

Improvements in Everlasting Privacy: Efficient and Secure Zero Knowledge Proofs*

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Abstract. Verifiable electronic voting promises to ensure the correctness of elections even in the presence of a corrupt authority, while providing strong privacy guarantees. However, few practical systems with end-to-end verifiability are expected to offer long term privacy, let alone guarantee it. Since good guarantees of privacy are essential to the democratic process, good guarantees of everlasting privacy must be a major goal of secure online voting systems. Various currently proposed solutions rely on unusual constructions whose security has not been established. Further, the cost of verifying the zero knowledge proofs of other solutions has only been partially analysed. Our work builds upon Moran and Naor’s solution—and its extensions, applications and generalisations—to present a scheme which is additively homomorphic, efficient to verify, and rests upon well studied assumptions.

Keywords: Voting · Everlasting Privacy · Zero Knowledge Proofs.

1 Introduction

Electronic voting schemes have been studied extensively and ongoing research has developed schemes with increasingly strong privacy and integrity guarantees. However, at present the literature has few solutions which are simultaneously efficient, practical, and ensure the ongoing—also called everlasting—privacy of elections. By practical we mean solutions which are easy to deploy securely. Much of the existing literature relies on trusted setup or complicated recovery procedures which reduce the trustworthiness of the election.

Many schemes have sketched how to do elections with everlasting privacy. The constructions tend to use perfectly hiding commitment schemes and public key encryption; this is made verifiable by use of Zero Knowledge Proofs (ZKPs) for correct encryption and correct shuffling of ballots. At present, one of the most common commitment schemes used is not proven secure [17]. A possible method of mixing has been suggested but the security proof is missing [9]. Further, the

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suggested method of mixing is not sufficiently practical. The importance of everlasting privacy has been widely recognised and prior works present constructions with competing efficiency.

We want an electronic voting system with everlasting privacy, which is also efficient to run. We introduce the following mechanisms that will enable us to design such a solution, namely Pedersen commitments [19], Sigma Protocols [8,10] and mix-nets [7]. A Pedersen commitment [19] is an informational-theoretic hiding and computational binding commitment scheme. It provides privacy regardless of the computational power of the adversary but its binding property reduces to the Discrete Logarithm (DLOG) problem. Pedersen commitments are popular in electronic voting schemes because the binding property is only relevant during the course of the election, but privacy should be assured even after the election.

Multiparty computation [25] allows the secure evaluation of a function without leaking anything more about the inputs than can be derived from the result and the inputs previously known to the adversary. ZKPs [14] are a powerful technique which allows proving the correctness of a statement without leaking any other information. The application of both multiparty computation and ZKPs to voting is obvious and commonly mentioned [9,10]. However, the general strategies for both techniques are too computationally intensive in most real elections. Hence there are tailored solutions (such as those we present here) which take advantage of the particularities of elections to construct more efficient solutions.

Sigma Protocols [8,10] are a class of protocols known to be secure under composition. They tend to be more efficient than zero knowledge protocols. A protocol of the correct form is proved to be a Sigma Protocol by showing it satisfies the following properties: *completeness*, capturing that the protocol will succeed when both parties are honest; *special soundness*, referring to the inability of the adversary to generate proofs without knowing a witness; and *honest verifier zero knowledge*, emphasising that the proof leaks negligible information.

Mix-nets were first proposed by Chaum [7], as a way to provide privacy. In the context of verifiable electronic voting mix-nets are also required to be verifiable. This is achieved by proving the correctness of the shuffle using a ZKP, of which two techniques are dominant; namely those of Bayer and Groth [4] and that of Terelius and Wikström [23]. Both techniques are general in nature and tend to be optimised for the particularities of the system in which they are used.

1.1 Related Work

Much of the everlasting privacy literature relies on and builds upon Moran and Naor's work [17], which was modified as an extension to the web-based voting Helios scheme [13]. This kind of extension reduces privacy attacks on the system (from an external adversary) to information theoretic security rather than computational. Hence, no future breakthrough in computation power, mathematics,

or large-scale quantum computers will put the voters' privacy at risk. Unfortunately, the bulk of this work relies on primitives which are somewhat unusual. Since Moran and Naor, a Pedersen commitment variant is often used but its security appears never to have been rigorously established. Indeed, there is much literature which states that Pedersen commitments and Sigma Protocols are generally required to be defined in a prime order group, which this variant is not, meaning its security should be rigorously established [3,6,20]. We denote, in the paper, the combination of Paillier encryption [18] and Pedersen commitments [19], pioneered by Moran and Naor, as the MN encryption scheme.

Arapinis *et al.* [2] recently showed in ProVerif, an automatic cryptographic protocol verifier, that various constructions achieve everlasting privacy, some of these solutions lose verifiability properties in exchange for everlasting privacy but are highly practical in those situations where these verifiability properties are not important. Cuvelier *et al.* [9] systematised much of the research by showing how certain types of primitives can be securely combined. They also present an elegant scheme called PPATC based on Abe *et al.*'s [1] commitment scheme on bilinear pairings, which they show has efficient encryption on the order of 40 times faster than existing methods. The efficiency is due to the elliptic curves which are more secure relative to their size than problems based on factorisation.

However, Cuvelier *et al.* [9] do not account for the verification complexity. We show that Moran-Naor suggestion of Paillier encryption and Pedersen commitments—refereed as PPATP in [9]—is at least as fast to verify as PPATC when using the Sigma Protocol and mix-net we will detail later. Further, the MN system supports homomorphic tallying where PPATC does not which is a significant advantage in some situations. We note that Cuvelier *et al.* [9] do sketch the same Sigma Protocol for correct encryption in their paper that we later present, but provide no proof. We also note that recent work of Hazay *et al.* [16], has made threshold key generation in Paillier practical as with PPATC.

Many of the existing solutions—except Cuvelier *et al.* [9]—are unsatisfactory in one of two ways. They complicate practical issues, by detecting issues after they have occurred rather than using ZKPs initially. Alternatively, they rely on cut-and-choose based ZKPs rather than Sigma proofs, resulting in an increase in computation and communication of about six orders of magnitude.

There are efficient mix-nets for both Paillier ciphertexts and Pedersen commitments (e.g., Moran and Naor highlight Groth's mix-net working for Paillier encryption scheme [15]). However, mixing the commitments and ciphertexts separately significantly complicates the election process and weakens security. Cuvelier *et al.* note that the general construction of Wikström [24] can be applied but do not prove the required Sigma Protocol. Further, this construction is significantly slower than the optimised constructions popular in electronic voting.

1.2 Contributions

- We present the Sigma Protocol for re-encryption of the MN cryptosystem; we also provide the proof for this Sigma Protocol and for the protocol for correct encryption [9] of the MN cryptosystem;

- We provide the first proof of security for the existing modified Pedersen commitment of semi-prime order;

- We present an efficient variant of ballot mixing;

- We give an analysis of verification efficiency of MN cryptosystem and compare with PPATC, showing MN is as fast to verify when using the mix-net and Sigma Protocols from above.

When Moran and Naor first introduced the MN cryptosystem they said “although more efficient (zero knowledge) protocols exist for these applications, for the purpose of this paper we concentrate on simplicity and ease of understanding” [17]. Unfortunately in the decade since the follow up work has continued to rely on cut-and-choose [5,13]; and, has found updating the existing zero knowledge work to the requirements of the MN cryptosystem more difficult than Moran and Naor expected. Our contribution finally closes this gap by providing efficient proofs for encryption, re-encryption and shuffling.

1.3 Road Map

In the next section, we provide the notations and definitions useful for the comprehension of the paper. In Section 3, we present our security proof for the modified Pedersen commitment scheme [17]. In Section 4, we describe our new Sigma Protocol for re-encryption, and give the security proofs for the latter as well for the Sigma Protocol for encryption [9]. In Section 5, we depict our verifiable mix-net, improving the efficiency of the general construction proposed in [24]. In Section 6, we analyse and compare the efficiency of our solution with the similar work of Couvêlier *et al.* [9]. We conclude our paper in the last section.

2 Preliminaries and Building Blocks

Due to lack of space, we let the readers refer to [14] for zero knowledge notions, and specifically to [10] for Sigma Protocols, and to [7] for mix-nets.

Notations Natural numbers are denoted by \mathbb{N} and integers by \mathbb{Z} . The ring of integers modulo n is denoted \mathbb{Z}_n , and its multiplicative group \mathbb{Z}_n^* . Let M denote a square matrix of order N from $\mathbb{Z}_n^{N \times N}$. Let \mathbf{v} be a vector of length N from \mathbb{Z}_n^N . Let $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}' \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N v_i v'_i$ denote the inner product. Given a finite set S , $s \leftarrow_r S$ means a uniformly random assignment of an element in S to the variable s . A Polynomial-Time Algorithm (PPT) is a probabilistic algorithm running in

time polynomial in its input size. A relationship $\mathcal{R}_*(\circ)(\diamond)$ is a subset of the Cartesian product of the sets \circ and \diamond . We denote by $\mathcal{R}_1 \vee \mathcal{R}_2$ the relationship consisting of the pairs $((x_1, x_2), w)$ s.t. $(x_1, w) \in \mathcal{R}_1$ or $(x_2, w) \in \mathcal{R}_2$. Let $\mathcal{R}_1 \wedge \mathcal{R}_2$ be the relationship consisting of the pairs $((x_1, x_2), w)$ s.t. $(x_1, w) \in \mathcal{R}_1$ and $(x_2, w) \in \mathcal{R}_2$.

Discrete Logarithm Assumption Given primes p, q and $n = pq$, where $kn+1$ is also prime, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Let \mathbb{G}_n denote the group of order $n \bmod \mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^*$ and let $\mathbb{G}_p, \mathbb{G}_q$ denote the groups of order p and q respectively $\bmod \mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^*$. \mathbb{G}_p and \mathbb{G}_q are called *Schnorr groups*. The Discrete Logarithm (DLOG) assumption is believed to hold for the set of Schnorr groups.

Commitment Scheme

Definition 1. A homomorphic commitment scheme Π is a triple of PPT algorithms $(\Pi.\text{Setup}, \Pi.\text{Com}, \Pi.\text{Open})$, s.t.:

- The Setup algorithm for a given group \mathbb{G} defines a set of valid Commit Keys CK from which one is uniformly selected: $CK \in \mathcal{CK} \leftarrow_r \Pi.\text{Setup}(\mathbb{G})$.
- A given Commit Key CK defines a message space \mathcal{M}_{CK} , randomness space \mathcal{R}_{CK} , commitment space \mathcal{C}_{CK} , and opening space \mathcal{D}_{CK} . The Com algorithm takes these as domain and co-domain: $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}_{CK}, \forall r \in \mathcal{R}_{CK}, (c \in \mathcal{C}_{CK}, d \in \mathcal{D}_{CK}) \leftarrow \Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m, r)$.
- The Open algorithm takes a commitment $c \in \mathcal{C}_{CK}$ and opening $d \in \mathcal{D}_{CK}$ and returns either a message $m \in \mathcal{M}_{CK}$ or null \perp : $\Pi.\text{Open}_{CK}(c \in \mathcal{C}_{CK}, d \in \mathcal{D}_{CK}) \rightarrow m \in \mathcal{M}_{CK}$ or \perp .

Correctness: $\forall CK \in \mathcal{CK}, \forall m \in \mathcal{M}_{CK}, \forall r \in \mathcal{R}_{CK}$, we have $\Pi.\text{Open}_{CK}(\Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m, r)) = m$.

Homomorphism: $\forall CK \in \mathcal{CK}, \forall m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{CK}, \forall r_1, r_2 \in \mathcal{R}_{CK}$, we have $\Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m_1, r_1) * \Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m_2, r_2) = \Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m_1 + m_2, r_1 + r_2)$. The homomorphic property implies the ability to re-randomise commitments: let the ReRand algorithm be defined as $\Pi.\text{ReRand}_{CK}(c \in \mathcal{C}_{CK}, r \in \mathcal{R}_{CK}) = c * \Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(1, r)$.

Definition 2. Perfectly hiding property of a commitment scheme: Given a group \mathbb{G} , a commitment scheme Π is perfectly hiding if for any adversary \mathcal{A} , it holds that $\text{Adv}^{\text{hiding}}(\mathcal{A}, \Pi, \mathbb{G}) = \text{Pr}[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{hiding}-1}(\Pi, \mathbb{G})] - \text{Pr}[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{hiding}-0}(\Pi, \mathbb{G})] = 0$ (Fig. 1).

$\frac{\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{hiding}-b}(\Pi, \mathbb{G})}{CK \leftarrow_r \Pi.\text{Setup}(\mathbb{G})}$ $(m_0, m_1, \alpha) \leftarrow_r \mathcal{A}(CK)$ $r \leftarrow_r \mathcal{R}_{CK}$ $(c, d) \leftarrow \Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}(m_b, r)$ $b' \leftarrow_r \mathcal{A}(CK, c, \alpha)$

Fig. 1. Hiding experiments

Definition 3. *Binding property of a commitment scheme: Given a group \mathbb{G} , a commitment scheme Π is (t, ϵ) binding if no t -time algorithm \mathcal{A} has $\text{Succ}^{\text{binding}}(\mathcal{A}, \Pi, \mathbb{G}) > \epsilon$ in $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{binding}}(\Pi, \mathbb{G})$ (Fig. 2). For simplicity we will often drop t and ϵ and refer to Π as binding.*

$\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{binding}}(\Pi, \mathbb{G})$
$CK \leftarrow_r \Pi.\text{Setup}(\mathbb{G})$ $(c, d, d') \leftarrow_r \mathcal{A}(CK)$ $m \leftarrow \Pi.\text{Open}_{CK}(c, d)$ $m' \leftarrow \Pi.\text{Open}_{CK}(c, d')$ if $m \neq m'$ return 1 else return 0

Fig. 2. Binding experiment

Public Key Encryption Scheme

Definition 4. *A homomorphic public key encryption scheme Σ is a triple of PPT algorithms $(\Sigma.\text{KeyGen}, \Sigma.\text{Enc}, \Sigma.\text{Dec})$, s.t.:*

- *The KeyGen algorithm defines a set of valid key pairs (PK, SK) from which one is uniformly selected: $(PK \in \mathcal{PK}, SK \in \mathcal{SK}) \leftarrow_r \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}(1^k)$.*
- *A given public key PK defines a message space \mathcal{M}_{PK} , randomness space \mathcal{R}_{PK} , and ciphertext space \mathcal{C}_{PK} . The Enc algorithm takes these as domain and co-domain: $\forall PK \in \mathcal{PK}, \forall m \in \mathcal{M}_{PK}, \forall r \in \mathcal{R}_{PK}, CT \in \mathcal{C}_{PK} \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m, r)$.*
- *The Dec algorithm takes a ciphertext $CT \in \mathcal{C}_{PK}$ and $SK \in \mathcal{SK}$ and returns either a message $m \in \mathcal{M}_{PK}$ or null \perp : $\forall CT \in \mathcal{C}_{PK}, \Sigma.\text{Dec}_{SK}(c) \rightarrow m \in \mathcal{M}_{PK}$ or \perp .*

Correctness: $\forall (PK \in \mathcal{PK}, SK \in \mathcal{SK}) \leftarrow_r \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}(1^k), \forall m \in \mathcal{M}_{PK}, \forall r \in \mathcal{R}_{PK}$, we have $\Sigma.\text{Dec}_{SK}(\Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m, r)) = m$.

Homomorphism: $\forall PK \in \mathcal{PK}, \forall m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{PK}, \forall r_1, r_2 \in \mathcal{R}_{PK}$, we have $\Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_1 + m_2, r_1 + r_2) = \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_1, r_1) * \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_2, r_2)$.

We succinctly recall the IND-CPA security concept for a public key encryption scheme as intuitively meaning that the adversary cannot distinguish between the encryption of two known plaintexts.

2.1 Modified Pedersen Commitment Scheme

As we have already noted starting with Moran and Naor [17], Pedersen commitments of semi-prime order have become a significant building block for voting schemes with everlasting privacy. The construction proposed in [17] was to take two safe primes p, q (i.e. to be of the form $2p + 1$ for p prime), let $n = pq$ and work in the subgroup of order n of \mathbb{Z}_{4n+1}^* where $4n + 1$ is also prime.

The modified Pedersen commitment scheme Π is the triple of PPT algorithms $(\Pi.\text{Setup}, \Pi.\text{Com}, \Pi.\text{Open})$, s.t.:

- $CK \leftarrow \Pi.\text{Setup}(\mathbb{G})$ s.t. $CK = \{\mathbb{G}, g, h\}$. Given a group \mathbb{G} of semi-prime order n , let g be any generator of \mathbb{G} and choose $h \leftarrow_r \mathbb{G}$ (with overwhelming probability h will be a generator).
- A given Commit Key $CK = \{\mathbb{G}, g, h\}$ defines the message space $\mathcal{M}_{CK} = \mathbb{Z}_n$, randomness space $\mathcal{R}_{CK} = \mathbb{Z}_n$, commitment space $\mathcal{C}_{CK} = \mathbb{G}_n$, and opening space $\mathcal{D}_{CK} = (\mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{Z}_n)$. The $\Pi.\text{Com}_{CK}$ algorithm takes $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n, r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ and sets $c = g^r h^m$ and $d = (m, r)$.
- The $\Pi.\text{Open}_{CK}$ algorithm takes a commitment $c \in \mathbb{G}_n$ and opening $d \in (m \in \mathbb{Z}_n, r \in \mathbb{Z}_n)$. If $c = g^r h^m$ return m else return \perp .

2.2 A Commitment Consistent Encryption System

The encryption scheme suggested by Moran and Naor [17] is a particular kind of encryption system specialised for everlasting privacy, and commonly used in verifiable electronic voting [12,13]. The standard suggestion, which we describe below, is to use Pedersen commitments of semi-prime order and the generalised Paillier cryptosystem. This notation—while slightly unusual—is useful because it enables the direct application of various existing results, particularly those in the area of mix-nets, as we shall see later. For convenience, we shall refer to this system as the MN cryptosystem.

We now describe MN encryption scheme. Let $\Sigma = (\Sigma.\text{KeyGen}, \Sigma.\text{Enc}, \Sigma.\text{Dec})$ denote a public key encryption scheme. Specifically let $\Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$ be the key generation function of the (generalised) Paillier cryptosystem [18,11] producing $PK = (n)$ and $SK = (d)$, where $n = pq$ is a RSA modulus and d is the lowest common multiple of $p - 1$ and $q - 1$. Choose k s.t. $kn + 1$ is prime, and let g, h be random generators of subgroup of order n in \mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^* , denoted \mathbb{G}_n . We denote the ciphertext space $\mathcal{C}_{PK} = \mathbb{G}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^* \times \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*$, the message space $\mathcal{M}_{PK} = \mathbb{Z}_n$, and the randomness space $\mathcal{R}_{PK} = \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_n^* \times \mathbb{Z}_n^*$.

We quickly explain the encryption process. Let $\Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m \in \mathbb{Z}_n, (r \in \mathbb{Z}_n, r' \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, r'' \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*))$ produce $CT = (c, ct_1, ct_2) = (g^r h^m \bmod kn + 1, (1 + n)^m r'^m \bmod n^2, (1 + n)^{r''} r''^m \bmod n^2)$. That is we encode the message m in a Pedersen commitment hidden by the randomness r , and we encrypt the opening to this commitment in two Paillier ciphertexts. Let $\Sigma.\text{Dec}_{SK}(CT = (c, ct_1, ct_2))$ be the decryption function. First use the Paillier decryption function to retrieve m, r from ct_1, ct_2 respectively, then if $c = g^r h^m$ the result is m else \perp .

We first make the observation that the Σ scheme is additively homomorphic, that is $\Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_0, (r_0, r'_0, r''_0)) * \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_1, (r_1, r'_1, r''_1)) = \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{pk}(m_0 + m_1, (r_0 + r_1, r'_0 * r'_1, r''_0 * r''_1))$. Secondly, that there is a shuffle friendly map [24]: given $CT = (c, ct_1, ct_2)$ and $r = (r_0, r_1, r_2)$, $c' = c * g^{r_0}, ct'_1 = ct_1 * r_1^n, ct'_2 = ct_2 * (1 + n)^{r_0} r_2^n$. We denote this map by $(\phi_{PK}(CT, r) = \mathcal{C}_{PK} \times \mathcal{R}_{PK} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_{PK})$. The existence of this map is necessary to apply Wikström's general mix-net construction to the cryptosystem [24].

In addition, we preserve the property of Paillier encryption and Pedersen commitments that given a ciphertext $CT = \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(m_0 \in \mathcal{M}_{pk}, (r, r', r'') \in \mathcal{R}_{pk})$ and a message m_1 it is easy to compute $CT^{m_1} = \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{pk}(m_0 * m_1; (r * m_1, r'^{m_1}, r''^{m_1}))$. In this case the exact effect on the randomness is a combination of multiplication and exponentiation. Lastly, since the Paillier variant we use is the variant of Damgård et al [11], threshold decryption is also available.

3 Security Proof for the Modified Pedersen Commitment Scheme

The sketch of the security proof for the commitment scheme in [17] lacks sufficient detail to be of use in establishing the security of the commitment. Since the group n is not of prime order, given a tuple (m, r, m', r') if $GCD(|m - m'|, n) \neq 1$ and $GCD(|r - r'|, n) \neq 1$ then the sketched reduction to the DLOG problem fails. While it is not particularly surprising that the DLOG problem holds in a group whose order contains a large prime factor, it is important to show that this is indeed true and furthermore does not break any other part of the system. A correct reduction is hence needed. Moreover, we do not require the primes to be safe and thus consider a subgroup of order n of \mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^* for an integer k . Therefore, the above commitment scheme can be extended to the general case with integers k, n such that $kn + 1$ is prime. We now present the security proof of the generalization of the modified Pedersen commitment scheme.

Proposition 1. *The modified Pedersen commitment scheme Π is a homomorphic perfectly hiding commitment scheme.*

Proof. The correctness of the scheme follows immediately from the definitions of $\Pi.\text{Com}$ and $\Pi.\text{Open}$. The perfect hiding property of the scheme follows in the same way as normal Pedersen commitment schemes: for any two messages m_0, m_1 and commitment c there exist two unique random coins r_0, r_1 s.t. $c = g^{r_0} h^{m_0}$ and $c = g^{r_1} h^{m_1}$, and since the random coins are taken uniformly, the commitment provides no information about which message was committed to.

The key to understanding the next part on the binding property is to recall that for a cyclic group of semi-prime order $n = pq$, there are exactly two non-trivial subgroups: one is of order p and the other q . If we let \mathbb{G} be the subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^* of order n , where $kn + 1$ is prime, then the two non-trivial subgroups are two Schnorr groups. The reduction we present in the next paragraph reduces the binding property of the modified Pedersen commitment to the DLOG problem in the two Schnorr groups, which we label \mathbb{G}_p and \mathbb{G}_q .

To show that the scheme is binding, we present a reduction in two parts. First, we show that for any t -time adversary \mathcal{A} against the modified Pedersen commitment scheme Π with $\text{Succ}^{\text{binding}}(\mathcal{A}, \Pi, \mathbb{G}) = \epsilon$, we can construct an algorithm which—given a DLOG problem in \mathbb{G}_p , and another in \mathbb{G}_q —outputs the

answer to at least one with probability ϵ . Then having observed against which of the two groups the better success rate is achieved, we construct an adversary against the DLOG problem in that group which succeeds with probability at least $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$. This suffices to show that the binding property of the commitment scheme cannot be broken with probability more than twice that of the DLOG problem in the weakest of the two underlying Schnorr groups \mathbb{G}_p and \mathbb{G}_q .

There exists an efficiently computable isomorphism between the direct product of $\mathbb{G}_p \times \mathbb{G}_q$ and \mathbb{G}_n . The challenger takes the two subgroups of \mathbb{G}_n and a DLOG problem in each. It combines these to construct the commitment key which it gives to the adversary. Since g_p and g_q are generators of their respective groups \mathbb{G}_p and \mathbb{G}_q , if h_p and h_q are random elements (as they are in the DLOG experiment) then this is indistinguishable from the honest run. The successful adversary $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{G}, g, h)$ outputs $(c, (m, r), (m', r'))$ s.t. $m \neq m'$. If $GCD(|m - m'|, n) = 1$ or $GCD(|r - r'|, n) = 1$ then we extract $\alpha = dlog_g h$ as normal with Pedersen commitments and calculate $dlog_{g_p} h_p = \alpha \bmod p$ and $dlog_{g_q} h_q = \alpha \bmod q$. If this is not the case, then w.l.o.g. $GCD(|r - r'|, n) = GCD(|m - m'|, n) = p$ and hence there exists unique $\delta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ s.t. $\delta p = \alpha \gamma p \bmod n$ and hence $\alpha = \frac{\delta}{\gamma} \bmod q$. By the Chinese remainder theorem $\alpha \bmod q = dlog_{g_q} h_q$ and we successfully answer that.

□

Our solution is not only provably secure (under reasonable assumptions) but also more general with the setting $kn + 1$, with $k \in \mathbb{N}$, rather than $4n + 1$. The homomorphism of the scheme follows immediately from the group properties and the isomorphism of \mathbb{Z}_n and \mathbb{G}_n .

4 Security Proofs for Sigma Protocols

We present two Sigma Protocols, one for correct encryption from [9] and a new protocol for correct re-encryption; we believe that proofs of both Sigma Protocols have never been published before. These proofs allow the realisation of an electronic voting scheme that is secure (compared to without ZKPs) and highly efficient (compared to the cut-and-choose solutions currently in the literature).

4.1 Sigma Protocol for Correct Encryption

The following Sigma Protocol for correct encryption was proposed by Cuvelier *et al.* [9], though they omit the proof. Such protocol is used to prove that given a ciphertext, one knows the inputs and uses them to generate that ciphertext.

Given $CT = (c = g^r h^m \bmod kn + 1, ct_1 = (1 + n)^m r'^n \bmod n^2, ct_2 = (1 + n)^r r''^m \bmod n^2)$, we show that we know $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ and $(r \in \mathbb{Z}_n, r' \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, r'' \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*)$:

1) Let t_1, t_2 be random elements in \mathbb{Z}_n and t_3, t_4 be random elements in \mathbb{Z}_n^* . The prover computes $\alpha = g^{t_1} h^{t_2} \bmod kn + 1, \beta = (1+n)^{t_2} t_3^n \bmod n^2, \gamma = (1+n)^{t_1} t_4^n \bmod n^2$ and sends them to the verifier.

2) The verifier sends a challenge ξ chosen at random in \mathbb{Z}_n .

3) The prover computes $s_1 = t_1 + \xi r \bmod n, s_2 = t_2 + \xi m \bmod n, s_3 = t_3 * r'^{\xi} \bmod n, s_4 = t_4 * r''^{\xi} \bmod n$, and sends these to the verifier.

4) The verifier accepts if $\alpha c^{\xi} = g^{s_1} h^{s_2} \bmod kn + 1, \beta c t_1^{\xi} = (1+n)^{s_2} s_3^n \bmod n^2, \gamma c t_2^{\xi} = (1+n)^{s_1} s_4^n \bmod n^2$.

The transcript (with the elements exchanged between the prover and the verifier) is $(\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_n, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*, \xi \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_3 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, s_4 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*)$.

Security Proof

Proposition 2. *The above protocol has perfect completeness, special soundness, and honest verifier zero knowledge and is hence a Sigma Protocol.*

Proof. Completeness follows trivially and is omitted due to lack of space.

Special Soundness Given two accepting transcripts $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4)$ and $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi', s'_1, s'_2, s'_3, s'_4)$, we show that $r = \frac{s_1 - s'_1}{\xi - \xi'}, m = \frac{s_2 - s'_2}{\xi - \xi'}, r' = (s_3/s'_3)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, $r'' = (s_4/s'_4)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$ must be valid given that two transcripts accept. The difference $\xi - \xi'$ has no inverse with negligible probability. To calculate $r' = (s_3/s'_3)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, $r'' = (s_4/s'_4)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, we use our knowledge of the message in ct_1 and ct_2 , extracted from s_1 and s_2 , and the homomorphic property of Paillier encryption to create $ct'_1 = r'^n$ and $ct'_2 = r''^n$. We can directly apply the technique from Damgård *et al.* [11] to extract r' and r'' from the elements s_3, s'_3, s_4, s'_4 .

Honest Verifier Zero Knowledge Consider a transcript $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4)$. In the honest run, t_1, t_2 are random elements in \mathbb{Z}_n , t_3, t_4 in \mathbb{Z}_n^* and ξ in \mathbb{Z}_n . To simulate, choose s_1, s_2 from \mathbb{Z}_n , s_3, s_4 from \mathbb{Z}_n^* and ξ at random from \mathbb{Z}_n . Set $\alpha = c_1^{-\xi} g^{s_1} h^{s_2}, \beta = c_2^{-\xi} (1+n)^{s_2} s_3^n, \gamma = c_3^{-\xi} (1+n)^{s_1} s_4^n$, that is a perfect simulation. Moreover, the elements β, γ are uniformly random in the honest run, and the tuple $(\alpha, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4)$ is uniquely determined by (ξ, β, γ) . In the simulation, the elements s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4 are chosen uniformly at random and consequently β, γ are uniformly at random for fixed elements ξ, c, ct_1, ct_2 . \square

4.2 Sigma Protocol for Correct Re-Encryption

We introduce the following Sigma Protocol for correct re-encryption. It is used to prove that given a pair of ciphertexts, the second is a re-encryption of the first.

Given $CT = (c, ct_1, ct_2), CT' = (c' = c * g^{r_0} \bmod kn + 1, ct'_1 = ct_1 * r_1^n \bmod n^2, ct'_2 = ct_2 * (1+n)^{r_0} r_2^n \bmod n^2)$, we show that we know $(r_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_n, r_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*)$:

1) Let t_1 be a random element in \mathbb{Z}_n and t_2, t_3 be random elements in \mathbb{Z}_n^* . The prover computes $\alpha = g^{t_1} \bmod kn + 1$, $\beta = t_2^n \bmod n^2$, $\gamma = (1 + n)^{t_1} t_3^n \bmod n^2$ and sends them to the verifier.

2) The verifier sends a challenge ξ chosen at random in \mathbb{Z}_n .

3) The prover computes $s_1 = t_1 + \xi r_0 \bmod n$, $s_2 = t_2 * r_1^\xi \bmod n$, $s_3 = t_3 * r_2^\xi \bmod n$, and sends these to the verifier.

4) The verifier accepts if $\alpha(c'/c)^\xi = g^{s_1}$, $\beta(ct'_1/ct_1)^\xi = s_2^n$, $\gamma(ct'_2/ct_2)^\xi = (1 + n)^{s_1} s_3^n$.

The transcript (with the elements exchanged between the prover and the verifier) is $(\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_n, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*, \xi \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n, s_3 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*)$.

Security Proof

Proposition 3. *The above protocol has perfect completeness, special soundness, and honest verifier zero knowledge and is hence a Sigma Protocol for correct re-encryption.*

Proof. Completeness follows trivially and is omitted due to lack of space.

Special Soundness Given two accepting transcripts $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi, s_1, s_2, s_3)$ and $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi', s'_1, s'_2, s'_3)$, we show that $r_0 = \frac{s_1 - s'_1}{\xi - \xi'}$, $r_1 = (s_2/s'_2)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, $r_2 = (s_3/s'_3)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$ must be valid given that two transcripts accept. The difference $\xi - \xi'$ has no inverse with negligible probability. To calculate $r' = (s_3/s'_3)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, $r'' = (s_4/s'_4)^{\frac{1}{\xi - \xi'}}$, we use our knowledge of the message in ct_1 and ct_2 extracted from s_1 and s_2 , and the homomorphic property of Paillier encryption to create $c'_2 = r''^n$ and $c'_3 = r''^m$. We can directly apply the technique from Damgård *et al.* [11] to extract the randomnesses r', r'' from the elements s_3, s'_3, s_4, s'_4 .

Honest Verifier Zero Knowledge In the honest run, t_1 is chosen at random from \mathbb{Z}_n , t_2, t_3 from \mathbb{Z}_n^* and ξ from \mathbb{Z}_n . To simulate, we instead choose s_1, s_2, s_3, ξ at random and set $\alpha = g^{s_1} (c'_1/c_1)^{-\xi}$, $\beta = s_2^n (c'_2/c_2)^{-\xi}$, $\gamma = (1 + n)^{s_1} s_3^n (c'_3/c_3)^{-\xi}$. We get the same distribution in both cases. □

5 A New Efficient Verifiable Mix-Net

Verifiable mixing is an important building block for almost all verifiable voting systems. Given a vector of ciphertexts with known relationships to the voters, mixing allows this link to be broken without allowing ballot modification or substitution.

Wikström's general result [24] shows that verifiable mixing is possible for all cryptosystems on which a homomorphic map exists and an overwhelmingly complete Sigma Protocol is known for re-encryption. However, this generic construction gives an 8-round proof, while a more optimised instance is desirable for

practicality. We can take advantage of special properties from our solution and derive a secure 4-round proof. We illustrate a verifiable ballot mixing process in Fig. 3 with three mixers. We now present our more efficient mixers. While there

Formally we operate two mixes, one on the public bulletin board and on the secret bulletin board. At each step, the election authorities check that the two versions of the Pedersen commitments e_j and c_j match. Our solution is similar to Demirel *et al.* [13], but is actually shown to be secure and far more computationally efficient. The green arrows represent verifiable mixers, the red arrows represent the equality of Pedersen commitments at each stage and the blue arrow represents verifiable decryption.

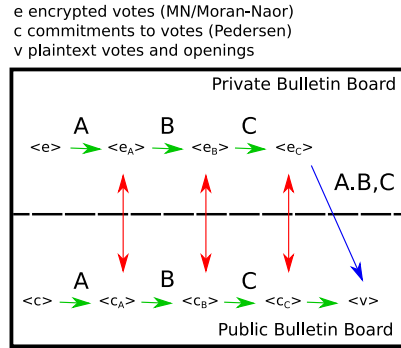


Fig. 3. Mixing with three authorities

are crucial differences (for instance, the composite group order), our optimisations and accompanying proofs are similar to those for the optimised ElGamal version which is presented and proven by Terelius *et al.* [21]. We first detail the mix-net for the public board, see Algorithm 1, and then the mix-net for the private board, see Algorithm 2. We recall that π is permutation function induced by the permutation matrix M and ϕ is the re-encryption map defined in Subsection 2.2. We use $\bar{1}$ to denote the all one vector.

We define \mathcal{R}_{com} to be the relation consisting of pairs of tuples of the form commitment key CK , commitment \mathbf{c} , two distinct messages M, M' and two associated randomness vectors \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{r}' s.t. $\mathbf{c} = \Pi.Com_{CK}(M, \mathbf{r}) = \Pi.Com_{CK}(M', \mathbf{r}')$. We also define \mathcal{R}_π to be the relation consisting of pairs of tuples of the form commitment key CK , commitment \mathbf{c} , message M and associated randomness vector \mathbf{r} s.t. M is a permutation matrix and $\mathbf{r} = \Pi.Com_{CK}(M, \mathbf{r})$. Let $\mathcal{R}_{\phi_{PK}}^{shuf}$ be the relation consisting of pairs of tuples of the form public key PK , two vectors of ciphertexts $\mathbf{CT} = (ct_1, \dots, ct_n)$ and $\mathbf{CT}' = (ct'_1, \dots, ct'_n)$ and a permutation π and randomness vector $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_n)$ such that $ct'_i = \phi_{PK}(ct_{\pi(i)}, r_{\pi(i)})$ for all $i \in [1, N]$. Let $\mathcal{R}_{rerand_{CK}}^{shuf}$ to be the relation consisting of pairs of tuples of the form commit key CK , two commitment vectors $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$ and $\mathbf{c}' = (c'_1, \dots, c'_n)$, a permutation π and randomness vector $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_n)$ such that $c'_i = \Pi.ReRand_{CK}(c_{\pi(i)}, r_{\pi(i)})$.

Algorithm 1: Proof of Shuffle on Public Board

Common Input: Commitment parameters $g, h, h_1, \dots, h_N \in \mathbb{G}_n$, two Pedersen

commitments $\mathbf{e} = (e_1, \dots, e_N) \in \mathbb{G}_n^N$ and

$\mathbf{e}' = (e'_1, \dots, e'_N) \in \mathbb{G}_n^N$, and a permutation matrix commitment

$\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_N)$.

Private Input : Permutation matrix $M = (m_{i,j}) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{N \times N}$, randomness

$\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$ s.t. $c_j = g^{r_j} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{m_{j,i}}$, and randomness

$\mathbf{r}' = (r'_1, \dots, r'_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$ s.t. $e'_i = e_{\pi(i)} g^{r'_{\pi(i)}}$ for $i, j \in [1, N]$.

1 \mathcal{V} chooses $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$ randomly and hands \mathbf{u} to \mathcal{P} .

2 \mathcal{P} defines $\mathbf{u}' = (u'_1, \dots, u'_N) = M\mathbf{u}$ and then chooses

$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = (\hat{r}_1, \dots, \hat{r}_N), \hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\hat{w}_1, \dots, \hat{w}_N), \mathbf{w}' = (w'_1, \dots, w'_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$, and

$w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. \mathcal{P} then defines $\bar{\mathbf{r}} = \langle \bar{1}, \mathbf{r} \rangle$, $\tilde{\mathbf{r}} = \langle \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$, $\hat{r} = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{r}_i \prod_{j=i+1}^N u'_j$

and $r' = \langle \mathbf{r}', \mathbf{u} \rangle$. \mathcal{P} hands to \mathcal{V} , where we set $\hat{c}_0 = h$ and $i \in [1, N]$,

$$\hat{c}_i = g^{\hat{r}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{u'_i} \quad t_1 = g^{w_1} \quad t_2 = g^{w_2} \quad t_3 = g^{w_3} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{w'_i} \quad t_4 = g^{-w_4} \prod_{i=1}^N (e'_i)^{w'_i} \quad \hat{t}_i = g^{\hat{w}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{w'_i}$$

3 \mathcal{V} chooses a challenge $\xi \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ at random and sends it to \mathcal{P} .

4 \mathcal{P} then responds with:

$$s_1 = w_1 + \xi \cdot \bar{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_2 = w_2 + \xi \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_3 = w_3 + \xi \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_4 = w_4 + \xi \cdot r' \\ \hat{s}_i = \hat{w}_i + \xi \cdot \hat{r}_i \quad s'_i = w'_i + \xi \cdot u'_i$$

5 \mathcal{V} accepts if and only if, for $i \in [1, N]$,

$$t_1 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N c_i / \prod_{i=1}^N h_i \right)^{-\xi} g^{s_1} \quad t_2 = (\hat{c}_N / h \prod_{i=1}^N u_i)^{-\xi} g^{s_2} \quad t_3 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N c_i^{u_i} \right)^{-\xi} g^{s_3} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{s'_i} \\ t_4 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N (e_i)^{u_i} \right)^{-\xi} g^{s_4} \prod_{i=1}^N (e'_i)^{s'_i} \quad \hat{t}_i = \hat{c}_i^{-\xi} g^{\hat{s}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{s'_i}$$

Algorithm 2: Proof of Shuffle on Private Board

Common Input: Commitment parameters $g, h, h_1, \dots, h_N \in \mathbb{G}_n$, two ciphertexts

$\mathbf{e} = (e_1, \dots, e_N) \in \mathcal{C}_{PK}$ and $\mathbf{e}' = (e'_1, \dots, e'_N) \in \mathcal{C}_{PK}$, and a

permutation matrix commitment $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_N)$.

Private Input : Permutation matrix $M = (m_{i,j}) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{N \times N}$, randomness

$\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$ s.t. $c_j = g^{r_j} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{m_{j,i}}$, and randomness

$\mathbf{r}' = (r'_1, \dots, r'_N) \in \mathcal{R}_{pk}$ s.t. $e'_i = \phi_{PK}(e_{\pi(i)}, r'_{\pi(i)})$, for

$i, j \in [1, N]$.

1 \mathcal{V} chooses $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$ randomly and hands \mathbf{u} to \mathcal{P} .

2 \mathcal{P} defines $\mathbf{u}' = (u'_1, \dots, u'_N) = M\mathbf{u}$ and then chooses

$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = (\hat{r}_1, \dots, \hat{r}_N), \hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\hat{w}_1, \dots, \hat{w}_N), \mathbf{w}' = (w'_1, \dots, w'_N) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^N$, and $w_1, w_2, w_3, \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

and $w_4 \in \mathcal{R}_{PK}$. \mathcal{P} defines $\bar{\mathbf{r}} = \langle \bar{1}, \mathbf{r} \rangle$, $\tilde{\mathbf{r}} = \langle \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$, $\hat{r} = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{r}_i \prod_{j=i+1}^N u'_j$ and

$r' = (\sum_{i=1}^N r'_{i,0} u_i, \prod_{i=1}^N r'_{i,1} u_i, \prod_{i=1}^N r'_{i,2} u_i)$. \mathcal{P} hands to \mathcal{V} , where we set $\hat{c}_0 = h$ and $i \in [1, N]$,

$$\hat{c}_i = g^{\hat{r}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{u'_i} \quad t_1 = g^{w_1} \quad t_2 = g^{w_2} \quad t_3 = g^{w_3} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{w'_i} \\ t_4 = \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(1, w_4) \prod_{i=1}^N e_i^{w'_i} \quad \hat{t}_i = g^{\hat{w}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{w'_i}$$

3 \mathcal{V} chooses a challenge $\xi \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ at random and sends it to \mathcal{P} .

4 \mathcal{P} then responds with:

$$s_1 = w_1 + \xi \cdot \bar{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_2 = w_2 + \xi \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_3 = w_3 + \xi \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{r}} \quad s_4 = w_4 - \xi \cdot r' \\ \hat{s}_i = \hat{w}_i + \xi \cdot \hat{r}_i \quad s'_i = w'_i + \xi \cdot u'_i$$

5 \mathcal{V} accepts if and only if, for $i \in [1, N]$,

$$t_1 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N c_i / \prod_{i=1}^N h_i \right)^{-\xi} g^{s_1} \quad t_2 = (\hat{c}_N / h \prod_{i=1}^N u_i)^{-\xi} g^{s_2} \quad t_3 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N c_i^{u_i} \right)^{-\xi} g^{s_3} \prod_{i=1}^N h_i^{s'_i} \\ t_4 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N (e_i)^{u_i} \right)^{-\xi} \Sigma.\text{Enc}_{PK}(1, s_4) \prod_{i=1}^N (e'_i)^{s'_i} \quad \hat{t}_i = \hat{c}_i^{-\xi} g^{\hat{s}_i} \hat{c}_{i-1}^{s'_i}$$

Proposition 4. *Algorithm 1 is a perfectly complete, 4-round special soundness, and honest verifier zero knowledge of the relationship $\mathcal{R}_{com} \vee (\mathcal{R}_\pi \wedge \mathcal{R}_{\text{rerand}_{CK}}^{\text{shuf}})$.*

Proposition 5. *Algorithm 2 is a perfectly complete, 4-round special soundness, and honest verifier zero knowledge of the relationship $\mathcal{R}_{com} \vee (\mathcal{R}_\pi \wedge \mathcal{R}_{\phi_{PK}}^{\text{shuf}})$.*

Proof. Due to space limitations we must omit both proofs but they will be present in the full version. Since it is infeasible under the discrete logarithm assumption to find z where $g^z = h$ or to find a pair satisfying \mathcal{R}_{com} , the proposition computationally implies a proof of knowledge of $\mathcal{R}_\pi \wedge \mathcal{R}_{\phi_{PK}}^{\text{shuf}}$. □

6 Comparison and Analysis of Efficiency

We study the efficiency of our solution and compare it with Couvclier *et al.*'s results [9]. In order to accurately confront both schemes, we adopt the similar conventions to Couvclier *et al.* The commitments used by PPATC scheme [9] require an elliptic curve with a type 3 pairing to function. Type 3 pairing is a pairing in which there exist no efficiently computable homomorphism between \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_2 and where the Decisional Diffie-Hellman is hard in both groups. We assume an embedding degree of 16 such that elements of \mathbb{G}_T are of size p^{16} . We, also, associate a unit cost to the multiplication of two 256 bit integers. While Couvclier *et al.* supposed quadratic growth in the length of the operands, we assume $\mathcal{O}(n^{1.5})$, which better reflects that many BigInteger libraries support the optimised multiplication algorithms. We target a security level equivalent to 2048 bits RSA modulus N . We select \mathbb{G}_1 to be taken on \mathbb{F}_p for a 256 bits long prime p and \mathbb{G}_2 to be taken on \mathbb{F}_{p^3} . The size of the target group is then 4096 bits, and for simplicity we take pairing to cost 10 times the effort of a multiplication in \mathbb{G}_1 , this seems to hold for most real implementations.

We count the number of operations in Couvclier *et al.*'s scheme and our solution. Tables 1 and 2 show these numbers for both encryption and opening verification. Let $Exp_{\mathbb{Z}_X^*}$ denote the number of exponentiations in \mathbb{Z}_X^* , and $Mult_{\mathbb{G}_Y}$ the number of multiplications in \mathbb{G}_Y . *Pairing* is defined as the number of pairing operations.

Scheme	$Exp_{\mathbb{Z}_{kn+1}^*}$	$Exp_{\mathbb{Z}_{n2}^*}$	$Mult_{\mathbb{G}_1}$	$Mult_{\mathbb{G}_2}$	Total cost
MN [17]	3.375	4	0	0	1024896 multiplications
PPATC [9]	0	0	9	4	114432 multiplications

Table 1. Total number of operations executed for encryption - Total cost is obtained according to the implementation setting.

Scheme	$Exp_{z_{k_{n+1}}}^*$	$Exp_{z_{n_2}}^*$	$Mult_{G_1}$	$Mult_{G_2}$	Pairing	Total cost
MN [17]	1.125	0	0	0	0	79488 multiplications
PPATC [9]	0	0	1	0	3	119040 multiplications

Table 2. Total number of operations executed for opening verification - Total cost is obtained according to the implementation setting.

While PPATC remains faster for the encryption phase than MN scheme, the latter is 1.5 time faster for the verification phase than PPATC. In regards to mixing, which is of course a very substantial part of the verification cost, we have already shown how an optimised variant of Terelius and Wikström’s approach [22] can be applied to MN cryptosystem.

Cuvelier *et al.* [9] suggested using Terelius and Wikström’s approach as well. However, the efficiency of their general construction is poor compared to the optimised variants (especially when dealing with groups of composite order). The PPATC scheme of Cuvelier *et al.* is a highly elegant construction but contrary to expectations is not more efficient overall than our version of MN scheme [17]. Though, if the voting devices were unusually weak PPATC might still be preferred. In conclusion, while PPATC might still be preferred in some settings, in others where homomorphic properties are desired MN scheme with our optimised ZKPs are of comparable efficiency.

7 Conclusion

Ongoing privacy is fundamental for the proper functioning of elections but significant gaps remained. We fixed several of the outstanding issues. We showed that the modified Pedersen commitment is in fact secure and proved that the Sigma Protocols for correct encryption and correct re-encryption are safe to use. We also provided computational improvements to mixing and examined the feasibility of a secure deployment of our solution. In doing this, we help make everlasting privacy for homomorphic electronic voting a computationally feasible and rigorously secure reality. We show that this approach provides verification efficiency comparable to the most efficient non-homomorphic schemes.

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