

Internet Voting:

Formulating Structural Governance Principles for Elections Cybersecurity

Candice Hoke

Cleveland State University, USA
{shoke@me.com}

Abstract: In Europe, the U.S., and Asia, political and market forces seek expanded use of the Internet for voting and election administrative functions. Governmental responses have differed, but commonly governments omit qualified Internet security experts from exercising decisive weight in policy decisions. Given its current architecture and engineering, the Internet generally provides neither high assurance data security and integrity, nor reliable information transmission protected from denial of service and other attacks. Nevertheless, pressures to expand Internet-based election functions continue. This paper and panel explore the foundational questions and features of a governance system that has the capacity to safeguard democratic elections. The paper recommends that each nation include a board with appropriate computer and network security expertise, election administrative knowledge, and public accountability and transparency structures. Nations should alert other democratic republics to election information system threats and attacks, for mutual aid and robust mitigations.

Key Words: Internet, voting, elections, governance, transparency, security, assurance, integrity, cybersecurity, mitigations, threats.

1 Introduction

The citizens of democratic republics select their core representatives through periodic public elections. While the specific offices subject to election and the frequency of holding elections varies among nation-states, electing new governmental officers often impacts business opportunities, individual and business wealth, the use of military power, and a broad range of other governmental policies. A national election in the most populous nations worldwide can affect vast wealth and the course of domestic and international events.

The potentially high stakes of elections, and the history of intentional electoral disruptions and fraud in numerous countries worldwide, counsel governmental officials to engage in careful planning in order to protect election information and processes from deliberate attacks. Security and contingency planning for elections differs among and within nations, with some significant variations in the physical contexts for conducting elections and in human factors such as poll staffing. For those nations that use computer technologies for election administrative functions, election security has become increasingly complicated.

This paper proceeds from the baseline fact that the Internet as currently architected and engineered provides neither high assurance data security and integrity, nor information transmission reliably impervious to deliberate targeted attacks and ubiquitous malware. While these factors pose dangers

for many entities and activities, elections are especially vulnerable. That voting occurs using anonymized data presents major hurdles to utilizing the Internet in a secure manner for casting ballots, though careful analysis and appropriate mitigations might permit other election tasks to be securely conducted by this means.

The paper argues that election policy decisions are affected by an information gap regarding both Internet security risks and the absence of effective mitigations and controls that can achieve assured election data and system integrity. It recommends revised national governance structures based on three fundamental principles: *expertise* in computer and network engineering and security, but also in election administration; *transparency and public accountability*, in order that the election system and reported results have legitimacy; and *transnational cooperation* among democratic republics, to facilitate prompt mitigations and criminal prosecution for attacks on election information systems.

2 Current and Projected Uses of the Internet in Elections

The pace of election administrative computerization appears to be rapidly increasing. Manufacturers of business automation systems have accelerated development of product adaptations for elections. In the wake of the notorious U.S. presidential election of 2000, passage of the Help America Vote Act [1] stimulated vast computerization of elections. The Act has spurred an array of new options in computer-based and networked equipment. In other nations, both market and “modernization” pressures have led to wide use of computers for election functions. Many European and Asian nations have joined the U.S. in using or planning transitions to electronic voting devices, tabulation systems, and a broad range of other equipment.

Software-based equipment is now available for automating most election functions, ranging from the creation of voter registration lists to the presentation of an electronic ballot to voters, to recording votes, and to tabulation and reporting election results. Electronic databases often substitute for paper-based systems for retaining the lists of eligible voters and their personal information such as address, birth date, unique identifying number, and political party. Voters may register to vote by visiting a website or by sending a registration document by email attachment or fax. Software is increasingly used to design ballots, including automating the task of rotating candidates into the favored top position on different ballots so no one candidate holds that advantage. Many voting machines use electronic ballots that humans have created on servers using complex election management software.

Electronic voting devices may offer voters the option of ballot correction where the ballot contains marks for too many candidates in a race (“overvoting”). Vote data may be recorded on removable digital memory media as well as on internal components such as flash memory in order to produce “redundant” vote data records.¹ Voting devices may incorporate hardware and firmware for network transmission of election information, including for sending vote data electronically from remote polling locations; these transmissions may occur using the Internet, T1 or common telephone lines instead of physically transporting memory devices such as thumb drives and memory cards. From security and data integrity standpoints, arguably the most problematic electronic voting initiatives are efforts to permit remote voting from personal computers that use operating systems documented to have serious security flaws. These deficiencies are then compounded by the security issues of the current Internet architecture. [2]

2.1 Absentee Ballot Transmissions Jurisdictions often allow voters to request “absentee” ballots when the voter will be physically absent on Election Day. Others permit “no-fault” or convenience

¹ Independent “red team” or penetration studies of voting systems have demonstrated that the supposed redundant memory systems may be subject to deliberate attacks that can cause the various locations to hold discrepant rather than redundant vote totals. [1], [2]

voting from home, regardless of the reason. These requests or applications formerly were confined to paper documents sent through traditional mails or delivered by hand. Technological options have expanded to include, depending on the jurisdiction, applying at a website, by email, or by fax.

Absentee ballots are the crucible for aggressive expansion in the election system's use of Internet data transmissions. The pressure in the U.S. arises mainly from efforts to ensure that those in overseas military service are not inadvertently disenfranchised by delays in ballot transmissions. [3] Sending blank or unvoted ballots to overseas and military voters has traditionally occurred by mail. Some election offices are now using the Internet to transmit the blank ballot to the absentee voter. Yet other jurisdictions ranging from Estonia [4] to a U.S. pilot project in Okaloosa, Florida [5] have experimented with casting ballots—voting in an actual election. Options have included voting on a website described as “secure,” by using an encrypted emailed ballot, or by using telephonic networks. These options theoretically permit almost instantaneous delivery of both balloting materials and the return voted ballots, shortening the transmission time by at least 90% over the time required by traditional mailing of paper.

The authenticity of a voter's absentee ballot signature is increasingly verified by electronic means, using a digital or optical scanner connected to a computer that compares the signature on file with the signature on the submitted absentee ballot envelope. High volume urban election offices have often been first to adopt this technology. Originally developed for financial institutions that process bank cheques, these systems compare the voter's two signatures as part of the voter and ballot verification process. The machines must be calibrated, allowing discretionary human decision in the degree of deviation between the signatures on record and the absentee ballot materials.

2.2 Integration of Telephony and Other Networks. Networks used in elections encompass more than the Internet, however. In addition to telephonic transmissions of some electoral information, ballot tabulation systems often use components linked by Ethernet. Election software produces race results from raw database values, which officials then upload to the Internet for public access using network connections or memory media.

2.3 Other Electoral Uses of the Internet. Some vendors send election “management” software patches over the Internet for uploading into the local election equipment. The software systems that require patches are used for ballot configuration and for tabulations. Software patches are also sent via the Internet for updating the voter registration databases. Electronic poll-books can be used to connect poll workers to the voter registration database in order to verify the voter's eligibility to vote; these often communicate via the Internet. The electronic ballot files that are used for printing paper ballots may be posted on the Internet for proofing by political parties and the candidates. These ballot configurations can then be transmitted over the Internet to the ballot printer so the printer order may be fulfilled.

2.4 Disaggregating Election Tasks for Security Assessments

Established precepts of information security assessment direct that each task or function sought to be conducted using computer or network technologies must be separately evaluated in a threat assessment. [19], [20] Such disaggregation may result in identifying election administrative tasks to which the Internet presents low risks and compensating efficiencies. Examples include the Internet posting of voter information regarding the candidates, ballot issues, and location and timing of voting. Web-based additional “voter services,” such as the posting of absentee ballot applications and voter registration forms, are also potentially low-risk.

3 The Election Equipment Marketplace Meets Internet Security Science

Security has become a primary focus for Internet participants and information system administrators, in both the private and public sectors. The firm or enterprise IT governance decisions must include types of access controls, authentication systems, and life cycle security. The

popular press has covered major intrusions into supposedly “secure” networks that have compromised credit card and other personal financial data, telephone billing records, and the U.S. government’s witness protection program. These reports underscore that the Internet generates significant vulnerabilities at the same time as benign opportunities for broad communication. [21] The Internet places in jeopardy core human values such as personal privacy. [22] [23] [24]

In market-based nations, private sector, for-profit firms design, manufacture, and market specialized software hardware components for election administration. Many of these firms have been shown to overstate their voting system products’ compliance with fundamental tenets of an Information Technology (IT) Security Program and misrepresent the scope of activities needed to achieve defense in depth.² In independent studies, computer and security scientists have documented profound risks to election data integrity and equipment reliability owing to insecure equipment and flawed managerial security policies. [6], [7], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15]

Internet-based software systems for voter authentication, ballot delivery and return of votes or “voted ballots” are no longer fanciful speculations. Private sector vendors are promoting their new wares for “secure Internet voting,” replete with resuscitation of the false but previously persuasive analogy of voting to banking via automatic tellers and personal computers. The new Internet voting vendors are actively soliciting election officials to purchase their software products that will enable voted ballots to be transmitted over the Internet for tabulation in elections offices. In May 2009, one Internet voting marketing executive argued:

The introduction of technology to any process is scary. But the time has come. We have been banking online and shopping online for over a decade, and conducting important business by phone for a century. *Digital technology, while no panacea, is the best method ever invented for securely delivering information and decisions.* [25]

3.1 Vendor Claims. The vendors’ marketing claims include that the Internet:

- Permits voting to be as secure and private as personal banking transactions;
- Will achieve a net reduction of the financial costs of conducting elections;
- Will expand voter participation in the electoral system by making voting more convenient and accessible; and,
- Should be accepted as part of social and technological progress, of updating systems to accommodate youthful tastes and expectations (the “cool” factor).

3.2 Two Empirical Baselines. In considering the fitness of the Internet for conducting particular election administrative tasks, and the wisdom of permitting a *caveat emptor* market for Internet voting software in lieu of governmental regulation, two constellations of empirical fact should be kept in view. First, the profound security deficiencies independent researchers documented in privately produced, for-profit digital voting equipment³ (despite the contrary vendors’ representations) should raise questions regarding the credibility of election vendors’ claims that the new voting products “securely” deliver voted ballots and voting materials over the Internet. In short, the electronic elections industry equipment’s past security representations have

² Documentation reviews of three commercially produced voting systems formed a part of the California Secretary of State’s Top to Bottom Review of Voting Systems. All evaluators reported critical omissions in security documentation and risk mitigation. [8], [9], [10]. Principles for achieving defense in depth in election information systems are not qualitatively different from those established for IT systems for other facing significant threats. [6]

³ In the “red team” overview report on California voting systems, Dr. Matt Bishop stated: “the security mechanisms provided for all systems were inadequate to ensure accuracy and integrity of the election results and of the systems that provide those results.” [6] With only minor differences, these same systems are used in many other States.

misrepresented the systems' security achievements, and the industry has chosen to market equipment that presents major risks to election integrity. [8], [9], [10], [11], [13].

The second but perhaps more significant empirical baseline relates to the Internet's technical and engineering facts. The Internet lacks the capacity for high assurance information transmissions and information systems, whether for elections functions, military communications, or other transactions. Specific election objectives include packet transmissions that cannot be delayed, blocked, modified, or intercepted, because otherwise voter disenfranchisement and possibly a fraudulent election will ensue. [2] Election-related websites, for instance, that are designed for distributing voter information, for enabling voter registration, or for casting ballots, continue to be vulnerable to malware, denial-of-service (DOS) and distributed DOS attacks. Underestimating the volume demands for website access for a major election can also gravely impair election outcomes and vitiate the election's legitimacy. Mitigations that reduce these threats to minute levels of potential impact are not available or foreseeable in the near future.

3.3 Private Vendors, Market Pressures and the Internet Security Information Gap. In addition to lacking computer security training, policymakers empowered to decide which election functions to automate using IT systems may well lack sufficient knowledge to evaluate the types and impacts of risks that are endemic to such systems. At least seven core insights are needed by those vested with decisional power concerning when and how the Internet shall be used in election functions.

- ***Pervasive software coding deficiencies and their election consequences:*** Sometimes popularly termed “bugs,” coding deficiencies have been identified as posing grave security consequences for all IT systems. [16], [17], [18] These coding errors open election software to easy, high impact attacks on election systems and data that may easily escape detection and redress. The errors can also lead to data inaccuracies and machine unreliability having no basis in deliberate attack.
- ***Internet transmitted malware and options to manipulate data speed:*** The worms, viruses and other ubiquitous malware can impair election functions, as can strategically timed high Internet data volume that can cause speed of transmissions to fall precipitously.
- ***Labeling election technology products and websites as “Secure” and “Reliable”:*** In contrast to the labeling requirements for prescription drugs, many food products, and dangerous chemicals, governments have generally not restricted vendors of software-based election technologies from using these quasi-scientific, psychologically seductive terms in their marketing literature and presentations. Even though the terms deceptively suggest compliance with accepted standards for security, governments have permitted their use.
- ***Re-transmitters' access and consequences for information privacy and security:*** Third-party re-transmission sites such as ISPs permit some ISP employees the access to read message contents. This intrusion does not require sophisticated technical abilities or equipment, but only a text viewer or word processing program. The fundamental insecurity of these transmissions means that email forgery or modification, identity theft, and business transaction interceptions are becoming major types of criminal fraud. The SERVE Report continues to stand as a comprehensive typology of Internet voting threat genre, most of which are insoluble with current architecture and engineering. [2]
- ***Encryption does not suffice:*** Data encryption is not a complete or effective mitigation for most threats Internet information transmissions pose for elections. [2]
- ***Concealed, untraceable attacks yet the appearance of information security:*** Attacks that disrupt election processes, or result in fraudulent election totals, may be completely hidden and untraceable. [2]
- ***Security mitigations and Internet re-engineering solutions that will achieve high assurance are not imminent:*** Funding entities such as the U.S. National Science Foundation are underwriting major research efforts to re-envision the Internet. [26] As a

result of this multi-faceted research, potentially radical revisions to Internet architecture, engineering, and communication protocols may occur. The transformations may, for instance, include multiple “Internets” with controlled network access and other enhanced technical security features. But these will not be available in the near future, and probably not for another decade or longer.

Even if current or future research endeavors successfully achieve high assurance security architecture and engineering, computer security science teaches that these do not comprise the entirety of factors relevant to evaluating information security risks. Computer and network security is not an output of merely technological attributes. Rather, physical security (such as locks on doors and surveillance cameras), staff expertise, staff continuing education and values commitment to security compliance, and other factors can play as significant a role in the security quotient as the technological features. [6] Further, physical, managerial, and staffing contexts within which the election technologies are deployed will not be static. Thus, threat analysis and policy formation must occur in a dynamic manner, a task that an effective elections cybersecurity agency should undertake.

4 A Governance System for Internet-Based Election Tasks?

Unquestionably, the Internet offers profound democratization and communicative benefits that should not be impeded⁴ without a sound basis in other fundamental democratic elections values. The Internet need not be placed off-limits to deployment in elections. However, the rapid commercialization of the Internet and World Wide Web in ways incompatible with individual and the larger public interest raises concerns that election processes could be similarly skewed. As Peter Neumann and others have noted, such incompatibilities have surfaced in domain name policy, spam, security, encryption, freedom of speech issues, privacy, content rating and filtering, and many other areas. [24], [25] The governance systems that determine how to use the Internet in election administration must have the capacity to evaluate the risks soberly without becoming enmeshed in overly rosy technological utopianism or subject to regulatory capture by for-profit vendors. The structure should require, and the governance culture embrace, the duty to protect the integrity of elections processes.

The proposal outlined here recommends a national regulatory apparatus that will not rely predominantly on issuance of rules and technical standards to be met, or particular product design. Rather, it should review and issue particularized decisions on whether an election office proposal for using Internet transmissions for a specified election task is permissible in light of all factors relevant to security based on layered defense. Thus, governance personnel would need to remain abreast of technical and security developments, and obtain information on staff education and security physical contexts, in order to decide the question before it.

The analogue in the Anglo-American legal system would be courts of chancery, where equitable review employed principles to guide wise decisions in light of all the facts, rather than use mandatory common law precedents to compel certain outcomes.

Recognizing that information security is one objective among many, the agency will need to be structured to maintain personnel with election administrative knowledge and not only those with technical and security training. The range of expertise would facilitate balancing the competing objectives of speed of transmission, low administrative costs, auditability, reliability, environmental impact, and voter convenience/access as against data security.

⁴ Michael Fromkin reviews strategies for achieving the communicative and democratizing opportunities the Internet offers as a part of his overall assessment of Internet governance structures. [21]

4.1 Regulatory Scope and Definitions. Elections cybersecurity⁵ recognizes that the election information systems hold valuable information that both outsiders and insiders may seek to compromise. The underlying policy objectives are to prevent or to neutralize potential negative consequences for voters and the election process because computers, networks, and information technology systems transmissions were used. The negative impact to be avoided may arise from deliberate attack, such as disruptions of electoral processes via DOS or viral attacks, and undesired intrusions that can produce fraudulent election records, such as by malware or unauthorized access to databases for manipulating voter registries or vote totals. Election cybersecurity also seeks to protect the personal and other data held within the election administrative system, where unauthorized access can lead to identity theft.

4.2 Principles for Trustworthy Public Elections. At present, the international community has not generated a common set of standards for democratic elections or even agreed on criteria for assessing the adequacy of election processes. The Carter Center's Democracy Program has urged the international community to recognize the need for election observation organizations to work collaboratively to build consensus on criteria for assessing elections, including electronic elections. Other commentators and courts have offered their views of fundamental election integrity principles based on the constitutional law of their nation. [27], [28], [30]

Increasingly, courts and commentators are urging that election law include as fundamental rights principles of transparency and public accountability for election processes. [29], [30] Germany's high court invalidated certain uses of computers in elections, resting its decision on the core requirement of election transparency to the public. The Court emphasized the "principle of the public... which prescribes that all essential steps of an election are subject to the possibility of public scrutiny unless other constitutional interests justify an exception." [30] In the Court's view, the voters themselves must be able to understand without detailed knowledge of computer technology whether their votes cast are recorded in an unadulterated manner as the basis of vote counting, or at any rate as the basis of a later recount. If the election result is determined through computer-controlled processing of the votes stored in an electronic memory, it is not sufficient if merely the result of the calculation process carried out in the voting machine can be taken note of by means of a summarizing printout or an electronic display.

Translating the core principles for trustworthy elections into computer security terminology, elections must maintain in demonstrable ways data integrity at all points in the process; assure the availability and functionality of registration, voting, and other mission critical election technical systems; and, provide accountability systems such as random post-election auditing that will provide public transparency and equipment checks. Election technology security and auditing features can be designed to help achieve each of these objectives, but often software vendors do not invest in developing effective security. As one computer security commentator has noted, "the buying public has no way to differentiate real security from bad security." [18] A better regulatory apparatus can facilitate product development that meets higher standards of software security in the elections arena, without the need for expanding use of product liability lawsuits for defective software products.

4.3 Recommendations for the Elections Cybersecurity Regulatory Structure and Powers. Legislative attention to seven discrete sets of issues will facilitate the structuring of a regulatory entity capable of achieving election cybersecurity.

⁵ "Election cybersecurity" encompasses the objectives of information and system security, reliability, and data integrity with regard to the computers and networks used to record, process, and report election-related information at all points in the electoral process. The term encompasses all electronic and electromagnetic communications including telephony, fax, and Internet, in each case inclusive of wired and wireless, analog and digital systems. The term reflects one facet of the more comprehensive systemic governmental duty to achieve election integrity.

4.3.1 Dynamic Decisionmaking. At the threshold level, two regulatory paths can be identified as potentially offering sufficient election cybersecurity policy determinations: (1) An aggressive, bright line approach leading to codification of a legal barrier to any use of digital equipment -- of equipment that depends on software and networks -- for any mission critical election task within the electoral jurisdiction; or (2) creation or revision of a regulatory apparatus that reviews applications and can authorize election administration to use digital equipment and networks for some election tasks under specified conditions.

While a complete barrier might appear to provide the most substantial election cybersecurity protection, its rigidity and overbreadth would render it an unstable policy approach. It would also invalidate many current practices without any review of the alternatives and their risk factors. Given that risks and technological options change over time, a more dynamic regulatory approach would be more prudent. The law could vest the regulatory entity (hereafter termed Board) with the authority to conduct comprehensive assessments in light of all relevant factors known when the application is reviewed. This approach would be more consistent with the dynamism of the technologies and risk environments, allow review of the applicant's most recent record on security policies implementation, and other facts.

4.3.2 National Supervisory Authority. Where the government must capably respond to external threats that are dynamic rather than static and that present threats to the entire nation, it is appropriate for the regulatory entity to be positioned at the national level. Economies of scale and heightened expertise can be achieved that preserve scarce resources. Given cybersecurity's dynamic set of serious threats, it is unrealistic to expect that local and Provincial/State governmental authorities will have the resources, the expertise, and the political will to invest in oversight of elections cybersecurity issues.

4.3.3 Structure and Staffing. A regulatory structure that can achieve diverse political involvement and public accountability combined with appropriate technical and elections expertise requires an independent Board with a professional staff. The Board should be carefully constructed with specific types of background and expertise required for appointees.

The formation statute could allocate to national legislative and executive leaders the power of appointing Board Members. It could vest legislative leaders of diverse major political parties with power to appoint some Members directly; these might include experienced election administrators and public interest advocates on election transparency, privacy and security issues.

To help achieve scientific-based judgments and appropriate qualifications, the statute Nominations of technical and security professionals as Board Members for a quantum of seats could be allocated to specific professional organizations as an extra assurance for appropriate expertise. Professional associations having expertise in the requisite areas, such as the ACM and the IEEE, could be vested with the power to nominate a short list of experts with statutorily specified credentials.⁶ The law could name a high official (e.g., President or Prime Minister) to review nominees and appoint them to office for a specified term. Serving at the mere pleasure of the appointing officials would not facilitate Board decision-making that is scientific and evidence-based, rather than a matter of political influence.

The Board's cybersecurity work would require a professional staff. In some nations including the U.S., elections administrative processes have often been staffed with political patronage appointees who sometimes lacked the skill set and knowledge base needed to run administratively competent

⁶ If international professional organizations such as the ACM, IEEE, and ISACA were each to develop the capacity for national divisions within specialized expertise, lodging nominating powers there might be less controversial.

and secure elections. A national elections cybersecurity Board can provide a counterbalance. The permanent staffing expertise could be specified by statute and direct that:

- Significant technical expertise be present (including network security, computer security, secure database and database management expertise, software development and testing, IT auditing and computer/voting system forensics);
- Significant election administration expertise be represented, preferably including experience in computer-based election technologies and records of achievement in implementing election security best practices, achieving a security culture, and establishing effective auditing and accountability systems;
- The Board and staff engage election officials “in the field” – in their election offices and on-site in actual elections -- and with States’ chief election officers to promote informational interchanges about the complexities and risks presented by election technologies and their possible mitigations;
- Board and staff executives have both information systems and security expertise in addition to election administrative experience;
- Board and staff satisfy high personal and professional ethics standards.

4.3.4 Sophisticated, Nuanced Cybersecurity Assessments. While renowned computer and network security experts appear to agree that security is not an abstract property of equipment or systems but a series of complicated tradeoffs, [6], [23], [34], structuring a regulatory agency to undertake informed, nuanced and voter-protective cybersecurity evaluations is a qualitatively different task than training individuals in these skills. Local, State or Provincial regulatory entities may be subject to political appointee leadership who lack critical knowledge or capacities for sound judgment. This problem can be exacerbated by regulated firms’ efforts to achieve “regulatory capture” with its industry-protective approaches. Flawed personnel decisions can also undermine the capacity for nuanced decisions needed in election cybersecurity.

Despite the risks that a national regulatory entity may not be staffed or structured well, the status quo presents too many risks for its continuation. Internet-based election activities and threats to election security have been expanding rapidly, yet the governance systems have not kept apace. Explicitly requiring specific expertise and heightened public accountability may enhance the likelihood that responsible staffing and nuanced, sound judgments will issue. By also choosing to continue the local and State/Provincial elections decision-making other than in the cybersecurity area, the national elections cybersecurity effort can focus its efforts narrowly and the nation can leverage for the public good the expertise at all levels of government. Local election officials will in turn not need to master the fine points of computer security and can focus on other aspects of the election process.

Given that effective computer security is virtually never strictly a property of technical equipment but rather a function of the interaction of people (including security training and practices), equipment features (such as avoidance of software coding errors known to introduce vectors for attack) and physical circumstances (including physical security, such as locks and video surveillance), regulatory systems dedicated to achieving data integrity and relatively high standards of information system security cannot evaluate only the equipment’s technical features. In the U.S., for instance, the Voluntary Voting System Guidelines and accompanying federal lab testing program commits precisely this error, among many others. [33] Highly laudable technical and network security features can be negated by human errors and omissions. Conversely, poorly designed software and other technical security deficiencies can be somewhat mitigated by security practices, including staff compliance assessments. [6] “Layered defense” security principles prescribe multiple levels and types of security mechanisms, to force an attacker to breach several rather than only one to compromise the system. The Board should be charged to evaluate all defensive layers when determining the acceptability of a proposed use of the Internet in election functions.

4.3.5 Initial Decisions and Burden of Proof. The Board will face threshold decisions concerning which election administrative or voting tasks that are currently using the Internet can continue to do so, and under what conditions. By contrast, the Help America Vote Act of 2002, [35] in some respects appears to assume that all election related activities can be securely conducted over the Internet -- a flawed assumption. [36] [2] The law could impose the burden of proof on the governmental applicant who seeks permission to utilize the Internet for election tasks. To obtain approval, the applicant could be required to demonstrate that the risks to election data security and integrity are highly remote and very low in potential impact. The risk of nonpersuasion would thereby be legally reposed in the applicant.

Another structural mechanism by which the voting public and election integrity would attain better protection is a requirement for a specified supermajority of Board members, for instance, 75% or 85% of the members, for a proposed elections use of the Internet to be approved as sufficiently secure.

4.3.6 Specific Powers and Duties. The Board could be vested with broader statutory authority to protect election security and integrity, including for instance:

- The authority to identify election practices and procedures, such as connecting an election tabulation server to the Internet, that present grave security threats, and have the power to require cessation of the practice;
- The power to issue binding technical, operational, and other *minimum* standards for each discrete election function that is permitted to be conducted over the Internet or other networks, and to bar functions if network involvement presents significant risks to the security, reliability, ballot secrecy, and accuracy of elections.

Legislation can remove from discretionary local and State/Provincial decision-making the technical options that imperil election integrity. The legislature need not conclude that voted ballots and vote tallies can never be securely transmitted over networks such as the Internet, but rather recognize that the array of prerequisites and resources required to effectively manage and respond to the dynamic development of cyber threats, such as exceptional expertise, contingency planning, ongoing training, and special equipment, does not warrant discretionary authority be placed outside the national Board. However, allowing local governments to exceed the levels of security beyond the national Board's requirements should continue within the permitted range of local decision-making so long as other election values are not unduly shortchanged.

4.3.7 Achieving Public Accountability and Effective Cybersecurity Compliance. To achieve transparency and accountability objectives, [37] the Board must be subject to "sunshine" laws that compel an agency to publicly post its activities, actions and documents and conduct its decision-making sessions in the public domain. These requirements would necessitate that security clearances and classified information not be presented to the Board.

To achieve the accountability needed for public confidence and legitimate elections, the elections cybersecurity statute should also:

- Authorize the Board's rulemaking powers to encompass procedures to guarantee meaningful end-to-end auditability and accountability for every ballot, including those transmitted electronically or electromagnetically;
- Vest the Board and the national Justice ministry with concurrent authority to commence an investigation into any violation of the elections cybersecurity rules;
- Direct the Agency to initiate a process by which citizens can provide notice to it of alleged violations of elections cybersecurity rules, shield their identity from public disclosure, and provide effective whistleblower protection from adverse employment consequences to those who report possible elections cybersecurity violations.

4.4 Transnational Cooperation. Internet and information security threats are systemic and world-wide. Sharing information on election cybersecurity risks and attempted attacks can augment mitigations and criminal prosecutions.

5 Conclusion

Internet security experts might analogize the Internet to a swiftly moving river within which information can be trapped or modified with the ease of trout fishing in a well-stocked backwoods stream. But at the elections policy and equipment procurement levels, the Internet security information gap means the Internet is hazily viewed as analogous to an armored currency delivery truck, protected by security guards who are trained and equipped with weapons befitting paramilitary officers. Thus protected, they mistakenly gauge as an extremely remote possibility the likelihood of intercepted or fraudulent election information “deliveries.”

The computerization and networking of critical governmental functions such as processes for conducting elections, and the serious Internet security information gaps, warrant innovative thinking and redesigned governmental structures if election legitimacy is to be maintained. Democratic republics must structurally assure that appropriate technical and security expertise plays a decisive role in policy decisions concerning election administrative use of the Internet. Nations must engage this expertise to determine under what circumstances vulnerable software-based technologies may permissibly be deployed in the high risk elections arena. Without technically grounded elections cybersecurity policy, other governmental efforts to achieve national security may be significantly impaired.

Acknowledgements. The author is indebted to Matt Bishop, David Jefferson, Barbara Simons, and Gene Spafford for comments related to this project and to research assistance by Pleurat Dreshaj.

References

1. Help America Vote Act (HAVA), 42 U.S.C. §§ 15301- 15545
2. Jefferson, D., Rubin, A. D., Simons, B. Wagner, D. , A Security Analysis of the Secure Electronic Registration and Voting Experiment (SERVE) (2004), <http://www.servesecurityreport.org/>
3. Pew Charitable Trusts, No Time to Vote: Challenges Facing America’s Overseas Military Voters 6 (2009), http://www.pewtrusts.org/our_work_report_detail.aspx?id=47922&category=488
4. Alvarez, R. M., Hall, T.E. Electronic Elections: The Perils and Promises of Digital Democracy (2008).
5. Operation Bravo Foundation, http://www.operationbravo.org/pilot_projects.html
6. Bishop, M., Overview of Red Team Reports, Office of the Secretary of State of California, 1500 11th St, Sacramento, CA 95814 (2007) http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/elections_vsr.htm
7. Bishop, M., Blaze, M., Vigna, G., et al., University of California Red Team Reports on Voting Systems (2007), http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/elections_vsr.htm
8. Hoke, C. and Kettyle, D., Documentation Assessment of the Diebold Voting System (2007). http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/elections_vsr.htm
9. Hall, J. L., Quilter L., Documentation Review of the Hart Intercivic System 6.2.1 Voting System, http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/elections_vsr.htm
10. Burstein, A. J., Good, N. S., Mulligan, D.S., Review of the Documentation of the Sequoia Voting System, http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/elections_vsr.htm
11. Bishop M., Wagner, D., Risks of E-Voting, Communications of the ACM, 50(11), p. 120 (Nov. 2007);
12. Neumann, P. Illustrative Risks to the Public in the Use of Computer Systems and Related Technology, 1.22 Election Problems <http://www.csl.sri.com/users/neumann/illustrative.html#25>

13. Bishop, M., Graff, M., Hoke, C., Jefferson, D., Peisert, S., Resolving the Unexpected in Elections: Election Officials' Options, Appendix 2: Partial List of Voting Systems Studies (Oct. 2008) <http://www.electionexcellence.org/>
14. Commission on Electronic Voting (Ireland), First Report (Dec. 2004) http://www.cev.ie/htm/report/first_report/part2_5.htm
15. Hoke, C., Public Monitor's Memorandum on Possible Legal Noncompliance in the November 2006 General Election at www.urban.csuohio.edu/cei
16. Experts Announce Agreement on the 25 Most Dangerous Programming Errors - And How to Fix Them: Agreement Will Change How Organizations Buy Software. <http://www.sans.org/top25errors/>
17. MITRE, Common Weakness Enumeration, www.cwe.mitre.org/top25/
18. Schneier, B., The Process of Security, Information Security Magazine, April 2000 <http://www.schneier.com/essay-062.html>
19. Regenscheid, A. & Hasting, N., A Threat Analysis on UOCAVA Voting Systems, NISTIR 7551, <http://vote.nist.gov/>
20. Bishop, M., Introduction to Computer Security (2004)
21. Froomkin, A. M., habermas@discourse.net: Toward a Critical Theory of Cyberspace, 116 Harv. L. Rev. 749 (2003).
22. Schwartz, P. M., Privacy and Democracy in Cyberspace, 52 Vanderbilt L. Rev. 1609, 1614 (1999)
23. Neumann, P. G., Illustrative Risks to the Public in the Use of Computer Systems and Related Technology, ACM SIGSOFT Software Engineering Notes 21:1 (1996), <http://portal.acm.org/citation.cfm?doid=381790.381797>
24. Neumann, P. G., Risks in Trusting Untrustworthiness, CACM 46: 9 (2003) <http://portal.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=903893.903924>
25. Cortorer, A., America's Newest State Holds America's Newest Election (May 2009) http://www.huffingtonpost.com/aaron-contorer/americas-newest-state-hol_b_203639.html
26. Workshop on GENI and Security, January 22–23, 2009, University of California at Davis, Davis, California, USA <http://seclab.cs.ucdavis.edu/meetings/genisec/>
27. The Carter Center, Democracy Program, Declaration of Principles for International Election Observation, <http://www.cartercenter.org/peace/democracy/des.html>
28. Jones, D., Developing a Methodology for Observing Electronic Voting, http://www.cartercenter.org/peace/democracy/des_e_voting.html (Oct. 2007).
29. Hoke, C., Trustworthy Elections? The Way Forward, http://fora.tv/2008/07/03/Candice_Hoke_Restoring_Legitimacy_to_Our_Election.
30. Federal Constitutional Court (Germany), Press Office, Use of Voting Computers in 2005 Bundestag Election Unconstitutional, No. 19/2009, 3 Mar 2009.
31. Tokaji, D., The Paperless Chase: Electronic Voting and Democratic Values, 73 Fordham L.R. 1 (2005).
32. Pinkerton, J. P., Will Democrats Become a Permanent Majority Thanks to Internet Voting? http://foxforum.blogs.foxnews.com/2009/05/26/pinkerton_democrats_internet/.
33. U.S. Election Assistance Commission, Voting System Test Laboratory Program Manual (July 2008, <http://www.eac.gov/program-areas/voting-systems/>
34. Schneier, B., Secrets and Lies: Digital Security in a Networked World 12, 15 (2000, 2004).
35. Help America Vote Act, 42 U.S.C. § 15385.
36. National Institute of Standards and Technology, Initial Project Plan for NIST UOCAVA Efforts, <http://www.eac.gov/program-areas/voting-systems/>
37. President Obama, Memorandum For The Heads Of Executive Departments And Agencies (Jan. 21, 2009) http://www.whitehouse.gov/the_press_office/Transparency_and_Open_Government/