

Electronic elections – National efforts

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Kjeller - June 25, 2010

Contents

Analysing the cryptographic protocol to be used in Norwegian trials of electronic voting in 2011.

If it's provably secure, it's probably not. - Lars Knudsen

- Proofs are usually relative to some complexity assumption and take the form of a reduction. If a «successful» attacker can be turned into an algorithm doing a computation we believe is impossible, we must believe no such attacker can exist.
 - The resources spent on studying integer factoring is significantly higher than the resources spent on any single protocol.
 - The security proof (reduction) must be correct.

- We usually prove that a certain class of attackers cannot exist.
 This class is usually characterized by a security goal and a threat model (attacker capability). We need to get the class right.
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 - Example I: There was a long debate about the «correct» class of attackers for public key encryption.
 - Example II: The famous Needham-Schroeder protocol was proved secure, but against the wrong class of attackers.
 - It may be impossible to protect against certain classes of attackers.

- 3. Some systems are provably insecure. Some systems are (conditionally) provably secure. Some systems are neither.
 - One may also search for «minimal» easy-to-analyse complexity assumptions necessary to prove a system secure.

Main goal:

Establish a secure electronic election system for parliamentary, municipal and county elections that increases accessibility for all voter groups. [...]

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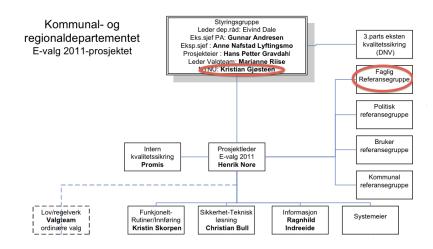
Note

There will only be advance internet voting. There will be no electronic voting on election day.

Note II

The project is also about election administration and counting of paper votes.





Assumption: Trust

We trust the government not to conspire against us.

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But

- We do not trust the individuals in government.
- We do not trust to government to do things right.



— The voter tells his pc what to vote.



— The pc encrypts the vote and submits it to a ballot box.



 After voting is done, the ballot box shuffles ciphertexts and submits them for decryption.



Infrastructure

 A decryption service decrypts the ciphertext, shuffles the results and submits the decrypted ballots for counting.



— The Estonian system is very similar to this sketch.



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Observation

Our cryptographic protocol has one player that is unreliable and severly constrained.



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Observation

Training is not an option.



Our voter finds himself participating in a cryptographic protocol.

- Voters won't even do lightweight crypto.
- Voters are subject to «random faults» and possibly also «fault attacks» (e.g. social engineering).

It must be easy for almost all voters to use the protocol correctly.

Security Requirements

- Privacy A voter's ballot should remain secret (or as secret as possible).
- Integrity The integrity of the entire ballot should be ensured from submission to counting (most voters should be able to verify integrity).
- Buying Votes A vote buyer/stealer should have no method to ensure that votes stay bought/stolen

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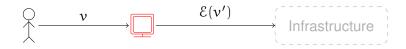
The entire ballot matters.

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Note

Universal verifiability is hard!



 In Estonia, a compromised computer means no privacy or integrity. The computer may also vote undetectably on your behalf.



 Compromised computers were considered by Chaum's Sure Vote (2000) and UK's CESG's e-Voting Security Study (2002).

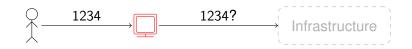






Every personal voting card has a unique table:

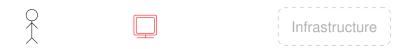
Candidate	Vote Code	Receipt Code
A	1234	5678
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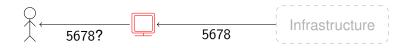
 To vote for Candidate A, the voter gives the vote code 1234 to the computer, which passes it on to the infrastructure.



— Every personal voting card has a unique table:

Candidate	Vote Code	Receipt Code
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 The infrastructure essentially (details vary) has a copy of the voter's table and records a vote for Candidate A.



— Every personal voting card has a unique table:

Candidate	Vote Code	Receipt Code
A	1234	5678
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 The receipt code is sent to the computer, which sends it to the voter, who verifies it.



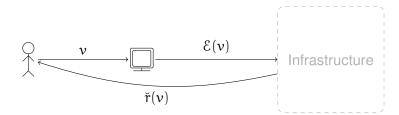
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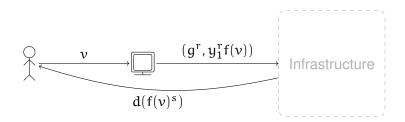
Question: Can these systems be adapted for Norway?



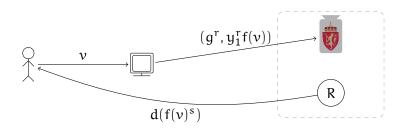
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Question: Can these systems be adapted for Norway? Electronic voting should not change voting patterns.





- f encoding function
- s per-voter exponent, random
- $d G \rightarrow \{\text{receipt code set}\}, \text{ per-voter, pseudo-random}$
- y₁ election encryption key



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Here's a different perspective on ElGamal encryption.

Note

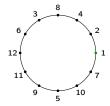
These donuts aren't related to elliptic curve donuts.



We think of a finite cyclic group G as a bunch of elements arranged on a circle such that the group operation corresponds to angle addition.

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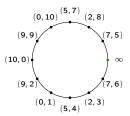
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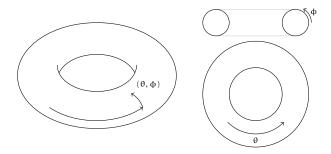
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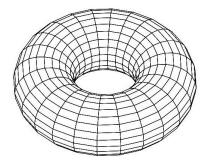
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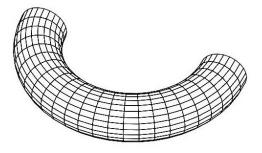
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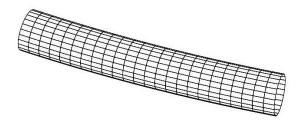
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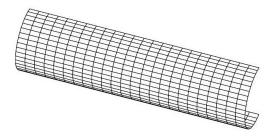


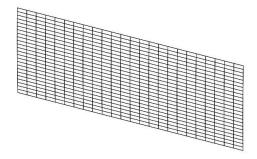
If a group element corresponds to an angle, a pair of group elements corresponds to a point of the surface of a torus.

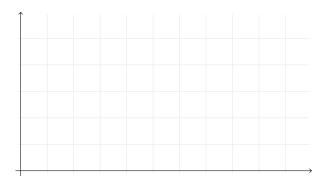




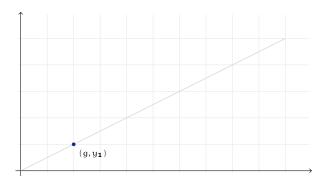




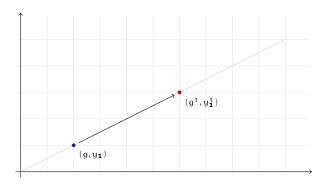




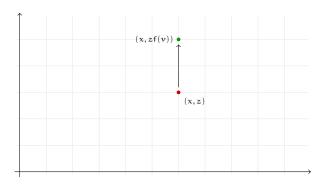
In other words: We think of pairs of group elements as points in an ordinary plane.



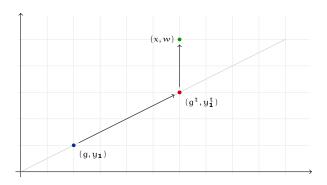
The generator g and the encryption key g_1 describe a point and a line through the origin.



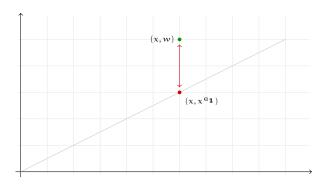
For any integer t, the points (g, y_1) and (g^t, y_1^t) lie on the same line through the origin.



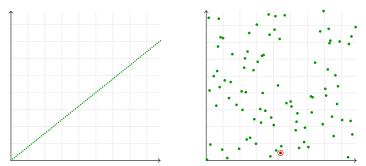
Multiplying $f(\nu)$ into the second coordinate amounts to a vertical shift.



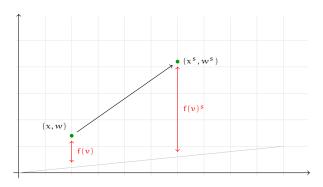
ElGamal encryption: (i) choose a random point on the line defined by the encryption key, and (ii) shift the point vertically by the message.



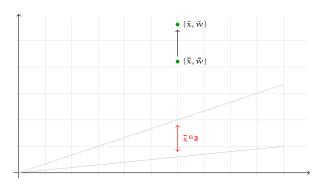
ElGamal decryption: The decryption key is the slope α_1 of the line. With the slope, we can compute the vertical distance between the ciphertext and the line.



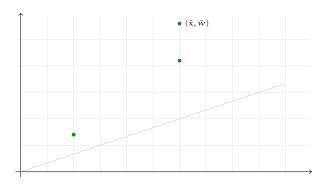
Decision Diffie-Hellman Assumption: Given two points, it is hard to say anything about the vertical distance between the second point and the line defined by the first point, unless you know the slope of the line.



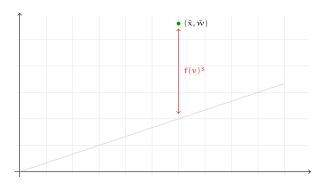
The ballot box knows the per-voter exponent s and computes a new ciphertext $(\bar{x}, \bar{w}) = (x^s, w^s)$.



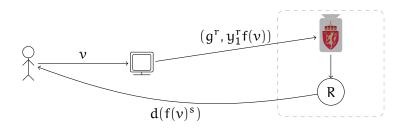
The ballot box knows the *difference* a_2 between two slopes. It uses this to compute a new ciphertext $(\check{x}, \check{w}) = (\bar{x}, \bar{w}\bar{x}^{a_2})$.



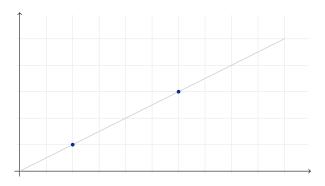
The receipt generator gets all three ciphertexts.



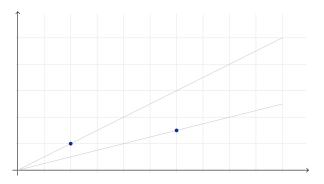
The receipt generator knows the slope of the second line and can decrypt only the final ciphertext.



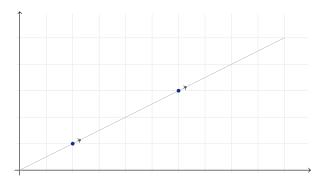
Security: (i) The ballot box sees nothing because of ElGamal, and (ii) the receipt generator sees nothing because $f(\nu)^s$ looks random. Does it?



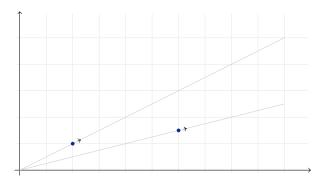
Given two points in the plane, DDH says it is hard to tell if they lie on the same line through the origin.



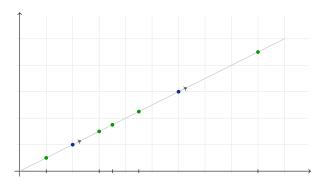
Given two points in the plane, DDH says it is hard to tell if they lie on the same line through the origin, or on different lines.



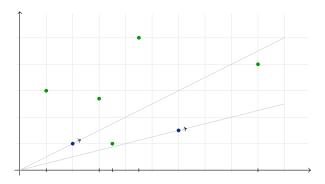
We can make random linear combinations of two points. If the points lie on the same line, the linear combination stays on the line.



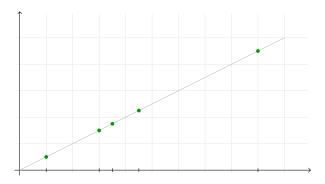
We can make random linear combinations of two points. If the points lie on different lines, the linear combination could end up anywhere.



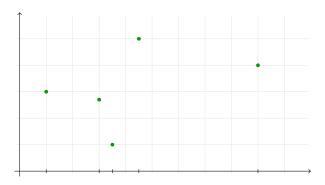
Making many linear combinations, we get either a many colinear points.



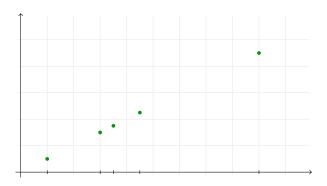
Making many linear combinations, we get either a many colinear points, or many random points.



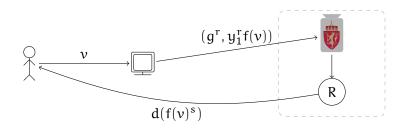
In other words, if $f : \{option \ set\} \to G$ is a random function, we cannot distinguish between $v \mapsto f(v)^s$ and a random function.



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But f will map options to small primes. Does $f(v)^s$ still look random?



Full protocol: (i) Every player proves correctness of everything. (ii) An auditor supervises everything. (iii) A "verifiable shuffle" hides ballots from the auditor.

Threat Model & Security Goal

Security goal:

Ensure privacy of ballots case via honest computers and integrity of any ballot.

Threat model:

- 1. Axiomatic: Attacker controls the network.
- 2. Voters and computers can be corrupt.
- 3. At most one of the infrastructure players can be corrupt.
- 4. If the receipt generator is corrupt, no voters or computers can be corrupt.

Justification of Corruption Model

A The Receipt Generator

B The Ballot Box



Are we done?

Are we done?

No.

Question: Will it work?

Example: Denial-of-service I

If the attacker controls the network, he can target a denial-of-service attack geographically or perhaps even towards households.

Example: Denial-of-service II

Send SMS messages to voters saying that they have just voted.

Example: Implementation Flaw

If the voting software downloads ballot descriptions on-demand, the size of the download may reveal the voter choice. This possibility does not exist in the model the proof uses.

What else is missing from the model?

Example: Social Engineering Attack

The goal is to discard a vote.

A fake web site accepts the vote, then does nothing. A variant asks the voter for the correct receipt codes, then sends them to the voter via SMS (using the voter's Skype account).

In case of attack, do ...