommendation-letter (evaluator,letter)>
<!ELEMENT #recommendation-letter (#evaluator,letter)>
<!ELEMENT evaluator (title,institution,name)>
<!ELEMENT #evaluator (#title ,#institution ,#name)>
<!ELEMENT letter (favorable | unfavorable)>
<!ELEMENT favorable (rating ,#rating ,free-text ,#free-text)>
<!ELEMENT unfavorable (rating ,#rating ,free-text ,#free-text)>
<!ELEMENT rating (MS,PhD,English)><!ELEMENT #rating (#MS ,#PhD ,#English)>
<!ELEMENT free-text (TXT | PDF)><!ELEMENT #free-text (#TXT | #PDF)>
<!ELEMENT reason (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT waiver (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #waiver (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT department (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #department (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT degree (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #degree (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT name (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #name (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT title (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #title (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT institution (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #institution (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT MS (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #MS (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT PhD (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #PhD (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT PDF (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #PDF (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT English (#PCDATA)><!ELEMENT #English (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT TXT (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT #TXT (#PCDATA)>

```

Figure 9: Fully annotated DTD: element part

BUILD VIEW *terminate and produce a valid security view.* □

Proof: We have loops in the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW (steps 6 and 18) and in the algorithm BUILD VIEW (step 1).

Step 6 in ANNOTATE VIEW eliminates qualifiers from the authorization specification.

Step 18 in ANNOTATE VIEW is to extend the annotation to a “full” annotation, i.e., one where ann is defined as either Y or N for every element type. We do this by a “top-down” traversal of the DTD, starting from the root. The fact that DTD is non-recursive implies that whenever there remains at least one element type B with $\text{ann}(B)$ undefined, there must be one such B such that whenever B occurs in $P(A)$, $\text{ann}(A)$ has already been defined. For one such B , do the following, and repeat until all element types are annotated. Thus 18 in ANNOTATE VIEW always terminates, whereas step 1 in BUILD VIEW will terminate as it always reduces the number of element types in the DTD by one.

We next show that D_v is a DTD. D_v would fail to be a DTD only if, for some element type A in D_v , $P(A)$ includes an element type B that is deleted in step 7 of BUILD VIEW. Chose such an A and B such that B has no successor in the DTD tree (we make use again of the non-recursive nature of D). Since B is deleted, $\text{ann}(B)$ must be equal to N, and therefore B is replaced by $P(B)$ in step 1 of BUILD VIEW, a contradiction.

As we are considering only non-recursive DTDs, we must also show that the new DTD is non-recursive. But this follows immediately, as any cycle D_v can be traced back to a cycle in D .

This shows that we get a security view. To prove it is valid, we must show that T_S conforms to D_v . To do this, we first examine T' the fully annotated version of T (Definition 4.2) and D' , the fully annotated DTD defined above. As this point, we would like to show that T' conforms to D' , but there is a problem, namely that some of the nodes in nodes in T' should to be typed by new element types that were introduced in D' , which is impossible. To get around this problem, modify the definition of “conforms”, to allow each new element types B' introduced by the algorithm to type the same nodes that were typed by B .

With this modified definition of “conforms”, an examination of steps 6 and 18 of the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW, comparing them to the corresponding steps in the definition of T' , shows that T' conforms to D' . Furthermore, a node

```

<!ATTLIST applications
  hierarchy_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "topDown"
  value_conflict_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "denialFirst"
  local_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "closed"
  hierarchy_conflict_security_policy CDATA #FIXED "hierarchyFirst"
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST application security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #application security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST unreliable security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST student-data security_annotation_data #FIXED "N" id CDATA #IMPLIED>
<!ATTLIST #student-data security_annotation_data #FIXED "N" id CDATA #IMPLIED>
<!ATTLIST recommendation-letter security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #recommendation-letter security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST letter security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST favorable security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST evaluator security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST #evaluator security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST unfavorable security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST rating security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #rating security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST free-text security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #free-text security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST reason security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST waiver security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #waiver security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST department security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #department security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST degree security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #degree security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST name security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #name security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST title security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #title security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST institution security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #institution security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST MS security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #MS security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST PhD security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #PhD security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST English security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #English security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST TXT security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #TXT security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST PDF security_annotation_data #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST #PDF security_annotation_data #FIXED "N">

```

Figure 10: Fully annotated DTD: attribute part

in T' that is annotated N (resp. Y) will be typed by a type in D' that is annotated N (resp. Y).

It follows immediately from the definitions, that if we take D' with the σ function defined in algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW, T' “conforms” to D' . As we delete nodes in step 5, we can show that this property is preserved, so that T_S “conforms” to D_v . Since all the new nodes have been deleted at this point, the new definition of “conforms” reduces to the standard definition, completing the proof. \square

Note that our assumption that regular expressions in DTDs may be 1-ambiguous is essential, as the following example shows.

Example 6.1: Consider the DTD with element types A, B, C, D , where $D \rightarrow CA(A + B)$ and $D \rightarrow (A + B)^*$. If $\text{ann}(A) = \text{ann}(B) = \text{ann}(C) = Y$, and $\text{ann}(D) = N$, then the security DTD computed by Algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW will have the production $D \rightarrow (A + B)^* A(A + B)$, which is not equivalent to any 1-unambiguous regular expression [6]. \square

In practice, if we really need to use 1-unambiguous regular expressions, one could approximate the expressions generated by the algorithm with 1-ambiguous expressions that capture a larger language ([2] describes one method to do

```

<!ELEMENT applications (application*,recommendation-letter*,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))* ,recommendation-letter*,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))*>
<!ELEMENT application (student-data,recommendation-letter*,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))* ,recommendation-letter*,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))*>
<!ELEMENT recommendation-letter (evaluator,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))*>
<!ELEMENT student-data (department,degree,name,waiver)>
<!ATTLIST student-data id CDATA #IMPLIED>
<!ELEMENT recommendation-letter (evaluator,
  ((rating,free-text)|(rating,free-text))*>
<!ELEMENT evaluator (title,institution,name)>
<!ELEMENT rating (MS,PhD,English)>
<!ELEMENT rating (MS,PhD,English)>
<!ELEMENT degree (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT department (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT name (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT waiver (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT institution (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT PhD (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT MS (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT English (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT title (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT TXT (#PCDATA)>

```

Figure 11: DTD view D_v

this).

Example 6.2: Fully annotated DTD depicted on Fig. 9 is the result of application of the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW to partially annotated DTD of Fig. 4. Elements marked with # symbol are introduced artificially during the process of qualifier elimination (step 6) and inheritance from differently annotated parents (step 18). Fig. 10 represents attribute part of DTD. Note that artificial elements have security annotation N while initial elements are marked by Y. \square

Example 6.3: The result of application of BUILD VIEW to DTD of Fig. 10 is depicted on Fig. 11. Note that all security related attributes (compared with input DTD annotation depicted on Fig. 4) are eliminated. Corresponding σ -function is represented on Fig. 12. \square

Note, that σ -function has rules with contradictory conditions Q and $not(Q)$ (e.g. 3–11, 14–22), therefore corresponding σ will always return empty set. The same is true also for rule 2 because it contains both condition $not(P)$ and R with subcondition P . These rules can be eliminated on the process of optimization which is an open issue and is leaved for future work.

We now need a technical lemma.

Lemma 6.2: *Let (D, ann) be a security specification where D is a not-recursive DTD and (D_v, σ) be the security view that is constructed by Algorithms ANNOTATE VIEW and BUILD VIEW, for any sequence of element types $B_0 \dots B_n$ in the full annotated D such that (i) B_{i+1} is a child type of B_i for $i = 0 \dots n - 1$, (ii) each B_i for $i = 1 \dots n - 1$ is annotated N, there exists an XPath expression p and $q_1 \dots q_n$ XPath qualifiers such that the following equation holds for all set of nodes N :*

$$\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [|\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_n)|] (N) = \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [|p|] (N) \cup \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [|B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_n[q_n]|] (N) \quad .$$

\square

Proof: The proof is by a nested induction on n and the number of iteration of step 1 of algorithm BUILD VIEW.

For the base case, $n = 1$, then B_1 is a child of B_0 . Then, before step 1 of BUILD VIEW is executed, algorithm AN-

```

applications -> P(applications):
 1 sigma(applications, application)= application[P]
 2 sigma(applications, recommendation-letter) = application[not(P)]/recommendation-letter[R]
 3 sigma(applications, rating) =
   application[ not(P)]/recommendation-letter[ not (Q)]/letter/favorable/rating[Q]
 4 sigma(applications, free-text) =
   application[ not(P)]/recommendation-letter[ not(Q)]/letter/favorable/free-text[Q]
 5 sigma(applications, rating) =
   application[ not(P)]/recommendation-letter[ not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/rating[Q]
 6 sigma(applications, free-text) =
   application[ not(P)]/recommendation-letter[ not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/free-text[Q]
 7 sigma(applications, recommendation-letter) =
   application[ not(P)]/unreliable/recommendation-letter[R]
 8 sigma(applications, rating) =
   application[ not(P)]/unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/favorable/rating[Q]
 9 sigma(applications, free-text) =
   application[ not(P)]/unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/favorable/free-text[Q]
10 sigma(applications, rating) =
   application[ not(P)]/unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/rating[Q]
11 sigma(applications, free-text) =
   application[ not(P)]/unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/free-text[Q]

application -> P(application):
12 sigma(application, student-data) = student-data
13 sigma(application, recommendation-letter) = recommendation-letter[R]
14 sigma(application, rating) = recommendation-letter[ not(Q)]/letter/favorable/rating[Q]
15 sigma(application, free-text) = recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/favorable/free-text[Q]
16 sigma(application, rating) = recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/rating[Q]
17 sigma(application, free-text) = recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/free-text[Q]
18 sigma(application, recommendation-letter) = unreliable/recommendation-letter[R]
19 sigma(application, rating) = unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/favorable/rating[Q]
20 sigma(application, free-text) = unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/favorable/free-text[Q]
21 sigma(application, rating) = unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/rating[Q]
22 sigma(application, free-text) = unreliable/recommendation-letter[not(Q)]/letter/unfavorable/free-text[Q]

student-data -> P(student-data):
23 sigma(student-data, department) = department
24 sigma(student-data, degree) = degree
25 sigma(student-data, name) = name
26 sigma(student-data, waiver) = waiver

recommendation-letter -> P(recommendation-letter):
27 sigma(recommendation-letter, evaluator) = evaluator
28 sigma(recommendation-letter, rating) = letter/favorable/rating[Q]
29 sigma(recommendation-letter, free-text) = letter/favorable/free-text[Q]
30 sigma(recommendation-letter, rating) = letter/unfavorable/rating[Q]
31 sigma(recommendation-letter, free-text) = letter/unfavorable/free-text[Q]

evaluator -> P(evaluator):
32 sigma(evaluator, title) = title
33 sigma(evaluator, institution) = institution
34 sigma(evaluator, name)= name

rating -> P(rating):
35 sigma(rating, MS) = MS
36 sigma(rating, PhD) = PhD
37 sigma(rating, English) = English

free-text -> P(free-text):
38 sigma(free-text, TXT) = TXT
39 sigma(free-text, PDF)= PDF

where P = ./student-data[@id=$login]
      Q = ancestor::*[self::application[./student-data[@id=$login]/waiver/text()='true']]
      R = ancestor::*[self::application[./student-data[@id=$login]]]

```

Figure 12: σ -function

NOTATE VIEW would set $\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_1) = B_1[q_1]$ for a suitable qualifier q_1 . Therefore, up to that point of the execution of the algorithm, the theorem holds by setting $p = \emptyset$. During step 1 of algorithm BUILD VIEW it is possible that the elimination of some N-children of B_0 would modify the selection function for B_1 . By evaluating

the $\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_1)$ expression constructed by step 4 of BUILD VIEW with the \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow operator and by induction hypothesis we get

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_1)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), C)/\sigma(C \rightarrow P(C), B_1) \cup \sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_1)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), C)/\sigma(C \rightarrow P(C), B_1)](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_1)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), C)/\sigma(C \rightarrow P(C), B_1)](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_0](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_1](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]](N)
\end{aligned}$$

If B_1 itself is eliminated from $P(B_0)$ this would not change the selection function constructed so far for B_1 .

For the inductive case, let $B_0 \dots B_n$ be the sequence of nodes and let B_i for $i \in \{1 \dots n-1\}$ be the last node that is eliminated by step 1 of the algorithm BUILD VIEW. Since the DTD is not recursive neither $\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_i)$, nor $\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)$ can be changed by this step. By evaluating the \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow operator and by induction hypothesis we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_n)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_i)/\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n) \cup \sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_n)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_i)/\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_n)](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_0 \rightarrow P(B_0), B_i)](N)) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_0](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_{1,i}](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_0](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_{1,i}](N)) \cup & \\
& \quad \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_0](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_1](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_0](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_2](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [\sigma(B_i \rightarrow P(B_i), B_n)](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_2](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_{i+1,n}](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) \cup & \\
& \quad \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_{i+1}[q_{i+1}]/\dots/B_n[q_n]](\mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]](N)) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_2](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p_3](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_i[q_i]/B_{i+1}[q_{i+1}]/\dots/B_n[q_n]](N) &= \\
& \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [p](N) \cup \mathcal{S}_\rightarrow [B_1[q_1]/\dots/B_n[q_n]](N)
\end{aligned}$$

The case $i = n$ is similar to the above one by combining the reasoning for the base case and the intermediate case above. \square

Remark 6.1 *In the statement of the lemma we have no condition on the labelling of either B_0 or B_n as this would make the induction hypothesis needed for the proof not strong enough. Equally we need to quantify over all sets N or the composition of two intermediate sequences during the induction step would not have an inductive hypothesis strong enough.*

Theorem 6.3: *Let (D, ann) be a authorization specification, D is non-recursive, let (D_v, σ) the security view constructed by Algorithms ANNOTATE VIEW and BUILD VIEW. Let T be a document, T_A the authorized version of T and T_S the materialized version of T with respect to (D_v, σ) . Then T_A is isomorphic to T_S .* \square

Proof: The proof is done by a top-down induction on T . The root of T is clearly in both T_A and T_S .

By induction, assume that n is of element type A , and is in both T_A and T_S . We must show that each child m in T_A is also a child of n in T_S , and vice versa. The result will then follow, as the order of the children of n is the same in both documents. Note, that for this to work it is essential that nodes in A should be ordered with the old order.

Let, therefore, m be a child of n in T_A , of type B . Assume, first, that m is a child of n in the original document T . Consider the fully annotated DTD (D_F, ann') . Since n is in T_S , $\text{ann}'(A) = Y$. Since m is in T_A , it follows that $\text{ann}(B)$ cannot be equal to N , and hence $\text{ann}'(B) = Y$, and so element type B is in D_v . Furthermore, if $\text{ann}(B) = Q[q]$, then q must hold at m .

We must show that m is in $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B)] (\{n\})$. Let $p = \sigma(A, B)$. The algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW initially sets $p = B$ (step 2), may replace p by $B[q]$ in step 12, and may add additional disjuncts in step 2 of algorithm BUILD VIEW. In all cases m is clearly in the result.

Now consider the case where m is not a child, but a descendant, of n in T . Let n, n_1, \dots, n_k, m ($k \geq 1$) be the sequence of nodes in T from n to m , of element types B_1, \dots, B_k . Since these nodes are not present in T_A , each $\text{ann}(B_i)$ ($1 \leq i \leq k$) must be either undefined, N or $\text{Q}[q_i]$, with the qualifier in the latter case evaluating to false at n_i . Furthermore, $\text{ann}(B)$ must be either Y or a qualifier $\text{Q}[q]$ that evaluates to true at m , which implies that B is in D_v .

To show that m is in $\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(A, B)] (\{n\})$, observe first that D_F contains element types B'_j whenever $\text{ann}(B_j)$ is undefined or is a qualifier. For this part of the proof, we shall write B'_j as a synonym for B_j in the remaining case, when $\text{ann}(B_j) = \text{N}$. Whenever $\text{ann}(B_i)$ is $\text{Q}[q_i]$, step 12 of the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW initially sets $\sigma(B'_{i-1}, B'_i)$ to $B_i[\neg q]$ (writing $B'_0 = A$, for convenience); when $\text{ann}(B_i) = \text{N}$ or is undefined, $\sigma(B'_{i-1}, B'_i)$ is initially set equal to B'_i in step 2 of ANNOTATE VIEW. Finally, step 1 of BUILD VIEW deletes elements types B'_1, \dots, B'_k , replacing $\sigma(A, B)$ by a disjunction of paths, and by lemma 6.2 we get:

$$\mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(A \rightarrow P(A), B)] (\{n\}) = \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [p \cup B_1[\neg q_1]/B_2[\neg q_2]/\dots/B_k[\neg q_k]/B] (\{n\})$$

with some of the q_i 's absent, when $\text{ann}(B_i)$ is N or undefined. It follows that $m \in \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(A, B)] (\{n\})$, as desired.

For the converse, let m be a child of n in T_S . We must show that m is a child of n in T_A .

From the definition of T_S , m must be in the result of evaluating $\sigma(A, B)$ at n . Let $n = n_0, n_1, \dots, n_k, m = n_{k+1}$ ($k \geq 0$) be the shortest path from n to m that is used in the evaluation of the σ function, and let σ' be the value of the σ function after application of the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW. We claim that $n_{i+1} \in \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(B_i, B_{i+1})] (\{n_i\})$ ($0 \leq i \leq k, B_0 = A, B_{k+1} = B$). We show this by induction on the last B_i eliminated in step 1 of BUILD VIEW: this step replaces $\sigma(B_{i-1}, B_{i+1})$ by

$$\sigma(B_{i-1}, B_i)/\sigma(B_i, B_{i+1}) + \sigma(B_{i-1}, B_{i+1}) .$$

By our induction hypothesis, $n_{i+1} \in \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(B_{i-1}, B_{i+1})] (\{n_{i-1}\})$. If n_{i+1} was in the second disjunct above, we would have a contradiction with assumption that our path was the shortest. Therefore we have $n_{i+1} \in \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(B_i, B_{i+1})] (\{n_i\})$ and $n_i \in \mathcal{S}_{\rightarrow} [\sigma(B_{i-1}, B_i)] (\{n_{i-1}\})$, proving our claim. We therefore know that $\sigma(B_{i-1}, B_i)$ is

1. B_i when $\text{ann}(B_i)$ is either N or undefined. The case $\text{ann}(B_i) = \text{Y}$ is impossible except when $i = k + 1$, as the element type in question is deleted in step 1 of BUILD VIEW.
2. $B_i[\neg q]$ when $\text{ann}(B_i)$ is $B_i[\neg q_i]$.

In both case, it follows that n, m_1, \dots, m_k, m is a path in T . It remains to show that m_1, \dots, m_k are deleted in T_A . For nodes annotated with a qualifier, this is immediate; for other nodes it follows from the fact that the algorithm used to define a complete annotation is the same in the definition of T_A and in Algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW. \square

The complexity of the algorithm is as follows:

Theorem 6.4: *Let (D, ann) be a authorization specification for a non-recursive DTD, let P be size of the largest production rule in D . Let n_Y be the number of element types annotated with Y, and let n_{other} the number of element types otherwise annotated or not annotated. Then the size of the select function σ generated by the algorithm is bounded by $O(n_{\text{other}} \times |\text{ann}|)$ and the size of the View DTD D_v is bounded by $O(n_Y \times P^{n_{\text{other}}+1})$. \square*

Proof: For the first bound observe that the introduction of the symbols $/$ and \cup in the definition of σ only happens when eliminating an element type labelled with N in the fully annotated DTD, and there are at most n_{other} element types of this sort. All qualifiers appearing the σ are the same as qualifiers that were in the original authorization specification, or their negations, and therefore their size is bounded by $|\text{ann}|$.

For the second step observe that we only replace occurrences of N-element types in a regular expression of a Y-labelled element type with another regular expression, and that each of those replacement eliminates a N-labelled node. \square

The above upper bound is tight as the following example shows:

Example 6.4: Consider DTD with the production $\text{root} \rightarrow A_0$ and $A_i \rightarrow A_{i+1}A_{i+1}$ for $i = 0 \dots n - 1$ and where $\text{ann}(A_0) = N$, $\text{ann}(A_n) = Y$. Then the DTD View D_v has only one rule

$$\text{root} \rightarrow \overbrace{A_n \dots A_n}^{2^n \text{ times}},$$

and the select function is $\sigma(\text{root}, A_n) = A_0 / \dots / A_n$. \square

7 Other security policies

Our model is based on a specific policy, used for determining a complete authorization specification of a document based on a partial specification. This is the *most-specific-takes-precedence* policy [10]. Different applications may have different requirements, and we now look at alternative approaches.

We can classify security policies using two orthogonal classifications that focus on *completeness* and *consistency* (De Capitani di Vimercati and Samarati [10]). The first classification is based on how one handles *unassigned values*, while the second is based on the handling of *conflicting assignments* and how one restores consistency.

We are interested only in policies that are complete and consistent:

Definition 7.1: A policy is *complete* and *consistent* if every partially annotated tree can be extend to a fully annotated tree. \square

We list here several possible policies. These are variations of classical security policies that are used in other settings ([10]).

We have identified a number of policies for value propagation and conflict resolution:

Local Propagation Policy: “open”, “closed”, or “none”;

Hierarchy Propagation Policy: “topDown”, “bottomUp”, or “none”;

Structural Conflict Resolution: “localFirst”, “hierarchyFirst”, or “none”;

Value Conflict Resolution: “denialTakesPrecedence”, “permissionTakesPrecedence”, or “none”.

The Local Propagation Policy is similar to traditional policies for access control: in the case of “open”, if a node is not labelled N then it is labelled by Y; in the case of “closed”, a node not labelled Y is labelled by N.

The Hierarchy Propagation Policy specifies node annotation inheritance in the tree. In the case of “topDown”, an unlabelled node with a labelled parent inherits the label of its parent. In the case of “bottomUp” an unlabelled node inherits the label from a labelled children. Note that the “bottomUp” case can result in conflicts, and they should be addressed by the Value Conflict Resolution Policy.

The Structural Conflict Resolution Policy specifies whether the local or hierarchy rule takes precedence (“localFirst” or “hierarchyFirst” respectively); while “none” means that the choice depends on the values and on the Value Conflict Resolution Policy. The latter specifies how to resolve conflicts for unlabelled nodes that are assigned different labels

hierarchy	local	structural conflict	value conflict	condition
topDown	≠none	hierarchyFirst	*	*
topDown	none	*	*	root is annotated

Table 1: topDown policy conditions

hierarchy	local	structural conflict	value conflict	condition
bottomUp	≠none	hierarchyFirst	≠none	*
bottomUp	none	*	≠none	leaves are annotated

Table 2: bottomUp policy conditions

by the preceding rules: N always has precedence over Y (“denialTakesPrecedence”); Y always has precedence over N (“permissionTakesPrecedence”), and no choice (“noneTakesPrecedence”).

In the sequel we show some sufficient conditions for complete and consistent policy combinations. We start with some policies that we can term *topDown*.

Proposition 7.1: *All policies that satisfy one of the conditions of table 7.1 are sound and complete.* □

Proof: Assume that T is a partially annotated tree. We show that the annotation can be extended to a full tree.

Consider condition 1 of *topDown* security policy of table 7.1.

Base case: if the root is annotated then we are done. If it is not annotated then according to the definition it can obtain its annotation from *local* security policy: Y/N if *local*=open/closed respectively. Thus root annotation is defined.

Inductive case: consider an arbitrary node n with annotated parent p . If n is annotated we are done. Otherwise, n obtains its annotation from the parent since *structural conflict*=hierarchyFirst. Thus annotation of any node is defined.

Consider condition 2 of *topDown* security policy of table 7.1.

Base case: the root is annotated.

Inductive case: consider an arbitrary node n with annotated parent p . If it is annotated we are done. Otherwise it obtains its annotation from the parent. Thus annotation of any node is defined □

Next we have some policies that we can term *bottomUp*.

Proposition 7.2: *All policies that satisfy one of the conditions of table 7.2 are sound and complete.* □

Proof: . Assume that T is a partially annotated tree. We show that the annotation can be extended to full tree.

Consider condition 1 of *bottomUp* security policy of table 7.2.

Base case: if the children are annotated then we are done. If some of them are not annotated then according to the condition they can obtain their annotation from *local* security policy: Y/N if *local*=open/closed respectively. Thus annotation of all leaves is defined.

Inductive case: consider an arbitrary node n with all annotated children. If n is annotated we are done. Otherwise, n obtains its annotation from the children since *structural conflict*=hierarchyFirst. However, different children can have different annotation. On the other hand, *value conflict*≠nothingTakesPrecedence can be used to

hierarchy	local	structural conflict	value conflict
*	≠none	localFirst	*
none	≠none	*	*

Table 3: local policy conditions

hierarchy	local	structural conflict	value conflict
≠none	≠none	noneFirst	≠none

Table 4: multilabel policy conditions

define “winning” label. Thus annotation of any node is defined.

Consider condition 2 of *bottomUp* security policy of table 7.2.

Base case: all leaves are annotated.

Inductive case: consider an arbitrary node n with all annotated children. If it is annotated, we are done. Otherwise it obtains its annotation from the children. However, different children can have different annotation. On the other hand, *value conflict*≠*nothingTakesPrecedence* can be used to define “winning” label. Thus annotation of any node is defined. \square

Now we consider some policies that we can term *local*.

Proposition 7.3: *All policies that satisfy one of the conditions of table 7.3 are sound and complete.* \square

Proof: Assume that T is a partially annotated tree. We show that the annotation can be extended to full tree.

Consider condition 1 of *local* security policy of table 7.3. Since *structural conflict* = *localFirst*, *local* is enforced in the first turn.

Consider case 2 of *local* security policy of table 7.3. Since *hierarchy* security policy is not defined, *local* is enforced.

Thus, for each not annotated node n , we enforce *local* security policy that assigns either a label Y or N depending on *local* policy definition. \square

In some cases both *hierarchy* security policy and *local* security policy are defined, but *structural conflict* security policy is “*noneFirst*”. In these cases we apply both *hierarchy* and *local* security policy thus obtaining for each node a set of more than one security annotation. So it is not really clear from the user specification what is really wanted. The “winning” label is defined by means of *value conflict* security policy which should not be equal to “*noneTakesPrecedence*”. We call such policies “resolvable multilabel” security policies.

Proposition 7.4: *All policies that satisfy one of the conditions of table 7.4 are sound and complete.* \square

Proof: Assume that T is a partially annotated tree. We show that the annotation can be extended to full tree.

Since *structural conflict* is not defined but both *hierarchy* and *local* are not “none”, we enforce both of them independently (in cases when it is possible, e.g. if *hierarchy* = *topDown* but root is not annotated, we cannot enforce *hierarchy* from the root; however, we can start enforcement of *hierarchy* policy from any annotated node, because explicitly defined label overrides propagated one). As the result, for each node we will receive a set of labels. Since *value conflict* is defined, it can be used for defining the “winning” label.

Since each node is assigned at least one label (considering *local* policy), partial annotation can be extended to full

hierarchy	local	structural conflict	value conflict
none	none	*	*
≠none	≠none	none	none
bottomUp	*	hierarchyFirst	none
bottomUp	none	≠hierarchyFirst	none

Table 5: unresolvable policy conditions

annotation. □

Remark 7.1 *All the other policies are classified as unresolvable: considering the table 7.1, policies following condition in line 1 are incomplete, policies in lines 2 and 3 of are inconsistent, policy in line 4 may be either inconsistent or incomplete.*

Extending the security view approach to other policies, such as these, requires modifying the construction of the security view so that it propagates annotations in a way that corresponds to annotation propagation in the security policy. We leave this to the future work.

8 Extending to Recursive DTDs

The restriction in our current proposal is the requirement of nonrecursive nature of DTDs. For authorization specification of recursive DTD it is possible to derive a fully annotated DTD by modifying step 18 of the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW, but one cannot construct a select function in XPath that guarantees both secrecy and availability by modifying step 1 of the algorithm BUILD VIEW.

The reason for this is that to handle with recursive DTDs correctly, one should repeat step 18 of ANNOTATE VIEW until a fix point is reached. Then, if there are still unlabelled nodes they are part of a cycle of completely unlabelled nodes. We could then consider all entry points of the cycle, and apply step 18 of ANNOTATE VIEW to all entry points at the same time: if all generators of entry points outside the cycle are Y-nodes then all nodes of the cycle can be labeled Y. The case for N is similar. In the case of conflicts, apply step 24 of ANNOTATE VIEW to all entry points of the cycle at the same time. This process breaks progressively more cycles until all cycles get labelled.

The problem, however, is that XPath lacks the full Kleene-star operator. Thus we cannot select exactly the nodes in which an element must be reached just after a particular loop is traversed an arbitrary number of times. It may be possible to extend the security view with “dummy nodes” that map to epsilon rules, and obtain the desired result, but such a solution would not be acceptable as the schema would be meaningless to the user. Using the present algorithm, we can obtain an approximate solution: *by stopping the modified ANNOTATE VIEW-algorithm after a finite number of iterations of step 1 of BUILD VIEW-algorithm we have a secrecy preserving view.*

The problem, however, is that XPath lacks the full Kleene-star operator. XPath language. Thus we cannot select exactly the nodes in which an element must be reached just after a particular loop is traversed an arbitrary number of times. It may be possible to extend the security view with “dummy nodes” that map to epsilon rules, and obtain the desired result, but such a solution would not be acceptable as the schema would be meaningless to the user. Using the present algorithm, we can obtain an approximate solution: *by stopping the modified ANNOTATE VIEW-algorithm after a finite number of iterations of step 1 of BUILD VIEW-algorithm we have a secrecy preserving view.*

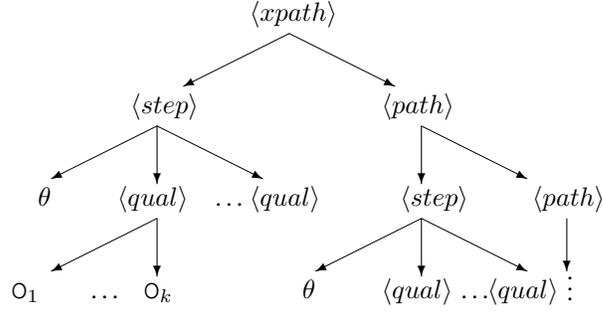


Figure 13: Parse tree schema

9 Query Rewriting

This section considers rewriting of user queries over security views $V = (D_v, \sigma)$. More precisely, user provided with the DTD view D_v poses a query over D_v . The query evaluation procedure may rely on two strategies:

- the *naive* strategy assumes that the user query is evaluated over the materialized security view T_S that has been extracted from initial data T by means of the σ -function or directly from the security annotation;
- the *rewriting* strategy transforms the user query q into an *equivalent* query q_t using the σ -function over the initial schema D . Query q_t can be then evaluated over the initial data set T without materialization of T_S .

The naive approach may be extremely time consuming in the case of very large XML files and multiple queries. On the other hand, one could precompute and store data views T_S . This approach may be inefficient for volatile data (e.g. auction or stock sells) or for data in which integrity across views is important. Rewriting cost is insignificant compared to the cost of view derivation from a large XML document.

Below we present our algorithm for query rewriting which has two phases: query parsing and further translation of parsed query into σ -functions.

The user query is parsed according to the grammar that we have shown in Definition ???. Initially, we consider the user query as $\langle xpath \rangle$. We process it recursively resulting in a *parse tree* according to the schema on Fig. 13. The intuition of parse tree schema is the following. We divide $\langle xpath \rangle$ into $\langle step \rangle$ and *remaining* $\langle path \rangle$. $\langle step \rangle$ consists of *node test* θ and zero or more qualifiers $\langle qual \rangle$. Each of these qualifiers represents a condition that the node test should satisfy. The condition is a boolean function of several arguments $(O_i, i = \overline{1, k})$ which are either $\langle path \rangle$, literal, or number.

Each node of the parse tree representation of user query is called a *subquery*.

For example, the XPath expression $//a/b[(c/text() = 'school') \wedge (parent :: q)]/d$ selects all nodes d that is a child of b , b is a child of a and has parent q and child c with text node 'school', a is a descendant of root node. The parse tree representation is depicted on Fig. 14

For each subquery p in XPath parse tree representation and for each element A in D_v we compute a local translation $rewrite(p, A)$ which is based on translations $rewrite(p_i, B_j)$, where p_i is a direct subquery (child in parse tree) of p and B_j is a node reachable (the graph of D_v has a path to B) from A . The rewritten query is located in $rewrite(p, root)$ where $root$ is the root element of initial DTD D and p has a "normalized" format i.e. each step of path is rewritten into form $axisSpecifier :: label$.

The algorithm presented in Fig. 15 shows the translation procedure. More precisely, in lines 1, 17, 29, 35 we can distinguish whether the subexpression is $\langle path \rangle$, $\langle qual \rangle$, θ or $\theta[\langle qual \rangle]$ respectively. In the case of $\langle path \rangle$ we process

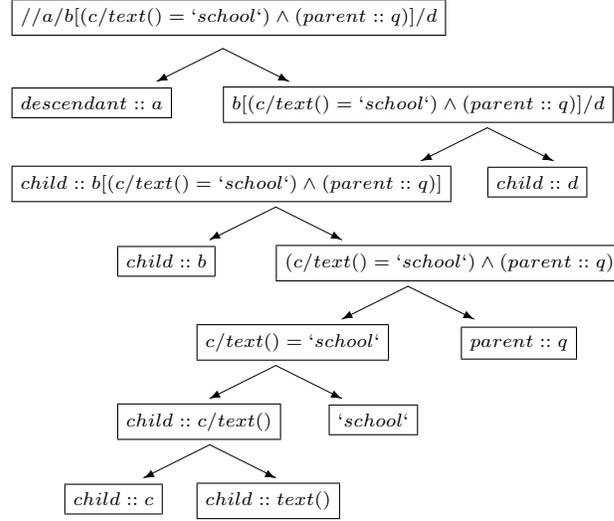


Figure 14: Parse tree of expression $//a/b[(c/text() = 'school') \wedge (parent :: q)]/d$

first $\langle step \rangle$ (which is represented as p_1 in the “normalized” format) and then the remaining part as $\langle path \rangle$ (which is rewritten to p_2) recursively. The final step of $\langle path \rangle$ processing consists in joining p_1 and p_2 into path p_1/p_2 which represents the initial $\langle path \rangle$ in “normalized” format where every step has the format $axisSpecifier :: label$. The joining procedure is shown in lines 4- 16 of algorithm QUERY REWRITE.

Parsing $\theta[\langle qual \rangle]$ handles separately predicate expression $\langle qual \rangle$ and node test θ . More precisely, node test θ should be rewritten with respect to all DTD nodes in first turn. After that all filters are treated consequently as $\langle path \rangle$ expressions. But since predicates are posed on node test θ , the rewritten query will comprise the translation of filters with respect to node test θ (q_0 in algorithm). However, in the case of wildcard test (*) the algorithm should find all the appropriate nodes to which considered filters may be applied (see lines 46- 51 of QUERY REWRITE).

The processing of $\langle qual \rangle$ depends on arity of predicate function: either unary or binary. We process each operand (either $\langle path \rangle$, literal or number) of the function. Since we deal with unary and binary functions, $\langle qual \rangle$ has no more than two operands. In lines 21- 23 and 27-28 of QUERY REWRITE we perform joining procedure respectively for binary and unary function.

Intuitively, processing of node test θ produces path in terms of σ from each element A of D_v to θ . If θ has `child` axis specifier then $rewrite(\theta, A) = \sigma(A, \theta)$. If axis specifier is `parent`, it means that instead of returning $\sigma(A, \theta)$ we should return $\sigma(\theta, A)$ ($\sigma^{-1}(A, \theta)$ is an alternative notation). For example, user poses query A/B . We should rewrite it to $\sigma(A, B)$. On the other hand, if user poses query $A/parent :: B$, we should find $\sigma(B, A)$ and return $\sigma^{-1}(B, A)$, i.e. the consequence of steps and corresponding axis specifiers of $\sigma(B, A)$ should be changed on the contrary. For example, if $\sigma(B, A) = C/A$ which is equivalent to $self :: B/child :: C/child :: A$, then $\sigma^{-1}(B, A) = self :: A/parent :: C/parent :: B$. Steps 1– 11 of algorithm $getTranslation$ depicted on Fig. 18 represent the process of calculating $\sigma^{-1}(A, B)$.

This intuition corresponds to “neighbor” axis specifiers (e.g. `child` and `parent`). In case of `descendant-or-self` (`ancestor-or-self`) we have to calculate all descendants (ancestors) and all possible paths to each descendant (ancestor). Finally, all computed paths should be translated into the σ -function corresponding to the reverse property of axis specifier. Obviously, descendant/ancestor processing requires a different approach. Thus we introduce two auxiliary functions: $processChildParent$ on Fig. 16 and $processDescendAncest$ on Fig. 17. We should mention that each of these functions also considers the case when the node label is `*` (line 3 of $processChildParent$ and line 7 of $processDescendAncest$) which requires rewriting for a union of nodes reachable from considered DTD

node according to axis specifier.

For rewriting of descendant/ancestor relations we use the data of the statically precomputed table *preRewrite*. The idea of *preRewrite* calculation is borrowed from [12] where *recProc* and *traverse* procedures are intended to capture all the paths from all DTD nodes to all their corresponding descendants, and to translate these paths to an equivalent paths over the initial DTD *D*. We updated subroutines *recProc* and *traverse* so that they precompute not only descendant-or-self but also ancestor-or-self relations. Our *preRewrite* table is a *recrw* table of [12] extended with the third dimension representing the DTD graph traversal: either in bottom up (*ancestor-or-self*) or top down (*descendant-or-self*) direction.

The correctness of the algorithm follows immediately from the correctness of each step. Indeed, $\langle path \rangle$ processing is correct if processing of both first $\langle step \rangle$ and remaining $\langle path \rangle$ is correct. The processing of $\langle step \rangle$ is correct if processing of axis θ and all its filters $\langle qual \rangle$ is correct. The processing of $\langle qual \rangle$ is correct if processing of all its operands is correct, where operand can be either $\langle path \rangle$ or literal, or number. We claim that processing of θ and binding it with qualifiers is correct. Indeed, let us consider binding axis θ with qualifier. We assume that node test n and related filter expressions f_1, f_2, \dots, f_q are processed correctly, i.e. for every DTD element v we built the correct rewriting of expressions $v/axisSpecifier::n, v/operand_{f_j}, j = \overline{1, q}$, where $operand_{f_j}$ is any operand of filter f_j . Since filters are posed on element n and n is one of DTD elements, the rewriting of expression $n[f_j]$ for every DTD element v should have form $rewrite(n, v)[rewrite(f_j, n)]$. The latter is reflected in algorithm QUERY REWRITE in lines 41- 51. Now we show the correctness of axis processing. As it was mentioned above, axis processing requires representation of expression $v/axisSpecifier::n$ in terms of σ function for every DTD element v . If *axisSpecifier* is *child* then the rewritten expression is equal to $\sigma(v, n)$ (in the case of $n = *$ it will be union of $\sigma(v, child_v)$ where $child_v$ is a child of v). If *axisSpecifier* is *parent* then the rewritten expression is equal to $\sigma^{-1}(n, v)$ (again, in the case of wildcard it will be the union of all reversed related σ functions). If *axisSpecifier* is *descendant-or-self* then we use precomputed data of *preRewrite* table which consists of expressions representing all paths from v to n for all DTD elements v and n . The correctness of construction such expressions is shown in [12]. As we said above, these expressions are also rewritten in terms of σ function. If *axisSpecifier* is *ancestor-or-self* the expressions of *preRewrite* table should be rewritten by means of reversed σ function (i.e. σ^{-1}).

Comparing presented algorithm for query rewriting with that of provided by Fan et al. in [12], we would like to mention the differences. First difference is related to processing of qualifiers: we do not distinguish different types of qualifiers as it is done in [12]. Moreover, we consider the rewriting of qualifiers with respect to a subset of nodes to which these qualifiers are applied. This approach provides clear binding between node test and filters related to this node test. Furthermore, this binding is absent in the query rewriting algorithm presented in [12]. Another distinction lies in treatment of node tests θ . More precisely, according to our notion of parsing tree, the smallest (the latest) entity of parsing procedure (the leaf of parse tree) is an axis θ which is either label or wildcard. It means, that we do not distinguish a separated subpath $*$ as it is done by Fan et al. We consider $*$ as a type of axis. The same remark can be done for treatment of descendants: from our point of view “descendant” is a characteristics of axis rather than distinguishable subpath. The last and most prominent advantage of our approach is that it can accept user queries containing reverse axis specifiers such as *parent* and *ancestor-or-self*.

10 Implementation

At the University of Trento we have implemented a preliminary version of a Java tool that accepts user queries and returns answers as an XML document that is constructed from the set of nodes which are both visible to the user and satisfy the query conditions.

The tool consists of the following main components:

- *DTD Parser*: we extended the Wutka DTD parser² to be able to extract the security policy from the root element

²<http://www.wutka.com/dtdparser.html>

```

Algorithm: QUERY REWRITE
Input: a subquery  $q$  (as a string)
Output: a query  $p$  locally rewritten in terms of  $\sigma$  (as a string)
1: if  $q$  is  $\langle path \rangle$  then
   //  $q = firstStep/remainingSteps$ 
2:    $q_1 = q.getFirstStep(); p_1 = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_1);$ 
3:    $q_2 = q.getRemainingSteps(); p_2 = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_2);$ 
4:    $p = p_1/p_2;$ 
5:   for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
6:     if  $rewrite(p_1, A) = \emptyset$  then
7:        $rewrite(p, A) = \emptyset; reach(p, A) = \emptyset;$ 
8:     else
9:        $newRw = \emptyset;$ 
10:      for each  $v$  in  $reach(p_1, A)$  do
11:         $newRw = newRw \cup rewrite(p_2, v);$ 
12:         $reach(p, A) = reach(p, A) \cup reach(p_2, v);$ 
13:      if  $newRw \neq \emptyset$  then
14:         $rewrite(p, A) = rewrite(p_1, A)/newRw;$ 
15:      else
16:         $rewrite(p, A) = \emptyset; reach(p, A) = \emptyset;$ 
17: else if  $q$  is  $\langle qual \rangle$  then
18:   if  $q$  has two operands then
19:      $q_1$  is the first operand;  $p_1 = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_1);$ 
20:      $q_2$  is the second operand;  $p_2 = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_2);$ 
21:      $p = p_1\ q.getOperator()\ p_2;$ 
22:     for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
23:        $rewrite(p, A) = rewrite(p_1, A)\ q.getOperator()\ rewrite(p_2, A);$ 
24:   else
   //  $q$  has one operand, i.e. function is either not, unary minus
   // or empty operator. The latter means that  $q$  does not have
   // operator at all (e.g.  $q$  is  $\langle path \rangle$ )
25:    $q_0$  is the operand;  $p_0 = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_0);$ 
26:    $q.getOperator()\ p = p_0\ q.getOperator();$ 
27:   for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
28:      $rewrite(p, A) = q.getOperator()\ rewrite(p_0, A);$ 
29: else if  $q$  is  $\theta$  then
30:    $label = q.getLabel(); axisSpecifier = q.getAxisSpecifier();$ 
31:   if  $axisSpecifier$  is 'child' or 'parent' then
32:      $p = processChildParent(label, axisSpecifier);$ 
33:   else if  $axisSpecifier$  is 'descendant-or-self' or 'ancestor-or-self' then
34:      $p = processDescendAncest(label, axisSpecifier);$ 
35: else if  $q$  is  $\theta[\langle qual \rangle]$  then
   //  $q = nodeTest[filter_1] \dots [filter_n]$ 
36:    $q_0 = q.getNodeTest();$ 
37:    $p = q_0;$ 
38:   for all filters of  $q$  do
39:      $q_i$  is the next filter;  $p_i = QUERY\ REWRITE(q_i);$ 
40:      $p' = p[q_i];$ 
41:     for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
42:       if  $q_0.getNodeLabel() \neq *$  then
43:          $rewrite(p', A) = rewrite(p, A)[rewrite(q_i, q_0.getNodeLabel());]$ 
44:          $reach(p', A) = q_0.getNodeLabel();$ 
45:       else
46:          $newRw = \emptyset;$ 
47:         for all elements  $v$  in  $reach(q_0, A)$  do
48:            $newRw = newRw \cup rewrite(q_i, v);$ 
49:         if  $newRw \neq \emptyset$  then
50:            $rewrite(p', A) = rewrite(p, A)[newRw];$ 
51:            $reach(p', A) = reach(p', A) \cup reach(q_0, A);$ 
52:          $p = p';$ 
53: else if ( $q$  is literal) or ( $q$  is number) then
54:    $p = q;$ 
55:    $rewrite(p, A) = p;$ 
56: return  $rewrite(p, root);$ 

```

Figure 15: Algorithm QUERY REWRITE

and security annotation of each DTD element. The DTD Parser returns a special object DTD representing a set of DTD elements (DTDElement), their attributes (DTDAttribute) and children configuration. The latter is organized as a container (DTDContainer object) of items (DTDItem object). Each item is either a container or an element name (DTDName object). Moreover, containers can be of three kinds: sequence (DTDSequence, i.e. items delimited by commas), choice (DTDChoice, i.e. items are delimited by vertical bars), and mixed

Algorithm: processChildParent
Input: node label *label*, node axis specifier *axisSpecifier* (as a string)
Output: a query *p* locally rewritten in terms of σ

```

1:  $p = \text{axisSpecifier}::\text{label}$ ;
2: for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
3:   if  $\text{label} = *$  then
4:     for each node  $v$  that is in relation axisSpecifier with  $A$  do
5:        $\sigma = \text{getTranslation}(A, v, \text{isReverse}(\text{axisSpecifier}))$ ;
6:        $\text{rewrite}(p, A) = \text{rewrite}(p, A) \cup \sigma$ ;
7:        $\text{reach}(p, A) = \text{reach}(p, A) \cup v$ 
8:   else
9:     if  $\text{label}$  is in relation axisSpecifier with  $A$  then
10:       $\text{rewrite}(p, A) = \text{getTranslation}(A, v, \text{isReverse}(\text{axisSpecifier}))$ ;
11:       $\text{reach}(p, A) = \text{label}$ ;
12:   else
13:      $\text{rewrite}(p, A) = \emptyset$ ;  $\text{reach}(p, A) = \emptyset$ ;
14: return  $p$ ;

```

Figure 16: Algorithm processChildParent

Algorithm: processDescendAncest
Input: node label *label*, node axis specifier *axisSpecifier* (as a string)
Output: a query *p* locally rewritten in terms of σ

```

1:  $p = \text{axisSpecifier}::\text{label}$ ;
2: if axisSpecifier = descendant-or-self then
3:    $q = \text{'\Downarrow'}$ ;
4: else
5:   // axisSpecifier = ancestor-or-self
6:    $q = \text{'\Uparrow'}$ ;
7: for all elements  $A$  of  $D_v$  do
8:   if  $\text{label} = *$  then
9:     //  $\text{reach}(q, A)$  and  $\text{preRewrite}(q, A, B)$  are precomputed
10:    for each  $B$  in  $\text{reach}(q, A)$  do
11:      if  $\text{preRewrite}(q, A, B) \neq \emptyset$  then
12:         $\text{rewrite}(p, A) = \text{rewrite}(p, A) \cup \text{preRewrite}(q, A, B)$ ;
13:         $\text{reach}(p, A) = \text{reach}(p, A) \cup B$ 
14:   else
15:     if  $\text{preRewrite}(q, A, \text{label}) \neq \emptyset$  then
16:        $\text{rewrite}(p, A) = \text{rewrite}(p, A) \cup \text{preRewrite}(q, A, \text{label})$ ;
17:        $\text{reach}(p, A) = \text{reach}(p, A) \cup \text{label}$ 
18: return  $p$ ;

```

Figure 17: Algorithm processDescendAncest

Algorithm: getTranslation
Input: elements A, B of D_v (as string), node axis specifier direction *reverse* (as boolean)
Output: a $\sigma(A, B)$ in direct or reverse direction

```

1: if reverse = true then
2:   //  $\sigma(B, A)$  is an existing PathExpression
3:   // we want  $\sigma^{-1}(B, A)$ 
4:    $\text{str} = \text{'parent} :: B'$ ;
5:    $\sigma(B, A) = \sigma(B, A).getRemainingSteps()$ ;
6:   while  $\sigma(B, A) \neq \emptyset$  do
7:      $\text{step} = \sigma(B, A).getFirstStep()$ ;
8:      $\sigma(B, A) = \sigma(B, A).getRemainingSteps()$ ;
9:     if  $\sigma(B, A) \neq \emptyset$  then
10:       $p = \text{self} :: \text{step}/p$ ;
11:     else
12:       $p = \text{parent} :: \text{step}/p$ ;
13:   return  $p$ 
14:   //  $p = \sigma^{-1}(B, A)$ 
15: else
16:   return  $\sigma(A, B)$ ;

```

Figure 18: Algorithm getTranslation

(DTDMixed, i.e. includes PCDATA). However Wutka's DTDElement object has two significant drawbacks: container configuration complicates the process of retrieval of children set, and DTDElement does not provides access to parents. To overcome these limitations, we added to DTDElement class two additional fields: children and parents representing plain lists of children and parents names respectively. Thus these fields

represent graph structure of input DTD. Their content is formed at the step of DTD parsing.

- *View Builder*: implements algorithms ANNOTATE VIEW and BUILD VIEW.
- *Query Parser*: we used the SAXON³ processor to parse XPath expression into their tree representation. Query Parser also performs evaluation of the rewritten query over XML source. This functionality is stipulated by the SAXON XPath query implementation via the `XPathEvaluator` object which is able to parse the XML source, to create the intermediate parse tree representation of the XPath query, and finally to evaluate parsed query over the XML document. In addition Query Parser performs output of answer set to an XML file.
- *Query Rewriter*: implements algorithm QUERY REWRITE
- *DOM Validator*: performs checks of the validity of XML document (i.e. XML document should conform to the rules of DTD schema), parses XML into DOM tree, and produces the materialized view. We used Xerces⁴ processor for these purposes.

To write the XML file (either materialized view or answer set), we use JAXP `DocumentBuilder`⁵.

Firstly, Wutka DTD parser is used to parse DTD stored in dtd-file. As it was said above, we modified Wutka DTD parser so that it could be able to distinguish annotation introduces in Sec. 4. Then partially annotated DTD is extended to a full annotated one according to the algorithm ANNOTATE VIEW. Next we apply BUILD VIEW to produce D_v (schema of accessible data) and σ -function which is used to materialize view of XML document T_S according to the algorithm MATERIALIZE.

Example 10.1: Fig. 26 shows an initial XML document corresponding to DTD of Fig. 4. Fig. 27 and Fig. 28 represent XML view for user with login “dkonovalov” and “vromanov” respectively. Both views correspond to DTD view of Fig. 11 and are extracted by means of σ -function of Fig. 12 during application of algorithm MATERIALIZE.

We should note, that each student has an access only to relevant data, i.e. Dmitry Konovalov with login “dkonovalov” is not able to see the data of Vladimir Romanov having login “vromanov” and vice versa. Moreover, Vladimir Romanov is forbidden to see the content of recommendation letters except of the names of his evaluators, while Dmitry Konovalov has an access to full content of all recommendation letters. This is because the former student didn’t waive his right to inspect the content of recommendation letters (`waiver=“false”`) while the latter did. Furthermore, no one student is permitted to see elements `unreliable`, `reason`, `letter`, `favorable`, `unfavorable`. □

11 Experimental Results

11.1 Experimental framework

XML documents. To generate a set of XML documents we use XMark benchmark [1]. The benchmark data generator produces XML documents modelling an auction web-site. Number and type of elements in resulting XML depend on parameter called *factor*. The significant feature of XMark benchmark is the generation of one unique XML document for one factor value.

We generated 31 XML documents with factor $i/10000$, $i = \overline{100, 130}$. The size of these XML files varies from 1Mb to 1.2Mb.

Security annotation. XMark benchmark provides the DTD schema `auctions.dtd` which describes an auction scenario. It defines 77 elements describing a list of auction items, information about bidders, sellers, buyers, etc.

³<http://saxon.sourceforge.net/>

⁴<http://xml.apache.org/xerces2-j/>

⁵<http://java.sun.com/xml/jaxp>

```

<!ATTLIST catgraph security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST regions security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST categories security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST person
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath
  CDATA #FIXED "self::node()[@id=$login]">
<!ATTLIST open_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA
  #FIXED "./bidder/personref[@person=$login]">
<!ATTLIST closed_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA
  #FIXED "./buyer[@person=$login]">
<!ATTLIST privacy security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">

```

Figure 19: Buyer policy

```

<!ATTLIST catgraph security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST regions security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST categories security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST creditcard
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "parent::person[@id=$login]">
<!ATTLIST profile
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "parent::person[@id=$login]">
<!ATTLIST buyer
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "parent::person/seller[@person=$login]">
<!ATTLIST open_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Q"
  security_annotation_xpath CDATA #FIXED
  "seller[@person=$login]">
<!ATTLIST closed_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST privacy security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">

```

Figure 20: Seller policy

We have defined three user roles:

- *buyer*: can see personal information, open auctions where he is one of the bidders, closed auction where he is a buyer. Buyer cannot see privacy info, data about regions, category graph and categories. DTD representation of buyer's policy is depicted in Fig. 19.
- *seller*: is permitted to see own profile and credit card info, as well as open auctions where he is a seller. Seller can also see who buys his items. Seller cannot see privacy info, data about regions, category graph and categories. Seller's policy is shown in Fig. 20.
- *visitor*: is allowed to read information about bidders, sellers and buyers. Personal info and privacy info, as well as data about regions, category graph and categories are unavailable for visitor. Security annotation for seller is presented in Fig. 21.

```

<!ATTLIST catgraph security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST regions security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST categories security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST buyer
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST seller
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST bidder
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "Y">
<!ATTLIST people security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST open_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST closed_auction
  security_annotation_data CDATA #FIXED "N">
<!ATTLIST privacy security_annotation_data
  CDATA #FIXED "N">

```

Figure 21: Visitor policy

Table 6: Query rewriting evaluation

	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_4	Q_5
buyer	12.5	11.2	7.2	15.7	11
seller	11	10.8	9.5	14.1	15.7
visitor	3.2	0	0	0	1.6

For all three roles we assume that root site is annotated by Y policy propagation is performed in top down manner, default security policy is closed.

Queries. We consider the following set of queries to be evaluated over the data set:

$$\begin{aligned}
Q_1 &= ./person/name \\
Q_2 &= ./open_auction/(bidder|quantity) \\
Q_3 &= ./open_auction[seller and bidder] \\
Q_4 &= ./ * [name]/parent :: people/person \\
Q_5 &= ./bidder/parent :: *
\end{aligned}$$

Thus all queries contain a step with axis specifier descendant-or-self. Moreover query Q_2 has union operation, predicate with \wedge operation is included in query Q_3 , examples of usage of $*$ and reverse axis specifier (parent) are shown in queries Q_4 and Q_5 .

11.2 Evaluation

In Table 6 we show the time that is required to rewrite queries $Q_i, i = \overline{1, 5}$ over DTD views built for roles *buyer*, *seller* and *visitor*. Since we rewrote queries for each XML file (we have 31 different XML files) and for each login (we have 10 logins), each cell of Table 6 presents time (in milliseconds) as arithmetic mean of 310 relevant values.

How do we validate the effectiveness of the approach? The simplest approach is simply to materialize the view and then run the user's query on it. We call this approach the *naive approach*. This is what could be done following the previous approaches such as Bertino et al. or Damiani et al. Then a second question come: how do we evaluate the

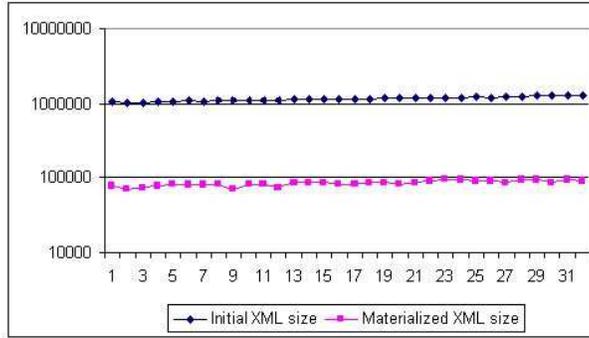


Figure 22: Comparison of size of initial and materialized XML files for visitor

running time: do we materialize the view for each and every query or we just materialize it once and amortize the materialized time over many queries.

However, trying to decrease processing time by storing materialized view cannot work in this setting. Recall that this is the materialized view for *one* user and different users may have different views. On the XMark benchmark, since policy for buyer and seller include conditions on user login, we should *preserve and select views for all logins and all roles*. For example, the smallest XML document that we generated by XMark has approximately 250 people identifiers. Each of these people may want to see the data stored in that XML.

In Fig. 22 we show the comparison of size of the initial XML document and its materialized view. The policy of visitor role does not contain any login-based conditions. Therefore views are the same for all logins. However, the size of materialized view is around 100Kb provided the initial XML file is 1Mb size. Views for seller are even bigger. And if we want to store the views for all sellers we should reserve 25Mb of space only for one role. Moreover real-life data may require much more space. Finally, maintaining the integrity of fast changing auction data in 250 views is hardly an effective solution.

At the other side of the spectrum we can apply the query rewriting algorithm to the unmaterialized view. We call this approach the *advanced approach*. In the remaining of the paper we compare the naive and the advanced approach on each individual query, as we have already ruled out as infeasible the notion of amortizing the materialization over many queries.

Next we compare two strategies of query answering: naive and advanced. For each XML document we ran evaluation of each query from the viewpoint of 10 users ($login = person_i, i = \overline{1, 10}$). Moreover, each user tries to login under different roles. One dimension of our evaluation is query evaluation time depending on the size of initial XML file.

In advanced approach time depends on the following steps:

1. DTD parsing, DTD annotation and building of DTD view D_v ;
2. query parsing;
3. **query rewriting**;
4. evaluation of query over **initial** XML source.

In naive approach time measurement is conditioned by the following steps:

1. DTD parsing, DTD annotation and building of DTD view D_v ;
2. **building of sanitized XML source (view materialization)**;

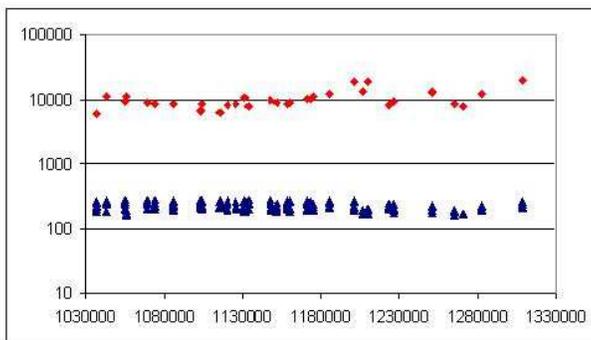


Figure 23: Query evaluation for buyer role

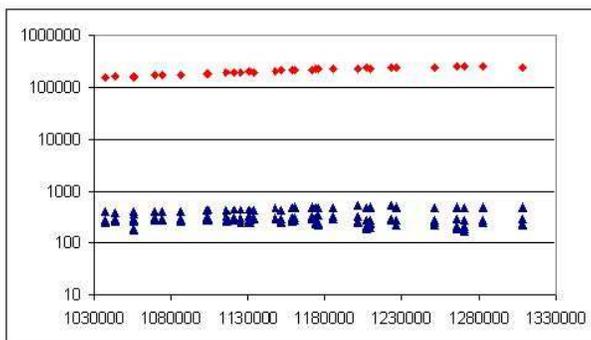


Figure 24: Query evaluation for seller role

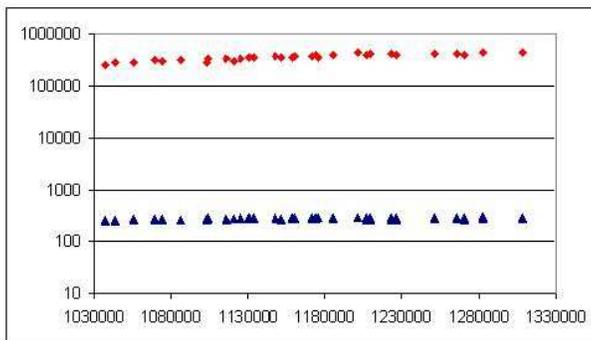


Figure 25: Query evaluation for visitor role

3. query parsing
4. evaluation of query over **sanitized** XML source.

We emphasized with bold font those steps that are specific for a particular approach.

Figures 23, 24 and 25 show the dependency of query evaluation time on the size of the initial XML document for buyer, seller and visitor respectively. Horizontal axis represents XML size in bytes, vertical axis shows query evaluation time in milliseconds. In all three pictures we can see two main trends: upper trend (diamonds) is produced by the naive approach, lower one (triangles) stands for advanced approach. It is easy to see that naive approach answers user query much slower than the advanced one.

Concluding this section, we should mention that there is no implementation available for either Stoika and Farkas or Fan et al.

12 Related Work and Conclusions

A number of security models have been proposed for XML (see [13] for a recent survey). Specifying security constraints with XPath on top of document DTDs was discussed in [9]. The semantics of access control to a user is a specific view of the document determined by the XPath access-control rules. A view derivation algorithm is based on tree labelling. Issues like granularity of access, access-control inheritance, overriding, and conflict resolution are studied in [4, 9].

A different approach is explored in [7]. In a nutshell, access annotations are explicitly included in the actual element nodes in XML, whereas DTD nodes specify “coarse” conditions on the existence of security specifications in corresponding XML nodes. Only elements with accessible annotations appear in the result of a query.

Stoika and Farkas [22] proposed to produce single-level views of XML when conforming DTD is annotated by labels of different confidentiality level. The key idea lies in analyzing semantic correlation between element types, modification of initial structure of DTD and using cover stories. Altered DTD then undergoes “filtering” when only element types of the confidentiality lever no higher that the requester’s one are extracted. However, the proposal requires expert’s analysis of semantic meaning of production rules, and this can be unacceptable if database contains a large amount of schemas which are changed occasionally.

This paper elaborates on certain issues left open in [12]. In particular, we studied access control and security specifications defined over general DTDs in terms of regular expressions rather than normalized DTDs of [12]. Furthermore, we developed a new algorithm for deriving a security view definition from more intuitive access control specification (w.r.t. a non-recursive DTD) without introducing dummy element types, and thus preventing inference of sensitive information from the XML structure revealed by dummies.

In this paper, we have also studied the performance of answering queries on an XML database, subject to access control annotations applied on the original DTD. We show that the query rewriting approach compared to the naive one is more efficient in sense of time and space.

Time effectiveness takes place because we are delivered from view materialization which is a very time consuming operation. In our experimental benchmark the query rewriting strategy issues answer for user query approximately one hundred times faster than the naive strategy. Another considered point is the space preserving property of advanced method: naive approach in our experimental framework generates views that require 2.5 times more space than the initial data set. Moreover, the number of views can be extremely large that may cause problems with the maintenance of data integrity.

Several extensions to the security model are targeted for future work. First, we plan to extend the definitions of security views and authorization specifications by supporting more complex XML Schema [11] instead of DTDs. Second, we are also studying extensions of our algorithm for deriving security-view definitions with respect to recursive DTDs/schemas. Third, we intend to evaluate the effect of different security policies, whether the notion of security view can be adapted to all, or some, of these security policies, and the design of efficient algorithms for those cases where this is possible. Finally, our next step toward enforcing inference control will be to investigate reasoning techniques in the presence of integrity constraints and ID/IDREF attributes.

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```

<?xml version='1.0'?> <!DOCTYPE applications SYSTEM 'input.dtd'>
<applications>
  <application>
    <student-data id='dkonovalov'>
      <department>CS</department><degree>PhD</degree>
      <name>Dmitry Konovalov</name><waiver>>true</waiver></student-data>
    <recommendation-letter>
      <evaluator>
        <title>Full Professor</title>
        <institution>University of Suncity</institution>
        <name>Albert Wasserman</name></evaluator>
      <letter><unfavorable>
        <rating>
          <MS>average</MS><PhD>not recommended</PhD><English>below average</English>
        </rating>
        <free-text>
          <TXT>link to txt-file goes here</TXT></free-text>
        </unfavorable></letter>
      </recommendation-letter>
    <unreliable>
      <recommendation-letter>
        <evaluator>
          <title>Researcher</title>
          <institution>Magnificent Labs</institution>
          <name>Maria Shaker</name></evaluator>
        <letter><favorable>
          <rating>
            <MS>outstanding</MS>
            <PhD>highly recommended</PhD>
            <English>outstanding</English></rating>
          <free-text>
            <PDF>link to pdf-file goes here</PDF></free-text>
          </favorable></letter>
        </recommendation-letter>
        <reason>The recommender does not exist.</reason>
      </unreliable>
    </application>
  <application>
    <student-data id='vromanov'>
      <department>CS</department><degree>PhD</degree>
      <name>Vladimir Romanov</name><waiver>>false</waiver></student-data>
    <unreliable>
      <recommendation-letter>
        <evaluator>
          <title>Researcher</title>
          <institution>Magnificent Labs</institution>
          <name>Maria Shaker</name></evaluator>
        <letter><favorable>
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            <MS>outstanding</MS>
            <PhD>highly recommended</PhD>
            <English>outstanding</English></rating>
          <free-text>
            <PDF>link to pdf-file goes here</PDF></free-text>
          </favorable></letter>
        </recommendation-letter>
        <reason>The recommender does not exist.</reason>
      </unreliable>
    </application>
  </applications>

```

Figure 26: Initial XML

```

<applications>
  <application>
    <student-data id="dkonovalov">
      <department>CS</department>
      <degree>PhD</degree>
      <name>Dmitry Konovalov</name>
      <waiver>true</waiver>
    </student-data>
    <recommendation-letter>
      <evaluator>
        <title>Full Professor</title>
        <institution>University of Suncity</institution>
        <name>Albert Wasserman</name>
      </evaluator>
      <rating>
        <MS>average</MS>
        <PhD>not recommended</PhD>
        <English>below average</English>
      </rating>
      <free-text>
        <TXT>link to txt-file goes here</TXT>
      </free-text>
    </recommendation-letter>
    <recommendation-letter>
      <evaluator>
        <title>Researcher</title>
        <institution>Magnificent Labs</institution>
        <name>Maria Shaker</name>
      </evaluator>
      <rating>
        <MS>outstanding</MS>
        <PhD>highly recommended</PhD>
        <English>outstanding</English>
      </rating>
      <free-text>
        <PDF>link to pdf-file goes here</PDF>
      </free-text>
    </recommendation-letter>
  </application>
</applications>

```

Figure 27: XML view for student Dmitry Konovalov

```

<applications>
  <application>
    <student-data id="vromanov">
      <department>CS</department>
      <degree>PhD</degree>
      <name>Vladimir Romanov</name>
      <waiver>false</waiver>
    </student-data>
  </application>
</applications>

```

Figure 28: XML view for student Vladimir Romanov