UNIVERSITÄT PADERBORN
Die Universität der Informationsgesellschaft

Fakultät für Elektrotechnik, Informatik und Mathematik
Arbeitsgruppe Codes und Kryptographie

Title

Bachelor's Thesis

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Bachelor of Science

by
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submitted to:
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and
???

Paderborn, August 22, 2022

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2 Introduction

2.1 MPC and Databases

A famous problem in the context of MPC is Yao's millionaire's problem. In Yao's millionaire's problem there are two millionaires Alice and Bob. We will call Alice's wealth x and Bob's wealth y. Alice and Bob want to know who of them is has more money. i.e. they want to compute the function F(x,y) := $\begin{cases} Alice\,is\,richer & y \leq x \\ Bob\,is\,richer & y > x \end{cases}$. Yet neither of them is willing to trust the other and tell him how much money he has. Yao's millionaire's problem can be generalised into the general MPC problem. Instead of Bob and Alice, we now consider n parties $p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1}$ and each party i holds an arbitrary input x_i for an arbitrary function F$(x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$, that all parties have agreed upon. A MPC protocol π is protocol, that allows $p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1}$ to compute F$(x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ without revelling any information about $x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}$.

Andrew Yao proposed a solution for Yao's millionaire's problem in 1982 []. It has also been shown that MPC is Turing-complete[]. This means that for any function f that can be computed with a Turing machine. There exists a MPC protocol π that can compute f. -Databases ...

2.2 related work

2.2.1 From Keys to Databases—Real-World Applications of Secure Multi-Party Computation

2.3 goals

In this section we describe the goals of our work.

2.4 structure

In this section we outline the structure this document.

3 Preliminary

3.1 Secure Multiparty Computation

In the an secure multiparty computation(short MPC) scenario there are n parties $p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1}$. They want to compute an agreed upon functionality $F(x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$. A functionality is a function that is allowed to have internal randomness, so its not function in the strict mathematically sense of the word. Each party p_i holds an input value x_i. The parties hold their input private and do not want to reveal any information about it. The Goal of secure multiparty computation is to develop a protocol π that enables them to jointly compute $F(x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}.)$. The security goal of "not revelling the inputs" is often formalised through the Real-/Ideal-World Paradigm.

3.1.1 Real World and Ideal World

When modelling security of secure multiparty computation we compare the real world, to a perfect ideal world, where the problem can be solved in a perfect way.

Real World In the real world there exists a protocol π that enables the parties to compute F. All parties execute the protocol together. During the execution they exchange several rounds of communication. The attacker or adversary has the ability to corrupt one or more of the parties. His capability to influence the corrupted parties is an important parameter and may differ based on different security assumptions. These may range for example from a relative weak adversary that can only read massages to a very powerful adversary. We explain the adversary models that are of importance for our benchmarks in Section 3.2 in detail. The real world view of party A consist of the input of A, all massages A sends or receives during the execution of the protocol and his internal randomness. The protocol achieves the security goal of confidentially if the attacker is unable to derive new information from the views of the parties he did corrupt.
...

Ideal World In the Ideal World the parties to not need run a protocol. Instead they can rely on a trusted, incorruptible third party P that aids them. With the aid of P, the parties can evaluate F in two simple steps. In a first round of communication every party send P its input. P now holds all information it needs to compute F. Afterwards P can send each party the result in a second round of communication. Like in the real world, in the ideal world their also exists an adversary. Similar to his real world counterparty he is also able to corrupt one or more parties. Compared to his real world

Schaubild einfügen ?

counter part the ideal world adversary has otherwise very limited ability's. He can only see the input and output of the parties he corrupts. Since the computation with the aid of P produces no intermediate results that he can observe. Depending on the underlying security assumptions he also may be able to modify the input a corrupted party sends to P in the first round of communication. Because of these very limited ability's it is desired that for every adversary in the real world their exits a comparable powerful adversary in the ideal world. This is often formalised using simulation based proof.

Security Given an real-world adversary A , a secure multiparty protocol π , and a functionality F for π to be secure we require the existence of a so called simulator S. S is an ideal world adversary for F that mirror's the behaviour of A. This means that S and A corrupt the same parties and also that if a A changes the output of F then S does the same. After S has performed its attack S outputs a real world view. π is secure against A, if the view S outputs is indistinguishable from a view of A. This means that the real world attacker A cannot learn more then the ideal world attacker S. Despite the very limited ability's S has compared to A. Finally we say π is secure against if, for all A π is secure against A.

3.2 Adversarial Models

There are multiple models and categorizations of adversary's and their capability's. These distinctions have significant impact on feasibility and difficulty of secure multi-party computation. In the following we will outline the models and assumptions that are of importance for our benchmarks.

Passive Adversary vs Active Adversary A passive adversary can not force a corrupted party to deviate from the protocol in an any way. One could think of a passive adversary as a "read-only" adversary. As a passive adversary is only able to read the messages his corrupted parties receive or send. A active adversary can do everything a passive adversary can additionally he has the power to force a corrupted party to deviate from the protocol in an arbitrary way. So if for example the protocol would at some point require that each party choses an integer between 1 and n uniformly at random. Then a passive adversary would have no choice but to choose the integer between 1 and n uniformly at random. On the contrary an active adversary would be able to force a corrupted party to chose the value 42 or any other value that the adversary considers to be advantageous for him. In the ideal world a passive adversary is bound to forward the real input values. A active adversary can choose to ignore the real input and forward any value instead.

Monolithic Adversary In the following we will assume a monolithic adversary unless explicitly stated otherwise. This means that there is only a single adversary that controls all corrupt parties. For the honest parties a monolithic adversary is a worst-case scenario. A monolithic adversary is more powerful compared to multiple adversary's that control

the same total amount of parties but to not corporate with each other. A protocol that is secure in the presence of a single adversary that corrupts n parties and is able to coordinate their efforts. Will be secure in the presence of up to n adversary's that corrupt n parties total and do not coordinate their efforts.

General Adversary vs Threshold Adversary In the threshold MPC setting the adversary can choose to corrupt any party. The threshold adversary is only limited in the way that can at most corrupt t parties where t is set to be $0 < t < n$. A common setting for t is $t = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, which called the honest majority. For example and for n=3 the presence of an honest majority means, that it is assumed that the threshold adversary can corrupt at most 1 party. Threshold MPC best fits scenarios that feature a very homogenous group of parties. A general adversary is limited in his choice which party he corrupts by an adversary structure $Z = \{Z_1, \ldots, Z_l\}$. Where Z_i can be any set of parties. The general adversary must corrupt a set of parties P such that there exists an $x \in Z$ that holds $P \subset x$. This allows for a flexible way to formalise assumptions. If for example in protocol there are two parties that hold a very vital role and one want to assume that no adversary can corrupt both of these parties. That can be formalised by using a general adversary an defining Z so that no element in Z contains both of these two parties.

Static vs Dynamic Corruptions Another important distinction is the distinction between static and adaptive adversary's. A static adversary is bound to chose which parties he wants to corrupt before the execution of π starts. An adaptive adversary can corrupt a party during the execution of the protocol. This makes the adaptive adversary much more powerful. As he can try to identify "weak links" based on the information he gets during the execution of the protocol and then choose corrupt those.

3.2.1 Additional Properties

binary secret sharing ???

garbled circuits ???

3.3 Databases

coming soon

4 framework description

4.1 CipherCompute

On candidate for our study was Cipher Compute. With the CypherCompute framework it is possible to solve a huge range of MPC problems using Rust. These include SQL operations like joins that are of interest for us. Furthermore CypherCompute provides a rich documentation, consisting of a full quickstart guide and several well documented example projects. CypherCompute utilises the SCALE-MAMBA framework for its underlying MPC operations. SCALE-MAMBA itself has evolved out of the well-known SPDZ protocol. Unfortunately the early access version of CypherCompute is not functioning by the time we conducting this study. Therefore we have decided to not include CypherCompute in our study.

4.2 Prio+

Prio+ [AGJ+21] is the next generation of the highly influential Prio [CGB17]. Prio+ strives to maintain the same use and security as Prio, while significantly increasing performance compared to its predecessor. Prio Plus allows an arbitrary number of parties to jointly compute aggregated statistics, like SUM, MAX, MIN operators. Prio+ utilises a client server model. In which the (potentially many) input parties use a small number of servers to compute the statistics. Prio+ guarantees confidentiality of the input values if at least one server stays honest. Unlike CipherCompute or conclave Prio+ is not a framework for developing MPC solutions. Its rather an already complete system. This means that the use of Prio+ can not be extended beyond the usecases that have been originally implemented by the authors of Prio+. This leaves Prio+ with a relatively small range of usecases compared to frameworks like aby3 or conclave. Therefore we have decided to not include Prio+ in our study.

4.3 conclave

functionality Conclave allows to perform MPC analytics on "big data". Conclave aims provide a high-level interface that abstracts internal MPC details away from the user. Through this high abstraction level conclave aims to make MPC more accessible for those who are not experts in this field. Every operation done with conclave is composable, that means that the output of every query can be the input of another query. This mechanism makes it possible to construct very complex queries out of multiple relative simple queries. With conclave one can join tables using the equivalent of an equi-join or

an union operator. Conclave also supports a range of aggregate functions these include sum, mean, standard deviation.

underlying MPC technology Conclave utilises existing MPC frameworks for its backend to perform its underlying MPC opertaions. Therefore Conclave inherits most security guarantees and assumptions from the frameworks. The concrete frameworks of use are Sharemind and Obliv-C. As both of these frameworks are designed to withstand passive adversary's and do not support more then 3 parties. Conclave also assumes a passive adversary and supports up to 3 parties. Conclave interacts with its backend through a generic interface. Therefore it is theoretically feasible to integrate another framework to add support for more then 3 parties.
- inherits security guarantees of backend -> honest majority
- adversary is statically
- no secure channel setting
Instead of exclusively using MPC operations, conclave evaluates queries with a combination of cleartext processing and MPC operations. MPC techniques are usually multiple orders of magnitude slower then cleartext processing.

trust annotations Conclave features optional trust annotations. With these trust annotations one party can annotate that it does trust another party to learn the values of a specific column.

hybrid operations

querie rewriting

4.3.1 Querie optimization

Conclave speeds up computation by optimizing queries. There are two key techniques conclave applies for optimizing queries. The first one is rearranging the query's operation to minimize the amount of MPC operations required. The second technique is cutting out redundant MPC sorts and shuffles.

Rearranging queries

Sorts and shuffles Many of conclaves high-level operators include "sub-protocols" like sorts and shuffles. These sorts and shuffles are MPC operations. As such they are highly expansive operations. Yet not all of these sorts and shuffles are always necessary. If for example a operator produces a sorted intermediate result like for example an order by operation would do, it is redundant to sort again as part of the next operator. Conclave is able to identify such redundant sorts and shuffles and eliminates them where possible. The ability to skip such expansive MPC operations provides significant performance gains.

- moving operations outside of MPC to maximise performance
- maintaining same end-to-end security as "pure" MPC
- contrary to conventional sql operations that aims to minimize the total amount of work e.g. filters before join

- published in 2019,
- utilises trust through hybrid operations for additional performance increase

- compares to "SMCQL most similar existing system"
- jiff dependency
- requires python 3.5
- ...

4.4 aby3

4.4.1 functionality

aby3 is a 3 party MPC framework that allows to compute query's on relational database tables. These query's are not limited to queering only one table. Aby3 supports a variety of join operations these include but are not limited to left join , right join, set union, set minus and also full joins. Note that the semantic of the set union operator in aby3 does not 100 percent matches the semantic of the SQL union operator. Similar to the SQL-union the aby3-union does row-concatenation of two tables. The result of such join can again be queried using with query's that have a comparable semantic to the SELECT,FROM,WHERE; statement in SQL. Furthermore aby3 comes with a description how aggregate functions like MAX,SUM,COUNT can be realised when utilising aby3.

todo :union und andere oparatioren die von standart sql abweichen beschreiben

4.4.2 underlying MPC technology

- honest majority
- passiv adversary
- all protocols constant rounds of communication
- O(n) overhead in for join where n is number of rows

aby3 demonstrates its capability's in two prototype applications. One of them could be used by the states of the United States to detected voters that are registered in more then one state. What would allow to them to illegitimacy cast a vote in both of these states. This is a showcase example for the use of MPC on very sensitive data that ...

In [MRR20] .. - prototype - does feature a LAN VS WAN comparison in benchmarks - fully composable - arbitrary computation computation

4.5 smcql

4.5.1 functionality

4.5.2 underlying MPC technology

4.5.3 querie optimization

- prototype for 2 parties can be expanded for more parties - honest adversary

Just like Prio+ and contrary to conclave and aby3, smcql is not a framework for developing MPC solutions, but rather an already complete MPC system. Unlike in the case if Prio+ the lack of flexibility that come with this is not problem. As the intended use for smcql perfectly fits our requirements. Smcql ...

5 implementation

6 evaluation

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