

# QUIRE: Lightweight Provenance for Smart Phone Operating Systems

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## Abstract

Smartphone apps often run with full privileges to access the network and sensitive local resources, making it difficult for remote systems to have any trust in the provenance of network connections they receive. Even within the phone, different apps with different privileges can communicate with one another, allowing one app to trick another into improperly exercising its privileges (a Confused Deputy attack). In QUIRE, we engineered two new security mechanisms into Android to address these issues. First, we track the call chain of IPCs, allowing an app the choice of operating with the diminished privileges of its callers or to act explicitly on its own behalf. Second, a lightweight signature scheme allows any app to create a signed statement that can be verified anywhere inside the phone. Both of these mechanisms are reflected in network RPCs, allowing remote systems visibility into the state of the phone when an RPC is made. We demonstrate the usefulness of QUIRE with two example applications. We built an advertising service, running distinctly from the app which wants to display ads, which can validate clicks passed to it from its host. We also built a payment service, allowing an app to issue a request which the payment service validates with the user. An app cannot not forge a payment request by directly connecting to the remote server, nor can the local payment service tamper with the request.

## 1 Introduction

On a smartphone, applications are typically given broad permissions to make network connections, access local data repositories, and issue requests to other apps on the device. For Apple’s iPhone, the only mechanism that protects users from malicious apps is the vetting process for an app to get into Apple’s app store. (Apple also has the ability to remotely delete apps, although it’s something of an emergency-only system.) However, any

iPhone app might have its own security vulnerabilities, perhaps through a buffer overflow attack, which can give an attacker full access to the entire phone.

The Android platform, in contrast, has no significant vetting process before an app is posted to the Android Market. Instead, applications from different authors run with different Unix user ids, containing the damage if an application is compromised. (In this aspect, Android follows a design similar to SubOS [15].) However, this does nothing to defend a trusted app from being manipulated by a malicious app via IPC (i.e., a Confused Deputy attack [13]). Likewise, there is no mechanism to prevent an IPC callee from misrepresenting the intentions of its caller to a third party.

This mutual distrust arises in many mobile applications. Consider the example of a mobile advertisement system. An application hosting an ad would rather the ad run in a distinct process, with its own user-id, so bugs in the ad system do not impact the host. Similarly, the ad system might not trust its host to display the ad correctly, and must be concerned with hosts that try to generate fake clicks to inflate their ad revenue.

To address these concerns, we introduce QUIRE, a low-overhead security mechanism that provides important context in the form of *provenance* and OS managed data security to local and remote apps communicating by IPC and RPC respectively. QUIRE uses two techniques to provide security to communicating applications.

First, QUIRE transparently annotates IPCs occurring within the phone such that the recipient of an IPC request can observe the full call chain associated with the request. When an application wishes to make a network RPC, it might well connect to a raw network socket, but it would lack credentials that we can build into the OS, which can speak to the state of an RPC in a way that an app cannot forge. (This contextual information can be thought of as a generalization of the information provided by the recent HTTP Origin header [2], used by web servers to help defeat cross-site request forgery (CSRF)

attacks.)

Second, QUIRE uses simple cryptographic mechanisms to protect data moving over IPC and RPC channels. QUIRE provides a mechanism for an app to tag an object with cheap message authentication codes, using keys that are shared with a trusted OS service. When data annotated in this manner moves off the device, the OS can verify the signature and speak to the integrity of the message in the RPC.

**Applications.** QUIRE enables a variety of useful applications. Consider the case of in-application advertising. A large number of free applications include advertisements from services like AdMob. AdMob is presently implemented as a library that runs in the same process as the application hosting the ad, creating trivial opportunities for the application to spoof information to the server, such as claiming an ad is displayed when it isn't, or claiming an ad was clicked when it wasn't. In QUIRE, the advertisement service runs as a separate application and interacts with the displaying app via IPC calls. The remote application's server can now reliably distinguish RPC calls coming from its trusted agent, and can further distinguish legitimate clicks from forgeries, because every UI event is tagged with a MAC, for which the OS will vouch.

Consider also the case of payment services. Many smartphone apps would like a way to sell things, leveraging payment services from PayPal, Google Checkout, and other such services. We would like to enable an application to send a payment request to a local payment agent, who can then pass the request on to its remote server. The payment agent must be concerned with the main app trying to issue fraudulent payment requests, so it needs to validate requests with the user. Similarly, the main app might be worried about the payment agent misbehaving, so it wants to create unforgeable "purchase orders" which the payment app cannot corrupt. All of this can be easily accomplished with our new mechanisms.

**Challenges.** For QUIRE to be successful, we must accomplish a number of goals. Our design must be sufficiently general to capture a variety of use cases for augmented internal and remote communication. Toward that end, we build on many concepts from Taos [32], including its compound principals and logic of authentication (see Section 2). Our implementation must be fast. Every IPC call in the system must be annotated and must be subsequently verifiable without having a significant impact on throughput, latency, or battery life. (Section 3 describes QUIRE's implementation, and Section 5 presents our performance measurements.) QUIRE expands on related work from a variety of fields, including existing

Android research, web security, distributed authentication logics, and trusted platform measurements (see Section 6). We expect QUIRE to serve as a platform for future work in secure UI design, as a substrate for future research in web browser engineering, and as starting point for a variety of applications (see Section 7).

## 2 Design

Fundamentally, the design goal of QUIRE is to allow apps to reason about the call-chain and data provenance of requests, occurring on the host platform via IPC or on a remote server via RPC, before committing to a security-relevant decision. This design goal is shared by a variety of other systems, ranging from Java's stack inspection [28, 29] to many newer systems that rely on data tainting or information flow control (see, e.g., [18, 19, 9]). In QUIRE, much like in stack inspection, we wish to support legacy code without much, if any modification. However, unlike stack inspection, we don't want to modify the system to annotate and track every method invocation, nor would we like to suffer the runtime costs of dynamic data tainting as in TaintDroid [9]. Likewise, we wish to operate correctly with apps that have natively compiled code, not just Java code (an issue with traditional stack inspection and with TaintDroid). Instead, we observe that we only need to track calls across IPC boundaries, which happen far less frequently than method invocations, and which already must pay significant overheads for data marshaling, context switching, and copying.

Stack inspection has the property that the available privileges at the end of a call chain represent the intersection of the privileges of every app along the chain (more on this in Section 2.2), which is good for preventing Confused Deputy attacks, but doesn't solve a variety of other problems, such as validating the integrity of individual data items as they are passed from one app to another or over the network. For that, we need semantics akin to digital signatures, but we need to be much more efficient (more on this in Section 2.3).

**Versus information flow** Our design is necessarily less precise than dynamic taint analysis, but it's also incredibly flexible. We can avoid the need to annotate code with static security policies, as would be required in information flow-typed systems like Jif [20]. We similarly do not need to poly-instantiate services to ensure that each instance only handles a single security label as in systems like DStar/HiStar [33]. Instead, in QUIRE, an application which handles requests from multiple callers will pass along an object annotated with the originator's context when it makes downstream requests on behalf of

the original caller.

Likewise, where a dynamic tainting system like TaintDroid [9] would generally allow a sensitive operation, like learning the phone’s precise GPS location, to occur, but would forbid it from flowing to an unprivileged app; QUIRE will carry the unprivileged context through to the point where the dangerous operation is about to happen, and will then forbid the operation. An information flow approach is thus more likely to catch corner cases (e.g., where an app caches location data, so no privileged call is ever performed), but is also more likely to have false positives (where it must conservatively err on the side of flagging a flow that is actually just fine). A programmer in an information flow system would need to tag these false positive corner cases as acceptable, whereas a programmer in QUIRE would need to add additional security checks to corner cases that would otherwise be allowed.

## 2.1 Authentication logic and cryptography

In order to reason about the semantics of QUIRE, we need a formal model to express what the various operations in QUIRE will do. Toward that end, we use the Abadi et al. [1] (hereafter “ABLP”) logic of authentication, as used in Taos [32]. In this logic, *principals* make *statements*, which can include various forms of quotation (“Alice **says** that Bob **says** X”) and authorization (e.g., “Alice **says** that Bob speaks for Alice”). ABLP nicely models the behavior of cryptographic operations, where cryptographic keys speak for other principals, and we can use this model to reason about cross-process communication on a device or over the network.

For the remainder of the current section, we will flesh out QUIRE’s IPC and RPC design in terms of ABLP and the cryptographic mechanisms we have adopted.

## 2.2 IPC provenance

The goal of QUIRE’s IPC provenance system is to allow endpoints that protect sensitive resources, like a user’s fine grained GPS data or contact information, to reason about the complete IPC call-chain of a request for the resource before granting access to it.

QUIRE realizes this goal by modifying the Android IPC middle-ware layer to automatically build calling context as an IPC call-chain is formed. Consider a call-chain where three principals *A*, *B*, and *C*, are communicating. If *A* calls *B* who then calls *C* without keeping track of the call-stack, *C* only knows that *B* initiated a request to it, not that the call from *A* prompted *B* to make the call to *C*. This loss of context can have significant security implications in a system like Android where permissions are directly linked to the identity of the principal requesting access to a sensitive resource.

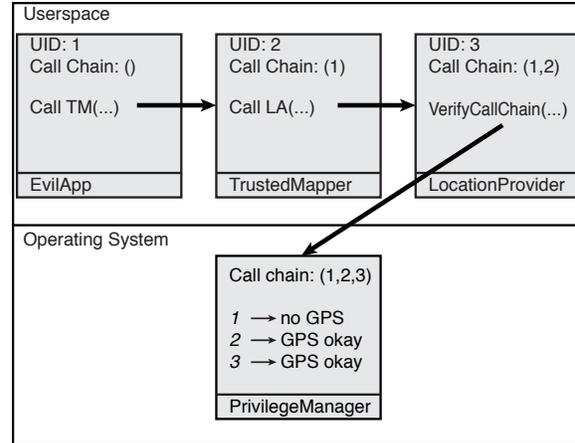


Figure 1: Defeating Confused Deputy attacks.

To address this, QUIRE’s design is for any given callee to retain its caller’s call-chain and pass this to a downstream callee. The downstream callee will automatically have its caller’s principal prepended to the ABLP statement. In our above scenario, *C* will receive a statement “*B says A says Ok*”, where **Ok** is an abstract token representing that the given resource is authorized to be used. It’s now the burden of *C* (or QUIRE’s privilege manager, operating on *C*’s behalf) to prove **Ok**. As Wallach et al. [29] demonstrated, this is equivalent to validating that each principal in the calling chain is individually allowed to perform the action in question.

**Confused Deputy** With this additional context, QUIRE defeats Confused Deputy attacks; if any one of the principals in the call chain is not privileged for the action being taken, permission is denied. Figure 1 shows this in the context of an evil application, lacking fine-grained location privileges, which is trying to abuse the privileges of a trusted mapping program, which happens to have that privilege. The mapping application, never realizing that its helpful API might be a security vulnerability, naïvely and automatically passes along the call chain along to the location service. The location service then uses the call chain to prove (or disprove) that the request for fine-grained location show be allowed.

As with traditional stack inspection, there will be times that an app genuinely wishes to exercise a privilege, regardless of its caller’s lack of the same privilege. Stack inspection solves this with an *enablePrivilege* primitive that, in the ABLP logic, simply doesn’t pass along the caller’s call stack information. The callee after privileges are enabled gets only the caller’s identity. (In the example of Figure 1, the trusted mapper would drop evil app from the call chain, and the location service would only hear that the map application wishes to

use the service.)

Our design is, in effect, an example of the “security passing style” transformation [29], where security beliefs are passed explicitly as an IPC argument rather than passed implicitly as annotations on the call stack. One beneficial consequence of this is that a callee might well save the statement made by its caller and reuse them at a later time, perhaps if they queue requests for later processing, in order to properly modulate the privilege level of outgoing requests.

**Security analysis** While apps, by default, will pass along call chain information without modification, QUIRE allows a caller to forge the identities of its upstream callers. No cryptography needs to be used to prevent this. By enabling a caller to misrepresent its antecedent call chain, this would seem to be a serious security vulnerability, but there is no *incentive* for a caller to lie, since nothing it quotes from its antecedent callers can increase its privileges in any way.

Conversely, our design requires the callee to learn the caller’s identity in an unforgeable fashion. When the callee prepends the “Caller **says**” tokens to the statement it hears from the caller, using information that is available as part of every Android Binder IPC, any lack of privileges on the caller’s part will be properly reflected when the privileges for the trusted operation are later evaluated.

Furthermore, our design is incredibly lightweight; we can construct and propagate IPC call chains with very little impact on the overall IPC performance (see Section 5).

## 2.3 Verifiable Statements

Stack inspection semantics are helpful, but are not sufficient for many security needs. We envision a variety of scenarios where we will need semantics equivalent to digital signatures, but with much better performance than public-key cryptographic operations.

**Definition** A *verifiable statement* is a 3-tuple  $[P, M, A(M)_P]$  where  $P$  is the principal that said message  $M$ , and  $A(M)_P$  is an authentication token that can be used by the Authority Manager OS service to verify  $P$  said  $M$ . In ABLP, this tuple represents the statement “ $P$  says  $M$ .”

In order to operate without requiring slow public-key cryptographic operations, we must instead use message authentication codes (MAC). MAC functions, like HMAC-SHA1, run several orders of magnitude faster than digital signature functions like DSA, but MAC functions require a shared key between the generator and verifier of a MAC. To avoid an  $N^2$  key explosion, we instead

have every application share a key with a central, trusted authority manager. As such, any app can produce a statement “App **says**  $M$ ”, purely by computing a MAC with its secret key. However, for a second app to verify it, it must send the statement to the authority manager. If the authority manager says the MAC is valid, then the second app will believe the veracity of the statement.

## 2.4 RPC attestations

When moving from on-device IPCs to Internet RPCs, some of the properties that exist on the device disappear. Most notably, the receiver of a call can no longer open a channel to talk to the authority manager, even if they did trust it<sup>1</sup>. To combat this, QUIRE’s design requires an additional “network provider” system service, which can speak over the network, on behalf of statements made on the phone. This will require it to speak with a cryptographic secret that is not available to any applications on the system.

One method for getting such a secret key is to have the phone manufacturer embed an X.509 certificate which they sign along with the corresponding private key into storage which is only accessible to the OS kernel. This certificate can be used to establish a client-authenticated TLS connection to a remote service, with the remote server using the presence of the client certificate, as endorsed by a trusted certification authority, to provide confidence that it is really communicating with the QUIRE phone’s operating system, rather than an application attempting to impersonate the OS. With this attestation-carrying encrypted channel in place, RPCs can then carry a serialized form of the same statements passed along in QUIRE IPCs, including both call chains and signed statements, with the network provider trusted to speak on behalf of the activity inside the phone.

All of this can be transmitted in a variety of ways, such as a new HTTP header. Regular QUIRE applications would be able to speak through this channel, but the new HTTP headers, with their security-relevant contextual information, would not be accessible to or forgeable by the applications making RPCs. (This is analogous to the HTTP origin header [2], generated by modern web browsers, but carries more detailed contextual information from the caller.)

The strength of this security context information is limited by the ability of the device and the OS to protect the key material. If a malicious application can extract the private key, then it would be able to send messages with arbitrary claims about the provenance of the request. This leads us inevitably to techniques from

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<sup>1</sup>Like it or not, with NATs, firewalls, and other such impediments to bi-directional connectivity, we can only assume that the phone can make outbound TCP connections, not receive inbound ones.

the field of trusted platform measurement (TPM), where stored cryptographic key material is rendered unavailable unless the kernel was properly validated when it booted. TPM chips are common in many of today’s laptops and could well be installed in future smartphones.

Even without TPM hardware, Android phones generally prohibit applications from running with full root privileges, allowing the kernel to protect its data from malicious apps. This is a sound design until users forcibly “root” their phones, which is commonly done to work around carrier-instituted restrictions such as forbidding phones from freely relaying cellular data services as WiFi hotspots. Regardless, *most* users will never “root” their phones, preventing normal applications, even if they want superuser privileges, from getting them, and then compromising the network provider’s private keys.

**Privacy.** An interesting concern arises with our design: Every RPC call made from QUIRE uses the unique public key assigned to that phone. Presumably, the public key certificate would contain a variety of identifying information, thus making *every* RPC personally identify the owner of the phone. This may well be desirable in *some* circumstances, notably allowing web services with Android applications acting as frontends to completely eliminate any need for username/password dialogs. However, it’s clearly undesirable in other cases. To address this very issue, the Trusted Computing Group has designed what it calls “direct anonymous attestation”<sup>2</sup>, using cryptographic group signatures to allow the caller to prove that it knows one of a large group of related private keys without saying anything about which one. A production implementation of QUIRE could certainly switch from TLS client-auth to some form of anonymous attestation without a significant performance impact.

An interesting challenge, for future work, is being able to switch from anonymous attestation, in the default case, to classical client-authentication, in cases where it might be desirable. One notable challenge of this would be working around users who will click affirmatively on any “okay / cancel” dialog that’s presented to them without ever bothering to read it. Perhaps this could be finessed with an Android privilege that is requested at the time an application is installed. Unprivileged apps can only make anonymous attestations, while more trusted apps can make attestations that uniquely identify the specific phone.

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<sup>2</sup><http://www.zurich.ibm.com/security/daa/>

## 3 Implementation

QUIRE is implemented as a set of extensions to the existing Android Java runtime libraries and Binder IPC system. The authority manager and network provider are trusted components and therefore implemented as OS level services while our modified Android interface definition language code generator provides IPC stub code that allows applications to propagate and adopt an IPC call-stack. The result, which is implemented in around 1300 lines of Java and C++ code, is an extension to the existing Android OS that provides locally verifiable statements, IPC provenance, and authenticated RPC for QUIRE-aware applications and backward compatibility for existing Android applications.

### 3.1 On- and off-phone principals

The Android architecture sandboxes applications such that apps from different sources run as different Unix users. Standard Android features also allow us to resolve user-ids into human-readable names and permission sets, based on the applications’ origins. Based on these features, the prototype QUIRE implementation defines principals as the tuple of a user-id and process-id. We include the process-id component to allow the recipient of an IPC method call to stipulate policies that force the process-id of a communication partner to remain unchanged across a series of calls. (This feature is largely ignored in the applications we have implemented for testing and evaluation purposes, but it might be useful later.)

While principals defined by user-id/process-id tuples are sufficient for the identification of an application on the phone, they are meaningless to a remote service. QUIRE therefore resolves the user-id/process-id tuples used in IPC call-chains into an externally meaningful string consisting of the marshaled chain of application names when RPC communication is invoked to move data off the phone. This lazy resolution of IPC principals allows QUIRE to reduce the memory footprint of statements when performing IPC calls at the cost of extra effort when RPCs are performed.

### 3.2 Authority management

The Authority Manager discussed in Section 2 is implemented as a system service that runs within the operating system’s reserved user-id space. The interface exposed by the service allows userspace applications to request a shared secret, submit a statement for verification, or request the resolution of the principal included in a statement into an externally meaningful form.

When an application requests a key from the authority manager, the Authority Manager maintains a table map-

ping user-id / process-id tuples to the key. It is important to note that a subsequent request from the same application will prompt the Authority Manager to create a new key for the calling application and replace the previous stored key in the lookup table. This prevents attacks that might try to exploit the reuse of user-ids and process-ids as applications come and go over time.

### 3.3 Verifiable statements

Section 2 introduced the idea of attaching an OS verifiable statement to an object in order to allow principals later in a call-chain to verify the authenticity and integrity of a received object.

Our implementation of this abstract concept involves a parcelable statement object that consists of a principal identifier as well as an authentication token. When this statement object is attached to a parcelable object, the annotated object contains all the information necessary for the Authority Manager service to validate the authentication token contained within the statement. Therefore the annotated object can be sent over Android’s IPC channels and later delivered to the QUIRE Authority Manger for verification by the OS as discussed in section 2.

QUIRE’s verifiable statement implementation establishes the authenticity of message with a hashed message authentication code (HMAC) digest rather than a heavy-weight public key digital signature. This implementation decision drastically reduces the cost of creating and verifying a statement, as discussed in section 5 while still providing the authentication and integrity semantics required by QUIRE.

**Fast authenticator creation** A fundamental assumption of our decision to use Hashed Message Authentication Codes (HMACs) rather than public-key digital signatures as our cryptographic mechanism for authentication was that the Android-provided HMAC library code would yield results within a constant factor of OpenSSL’s baseline numbers. In practice, doing HMAC-SHA1 in pure Java was still slow enough to be an issue.

We resolved the issue by using the native C implementation from OpenSSL and exposing it to Java code as a Dalvik VM intrinsic function, rather than a JNI native method. This eliminated unnecessary copying and runs at full native speed (see Section 5.2.1).

### 3.4 Code generator

The key to the stack inspection semantics that QUIRE provides is an extension to the Android Interface Definition Language (AIDL) code generator. This piece of software is responsible for taking in a generalized interface definition and creating stub and proxy code to fa-

cilitate Binder IPC communication over the interface as defined in the AIDL file.

The QUIRE code generator differs from the stock Android code generator in that it adds directives to the marshaling and unmarshaling phase of the stubs that pulls the call-chain context from the calling app and attaches it to the outgoing IPC message for the callee to retrieve. These directives allow for the “quoting” semantics that form the basis of a stack inspection based policy system.

Our prototype implementation of the QUIRE AIDL code generator requires that an application developer specify that an AIDL method become “QUIRE aware” by defining the method with a reserved *auth* flag in the AIDL input file. This flag informs the QUIRE code generator to produce additional proxy and stub code for the given method that enables the propagation and delivery of the call-chain context to the specified method. A production implementation would pass this information implicitly on all IPC calls.

## 4 Applications

We built two different applications to demonstrate the benefits of QUIRE’s infrastructure.

### 4.1 Click fraud prevention

Current Android-based advertising systems, such as Ad-Mob, are deployed as a library that an app includes as part of its distribution. So far as the Android OS is concerned, the app and its ads are operating within single domain, indistinguishable from one another. Furthermore, because advertisement services need to report their activity to a network service, any ad-supported app must request network privileges, even if the app, by itself, doesn’t need them.

From a security perspective, mashing these two distinct security domains together into a single app creates a variety of problems. In addition to requiring network-access privileges, the lack of isolation between the advertisement code and its host creates all kinds of opportunities for fraud. The hosting app might modify the advertisement library to generate fake clicks and real revenue.

This sort of click fraud is also a serious issue on the web, and it’s typically addressed by placing the advertisements within an iframe, creating a separate protection domain and providing some mutual protection. To achieve something similar with QUIRE, we needed to extend Android’s UI layer and leverage QUIRE’s features to authenticate indirect messages, such as UI events, delegated from the parent app to the child advertisement app.

**Design challenges** Fundamentally, our design requires two separate apps to be stacked (see Figure 2), with the

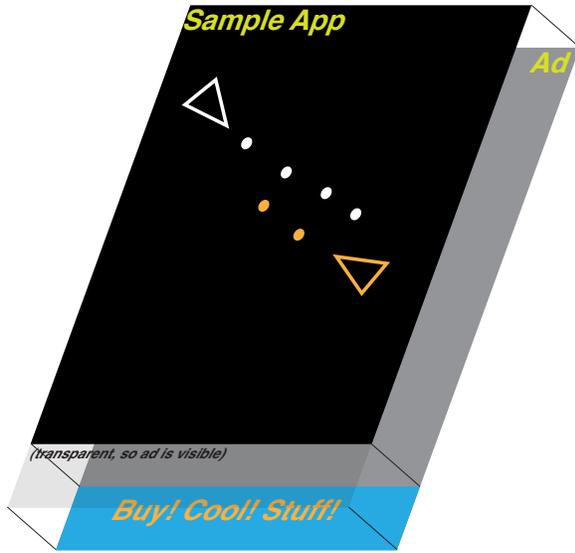


Figure 2: The host and advertisement apps.

primary application on top, and opening a transparent hole through which the subordinate advertising application can be seen by the user. This immediately raises two challenges. First, how can the advertising app know that it's actually visible to the user, versus being obscured by the application? And second, how can the advertising app know that the clicks and other UI events it receives were legitimately generated by the user, versus being synthesized or replayed by the primary application.

**Stacking the apps** This was straightforward to implement. The hosting application implements a translucent theme (*Theme.Translucent*), making the background activity visible. When an activity containing an advertisement is started or resumed, we modified the activity launch logic system to ensure that the advertisement activity is placed below the associated host activities. When a user event is delivered to the *AppFrame* view, it sends the event along with the current location of *AppFrame* in the window to the an advertisement event service. This allows our prototype to correctly display the two apps together.

**Visibility** Android allows an app to continue running, even when it's not on the screen. Assuming our ad service is built around payments per click, rather than per view, we're primarily interested in knowing, at the moment that a click occurred, that the advertisement was actually visible. Android 2.3 added a new feature where motion events contain an "obscured" flag that tells us precisely the necessary information. The only challenge is knowing that the *MotionEvent* we received was legitimate and fresh.

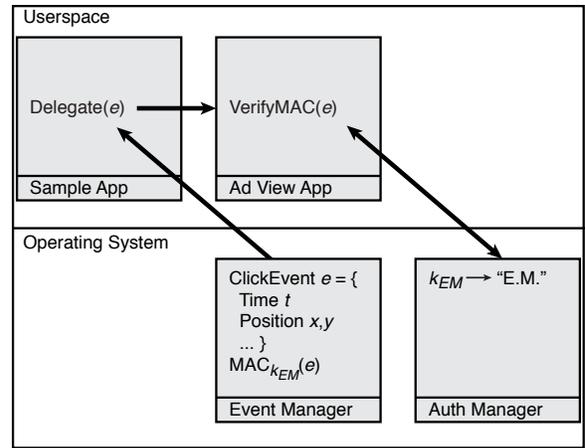


Figure 3: Secure event delivery from host app to advertisement app.

**Verifying events** With our stacked app design, motion events are delivered to the host app, on top of the stack. The host app then recognizes when an event occurs in the advertisement's region and passes the event along. To complicate matters, Android 2.3 reengineered the event system to lower the latency, a feature desired by game designers. Events are now transmitted through shared memory buffers, below the Java layer.

In our design, we leverage QUIRE's signed statements. We modified the event system to augment every *MotionEvent* (as many as 60 per second) with one of our MAC-based signatures. This means we don't have to worry about tampering or other corruption in the event system. Instead, once an event arrives at the advertisement app, it first validates the statement, then validates that it's not obscured, and finally validates the timestamp in the event, to make sure the click is fresh. This process is summarized in Figure 3.

At this point, the local advertising application can now be satisfied that the click was legitimate and that the ad was visible when the click occurred and it can communicate that fact over the Internet, unspooftably, with QUIRE's RPC service.

All said and done, we added around 500 lines of Java code for modifying the activity launch process, plus a modest amount of C code to generate the signatures. While our implementation does not deal with every possible scenario (e.g., changes in orientation, killing of the advertisement app due to low memory, and other such things) it still demonstrates the feasibility of hosting of advertisement in separate processes and defeating click fraud attacks.

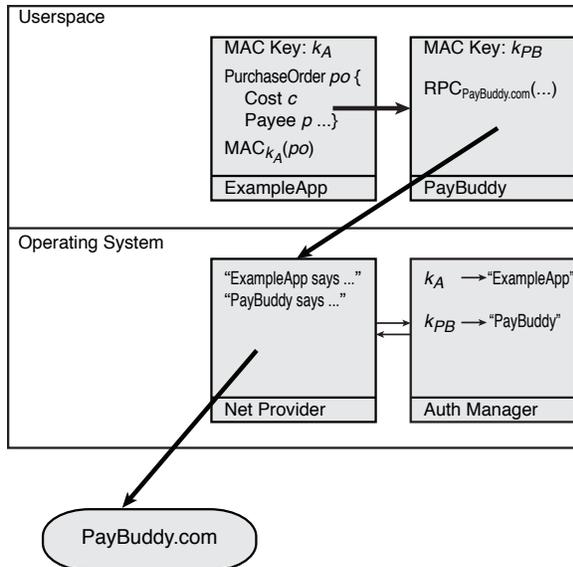


Figure 4: Message flow in the PayBuddy system.

## 4.2 PayBuddy

To demonstrate the usefulness of QUIRE for RPCs, we implemented a micropayment application called PayBuddy: a standalone Android application which exposes an activity to other applications on the device to allow those applications to request payments. By developing this as a separate application we avoid many types of attacks which circumvent user approval of payments.

To demonstrate how PayBuddy works, consider the example shown in Figure 4. Application ExampleApp wishes to allow the user to make an in-app purchase. To do this, ExampleApp creates and serializes a purchase order object and signs it with its MAC key  $k_A$ . It then sends the signed object to the PayBuddy application, which can then prompt the user to confirm their intent to make the payment. After this, PayBuddy passes the purchase order along to the operating system’s Network Provider. At this point, the Network Provider can verify the signature on the purchase order, and also that the request came from the PayBuddy application. It then sends the request to the PayBuddy server over a client-authenticated HTTPS connection. The contents of ExampleApp’s purchase order are included in an HTTP header, as is the call chain (“ExampleApp, PayBuddy”).

At the end of this, PayBuddy.com knows the following:

- The request came from a particular device with a given certificate.
- The purchase order originated from ExampleApp and was not tampered with by the PayBuddy application.

- The PayBuddy application approved the request (which means that the user gave their explicit consent to the purchase order).

At the end of this, if PayBuddy.com accepts the transaction, it can take whatever action accompanies the successful payment (e.g., returning a transaction ID that ExampleApp might send to its home server in order to download a new level for a game).

**Security analysis** Our design has several curious properties. Most notably, the ExampleApp and the PayBuddy app are mutually distrusting of each other.

The PayBuddy app doesn’t trust the payment request to be legitimate, so it can present an “okay/cancel” dialog to the user. In that dialog, it can include the cost as well as the ExampleApp name, which it received through the QUIRE call chain. The PayBuddy app will only communicate with the PayBuddy.com server if the user approves the transaction.

Similarly, ExampleApp has only a limited amount of trust in the PayBuddy app. By signing its purchase order, and including a unique order number of some sort, a compromised PayBuddy app cannot modify or replay the message. Because the OS’s net provider is trusted to speak on behalf of both the ExampleApp and the PayBuddy app, the remote PayBuddy.com server gets ample context to understand what happened on the phone and deal with cases where a user later tries to repudiate a payment.

Lastly, the user’s PayBuddy credentials are never visible to ExampleApp in any way. Once the PayBuddy app is bound, at install time, to the user’s matching account on PayBuddy.com, there will be no subsequent username/password dialogs. All the user will see is an okay/cancel dialog. Once users are accustomed to this, they will be more likely to react with skepticism when presented with a phishing attack that demands their PayBuddy credentials. (A phishing attack that’s completely faithful to the proper PayBuddy user interface would only present an okay/cancel dialog, which yields no useful information for the attacker.)

## 5 Performance evaluation

### 5.1 Experimental methodology

All of our experiments were performed on the standard Android developer phone, the Nexus One<sup>3</sup>, which has a 1GHz ARM core (a Qualcomm QSD 8250), 512MB of RAM, and 512MB of internal Flash storage. We conducted our experiments with the phone displaying the

<sup>3</sup>[http://www.google.com/phone/static/en\\_US-nexusone\\_tech\\_specs.html](http://www.google.com/phone/static/en_US-nexusone_tech_specs.html)

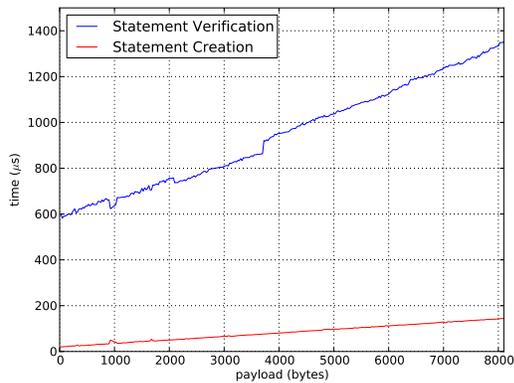


Figure 5: Statement creation and verification time vs payload size.

home screen and running the normal set of applications that spawn at start up. We replaced the default “live wallpaper” with a static image to eliminate its background CPU load.

All of our benchmarks are measured using the Android Open Source Project’s (AOSP) Android 2.3 (“Gingerbread”) as pulled from the AOSP repository on December 21st, 2010. QUIRE is implemented as a series of patches to this code base. We used an unmodified Gingerbread build for “control” measurements and compared that to a build with our QUIRE features enabled for “experimental” measurements.

## 5.2 Microbenchmarks

### 5.2.1 Signed statements

Our first micro benchmark of QUIRE measures the cost of creating and verifying statements of varying sizes. To do this, we had an application generate random byte arrays of varying sizes from 10 bytes to 8000 bytes and measured the time to create 1000 signatures of the data, followed by 1000 verifications of the signature. Each set of measured signatures and verifications was preceded by a priming run to remove any first-run effects. We then took an average of the middle 8 out of 10 such runs for each size. The large number of runs is due to variance introduced by garbage collection within the Authority Manager. Even with this large number of runs, we could not fully account for this, leading to some jitter in the measured performance of statement verification.

The results in Figure 5 show that statement creation carries a minimal fixed overhead of 20 microseconds with an additional cost of 15 microseconds per kilobyte. Statement verification, on the other hand, has a much higher cost: 556 microseconds fixed and an additional

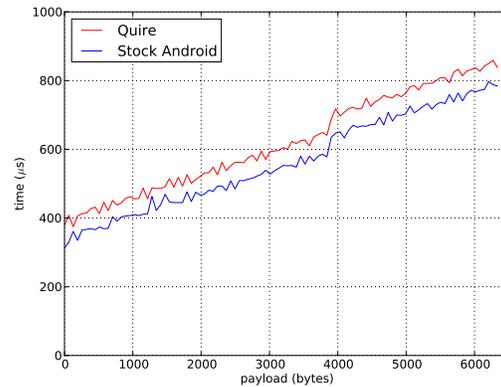


Figure 6: Roundtrip single step IPC time vs payload size.

96 microseconds per kilobyte. This larger cost is primarily due to the context switch and attendant copying overhead required to ask the Authority Manager to perform the verification. However, with statement verification being a much less frequent occurrence than statement generation, these performance numbers are well within our performance targets.

### 5.2.2 IPC call-chain tracking

Our next micro-benchmark measures the additional cost of tracking the call chain for an IPC that otherwise performs no computation. We implemented a service with a pair of methods, of which one uses the QUIRE IPC extensions and one does not. These methods both allow us to pass a byte array of arbitrary size to them. We then measured the total round trip time needed to make each of these calls. These results are intended to demonstrate the slowdown introduced by the QUIRE IPC extensions in the worst case of a round trip null operation that takes no action on the receiving end of the IPC method call.

We discarded performance timings for the first IPC call of each run to remove any noise that could have been caused by previous activity on the system. The results in Figure 6 were obtained by performing 10 runs of 100 trials each at each size point, with sizes ranging from 0 to 6336 bytes in 64-byte increments.

These results show that the overhead of tracking the call chain for one hop is around 70 microseconds, which is a 21% slowdown in the worst case of doing no-op calls.

We also measured the effect of adding a second hop into the call chain. This was done by having two services, where the first service merely calls the second service, which once again performs no action.

The results in Figure 7 show that the overhead of tracking the call chain for two hops averages 145 microseconds, which is a 20% slowdown in the worst case (or, in

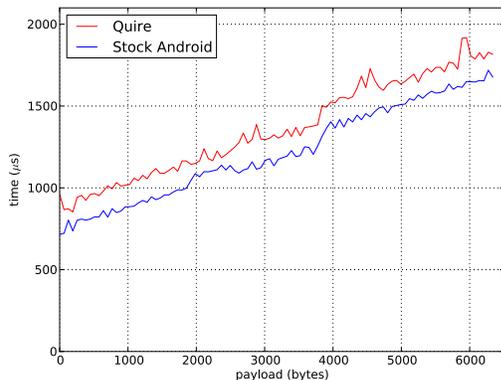


Figure 7: Roundtrip two step IPC time vs payload size.

other words, the overhead introduced by the QUIRE IPC appear to be a constant factor above stock Android IPC, regardless of the call chain length).

### 5.2.3 RPC communication

Statement Depth	Time ( $\mu$ s)
1	770
2	1045
4	1912
8	4576

Table 1: IPC principal to RPC principal resolution time.

The next microbenchmark we performed was determining the cost of converting from an IPC call-chain into a serialized form that is meaningful to a remote service. This includes the IPC overhead in asking the system services to perform this conversion.

We found that, even for very long statement chains, the extra cost of this computation is a small number of milliseconds, which is irrelevant next to the other costs associated with setting up and maintaining a TLS network connection. From this, we conclude that QUIRE RPCs introduce no meaningful overhead beyond the costs already present in conducting RPCs over cryptographically secure connections.

### 5.3 HTTPS RPC benchmark

To understand the impact of using QUIRE for calls to remote servers, we performed some simple RPCs using both QUIRE and a regular HTTPS connection. We called a simple *echo* service that returned a parameter that was provided to it. This allowed us to easily measure the effect of payload size on latency. We ran these tests on

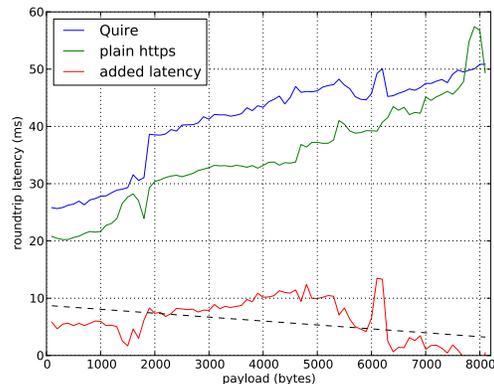


Figure 8: Network RPC latency in milliseconds.

a small LAN with a single wireless router and server plugged into this router, and using the phone’s WiFi antenna for connectivity. Each data point is the mean of 10 runs of 100 trials each, with the highest and lowest times thrown out prior to taking the mean to remove anomalies.

The results in Figure 8 show that QUIRE adds an additional overhead which averages around 6 ms, with a maximum of 13.5 ms, and getting smaller as the payload size increases. This extra latency is small enough that it’s irrelevant in the face of the latencies experienced across typical cellular Internet connections. From this we can conclude that the overhead of QUIRE for network RPC is practically insignificant.

### 5.4 Analysis

Our benchmarks demonstrate that adding call-chain tracking can be done without a significant performance penalty above and beyond that of performing standard Android IPCs. Also, the cost of creating a signed statement is low enough that it can easily be performed for every touch event generated by the system. Finally, our RPC benchmarks show that the addition of QUIRE does not cause a significant slowdown relative to standard TLS-encrypted communications.

## 6 Related work

### 6.1 Smart phone platform security

As mobile phone hardware and software increase in complexity the security of the code running on a mobile devices has become a major concern.

The Kirin system [10] and Security-by-Contract [8] focus on enforcing install time application permissions within the Android OS and .NET framework respectively. These approaches to mobile phone security allow

a user to protect themselves by enforcing blanket restrictions on what applications may be installed or what installed applications may do, but do little to protect the user from applications that collaborate to leak data or protect applications from one another.

Saint [23] extends the functionality of the Kirin system to allow for runtime inspection of the full system permission state before launching a given application. Apex [22] presents another solution for the same problem where the user is responsible for defining run-time constraints on top of the existing Android permission system. Both of these approaches allow users to specify static policies to shield themselves from malicious applications, but don't allow apps to make dynamic policy decisions.

CRPE [7] presents a solution that attempts to artificially restrict an application's permissions based on environmental constraints such as location, noise, and time-of-day. While CRPE considers contextual information to apply dynamic policy decisions, it does not attempt to address privilege escalation attacks.

### 6.1.1 Dynamic taint analysis on Android

The TaintDroid [9] and ParanoidAndroid [24] projects present dynamic taint analysis techniques to preventing runtime attacks and data leakage. These projects attempt to tag objects with metadata in order to track information flow and enable policies based on the path that data has taken through the system. TaintDroid's approach to information flow control is to restrict the transmission of tainted data to a remote server by monitoring the outbound network connections made from the device and disallowing tainted data to flow along the outbound channels. The goal of QUIRE differs from that of taint analysis in that QUIRE allows applications to protect sensitive data at the source as opposed to the network output.

The low level approaches used to tag data also differ between the projects. TaintDroid enforces its taint propagation semantics by instrumenting an application's DEX bytecode to tag every variable, pointer, and IPC message that flows through the system with a taint value. In contrast, QUIRE's approach requires only the IPC subsystem be modified with no reliance on instrumented code, therefore QUIRE can work with applications that use native libraries and avoid the overhead imparted by instrumenting code to propagate taint values.

### 6.1.2 Decentralized information flow control

A branch of the information flow control space focuses on how to provide taint tracking in the presence of mutually distrusting applications and no centralized authority. Meyer's and Liskov's work on decentralized information

flow control (DIFC) systems [19, 21] was the first attempt to solve this problem. Systems like DEFCon [17] and Asbestos [27] use DIFC mechanisms to dynamically apply security labels and track the taint of events moving through a distributed system. These projects and QUIRE are similar in that they both rely on process isolation and communication via message passing channels that label data. However, DEFCon cannot provide its security guarantees in the presence of deep copying of data while QUIRE can survive in an environment where deep copying is allowed since QUIRE defines policy based on the call chain and ignores the data contained within the messages forming the call chain. Asbestos avoids the deep copy problems of DEFCon by tagging data at the IPC level. While Asbestos and QUIRE use a similar approach to data tagging, the tags are used for very different purposes. Asbestos aims to prevent data leaks by enabling an application to tag its data and disallow a recipient application from leaking information that it received over an IPC channel while QUIRE attempts to preemptively disallow data from being leaked by protecting the resource itself, rather than allowing the resource to be accessed then blocking leakage at the taint sink.

## 6.2 Operating system security

QUIRE is closely related to Taos [32]. Our design replaces Taos's expensive digital signatures with relatively inexpensive HMAC authenticators. This approach was also considered as an optimization in practical Byzantine fault tolerance (PBFT) [6]. PBFT implementation using HMAC authenticators cannot scale to large numbers of nodes because each node requires a unique shared secret with every other node. However, QUIRE can get away with using HMACs as its authentication mechanism because each application need only register a shared secret with a central point of authority, the operating system. Network communication in QUIRE replaces the HMACs with statements made through a cryptographically authenticated channel.

## 6.3 Trusted platform management

Our use of a central authority for the authentication of statements within QUIRE shares some similarities with projects in the trusted platform management space. Terra [11] and vTPM [4] both use virtual machines as the mechanism for enabling trusted computing. The architecture of multiple segregated guest operating systems running on top of a virtual machine manager is similar to the Android design of multiple segregated users running on top of a common OS. However, these approaches both focus on establishing the user's trust in the environment rather than trust between applications running within the

system.

## 6.4 Web security

Many of the problems of provenance and application separation addressed in QUIRE are directly related to the challenge of enforcing the same origin policy from within the web browser. Google's Chrome browser [3, 25] presents one solution where origin content is segregated into distinct processes. Microsoft's Gazelle [30] project takes this idea a step further and builds up hardware-isolated protection domains in order to protect principals from one another. MashupOS [14] goes even further and builds OS level mechanisms for separating principals while still allowing for mashups.

All of these approaches are more interested in protecting principals from each other than in building up the communication mechanism between principals. QUIRE gets application separation for free by virtue of Android's process model, and focuses on the expanding the capabilities of the communication mechanism used between applications on the phone and the outside world.

## 6.5 Remote procedure calls

For an overview of some of the challenges and threats surrounding authenticated RPC, see Weigold et al. [31]. There are many other systems which would allow for secure remote procedure calls from mobile devices. Kerberos [16] is one solution, but it involves placing too much trust in the ticket granting server (the phone manufacturers or network providers, in our case). Another potential is OAuth [12], where services delegate rights to one another, perhaps even within the phone. This seems unlikely to work in practice, although individual QUIRE applications could have OAuth relationships with external services and could provide services internally to other applications on the phone.

## 7 Future work

We see QUIRE as a platform for conducting a variety of interesting security research around smartphones.

**Usable and secure UI design** The IPC extensions QUIRE introduces to the Android operating system can be used as a building block in the design and implementation of a secure user interface. We have already demonstrated how the system can efficiently sign every UI event, allowing for these events to be shared and delegated safely.

Any opportunity to eliminate the need for username/password dialogs from the experience of a smartphone user would appear to be a huge win, particularly

because it's much harder for phones to display traditional trusted path signals, such as modifications to the chrome of a web browser. Instead, we can leverage the low-level client-authenticated RPC channels to achieve high-level single-sign-on goals. Our PayBuddy application demonstrated the possibility of building single-sign-on systems within QUIRE. Extending this to work with multiple CAs or to integrate with OpenID / OAuth services would seem to be a fruitful avenue to pursue.

**License verification** Google's Android team recently published an API for applications that wish to use the Android Marketplace application to establish the licensing validity of an installed instance of an application. This license verification system consists of two parts. First the Android Marketplace application, which facilitates the remote communication with Google's servers in order to look up the licensing information for a phone and secondly the License Verification Library (LVL), a bit of third party code that facilitates communication locally with the Marketplace app. Immediately after the announcement of this system, an attack was presented [5] in which an attacker can disassemble and modify the function of the LVL so that it interprets a response from the Marketplace application that indicates the application using the LVL is not licensed for the phone as an approval for use rather than disapproval. This attack could be easily prevented with the QUIRE extensions to Android's IPC mechanism.

LVL would run as a separate service, with its own user-id, on the Android phone. Any application that wishes to make use of the LVL would query it, which would then either query the Android Marketplace or keep a local policy cache, ultimately yielding a signed statement in return to the caller.

**Web browsers** While QUIRE is targeted at the needs of smartphone applications, there is a clear relationship between these and the needs of web applications in modern browsers. Extensions to QUIRE could have ramifications on how code plugins (native code or otherwise) interact with one another and with the rest of the Web. Extensions to QUIRE could also form a substrate for building a new generation of browsers with smaller trusted computing bases, where the elements that compose a web page are separated from one another. This contrasts with Chrome [25], where each web page runs as a monolithic entity. Our QUIRE work could lead to infrastructure similar, in some respects, to Gazelle [30], which separates the principals running in a given web page, but lacks our proposed provenance system or sharing mechanisms.

An interesting challenge is to harmonize the differences between web pages, which increasingly operate as

applications with long-term state and the need for additional security privileges, and applications (on smartphones or on desktop computers), where the principle of least privilege [26] is seemingly violated by running every application with the full privileges of the user, whether or not this is necessary or desirable.

## 8 Conclusion

In this paper we presented QUIRE, a set of extensions to the Android operating system that enable applications to propagate call chain context to downstream callees and to authenticate the origin of data that they receive indirectly. When remote communication is needed, our RPC subsystem allows the operating system to embed attestations about message origins and the IPC call chain into the request. This allows remote servers to make policy decisions based on these attestations.

We implemented the QUIRE design as a backwards-compatible extension to the Android operating system that allows existing Android applications to co-exist with applications that make use of QUIRE's services.

We evaluated our implementation of the QUIRE design by measuring our modifications to Android's Binder IPC system with a series of microbenchmarks. We also implemented two applications which use these extensions to provide click fraud prevention and in-app micropayments.

Our work shows that a Taos-style system, with applications tracking call chains and making signed statements to one another, can be implemented efficiently on a mobile platform, enabling a variety of novel security applications.

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