

# CS6290 Course Review

# Final Project Due Tonight (Apr 27, 2025)

Please submit:

- The project report
- Other deliveries (if you have): source codes, prototype systems, etc.

# Final Examination

(Please refer to ARRO's final notice)

- **Venue:** AC-216
- **Time:** 9:30 – 11:30 AM, May 14, 2025
- **Materials and Aids Permitted:** 1 sheet of notes
  - A4 size
  - Double-sided

# Agenda

- ~2h course revision, covering the key concepts we've learned:
  - Module 1: Decentralization, Consensus & Blockchain
  - Module 2: Privacy-Preserving Computation Techniques
  - Module 3: Web Privacy: Tracking Mechanisms & Countermeasures
  - Module 4: Data Privacy: Anonymization vs. Differential Privacy
  - Module 5: Privacy & Security in Machine Learning
- ~1h free Q&A (no tutorial session today)

# Warning

- This review-session only highlights a few key concepts
- You should thoroughly review all lecture and tutorial materials (the final exam won't cover concepts in Lecture 4: Ethereum Security)

# **Module 1: Module 1: Decentralization, Consensus & Blockchain**

Let's start with the basics: why build systems without a central authority, and what challenges does this create?

## What is a Decentralized System?

- **Centralized:** Controlled by a single entity (e.g., a bank's database, a company server).
  - Pros: Efficiency, clear control.
  - Cons: Single point of failure, censorship risk, potential for unilateral control/abuse.
- **Decentralized:** Control and data are distributed among multiple participants. No single entity has full control.
  - Pros: Increased resilience, censorship resistance, transparency (potentially).
  - Cons: Coordination challenges, potentially slower performance.
- **Examples:** Bitcoin, Ethereum, distributed file storage systems.

## The Core Challenge: Reaching Agreement (Consensus)

- In a decentralized system with a shared ledger (a common record of events/transactions), how do participants agree on:
  - Which new transactions/updates are valid?
  - The order in which they occurred?
- Without a central authority to dictate the "truth", we need a **Consensus Mechanism**.

## Consensus Mechanisms: The Engine of Agreement

- **Goal:** Allow independent nodes to propose and agree on the next valid block/update to the shared ledger, ensuring everyone eventually has the same, consistent view.
- **Key Examples:**
  - **Proof-of-Work (PoW):** Nodes (miners) compete to solve a computationally hard puzzle. The winner proposes the next block.
    - *Principle:* Making block creation costly deters attackers. Requires significant energy.
  - **Proof-of-Stake (PoS):** Nodes (validators) are chosen to propose blocks based on the amount of cryptocurrency they "stake" (lock up) as collateral.
    - *Principle:* Economic incentive – validators lose stake if they cheat. More energy-efficient.

## Maintaining Consistency: Forks & Resolution

- **What is a Fork?** When two or more valid blocks are proposed at roughly the same time, creating temporary diverging versions of the history.
- **Why is Resolution Needed?** To ensure the entire network eventually agrees on a single history.
- **Nakamoto Consensus Resolution (PoW): The Longest Chain Rule**
  - Nodes always try to extend the chain with the most **cumulative proof-of-work** (typically the longest one).
  - Over time, one chain attracts more work and outpaces others.
  - Shorter, abandoned forks become "orphaned".
- **Result: Eventual Consistency** – the network converges.

## Real-World Consideration: Scalability

- **Scalability:** A system's ability to handle increasing amounts of work (e.g., more users, more transactions).
- **Challenge in Blockchains:** Processing a high volume of transactions quickly can be difficult.
- **Bottlenecks Examples:**
  - **Block Generation Time:** A fixed interval limits how often new transactions are confirmed (e.g., Bitcoin  $\approx$  10 mins).
  - **Block Size Limit:** Restricts how many transactions fit into each block.
  - **Network Latency:** Time for blocks/transactions to spread across the network.
- **Impact:** Limits **throughput** (transactions per second). Improving scalability is a major area of blockchain research (e.g., Layer 2, PoS variations, Sharding).

## Beyond Simple Ledgers: Smart Contracts

- **Concept:** Self-executing contracts with the terms of the agreement directly written into code. They run on a blockchain network.
- **Functionality:**
  - Automate processes when predefined conditions are met.
  - Enforce rules transparently.
  - Examples: Decentralized finance (DeFi), supply chain tracking, automated verification checks.
- **Execution Cost (e.g., "Gas" in Ethereum):**
  - Users pay fees to execute transactions or smart contract functions.
  - Compensates node operators for computational resources.
  - Prevents network spam and resource exhaustion.

## Module 1 Recap: Key Concepts

- Decentralization avoids single points of failure but requires **consensus**.
- **PoW** (computation) and **PoS** (stake) are major consensus approaches.
- **Fork resolution** (e.g., longest chain rule) ensures eventual consistency.
- **Scalability** (throughput) is a critical challenge.
- **Smart contracts** enable automated, programmable logic on blockchains.
- **Gas/Fees** manage resource usage on public platforms.

## **Module 2: Privacy-Preserving Computation Techniques**

How can multiple parties collaborate using their data without revealing it to each other?

## The Need for Privacy-Preserving Computation

- **Problem:** Often, valuable insights can be gained by combining data from different sources (e.g., hospitals, companies, individuals).
- **Constraint:** This data is often sensitive and cannot be shared directly due to privacy regulations, business confidentiality, or personal concerns.
- **Goal:** Enable computation on combined data **without revealing the private inputs**.
- **Key Technologies:** Secure Multi-Party Computation (MPC) and Zero-Knowledge Proofs (ZKP).

# What is Secure Multi-Party Computation (MPC)?

**Goal:** Compute a function on multiple parties' private data *without* them revealing their data to each other.

**Example:** Alice has  $X$ , Bob has  $Y$ . They want to compute  $f(X, Y)$  (e.g.,  $X + Y$ ,  $\text{Avg}(X, Y)$ ) without Alice learning  $Y$  or Bob learning  $X$ .

**Core Idea:** Transform the data and the computation so no single party sees another's raw input.

# How does MPC work? (Conceptual Process)

## 1. Input Sharing/Transformation:

- Parties process their private inputs using techniques like:
  - **Secret Sharing:** Input is split into "shares", distributed among parties. No single share reveals the input.
  - **Homomorphic Encryption:** Input is encrypted. Computations can be done directly on the encrypted data.
- *Key Point: Raw private data is never directly exchanged.*

# How does MPC work? (Conceptual Process)

## 2. Secure Computation:

- Parties jointly perform calculations on the *transformed* (shared or encrypted) data following a specific protocol.
- The protocol ensures calculations are correct without revealing intermediate values linked to original inputs.

## 3. Output Reconstruction:

- Parties combine their results (or decrypt the final encrypted result) to get the final output of  $f(X, Y)$ .
- Ideally, only the final result is learned.

## MPC: Key Goal Achieved

- **Input Privacy:** Throughout the process (sharing, computation, reconstruction), no party learns the raw private inputs of others.
- **Correctness:** The protocol ensures the final output is the same as if the computation were done centrally with all raw data (assuming no cheating/failures, which protocols also address).

# What are Zero-Knowledge Proofs (ZKP)?

**Goal:** A **Prover** wants to convince a **Verifier** that a statement is true, *without* revealing *why* it's true or any secret information related to the statement.

**Example:** Alice (Prover) wants to prove to Bob (Verifier) that she knows the solution to a puzzle, without showing Bob the solution itself.

**Core Idea:** Use a protocol involving challenges and responses that demonstrate knowledge or property adherence probabilistically or definitively, without leaking the core secret.

# How do ZKPs work? (Conceptual Process)

1. **Commitment/Claim:** The Prover makes a claim or commits to possessing certain knowledge (the "witness").
2. **Challenge-Response (often iterative):**
  - The Verifier issues challenges based on the claim.
  - The Prover provides responses based on their secret knowledge (witness) and the challenge.
  - *Crucially, the responses don't reveal the witness itself.*
3. **Verification:** The Verifier checks if the Prover's responses are consistent with the claim according to the protocol rules. If they are (after enough rounds, if iterative), the Verifier is convinced.

## Key Properties of ZKPs

- **Completeness:** If the Prover's statement *is true* (and they have the witness), they can always convince an honest Verifier.
- **Soundness:** If the Prover's statement *is false* (or they lack the witness), they have only a negligible chance of fooling an honest Verifier.
- **Zero-Knowledge:** The Verifier learns *nothing* beyond the fact that the statement is true. The proof reveals no information about the secret witness itself.

# Example Application: Combining MPC & ZKP: Scenario

## Why combine them?

- MPC protects inputs during computation, but assumes inputs are *correctly formed* or *honestly provided*.
- ZKP can *verify* properties of inputs *before* they enter the MPC, without revealing the inputs.

**Scenario:** Multiple hospitals want to compute average patient recovery time (MPC) but need to ensure each hospital:

- \* Only includes valid patient records (e.g., times are positive numbers).
- \* Submits data consistent with a prior commitment (e.g., number of patients).

# MPC: Considerations & Limitations

- **Input Privacy vs. Output Privacy:**

- MPC primarily protects **inputs**.
- The **output** itself is revealed and might leak information.
- *Example:* If only two parties compute an average, knowing the average and your own input reveals the other party's input.

- **Mitigation Strategies:**

- Use techniques like Differential Privacy on the output.
- Agree only on aggregated/binning results instead of precise values.
- Ensure enough participants to dilute information leakage.

# ZKP: Considerations & Limitations

- **Proof Scope:**
  - A ZKP proves *exactly* the statement formulated.
  - It doesn't inherently prove related things *not* explicitly included in the statement.
  - *Example:* Proving your list contains valid entries doesn't prove you included *all* relevant entries (omission is hard to prove directly).
- **Mitigation Strategies:**
  - Careful protocol design: Define precisely what needs proving.
  - External/Procedural Controls: Use pre-commitments (e.g., publicly declare dataset size before proving properties).

## General Considerations (Both MPC & ZKP)

- **Complexity:** Implementing and running these protocols can be complex.
- **Performance:** Can be computationally intensive and require significant communication overhead compared to traditional methods. Performance depends heavily on the specific protocol choice and scale.
- **Assumptions:** Different protocols rely on different cryptographic assumptions (e.g., hardness of factoring, discrete logarithms).

## Module 2 Recap: Key Concepts

- **MPC** enables joint computation on private inputs, protecting the inputs themselves.
- **ZKP** allows proving statements true without revealing underlying information, ensuring integrity.

## **Module 3: Web Privacy: Tracking Mechanisms & Countermeasures**

How does our activity get tracked online, and what can be done about it?

## The Basic Web Interaction

- **Client-Server Model:** Your **browser** (client) requests web pages and resources from web servers.
- **Domains:** Websites are identified by domain names (e.g., `example.com`). Resources (images, scripts) can be loaded from the *same* domain or *different* domains.
- **State Management:** HTTP (the web protocol) is stateless. **Cookies** were invented to help websites remember information about users across requests (e.g., login status, preferences).

## Cookies: The Core Tracking Mechanism

- **What are they?** Small text files stored by your browser, associated with a specific domain. The browser sends the cookie back to the domain on subsequent requests.
- **First-Party Cookie:** Set by the domain you are **currently visiting** (e.g., `news.com` sets a cookie while you are browsing `news.com` ).
  - *Purpose:* Site functionality (login, cart, settings). Generally expected/needed.
- **Third-Party Cookie:** Set by a domain **different** from the one you are visiting (e.g., `adnetwork.com` sets a cookie via an ad shown on `news.com` ).
  - *Purpose:* Cross-site tracking, ad targeting, analytics across different websites.

## How Third-Party Cookies Enable Cross-Site Tracking

1. **Visit Site A:** An embedded resource (ad, tracker) from `tracker.com` sets a cookie with a unique ID ( `xyz` ). `tracker.com` notes your visit to Site A.
2. **Visit Site B:** Another embedded resource from `tracker.com` is present. Your browser sends the cookie ( `id=xyz` ) back to `tracker.com` .
3. **Linking:** `tracker.com` now knows the **same browser (ID xyz)** visited both Site A and Site B, building a profile of your interests across the web.

## Limitations of Cookie Blocking & The Rise of Fingerprinting

- **Problem:** Users started blocking third-party cookies.
- **Industry Response: Browser Fingerprinting.**
- **Concept:** Identify users by combining various characteristics of their browser and device configuration, creating a "fingerprint".
- **Attributes Used:**
  - Browser type & version (User Agent)
  - Operating System
  - Installed fonts & plugins
  - Screen resolution & color depth
  - Language settings
  - ...
- **Result:** The combination can be highly unique, allowing tracking **without** cookies.

# Countermeasures Against Tracking

- **Basic Browser Settings:**
  - Blocking 3rd-party cookies (helps, but doesn't stop fingerprinting).
  - Clearing cookies regularly.
- **Privacy-Focused Browsers:** Brave, Firefox (with Enhanced Tracking Protection), DuckDuckGo browser often have stronger default protections.
- **Browser Extensions:**
  - **Content Blockers** (e.g., uBlock Origin): Block requests to known tracking domains/scripts using filter lists.
  - **Behavioral Blockers** (e.g., Privacy Badger): Learn which domains seem to be tracking you across sites and block them.
- **Other:** VPNs (mask IP address), Tor Browser (anonymizes traffic).

## Module 3 Recap: Key Concepts

- **Cookies** enable state; **third-party cookies** enable cross-site tracking.
- **Browser Fingerprinting** uses device configuration for cookie-less tracking.
- The **context** (1st vs 3rd party) depends on the site being visited vs the domain setting/reading the cookie/script.
- **Countermeasures** range from browser settings to advanced tools that block tracking requests and scripts.
- This is an ongoing "arms race" between trackers and privacy tools/browsers.

## **Module 4: Data Privacy: Anonymization vs. Differential Privacy**

How can we analyze sensitive data about people while protecting their privacy?

## The Core Privacy Challenge with Data

- **Personal Data:** Information relating to an identifiable individual.
- **Sensitive Data:** Subset of personal data needing extra protection (e.g., health, beliefs, finances).
- **Goal:** Enable useful analysis (research, statistics) on datasets containing personal/sensitive info.
- **Risk:** Analysis or data release might inadvertently reveal information about specific individuals.
- **Two Main Strategies:**
  - i. **Anonymization:** Modify the data itself to remove identifying links.
  - ii. **Formal Privacy:** Add constraints/noise to the *analysis process* to protect individuals mathematically.

## Data Anonymization: The k-Anonymity Approach

- **Quasi-Identifiers (QIs):** Attributes that are not unique on their own but can identify individuals when combined (e.g., ZIP Code, Birth Date, Gender).
- **k-Anonymity Goal:** Ensure that for any combination of QIs in the dataset, there are at least  $k$  individuals sharing that combination. Makes individuals "hide in a crowd" of size  $k$ .
- **Techniques:**
  - **Generalization:** Replace specific values with broader ones (Age 28 -> 20–29 ).
  - **Suppression:** Hide specific values ( \* ).

## Visualizing k-Anonymity (k=3 Example)

Original Data:

ZIP	Age	Condition
94117	28	Flu
94117	29	Bronchitis
94117	21	Flu
90210	35	HBP
90210	32	HBP
90210	38	HBP

## Visualizing k-Anonymity (k=3 Example)

**k=3 Anonymized (QIs: ZIP, Age):**

ZIP	Age Range	Condition
94117	20-29	Flu
94117	20-29	Bronchitis
94117	20-29	Flu
90210	30-39	HBP
90210	30-39	HBP
90210	30-39	HBP

\*Each row is indistinguishable from at least 2 others based on (ZIP, Age Range).

When considering the Condition attribute, it is not 3-Anonymous.

## Limitations of k-Anonymity

- **Homogeneity Attack:** In the example above, if you know someone lives in 90210 and is 30-39, you *know* they have HBP, because *everyone* in that group does. k-anonymity is met, but privacy is breached for the sensitive attribute!
- **Background Knowledge Attack:** Attacker might know extra info (e.g., "My neighbor Bob is in the dataset and is ~35"). This can help narrow possibilities even in a k-anonymous dataset.
- **Curse of Dimensionality:** Hard to achieve k-anonymity with many QIs without excessive generalization/suppression, destroying data utility.
- *(Advanced: l-diversity, t-closeness try to address homogeneity but have own issues).*

## Formal Privacy: Differential Privacy (DP)

- **Different Philosophy:** Instead of modifying the data structure, DP defines a mathematical property of the *analysis algorithm* or *query mechanism*.
- **Core Promise:** The output of a DP analysis is **statistically indistinguishable** whether any particular individual's data was included in the input dataset or not.
- **Mechanism:** Carefully calibrated random noise is added to the results of computations (counts, sums, averages, ML model weights, etc.).
- **Privacy Parameter ( $\epsilon$ , epsilon):** Controls the level of privacy. Lower  $\epsilon$  = more noise, stronger privacy; Higher  $\epsilon$  = less noise, weaker privacy.

## Why is Differential Privacy Often Considered Stronger?

- **Resilience to Background Knowledge:** The privacy guarantee holds regardless of what external information an attacker possesses.
- **Protection Against Diverse Attacks:** Inherently protects against linkage attacks, homogeneity attacks, differencing attacks, etc.
- **Quantifiable Privacy Loss:** Epsilon ( $\epsilon$ ) provides a measure of privacy loss.
- **Composition:** DP guarantees compose predictably – you can track the total privacy loss ( $\epsilon$ ) across multiple queries (the "privacy budget").
- **Focus:** Protects individuals while allowing aggregate statistical analysis.

## Module 4 Recap: Key Concepts

- **Anonymization** (like k-anonymity) modifies data to obscure individuals but has known vulnerabilities (homogeneity, background knowledge).
- **Differential Privacy** adds noise to analysis results, providing a formal, mathematical guarantee against inferring individual information.
- DP is robust against background knowledge and allows quantifiable privacy loss ( $\epsilon$ ) and composition.
- The choice involves a **privacy-utility trade-off**. DP often requires careful implementation to maintain usefulness.

## **Module 5: Privacy & Security in Machine Learning**

How do we ensure machine learning systems are private and secure?

## What is Machine Learning (Briefly)?

- **Concept:** Algorithms that allow computer systems to "learn" patterns and make predictions or decisions **from data**, without being explicitly programmed for every specific task.
- **Process:**
  - i. Collect **Training Data**.
  - ii. Choose a **Model Architecture**.
  - iii. **Train** the model (adjusting parameters to minimize errors on training data).
  - iv. **Deploy** the model to make predictions on new, unseen data.
- **Dependency:** The model's behavior is heavily dependent on the training data.

## New Risks Introduced by ML

- **Data is the Asset:** ML models encapsulate patterns learned from potentially sensitive training data.
- **Model Accessibility:** Models are often deployed via APIs, allowing queries.
- **This creates vulnerabilities:**
  - **Privacy Risks:** Inferring sensitive information *about* the training data.
  - **Security Risks:** Attacking the model's *integrity* or *availability*.

## Key Privacy Risks in ML

- **Membership Inference:** Can an attacker determine if a specific person's data (e.g., their photo, medical record) was used to train the model?
  - *Why it matters:* Leaks potentially sensitive information (e.g., participation in a study, being an employee).
- **Attribute Inference / Model Inversion:** Can an attacker infer sensitive attributes of the training data (e.g., the likely race or gender distribution) or even reconstruct average-looking training examples?
  - *Why it matters:* Leaks aggregate or individual characteristics.

## Mitigating Privacy Risks in ML

- **Differential Privacy:** Apply DP principles *during model training*. Add noise to the learning process (e.g., to gradients) so the final model parameters don't overly depend on any single training record.
- **Federated Learning:** Train the model across multiple decentralized devices (e.g., mobile phones) where the raw data resides. Only aggregated model updates (often anonymized or protected) are sent to a central server. Data stays local. (**Note: the gradients can still leak from private information!**)
- **Secure Enclaves / MPC:** Perform training within secure hardware or using multi-party computation (more complex).

## Key Security Risks in ML

- **Adversarial Examples (Evasion Attacks):** Attackers craft inputs with tiny, human-imperceptible changes specifically designed to fool the model into making an incorrect prediction.
  - *Example:* A slightly altered image of a stop sign classified as a speed limit sign.
  - *Impact:* Undermines model reliability, safety, and trust.
- **Data Poisoning Attacks:** Attackers inject malicious data into the *training set* to compromise the final model's behavior (e.g., create backdoors, degrade performance on specific inputs).
  - *Impact:* Corrupts the model's integrity from within.

## Mitigating Security Risks in ML

- **Adversarial Training:** Include adversarial examples (and their correct labels) as part of the training process to make the model more robust against them.
- **Input Sanitization / Validation:** Check model inputs for suspicious patterns before prediction.

## Module 5 Recap: Key Concepts

- ML models learn from data, creating new **privacy** (inference), **security** (adversarial, poisoning), and **ethical** (bias) risks.
- **Adversarial Training** helps defend against adversarial example.
- **Data security** is crucial to prevent poisoning.
- Building **Trustworthy AI** means addressing all these dimensions.

**Q&A**