Securing e-voting systems

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This Lecture

Introduction to e-voting



3 Homomorphic encryption



5 Zero-knowledge proof of knowledge



6 Some e-voting systems

- Helios voting sytem
- EVA

Introduction to e-voting

E-voting systems

Electronic voting (also known as **e-voting**) is voting using electronic systems to aid casting and counting votes.

We can identify two types:

- electronic voting machines located at polling stations (including direct-recording electronic voting systems, or **DRE**)
- remote voting, also called **Internet voting**.

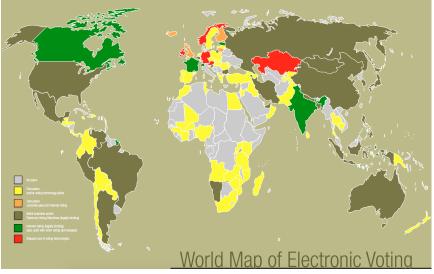


Countries using Internet voting (I)

Some countries using Internet voting are:

- France: for citizens living abroad.
- Norway: pilots in 2011 and 2013 for local and national elections. Discontinued.
- Estonia: for municipal and parliamentary elections since 2005.
- Switzerland: in several cantons.
- Australia (New South Wales, Victoria)
- Canada: municipal and provincial elections.

Countries using Internet voting (II)



Source: e-voting.cc

Supporters and opponents arguments

- ☺:
 - Reducing costs of conducting an election or referendum
 - Delivering election results reliably and more quickly
 - Providing additional voting channels to increase voter turnout
 - Increasing the number of elections more easily
 - Improving access to the voting process to people with disabilities
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: ©

- Risk of (large-scale) manipulation by (small group of) insiders
- More difficult to detect and identify the source of errors and technical malfunctions than with conventional procedures
- Need for additional voter education campaigns
- Risk of (loosing) public trust in the election/referendum process

- Individual verifiability: the voter should be able to verify that
 - ★ cast as intended
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- Fairness: no partial results should be known before the election is closed.
- Availability, accessibility, etc.

Hand raising processes for voting are fully verifiable but...



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Usually the voting process produces an audit trail (electronic, of paper, or both) for verifiability.

There is a **compromise between correctness and privacy** that needs to be made in the vast majority of the verifiable voting schemes.

Introduction to e-voting

E-voting uses public-key cryptography:

- public key: used by voters to encrypt their vote.
- private key: generated by the election authority and necessary to decrypt the encrypted votes and compute the final tally.

Many different encryption algorithms can be used, but the most common one is ElGamal.

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Problem: we don't want the whole privacy of the votes to rely on one single election authority!

Idea: Distribute the key to a group of people, such that nobody by himself knows it.



Secret sharing

(k, n)-Secret sharing schemes

Also known as (k, n)-threshold schemes.

A dealer shares a secret key between \boldsymbol{n} parties in such a way that

- Each party $i \in \{1, \dots n\}$ receives a share.
- A group of any k participants can cooperate to reconstruct the secret from their shares.
- No group of less than k participants can get **any** information about the secret.

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Example:

The president of a company has 3 shares, the prime minister has 2 shares, and other ministers have 1 share each. Then, by using a (3, n)-secret sharing scheme the secret key will be recovered by either of these group of people:

- the president
- the prime minister and another minister
- any three ministers

(2,2)-Secret sharing schemes

Let s be a secret from a group (G, +). Dealer chooses at random $s_1 \xleftarrow{R} G$ and lets $s_2 = s - s_1$.

The two shares are s_1 and s_2 .

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Then,

- Given s_1 and s_2 one can succesfully recover the secret $s = s_1 + s_2$.
- Given only s_1 (or only s_2), the other share is random.

Shamir's (k, n)-threshold scheme (I)

Dealing phase

Let s be a secret from some \mathbb{Z}_p , with p prime.

The dealer selects a random polynomial of degree k-1

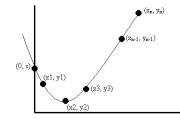
$$f(x) = f_0 + f_1 x + f_x x^2 + \dots + f_{k-1} x^{k-1}$$

where

• coefficients f_1, \ldots, f_{k-1} are selected at random from \mathbb{Z}_p

• $f_0 = s$

For $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$, the dealer distributes the share $s_i = (i, f(i))$ to party i.



Shamir's (k, n)-threshold scheme (II)

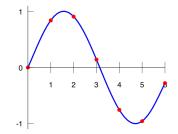
Reconstruction phase

The secret s can be reconstructed from every subset of k shares. By the Lagrange formula, given k points (x_i, y_i) , with $i = 1, \ldots, k$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_i \prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^{k} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} \pmod{p}$$

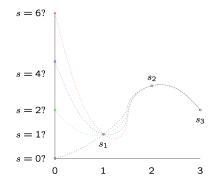
and thus

$$s = f(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_i \prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^{k} \frac{-x_j}{x_i - x_j} \pmod{p}.$$



Shamir's scheme: security

Given less than k shares, the secret s (point $\left(0,s\right)$ at the graph) can have any value.



Shamir's scheme: flexibility

- We can increase n and add new shares without affecting other shares.
- Existing shares can be removed without affecting other shares (the share needs to be really destroyed).
- It is possible to replace all the shares (or just k shares) without changing the secret by selecting a new polynomial $\hat{f}(x)$ and a new set of shares (proactive security).
- There exist a distributed version of Shamir's scheme that avoids having a dealer.

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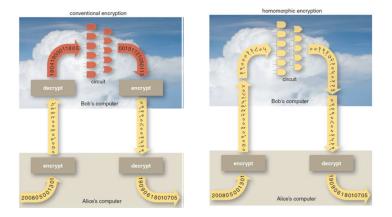
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We have to decrypt every ciphertext **one by one** before counting, can we do better?

Homomorphic encryption

What is homomorphic encryption?



Homomorphic encryption allows computing on data while it is encrypted rather than having to decrypt it first.

Refreshing ElGamal cryptosystem

Gen: Select a subgroup $G \subset \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q, and a generator g of G. Choose $a \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_q$.

- Private key: a
- Public key: $y = g^a$

Enc: To encrypt a message $m \in G$, we choose $b \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_q$. The ciphertext is then

$$(c,d) = (g^b, m \cdot y^b).$$

Dec: To decrypt the ciphertext (c, d), compute

$$m = \frac{d}{(c)^a}.$$

Multiplicative homomorphism

ElGamal encryption has a multiplicative homomorphic property.

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> encryption of m_1 $(c_1, d_1) = (g^{b_1}, m_1 \cdot y^{b_1}),$ encryption of m_2 $(c_2, d_2) = (g^{b_2}, m_2 \cdot y^{b_2}).$

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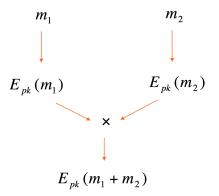
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Multiplying these two ciphertexts we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} (c_1 \cdot c_2, d_1 \cdot d_2) = & (g^{b_1} \cdot g^{b_2}, m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot y^{b_1} \cdot y^{b_2}) \\ = & (g^{b_1 + b_2}, m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot y^{b_1 + b_2}) \end{aligned} \quad \text{encryption of } m_1 \cdot m_2 \end{aligned}$$

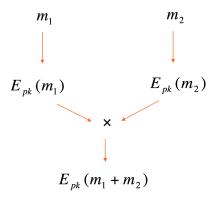
Additive Homomorphism

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Solution: modify ElGamal. Put the plaintext in the exponent.

Exponential ElGamal

Instead of encrypting a message $m \in G$, we encrypt a message $g^m \in G$, where g is a generator in G.

Consider two encryptions

encryption of
$$g^{m_1}$$
 $(c_1, d_1) = (g^{b_1}, g^{m_1} \cdot y^{b_1}),$
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encryption of $g^{m_1 + m_2}$

If $m_1 + m_2$ are not too big, it is possible to efficiently solve the discrete logarithm of $g^{m_1+m_2}$ and thus obtain $m_1 + m_2$.

Homomorphic encryption and e-voting (I)

Example

Let y be the public key of an election.

We assume that each vote is a yes (\checkmark) or no for each candidate, encoded by 1 and 0, respectively.

Suppose Alice, Bob and Oscar are running as candidates in an election. Only 5 people voted in the election, and the results are tabulated below.

	Oscar	Bob	Alice
voter 1			1
voter 2		1	
voter 3		1	
voter 4			1
voter 5	 ✓ 		

Homomorphic encryption and e-voting (II)

Casting a vote

Each voter posts to the bulletin board (BB) the following encrypted ballots:

BB	Oscar	Bob	Alice
voter 1	$(g^{r_{11}}, g^0 y^{r_{11}})$	$(g^{r_{12}},g^0y^{r_{12}})$	$(g^{r_{13}},g^1y^{r_{13}})$
voter 2	$(g^{r_{21}}, g^0 y^{r_{21}})$	$(g^{r_{22}},g^1y^{r_{22}})$	$(g^{r_{23}}, g^0 y^{r_{23}})$
voter 3	$(g^{r_{31}}, g^0 y^{r_{31}})$	$(g^{r_{32}},g^1y^{32})$	$(g^{r_{33}}, g^0 y^{r_{33}})$
voter 4	$(g^{r_{41}}, g^0 y^{r_{41}})$	$(g^{r_{42}},g^0y^{r_{42}})$	$(g^{r_{43}},g^1y^{r_{43}})$
voter 5	$(g^{r_{51}},g^1y^{r_{51}})$	$(g^{r_{52}},g^0y^{r_{52}})$	$(g^{r_{53}},g^0y^{r_{53}})$

Homomorphic encryption and e-voting (III)

Tally of the election

BB	Oscar	Bob	Alice
voter 1	$(g^{r_{11}}, g^0 y^{r_{11}})$	$(g^{r_{12}},g^0y^{r_{12}})$	$(g^{r_{13}},g^1y^{r_{13}})$
voter 2	$(g^{r_{21}}, g^0 y^{r_{21}})$	$(g^{r_{22}},g^1y^{r_{22}})$	$(g^{r_{23}}, g^0 y^{r_{23}})$
voter 3	$(g^{r_{31}}, g^0 y^{r_{31}})$	$(g^{r_{32}},g^1y^{32})$	$(g^{r_{33}}, g^0 y^{r_{33}})$
voter 4	$(g^{r_{41}}, g^0 y^{r_{41}})$	$(g^{r_{42}}, g^0 y^{r_{42}})$	$(g^{r_{43}},g^1y^{r_{43}})$
voter 5	$(g^{r_{51}},g^1y^{r_{51}})$	$(g^{r_{52}},g^0y^{r_{52}})$	$(g^{r_{53}},g^0y^{r_{53}})$

 \downarrow multiplying

$$(g^r,g^1y^r) \mid (g^{r'},g^2y^{r'}) \mid (g^{r''},g^2y^{r''})$$

where $r = r_{11} + r_{21} + \ldots + r_{51}$

$$r' = r_{12} + r_{22} + \ldots + r_{52}$$
$$r'' = r_{13} + r_{23} + \ldots + r_{53}$$

Decrypting using the private key of the election, we obtain g^1 , g^2 , g^2 . These discrete logarithms are easy to compute, but can also be pre-computed before the election (lookup table).

Homomorphic encryption

- The election secret key is shared among a group of election authorities. The public key of the election is derived from the private key.
- Voters encrypt their vote using the public key and post them in the bulletin board.
- **Incrypted votes are multiplied (by candidate).**
- The election authorities join their shares and recover the secret key to decrypt only one ciphertext per candidate and compute the tally.

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What happens if the election authorities decrypt individual ballots instead of the ones resulting from multiplying them?

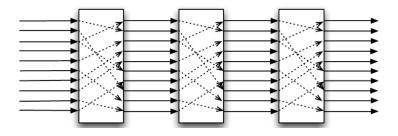
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The order in which data is stored in the bulletin board can be used to link the identity of the voter to the value of the vote, if the order in which voters cast their ballots is also observed.

Mixing

What is a mixnet?



Mixing networks (aka mixnets) are a tool that enables a collection of servers to take as input a collection of ciphertexts and to output the corresponding ciphertexts, re-encrypted and shuffled according to a secret permutation.

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We take an encryption (under the same public key y) of 1 using a random value r',

$$(c_1, d_1) = (g^{r'}, g \cdot y^{r'}).$$

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By multiplying these two ciphertexts

$$(c,d) \cdot (c_1,d_1) = (g^{r+r'}, g^m \cdot y^{r+r'})$$

we obtain an encryption of the same plaintext \boldsymbol{g}^m but using a different randomness.

Mixing

- The election secret key is shared among a group of election authorities. The public key of the election is derived from the private key.
- Oters encrypt their vote using the public key and post them in the bulletin board.
- At the end of the election, the mixnet takes those ciphertexts and re-encrypts and permutes them.
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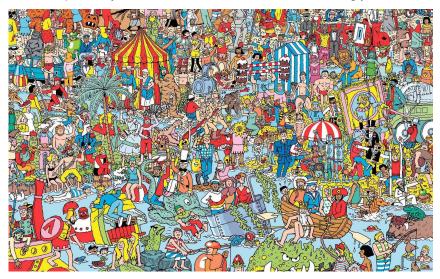
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How can we make sure that everybody (voters, mixnet nodes, election authorities, etc) is following the protocol and not cheating?

Zero-knowledge proof of knowledge

Where is Waldo?

How can I prove to you that I know where Waldo is, without telling you where?



Proofs

In a proof, a Prover wants to convince someone else (a Verifier) about something.

If I know that X is true, and I want to convince you of that, I'll try to present all the facts I know and the inferences from that fact that imply that X is true.

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Example: How can I prove that a number is not prime?

To prove that I know that 38477 is not prime, I will give you its factors, 109 and 353, and show you that indeed $38477 = 109 \cdot 353$.

Zero-knowledge proofs

Typically, a proof yields **some knowledge**, beyond the fact that the statement is true.

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Properties we expect from ZK-POK:

- Completeness: if the statement is true, the verifier should always accept.
- **Soundness**: if the statement is false, the verifier should reject with a high probability.
- **Zero-knowledge**: the verifier should not learn anything beyond the validity of the statement. We say the verifier has *gained knowledge* from the interaction if he can easily compute something that he couldn't efficiently compute before the interaction.

Schnorr suggested the following interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge for the discrete logarithm.

Public parameters: a group G of order q, with generator g, and an element $h \in G$.

Statement the prover wants to prove: I know the discrete logarithm of h with respect to g.

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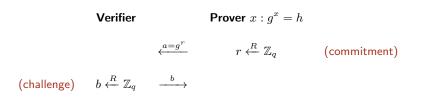
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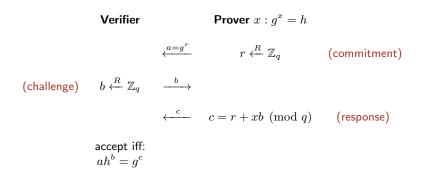
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Schnorr proof is called a **Sigma protocol**. Sigma protocols have some interesting properties:

- can be repeated in parallel
- can be nicely combined to prove I know a witness for x OR/AND for x'.
- can be transformed into non-interactive zero-knowledge proofs.

Sigma Protocols in e-voting

POK from the voter:

- Proves: that the encrypted vote indeed contains one of the valid values (i.e. 0 or 1), without revealing which of them.
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POK by each mixnet node:

- Proves: that the re-encryption and shuffling have been done correctly.
- It doesn't reveal: the randomness used nor the permutation applied to the ciphertexts.

Some e-voting systems

Helios voting sytem

Helios voting system



- Introduced in 2008 by Ben Adida. It is one of the e-voting systems more studied by academics.
- Web application for Internet voting: https://vote.heliosvoting.org
- It is easy to use, open-source, provides end-to-end verifiability.
- It constitutes a tool to support elections for companies, online groups, etc. It is customizable (authentication, look-and-feel, translations).

Election process (I)

System initialization

- The user creates the election by setting the parameters and the list of eligible voters.
- 2 The software generates the ballot, private key, and public key.

Election process (II)

Vote casting

- Every voter receives an e-mail containing her username, password, and the URL of the election.
- 2 The Javascript application starts and downloads the public election parameters.
- **③** The voter fills out the ballot, which is then encrypted by the application.
- ④ A hash of the encrypted vote is shown to the voter (receipt).
- The voter has the option to audit the ballot. In this case the audited ballot cannot be cast, and the voter should start the vote casting process again.
- **o** The voter authenticates herself into the election system.
- The voter ID, password, the encrypted vote and the corresponding ZK-POK are sent to the server.

Election process (III)

Tally and publication of votes

- The Helios server publishes the encrypted votes, hashes and corresponding ZK-POK on the bulletin board (website).
- Provide the election outcome with homomorphic tally (no mixing).

EVA

Internet voting in Norway

Norway used Internet voting in the local elections of 2011 and in the parliamentary elections of 2013.

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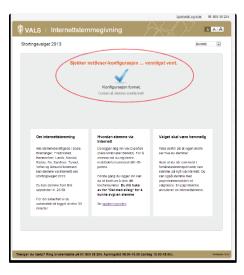
Return codes (cast-as-intended verification)

Return codes are four-digit numbers corresponding to each party running for election, randomly assigned for every voter.

Voting phase (I)



When ready to vote, the voter accesses a Javascript-based voting website from his/her browser.



Voting phase (II)

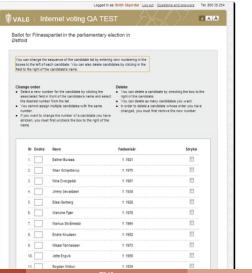
Provide the option of using one of several existing authentication services to confirm their identity (banking, smartcard, or the government MinID issued service).



Voting phase (III)



Intersection of the section of th accepted in the Vote Collection Server (VCS).



Some e-voting systems

Voting phase (IV)

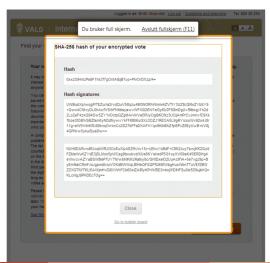
The Vote Collection Server communicates with the Return Code Generator Server, which sends back an SMS text to the voter with the appropriate personalized return code.

The voter then can match that code against his/her list of codes.



Voting phase (V)

6 The voter is presented with a SHA-256 of his/her encrypted vote and signature, that can be used to verify that the vote has been stored as cast in the GitHub repository (stored-as-cast).



Some e-voting systems

Final election phase

This phase includes the Decryption and Counting Ceremony.

Occupies the second second

Input: electoral roll, electronic ballot box. Output: the ballots to be counted, ZK-POK of correct cleansing.

Mixing: cryptographically anonymizes the ballots.

Input: cleansed ballot box. Output: mixed ballot box, ZK-POK of correct shuffling.

E-counting: decrypts and computes the final count.

Input: decryption key, mixed ballot box. Output: electronic vote count, ZK-POK of correct decryption.

Properties of the system

Supplements paper-based voting.

Coercion-resistant

• repeat voting: voters can cast multiple electronic votes, and cancel them by voting on paper.

Individual verifiability:

- cast-as-intended: return-codes
- stored-as-cast: hash of the encrypted vote

Universal verifiability:

- Zero-knowledge proofs proving, for example,
 - correct cleansing of ballots
 - correct mixing of ballots
 - correct decryption of ballots

Distribution of sensitive data

• Secret sharing: 6 out of 9 shares needed to reconstruct the private key.

The decryption and counting ceremony (I)

		a (a far jours på låt Anterne gen frem ABEGAA
		09 Sep 2013 20:03:111 [thread-0] IMFO CLS MONITORING - Processed 10000 voters over total of?
		15119 P2 Sep 2013 20:01:111 [thread.6] INFO CLS MENITORING . Processed 12000 voters over total of
		09 Sep 2013 20:03:46] [http:thread-pool-8000(2)] INFO CLS_MONITORING - End cleansing servic
		otal 577520
		Destructives 1 krd krd 28965985 Sep 7 14:53 backup rcpt 138001,part0
		nextextext 1 glassfish glassfish 10753 Sep 7 15:13 report cls 130001 verl.txt
		nerverwei i glassfish glassfish 2842882 Sep 7 15:13 cts 120001 weil.zip
		ner-sr-x 1 kid krd 176622 Sep 9 18:37 HLCCTON (LIST 11860) ver2.zip
		percenter 1 glassfish glassfish 28158367 Sep 9 19:05 cls 130001 ver2 rig
		NerFr 1 glassfish glassfish 28212905 Sep 9 20:03 cls_130001_prel.zip
2 (py clause hilds to		
1 H K (1)		
	And the second distance of the second distanc	



The decryption and counting ceremony (II)





Conclusion

E-voting is a true reality in several countries.

There is some hope that a secure and practical voting system will exist some day... but there are still things to be improved.

Want to know more? See you at next week's event of Science and Cocktails: *Securing Digital Democracy*, in Christiania.