# CSE 410/565 Computer Security Spring 2022

# Lecture 23: Privacy Enhancing Technologies

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# **Lecture Outline**

- Electronic cash
- Anonymous credentials and access control
- Secure voting
- Computation over encrypted data

- As we perform many transactions in electronic form, there is a need for electronic money
  - check and credit cards leave trails
  - can we have an equivalent of anonymous cash?
- Properties of cash
  - it is anonymous and untraceable
  - it can be used off-line, not connected to a bank
  - it is transferable
  - it has different denominations, and one can make change with it
  - it can be used only once (or stolen)

- Can we design digital cash with similar properties that can be sent through computer networks?
- Version 0
  - a bank gives Alice a digital banknote with the bank's signature
- What problems does this have?



• Version 1: adding anonymity

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- Alice prepares a banknote and bank blindly signs it
- consider blind signing using plain RSA:
  - given m < n, signing is  $\sigma = m^d \mod n$  and verification uses  $\sigma^e \mod n$
  - message is first blinded as  $m' = m \cdot r^e \mod n$  using random r < n
  - bank signs m' by producing  $\sigma'$
  - Alice recovers signature on m as  $\sigma' \cdot r^{-1} \mod n$

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- Version 2: cheating prevention
  - to ensure that Alice correctly forms the banknote to be signed, we a technique called cut-and-choose
  - Alice prepares k banknotes to be signed and blinds them
  - bank chooses one and asks the rest to be opened
  - if all opened k 1 banknotes are well-formed, bank signs the remaining mesage
  - an alternative is to use a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge of coin wellformedness



- Version 3: dealing with double spending
  - we can require the bank to keep track of all spent coins
  - each coin will need to be unique and have a serial number
  - serial numbers can be chosen randomly and be unique with very high probability if the space is large enough

- Version 4: attributing double spending to the party at fault
  - if Alice is trying to spend the same coin with more than one merchant, we want her to loose anonymity
  - if the merchant is trying to deposit Alice's coin more than once, we want the bank to know that the merchant is cheating
  - this is typically solved by encoding Alice's identity into a coin
    - if a coin is spent once, identity is protected
    - if a coin is spent more than once, identity can be recovered

### Cryptocurrencies

- Bitcoin solved the chicken and an egg problem in adopting digital cash by adopting a different model
  - real banks are not a part of the protocol and digital transactions
- Public signing keys are used as users pseudonyms
  - transactions are not linked to real identities, but transactions with the same key are linked to each other
- Blockchain is a mechanism for distributed consensus
  - it offers a distributed unmutable storage
  - previous transactions are recorded and stored in the blockchain
  - the concept of the proof of work holds it all together

### **Anonymous Access Control**

- Anonymous access control can be realized using anonymous credentials and anonyomus authentication
- A user can obtain credentials on certain attributes
  - at the certification time and at the time of authentication an attribute or only partial information about an attribute can be disclosed
  - examples:
    - a user can prove that she is over 21 without revealing the birth date (or anything else)
    - the user can prove that she is a student member and the expiration date is some time in the future

### **Anonymous Access Control**

- To permit anonymous authentication, a user obtains authority's certification in the form of a signature on relevant attributes
- Relevant properties of the attributes can be demonstrated using zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge
- Each time anonymous credentials are used, the user
  - needs to randomize the credentials to prevent linkability
  - prove that the signed values satisfy the access control policy
- One significant issue with using anonymous credentials in a commercial setting is prevention of duplicating user credentials



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### **Anonymous Access Control**

- Solutions to the problem of credential duplication include:
  - incorporating sensitive information into each credential the knowledge of which must be shown upon each use
  - restricting the number of simultaneous uses of a credential
  - issuing one-time credentials that can be exchanged for a new token upon each use
- Certain other techniques allow a user to be anonymous with the ability to uncover the user's identity under exceptional circumstances

- Preserving privacy of voters is crucial for fair outcome of elections
- Secure elections should have at least the following properties:
  - 1. only registered voters can vote
  - 2. no person can vote more than once
  - 3. no one can determine for whom anyone else voted
  - 4. every voter can make sure that his vote has been counted
  - 5. no person can duplicate any other person's vote
  - 6. no person can change any other person's vote undetected



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- Version 1: use encryption
  - each voter encrypts their vote with the tabulating authority's public key and communicates it
  - what desired properties are achieved?
- Version 2: use signatures for authentication
  - each voter signs her vote with her private signing key
  - each voter encrypts her signed vote with the authority's public key and communicates it



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- Version 3: use blinding for anonymity
  - we can use blind signatures for anonymity, but also need to prevent misbehavior
  - each voter prepares k sets of messages with a large random number and a valid vote for each candidate
  - each voter blinds each message individually and asks to get them signed
  - the authorithy picks one of them randomly and asks k 1 of them to be opened
  - if all opened messages are formed correctly, the remaining one is signed
  - the user picks a candidates and submits the corresponding signed message as the vote

- The next version achieves all desired properties and the two additional properties:
  - 7. if a voter finds that his vote is miscounted, he can correct the problem without compromising secrecy of his ballot
  - 8. a voter can redecide and cast a new vote within allocated time frame



- Version 4: use anonymous IDs and one-time encryption keys
  - the tabulating authority publishes a list of eligible voters who intend to vote
  - each voter receives a unique number I not known to the authority
  - each voter generates public-key encryption pair (pk, sk) and sends  $Enc_{pk}(I; v)$ , where v is the vote
  - the authority publishes received  $Enc_{pk}(I; v)$
  - each voter sends I, sk
  - the authority decrypts votes and at the end of election publishes results: for each vote v the list of all  $Enc_{pk}(I; v)$  that contained it

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- Version 4 (cont.):
  - if a voter sees error, she objects by sending I,  $Enc_{pk}(I; v)$ , sk
  - if voter wants to change vote from v to v', he sends I,  $Enc_{pk}(I; v'), sk$
- Malicious authorities still have some powers
  - forging votes for people who intended to vote, but didn't
  - neglecting to count Alice's vote and claiming that Alice never voted

### **Homomorphic Encryption**

• Homomorphic encryption is a special type of encryption that, given ciphertexts, permits computation on the underlying plaintexts

$$\mathsf{Enc}_k(m_1)\otimes \mathsf{Enc}_k(m_2) = \mathsf{Enc}_k(m_1\oplus m_2)$$

- Different types of homomorphic encryption are known:
  - partially homomorphic encryption

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- supports a single operation on ciphertexts
- additively homomorphic encryption  $Enc_k(m_1) \cdot Enc_k(m_2) = Enc_k(m_1 + m_2)$
- multiplicatively homomorphic encryption  $Enc_k(m_1) \cdot Enc_k(m_2) = Enc_k(m_1 \cdot m_2)$

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# **Homomorphic Encryption**

- Different types of homomorphic encryption
  - fully homomorphic encryption (FHE)
    - supports two operations on ciphertexts: addition and multiplication
    - allows for any functionality to be evaluated on encrypted data
- Homomorphic encryption enables computation on encrypted data and results in efficient protocols for certain problems

### **Secure Multi-Party Computation**

- More generally, secure multi-party computation allows for any desired function *f* to be securely evaluated on private data without revealing it
  - a number of parties hold private inputs  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$
  - we evalute  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  to obtain one or more outputs  $y_1, \ldots$
  - each output  $y_i$  is revealed to a party or parties entitled to learning it
  - no other information about any  $x_i$  is available to any participant
    - more precisely, given your  $x_i$  and the output, you may deduce something about other  $x_i$ s
    - but no additional information is revealed during the computation
  - this should hold even if a number of participants conspire against others and combine their information

# **Secure Multi-Party Computation**

- To model security, we compare a real protocol execution with an ideal execution
  - in the ideal setting, no interaction takes place
    - the computation is performed by trusted party that received all inputs and computes outputs
  - showing security consists of demonstrating that real protocol execution can be simulated by querynig the trusted party in the ideal setting
  - this implies that messages transmitted by the protocol reveal no information about inputs
    - i.e., a participant cannot tell whether an intermediate message was simulated or computed using actual data



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### Working with Private Values

- One way to protect a value is by splitting it into multiple shares
  - this is called secret sharing
  - given value s, generate shares  $s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n$
  - each  $s_i$  is stored in a different place and doesn't reveal the secret
  - access to enough shares allows for s to be reconstructed, but individual shares don't reveal anything
  - specifically, (n, t) threshold secret sharing means
    - a secret s is divided into n shares
    - access to t shares allows for s to be reconstructed
    - access to  $\leq t 1$  shares reveals nothing about s



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### **Secret Sharing**

- Example: (2, 2) additive secret sharing
  - additive means we use addition to produce shares
  - our secret is  $0 \le x < N$
  - choose random r from  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  and set the first share  $x_1 = r$
  - compute the second share  $x_2 = (x r) \mod N$
  - to reconstruct, compute  $x = x_1 + x_2 \mod N$
  - for example

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- let N = 10 and x = 3
- suppose we choose random  $x_1 = 5$
- we compute  $x_2 = 3 5 \mod 10 = 8$

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# **Security of Secret Sharing**

- Unlike encryption, secret sharing is unbreakable
  - secret sharing enjoys information theoretic security and achieves perfect secrecy
  - this goes back to Shannon's work in the 1940s
- Let's examine the two-party secret sharing above

# Why Secret Sharing is Secure

- One party holds random r
  - clearly this cannot reveal anything about secret x
- The other party holds  $x r \mod N$ 
  - this also doesn't reveal anything about x
  - when we draw random r, all N options are equally likely

0									N-1
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- when we add x to it, all N options are still equally likely



# Why Secret Sharing is Secure

- The above means the outcome of protecting one value of x is identical to the outcome of protecting another value of x
  - this means that we learn no information about that value
- The above holds regardless of our computational capabilities
  - encryption requires that the keys and ciphertexts are sufficiently long to maintain security
  - information-theoretic techniques, on the other hand, can be used with arbitrarily small numbers

### **Computing with Secret Shared Values**

Most types of secret sharing permit addition to be performed directly on local shares

- Addition z = x + y
  - assume (2, 2) additive secret sharing with modulus N
  - party *i* holds  $x_i, y_i$  and computes  $z_i = (x_i + y_i) \mod N$

Alice  $x_1, y_1$ 





 $z_1 = (x_1 + y_1) \bmod N$ 



 $z_2 = (x_2 + y_2) \mod N$ 



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## **Computing with Secret Shared Values**

- Multiplication  $x \cdot y$ 
  - multiplication cannot be computed using only local shares
  - with two shares per value, we need to compute

 $z = x_1y_1 + x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_2 = z_1 + z_2 \pmod{N}$ 

- two terms  $(x_1y_1 \text{ and } x_2y_2)$  can be computed locally, while others require additional tools
  - this requires interaction or tools such as homomorphic encryption
- (Integer) addition and multiplication are sufficient to compute any desired functionality

# The Big Picture

- A number of participants would like to perform joint computation on their private inputs
  - secret sharing: each input owner creates shares of its private inputs and communicates a share to each party running the computation
  - secure computation: computation parties evaluate the function on shares one operation at a time
  - once the result is computed, shares are communicated to the output recipients
  - output reconstruction: each output recipient reconstruct its output from the received shares



# **Secure Multi-Party Computation**

- Secure computation can take many forms
  - secure two-party computation
    - e.g., evaluating predisposition to a genetic disease
  - secure multi-party computation
    - e.g., determining the best treatment for a rare condition by multiple hospitals
  - secure computation outsourcing
    - e.g., offloading image processing to a cloud



### Summary

- Technical solutions to privacy are numerous
  - in certain applications with want to combine anonymity with accountability
  - in other applications we seek to protect private information
- Work on privacy and anonymity started in early 80s and continues to date
  - efficient constructions for applications such as e-cash, anonymous credentials, etc. are known
  - there is always room for improvement