

New cryptographic election protocol with
best-known theoretical properties... and seems
good enough for practical use

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(paper=#89 there; see also the voting+crypto survey paper 80)

There are (now) two practical good-security approaches to running
crypto-secure secret-ballot elections... **BB-homo** methods based on
Bulletin **B**oards and **homo**morphic encryption, and our **new**
method.

| | BB-homo | New scheme |
|---|------------|--------------|
| No double, fake, or invalid votes | ✓ | ✓ |
| Only listed authorized voters vote | ✓ | ✓ |
| Get correct election result | ✓ | ✓ |
| Provides NIZK proofs of above claims | ✓ | ✓ |
| Can prove did/didn't vote | ✓ | |
| “ Coercion-resistant ” | | ✓ |
| Work (# modular expntns) | $O(N + V)$ | $O(N + V)$ |
| Storage (if V votes by N voters) | $O(N)$ | $O(N + V)$ |
| Communctn (above voting+BB downlds) | $O(1)$ | $O(N + V)$ |
| Heavily studied | ✓ | |
| Applicable if votes are... | additive | anonymizable |
| Uses homomorphic encryption/mixnets | Homo.E. | Mixnets |

How BB-homo works (simplified):

0. Prepare list of authorized voters & keys to read their signatures.
1. Voters post signed encrypted vote, & ZK-validity proof, on BB.
2. Except: BB reencrypts vote before posting (provides voter with designated-verifier ZK-proof it validly did so).
3. Votes summed in encrypted form by multiplying encryptions.
4. Decryption key is immaculate shared secret. Sharers cooperatively decrypt total.

Encryption of vote V (g, h, t fixed public random elements in fixed public elliptic curve group of prime $\approx 2^{256}$ order; $t = g^\ell$; ℓ =immaculate shared secret; r =secret variable random integers):

$$V \rightarrow (g^r, h^V t^r)$$

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How JCJ works (simplified):

0. Initially assume have pre-prepared list of authorized voters & their **encrypted credentials**. (No individual knows **en/decryption** transform; each voter's credential is private bitstring.)
1. Collect, mix & encrypt votes. (Votes include timestamps, credentials, & ZK-validity proofs; decryption key is immaculate shared secret but encryption key is public.)
2. By self-comparison of vote-list credentials via **Plaintext Equality Testing (PET)** remove all but **one** of each equivalence-class of identically-credentialed votes. [This **one** could (optionally) be the chronologically last.]
3. Remove timestamps from votes.
4. Re-mix & re-encrypt resulting pruned timestamp-free vote list.
5. Compare votes via PET to (mixed & encrypted) official credential list; remove bogus-credentialed votes. Mix+re-encrypt.
6. Cooperatively-decrypt, post, & then count (plaintext) votes.

Disadvantages of JCJ

1. Quadratic time - **slow!**:

- Self-comparison: $\binom{V}{2}$ comparisons via PET for V votes.
- Comparison of V votes to N -voter credential list: VN PETs.

2. In addition to being slow, the total communication of ZK-proofs that the PETs were done right, is **quadratic** in size. Unacceptable if $V \geq N \geq 10^8$.

3. Anything much slower than $O(V + N)$ permits “denial of service attacks” – submitting many bogus votes effectively cancels election.

Tools/ideas for fix:

1. Can we use *hashing* of credentials to perform self-comparison and official-list comparison tasks in only $O(V + N)$ steps?

2. “Secret encryptions” = no individual knows either the encryption or decryption process. (Some mutually distrustful people *cooperatively* know, but won’t reveal since distrust.)

Development of idea

Yes, the 2 ideas can be made to work. First realized using **Secure General MultiParty Computation (SGMPC)** as “big gun.” But SGMPC=extremely slow; resulting “ $O(V + N)$ ” scheme slower than $O(V^2 + VN)$ quadratic scheme if $V < 10^9$. Impractical!

Next devised *special purpose MPCs* to speed up & simplify computation. Result: total work $\approx 100(V + N)$ exponentiations in an elliptic curve group and total communication $\approx 100(V + N)$ packets (each, say, 1Kbit) taking 30 hours to transmit even over single 1 GHz line if $V + N \approx 10^9$.

Dan Bernstein ECC exponentiation software: $1.4M$ pentium cycles max, so < 0.35 msec at 4GHz. Then 1000 computers (costing $\$10^6 \ll \0.01 per voter) do it in < 10 hours even without special hardware. Now start long *details detour*...

ElGamal public-key Encryption & Decryption

Secret message M . Decryptor **publishes** two fixed random group elements g, h in elliptic curve group of prime order $P \approx 2^{256}$.

Decryptor secretly knows ℓ where $h = g^\ell$. If elliptic curve discrete log problem is hard, infeasible for anybody else to determine ℓ .

Can **encrypt** M as 2-tuple $(g^r, h^r M)$ where r is a random nonzero integer mod P . (Note: because of r , encrypt same M twice \Rightarrow different encryptions.)

Decryption: divide $h^r M$ by $(g^r)^\ell$ to get M .

Reencryption: $(g^r, h^r M) \rightarrow (g^{r+s}, h^{r+s} M)$.

ZK proofs of same exponent ($DL^=$)

Peter Prover: knows two publicly known quantities $x = g^\ell$ and $y = h^\ell$ have *same* discrete logarithms ℓ (to public bases g and h).

Wishes to convince Vera Verifier of this – but without revealing what ℓ is. **Procedure** (Chaum&Pedersen, early 1990s):

1. Peter chooses random r mod P (but keeps it private);
2. Peter computes & prints $a = g^r$ & $b = h^r$;
3. Vera chooses random **challenge** c mod P & tells it to Peter;
4. Peter computes & prints $z = r + \ell c$ mod P ;
5. Vera verifies that $g^z = ax^c$ & $h^z = by^c$.

[And protocol can be made **non-interactive** (**NI**) by Fiat-Shamir hash trick: make challenge

$c = \text{STANDARD-SECURE-HASH}(x, g, y, h, a, b)$, which *Peter* computes & publishes, & Vera merely verifies.]

ZK proofs of: encryption, knowledge of plaintext, and exponentiation validity

1. Using above NIZK $DL^=$ protocol, Peter can convince Vera that he's produced an ElGamal encryption $(g^\ell, h^\ell M)$ of a message M provided by Vera, but without revealing the secret key ℓ (the group elements g and h are public keys). Or he can show that $(g^{r+\ell}, h^{r+\ell} M)$ is an ElGamal reencryption of the original encryption, without revealing r .
2. Peter can prove knowledge of ℓ in the encryption $(g^\ell, h^\ell M)$, thus proving knowledge of the plaintext M , but again without revealing either ℓ or M .
3. Peter can compute X^z and prove he used the same z as for a previous Y^z .

ANDing and ORing (NI)ZK proofs

ZK-prove logical **AND** of two claims: simply present ZK-proofs of both. **Indecomposable** AND of two NIZK proofs involves “challenges” inside it that are constructed from a secure hash function of *both* component proofs. The point: some enemy cannot now surgically excise component NIZK proofs and glue them together with other components to get his own NIZK ANDed proof of something else – well, can, but the resulting proof will not have hashing property and hence obviously produced by surgery by somebody unauthorized, not by original authorized prover.

ZK-prove logical **OR** of two claims [not revealing which]:

$$\text{ZK-proof}_c(A \vee B) \equiv \text{ZK-proof}_d(A) \wedge \text{ZK-proof}_e(B) \wedge \{d \oplus e = c\}$$

where the subscripts c, d, e of the proofs denote the integer “challenges” presented to the prover by the verifier. (Prover can “forge” one proof...)

“Designated verifier” ZK proofs

...A brilliantly simple idea.

To ZK-prove statement X in such a way that only **Bob** will believe your proof:

ZK-prove: “ X **OR** (proof of knowledge of Bob’s secret key).”

Bob: “of course, this person does not know my secret key, so X must be true.”

Alice: “Bob could have told this person his key (actually in typical use ‘this person’ *is* Bob). So I have no reason to believe X .”

Note Bob cannot re-use the proof he is given to convince anybody else of X .

Bitstring “commitments”

Can **commit** n bits of information by publishing an AES-like encryption of a $(n + 2s)$ -bit message consisting of those n bits padded with s one-bits followed by s random bits (s is a security parameter). Can later **reveal** the committed bits by revealing (s -bit) secret encryption/decryption key.

(Other schemes also possible, e.g. commit x by publishing $g^x h^r$ where r random and g, h fixed public random group elements.)

Verifiable Shamir Secret sharing

Dealer who wants to share secret S selects random polynomial

$$F(x) = S + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots + r_{t-1}x^{t-1}$$

of degree $< t$, & privately gives $S_j = F(j)$ to sharer j for $j = 1, 2, \dots, Q$. Here S & the r_k are random integers mod P ...

Verifiable Shamir Secret sharing (continued)

...for some public prime P . Any t sharers can reconstruct $F(x)$ & hence determine S by polynomial interpolation mod P , but $t - 1$ sharers cannot. “Linear.” **Immaculate** shared secrets S can be got by having each sharer generate own random secret, then (acting as dealer) deal it out, & then the sum of all of them is S ...

As described, scheme vulnerable to cheating dealers (who distribute bogus shares & thus do not really reveal their secret) or cheating sharers (who “reveal” bogus shares to learn the secret while honest players do not). “Verifiable” secret-sharing schemes [Gennaro-Rabin², Hirt-PhD] don’t have those weaknesses. They require dealer to commit secret before dealing it out, & commit to all the shares he deals out, & ZK-prove the share-commitments correspond to the committed secret; also require the sharers who decide to reveal their shares, to open the share commitments, thus proving share validity.

Threshold- t multiparty cooperative decryption

Decryption exponent K is constant term $P(0)$ of a degree- $(t - 1)$ polynomial where decryptor j knows $K_j = P(j)$ but nobody individually knows $P(0)$. Then $P(0)$ deducible by Lagrange polynomial interpolation from $\geq t$ values of $P(x)$. Lagrange interp. is weighted sum $K = \sum_j K_j L_j$ (weights $L_j =$ Lagrange interp. coefficients = public integers); can do exponentiation to power K via

$$x^K = x^{\sum_j L_j K_j} = \prod_j (x^{K_j})^{L_j}.$$

Each decryptor j should broadcast NIZK-proofs he really is exponentiating with his correct private exponent K_j . Note K never learned by anyone.

Plaintext equality test (PET)

Let $(\alpha, \beta) = (g^r, M_1 h^r)$ and $(\gamma, \delta) = (g^s, M_2 h^s)$ be two ElGamal ciphertexts (where r and s are random and g, h public group elements). We wish to test whether $M_1 = M_2$ without revealing r, s, M_1, M_2 . Divide: $(\alpha/\gamma, \beta/\delta) = (g^{r-s}, 1h^{r-s})$. Get ElGamal encryption of $1 = M_1/M_2$?

Do cooperative ElGamal decrypt of z th power (z random, immaculate shared secret, $0 < z < P$) of this; note $1^z = 1$ but $M^z \neq 1$. (As usual all parties broadcast ZK proofs they are exponentiating with their correct secret exponents.)

ZK-proofs of ballot validity and interval membership

1. **Yes-no** election: valid vote is encryption of “1” or “0.” Voter could provide an **ORed** ZK-proof that some ElGamal cryptotext $(g^r, h^r k^M)$ encrypts either $M = 1$ *or* $M = 0$, but not revealing which. (We already showed how to do these component proofs.)

2. If votes consist of integers in a range $[0, 2^b - 1]$, i.e. ***b-bit integers***, the voter could simply provide the elementwise product of b ElGamal 2-tuples,

$$(g^r, h^r k^M) = \prod_{j=0}^{b-1} (g^{r_j}, h^{r_j} k^{2^j M_j})$$

where $M = \sum_j 2^j M_j$ & each M_j =one-bit, proved as before.

3. If 55 possible legal votes, then need ZK-proof of membership in the **integer interval** $[0, 54]$.

Correction of common myth about Boudot & interval membership

F.Boudot discussed more general and supposedly **more** efficient (for large b) interval-membership ZK-proofs than this simple procedure, and also allowing other interval sizes than powers of 2. But his “more efficient” procedure actually is “**less** efficient” and “more complicated” than this, because Boudot’s depends on assumption **integer factoring** hard, while we depend on assumption **discrete logarithms in EC groups** hard. So we can use much shorter key lengths to get same security, causing just *one step* in Boudot’s method to take more work than our *entire procedure* – Boudot’s methods having fewer “steps” is irrelevant. However I [[#80](http://math.temple.edu/~wds/homepage/works.html)] pointed out & repaired this error by devising ECC replacements for Boudot’s ZK-proof components.

Mixnets (=several consecutive Mixers)

“Mixer” inputs N encrypted data and outputs same N items, in shuffled order & re-encrypted. Gives ZK-proof he did that, but not revealing shuffling perm or re-encryption transformations.

Mixnet literature complicated and/or flawed. Now outline **simple & good-enough linear-work scheme** [see picture]:

1. Shuffler: $C \leftarrow A \rightarrow B$. (Each letter is N data.)
2. Verifier presents random challenge-seed κ .
3. Shuffler uses κ as pseudo-random seed to generate (in standard, crypto-strong way) 2-coloring of C with $\lfloor N/2 \rfloor$ & $\lceil N/2 \rceil$ elements. Publishes the coloring; reveals re-encryptions used to generate the C 's from corresponding A 's (reveals correspondences) & similarly to generate the B 's that come from C 's.

Cheating shuffler produced m exceptional (unshuffled or wrongly-encrypted) elements? Detection chance $\geq 1 - 2^{-m}$.

Hashes of secret credentials

Suppose σ is voter's secret credential. Given ElGamal encryption $(g^r, h^r \sigma)$ of σ : want to produce a standard $\text{hash}_z(\sigma)$, ZK-prove we did, but not reveal σ to anybody. Later might want to do again but using different hash-key z so that don't get the same hash of the same σ on this 2nd run.

Let $h = g^\ell$ where $\ell, z, \ell z$ are immaculate shared secrets. **Method:**

1. Compute $(g^r)^{\ell z} = h^{r z}$ from the first tuple entry;
2. Compute $(h^r \sigma)^z = h^{r z} \sigma^z$ from the second tuple entry;
3. Divide to get σ^z ; (but nobody knows σ or z)
4. Output first 50% of σ^z 's bits to get deterministic $\text{hash}_z(\sigma)$.

Cooperating sharers can exponentiate to shared-secret exponents without anybody ever learning the shared secrets or σ .

(Broadcasted ZK-proofs of exponentiation validity of course.)

“Coercion resistance” [JCJ]

“We allow adversary to demand coerced voters vote in specified way, abstain from voting, or disclose secret keys. Scheme **coercion-resistant** if it’s infeasible for adversary to determine whether a coerced voter complies with demands.”

Double-edged sword: voter **cannot** prove/disprove he *voted*.

(Immediately **knows** whether his vote appeared on BB, & **can** prove did/didn’t *register*.) Hence: voter can’t be coerced, *but* vulnerable to “EA discards 10% of votes from Black Florida counties.”

However: if each voter submits *many* votes (which is legal), & to *several* mistrustful EAs, & tries again at new EA if vote not posted, that attack less effective.

Votes are “Additive” or “Anonymizable”?

Anonymizable: your vote unlikely to be unique. “Instant runoff voting”: non-additive. Additive \Rightarrow Anonymizable: bit-splitting.

Simple Mixer scheme - Problems & Fixes

Problem: As described, was not truly **zero** knowledge.

Fix: prove each **C** corresponds to *either* of *two* A's.

Problem: Bogus_{*m*} proofs accepted with prob. 2^{-m} .

Fix: Provide *K different* proofs: then 2^{-Km} . Also can do “fractional” proof (faster but less secure): same but $0 < K < 1$.

Usually $K = 0.02$ should be good enough in practice; then very fast.