

Handout 7 (Privacy)

The first motor car was invented around 1886. For ten years, until 1896, the law in the UK (and elsewhere) required a person to walk in front of any moving car waving a red flag. Cars were such a novelty that most people did not know what to make of them. The person with the red flag was intended to warn the public, for example horse owners, about the impending novelty—a car. In my humble opinion, we are at the same stage of development with privacy. Nobody really knows what it is about or what it is good for. All seems very hazy. There are a few laws (e.g. cookie law, right-to-be-forgotten law) which address problems with privacy, but even if they are well intentioned, they either back-fire or are already obsolete because of newer technologies. The result is that the world of “privacy” looks a little bit like the old Wild West—lawless and mythical.

We would have hoped that after Snowden, Western governments would be a bit more sensitive and enlightened about the topic of privacy, but this is far from the truth. Ross Anderson wrote the following in his blog about the approach taken in the US to lessons learned from the Snowden leaks and contrasts this with the new snooping bill that is considered in the UK parliament:

“The comparison with the USA is stark. There, all three branches of government realised they’d gone too far after Snowden. President Obama set up the NSA review group, and implemented most of its recommendations by executive order; the judiciary made changes to the procedures of the FISA Court; and Congress failed to renew the data retention provisions in the Patriot Act (aided by the judiciary). Yet here in Britain the response is just to take Henry VIII powers to legalise all the illegal things that GCHQ had been up to, and hope that the European courts won’t strike the law down yet again.”

Unfortunately, also big organisations besides governments seem to take an un-enlightened approach to privacy. For example, UCAS, a charity set up to help students with applying to universities in the UK, has a commercial unit that happily sells your email addresses to anybody who forks out enough money for bombarding you with spam. Yes, you can opt out very often from such “schemes”, but in case of UCAS any opt-out will limit also legit emails you might actually be interested in.¹

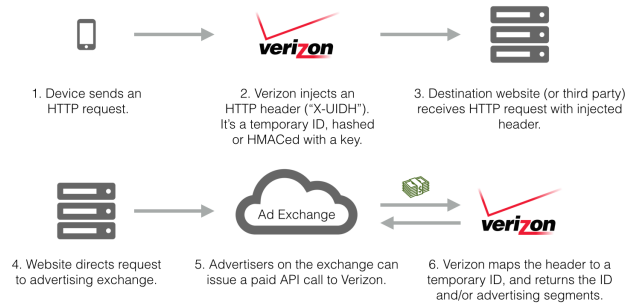
Another example: Verizon, an ISP who is supposed to provide you just with connectivity, has found a “nice” side-business too: When you have enabled all

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¹The main objectionable point, in my opinion, is that the *charity* everybody has to use for HE applications has actually very honourable goals (e.g. assist applicants in gaining access to universities), but the small print (or better the link “About us”) reveals they set up their organisation so that they can also shamelessly sell the email addresses they “harvest”. Everything is of course very legal...ethical?...well that is in the eye of the beholder. See:

<http://www.ucas.com/about-us/inside-ucas/advertising-opportunities> or <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2014/mar/12/ucas-sells-marketing-access-student-data-advertisers>

privacy guards in your browser (the few you have at your disposal), Verizon happily adds a kind of cookie to your HTTP-requests.² As shown in the picture below, this cookie will be sent to every web-site you visit. The web-sites then can forward the cookie to advertisers who in turn pay Verizon to tell them everything they want to know about the person who just made this request, that is you.



How disgusting! Even worse, Verizon is not known for being the cheapest ISP on the planet (completely the contrary), and also not known for providing the fastest possible speeds, but rather for being among the few ISPs in the US with a quasi-monopolistic “market distribution”.

Well, we could go on and on...and that has not even started us yet with all the naughty things NSA & Friends are up to. Why does privacy actually matter? Nobody, I think, has a conclusive answer to this question yet. Maybe the following four notions help with clarifying the overall picture somewhat:

- **Secrecy** is the mechanism used to limit the number of principals with access to information (e.g., cryptography or access controls). For example I better keep my password secret, otherwise people from the wrong side of the law might impersonate me.
- **Confidentiality** is the obligation to protect the secrets of other people or organisations (secrecy for the benefit of an organisation). For example as a staff member at King’s I have access to data, even private data, I am allowed to use in my work but not allowed to disclose to anyone else.
- **Anonymity** is the ability to leave no evidence of an activity (e.g., sharing a secret). This is not equal with privacy – anonymity is required in many circumstances, for example for whistle-blowers, voting, exam marking and so on.
- **Privacy** is the ability or right to protect your personal secrets (secrecy for the benefit of an individual). For example, in a job interview, I might not like to disclose that I am pregnant, if I were a woman, or that I am a

²<http://webpolicy.org/2014/10/24/how-verizons-advertising-header-works/>

father. Lest they might not hire me. Similarly, I might not like to disclose my location data, because thieves might break into my house if they know I am away at work. Privacy is essentially everything which “shouldn’t be anybody’s business”.

While this might provide us with some rough definitions, the problem with privacy is that it is an extremely fine line what should stay private and what should not. For example, since I am working in academia, I am every so often very happy to be a digital exhibitionist: I am very happy to disclose all ‘trivia’ related to my work on my personal web-page. This is a kind of bragging that is normal in academia (at least in the field of CS), even expected if you look for a job. I am even happy that Google maintains a profile about all my academic papers and their citations.

On the other hand I would be very irritated if anybody I do not know had a too close look on my private life—it shouldn’t be anybody’s business. The reason is that knowledge about my private life can often be used against me. As mentioned above, public location data might mean I get robbed. If supermarkets build a profile of my shopping habits, they will use it to *their* advantage—surely not to *my* advantage. Also whatever might be collected about my life will always be an incomplete, or even misleading, picture. For example I am pretty sure my creditworthiness score was temporarily(?) destroyed by not having a regular income in this country (before coming to King’s I worked in Munich for five years). To correct such incomplete or flawed credit history data there is, since recently, a law that allows you to check what information is held about you for determining your creditworthiness. But this concerns only a very small part of the data that is held about me/you. Also what about cases where data is wrong or outdated (but do we need a right-to be forgotten).

To see how private matter can lead really to the wrong conclusions, take the example of Stephen Hawking: When he was diagnosed with his disease, he was given a life expectancy of two years. If employers would know about such problems, would they have employed Hawking? Now, he is enjoying his 70+ birthday. Clearly personal medical data needs to stay private.

To cut a long story short, I let you ponder about the two statements which are often voiced in discussions about privacy:

- *“You have zero privacy anyway. Get over it.”*
(by Scott Mcnealy, former CEO of Sun)
- *“If you have nothing to hide, you have nothing to fear.”*

If you like to watch a movie which has this topic as its main focus I recommend *Gattaca* from 1997.³ If you want to read up on this topic, I can recommend the following article that appeared in 2011 in the Chronicle of Higher Education:

<http://chronicle.com/article/Why-Privacy-Matters-Even-if/127461/>

³<http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0119177/>

Funnily, or maybe not so funnily, the author of this article carefully tries to construct an argument that does not only attack the nothing-to-hide statement in cases where governments & co collect people's deepest secrets, or pictures of people's naked bodies, but an argument that applies also in cases where governments "only" collect data relevant to, say, preventing terrorism. The fun is of course that in 2011 we could just not imagine that respected governments would do such infantile things as intercepting people's nude photos. Well, since Snowden we know some people at the NSA did exactly that and then shared such photos among colleagues as "fringe benefit".

Re-Identification Attacks

Apart from philosophical musings, there are fortunately also some real technical problems with privacy. The problem I want to focus on in this handout is how to safely disclose datasets containing potentially very private data, say health records. What can go wrong with such disclosures can be illustrated with four well-known examples:

- In 2006, a then young company called Netflix offered a 1 Mio \$ prize to anybody who could improve their movie rating algorithm. For this they disclosed a dataset containing 10% of all Netflix users at the time (appr. 500K). They removed names, but included numerical ratings of movies as well as times when ratings were uploaded. Though some information was perturbed (i.e., slightly modified).

Two researchers had a closer look at this anonymised data and compared it with public data available from the International Movie Database (IMDb). They found that 98% of the entries could be re-identified in the Netflix dataset: either by their ratings or by the dates the ratings were uploaded. The result was a class-action suit against Netflix, which was only recently resolved involving a lot of money.

- In the 1990ies, medical datasets were often made public for research purposes. This was done in anonymised form with names removed, but birth dates, gender and ZIP-code were retained. In one case where such data about hospital visits of state employees in Massachusetts was made public, the then governor assured the public that the released dataset protected patient privacy by deleting identifiers.

A graduate student could not resist cross-referencing public voter data with the released data that still included birth dates, gender and ZIP-code. The result was that she could send the governor his own hospital record. It turns out that birth dates, gender and ZIP-code uniquely identify 87% of people in the US. This work resulted in a number of laws prescribing which private data cannot be released in such datasets.

- In 2006, AOL published 20 million Web search queries collected from 650,000 users (names had been deleted). This was again done for research

purposes. However, within days an old lady, Thelma Arnold, from Lilburn, Georgia, (11,596 inhabitants) was identified as user No. 4417749 in this dataset. It turned out that search engine queries are deep windows into people's private lives.

- Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) was a public database of gene-frequency studies linked to diseases. It would essentially record that people who have a disease, say diabetes, have also certain genes. In order to maintain privacy, the dataset would only include aggregate information. In case of DNA data this aggregation was achieved by mixing the DNA of many individuals (having a disease) into a single solution. Then this mixture was sequenced and included in the dataset. The idea was that the aggregate information would still be helpful to researchers, but would protect the DNA data of individuals.

In 2007 a forensic computer scientist showed that individuals can still be identified. For this he used the DNA data from a comparison group (people from the general public) and "subtracted" this data from the published data. He was left with data that included all "special" DNA-markers of the individuals present in the original mixture. He essentially deleted the "background noise" in the published data. The problem with DNA data is that it is of such a high resolution that even if the mixture contained maybe 100 individuals, you can with current technology detect whether an individual was included in the mixture or not.

This result changed completely how DNA data is nowadays published for research purposes. After the success of the human-genome project with a very open culture of exchanging data, it became much more difficult to anonymise data so that patient's privacy is preserved. The public GWAS database was taken offline in 2008.

There are many lessons that can be learned from these examples. One is that when making datasets public in anonymised form, you want to achieve *forward privacy*. This means, no matter what other data that is also available or will be released later, the data in the original dataset does not compromise an individual's privacy. This principle was violated by the availability of "outside data" in the Netflix and governor of Massachusetts cases. The additional data permitted a re-identification of individuals in the dataset. In case of GWAS a new technique of re-identification compromised the privacy of people in the dataset. The case of the AOL dataset shows clearly how incomplete such data can be: Although the queries uniquely identified the older lady, she also looked up diseases that her friends had, which had nothing to do with her. Any rational analysis of her query data must therefore have concluded, the lady is on her death bed, while she was actually very much alive and kicking.

In 2016, Yahoo released the so far largest machine learning dataset to the research community. It includes approximately 13.5 TByte of data representing around 100 Billion events from anonymized user-news items, collected by recording interactions of about 20M users from February 2015 to May 2015.

Yahoo's gracious goal is to promote independent research in the fields of large-scale machine learning and recommender systems. It remains to be seen whether this data will really only be used for that purpose.

Differential Privacy

Differential privacy is one of the few methods that tries to achieve forward privacy. The basic idea is to add appropriate noise, or errors, to any query of the dataset. The intention is to make the result of a query insensitive to individual entries in the database. That means the results are approximately the same no matter if a particular individual is in the dataset or not. The hope is that the added error does not eliminate the "signal" one is looking for in the dataset.

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Further Reading

Two cool articles about how somebody obtained via the Freedom of Information Law the taxicab dataset of New York and someone else showed how easy it is to mine for private information:

http://chriswhong.com/open-data/foil_nyc_taxi/

<http://research.neustar.biz/2014/09/15/>

[riding-with-the-stars-passenger-privacy-in-the-nyc-taxicab-dataset](http://research.neustar.biz/2014/09/15/riding-with-the-stars-passenger-privacy-in-the-nyc-taxicab-dataset)

A readable article about how supermarkets mine your shopping habits (especially how they prey on new exhausted parents ;o) appeared in 2012 in the New York Times:

<http://www.nytimes.com/2012/02/19/magazine/shopping-habits.html>

An article that analyses privacy and shopping habits from a more economic point of view is available from:

<http://www.dtc.umn.edu/~odlyzko/doc/privacy.economics.pdf>

An attempt to untangle the web of current technology for spying on consumers is published in:

[http://cyberlaw.stanford.edu/files/publication/files/
trackingsurvey12.pdf](http://cyberlaw.stanford.edu/files/publication/files/trackingsurvey12.pdf)

An article that sheds light on the paradox that people usually worry about privacy invasions of little significance, and overlook the privacy invasion that might cause significant damage:

[http://www.heinz.cmu.edu/~acquisti/papers/
Acquisti-Grossklags-Chapter-Etrics.pdf](http://www.heinz.cmu.edu/~acquisti/papers/Acquisti-Grossklags-Chapter-Etrics.pdf)