



Decentralized user group assignment in Windows NT[☆]

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Abstract

The notion of groups in Windows NT is much like that in other operating systems. Rather than set user and file rights individually for each and every user, the administrator can give rights to various groups, then place users within those groups. Each user within a group inherits the rights associated with that group. In this paper, we describe an experiment to extend the Windows NT group mechanism in two significant ways that are useful in managing group-based access control in large-scale systems. The goal of our experiment is to demonstrate how group hierarchies (where groups include other groups) and decentralized user-group assignment (where administrators are selectively delegated authority to assign certain users to certain groups) can be implemented by means of Microsoft remote procedure call (RPC) programs. In both respects the experimental goal is to implement previously published models (RBAC96 for group hierarchies and URA97 for decentralized user-group assignment). Our results indicate that Windows NT has adequate flexibility to accommodate sophisticated access control models to some extent. © 2001 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

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1. Introduction

Groups have been used for access control ever since the first time-sharing systems were implemented in the early 1970s. A group is a collection of users and serves as a convenient unit for granting and revoking access. Membership in a group is presumably determined by the need to share resources and information so the group provides a suitable unit for access decisions. A user or administrator can make a resource available to an entire group without having to explicitly provide access to every member. Similarly, access can be revoked from a group without explicitly revoking each member's access. Also new users can be made members of appropriate groups, thereby obtaining access to a number of resources.

Every account in NT's user database contains a group membership list indicating which groups the account belongs to (Sutton, 1997; Rutstein, 1997). Users belonging to a group are explicitly displayed with the User Manager program. Windows NT notably lacks a facility for including one group in another.¹ In practice, it is often desirable that groups bear some relationship to each other. For instance, consider a project divided into several independent tasks assigned to different teams. We can define a group for each task team so its members have common access to files relevant to the task. Since some files may pertain to the entire project we can define a project group such that members of the individual task groups are thereby also members of the project group. The project wide files are then made explicitly available to the project group alone. This is certainly more convenient than having to explicitly make such files available to every task group.

It is also more convenient than explicitly making every member of a task group a member of the project group. By allowing membership in a group to automatically

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¹ Even though a local group can include global group(s) as a member, Windows NT does not support the hierarchical relationship between global groups or between local groups.

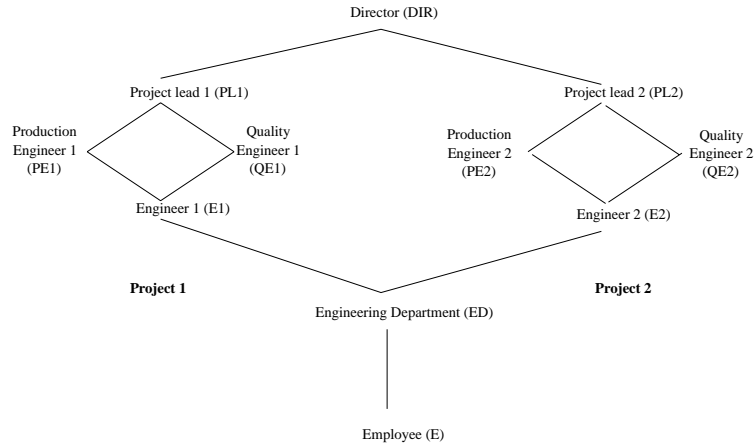


Fig. 1. An example group hierarchy.

imply membership in some other groups we can reduce the number of explicit access decisions that need to be made by users and administrators. Many commercial database management systems, such as Informix, Oracle and Sybase, provide facilities for hierarchical groups (or roles). Commercial operating systems, however provide limited facilities at best for this purpose.

Let $x > y$ signify that group x is *senior* to y , in the sense that a member of x is also automatically a member of y but not vice versa. Note that a member of x has the power of a member of y and may have additional power, hence a member of x is considered senior to a member of y . It is natural to require that seniority is a partial ordering, i.e., $>$ is irreflexive, transitive and asymmetric. The irreflexive property is obviously required since every member of x is already a member of x . Transitivity is certainly an intuitive assumption and perhaps even inevitable. After all, if $x > y$ and $y > z$ then a member of x is a member of y and so should also be a member of z . The asymmetric requirement eliminates redundancy by excluding groups which would otherwise be equivalent. We write $x \geq y$ to mean $x > y$ or $x = y$. If x is senior to y we also say that y is *junior* to x . For convenience we use the term hierarchy to mean a partial order.

An example of a group hierarchy for a hypothetical engineering department is shown in Fig. 1. By convention, senior groups are shown toward the top and junior ones toward the bottom. Transitive edges from seniors to juniors are omitted. In this example there is a junior-most group E to which all employees in the organization belong. Within the engineering department there is a junior-most group ED and senior-most group DIR.² In between there are groups for two projects within the

department, project 1 on the left and project 2 on the right. Each project has a senior-most project lead group (PL1 and PL2) and a junior-most engineer group (E1 and E2). In between each project has two incomparable groups, production engineer (PE1 and PE2) and quality engineer (QE1 and QE2). We will use this example throughout this paper.

This example can be extended to dozens and even hundreds of projects within the engineering department. Moreover, each project could have a different structure for its groups. The example can also be extended to multiple departments with different structure and policies applied to each department.

Another limitation of Windows NT groups is that membership is exclusively controlled by built-in administrator groups such as *Account operators*, *Administrators* and *Domain admins* (Sutton, 1997; Rutstein, 1997). This is a centralized model which does not scale gracefully to systems with large numbers of groups and users. More generally, it is possible to decentralize user-group assignment by allowing administrators to selectively delegate authority to assign certain users to certain groups. Our decentralization philosophy is motivated by the principle that a manager who can assign a user to work on a particular task should also have the authority to enroll that user in appropriate groups which confer the necessary permissions to work on that task. Effective decentralization of user-group assignment is one step towards making security more acceptable to end users as an enabling and empowering technology, rather than as the general nuisance it is often perceived to be.

In this paper, we describe an experiment to extend the Windows NT group mechanism to include group hierarchies and decentralized user-group assignment can be implemented by means of Microsoft RPC programs. A Microsoft RPC program runs with the permissions of the user associated with the program, rather than with permissions associated with the user who invokes the program (Grimes, 1997). This feature allows the access

² For purpose of our example it is convenient to have a powerful senior-most group DIR. We emphasize that, in general, our model allows arbitrary hierarchies so it is *not* required that there be such a senior-most group. In many cases we would not want to have such a group. Similar comments apply to the junior-most group E.

control behavior of Windows NT to be extended in a controlled and protected manner.

One of the difficulties inherent in the kind of experiment we describe here is that we need models for group hierarchies and for decentralized user-group assignment before the experimental implementation on Windows NT can be attempted. If these models are designed as part of the experiment there will always be a question as to whether the model was designed (deliberately or inadvertently) to facilitate a Microsoft RPC-based implementation. Fortunately we were able to use previously published models for our experiment to avoid this possibility of bias in model design. Our model for group hierarchies is based on the RBAC96 model for role-based access control (Sandhu et al., 1996).³ The model for decentralized user-group assignment, called URA97, is adapted from (Sandhu and Bhamidipati, 1997). Neither model was designed with Microsoft RPC programs in mind. There are numerous papers in the literature on hierarchical groups and alternate models for this purpose including (Fernandez et al., 1995; Hu et al., 1995; Nyanchama and Osborn, 1995; Rabitti et al., 1991; Sandhu, 1988).

The example of Fig. 1 is taken from (Sandhu and Bhamidipati, 1997). URA97 distinguishes between regular groups and administrative groups. Fig. 2 shows a hierarchy of administrative groups. The senior-most group is the senior security officer (SSO). Junior to SSO is a department security officer group (DSO) and two project security officer groups (PSO1 and PSO2). These administrative groups are authorized to grant and revoke membership of users in the regular groups of Fig. 1, as we will see shortly. (For simplicity, URA97 assumes that control of membership in the administrative groups is centralized.)

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss how to implement group hierarchies in Windows NT. In Section 3 we review the URA97 model and discuss its implementation in Windows NT. Implementation details are described in Section 4. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2. Group hierarchies

As we have mentioned Windows NT does not have the notion of hierarchy between groups. We show how group hierarchies can be simulated in Windows NT. The basic idea is that when a user added to a senior group the assign program automatically adds the user to all junior groups. Similarly, when a user is removed from a

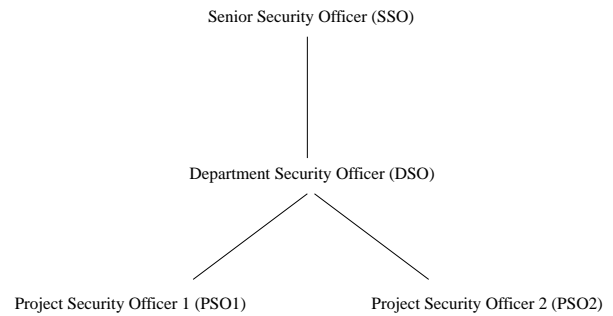


Fig. 2. An example administrative group hierarchy.

senior group the revoke program automatically removes the user from appropriate junior roles.

Each account in Windows NT has a symbolic name that identifies it. When adding a new user account to the system, the User Manager generates a security identification number (SID) which should be unique. Internally, the SID is the system's way of identifying an account. We assume that each account has a single human user associated with it. In practice, a single user could have multiple accounts and a single account could be shared by multiple users. We assume the system administrator enforces a single user per account and a single account per user policy. Therefore, we will use the terms user and account as essentially synonymous.

The administrator assigns each user to one or more groups with User Manager program.⁴ The User Manager program displays all defined groups which is public information; all users may read it, but only administrator groups are allowed to modify it. Group membership is given in account database.

Table 1(a) shows the file account database corresponding to the list of groups in Fig. 1. Each row gives the group name and a list of group members. For convenience we enumerate group members by symbolic name. This structure is not the real structure in Windows NT. We just use this table to show how group hierarchies can be simulated in Windows NT. The account database file shows the group membership of each user. To maintain the group hierarchy we use the file `grouphr.txt` to store the children and parents of each group. The group hierarchy of Fig. 1 is represented in `grouphr.txt` as shown in Table 1(c). The first column gives the group name, the second column gives the (immediate) parent groups of that group, and the third column gives the (immediate) children. The null symbol “—” means that the group has no parent or child as the case may be. In Table 1(c), the first row has the null symbol because the group director (DIR) does not have any parent. The `grouphr.txt` file can be easily constructed for any group hierarchy.

³ The notion of a role is similar to that of a group, particularly when we focus on the issue of user-role or user-group membership. For our purpose in this paper, we can treat the concepts of roles and groups as essentially identical.

⁴ The User Manager is the primary user configuration tool in Windows NT.

Table 1
The example group hierarchy of Fig. 1

(a) account database		
DIR::		
PL1::	Alice	
PL2::		
PE1::	Alice	
PE2::		
QE1::	Alice	
QE2::		
E1::	Alice	
E2::		
ED::	Alice	
E::	Alice, Dave, Eve	

(b) explicit.txt		
DIR::		
PL1::	Alice	
PL2::		
PE1::		
PE2::		
QE1::		
QE2::		
E1::		
E2::		
ED::	Alice	
E::	Alice, Dave, Eve	

(c) grouphr.txt		
Group name	Parent group(s)	Child group(s)
DIR	–	PL1, PL2
PL1	DIR	PE1, QE1
PL2	DIR	PE2, QE2
PE1	PL1	E1
QE1	PL1	E1
PE2	PL2	E2
QE2	PL2	E2
E1	PE1, QE1	ED
E2	PE2, QE2	ED
ED	E1, E2	E
E	ED	–

Using `grouphr.txt`, we can find all seniors and juniors for a group by respectively chasing the parents and children. For example for the PE1 group of Table 1(c) we can construct the seniors and juniors list as follows:

Group	Seniors	Juniors
PE1	PL1, DIR	E1, ED, E

We say a user is an *explicit* member of a group if the user is explicitly designated as a member of the group. A user is an *implicit* member of a group if the user is an explicit member of some senior group. A user can simultaneously be an explicit and implicit member of the same group.⁵ For example, Alice can be an explicit

member of ED and PL1, in which case she is also an implicit member of ED (by virtue of membership in PL1). To simulate a group hierarchy we use information about explicit and implicit membership in account database. If Alice belongs explicitly or implicitly to a group she will be added to that group's member list in account database. However, account database is not sufficient to distinguish the case where Alice is both an explicit and implicit member of some group from the case where she is only an implicit member of the group. For this purpose we introduce another file `explicit.txt` that keep information about explicit membership only. An example is shown in Table 1(b). Each row gives the group name and a list of group members. For convenience we enumerate group members by symbolic name. Alice has explicit memberships for PL1, ED and E. Alice also has implicit membership for all groups junior to PL1, i.e., PE1, QE1, E1, ED, and E, as shown in Table 1(a). If Alice's explicit membership is revoked from E there will be no change in account database but `explicit.txt` will be changed to remove her from E. Suppose after that Alice is further revoked from PL1 we will have the following result.

account database (after revocation)		
DIR::		
PL1::		
PL2::		
PE1::		
PE2::		
QE1::		
QE2::		
E1::		
E2::		
ED::	Alice	
E::	Alice, Dave, Eve	

explicit.txt (after revocation)		
DIR::		
PL1::		
PL2::		
PE1::		
PE2::		
QE1::		
QE2::		
E1::		
E2::		
ED::	Alice	
E::	Dave, Eve	

The implementation of group hierarchy by explicitly assigning a member of a senior group to be a member of all junior group in account database may raise a

⁵ This is a property of the RBAC96 and URA97 models on which our experiment is based. There are other models, such as Ferraiolo and Barkley (1997) and Nyanchama and Osborn (1995) which do not allow this.

scalability issue. For example, many Unix implementations limit the number of groups activated in a process to a fairly small number such as 32 or 16, so this approach does not scale for Unix. We conducted a small experiment to ascertain how many group can be activated in a process on Windows NT. Our experiment indicated that Windows NT can accommodate up to 993 groups simultaneously activated in a single process.⁶ This is a sizable number so large group hierarchies can be accommodated by means of this approach.

In summary, to simulate group hierarchies in Windows NT, we use account database, `explicit.txt`, and `grouphr.txt` files. The account database file shows all group membership including implicit and explicit group memberships. The `explicit.txt` file just has information about explicit group membership and the `grouphr.txt` file keeps the structure of the group hierarchy. Modifications to these files are made by Microsoft RPC programs as discussed in Section 4. The above example illustrated why we need the `explicit.txt` file in addition to account database.

3. Decentralized groups

Windows NT centralizes user-group assignment and revocation entirely in hands of built-in administrator groups. However, this simple approach does not scale to large systems. Clearly it is desirable to decentralize user-group assignment to some degree so that expensive system administrators do not need to spend valuable time on routine tasks. In particular we can use administrative groups for this purpose. For convenience we define administrative groups as distinct from regular groups.

Sandhu and Bhamidipati (1997) recently introduced the URA97 model for decentralized administration of user-role membership (URA97 stands for user-role assignment 1997). Since the notion of a role is similar to that of a group, particularly when we focus on the issue of user-role or user-group membership, we will adopt this model. This section reviews URA97 and the next one describes our approach to implementing it in Windows NT. In our review of URA97 we will use the term group rather than role. Our description of URA97 is informal and intuitive. A formal statement of URA97 is given by Sandhu and Bhamidipati (1997). We emphasize that URA97 was defined in earlier work independent of any consideration of its implementation in NT.

⁶ It is actually possible to assign a user up to 1000 global groups but this causes logon failure due to too many SIDs. As we reduced the number of groups, we found that the Windows NT system works successfully with 993 groups simultaneously assigned to a user. This result must depend on the internal data structure of account database in the NT kernel.

Table 2
Example of `can_assign.txt` with Prerequisite groups

Administrative group	Prerequisite group	Group range
PSO1:	ED:	[E1, PL1]:
PSO2:	ED:	[E2, PL2]:
DSO:	ED:	(ED, DIR):
SSO:	E:	[ED, ED]:

3.1. User-group assignment

There are two issues that need to be addressed in decentralized management of group membership. Firstly, we would like to control the groups that an administrative group has authority over. Recall Figs. 1 and 2 which, respectively, show the regular and administrative groups of our example. We would like to say, for example, that the PSO1 administrative group controls membership in project 1 groups, i.e., E1, PE1, QE1 and PL1. Secondly, it is also important to control which users are eligible for membership in these groups.

URA97 addresses these two issues, respectively, by means of a *group range*⁷ and a *prerequisite group* or more generally a *prerequisite condition*. URA97 has a *can_assign* relation which we store in the file `can_assign.txt`. An example of `can_assign.txt` with prerequisite groups is given in Table 2. We put a colon between the columns to indicate the boundary. The first row authorizes the administrative group PSO1 to assign users to groups in the range [E1, PL1]. A group range is specified by giving a junior and senior group. The range includes all groups between these two endpoints. The “[” and “]” brackets indicate that, respectively, the junior and senior end point are included in the range, whereas the “(” and “)” brackets indicate the end point is excluded. Thus [E1, PL1] consists of E1, PE1, QE1 and PL1, while [E1, PL1) omits PL1. The prerequisite group specifies which users can be assigned by PSO1 to groups in the authorized range. Only those users who are already members of ED can be assigned by PSO1 to [E1, PL1]. The other rows of Table 3 are similarly interpreted.

Table 3 illustrates the more general case of `can_assign.txt` with prerequisite conditions. Let us consider the PSO1 rows. The first row authorizes PSO1 to assign users with prerequisite group ED into E1. The second one authorizes PSO1 to assign users satisfying the prerequisite condition that they are members of ED but not members of QE1 to PE1. Taken together the second and third rows authorize PSO1 to put a user who is a member of ED into one but not both of PE1 and QE1. The fourth row authorizes PSO1 to put a user who

⁷ In our actual implementation, we use group set which is identical to group range. i.e., group set for group range [E1, PL1] is E1, PE1, QE1, PL1.

Table 3
Example of `can_assign.txt` with Prerequisite conditions

Administrative group	Prerequisite condition	Group range
PSO1:	ED:	[E1, E1]:
PSO1:	$ED \wedge \overline{QE1}$:	[PE1, PE1]:
PSO1:	$ED \wedge \overline{PE1}$:	[QE1, QE1]:
PSO1:	$PE1 \wedge QE1$:	[PL1, PL1]:
PSO2:	ED:	[E2, E2]:
PSO2:	$ED \wedge \overline{QE2}$:	[PE2, PE2]:
PSO2:	$ED \wedge \overline{PE2}$:	[QE2, QE2]:
PSO2:	$PE2 \wedge QE2$:	[PL2, PL2]:
DSO:	ED:	(ED, DIR):
SSO:	E:	[ED, ED]:
SSO:	ED:	(ED, DIR):

is a member of both PE1 and QE1 into PL1. Note that, a user could have become a member of both PE1 and QE1 only by actions of a more powerful administrator than PSO1. The rest of Table 3 is similarly interpreted.

Assignment of a user to a group in URA97 means explicit assignment. Implicit assignment to junior groups happens as a consequence and side-effect of explicit assignment. In other words `can_assign.txt` applies only to explicit membership.

3.2. User-group revocation

URA97 authorizes revocation by the `can_revoke` relation which we store in the `can_revoke.txt` file. An example is shown in Table 4. The meaning of each row in `can_revoke.txt` is that a member of the administrative group can revoke membership of a user from any regular group in group range. We would typically expect some correlation between the range authorized for an administrative group in `can_assign.txt` and in `can_revoke.txt`, but this is not required by the model.

URA97 defines two notions of revocation called *weak* and *strong*. Weak revocation is straightforward and has impact only on explicit membership in the group in question. Strong revocation requires revocation of both explicit and implicit membership. Strong revocation of a user U's membership in role x requires that U be removed not only from explicit membership in x , but also from explicit (or implicit) membership in all groups senior to x . Strong revocation therefore has a cascading effect upwards in the group hierarchy. In URA97 strong revocation is effectively equivalent to a series of weak revocations. Strong revocation is a convenient operation

Table 4
Example of `can_revoke.txt`

Administrative group	Group range
PSO1:	[E1, PL1]:
PSO2:	[E2, PL2]:
DSO:	(ED, DIR):
SSO:	[ED, DIR]:

for administrators even though it can logically be accomplished by multiple weak revokes.

Let us consider the example shown in Table 4 and interpret it in context of the hierarchies of Figs. 1 and 2. Let Bob be a member of PSO1, and let this be the only administrative group he has. Bob is authorized to revoke membership of users from groups E1, PE1 and QE1. Table 5(b) illustrates whether or not Bob can strongly revoke membership of a user from group E1 based on Table 5(a). The effect of Bob's strong revocation of each of these users from E1 is shown in Table 5(c). Bob is not allowed to strongly revoke Eve and Frank from E1 because they are members of senior groups outside the scope of Bob's revoking authority. If Bob was assigned to the DSO group he could strongly revoke Eve from E1 but still would not be able to strongly revoke Frank's membership in E1. In order to strongly revoke Frank from E1, Bob needs to be in the SSO group. The general rule is that strong revocation takes effect within the revocation range authorized for an administrative group.

URA97 further defines two options for strong revocation. The options are called *drop* and *continue*. In Table 5(a), Bob is not allowed to strongly revoke Eve and Frank from E1 because they are members of senior groups outside the scope of Bob's revoking authority. At this step, we can choose one of two options. With the drop option strong revocation takes no effect. Otherwise we can strongly revoke a user from groups inside the scope of Bob's revoking authority. For example assume that we choose drop option for strong revocation of Eve from E1 and choose continue for strong revocation of Frank from E1. The result will be as shown in Table 6.

The strong revocation of Eve from E1 takes no effect because we chose the drop option but the strong revocation of Frank from E1 takes partial effect. Frank still has group membership for PL1 and DIR groups outside the scope of Bob's revoking authority. We emphasize that the effect of strong revocation can be achieved by a series of weak revocations, but it is a convenient operation to have in both variations (drop and continue).

4. Implementation details

We use Microsoft RPC to enforce desired behavior of URA97 with respect to different administrative groups. The RPC mechanism is the simplest way to implement client-server applications, because it keeps the details of network communications out of the application code. The security of RPC is part of the operating system that uses it. Therefore, Microsoft RPC on Windows NT can use the Windows NT security built in as part of the operating system. The Windows NT security model is designed for C2-level security, as defined by the US Department of Defense (Microsoft Press, 1997b). One of

Table 5
Example of strong revocation

(a) account database and explicit.txt prior to strong revocation						
account database		explicit.txt				
DIR::	Frank	DIR::	Frank			
PL1::	Frank, Eve	PL1::	Frank, Eve			
PL2::		PL2::				
PE1::	Frank, Eve, Dave, Cathy	PE1::	Frank, Eve, Dave, Cathy			
PE2::		PE2::				
QE1::	Frank, Eve, Dave	QE1::	Frank, Eve, Dave			
QE2::		QE2::				
E1::	Frank, Eve, Dave, Cathy	E1::	Frank, Eve, Dave, Cathy			
E2::		E2::				
ED::		ED::				
E::		E:				

(b) Status prior to strong revocation						
User	E1	PE1	QE1	PL1	DIR	Bob can revoke user from E1
Cathy	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Dave	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Eve	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Frank	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

(c) account database and explicit.txt after strong revocation						
account database		explicit.txt				
DIR::	Frank	DIR::	Frank			
PL1::	Frank, Eve	PL1::	Frank, Eve			
PL2::		PL2::				
PE1::	Frank, Eve	PE1::	Frank, Eve			
PE2::		PE2::				
QE1::	Frank, Eve	QE1::	Frank, Eve			
QE2::		QE2::				
E1::	Frank, Eve	E1::	Frank, Eve			
E2::		E2::				
ED::		ED::				
E::		E:				

Table 6
Result of strong revocation with options

account database		explicit.txt	
DIR::	Frank	DIR::	Frank
PL1::	Frank,Eve	PL1::	Frank,Eve
PL2::		PL2::	
PE1::	Eve	PE1::	Eve
PE2::		PE2::	
QE1::	Eve	QE1::	Eve
QE2::		QE2::	
E1::	Eve	E1::	Eve
E2::		E2::	
ED::		ED::	
E::		E:	

the most important requirements of C2-level security is that the owner of a resource (such as a file) must be able to control access to the resource. In order to use this aspect, we use named pipes as RPC's transport mechanism, and since pipes are part of the file system, we can

use NT security mechanisms using Microsoft RPC. We reiterate, the security is implemented by the OS (Windows NT) and not by the RPC mechanism.⁸

The main mechanism is illustrated in Fig. 3. In Fig. 3, let us assume that Alice owns the RPC server program and two files `assign.exe` and `explicit.txt`. The RPC server program can be executed by everyone and Alice can execute the executable file `assign.exe` which should refer `explicit.txt` file to accomplish its function. Alice also can read and write the text file `explicit.txt`. We can summary the permission lists for these files as follows.

⁸ Usually, a protocol sequence in RPC contains options for network communications protocols. Named pipes (`ncacn_np`) is one option of transport protocols for communications.

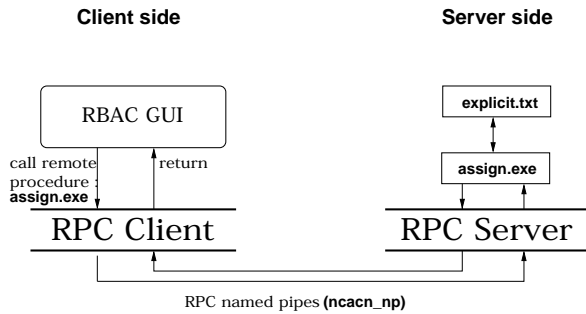


Fig. 3. RPC Mechanism.

Filename	Owner	Permission	
		User or Group	Permission
RPCserver.exe	Alice	Everyone	X
assign.exe	Alice	Alice	X
explicit.txt	Alice	Alice	RW

According to this list, no one can access `assign.exe` and `explicit.txt`, except for Alice. However, by means of using Microsoft RPC named pipes, any user can execute `assign.exe` and access `explicit.txt`. This allows us to provide users access to `explicit.txt` but only by way of `assign.exe`. In other words, `assign.exe` is a protected subsystem which runs with different permissions than the user who invokes it.⁹ When the RPC Server program is executed, the effective user of the process is the owner (Alice) of the file, acquiring that user's access rights for duration of the program contained in this file. Therefore, a user who is executing RPC server program can invoke `assign.exe` and access `explicit.txt`. Using this feature a user who is working as an administrative group can read and write reference files: `explicit.txt`, `groupshr.txt`, `can_assign.txt` and `can_revoke.txt`. Thereby we can enforce desired behavior of URA97 with respect to different administrative groups.

To implement URA97 in Windows NT we also use several reference files introduced in the previous sections and set their permission bits as shown in Table 7.¹⁰ These procedures can read and write the four reference files. We previously described the structure of files `explicit.txt` and `groupshr.txt` in Section 2, and

⁹ The Unix operating system has a similar feature by means of `setuid` and `setgid` programs (Bach, 1990). NT provides support for such protected subsystems only by means of RPC. It should be noted that Microsoft RPC can be local in that the client and server can be the same machine, so is a general mechanism for this purpose.

¹⁰ Each entry has the name of either a user account or a group, and a set of permissions that apply to that account or accounts in that group. R W X stand for READ, WRITE, and EXECUTE, respectively.

`can_assign.txt` and `can_revoke.txt` in Section 3. For simplicity all these files in our implementation are owned by user `rbac`.

There is one procedure each for assigning a user to a group, doing a weak revoke of membership and doing a strong revoke of membership. In our implementation, a user invokes the procedure call to grant or revoke a group from or to another user. The procedure calls are as follows.

- `assign(user, tgroup)`
- `weak_revoke(user, tgroup)`
- `strong_revoke(user, tgroup, option)`

The parameters `user` and `tgroup` (target group) specify which user is to be assigned to `tgroup`, or to be weakly or strongly revoked from `tgroup`. If the `strong_revoke` operation fails because it is not authorized by `can_revoke.txt` the drop or continue options will be applied as discussed earlier. In our implementation this option is designated as part of the command line call to `strong_revoke`, so that it might be called from within programs.

All three procedures follow the basic steps shown in Fig. 4. The diagram shows the data flow and the relationship between functions and files. Each procedure call include several functions. The description for each function is as follows.

- `findgrp()`: returns a list all groups to which the user belongs (explicitly or implicitly). It is command line utility provided by Microsoft Resource kit
- `authorization()`: checks the invoker's authorization with respect to `can_assign.txt` or `can_revoke.txt`
- `prerequisiteTest()`: checks whether the user satisfies the prerequisite condition
- `groupshr()`: return the senior and junior list for `tgroup`
- `rangecheck()`: checks if `strong_revoke` is authorized and offers option of drop or continue
- `updategrp()`: generates batch file to update account database and updates `explicit.txt` files as appropriate¹¹

In general authorization needs to be tested for multiple rows in `can_assign.txt` or `can_revoke.txt`. In such cases the `authorization` and `prerequisiteTest` procedures are called repeatedly for each row.

These procedures are called at the Windows NT command line prompt (which is actually DOS prompt) as follows.

```
[usage] assign username target_group
[usage] weak_revoke username target_group
[usage] strong_revoke username target_group
option.
```

¹¹ There is command line utility to assign a user to group(s) such as `net.exe`. The `updategrp()` function generates batch file including this command line utility with several parameters according to its syntax.

Table 7
The permission of reference files and procedures

Filename	Owner	Permission	
		User or Group	Permission
RPCserver.exe	rbac	Everyone	X
RPCclient.exe	rbac	Everyone	X
assign.exe	rbac	rbac	X
weak_revoke.exe	rbac	rbac	X
strong_revoke.exe	rbac	rbac	X
explicit.txt	rbac	rbac	RW
can_assign.txt	rbac	rbac	RW
can_revoke.txt	rbac	rbac	RW
grouphr.txt	rbac	rbac	RW

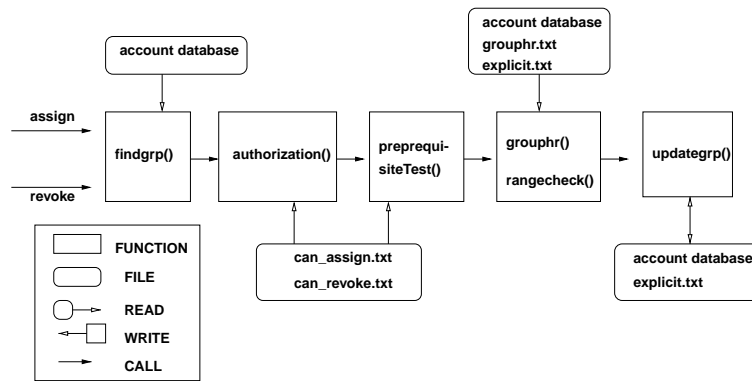


Fig. 4. Data flow diagram.

In order to make our implementation more convenient we developed graphical user interfaces which interact with these procedures to do user-group assignment and revocation. The graphical user interfaces are illustrated

in Figs. 5 and 6 and are called RBACGUI and RBACHR, respectively. They were developed using Visual Basic programming (Microsoft Press, 1997a). RBACGUI is used to initiate user-group assignment



Fig. 5. User interface: RBACGUI.

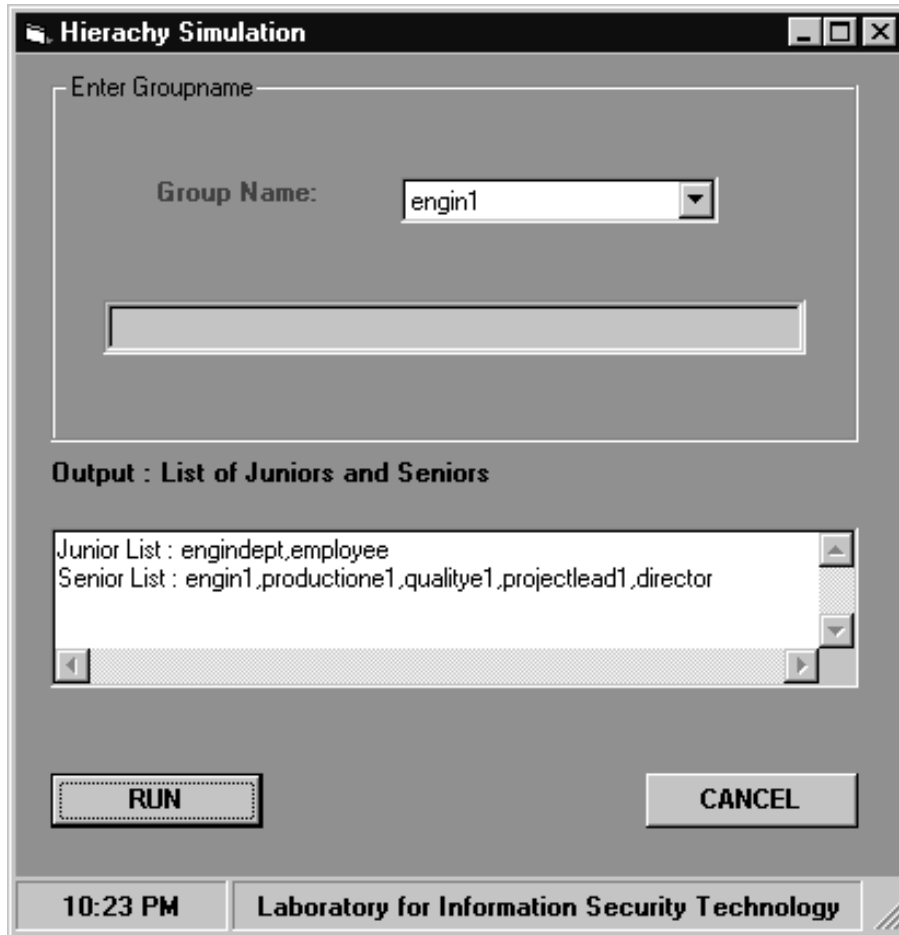


Fig. 6. User interface: RBACHR.

and revocation instead of typing the above as command line procedure calls. There are three buttons for doing user-group assignment and revocation; ASSIGN, W-REVOKE (weak revoke), and S-REVOKE (strong revoke). RBACHR is an interface which displays all junior and senior lists according to the group hierarchy. This implementation is convenient for administrative groups since they only need to define the group hierarchy and the relations *can_assign* and *can_revoke*. As discussed in Section 2 our implementation is scalable to large group hierarchies, since a single user can be assigned to as many as 993 groups in NT.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we have described our experiment to provide two useful extensions to the Windows NT group mechanism by means of Microsoft RPC programs. First we have added hierarchical groups by means of explicit assignment to junior groups. When a user is assigned to a senior group the system *automatically* adds the user to

all junior groups. Similarly, when a user's membership is revoked from a group, revocation from appropriate junior groups is *automatically* carried out. This behavior is adapted from the RBAC96 model. Second, we have adapted the URA97 model for decentralized user-group assignment and implemented it in Windows NT. Our implementations use Microsoft RPC programs to enforce authorization to add and remove users from groups. Our results indicate that Windows NT has adequate flexibility to accommodate sophisticated access control models to some extent. We also indicated that the Windows NT has better scalability in simulating group hierarchies by explicit assignment to junior groups, as compared with Unix.

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