Ethics in Data Science (Part 2, Disclosure)

Daniel Lawson — University of Bristol

Lecture 12.1.2 (v1.0.1)

Signposting

- ▶ Part 1 covers ethics and the law,
- ► This is part 2 covering Privacy and disclosure,
- ▶ Part 3 covers Fairness and interpretability.

Protecting Privacy: Anonymity

- It is not enough to anonymise data by removing identifiers. It may be de-anonymised.
- For example: the Netflix competition was partially de-anonymised by comparing to public datasets, IMDB ratings, etc., resulting in a lawsuit. Narayanan and Shmatikov 2008
- Formally: quasi-identifiers are statistically valuable information that can be combined with additional data to produce identifiers.

Statistical disclosure attacks

- Statistical disclosure describes how legitimate access to a database can be used to extract confidential information regarding identity, attributes, or membership.
- It works by:
 - Assuming that users can query statistical, anonymised properties,
 - Making repeated queries, specific information can be extracted using the intersection of answers,
 - Disclosure attacks are therefore a form of elevation of access rights: obtaining access that was not intended to be given.

Example of statistical disclosure attacks

- By knowing specific details, or observing large-scale results, additional information can be extracted about identifiers.
 - attribute disclosure: e.g. If we know when Mr R moved out of an area, we can obtain his salary by querying the average salary in the region before and after he moved.
 - identity disclosure: e.g. By making a large number of queries containing different attribute ranges, we can associate each identifier with a particular attribute value.
 - membership disclosure: e.g. Similarly, we might obtain information about whether an identifier is in a particular group such as "HIV patient".

Protecting against statistical disclosure

► The main lines of defense are:

- Limiting the volume of queries, i.e. not permitting more than M queries per actor.
- Limiting the detail of queries, i.e. ensuring that all values are shared by at least k entries (Formally: k-anonymity).
- Limiting the accuracy of queries, i.e. adding noise to reported answers.

Quantifying vulnerability to statistical disclosure attacks

- There is a robust theory called differential privacy¹ which formalises the vulnerability of a dataset/release mechanism to disclosure:
 - A dataset allows querying a summary statistic, A.
 - Adversary proposes two datasets S and S' that differ by only one row or example, and a test set Q.
- A is called ϵ -differentially private iff:

$$\left|\log \frac{\Pr(A(S) \in Q)}{\Pr(A(S') \in Q)}\right| \le \epsilon,$$

▶ i.e. the change in log-probability is bounded.

• A is called (ϵ, δ) -differentially private iff:

 $\Pr(A(S) \in Q) \le \exp(\epsilon) \Pr(A(S') \in Q) + \delta,$

• where δ is typically smaller than any polynomial.

• i.e. $\delta = 0$ leads to ϵ -differential privacy.

¹The Algorithmic Foundations of Differential Privacy by Dwork and Roth (2014).

Continuous outcomes: the Laplace mechanism

- Continuous outcomes are particularly tricky because the answer can reveal location via the scale of the noise.
- To address this, heavy tailed distributions are favoured, to place finite weight on "all" values.
- i.e. Instead of reporting f(x) we report:

 $\mathcal{M}_L(x, f(\cdot), \epsilon) = f(x) + \Delta$

- Where $\Delta \sim \operatorname{Lap}(x|b) = (1/2b) \exp(-|x|/b)$,
- ► $b = \Delta f / \epsilon$ is chosen in terms of the desired sensitivity $\Delta f = \max_{x,y:|x-y|=1} |f(x) - f(y)|.$

This is analogous to a standard deviation for the L-1 norm.

i.e. we add noise scaled to the output at the scale of variation, but which can induce any value with non-vanishing probability.

Beyond simple differential privacy

- Privacy means maintaining plausible deniability so that any outcome could have happened, for any specific case.
 - However, protecting from disclosure attacks using audit is provably not possible in general.
- Correlated (worst case, repeated) queries raise particular problems:
 - It is possible to "learn" the noise, average it out, and obtain the true value.
- Audit of queries is clearly essential to prevent these and other attacks.
- A partial solution is to consider creating correlated noise in the response,

So if you ask a similar question, you get similar noise.

- ▶ But what if the individual exists in *k* different databases?
 - It turns out that we can still describe ε-privacy in this case, though our controls are more limited.
 - We essentially have to allow for k independent noise observations.

Example: Randomized response

Consider the question, "Have you taken drugs this week?"

- We want to know population-level answers without revealing whether anyone specifically answered "yes".
- ► We apply the following algorithm:
 - 1. Flip a coin.
 - 2. If tails, respond truthfully.
 - 3. If heads, flip a second coin and respond "Yes" on heads, and "No" on tails.
- ▶ This protocol is $(\ln 3, 0)$ -differentially private (see Worksheet).
 - Intuition: We compute the odds ratio of the truth, given the answer.
 - If someone is reported to have said "Yes", there is a 3:1 odds that they really did take drugs this week.

Practice for sharing anonymised data

- ► The ONS suggest that:
- The question to ask is could an intruder discover any protected information from (provided information)? This breaks down into the following three questions:
 - 1. Can any individual be identified from the table, with any degree of certainty?
 - 2. If so, is any **new information revealed** about them (attribute disclosure)?
 - 3. Is any information revealed about any **other living person** connected with them?
- Common SDC techniques include:
 - collapsing categories to reduce the sparsity of the table (for example, aggregating single year ages to five-year groups, or five-year age groups to 10-year groups) (non-perturbative)
 - aggregating the data over a greater period of time, or a larger geographical area (non-perturbative)
 - rounding to a specific base to avoid very small numbers (usually three or five) (perturbative)
 - suppressing very small numbers (usually numbers less than three) (perturbative)

Discussion

- Each form of anonymisation implies a slightly different question, changing the baseline.
- This sort of privacy protection msut be considered alongside the usual forms of data security.
- The consequences of a data reveal are complex and contingent:
 - It may stop at learning that a single actor has an uninteresting value of a feature.
 - It may instead set of a cascade of consequential knowledge leading to a complete reveal of the whole database.
 - Typically, outside information is involved in the worst such problems.
- ► High profile failures include:
 - Linking voter registration to "anonymised" medical data Sweeney 1997,
 - Linking "anonymised" Netflix data back to individuals Narayanan and Shmatikov 2008.

Reflection

- What is the difference between "anonymising" data and protecting privacy?
- What role does cyber security, statistics, and other measures have in protecting privacy?
- What are the main approaches to protecting privacy?
- What impact does protecting privacy have on the utility of databases?
- By the end of the course, you should:
 - Be able to define ϵ and (ϵ, δ) -privacy,
 - Be able to state the methods by which privacy is protected,
 - Understand the value and limitations of the approach at a high level.

Signposting

Still to come:

12.1.3 Ensuring algorithms are fair and interpretable.

References:

The Algorithmic Foundations of Differential Privacy by Dwork and Roth (2014).

ONS policy on disclosure control.

- Sweeney 1997. Weaving technology and policy together to maintain confi-dentiality. Journal of Law, Medicines Ethics, 25:98–110.
- Narayanan and Shmatikov 2008. Robust de-anonymization of largesparse datasets (how to break anonymity of the netflix prize dataset). IEEE Sec. and Priv.
- Statistical Disclosure Attacks by George Danezis.